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RISE AND GROWTH
OF THE
NORMAL-SCHOOL IDEA
IN THE
UNITED STATES.

BY

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cessfully embodying this idea in its method of work. The conception that teachers of higher grades of schools need professional preparation is embodied in college departments of pedagogy, and, therefore, a chapter is devoted to that subject. The conception that the institution which gives teachers thorough preparation should be a school of university grade is embodied in the normal idea, as it was attempted to be realized in the normal school at St. Cloud under the presidency of Mr. Gray. That idea, the author thinks, is true, but the attempt to realize it in an institution which undertakes to prepare teachers for elementary schools, must, in the nature of the case, in his opinion, be a failure. The New York College for the training of teachers is an attempt to embody this true idea without encumbering it with conditions that make its realization impossible. That institution clearly realizes that a school of university grade must require students of a university grade of preparation to avail themselves of its advantages."

The forgoing sketch will give a general idea of the conclusions reached in the circular, and it will explain the selection of the institutions included. If the reputation and excellence of training schools had been the determining reason for treating of them, some institutions would certainly have had a prominent place that are not mentioned in these pages.

Since this circular was prepared—about 18 months ago—numerous changes have taken place that point in the direction of a wider and more general recognition of the importance of education as a university study. The school of pedagogy in the Clark University, the reorganization of the Albany Normal School, the new departure taken by Harvard in the matter of pedagogy are among the suggestive signs of the times. They indicate, let us hope, that the time is not far distant when an untrained teacher will be considered a greater absurdity than an untrained doctor or lawyer."

Believing that the distribution of this work will do much to encourage those who look upon the teachers' vocation as a profession, and who labor to provide the means of a thorough preparation therefor, I have caused it to be published as a circular of information of this Bureau.

I have the honor to be, sir, very respectfully,

W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner,

HON. JOHN W. NOBLE,*
Secretary of the Interior.

RISE AND GROWTH OF THE NORMAL-SCHOOL IDEA

INTRODUCTION.

I find it hard to think myself into the state of mind of those educators who thought the only preparation required of a teacher is a knowledge of the subjects he undertakes to teach. I can only explain it as I explain the opinion which the schoolmen entertained of the relative velocities of falling bodies of different weights, by supposing that they never turned their mental gaze steadily upon the question. In the presence of facts which contradicted their theory every day of their lives, the schoolmen continued to believe it simply because they never considered the facts attentively. I think it must have been for some such reason that no educator in this country, up to about a hundred years ago, left behind him any evidence of believing that he thought any special preparation was required of teachers. The traditional notion of education having been that it consists in the possession of knowledge, the traditional opinion that all that was required to impart this knowledge was to possess it, was never questioned. As our forefathers could honestly say that all men are created free and equal, and fight in defense of their assertion with no consciousness of inconsistency while their plantations were tilled by their own slaves, because the idea that a negro is a man never fairly got into their minds, so teachers, who must have realized the value of experience, did not believe that their experience could be condensed into propositions and formulated into principles which intending teachers could profitably study, because the question never really occurred to them.

It is of course easy to see why such a question was less likely to be asked before we began our experiment of self-government. Before that time education was not a subject of such manifest and overriding importance as it has been since. The early settlers of New England did indeed set a high value upon it because of their religious opinions. They thought it of the utmost importance that all children should be able "to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of this country." But at a time when the necessities of life made

it incumbent to require the schoolmaster "to act as court messenger, to serve summonses, to conduct certain ceremonial services of the church, to lead the Sunday choir, to ring the bell for public worship, to dig the graves, to perform other occasional duties,"* as well as take charge of the school, it could hardly be expected that anybody should ask whether he might not have performed a particular set of his duties better if he had made careful preparation for them. No geography was studied in the common schools of New England until 1786 or 1787; no reading book, except the Bible, was used until the publication of Webster's "Third Part" in 1785; no history was studied before this century. When the masses were content to have their children learn a little reading and writing and arithmetic, and when they owed no manifest duties to society, the successful performance of which made further education an imperative necessity, it is easy to see why the question as to the proper preparation of teachers was not carefully considered. It was fit that the first great democrat, the first great man who really believed in the capacity of the people for self-government, should be the first great advocate of popular education in this country for other than religious reasons. Jefferson never asked himself our question because his entire energies in the direction of education were directed to the providing of schools. If he had lived in Massachusetts in the generation of Horace Mann he would have realized that the providing of schools is not all that is necessary to the education of a people.

* See Boone's "Education in the United States," p. 12, quotation from the "town book" of the statement of the duties of a New England schoolmaster in 1661.

CHAPTER I.

BEGINNINGS OF THE NORMAL IDEA IN THE UNITED STATES.

The first suggestion by an American educator which I have been able to find as to the need of more thoroughly trained teachers was made in the June number of the Massachusetts Magazine for 1789.* It is contained in an "Essay upon the Importance of Studying the English Language grammatically," and runs as follows:

Since education has been a question of much debate in this, as well as in many of the other States, and what method is best to be adopted in order to lessen every unnecessary expense, and yet to establish our schools on a more respectable footing, and to diffuse light and knowledge more universally among the people, I beg leave to suggest the following plan: As each town in this Commonwealth of more than 140 families is obliged by an act of the general court to support a public grammar school, in which you will very seldom find more than 3 or 4 boys studying the learned languages, and as these scholars are the only persons benefited by the extraordinary expense the town is at in obtaining a master qualified for the office, and as perhaps nine-tenths of the people of the State do not receive one shilling's advantage per annum by reason of the great distance they live from the several schools, I think to annihilate all the Latin grammar schools and establish one in each county will render more essential service to the community and fix the schools on a more respectable footing than any plan that has yet been suggested. My idea of the matter is simply this: That there should be a public grammar school established in each county of the State, in which should be taught English grammar, Latin, Greek, rhetoric, geography, mathematics, etc., in order to fit young gentlemen for college and school keeping. At the head of this county school I would place an able preceptor, who should superintend the whole instruction of the youth committed to his care, and who, together with a board of overseers, should annually examine young gentlemen designed for schoolmasters in reading, writing, arithmetic, and English grammar, and if they are found qualified for the office of school-keeping and able to teach these branches with ease and propriety, to recommend them for this purpose. No man ought to be suffered to superintend ever so small a school except he has been first examined by a body of men of this character and authorized for this purpose. And I am sure it is no vanity in me to think that were our petty grammar schools annihilated and one established in each county as a substitute, instead of our common schools, kept by a set of ignorammuses, who obtrude themselves upon the people a few months at a time, without the requisite abilities or qualifications, we should have a worthy class of teachers, regularly introduced and examined, and should soon see the happy effects resulting from this noble plan.

This recommendation is noteworthy for two reasons: In the first place, it recognizes the importance of institutions which have as one of their

* Barnard says by Elisha Ticknor, but according to a writer in the fourth volume of Horace Mann's *Confessions of a School Journal*, that is a mere inference, probable, indeed, but by no means certain.

distinct objects the preparing of young gentlemen for "school-keeping;" in the second place, although the preparation contemplated is altogether in the line of scholarship, yet it is admitted by implication that such preparation is not all that is required, for the board of examiners are to examine them not only to ascertain whether "they are found qualified for the office of school-keeping"—i. e., so far as scholarship is concerned—but whether they are able to teach the branches they propose to teach with "ease and propriety." From the perception that scholarship is not all that is required to make a successful teacher, it is but a single step to the perception that the something more may, to a considerable extent, be acquired by special preparation.

In 1816 Denison Olmstead, afterwards professor of natural philosophy and astronomy in Yale College, delivered an oration at the commencement exercises of that institution on "The State of Education in Connecticut." In this oration he outlined his plan of "an academy for schoolmasters," and stated the steps that led him to his conception. The following extract will explain it:

My course as a teacher began with a small district school when I was 17 years of age and while fitting for college. I had there a full opportunity to become acquainted with the state of education as it existed in our village schools. On leaving college in 1813 I renewed the profession of teacher by taking charge of Union School at New London. This was a select school supported by a few of the first families of the place, who desired to obtain for their sons a superior training for business or for college, according to their destination in life. * * * The proprietors desiring to have their sons educated exclusively at that school after leaving the rudimentary female schools, introduced them at the early age of 8 or 9 years, and kept them there until they went to business or to college. The number was limited to thirty, but the variety of age and the different professions in life for which they were destined occasioned an unusual range of studies. Some were in the spelling books, some in English grammar and geography; some in the languages, from Latin grammar to Virgil's Georgics and Xenophon's Anabasis, and some in different branches of mathematics, from simple arithmetic to algebra, surveying, and navigation. * * *

I had here full opportunity of comparing the effect of different courses of study upon lads of similar age, and soon discovered a marked difference in intelligence and capacity between those who were studying the languages and mathematics preparatory to entering college, and devoted only a small portion of every day to the common rudiments, as English grammar, geography, reading, writing, and spelling, and those who spent all their time in those elementary studies. I was surprised to find that the former excelled the latter even in the knowledge of these very studies. They read better, spelt better, wrote better, and were better versed in grammar and geography. One inference I drew from this observation was that an extended course of studies, proceeding far beyond the simple rudiments of an English education, is not only consistent with acquiring a good knowledge of those rudiments, but is highly favorable to it, since on account of the superior capacity developed by the higher branches of study the rudiments may be better learned in less time; and a second inference was, that nothing was wanted in order to raise all our common branches to a far higher level, so as to embrace the elements of English literature, of the natural sciences, and of the mathematics, but competent teachers and the necessary books.

I was hence led to the idea of a "seminary for schoolmasters," to be established at the expense of the State, where the instruction, at least, should be gratuitous. It was to be under the direction of a principal and an assistant, the principal to be a

man of liberal education, of a high order of talent, and an experienced and successful teacher. The assistant was to be well versed in the English branches of education at least. The course of study was to occupy from 1 to 2 years, and candidates were to be admitted only after an approved examination. The pupils were to study and recite whatever they were themselves afterwards to teach, partly for the purpose of acquiring a more perfect knowledge of these subjects, and partly of learning from the methods adopted by the principal the best modes of teaching. It was supposed that but a small portion of time would be required to be spent upon the simple rudiments, but that the greater part might be devoted to English grammar, and geography, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and such works as Blair's Rhetoric, studies adapted to improve the taste and make correct and accomplished writers. Ample instructions also were to be given by the principal on the organization and government of a school.

This plan, it will be noted, distinctly recognizes the necessity of professional or extra-academic training. Intending teachers are to receive ample instructions "on the organization and government of a school."

In 1823 Prof. James L. Kingsley, of Yale College, in an article on the "School Fund and the Common Schools of Connecticut," in the April number of the North American Review, made the following suggestion:

Let a superior school, intermediate between the common schools and the university, be maintained in each county of the State, where all of those who aspire to teach in the common schools may be themselves thoroughly instructed. Such a measure would give new vigor to the whole system of education. The board of visitors, which now decides on the qualifications of instructors, must be, in most instances, a very imperfect check on the intrusion of ignorance. The teachers, it is understood, have now very seldom any other preparation than they receive in the very school where they afterwards instruct, or in the school of some neighboring district, where the advantages for improvement are no better.

In a pamphlet entitled "Suggestions on Education," published in August of the same year, William Russell,* then principal of an academy in New Haven, emphasized the importance of a seminary for teachers as follows:

The common schools for children are, in not a few instances, conducted by individuals who do not possess one of the qualifications of an instructor, and, in very many cases, there is barely knowledge enough to keep the teacher at a decent distance from his scholars. An excellent suggestion was lately made on a branch of this subject by a writer in a periodical publication. [He is referring to Professor Kingsley's articles.] His proposal was that a seminary should be founded for the teachers of district schools; that a course of study should be prescribed to persons who are desirous of obtaining the situation of teachers in such schools; and that no individual should be accepted as an instructor who has not received a license or degree from the proposed institution. The effects of such an improvement in education seem almost incalculable. The information, the intelligence, and the refinement which might thus be diffused among the body of the people would increase the prosperity, elevate the character, and promote the happiness of the nation to a degree perhaps unequalled in the world.

But in March of that same year (1823) Mr. Samuel R. Hall took a

* Mr. Russell was the first editor of the American Journal of Education. During the 3 years of his editorship he improved every opportunity to bring the subject of teachers' seminaries before his readers.

decided step in advance by actually opening in Concord, Vt., a school for the training of teachers. Sent there as a preacher by the Domestic Missionary Society of Vermont, he consented to grant the request of the people to remain on condition that he be allowed to open a school for the benefit of intending teachers. He admitted a class of young pupils in order that he might illustrate his ideas as to the proper method of teaching and governing a school. Without a book or a periodical on the subject of education to guide him, he had to rely entirely on his own reflections and experience in his pedagogical instruction. But in his first school, in Bethel, Me., in 1815, he showed his capacity in that direction. Soon after he took charge of it he attempted to introduce some improvements, among which was the writing of compositions, a requirement which had never been heard of in a district school before by either teacher, pupils, or parents. The pupils objected and their parents took sides with them. Young Hall requested both parents and pupils to meet him and hear his reasons for believing in the practicability and usefulness of such an exercise. They came, and after he had stated his reasons he allowed his pupils to decide whether they would write them or not. When the appointed day arrived every one, among them a little girl of 11, had a composition written. A man of such resources and ability, with nearly 8 years of experience behind him, would be sure to have something to say on the subject of methods of teaching and governing, even without the aid of books. And so he prepared a series of talks, which some of his friends urged him to publish. Acceding to their request, "Lectures on School Keeping" appeared in 1829. A first and second edition were soon exhausted, and soon after the superintendent of common schools in the State of New York ordered an edition of 10,000 copies for distribution to all the school districts of that State. About the same time the committee on education in the State of Kentucky recommended that every teacher in the State be supplied with a copy at the public expense. These facts indicate how widespread the feeling was getting to be that teachers need professional training. The book itself is of special interest to us, not only as the first book on the subject of teaching ever written in this country, but as enabling us to see the kind of instruction which the first students in what might fairly be called the first normal school received. It is a sound and sensible discussion of the art of teaching, which young teachers to-day could read with great profit.*

*The following brief outline of its contents, published in the fifth volume of *Barnard's Journal*, may be of interest: Lecture I. Indifference to the importance, character, and usefulness of common schools; its origin and influence. II. Obstacles to the usefulness of common schools. III. Requisite qualifications of teachers. IV. Nature of the teacher's employment; responsibility of the teacher; importance of realizing and understanding it. V. Gaining the confidence of the school; means of gaining it; the instructor should be willing to spend all of his time when it can be rendered beneficial to the school. VI. Government of a school; prerequisites; manner of treating scholars; uniformity in government; firmness. VII. Government, continued; partiality; regard to

Mr. Hall continued to teach in Concord until July, 1830. In September of that year he opened an institution of the same sort in Andover, and he remained in charge of it until 1837, when he opened another in Plymouth, which he conducted until 1840.

James G. Carter, called by Professor Emerson, the "Father of Normal Schools," and to whom, says Barnard, "more than to any other one person, belongs the credit of having first arrested the attention of the leading minds of Massachusetts to the necessity of the immediate and thorough improvement in the system of free or public schools and of having clearly pointed out the most direct and thorough mode of procuring this improvement by providing for the training of competent teachers for these schools," elaborated his plan in a series of essays published in the *Boston Patriot* in the winter of 1824-25. The three characteristic features of the American normal school of to-day—a thorough grounding in the subjects the student is preparing to teach, a course of study upon the science and art of education, and a practice school—these were the characteristics of the training school which Mr. Carter urged upon the people of Massachusetts. His plan attracted a great deal of attention. The leading newspapers all over the country called attention to it. The *Literary Gazette* published an able and favorable review of the essays, and in 1827 Professor Ticknor published an article based upon them in the *North American Review*. In 1827 he opened a school for the training of teachers in Lancaster, and memorialized the Massachusetts legislature for aid. The committee to which his memorial was referred reported favorably, and a bill making an appropriation was lost by a single vote in the senate. The same year the people of the town of Lancaster appropriated a piece of land and gave him the use of a building to assist him in carrying out his plan, but not thoroughly comprehending it, they soon began to throw obstacles in his way, so that he was obliged to abandon it, though he continued for many years to give instruction to private pupils, many of whom became successful teachers. At the first session of the American Institute of Instruction, which he assisted in founding, he delivered a lecture on "The Development of the Intellectual Faculties," and at the next, one on "The Necessity and Most Practicable Means of Raising the Qualifications of Teachers." In 1835 he was elected a member of the legislature, and in 1836, as chairman of the committee on education, he urged the establishment of a seminary for the professional training of teachers. In 1837 he drew the bill providing for the State board of education, and in 1838 his

the future as well as present welfare of the scholars; mode of intercourse between teacher and scholars, and between scholars; punishments; rewards. VIII. General management of a school; direction of studies. IX. Mode of teaching; manner of illustrating subjects; spelling; reading. X. Arithmetic, geography, English grammar, writing, history. XI. Composition; general subjects not particularly studied; importance of improving opportunities when deep impressions are made on the minds of the school. XII. Means of exciting the attention of scholars; such as are to be avoided; such as are safely used. XIII. To female instructors.

speeches probably turned the scale in favor of the passage of the normal-school act.

On the 4th of January, 1825, Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet published the first of a series of essays on a "Plan of a Seminary for the Education of the Instructors of Youth." These essays were published in a pamphlet in Boston the same year, and attracted a good deal of attention in New England generally. The newspapers published selections from them and the plan was discussed in the educational conventions which met in Hartford in 1828 and 1830. They were abridged and published in the "Annals of Education" in 1831 and in the Common School Journal in 1838. The following extract from the abridgment will give a clear idea of his plan:

Let an institution be established in every State for the express purpose of training for the profession of instructors of youth in the common branches of an English education. Let it be so well endowed by the liberality of the public, or of individuals, as to have two or three professors, men of talents and habits adapted to the pursuit, who should devote their lives to the object of the "theory and practice" of the education of youth, and who should prepare and deliver and print a course of lectures on the subject. Let the institution be furnished with a library which shall contain all the works, theoretical and practical, in all languages that can be obtained on the subject of education, and also with all the apparatus that modern ingenuity has devised for this purpose, such as maps, charts, globes, orreries, etc.

Let there be connected with the institution a school, smaller or larger, as circumstances might dictate, in which the theories of the professors might be reduced to practice, and from which daily experience would derive a thousand useful instructions.

To such an institution let young men resort who are ready to devote themselves to the business of instructors of youth. Let them attend a regular course of lectures on the subject of education, read the best works, take their turns in the instruction of the experimental school, and after thus becoming qualified for their office leave the institution with a suitable certificate or diploma recommending them to the confidence of the public.

The same year (1825) Walter R. Johnson, of Germantown, Pa., published a pamphlet of 28 pages entitled "Observations on the Improvement of Seminaries of Learning in the United States; with Suggestions for its Accomplishment." The principal suggestions for the improvement of schools was the establishment of schools for teachers. The following extract contains the essential features of his plan:

It is proposed to afford, by the institutions in question, an opportunity to those who are designed for teachers of making themselves theoretically and practically acquainted with the duties which they will be called upon to discharge before they enter upon the performance of their trusts. In order, however, to afford illustrations of the principles of education it is indispensable that practice should be added to precept, and that, too, in situations favorable to the operations of those causes which display both the powers of the mind and the peculiarities of the several departments of science and art. The school for teachers, then, ought not to be an insulated establishment, but to be connected with some institution where an extensive range in the sciences is taken, and where pupils of different classes are pursuing the various departments of education adapted to their respective ages. The practice of superintending, of arranging into classes, instructing and governing, ought to form one part of the duty of the young teacher. The attending of lectures on the science of men-

tal development and the various collateral topics should constitute another. An extensive course of reading and study of authors who have written with ability and practical good sense on the subject would be necessary in order to expand the mind and free it from those prejudices which on this subject are apt to adhere even to those persons who fancy themselves furthest removed from their influence. * * * That class of prejudices in particular which arises from a disposition to form or adopt fanciful theories not reducible to practice would be corrected by reading the kind of authors here recommended, and the same effect would be insured by adhering in the choice of lecturers to those who, added to a truly philosophical character, have possessed an extensive experience in *the duties of instruction*. Should it be necessary there might also be provision for the pursuit of other sciences in addition to that of teaching by those who are preparing for that office. A perfect plan for the education of teachers and professors would require that the institution with which the school for teachers is proposed to be connected should embrace a complete circle of the sciences and arts, and that a professor should be appointed to lecture on the mode of teaching in each separate department.

But the expense makes that impracticable, so he thinks that—

It would be desirable, at least for the present, to extend the plan no further than to comprehend—

I. A course of lectures and practical illustrations on the subject of intellectual philosophy, as connected with the science of education.

II. A course on physical education.

III. On the mode of conveying instruction in the exact and physical sciences, and the various descriptive and mechanic arts.

IV. On the manner of teaching languages, belles-lettres, history, and, in general, all those branches commonly classed under the philological department.

* * * The first course would embrace the subjects of resemblances and differences in the capacities of different individuals; the proper season for developing each faculty; the kind of study adapted to produce that development; the intermixture of different pursuits suitable to store and discipline the mind at different ages; the anomalies of talent which have been noticed or recorded, and their causes so far as known; the influence of moral causes upon the intellectual character of youth; and, in general, the effects of all the various departments of science, literature, and arts, and of the different modes of presenting them to the mind, towards perfecting the human understanding and character.

The second of the above-mentioned courses would include all that relates to the management of infancy, the personal habits, form, physiognomy, and health of children and youth, and their different capabilities of learning, so far as affected or indicated by these circumstances; the manners, exercises, amusements, indulgences of young persons, especially when employed in their education; the time and manner of attending to study, conveniences for private study and public recitation; arrangement of class rooms for different purposes, to be illustrated by drawings; the maintenance of order and expedients for enforcing it, together with the nature and application of stimulants, rewards, and punishments, and the temper, language, and general demeanor of instructors.

The last course would comprise directions to professors and teachers in a great diversity of branches, including not only the subjects usually taught at seminaries of learning, but also those which pertain to the several learned professions. Among these may be mentioned rhetorical reading, composition, logic, metaphysics, foreign and learned languages, history, chronology, law, theology, and medicine.

The auditors ought to receive advice and instruction from the lecturers in respect to their course of reading on the several topics presented in the lectures, and be arranged and taught as their own pupils are to be afterwards, in classes according to their several capacities and attainments. As the auditors are supposed to be en-

gaged a part of their time in the practice of instructing, it will become the duty of the lecturers to attend and observe their mode of conducting the exercises of their respective classes, and to comment upon it at subsequent lectures; affording to all an opportunity for free discussion and candid interchange of opinions on every topic arising out of the practice of a teacher. The course here marked out might probably, with the time taken up in practical teaching, occupy at least one year, and at the expiration of that time a certificate might be given to each individual, stating the length of time he had employed, the qualifications he had exhibited, and the success he had attained in the several branches of instruction. It is, however, presumed that in this case the candidates for approbation had come to the institution well-grounded in all those branches of learning of which they proposed to become teachers; otherwise, a longer time might be required. In the former case, the instructions given them by lecturers on education would have for their object to render them more familiar with the several subjects, by frequent and careful revisions. In addition to this, some well-digested treatise on the subject of education might be selected and studied—recitations being conducted after the manner of those in history or ethics. The lecturers might further be serviceable to the cause of education by establishing and conducting, on liberal and philosophical principles, a journal to be devoted to that subject, and to embrace such kinds and varieties of objects as might render it instructing and entertaining to youth, to parents, and to instructors.*

I make this long quotation not only because it illustrates the shape the normal idea was taking in the minds of the leading educators of the time, but because of the high ideal of professional training and culture which it sets forth. Few, indeed, are the principals of normal schools and the professors of pedagogy who would not find it worth while to give it careful study. It is more than doubtful if any institution in the country has realized so high an ideal as that conceived by this young Pennsylvania principal in the year 1825.

The same year Dr. Philip Lindsley, in an address which he delivered on assuming the presidency of Cumberland College, in Nashville, Tenn., advocated a teacher's seminary, urging that a teacher needs training for his work as imperatively as the lawyer and doctor. The next year he plead for seminaries for teachers before the legislature of Tennessee.

In 1826 Governor De Witt Clinton, in his message to the legislature of the State of New York, recommended the establishment of a seminary for teachers, and the same year Hon. John C. Spencer made an able report on the same subject in the senate of that State.

In 1826, and again in 1827, Governor Lincoln, of Massachusetts, in his annual message, urged upon the legislature the importance of making provision for the training of teachers.

In 1833 Dr. George Junkin, president of Lafayette College, wrote a letter to Mr. Samuel Breck, chairman of the joint committee of the legislature on education, recommending the providing in existing colleges of a course for teachers, the common school of the town to serve as a school of daily observation and practice. Rev. Chauncey Colton, president of Bristol College, recommended substantially the same plan in a letter of the same date to the same committee.

The next year Samuel Breck urged upon the legislature the engraft-

* He advocated the same plan before a committee of the legislature in 1833.

ing of a "teacher's course" in existing colleges and academies, and the establishment of "model schools" in connection with them.

In October, 1836, a public meeting in Philadelphia, called to consider the condition and improvement of institutions of public instruction in Pennsylvania, recommended a "plan for a teachers' seminary and for a board of public instruction." The plan was based on the teachers' seminaries of Prussia and France and Mr. Hall's seminary at Andover. It proposed an independent institution, a 3-years' course of study, with opportunities for practice in a model school.

The same year Thomas M. Burrowes, secretary of state and *ex officio* superintendent of common schools, in his report to the legislature, urged that body to appropriate \$10,000 for the establishment of two institutions, one in each end of the State, under the care of two of the colleges, for the preparation of common-school teachers. The next year he repeated his recommendation for provision for training of teachers, but suggested that the institutions should not be attached to any college, and that they should devote themselves exclusively to the preparation of teachers. In his next report his suggestion takes the form of an emphatic recommendation; and he recommends, also, that the model schools be composed of the brightest pupils, admitted free from all parts of the State.

In 1827 the American Institute of Instruction memorialized the legislature of Massachusetts, praying that provision be made for the better preparation of the teachers of the schools of the Commonwealth.

This brief survey enables us to see how prevalent the feeling was getting to be that teachers need thorough professional training, when the first normal school was opened in Massachusetts in 1839. Born, so to speak, in this country not far from 1820, the normal idea had grown so rapidly and been so prolific that it was in a fair way to become the common property of educated minds when that little group of three pupils met at the opening of the first normal school in Lexington. How shall we account for these facts? How shall we explain this sudden perception of a state of things which in truth had existed for a long time without attracting anybody's attention? What were the influences which led men to turn their eyes in a direction in which they had never looked before, and consequently to see what they had never seen before?

One of them, undoubtedly, was the teachers' seminaries in Europe, particularly in Prussia. The idea that teachers need professional training was indeed very old in Europe in 1820. Originated by Mulcaster in England in 1561, it was bodiless, so to speak, without an institution in which to live, until La Salle founded his school at Rheims in 1681, which he developed in 1684 into the Institute of the Brothers of the Christian Schools. But professional schools for the training of teachers lived a very precarious life in Europe for a long time. After the Institute of the Brothers of the Christian Schools, the next one was

founded by Augustus Hermann Francke. In 1697 he formed a teachers' class, composed of poor students, in connection with his orphan school at Halle, who gave him certain assistance in return for their board and tuition. In 1704 he selected twelve of these because of their piety, knowledge, and aptness to teach, and constituted them his "Seminarium Præceptorum," or "Teacher's Seminary." Not till 31 years after—in 1735—was the first regular seminary for teachers established in Pomerania, Prussia, by Hecker, a pupil of Francke, and the second at Berlin, as a private school, in 1748. In 1754 Frederick the Great raised it to the rank of a royal primary school for the education of teachers and parish clerks, and the same year he directed that all of both these classes, appointed by the crown, should be selected from the students of this institution. But the Seven Years' War, which broke out soon after, absorbed all his energies, and he seems to have given no more attention to the subject of normal schools during the rest of his reign. Shortly after his death the French revolution began, and in the terrible struggle with France which followed it, Prussia had neither time nor money to devote to institutions for the training of teachers. But after the battle of Jena, in 1806, when she was drinking to the dregs the cup of humiliation, it occurred to some of her leading men that the regeneration of the nation was to be sought in education. Accordingly, in 1808, the education department was made a section of the home office, and William von Humboldt was placed at the head of it. "The thing is not," said he about this time, "to let the schools and universities go on in a drowsy and impotent routine; the thing is to raise the culture of the nation ever higher and higher by this means.*" When such a spirit animated the head of the department of education,† we may be sure that no pains would be spared to give teachers thorough preparation for their work, and so in 1819 the present system of state normal schools was established in Prussia.

This brief sketch of the history of training schools for teachers in Europe enables us to see how it was that although they had been established in Europe nearly a century and a half before, they did not begin to attract the attention of American educators until towards the close of the first quarter of this century. Up to 1819 they lived a very retired and precarious life. But when they became a part of the school system of one of the great states of Europe, they naturally attracted the attention of educators all over the world. Professor Johnson alludes to them in his pamphlet which was published in 1825. "Travels in the North of Germany in 1825-26," written by Henry E. Dwight, and published in New York in 1829, contained an account of the Prussian seminaries for teachers, and urged their establishment in this country.

* See Matthew Arnold's "Higher Schools and Universities in Germany," p. 45.

† He remained at the head of the department but one year and a half, but in that time he seems to have exerted a lasting influence on the educational institutions of Prussia.

In 1829 Mr. Woodbridge, afterwards editor of "Annals of Education," was planning, with the assistance of Mr. Gallaudet, the establishment of a teachers' seminary in Hartford, after the Prussian model. In 1831, as editor of the "Annals," he remarked that "in those of the countries of Europe where education has taken its rank as a science, it is almost as singular to question the importance of a preparatory seminary for teachers, as of a medical school for physicians;" and in the June number of the same journal, the same year, he published an account of the Prussian seminaries for teachers, translated from a German periodical. In 1835 J. Orville Taylor, of New York, published a translation of Cousin's "Report on Public Instruction in Germany." In August of the same year, Mr. George S. Hilliard read a paper before the American Institute of Instruction on "Public Instruction in Prussia," prepared by Miss Eliza Robbins from Cousin's report, which was published the next year by Key & Biddle, of Philadelphia, in a duodecimo volume of 180 pages, with accounts of the normal schools at Potsdam, Stettin, and Hastadie.

But unquestionably, the man who did most to disseminate the knowledge of the Prussian teachers' seminaries among the people of Massachusetts and New England, and to convince them of their fundamental importance, was Mr. Charles Brooks. In the summer of 1834 he became thoroughly acquainted with the Prussian system through Dr. H. Julius, of Hamburg, and, to use his own language, he fell in love with it, and "resolved to do something about State normal schools." Cousin, whom he knew personally, and to whom he made known his plans, approved of them heartily and sent him his histories of the Prussian, Hollandaise, and Bavarian systems of education, and especially normal schools. He made a thorough study of them, and so in 1835 he felt that he was ready to begin his campaign. Accordingly, in a Thanksgiving sermon, delivered to the people of Hingham, he explained the Prussian system of state normal schools, declaring his opinion that it was "to make a new era in the public elementary education of the United States."

He prepared three "enormously long lectures," in the first describing minutely the Prussian state system; in the second, showing how it could be adopted in Massachusetts, and how it would effect every town, every school, and every family in the State; in the third, showing that all these results could be realized by establishing State normal schools and could not be realized without them.

Without consulting with anyone outside of his own family he issued a circular, under his own name, to the inhabitants of Plymouth County, explaining his plans and inviting the friends of school reform to convene in Plymouth, in court week, to consider the matter. He sent copies of this circular to every board of selectmen, every school committee, and every clergyman in the county, and requested the clergymen to read it to their congregations the following Sunday. The result was that a very large audience met him at the appointed time and place, and so powerful

was the impression which he made that Ichabod Morton, esq., arose and said:

Mr. President, I am glad to see this day. The work is well begun. The mass of facts now presented to us so plainly proves conclusively the inestimable value of teachers' seminaries. Mr. Brooks says he wants the first one established in the old colony, and so do I, sir, and I will give \$1,000 toward its establishment.

Mr. Brooks had a notice of this offer published in every newspaper in Massachusetts. He called and attended numerous conventions. He gave public notice (in 1836) that he would lecture on the Prussian system of elementary instruction anywhere in the State, upon condition that he would not under any circumstances receive any compensation for his lectures or traveling expenses. In response to this notice invitations "rushed in from every part of Massachusetts," and he set out upon his missionary tour, riding in his chaise over 2,000 miles in the course of the next two years. In addition to his lectures and speeches he "kept up as constant a succession of articles in the newspapers" as he could. In response to a unanimous request by the house of representatives he delivered two of his lectures before them in January, 1837, and urged immediate action. He lectured also before the legislatures of Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, and New Jersey, and in the principal cities and towns of these and other States.

In 1836 the legislature of the State of Ohio requested Prof. Calvin E. Stowe to act as its agent in visiting European, and particularly Prussian, schools. In his report, he gave a full description of the teachers' seminaries of Prussia, and urged their establishment in Ohio. His report was published in 1837, and was republished by the legislatures of Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Massachusetts, Virginia, and Michigan. Professor Bache, of Girard College, also visited the schools of Europe in 1836, and upon his return published a volume of 600 pages on "European Educational Institutions," the ninth chapter of which he devoted to "Seminaries for the Education of Teachers for Primary Schools." In 1835 Dr. Julius' outline of the Prussian system of educating teachers was published with the legislative documents of Massachusetts and New York.*

But although European, and particularly Prussian, institutions exerted a powerful influence in developing and diffusing the normal idea in this country it is tolerably certain that the idea in this country was not in the first place borrowed from Europe. From Denison Olmstead's account of how he came to think of his plan of "An Academy for Schoolmasters" it is evident that in 1816 he had no knowledge of similar institutions in Europe. It is altogether improbable, also, that Samuel R. Hall knew anything about them when he opened the first school for the training of teachers in this country. Mr. Woodbridge said that Mr.

*It was originally published in Massachusetts along with the report of the committee on education recommending the establishment of a school for the training of teachers.

Gallaudet's essay on this subject, published, it will be remembered, in 1825, "arose from his own reflections without any knowledge of foreign institutions of this kind."* These facts seem to show that what the influence of European training schools accomplished was to strengthen and accelerate a movement which had an independent origin.

Its origin, I believe, was due to the increased attention which men were giving to the subject of education, and to their reflections upon the means of making it more universal. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the party which had charge of the Government for the first 12 years of our national existence did not believe in a democratic form of government. Hamilton wanted an aristocratic republic, and, failing in that, he endeavored by his financial policy to bring the wealth of the country to the support of the Government. He did not believe in the capacity of the people for self-government. "The people," he is reported to have said at a dinner, "the people is a great beast." The whole strength of his wonderful genius was exerted in devising ways and means for making a stronger government than the framers of the Constitution intended to make, in order that it might be strong enough to hold the people in check.

As was Alexander Hamilton, so was the Federalist party. Accepting a republican form of government rather as a necessity than as a thing in itself desirable, the able men of the party had little interest in plans for educating the masses of the people, because they felt them to be inherently impracticable, and necessarily visionary.

But there were much stronger reasons which prevented thoughtful men from giving that attention to education in the first 25 years of our national existence which its importance in general, and particularly in a republican form of government, demands. The people of the thirteen States accepted the Constitution of 1787, not because they wanted to, but because they had to. Necessity, stern and implacable, presented them the alternatives of a stronger government or anarchy. "The Constitution," says John Quincy Adams, "was extorted from the grinding necessities of a reluctant people." Uniting thus through necessity, it is safe to say that the vast majority of the people of both parties had very great doubts as to the permanence of the Union. "When the Constitution was adopted by the votes of States at Philadelphia," says Henry Cabot Lodge, "and accepted by the votes of States in popular conventions, it is safe to say that there was not a man in the country from Washington and Hamilton on the one side, to George Clinton and George Mason on the other, who regarded the new system as anything but an experiment entered upon by the States, and from which each and every State had the right peaceably to withdraw, a right which was very likely to be exercised."† With such feelings as to the permanence of the Union, men were not likely to spend their energies in

* See *Annals of Education*, vol. I, p. 24.

† Daniel Webster, by Henry Cabot Lodge, page 176.

devising ways and means for strengthening the Government which would only bear fruit in the remote future. As a man who rents a farm for a year is not likely to trouble himself to set out an orchard for some one else to reap the benefits of, so the men of that time, even those most ardently devoted to the Union, found their interest rather in strengthening the Government in the immediate future, than in occupying themselves with plans that could only bear fruit after the lapse of a generation.

Moreover, the bitterness of party passion and the intensity of party conflicts absorbed men's energies for the first 25 years of our national history. Divided for the first four years on financial questions, and for the next twenty on questions of foreign policy, the two parties fought each other with a bitterness rarely equaled and certainly never excelled during the whole course of our history.

But with the close of the war of 1812 a new era dawned. Then the belief in the capacity of the people for self-government first became the creed of the nation and not of a few advanced thinkers only like Jefferson. The Democratic party—the only party practically for 18 years after the war of 1812—through the influence largely of such men as Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun* had become a national party. With no questions of importance as to foreign policy to distract their attention, patriotic and philanthropic men were left free to give their thoughts to questions for elevating the masses of the people, and fitting them for the responsible task of self-government. A genuine national patriotism had been born, and with the love of the whole country came the desire for the perpetuity of the Union. This naturally led to reflections upon the means of making it perpetual. The result was what has well been called the “revival of education.”†

Perhaps the movement in the direction of the professional training of teachers will be better understood if we glance rapidly at some of the leading phases of this revival. Note, first, the number of States which established or revised their public school systems about this time: Kentucky, in 1821 and 1828; Maine, in 1821; Alabama, in 1823; Maryland, Wisconsin, and Ohio, in 1828; Connecticut, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Vermont, Rhode Island, New York, Virginia, Delaware, and South Carolina, in 1827 and 1828.‡

New York provided State supervision of schools in 1812; Maryland in 1823 (the office was abolished after two years); Vermont in 1827; Pennsylvania in 1834; Michigan in 1836; Massachusetts, Kentucky, and Ohio in 1837; and Missouri and Connecticut in 1839.§

In 1826 the first educational journal in the English language, the *American Journal of Education*, was published in Boston, edited by

* See Von Holst's Calhoun.

† *The Revival of Education*. An address to the Normal Association, Bridgewater, Mass., August 8, 1855, by Rev. Samuel J. May, Syracuse, N. Y.

‡ See Barnard's *Journal of Education*, vol II, p. 20.

§ See pages 161-2 of “*Education in the United States*,” by Richard G. Boone.

William C. Woodbridge. In 1837 Horace Mann started the Massachusetts Common School Journal, and the next year a similar paper was published and edited in Connecticut by Henry Barnard. From 1836 to 1840 J. Orville Taylor edited and published the *Common School Assistant* in New York.

In 1827 a Society for the Improvement of Common Schools was formed in Hartford. In 1828 the Pennsylvania society for the same purpose was organized. In 1829 the "Western Academic Institute and Board of Education" was organized in Cincinnati for the diffusion of knowledge concerning education, and for the improvement of the qualifications of teachers. In 1830 the American Institute of Instruction was organized in Boston for "the diffusion of useful knowledge in regard to education." In 1838 the American Common School Society was established in New York "for the extension and improvement of education in primary schools in the United States."

These are a few out of very many ways in which the new and deeper interest in education was manifesting itself: Governors were considering the subject of education in their messages; members of legislatures and of city councils were discussing it; primary schools were being established; schools for girls were being multiplied; text-books were being improved; conventions in town, county, and State were being held; in a word, there was a universality and an intensity of interest in the subject of education such as this country had never seen before.

But there was one form in which this interest manifested itself which deserves fuller consideration because it shows very clearly the conceptions of education which prevailed at that time, and because it gave a powerful impulse to the movement for the professional training of teachers.

I allude to the organization of schools on the Lancasterian or monitorial plan. This movement was, indeed, in its earlier stages the forerunner of the more general interest of which I have been speaking. The Lancasterian system was introduced into this country in the early part of this century. For many years it was almost universally adopted in the larger cities—for example, in New York, Albany, Hartford, New Haven, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington. In 1820 there were twenty Lancasterian schools in the State of New York alone. High hopes were entertained of the system by very able men. De Witt Clinton, than whom few public men paid more attention to education or did more to advance its cause, said in 1810:

I confess that I recognize in Lancaster the benefactor of the human race. I consider his system as creating a new era in education, as a blessing sent down from heaven to redeem the poor and distressed of this world from the power and dominion of ignorance.

Again, in his message to the legislature of the State of New York in 1818, he said:

Having participated in the first establishment of the Lancasterian system in this country, having carefully observed its progress and witnessed its benefits, I can

confidently recommend it as an invaluable improvement, which, by a wonderful combination of economy in expense and rapidity of instruction, has created a new era in education. And I am desirous that all our common schools should be supplied with teachers of this description.

Recurring to the subject in his message of 1820, he said:

There are probably twenty schools in the State conducted on the Lancasterian system exclusively, and several others which follow it partially, but not so far as to give it a distinctive character. In some of these establishments several young men have lately been instructed as Lancasterian teachers, and it is to be hoped that this system will be carried into the most extensive operation. There are now upon an average about 50 scholars for every schoolmaster under the present plan of the common schools, and whether the number be great or small, the introduction of the Lancasterian method is of importance, for, admitting in all cases the competency of the teacher to attend to all his pupils, yet when we consider the rapidity of acquiring instruction under that system, and reflect on the useful habits it forms and the favorable impression which it makes on the minds and the morals of those who participate in its benefits, we can not hesitate to give it a decided preference.

President Nott, of Union College, in an address to the students of that institution in 1811, said "Where is Lancaster, who has introduced and is introducing a new era in education?"

John Adams wrote to a friend, after hearing Lancaster, who made a lecturing tour in this country in 1818, "I have heard friend Lancaster; he is an excellent scholastic and academic disciplinarian. I was really delighted and enlightened by that lecture."

It is hardly necessary to point out that the hopes entertained of Lancasterian schools were based on two misconceptions: (1) That teaching consists in imparting knowledge; and (2) that all that is necessary to impart this knowledge is simply to know as much as is to be imparted. Dr. Bell said, "Give me 24 pupils to-day and I will give you back 24 teachers to-morrow."

The attempt to embody these false opinions into institutions, and the attention given to, and the discussion of, these institutions undoubtedly helped men to see the true nature of education, and to realize the true function of the teacher. In discussing the chapter on *Monitors* in John Wood's "Account of the Edinburgh Sessional School," etc., the editor of "Annals of Education" said:

That this system is not the very best Mr. Wood himself allows, and observes, "that to say that a boy makes a better teacher than a man would be manifestly absurd." That he is competent to the important task of an educator can never be supposed. In developing the faculties and forming the character of a child; in devising the best means of counteracting evil habits already acquired, and, if possible, of eradicating them and substituting good ones in their stead; in inventing expedients for drawing forth exertion accommodated to various dispositions and eccentricities of mind; in furnishing illustrations of the principles to be enforced or of the knowledge to be communicated, drawn from objects level to the youthful capacity and suited to the various forms of inquiry, perplexity, and doubt; in knowing how to interest the inattentive, to arouse the sluggish, to allure the wavering, to encourage the timid, to aid the slow, to guide the impetuous, and to awe the wayward; and, what is of more consequence than all, in exercising that secret moral and religious influence over the gradually developing character of the pupil, which the looks, the tones of voice, the

whole department of the teacher serve to produce quite as much as the precepts which he utters in the accomplishment of these objects, the great ones to be secured in the education of youth, how can a young monitor for a moment be put into competition with an adult and experienced teacher? Hence arise the doubts of those who wish to see our schools places of thorough, parental education as well as instruction; and hence we would be cautious in recommending to universal adoption a system which is so often rendered mechanical—a mere machine for saving labor to the teacher and money to the parents by the indolence or error of those who employ it.*

We see here a very just and comprehensive idea of the true nature of education; a vivid realization that instruction is not education; and a clear perception that even for purposes of instruction a skilled teacher is required, one who can adapt his illustrations to the knowledge and capacity of his pupils. It is easy to see how reflection upon the monitorial system might have helped Mr. Woodbridge to realize the misconception upon which it was based. Horace Mann said:

One must see the difference between the hampering, blinding, misleading instruction given by an inexperienced child and the developing, transforming, and almost creative power of an accomplished teacher—one must rise to some comprehension of the vast import and significance of the phrase "to educate"—before he can regard with a sufficiently energetic contempt that boast of Dr. Bell, "Give me 24 pupils to-day and I will give you back 24 teachers to-morrow.†

Evidently the discussion of the merits of the monitorial system helped to pave the way for the perception that teachers need professional training. It was one of the causes that induced men to carefully consider the questions, What are the qualifications of a successful teacher? the answer to which was inevitably followed by another, How can they acquire these qualifications?

In England we can trace the development of training schools out of the Lancasterian schools step by step. As it was difficult to secure and retain trained monitors, it occurred to the head master to have some of the most promising of the monitors taught out of school hours. This was the beginning of the pupil-teacher system, which is a prominent feature of English schools to-day. To retain them after a certain amount of experience it was found necessary to pay them a small salary. Later the senior and most successful monitors were organized into a normal class with a prescribed course of study, the successful completion of which qualified them to become the heads of schools. Some monitors were still employed earning admission to this normal class by acquiring the skill which fitted them to enter it, precisely as they are in the English schools to-day.‡

* See pp. 135-136 of the "Annals of Education," for the year 1831.

† The Massachusetts Common School Journal, vol. 6, p. 99.

‡ See Education, vol. 1, p. 273.

CHAPTER II.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE ACADEMIES OF NEW YORK UP TO 1844.

We have seen in the preceding chapter that that eminent statesman, DeWitt Clinton, was greatly interested in the subject of education. In his message as governor to the legislature of New York in 1826 he recommended the establishment of a "seminary for the education of teachers."*

But John C. Spencer, chairman of the literature committee of the senate, unfortunately was of a different opinion. He accordingly prepared a report containing the following words:

But in the view which the committee have taken our great reliance for nurseries of teachers must be placed in our colleges and academies. In connection with these the committee admit that the establishment of a separate institution for the sole purpose of preparing teachers would be a most valuable auxiliary.

But though it would be "a most valuable auxiliary," they were evidently of the opinion that it could be dispensed with, as they did not recommend its establishment, because other measures of a more pressing nature would entail as much expense as it seemed safe to incur.

The truth is that Governor Clinton was far in advance of even the educated public opinion of the State. The prevailing opinion was that such an institution was unnecessary, as the academies were regarded as the proper institutions for preparing teachers. The board of regents of the university in their annual report to the legislature in 1821, in speaking of the academies, had said, "It is to these seminaries that we must look for a supply of teachers for the common schools," and in their annual report in 1823 they say that the distribution to the academies subject to their visitation of the funds under their direction "insures a supply of competent teachers."

Although the question as to what provision could be made for the proper preparation of teachers had often been discussed by the educational committees of the legislature, the first law on the subject was passed April 13, 1827. It was entitled "An act to provide permanent funds for the annual appropriation to common schools, to increase the literature fund, and to promote the education of teachers."

Notwithstanding the last clause, the law made no special provision for the education of teachers. The law simply provided for an increase

*The phrase "seminary for the education of teachers" indicates that Governor Clinton was acquainted with the teachers' seminaries of Europe.

in the literature fund, and required a higher standard of scholarship in those academies to which the fund was to be distributed. The idea definitely stated in Mrs. Spencer's report in 1826—that no special institutions were required for the training of teachers—was evidently at the bottom of this law. The committee which reported the bill stated in their report that their object in thus increasing the fund was “to promote the education of young men in those studies which will prepare them for the business of instruction, which it is hoped may be accomplished to some extent by offering inducements to the trustees of academies to educate pupils of that description. * * * Competent teachers of common schools must be provided; the academies of the State furnish the means of making that provision.” In 1828 the regents said: “The academies have become, in the opinion of the regents, what it has *always been desirable they should be, fit seminaries for imparting instruction in the higher branches of English education, and especially for qualifying teachers of common schools.*” The same year Azariah Flagg, secretary of state and superintendent of common schools, said: “If the required information to fit a person for teaching can be obtained in the academies, sound policy and good economy are in favor of relying upon them for the training of teachers.” He evidently thought that the required information could be obtained there, for in his report to the legislature in 1831, after reviewing various proposed plans, he recommended the academies of the State as the proper institutions to train teachers.

But owing to causes which I have tried to explain in the preceding chapter, the feeling was getting abroad that a teacher needs distinctive professional training. Recognizing this fact, without waiting for legislative action, the academies of the State about this time began to take steps to supply the demand. In their report to the board of regents in 1831, Canandaigua and St. Lawrence Academies report “principles of teaching” as one of the studies pursued. The next year Lowville and Oxford Academies reported classes in the “principles of teaching,” and the reports in 1834 showed that a fifth institution, the Rochester High School, was attempting to give teachers specific professional training for their work.

The action of these academies, together with their reports on this subject, and the constantly deepening interest in the matter, induced the board to discuss it at length in their report in 1832. After referring to the satisfactory condition of the common schools, and extolling the school system, with a single exception, the exception being that it included no agency for insuring a sufficient supply of competent teachers, the report proceeds to discuss the various plans suggested for remedying the difficulty, as follows:

With some it has been a favorite theory to provide farther education at the public expense by the institution of a State seminary with branches in the several senatorial districts. This plan does not differ materially from that which has been adopted in some European countries. In Prussia there is in each province one or more semina-

ries, supported at the expense of the government, for the preparation of teachers. But there is this essential difference between the elementary schools in that kingdom and in this State: There they are under the absolute control and direction of the government. No one is allowed to act as an instructor without written permission from examiners appointed under the authority of the government, and although the expenses of the schools, between 20,000 and 30,000 in number, are paid by the inhabitants of the several parishes, parents who neglect to send their children to school are liable to be fined for their omission to comply with the requirements of the law. In a word, the whole plan is compulsory; presenting the anomaly of a government, founded upon arbitrary power, compelling its subjects to cherish a system which is at war in principle with the very elements of its own preservation. Although it might seem much more proper with a political organization like ours, the best security of which is a diffused intelligence, to compel parents to educate their children, yet our rule is, in all things not manifestly essential to the operation of government, to persuade rather than coerce. Our common schools, though assisted by the State, are maintained by voluntary contribution of the inhabitants of the respective districts, and those who are most interested have the selection of teachers. Public opinion in this country would hardly endure a system like that which exists in Prussia. If the State were to establish seminaries for the preparation of teachers, it would be no certainty that the school districts would give them employment, and they could not be forced upon the district against their wishes. Many individuals would unquestionably be tempted, after receiving their education as teachers, to abandon that calling for the higher rewards of others, and thus the munificence of the public would be expended for individual benefits. It was, therefore, conceived (as the regents think, wisely) that the academies should become the nurseries of instructors for common schools, *leaving it to the interest of individuals to prepare themselves for the business of teaching, to the interest of the academies to provide the means of their preparation, and to the liberality of the school districts to offer sufficient wages to secure their services.**

The act of 13th April, 1827, increasing the literature fund, virtually adopts the latter plan, by declaring that one of the objects of that increase was "to promote the education of teachers."

The regents had the honor to say, in a former report to the legislature, that they should cheerfully coöperate in promoting the speedy accomplishment of that object. They have now the satisfaction to present a fact, which they consider of immense importance as an evidence, that the views adopted by the legislature, although dissented from at that time by many intelligent individuals, were founded in wisdom. By a reference to the abstract it will appear that St. Lawrence Academy, at Potsdam, St. Lawrence County, in the fourth senatorial district, has sent out during the last year 80 teachers of common schools, and that a part of the course of study consists of lectures upon the principles of teaching. The superiority which the St. Lawrence Academy has acquired in this respect is to be ascribed altogether to the new branch of instruction introduced into it. There is at least an average of more than one academy to each senatorial district equally capable of accomplishing the same result by adopting the same measures. The Canandaigua Academy has introduced a similar course of instruction, but with what success does not appear by the report. There is no doubt that a thousand instructors might readily be prepared annually for the common schools, a number exceeding by nearly 200 the average number supplied by the seminaries of Prussia. It only remains for the school districts to furnish the inducements by offering wages which shall be equal to the average profits of other occupations. The advantages of a regular system of instruction in the principles of teaching need no illustration. Experience is constantly suggesting improved methods for the communication of knowledge and for the discipline of youthful minds, and works have recently been published embodying the

* Italics by author of circular.

results of observation and practice. With the aid of these, and with such a course of instruction as has been adopted at the St. Lawrence Academy, teachers attain, in a very short time, to qualifications which would otherwise be the fruit of long and painful experience, equally embarrassing to themselves and fatal to the progress of their pupils. The regents are decidedly of the opinion that the academies are the proper instruments for accomplishing the great object of supplying the common schools with teachers. These institutions have already the advantage of convenient edifices, in some cases, of large, permanent funds, valuable libraries, and philosophical apparatus, amounting in all to an investment of about half a million of dollars. By ingrafting upon the course of studies a department of studies in the principles of teaching the respectability and capacities of institutions will be increased, and those who are qualifying themselves for the business of instruction may enjoy the benefit of all other branches which enter into the ordinary academic course. In every point of view it is conceived that this is the most advisable method of preparing instructors. Under this impression the regents take the liberty of remarking that in case the condition of the public finances shall in a future day admit of an additional appropriation to the object of promoting the education of teachers, the end may be much more advantageously attained by connecting it with the academies than by creating a separate establishment for the purpose. When these institutions shall send forth a regular supply of well-qualified instructors, an object which they hope to see accomplished by a union of the same munificent policy which has heretofore guided the councils of the State, with the liberal spirit which has animated the people, our system of elementary instruction will be complete, and in this department the Government will, by contributing to close up the sources of ignorance and vice, have done all that properly falls to its province to give strength and duration to our civil liberties." *

This extract is worthy of careful attention, because it contains a clear and full statement of the reasons which induced the educators of the State of New York, in 1835, to prefer normal departments in academies to normal schools as agencies for training teachers. The fundamental reason evidently was their conception of the kind of training which teachers need. What a teacher needs, the regents evidently thought, is the same academic instruction given to students preparing for business and for colleges, and, in addition, instruction in the principles of teaching.

The kind of preparation the academies were giving to teachers about this time is indicated by their report to the regents. The Cortland Academy for the year 1833-34 reports:

The trustees during the past season have made an effort to instruct teachers of common schools on a plan different from what they have heretofore been accustomed to. A class was formed at the commencement of the last term and instructed with special reference to preparing them for teaching common schools. The principal objects proposed in the course of instruction adopted were to make them thoroughly acquainted with the branches usually taught in those schools, and with the best modes of instruction and discipline.†

The same year, in the report of the Oxford Academy, under the head of "Teachers' Department," it is stated that—

A department for the instruction of teachers has been continued for 2½ months of the year, during which time an additional teacher was employed for the purpose of affording to those young men who were about to enter upon the business of teaching for the ensuing winter advantages for instruction which they could not have when classed

* See Report of Regents of the University for 1832, pp. 10-12.

† See p. 64 of Annual Report of Regents for 1835.

*with the rest of the school.** Instruction was given in all the branches required to be taught in common schools, and also history, Constitution of the United States and of New York, algebra, geometry, and surveying to those who could find leisure to pursue them. A course of lectures on schoolkeeping and practical illustrations of the duties of teachers was given during the continuance of the department. It is not believed that 2½ months is a sufficient time to prepare young men properly for the discharge of their duties as teachers, but it is as long and even a longer time than the department has been able to sustain itself.†

Canandaigua Academy reported that—

About four years since a teachers' department was organized on the following plan: First, that those young gentlemen who entered this school to prepare themselves for teachers should enter the classes pursuing those branches in which they wished, or it was deemed necessary, to perfect themselves. *In these classes the instruction is to be very extended and minute.** Second, the teachers to be organized into a class and receive a specific course of instruction on the following plan: To meet five evenings each week and spend 2 or 3 hours together. On three evenings of each week Hall's *Lectures on School Keeping* are recited till the book is finished and thoroughly reviewed. The lessons are short, and the time is filled up by the instructor in further illustration of the subject and by prompting inquiry and examination in the class. The remaining evening of the week is devoted to the consideration of a series of subjects, one being discussed each evening. Each member of the class brings in a written subject. So many of these are read as the time will allow. The important hints thrown out by the members are particularly stated by the instructor, enlarged upon, and illustrated. Mutual conversation is called forth. This evening exercise is attended with great interest and profit both to the instructor and the class. The subjects discussed on these evenings are nearly the following, and in the order mentioned:

- (1) The defects in common schools.
- (2) The circumstances which restrain and discourage the efforts of the teacher.
- (3) The best modes of teaching the alphabet, reading, and spelling.
- (4) The best mode of teaching arithmetic, and the best books.
- (5) The best mode of teaching geography.
- (6) The best mode of teaching English grammar.
- (7) The best mode of teaching writing and making pens.
- (8) Pestalozzi and his mode of instruction.
- (9) Government of schools.
- (10) Best mode of arresting the attention of pupils. Substitution of signs, etc., for the ordinary questions in school.
- (11) How to teach composition.
- (12) What plans can the teacher adopt to render his labors more extensively useful to his pupils? This inquiry is intended to embrace the formation of school lyceums, school libraries, the circulation of periodicals relating to education, etc.
- (13) Construction of schoolhouses.

This course of instruction is designed to continue one-quarter of each year. Hereafter a teachers' class will be organized both in the summer and winter terms. It is not supposed that a course of instruction is all that is needed; by no means. The course, however, is such as to give to young men a more elevated, enlarged, and accurate view of what a teacher should accomplish; prompt thought on the subject of communicating instruction leads to the invention of new methods of teaching and commanding the attention of pupils, and becomes in some degree a substitute for a long and painful experience.‡

* Italics by author of circular.

† See p. 65 of Annual Report of Board of Regents for 1835.

‡ See pp. 65-66 of Annual Report of Board of Regents for 1835.

These extracts seem to indicate that the authorities of the academies perceived that intending teachers need a different kind of academic instruction from that which the rest of their students received. The Cortland Academy reported that one of the objects proposed in the course of instruction was "to make them thoroughly acquainted with the branches usually taught in those schools," and the report of the Oxford Academy intimated that those preparing to teach were not "classed with the rest of the school." Although intending teachers in the Canandaigua Academy entered those classes "in which they wished, or it was deemed necessary, to perfect themselves," we are told that instruction in these classes was "to be very extended and minute." Although the theorists held that the intending teacher needs the same kind of instruction as the rest of the students, those practical educators felt that it was not so.

This work was undertaken by these academies without aid from the State, simply in response to a demand created by public opinion for better prepared teachers. The first law passed in New York, and indeed in this country, making provision for the education of teachers for the common schools was passed May 2, 1834. The act is as follows:

SECTION 1. The revenue of the literature fund now in the treasury, and the excess of the annual revenue of said fund hereafter to be paid into the treasury, or portions thereof, may be distributed by the regents of the university, if they shall deem it expedient, to the academies subject to their visitation, or a part of them, to be expended as hereinafter mentioned.

SEC. 2. The trustees of academies to which any distribution of money shall be made by virtue of this act shall cause the same to be expended in educating teachers of common schools in such manner and under such regulations as said regents shall prescribe.

A special meeting of the board of regents was held May 22, 1834, and a committee of three was appointed "to prepare and report to the regents at some future meeting a plan for carrying into practical operation the provisions" of the law.

The committee consisted of Messrs. Dix, Buel, and Graham, and at the annual meeting of the board, held January 8, 1835, it reported through its chairman, Regent John A. Dix, "a plan for the better education of teachers of common schools."

This elaborate report—it covers 26 pages of an octavo volume—is well worthy of a careful perusal, not only because of its historical interest as outlining the first plan for the training of teachers ever presented in this country, but because of the ability and thoroughness with which the subject is discussed.

After an emphatic statement of the importance of the subject, the report proceeds to discuss the provisions for the training of teachers made by France and Prussia. That the necessity of providing for the training of teachers was not felt when the common-school system was established is explained by the fact that there were at that time a large

number of experienced teachers who had been teaching private schools ready to be enlisted into the service of the public schools.

Reference is made to the fact that the St. Lawrence, Oxford, and Canandaigua Academies have established a course of lectures and exercises for the preparation of teachers, and since this has been done with very little aid from the State it is inferred that more generous assistance is all that is necessary to enable them to reach the desired end. The success of the St. Lawrence Academy is particularly dwelt on. The schools in its neighborhood are almost entirely supplied with teachers by its students, and they receive on the average \$40 a year more than before a department was established for training them.

The question of creating separate institutions for the training of teachers has repeatedly been before the legislature, but it was deemed more advantageous to establish teachers' departments in the academies, and this may now be considered the special policy of the State.

The revenue of the literature fund then in the treasury, which, according to the law of May 2, 1834, was to be devoted to making provision for the training of teachers, is stated to be \$10,040.76, and the annual excess of that revenue which could be applied to this purpose would amount to about \$3,500. The former sum could at once be devoted to making provision for the education of common-school teachers in existing academies, but it was too small to be divided among all the academies of the State. The limited sum at their disposal made it necessary to select a small number of academies, but these, for the sake of public convenience, must be in different parts of the State, within reach of every county. The committee recommended that one academy be selected in each senatorial district, as there were eight of such districts, and as a smaller number than eight could not be selected with due regard to public convenience.

The committee further recommended that each of the eight academies should be supplied with the same apparatus and with equal facilities for undertaking the proposed course of instruction. They thought that \$500 for each academy would be sufficient for the purchase of apparatus, library, etc., and that in addition they should receive \$400 annually for the support of a competent instructor.

The committee thought it evident that the course of study should include all those subjects which were regarded as indispensable to a first-rate teacher of the common schools. They recommended that no student should be admitted to the teachers' department who had not passed such an examination as the regents required to entitle him to be regarded as a scholar in the higher branches of an English education. The subjects which he should pursue should be—

- (1) The English language.
- (2) Writing and drawing.
- (3) Arithmetic, mental and written, and bookkeeping.
- (4) Geography and general history, continued.

- (5) The history of the United States.
- (6) Geometry, trigonometry, mensuration, and surveying.
- (7) Natural philosophy and the elements of astronomy.
- (8) Chemistry and mineralogy.
- (9) The Constitution of the United States and the constitution of the State of New York.
- (10) Select parts of the Revised Statutes and the duties of public officers.
- (11) Moral and intellectual philosophy.
- (12) The principles of teaching.

No other subject should be required to enable the pupil to obtain a diploma, but other subjects should not be excluded if any academy desired to introduce them.

The committee then proceeded to make detailed suggestions in regard to the above-mentioned subjects of study. The teacher should be familiarized with the best methods of teaching the alphabet. Blackboards and slates should be used in teaching spelling, so that the eye might assist the ear in detecting mistakes. In teaching arithmetic much use should be made of visible illustrations, and the subject should be made as practical as possible by selecting as examples such operations as the pupil must be familiar with in after life, though it should be so taught, at the same time, that the pupil might receive the maximum amount of mental discipline. Instruction in principles of teaching should be thorough and extended, not confined to the art of teaching or the best modes of communicating knowledge, but including also such moral instruction as might aid the teacher in governing his own conduct, and molding the character of his pupils. The text-book recommended was Hall's "Lectures on School Keeping;" and as reading books "Abbott's Teacher," "Taylor's District School," and the "Annals of Education" were recommended. But the strictly pedagogical training was not to be confined to theory. The committee thought it to be of first importance that the students should conduct some part of the recitations, should prepare questions on the particular subject studied, and should give illustrations of it. Instruction should be given in the best methods of imparting knowledge; students should know how to get and to keep the attention of their pupils, how to impart knowledge in the best way to make a lasting impression on the mind, and how to develop in their pupils habits of investigation and independent thought.

Those charged with the important task of carrying into execution the proposed plan should not for a moment forget that the object of education is not merely to amass the greatest possible amount of information, but at the same time to develop and discipline the faculties. At every step the mind should be taught to rely on the exercise of its own powers. The pupils should be required to assign reasons for every position assumed in their various studies, not merely with a view to give them a thorough comprehension of the subject, but for the purpose also

of cultivating that habit of critical investigation which is not satisfied until every part of the subject of inquiry is understood. The result of common school education in most cases is to burden the memory with facts and rules of which the proper practical application is but imperfectly comprehended. This defect was at war with the spirit of the age, which is to probe to its inmost depths every subject of knowledge and to convert the results of our inquiries to useful purposes. Hence pupils should be made to think for themselves instead of treasuring up merely the results of other men's thoughts. The great instrument of reform will be to make demonstration keep pace with knowledge. Nothing should be left unexplained; nor should anything be allowed to rest on mere authority, excepting where from the nature of the subject it admits of no other foundation.

To almost every species of instruction the inductive method may be applied with great advantage. Nature herself seems to teach that the observation of facts should precede inductions, and that general principles can only be deduced from particular facts. An intelligent instructor will know how to apply the rule, and convert it to the most useful purposes.

The committee fully considered the question whether the studies and recitations in the teachers' department should be distinct from the ordinary academic exercises, and they were decidedly of the opinion that convenience coincides with good policy in requiring that pupils who are in a course of training for teachers should be taught in connection with the other students, except when the peculiar duties of teachers are the subject of study and examination.

The committee thought that less than three years—the time required by the Prussian seminaries, in which the course of study for teachers of the first grade is about equal in length and importance to that recommended by the committee—would be too short a time for the completion of the course. They suggested that the year be divided into two terms of four months each, that the members of the department might have the opportunity of teaching a winter term, and thus help themselves financially, and at the same time intellectually, by putting into practice what they would have learned.

The committee thought that each academy should be furnished with a library well supplied with the best authors on the subjects in the prescribed course, but were of the opinion that the selection of the books ought, for a time at least, to be left to the academies. The committee, however, made out a list of apparatus, with prices, which they thought necessary for each of the eight academies. It is as follows, with the prices annexed so far as they can be ascertained:

Orrery.....	\$20.00
Numeral frame and geometrical solids.....	2.50
Globes.....	12.00
Movable planisphere.....	1.50
Tide dial.....	3.50

Optical apparatus	\$10.00
Mechanical powers.....	12.00
Hydrostatic apparatus	10.00
Pneumatic apparatus	35.00
Chemical apparatus.....	25.00
One hundred specimens of mineralogy	10.00
Electrical machine.....	12.00
Instruments to teach surveying	80.00
Map of the United States.....	8.00
Map of the State of New York.....	8.00
Atlas.....	5.00
Telescope.....	40.00
Quadrant.....	15.00

The committee suggested that a diploma, signed by the principal and bearing the official seal of the institution, should be given to those who satisfactorily completed the prescribed course of study, and that those who only completed a part of the course should receive a certificate signed by the principal, and stating the particular subjects they have studied, and containing such an estimate of their moral character and qualifications to teach the subjects they had studied as they might be considered entitled to. But neither diploma nor certificate was to entitle its holder to teach without a certificate from the inspectors of common schools of the town.*

After having been considered in part at the meeting of the board, January 8, 1835, and at the adjourned meeting, January 20, the report was accepted without any substantial changes. At the latter meeting the board passed an ordinance establishing the departments in the academies designated; provided that the trustees of the designated academies should signify their acceptance of the appointment under the specified conditions upon receiving official notice of it, and should present a full and detailed statement of the progress and condition of the teachers' department with their annual report.

After the academies had signified their acceptance of the appointment, their principals were invited to meet a committee of the board of regents at Albany, September 1, 1835, for the purpose of securing entire uniformity as to the extent of the course of instruction in each of the subjects in the prescribed course. At that meeting the course of study in the teachers' department was discussed, and each principal named the text-book used in that department in his institution. A list of books of reference for the teachers' department to be purchased by the regents was selected by the meeting, and they recommended that geometry should be required "only through the first six books of Playfair,

*The committee designated the academies in which they thought the teachers' departments should be established, stating that they were guided in making their selection by one of two considerations: (1) The greater value of the philosophical and chemical apparatus of the academy named; and (2) the fact that the endowments or situation of the academies designated would probably make the course of study in them less expensive than in any other in the district.

or what shall be deemed equivalent in other authors," and that algebra, through simple and quadratic equations, and ratio and proportion should form a part of the course of study.

It is not surprising to learn that four out of the eight academies at the end of the first year reported that no students had been enrolled in the teachers' department. The wonder is that 138 had entered that department in the other four at some period during the year. Of the reasons assigned, the length of the course of study, the declaration required of students of that department that they intended to devote themselves to teaching, the low rate of wages of common-school teachers, facilities for more lucrative employment which require no special preparation, the lack of information on the part of the public as to the object of the regents in establishing teachers' departments, the spirit of speculation then prevalent in western New York—of these reasons subsequent experience would lead us to suppose that the first four would have been quite sufficient to prevent a large number from availing themselves of these departments.

But in spite of the small attendance, all the academies reported favorably on the plan. It was thought that these departments "have directed public opinion to the state of common schools, and the means of improving them," and that "an important end in the cause of education will be attained by educating young men in the manner prescribed, though no one of them should ever teach," for "it will spread through society men who can judge and advise well on the subject of common schools."

Besides the eight academies in which teachers' departments had been established eight more reported that they had paid special attention to the preparation of teachers for the common schools, one of them having organized a teachers' department with a course of study of 2 years, but in other respects similar to those established by the regents.

In his message to the legislature of 1838, Governor Marcy, after commending the work done by the teachers' departments, said:

But no success that can attend these already established will make them competent to supply in any considerable degree the demand for teachers; it has therefore been proposed to increase the number of such departments in each senate district of the State by devoting to that purpose a portion of the income derived from the deposit of the public moneys. It is well worthy your consideration whether still better results might not be obtained by county normal schools established and maintained on principles analogous to those on which our system of common schools is founded.

April 17, 1838, an act was passed providing for the expenditure of the income of the United States deposit fund. The eighth section of this act provided for the annual payment of \$28,000 to the literature fund, to be distributed among the academies in the several senatorial districts as the law directed. The ninth section of the same act provides that:

It shall be the duty of the regents of the university to require of every academy receiving a distributive share of public money under the preceding section equal to \$700 per annum, to establish and maintain in such academy a department for the in-

struction of common-school teachers, under the direction of the said regents, as a condition of receiving the distributive share of every such academy.

In accordance with this law the board of regents established teachers' departments in eight other academies.

In his report to the legislature for the school year 1838-39, the State superintendent, in speaking of the influence exerted by these departments, said:

The standard has been raised, the demand for competent teachers has increased, and the supply has been materially augmented. It should be made the interest of those who intend to be teachers to avail themselves of those departments. This could be effected by a legislative provision, declaring that a certificate of qualification given by the trustees of the academy under their seal should constitute the person receiving it a qualified teacher in the common schools of the State without any further certificate from the inspectors of the town.

During the school year 1839-40 the superintendent appointed Rev. Dr. Alonzo Potter, of Union College, and D. H. Little, to visit such academies as they could conveniently for the purpose of ascertaining "how many of the pupils who have been instructed in these departments have subsequently devoted themselves to the business of teaching," and whether they "are required or allowed to take part in giving instruction as a practical exercise." They were requested also "personally to examine them as to their proficiency and acquirements; particularly, their knowledge in those branches which are usually taught in the common schools." They were requested to make a report embodying the results of their investigations and observations, with such suggestions as might occur to them.

Dr. Potter visited four academies. He summarized the results of his observations as follows:

I. The students in these departments make good proficiency in their studies, but pursue the higher branches to the neglect of those which are elementary.

II. They remain at the institutions about one-third of the time originally contemplated.

III. They are not generally exercised in teaching in the presence of their instructors; most of them, however, have taught common schools.

IV. They usually expect to teach after leaving the department, but not for a long time.

V. The departments have contributed indirectly but materially to the improvement of the common schools, viz:

(1) They have led employers to consider the importance of having better qualified teachers.

(2) They notify trustees where they may apply for teachers.

(3) They create an intimate and salutary connection between academies and common schools.

(4) They multiply the number of persons who make teaching a temporary pursuit and render such persons better qualified for their duties.

(5) They increase the number of better informed citizens, especially of such as will take an interest in common schools and make good inspectors.

He suggested that the time required for the course of study be reduced to a year and a half or two years, and that "an absolute promise should be exacted from those who have been in the department more

than two terms that on leaving it they will teach a common school for the period of at least eight months." He made one other suggestion which is worthy of special attention. It is as follows:

I would suggest whether some means might not be adopted for training a class of teachers with more especial reference to country common schools, and to primary schools in villages and cities—teachers whose attainments should not extend much beyond the common English branches, but whose minds should be awakened by proper influence—who should be made familiar by practice with the best modes of teaching, and who should come under strong obligations to teach for at least 2 or 3 years. In Prussia and France, normal schools are supported at public expense; most of the pupils receive both board and tuition gratuitously; but at the close of the course they give bonds to refund the whole amount received, unless they teach under the direction of the government for a certain number of years. That such schools, devoted exclusively to the preparation of teaching, have some advantages over any other methods, is sufficiently apparent from the experience of other nations; and it has occurred to me that, as supplementary to our present system, the establishment of one in this State might be eminently useful. If placed under proper auspices and located near the capitol where it could enjoy the supervision of the superintendent of common schools and be visited by members of the legislature, it might contribute in many ways to raise the tone of instruction throughout the State. A course of one year, divided between study and exercises in model schools, would be sufficient to qualify the pupils for the particular kind of teaching in view; and they would then carry the awakening influence of their instructions and example to the very districts in which it is most needed.

These observations and suggestions tell an important story as to the nature and value of the work in those teachers' departments. The students enrolled in them remain on the average one year instead of three, and spend the time studying the higher branches to the neglect of the lower. They have, indeed, benefited the common schools, but chiefly in indirect ways. It is evident from his recommendation of a normal school that Dr. Potter thinks there is a more fundamental defect in the teachers' departments than the length of the course of study. The experience of other nations has made it sufficiently apparent, he thinks, that schools "devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers have some advantages over any other method."

But Mr. Spencer, then superintendent of common schools, adhered to the plan which, as chairman of the literature committee of the senate, he had reported 15 years before. The difficulty, in his opinion, was that there were not enough of the teachers' departments. In his report published the same year he endeavored to prove that teachers' departments in academies were as good as normal schools for the preparation of teachers, and recommended that a larger number of academies be engaged in the work. Accordingly, in 1841, eight more academies established teachers' departments, these under the direction of the superintendent of common schools, and to receive \$300 on condition of maintaining these departments six months in the year.

But his successor as State superintendent, Colonel Young, advocated a radically different policy. In his annual report made January 12, 1843, he expressed the opinion that the teachers' departments were not accomplishing their purpose "because the bounty of the State was diffused

over too wide a surface." He recommended that the \$4,800 should be divided among four of the most efficient academies in the State, and he further recommended the appropriation from the literature fund of a sufficient amount "to establish and maintain a similar school in Albany." He repeated the former recommendation in a communication made to the regents a few days later. The board thought favorably of it; they passed an ordinance reducing the number of teachers' departments to four, but this ordinance was not to be interpreted as extending to or in any manner affecting "any department for the education of teachers of common schools which the regents of the university are required by law to have established in every academy which receives a share of \$700 in the general distribution of \$40,000 annually made."

At the next annual meeting of the board of regents, held January 11, 1844, on motion of Superintendent Young, the appointment of standing committees for the establishment of teachers' departments in academies was for a time suspended. This, of course, was a virtual discontinuance of these departments. Nevertheless, in his report dated January 13, 1844, he said that he was convinced "that four normal schools, although connected with academies and subjected to no expense for rent or for ordinary academic apparatus," could "not be established and maintained with an annual appropriation of \$1,200 to each." Accordingly, in accordance with his recommendation of the preceding year, a bill establishing the State Normal School at Albany was passed May 7, 1844, and the first chapter in the history of the training of teachers in New York and this country was closed, since by the diversion of the funds which had been appropriated for teachers' departments to the support of the new institution those departments were practically abolished.*

I suppose no one now will question the truthfulness of the assertion which Superintendent Young made in his report in 1843, that "the special qualifications of teachers" by means of the teachers' departments "had practically failed." And it is evident that their failure consisted not merely or chiefly in the small number of teachers who availed themselves of them.† The idea which lay at the foundation of those depart-

* It is interesting to note that in 1842, the year before Superintendent Young recommended the establishment of a normal school, a convention of county superintendents was held in Utica at which Dr. Potter, Horace Mann, and George B. Emerson advocated a normal school, and that the superintendents gave the idea their support. Also in 1843, Calvin T. Hulburd, who was chairman of the committee to which Superintendent Young's recommendation of a normal school was referred, visited the normal schools of Massachusetts for the purpose of ascertaining for himself the value of such institutions. The bill providing for the normal school at Albany was introduced by him, accompanied by an elaborate report upon the normal schools of Massachusetts.

† During the 8 years of their existence 3,389 pupils were instructed in them. The following tabular statement gives the number instructed each year:

1834-35.....	133	1838-39.....	498
1835-36.....	218	1839-40.....	668
1836-37.....	281	1840-41.....	528
1837-38.....	374	1841-42.....	681

ments, it seems to me, was fundamentally false, the idea that students preparing for teaching need the same kind of instruction in what is called academic subjects as students preparing for college or for business. Horace Mann, in drawing a comparison between them and the normal schools which were on the point of being opened in Massachusetts—he wrote in the early part of 1839—went to the root of the matter:

The course of studies furnished for the two [he said] is not materially different. The time to be occupied in completing a course of study may be a little longer or a little shorter in Massachusetts than in New York, at the option of the pupil. So far as the plan is concerned, the striking point of dissimilarity is, that in New York the teachers' department is engrafted upon an academy; it is not the principal, but an incidental object of the institution; it is not primary, but secondary; it does not command the entire and undivided attention of the instructors, but shares that attention with the general objects for which the academy was founded; it may fail and the academy still survive. In Massachusetts the business of the normal school is to possess the entire and exclusive occupancy of the whole ground; to engross the whole attention of all the instructors and all the pupils; to have no rival of any kind, no incidental or collateral purposes, and the very existence of the school will be staked upon its success. In comparing the relative merits of the two plans, although it may not become us to express an opinion that the one adopted in the State of New York is not the best for that State, or, at any rate, that it was not the best at the time it was adopted (for it is to be remembered that almost all the information possessed by the community at large, on this subject, has been acquired within the last 3 years), yet we feel confident that the plan adopted by the Massachusetts board of education, so far, at least, as this State is concerned, has a decided superiority. The course of studies commonly pursued at the institutions which are worthy to be called academies, that is, at seminaries, which occupy a middle ground between common schools and colleges, consists rather in an extension into the higher departments of science than in reviewing and thoroughly and critically mastering the rudiments or elementary branches of knowledge. Yet the latter is the first business of the normal school. * * * Few intellectual operations are more dissimilar than those of acquiring and imparting. The art of imparting is one main portion of the normal pupils' qualification; while acquisition, as our academies are generally conducted, is the main object of the academical student. At any rate, the latter is endeavoring to acquire the power of acting upon men, or upon matter; of becoming acquainted with civil institutions, or with physical laws and agencies, while the main purpose of the former is that of influencing and training the plastic minds of children—employments which require the activity of different sets of faculties.

And the observations of Dr. Potter confirmed these speculations of Mr. Mann. The students in these departments pursue the higher branches to the neglect of those that are elementary. In such an institution they would not only be permitted, but almost inevitably encouraged to do so. The instructors in such institutions know most about the higher branches, have most interest in them, do their best to work in them. They have, as a rule, only that knowledge of the elementary branches which they need as citizens and as men—not that systematic knowledge of them which the teacher requires to make them a real means of culture to his pupils, a means of broadening their mental horizon, and of developing in their minds a sense of the universality of law, much less not that knowledge which enables them to impart from their own bounteous stores such a wealth of information to intending

teachers as will enable them in their turn to impart to their students that modicum, at least, of knowledge which their needs as men and citizens require. And this doubtless was one of the reasons why the students in those departments did not, as a rule, intend to engage in the work of the common schools for any length of time. Their whole education was away from the common schools rather than towards them. What men can do well, they like to do; and what they can not do well, they dislike to do. Without any fitness for the work of the common schools, their inclinations, therefore, naturally led them away from them. In a word, these teachers' departments doubtless educated their members but did not properly prepare them for teaching. The true function of the normal school is to give to its students that thorough preparation for their work which its transcendent importance demands, including as one of the essential elements of that preparation that knowledge of the subjects they are preparing to teach which they need simply because they are teachers.

CHAPTER III.

THE FIRST NORMAL SCHOOL IN AMERICA.

We have seen how persistently James G. Carter labored in behalf of the professional education of teachers, and that he drafted the bill providing for the Massachusetts board of education. This bill became a law in April, 1837. At their first meeting, June 29, of that year, Horace Mann, then president of the Massachusetts senate, was unanimously elected secretary. Under the date of March 10, 1838, Mr. Mann wrote in his private journal:

Went to Mr. Dwight's [Edmund], where a number of gentlemen were assembled to discuss the expediency of applying to the legislature for a grant to aid in the establishment of teachers' seminaries. * * * After they had dispersed, Mr. Dwight gave me authority to propose to the legislature, in my own way, that \$10,000 should be forthcoming from himself and others; and that at any rate he would be responsible for that amount to accomplish the object, provided the legislature would give the same amount for the same cause.

Two days later, Mr. Mann communicated Mr. Dwight's offer to the two houses in a letter urging its acceptance. The joint committee, to whom this communication was referred, made a report March 22, accompanied by the following resolve:

Resolved, That his excellency the governor be, and he is hereby, authorized and requested, by and with the advice and consent of this council, to draw his warrant upon the treasurer of the Commonwealth, in favor of the board of education, for the sum of \$10,000, in such installments and at such times as said board may request; *provided*, said board in their request shall certify that the secretary of said board has placed at their disposal an amount equal to that for which such application may by them be made, both sums to be expended under the direction of said board in qualifying teachers for the common schools in Massachusetts.*

This resolve passed both houses almost unanimously, and was approved by the governor, Edward Everett, April 19.

Immediately the board began to discuss plans for reaching the desired end. Should they concentrate their efforts upon a single institution? Should they imitate the example of New York and ingraft departments upon academies in different parts of the State? Should they attempt to obtain the coöperation of public-spirited individuals and establish private institutions in different parts of the State?

The New York plan was rejected because in that case "the department would be but a secondary interest in the school," and teachers

* See the Massachusetts Common School Journal, vol. 1, p. 35.

would be selected rather in view of their qualifications to do the general work of the school than because of any special fitness to train teachers. Besides, inasmuch "as the course of study proper to qualify teachers must be essentially different from a common academical course, it would be impossible for any preceptor duly to superintend both." The objection to concentrating their resources in a single institution was that if it were successful its success could be known to but a small part of the people of the State.

It seemed best, therefore, after mature deliberation, to establish three normal schools, one to be located in the northeastern, one in the southeastern, and one in the western part of the State, to be continued for 3 years as an experiment. And inasmuch as the sum at their disposal was altogether inadequate to the provision of buildings, furniture, and the like, the board gave due notice that they would establish the schools at suitable places as soon as they received the necessary assistance, in the hope that private individuals might give them aid in carrying out their plan.

Seven different towns offered to provide buildings, fixtures, and furniture, and all the means necessary for carrying on the school exclusive of the compensation of teachers, and other towns made generous offers. At a meeting of the board, December 28, 1838, it was voted to locate a normal school for the qualification of female teachers in the town of Lexington, and one at Barre for teachers of both sexes.

The next matter to be decided was the course of study. It would be extremely interesting to know exactly what influences led to the ultimate decision of this question. As Dr. W. T. Harris says, "All normal school work in this country follows substantially one tradition, and this * * * traces back directly to the course laid down by" Cyrus Peirce, or as I would say, by the school board of Massachusetts.* Eben S. Stearns says that the labors of Charles Brooks determined the particular form which normal schools took in this country and it seems altogether probable that he is right.† In a passage already quoted, Horace Mann, comparing the teachers' departments of the New York academies with the normal schools about to be opened in Massachusetts (he was writing in March, 1839), said that he would not presume to say that the plan adopted in New York was not the best at the time it was adopted, since almost all the information possessed by the community at large on the subject had been acquired in the preceding 3 years—that is, in precisely the period during which Charles Brooks had been lecturing all over New England on the Prussian normal schools. Now, as everybody knows, the course of study in the normal schools of Prussia was arranged on the theory that a teacher needs a special professional knowledge of the subjects he undertakes to teach, as well as a knowledge of

* See p. 12 of Proceedings of the Semicentennial Celebration of the State Normal School at Framingham.

† See p. 42 of Memorial of the Quarter-centennial of the Establishment of Normal Schools in this country.

what may be termed pedagogics. Whether it was a mere coincidence, or whether, as seems altogether likely, it was due to the influence of the Prussian seminaries, and especially to the enthusiastic and untiring labors of Charles Brooks in making the nature and work of those seminaries known, there was quite a unanimity of opinion among the the educators of Massachusetts as to the theory upon which the course of study in the normal schools should be based. As their special object was the preparation of teachers for the work of the common schools, they agreed that these schools could best accomplish that object by giving their pupils a special professional knowledge of the subjects they were preparing to teach, as well as of pedagogics. The idea that finds such favor with many of our educators to-day, that the true function of normal schools consists in pedagogical instruction alone, would evidently have found no favor with the educators of that time if it had been suggested to them. Horace Mann said that the first business of a normal school consists "in reviewing and thoroughly and critically mastering the rudiments or elementary branches of knowledge." Mr. George S. Hilliard said (in 1841) that the reason why the branches taught in the common schools were taught in the normal schools was not that these were not known to the pupils in a certain way, but because their knowledge was so loosely arranged that it was necessary to go all over the steps by which they attained it, in order to rearrange it for communication. Every person, however educated, he continued in substance, at college or elsewhere, who undertakes to teach, finds it necessary to go over the ground again, and to reconsider the elements of his knowledge and reconstruct it.* But the clearest exposition I have been able to find of the theory upon which the course of study laid down for the first normal schools of Massachusetts was based, is contained in an oration delivered by Governor Edward Everett at the opening of the two normal schools in 1839. He said:

Such a course of instruction will obviously consist of the following parts:

(1) A careful review of the branches of knowledge required to be taught in our common schools; it being, of course, the first requisite of a teacher that he should himself know well that which he is to aid others in learning. Such an acquaintance with these branches of knowledge is much less common than may be generally supposed. The remark may sound paradoxical, but I believe it will bear examination, when I say that a teacher thoroughly versed in those branches only which are taught in our common schools is as difficult to find as a first-rate lawyer, divine, or physician, statesman, man of business, or farmer. A good schoolmaster should be able to read and speak the English language with propriety, ease, and grace; and this can not be done without a thorough knowledge of its grammar. He should possess, at the same time, a clear, shapely, and rapid handwriting, and be well versed in the elemental principles and operations of numbers. Without going beyond these three branches—best designated by the good old-fashioned names of reading, writing, and arithmetic—I venture to say that a man who possesses them thoroughly is as rare as one of corresponding eminence in any of the learned professions. And yet the law requires such masters for our district schools. What says the statute? "In every

*See p. 332 of the Massachusetts Common School Journal, vol. III.

town containing 50 families or householders, there shall be kept, in each year, at the charge of the town, by a teacher or teachers of competent abilities and good morals, a school for the instruction of children in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and good behavior."

How few, even of those considered men of education, are thoroughly versed even in the branches required by law in our common schools! How much fewer who know them as a teacher should know them; for a teacher ought to know of everything much more than the learner can be expected to acquire. The teacher must know things in a masterly way, curiously, nicely, and in their reasons.

The great mistake in monitorial instruction is, that it supposes that the moment the bare knowledge of a fact in its naked form is attained, it qualifies a person to teach it to others. The teacher must see the truth under all its aspects, with its antecedents and consequents, or he can not present it in just that shape in which the young mind can apprehend it. He must, as he holds the diamond up to the sun, turn its facets round and round till the pupil catches its luster. It is not an uncommon thing to hear it said of a grown person that he is too learned to teach children; that he knows too much; is too far in advance of their minds to perceive their difficulties. I imagine the trouble generally to be of the opposite character. The man of learning either never understood the matter thoroughly, or he has forgotten what he once knew. He has retained enough of his school learning for the particular calling of life he has chosen, but he has not retained a clear recollection of the elemental truths which it is necessary the learner should comprehend. If in this state of things he can not comprehend the schoolboy's difficulty, it is *not his superior wisdom*, but his ignorance, which is at fault. These remarks apply particularly to the science of numbers, over which most of our children pass languishing days and weeks, vainly striving to master a hard "sum" or a hard rule, which they finally give up in despair, or of which they content themselves with some false explanation, from pure want of capacity on the part of the teacher. A child of 8 or 9 years of age, at one of our district schools, had run through the chief rules of arithmetic, as it used to be taught, doing all the sums, and setting them down in his ciphering book, without the slightest comprehension of the reason of any one of the operations. At last, after going for a second or third time through the rule of decimals, he, for the first time, caught a glimpse of the real nature of a decimal fraction, of which he had been wholly ignorant before, and which, in his simplicity, he thought a discovery of his own. It was not till some time afterward that he found out that mankind had for a great while been aware that a decimal is the numerator of a fraction whose denominator is a unit with as many ciphers as the numerator has places. The first object of instruction in a normal school is, as far as possible, in the space of time assigned to its instructions, to go over the circle of branches required to be taught, and see that the future teacher is thoroughly and minutely versed in them.

(2) The second part of instruction in a normal school is the art of teaching. To know the matter to be taught and to know it thoroughly, are of themselves, though essential, not all that is required. There is a peculiar art of teaching. The details of this branch are inexhaustible, but it is hoped that the most important principles may be brought within such a compass as to afford material benefit to those who pass even the shortest time at these institutions. The subject should be taken up at its foundation, in those principles of our nature on which education depends, the laws which control the faculties of the youthful mind in the pursuit and attainment of truth, and the moral sentiments on the part of teacher and pupil which must be brought into harmonious action. The future teacher must be instructed in the most effectual way of reaching unttaught mind—a process subtle, difficult, various. The first thing requisite often will be to ascertain what has to be unlearned, both as to positive errors and bad habits of mind. * * *

(3) The third branch of instruction to be imparted in an institution, concerns the important subject of the government of the school, and might perhaps more justly have been named the first. The best method of governing a school—that

is, of exercising such a moral influence in it as is most favorable to the improvement of the pupils—will form a very important part of the course of instruction designed to qualify teachers for their calling. It is this part of their duty which is probably least considered by themselves or their employers; for the reason, perhaps, that qualification in this respect is least capable of being estimated by an external standard. But how much is not implied in the words “to govern a school.” For several hours in the day the teacher is to exercise the authority of a parent over 50 or 60, perhaps over 90 or 100, children. Parents can form an opinion whether this is a task to be executed without a system, without principles, and as a matter of course; or whether it is not that in which the youthful teacher will most stand in need of all the preparation which it is possible to acquire. Without the aid of that instinct of natural affection which fortifies parental authority, he is expected, with a parent's power, to control alike the docile and the obstinate, the sullen and the gay. * * *

(4) In the last place, it is to be observed, that in aid of all the instruction and exercises within the limits of the normal school, properly so called, there is to be established a common or district school, as a school of practice, in which, under the direction of the principal in the normal school, the young teacher may have the benefit of actual exercise in the business of instruction.*

Upon the theory so clearly formulated by the president *ex officio* of the board of education the course of study was worked out. The following conditions of admission were prescribed:

As a prerequisite to admission candidates must declare it to be their intention to qualify themselves to become school-teachers. If males they must have attained the age of 17 years complete, and of 16, if females, and must be free from any disease or infirmity which would unfit them for the office of teachers. They must undergo an examination * * * in orthography, geography, and arithmetic. They must furnish satisfactory evidence of good intellectual capacity and of high moral character and principles. Examinations for admission will take place at the commencement of each academic year, and oftener at the discretion and convenience of the visitors and the principal.†

The minimum of the term of study was fixed at one year, but a student wishing to remain longer in order to prepare himself for teaching the common schools, might do so, having first obtained the consent of the principal.

The following was the course of study:

- (1) Orthography, reading, grammar, composition and rhetoric, logic.
- (2) Writing, drawing.
- (3) Arithmetic (mental and written), algebra, geometry, bookkeeping, navigation, surveying.
- (4) Geography (ancient and modern), with chronology, statistics, and general history.
- (5) Physiology.
- (6) Mental philosophy.
- (7) Music.
- (8) Constitution and history of Massachusetts and of the United States.
- (9) Natural philosophy and astronomy.
- (10) Natural history.

*See “Orations and Speeches” of Edward Everett, vol. II, pp. 350-357.

†See p. 37 of the Massachusetts Common School Journal, vol. I.

(11) The principles of piety and morality common to all sects of Christians.

(12) The science and art of teaching with reference to all the above-named studies.*

From this course a selection was to be made for those who were to remain but one year, according to the kind of school they were preparing to teach.

It was further determined that normal schools should be under the inspection of visitors, to be chosen in all cases from the board, except that the secretary of the board might be competent to serve in that capacity.

It was decided also that each normal school should have an experimental or model school.†

The next June, Rev. Cyrus Peirce, of Nantucket, was engaged as principal of the normal school at Lexington, which opened the 3d of July with 3 pupils.

Horace Mann said, writing of the teachers' departments in the academies of New York two years after they had been abandoned, that it "was the most unfortunate step ever taken in New York on the subject of education," because it cost "hundreds of thousands of dollars, and lost 20 years of time after the necessity of more efficient means had become a conviction in the minds of all intelligent men."‡

I have never been able to think so. If the first normal school established in this country had failed the cause of normal school instruction would have received a wound from which it would have taken a long time to recover. If there was one State in the Union in 1839 in which normal schools, if established, had to succeed, that State was Massachusetts. With such guardians as Horace Mann and Cyrus Peirce and the hosts of loyal and devoted friends who stood around the cradle of the young institution, it would have been strange indeed if it had not reached a healthy and vigorous maturity, feeble and sickly as it seemed at birth. It is fitting that the statue of Horace Mann should stand side by side with that of Daniel Webster. To the statesman's breadth of view and power of generalization and ability to follow out in imagination the complex consequences of proposed measures; to an ardor and intensity of nature that made it impossible for him to think of a wrong without feeling a strong impulse to right it; above all, to a philanthropy so absorbing that it made self-sacrifice the keenest of pleasures, Horace Mann united a power of concentration, an ability to strive with untiring energy to reach the goal upon which he had set his heart without allowing himself to be diverted by any subordinate interest however strong, which might have enabled him to reach any honor the people of Massachusetts had to bestow if he could have seen his ideal in politi-

*See p. 38, vol. 1, of the Massachusetts Common School Journal.

†See Massachusetts Common School Journal, vol. 1, p. 38.

‡See p. 238, vol. 1, of Massachusetts Common School Journal.

cal life. When he accepted the secretaryship of the board of education he gave up a lucrative practice at the bar, declined reelection to the senate, ceased to work in the different temperance organizations with which he was connected and in whose efforts he was profoundly interested, in order that his entire life might be devoted to the cause of the common schools. During the twelve years in which he was secretary the great question at the bottom of all the questions that agitated the people was whether slavery or freedom was the corner stone of the American Republic; whether the right of petition and freedom of speech should be denied at the bidding of slavery, and whether the representatives of free States were bound by their oaths to support the Constitution to assist in enlarging the territory of the Republic, because the interests of slavery demanded it. And when these were the questions that were setting the hearts of patriots and philanthropists on fire, Horace Mann, who believed in the fundamental principles of the Declaration of Independence in every fiber of his being, who hated slavery as the incarnation of evil, withdrew himself entirely from political parties, and for twelve years never attended a political meeting of any kind. To him the improvement of the common schools was the supremely important object. "The narrow strip of half-cultivated land that lies between her eastern and western boundaries," said he in one of his reports, "is not Massachusetts, but her noble and incorruptible men, her pure and exalted women, the children in all her schools, whose daily lessons are the preludes and rehearsals of the great duties of life, and the prophecies of future eminence, these are the State." To make these rehearsals rehearsals of the noblest possible music—that seemed to Horace Mann an object worthy of the consecration of the powers of any human being. And apart from the eloquent testimony of his life we know from definite and specific statements what he thought of the relation between normal schools and the improvement of the common schools. In a speech delivered at the dedication of the State normal schoolhouse at Bridgewater August 19, 1846, he said:

I believe normal schools to be a new instrumentality in the advancement of the race. I believe that without them free schools themselves would be shorn of their strength and their healing power, and would at length become mere charity schools and thus die out in fact and form. Neither the art of printing, nor the trial by jury, nor a free press, nor a free suffrage can long exist to any beneficial and salutary purpose without schools for the training of teachers; for, if the character and qualifications of teachers be allowed to degenerate, the free schools will become pauper schools and the pauper schools will produce pauper souls, and the free press will become a false and licentious press, and ignorant voters will become venal voters, and through the medium and guise of republican forms an oligarchy of profligate and flagitious men will govern the land; nay, the universal diffusion and ultimate triumph of all-glorious Christianity itself must await the time when knowledge shall be diffused among men through the instrumentality of good schools. Coiled up in this institution as in a spring, there is a vigor whose uncoiling may whirl the spheres.

When such a man had such an opinion of normal schools, is it any wonder that they succeeded?

But in the opinion of Henry Barnard (and there are few more competent judges), the labors of Cyrus Peirce were even more essential to the success of normal schools. "Had it not been for Mr. Cyrus Peirce," said Barnard, "I consider the cause of normal schools would have failed or have been postponed for an indefinite period;" "and many eminent educators," said Mrs. Electa N. L. Walton, quoting the statement in her Historical Sketch of the First State Normal School in America, "have since echoed the sentiment." It is not hard to see the reason for this opinion. January 1, 1841, Mr. Peirce wrote the following letter to Mr. Barnard, who published it in the Connecticut Common School "Journal":

You ask for a full account of my manner of instruction in the art of teaching. This it is not easy to give; from what I say you may get some idea of what I attempt, and of the manner of it. Two things I have aimed at especially in this school: (1) To teach thoroughly the principles of the several branches studied, so that the pupils may have a clear and full understanding of the best way of teaching the same thing effectually to others. I have four different methods of recitation: first, by question and answer; second, by conversation; third, by calling on one, two, three, more or less, to give an analysis of the whole subject contained in the lesson; and, fourth, by requiring written analyses in which the ideas of the author are stated in the language of the pupil. I do not mean that these are all practiced at the same exercise. The students understand that, at all the recitations, they are at perfect liberty to suggest queries, doubts, opinions. At all the recitations we have more or less of discussion. Much attention is paid to the manner in which the pupils set forth or state their positions. I am ever mingling, or attempting to mingle, at these exercises, theory and example; frequently putting the inquiry to them, not only how do you understand such and such a statement, but, how would you express such and such a sentiment, or explain such a principle, or illustrate such a position to a class which you may be teaching? Let me, I say to them, hear your statements, or witness your modes of illustrating and explaining. In this connection I frequently call them to the blackboard for visible representation. They make the attempt; I remark upon their manner of doing it, and endeavor to show them in what respect it may be improved. Sometimes, instead of reciting the lesson directly to me, I ask them to imagine themselves, for the time, acting in the capacity of teachers to a class of young pupils, and to adopt a style suitable for such a purpose. At many of our recitations more than half the time is spent with reference to teaching the art of teaching. Besides delivering to the school a written formal lecture once a week, in which I speak of the qualifications, motives, and duties of teachers, the discipline, management, and instruction of schools, and the manner in which the various branches should be taught, I am, every day, in conversation, or a familiar sort of lectures, taking up and discussing more particularly and minutely some point or points suggested by the exercises or occurrences, it may be of the day, relating to the internal operations of the schoolroom, or to physical, moral, or intellectual education. I say much about the views and motives of teachers, and the motives by which they should attempt to stimulate their pupils. And here I would state that my theory goes to the entire exclusion of the premium and emulation system and of corporal punishment. My confidence in it is sustained and strengthened by a full and fair experiment for more than one year in a public school, composed of 70 scholars of both sexes. I am constantly calling up real or supposed cases, and either asking the pupils what they would do in such case, or stating to them what I would do myself, or both. As a specimen of such questions, take the following, viz: On going into a school as teacher, what is the first thing you would do? How will you proceed to bring to order and arrange your school? Will you have many rules, or few? Will you announce before-

hand a code of laws, or make special rules as they may be needed? What motives do you propose to appeal to, and what means will you adopt to make these pupils interested in their studies? What method will you adopt to teach spelling, reading, arithmetic? What will you do with the perseveringly idle and troublesome? What will you do if your scholars quarrel, lie, swear? What will you do if a scholar tells you he won't do as he is directed? If a question in any ordinary lesson, say arithmetic, comes up, which you can not solve readily, what will be your resort? Should you be chiefly ambitious to teach much, or to teach thoroughly? How would you satisfy yourself that your teaching is thorough, effectual? To what branches shall you attach most importance, and why? Will you aim chiefly to exercise the faculties, or communicate instruction? Besides these daily discussions or conversations we have a regular debate every Saturday, in which the principles involved in these and similar questions are discussed.

Reading I teach by oral inculcation of the principles as contained in Porter's Rhetorical Reader (which strikes me as in the main correct), and by example, reading myself before the whole class; hearing the pupils read, and then reading the same piece myself; pointing out their faults, and calling upon them to read again and again, and even the third and fourth time. They also read to each other in my presence. This is a most difficult art to teach. Very few good readers are found either in our schools or elsewhere. Spelling I teach both orally and by writing from the reading lesson, for I think each method has its advantages. Orthography has not yet received quite its merited attention in our schools. Most persons in business life have to write; few comparatively are called upon to read publicly; for this reason it is more important to be a correct speller than a fine reader.

I have adopted no text-book in teaching geography. Worcester's is chiefly used. My method has been to give out a subject (a particular country, e. g.) for examination. The class make searches, using what maps and books they have at command, and get all the information of every kind they can, statistical, historical, geographical, of the people, manners, religion, government, business, etc., and at the recitation we have the results of their researches. Giving to each a separate subject, I sometimes require the pupils to make an imaginary voyage or journey to one, two, three, or more countries, and give an account of everything on their return. If I were to teach geography to a class of young beginners, I should commence with the town in which they live.*

This letter alone is sufficient to show that Cyrus Peirce was a teacher of rare ability. But we have an abundance of more direct testimony. Mrs. Horace Mann, in her memoir of her husband, says:

Mr. Peirce proved to have qualifications for his vocation even beyond his [Mr. Mann's] expectations. He not only knew how to teach with precision, but he evoked from his pupils such a force of conscience as insured thorough study and assimilation of whatever was taught. When Mr. Mann first visited this school at Nantucket he was charmed by the evidence of power that the whole management and all the recitations of the school evinced; and when he spoke of it afterwards to gentlemen of the place, one of the most respectable citizens said to him that he had lived 40 years on the south shore and could always tell Mr. Peirce's scholars whenever he met them in the walks of life by their mode of transacting business and by all their mental habits, which were conscientious, exact, reliable. * * * He [Mr. Mann] always felt that to Mr. Peirce was chiefly owing the very rapid and unquestionable value in all eyes of this new movement.

Mr. Samuel J. May, whose opportunities for judging of the extent of the influence of Cyrus Peirce entitle his opinion to the greatest weight, said:

* In the same letter Mr. Peirce says that Abbott's Teacher is the text-book used in the art of teaching.

We are indebted for the establishment of normal schools to him more than to any other individual. * * * Mr. Peirce's profound reverence for truth is the basis of his character as a man and a teacher—truth in everything—the whole truth, the exact truth. *Never have we known another so scrupulous.* His reverence for truth was ever active, ever working in him, and renewing itself day by day in some higher manifestation or some deeper expression. Although he frequently, if not every day, closed his school with the admonition, "My pupils, live to the truth," yet it never seemed like a vain repetition; it always appeared to come fresh from his heart. * * *

To pupils of a facile, temporizing, slipshod disposition Mr. Peirce was tedious, because of his particularity. *Not partly, almost, very nearly right would ever satisfy him.* Each answer that was given him to every question that he put must be wholly, exactly correct, so correct as to make it self-evident that the one who gave it fully appreciated the truth expressed by the words he used, and used such words as made the truth luminous to others who were capable of receiving it. This intellectual and moral conscientiousness soon captivated those of a kindred spirit, and in due time impressed the most heedless as an admirable characteristic.

But not only by the thoroughness and faithfulness of his teaching did this Arnold of America prove his devotion to the cause of normal-school instruction. When he was on his way to Lexington to open the school there, he said to his wife, "Harriett, I would rather die than fail," and he meant it. He not only did all the teaching, but he was his own janitor. He could not find anyone who would never fail to do everything properly and punctually, and besides he did not want to increase the expenses of his pupils by adding to the amount of incidental expenses which they had to pay. Accordingly, he allowed himself but four hours of sleep. When the weather was very cold he would go at 11 or 12 at night and fill up the furnace, and again at 3 or 4 in the morning, to insure that the room would be comfortable when school was opened. After he had attended to the fires at the latter hour, he would sweep the snow from the steps when that was necessary, shovel paths around the house, bring water enough from a well near by to last during the day, and then study till school time. He carefully prepared every lesson he had to teach. It is no wonder that, as Horace Mann said, it came very near being a drawn game; that he not only succeeded, but came very near dying.

We have seen that the school opened with 3 pupils. Before the end of the term there were a dozen. The next term a model school was organized. It contained 33 pupils, whose ages ranged from 6 to 10.

But in spite of the excellent work done by Mr. Peirce and Mr. S. P. Newman in the normal school at Barre, a desperate attack was made upon these institutions and the board of education in the legislature in 1840. On the 3d of March of that year the committee on education was directed by the house of representatives to consider the expediency of abolishing the board of education and the normal schools; and on the 7th of March the majority of the committee made a report recommending that both institutions be abolished, and appended to their report a bill for carrying their recommendation into effect. The following are some of the objections urged by the majority of the committee against the board of education:

The board has a tendency, and a strong tendency, to engross to itself the entire regulation of our common schools, and particularly to convert the legislature into a mere instrument for carrying its plan into execution.

If the board has any actual power it is a dangerous power, trenching directly upon the rights and duties of the legislature; if it has no power, why continue its existence at an annual expense to the Commonwealth?

As a mere organ for the collection and diffusion of information on the subject of education, the board seems to your committee to be, in several respects, very much inferior to those voluntary associations of teachers which preceded the existence of the board, and which, perhaps, suggested the idea of it.

A very cursory examination of these documents (the reports issued by the board of education) will suffice to show that, so far from continuing our system of public instruction upon the plan upon which it was founded, and according to which it has been so long and so successfully carried on, the aim of the board appears to be to remodel it altogether after the example of the French and Prussian systems. [Accordingly] The establishment of the board of education seems to be the commencement of a system of centralization and of monopoly of power in a few hands, contrary, in every respect to the true spirit of our democratic institutions, and which, unless speedily checked, may lead to unlooked for and dangerous results.

The right to mold the political, moral, and religious opinions of his children, is a right exclusively and jealously reserved by our laws to every parent; and for the government to attempt, directly or indirectly, as to these matters, to stand in the parent's place, is an undertaking of very questionable policy. Such an attempt can not fail to excite a feeling of jealousy with respect to our public schools, the results of which could not but be disastrous. A prominent measure already brought forward by the board of education, as a means of molding the sentiments of the rising generation, is the project of furnishing, under the sanction of the board, a school library for each district in the Commonwealth. It is professed, indeed, that the matter selected for this library will be free both from sectarian and political objections. Unquestionably the board will endeavor to render it so. Since, however, religion and politics in this free country are so intimately connected with every other subject, the accomplishment of that object is utterly impossible, nor would it be desirable if possible.

Another project, imitated from France and Prussia, and set on foot under the superintendence of the board of education, is the establishment of normal schools. Your committee approach this subject with some delicacy, inasmuch as one-half the expense of the two normal schools already established has been sustained by private munificence. If, however, no benefit in proportion to the money spent is derived from these schools, it is our duty as legislators, in justice, not only to the Commonwealth, but to the private donor, to discontinue the project. Comparing the two normal schools already established with the academies and high schools of the Commonwealth, they do not appear to your committee to present any peculiar or distinguishing advantages. Academies and high schools cost the Commonwealth nothing; and they are fully competent, in the opinion of your committee, to furnish a competent supply of teachers. * * * It appears to your committee that every person who has himself undergone the process of instructing must acquire by that very process the art of instructing others. * * * Considering that our district schools are kept on an average for only 3 or 4 months in the year, it is obviously impossible, and perhaps it is not desirable, that the business of keeping these schools should become a distinct and separate profession, which the establishment of normal schools seems to anticipate.

Any man who includes among his acquaintances a number of pessimists should have a number of copies of this entire report printed for their especial benefit. That 184 out of 430 members of the house of representatives of the State of Massachusetts voted for a bill to abol-

ish the board of education and the normal schools, based on such reasons, is as striking a proof as I can furnish of the progress which we have made in educational directions in the last fifty years. I should have been glad to be able to publish the entire document as a historical curiosity. It has the same kind of interest as the instruments used by the prehistoric cave-dwellers!

A minority of the committee, Messrs. John A. Shaw and Thos. A. Greene, submitted a minority report 4 days later—March 4, 1840. I do not deem it necessary to make an abstract of it. It is a thoroughly modern document, just such a clear, conclusive, crushing demonstration of the fallacies contained in the report of the majority as we should expect from a committee of the National Educational Association. The minority appended to their report two letters written by George B. Emerson, who had been principal of the Boston high school, and was then teacher of a school for young ladies, and from Dr. Samuel G. Howe, director of the Institution of the Blind, at South Boston, respectively, in reply to a letter from Mr. Greene asking their opinion of the normal school at Lexington. I make short quotations from each:

I very much regretted [said Mr. Emerson] that you could not have joined us in the visit, to which you refer in your note of this morning, to the normal school at Lexington. I spent the day with more pleasure than I ever before received from a similar examination.

I had, as you know, high expectations of the effect of special instruction in the preparation of teachers. But what I saw far surpassed what I had expected. The kind of instruction given as to the preparation to be made by a teacher, the branches to be taught, the methods of teaching, and the modes of influencing and governing pupils, were such as might have been expected from a long-enlightened and well-directed experience. But the facility with which these were communicated surprised me, and the interest in the pursuit, which I found to have been excited, was such as I never before witnessed. * * * This school [the model school], had been in operation but little more than half a year, and several of the young ladies had been there only a few weeks. Yet I am confident from what I saw of their modes of teaching that those individuals will show the effects of those few weeks of special instruction all the remainder of their lives. They can never teach in the blind and lifeless way in which thousands of elementary schools are taught.

And if the spirit which I saw exhibited may be taken as an indication of the influence which would be exerted in a longer course I will say without hesitation that so amply qualified teachers are not now to be found in the elementary schools of the State as would be formed among the individuals now at the school by a full course of instruction, such as is designed.

In the normal school the object seemed to be—for I had no opportunity of learning what are the intentions of the principal—first, to give great thoroughness in those branches which are of the greatest importance in the common elementary schools, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, etc.; next, to add those studies which would give an acquaintance with the minds and characters of children, just as, in an agricultural school, we should expect to see communicated an acquaintance with plants and the nature of soils; and lastly, to give some knowledge of those principles of science on which children are most inquisitive, and with which, therefore, a well-qualified teacher's mind should be amply stored.

These all were admirably well taught; and, what was still better, the pupils seemed to have imbibed in a most remarkable degree the zeal and earnestness which are so essential to success in a teacher, and which yet are so uncommon. * * *

Dr. Howe said:

I have received your note in which you ask my opinion of the normal school at Lexington. * * *

I can express my opinion the more confidently because I have more than once visited the school; because I have examined the pupils in their various branches of study; and because I have had other opportunities of knowing the principles of the system of instruction. * * *

It has been in my power to examine many schools in this country and in various parts of the world; but I am free to declare that, in my opinion, the best school I ever saw in this or any other country is the normal school at Lexington.

The discipline of the school is perfect; the pupils regard their teacher with profound respect, yet tender affection; their interest in their studies is deep and constant; their attainments are of a high order; and they thoroughly understand every subject as far as they go.

But not for these things do I give this school the preference, for others in this country and in Europe may equal it in these respects; but I prefer it because the system of instruction is truly philosophical; because it is based upon the principle that the young mind hungers and thirsts for knowledge as the body does for food; because it makes the pupils not merely recipients of knowledge, but calls all their faculties into operation to attain it themselves, and, finally, because, relying on the higher and nobler parts of the pupils' nature, it rejects all addresses to bodily fears and all appeals to selfish feelings. * * *

There is one point of view, however, in which this school particularly interested me, and in which it presented a beautiful moral spectacle, the memory of which will dwell long in my mind. It was the fact that every pupil seemed impressed with a deep sense of the importance of the calling which she was to follow. They seemed to feel that at least the temporal weal or woe of hundreds of human beings might be dependent upon the fidelity with which they should perform their duty as teachers. Consequently everyone was desirous of becoming acquainted with the philosophy of mind, and they received such excellent instruction that they seemed to understand the various springs and incentives to action which exist in a child's bosom. * * *

I will only repeat to you what I have said to others, that if, instead of the 25 teachers who will go out from the normal school at Lexington, there could go out over the length and breadth of Massachusetts 500 like them to take charge of the rising generation, that generation would have more reason to bless us than if we should cover the whole State with railroads like a spider's web, and bring physical comforts to every man's door, and leave an overflowing treasury to divide its surplus among all the citizens.

These letters give a new meaning to that saying of Henry Barnard, "Had it not been for Mr. Cyrus Peirce I consider the cause of normal schools would have failed or have been postponed for an indefinite period."

At the end of three years Mr. Peirce's health broke down and he was obliged to resign. He was succeeded by the Rev. Samuel J. May. Mr. May was an ardent philanthropist, and he proved a very successful teacher. "His success in the school was complete, giving entire satisfaction to all but himself." Under his management the attendance more than doubled. When he took charge of the school there were 31 students, and at the end of two years there were 66.

Thus the school outgrew its accommodations, and as the people of Lexington did not seem disposed to exert themselves to provide for it, Mr. May looked elsewhere. He found in the village of West Newton

suitable buildings and grounds which could be bought for \$1,500. But where was the money to come from? The board of education had no funds which could be used for such a purpose. In this juncture Mr. Mann appealed to a warm personal friend, who was at the same time a friend of education. Rushing into the office of the Hon. Josiah Quincy, he exclaimed, "Quincy, do you know of anyone who wants the highest seat in the Kingdom of Heaven, for it is to be bought for \$1,500?" Mr. Quincy asked for an explanation, and when he understood the matter he drew his check for \$1,500, and directed Mr. Mann to buy the building and take a deed in his own name, and in case the normal school system should be abandoned to devote the proceeds that might arise from a sale of the buildings to the advancement in any way he pleased of common-school education.

About this time Mr. May, finding that Mr. Peirce's health was sufficiently recovered to enable him to take charge of the school, promptly resigned August 31, 1844, to make way for the reappointment of Mr. Peirce. Mr. Peirce was reappointed September 1, 1844.

Not long after Mr. May's resignation (November 6, 1844), he addressed a letter to the board of education concerning the Lexington normal school, obviously intended, however, rather for the people of Massachusetts. His avowed reason for writing was that there were still some persons in the community who doubted the utility of normal schools. He had therefore thought it incumbent upon him to put the board in possession of all the information on that point he had been able to gather. After stating that he had resigned to make way for one who had much more experience and possessed much more skill than himself in the art of teaching, he said that there had been 243 pupils admitted into the school since it was opened. Of that number 64 were then in the school; 25 had left at the close of the last term, too recently to have made a record; 20 had not completed the course; and 13 who had completed the course had not engaged in teaching. That would leave 122 who had been and were teaching in different parts of the State and the country, and by their success or failure he thought the utility of normal schools might in some measure be fairly inferred.

Before proceeding to lay before the board some of the evidence he had collected on this point, he made some statements that are worthy of very careful attention.

Let it be premised, however [he said], that it would not be fair in the legislature to demand that all normal pupils shall become successful teachers. *It has been found impossible to prevent the admission into these schools of some who have been found, on trial, not to possess the tact or the temper necessary for imparting knowledge, although they may possess talents for acquiring it.** Then, again, the term prescribed by your honorable body for the course of training to be pursued in the normal schools has in several instances been found too short to develop and bring into exercise talents that have undoubtedly existed. It has consequently happened in several instances that pupils have completed the course prescribed and have gone forth to teach, respecting whose

*Italics by author of circular.

ability we have felt doubtful, and yet have not felt that it would be right in us wholly to prevent their attempting to teach by proclaiming our belief of their inability. They have therefore been furnished with certificates of scholarship and good moral character (of one or both as they have been deserved), and allowed to go and succeed if they could.* In some cases they have succeeded remarkably well. In others they have failed as we expected. But the failure of such ought not to redound to the discredit of this institution, because they have not gone from us with certificates of ability to teach. While I had charge of the Lexington normal school, 54 (this number does not include the 25 who left August 14) completed the course prescribed and left us, 5 of whom have not yet, so far as we are informed, engaged in teaching. Of the whole number, 31 carried from me certificates of my confidence in their ability to teach and govern a school. Only two of these failed to realize my expectations, and one of these two is recovering herself. The other 20 went forth, some of them with certificates in which no assurance, or only a qualified belief, of their ability to manage schools was expressed; several without certificates of any kind. Five of these are reported to have kept very good schools. The rest have, some of them, done tolerably well, and the others have entirely failed.†

This letter shows that in the very beginning of its history the Lexington normal school had realized that the preparation of teachers is not the only work of a normal school. The first passage which I have italicized shows that it tried to keep those who lacked the tact and temper of the teacher from undertaking the work of teaching; the second, that it realized its obligation to do what it could to assist employers in deciding whom they ought to employ as teachers. Of the three functions of the normal school: (1) To keep out of the profession of teaching those who have no natural aptitude for the business; (2) to give to the public all the aid they can in avoiding the selection of those who, in spite of their efforts, have got into the profession without possessing those natural qualifications which are essential to success in teaching; and (3) to give to intending teachers who possess the necessary qualifications the utmost possible assistance in preparing for their work, it is safe to say that the first two have not received the attention they deserved in the normal schools of this country. While the last may be admitted to be the most important, the first two certainly have a high degree of importance. I am glad to be able to say that the Lexington normal school, now at Framingham, continues to maintain its reputation in one of these particulars. A school superintendent in Massachusetts said not long ago:

I am sometimes disappointed in teachers sent from schools which do not have a practice department, but I accept a recommendation from Miss Hyde with perfect confidence, knowing her pupils will turn out just what she says of them. She has

* Italics by author of circular.

† See pp. 64-65 of the Massachusetts Common School Journal, where may also be found extracts from some of the letters Mr. May had received in reply to a circular letter to teachers who had graduated at the institution, asking, among other things, for copies of any testimonials they had received. It is hardly necessary to say that they indicate a high degree of success.

done more for the school to secure the perfect confidence of committees than perhaps any other teacher of the normal corps throughout the State. She has insight of character, and observes her pupils in actual work.*

The limits within which I am obliged to confine myself make it impossible for me to give more than a meager outline of the history of this school from this time on to the present. On the 20th of March, 1845, the legislature resolved "That the schools heretofore known as normal schools, shall hereafter be known as State normal schools." On account of failing health Mr. Peirce was again obliged to resign in April, 1849. Mr. Elam S. Stearns was appointed to succeed him. "He proved himself," said Mrs. Walton in her historical sketch, "a fit successor of Mr. Peirce and Mr. May." During his administration the popularity of the school became so great that it became expedient to adopt more rigid examinations, and insist more rigidly on the requirements for admission. Pupils falling short of the required age but a few days were often rejected. Candidates were required to give severe and binding pledges that they would be faithful as members of the institution, and devote themselves, if qualified, to teaching in the schools of the State. None were allowed to remain in the school who did not give promise of aptness to teach and to govern, however excellent their scholarship and character. The course of study was extended a half-year and made more thorough, and an additional 3-years' course was introduced.

* Quoted by Mrs. Electa N. L. Walton in her "Historical Sketch of the First State Normal School in America."

Horace Mann's seventh report to the board of education contains the following passage: "Then come, though only in some parts of Prussia, these preliminary schools, where those who wish eventually to become teachers go in order to have their natural qualities and adaptation for schoolkeeping tested; for it must be borne in mind that a man may have the most unexceptionable character, may be capable of mastering all the branches of study, may even be able to make the most brilliant recitations from day to day, and yet, from some coldness or repulsiveness of manner, from harshness of voice, from some natural defect in his person or in one of his senses, he may be adjudged an unsuitable model or archetype for children to be conformed to, or to grow by; and hence he may be dismissed at the end of his probationary term of 6 months. At one of these preparatory schools, which I visited, the list of subjects at the examination, a part of which I saw, was divided into two classes, as follows: (1) Readiness in thinking; German language, including orthography and composition; history, description of the earth, knowledge of nature, thorough bass, calligraphy, drawing. (2) Religion, knowledge of the Bible, mental arithmetic, singing, violin playing, and readiness or facility in speaking. The examination in all the branches of the first class was conducted in writing. To test a pupil's readiness in thinking, for instance, several topics for composition are given out, and, after the lapse of a certain number of minutes, whatever has been written out must be handed in to the examiners. So questions in arithmetic are given, and the time occupied by the pupils in solving them is a test of their quickness of thought or power of commanding their own resources. This facility or faculty is considered of great importance to the teacher. In the second class of subjects the pupils were examined orally. Two entire days were occupied in examining a class of 30 pupils, and only 21 were admitted to the seminary school, that is, only about two-thirds were considered to be eligible to become eligible. Thus, in the first instance, the chaff is winnowed out and not a few of the lighter grains of the wheat."

On December 15, 1853, the school was removed from Lexington to Framingham.

In September, 1855, Mr. Stearns resigned and was succeeded by Mr. George N. Bigelow. "His faithfulness in details, his versatility of talents and acquirements, with his perfect courtesy and kindly interest, can never be forgotten," wrote one of his pupils. "His desire to help young teachers and all who needed assistance and encouragement was characteristic of him through life, and he spared neither time nor personal effort in his unselfish desire to benefit them. His ideas of teaching were advanced and progressive," wrote another.

In 1866 Mr. Bigelow resigned, and was succeeded by his first assistant, Miss Annie E. Johnson.

On the occasion of her accession, ex-Governor Washburn delivered an address in Framingham, in which he said:

I congratulate you that by the experiment this day inaugurated, your sex is at last to have one fair field in which to vindicate the confidence which the board of education, in behalf of the State, have—that in the learning and skill and patriotic sentiment of her daughters the Commonwealth is to share an element of moral power which has never before been fully developed. The free states of Greece did not lose their independence so much from the lack of intelligence and love of liberty in their men as for want of the influence, the counsel, and the equal companionship of women.

In their next annual report the visitors said:

In one thing the visitors of the Framingham school take special satisfaction in offering this, their report of its condition the last year; and that is, in the entire success of its management by a female principal and female assistants.

Previous to the removal of the school to Framingham the practice school had been regarded as an absolutely essential adjunct of the normal school, but it was first opened in Framingham during Miss Johnson's administration. She began this work with a single class of children, which grew into a little school of 20 pupils.

When Miss Hyde took charge of the normal school in 1875, she made the practice school a special and prominent feature of normal training, as we have already seen. The practice school now numbers about 100 pupils, and is organized in eight classes for a course of 8 years. In this time they are fitted for the high school, and in addition to the usual subjects they are instructed in botany, zoölogy, history, and inventional geometry. The school is seated in three rooms, each under the government of a regular teacher who teaches a class nearly every hour, leaving five and sometimes six classes to be taught by pupil teachers. When one of the three teachers is not teaching herself she assists in the work of criticism. The pupil teachers receive their practice in the senior year, and so much of it as the size of the class makes possible, usually from 4 to 5 weeks. They spend the forenoon teaching under the observation of two critic teachers; in the afternoon they have their regular class exercise in methods, and all other recitation work is

omitted while they are engaged in teaching. They receive individual criticism from the critic teacher. The aim of this criticism is to help the pupil teachers to see and correct their own mistakes. "Cut-and-dried" methods are not insisted on, but they are encouraged to make their own plans "within the limits of right principles and the general plan laid out for the class." They are held responsible for the discipline as well as for the government of the classes except in such serious cases as seldom occur, and these are handed over to the regular teacher. They are given as great a variety of work as is possible, both for the purpose of ascertaining what kind of work they are best fitted for, and for the purpose of preparing them for any grade they may be called upon to take charge of.

In answering the question as to the effect of this constant change of inexperienced teachers on the children, Miss Hyde says, "it is both good and bad, but not seriously harmful. It makes them quick, thoughtful, and intelligent, but deficient in exactness. Drill must always be the weak point in a practice school."

"The government of the school is as simple and homelike as possible. There are few rules, no marks, ranking, honor rolls, or artificial stimuli of any kind whatever." "Such a school," continues Miss Hyde, "can be kept in order only by a liberal supply of strong, experienced teachers, whose influence and example is felt by both children and pupil teachers."

In answering the question as to what proportion of their work is professional, Miss Hyde says that it is all "professional, as it all has direct reference to teaching. But in all the common branches, and in botany, zoölogy, and physiology we divide the work into two parts, the last of which consists exclusively of plans for teaching with illustrative lessons. These lessons occupy in each subject a term, or half-year."

The normal school at Barre was closed in 1842 and reopened in Westfield in 1844. This institution was the first normal school in the country to teach the objective method of teaching. I regret that I am unable to give a detailed account of it. The data to which I have been able to get access oblige me to confine myself to two extracts from a pamphlet giving an account of the semicentennial exercises of the school, together with biographical sketches of its teachers. The first is from the historical address delivered by Hon. J. W. Dickinson, now secretary of the board of education of Massachusetts, and is as follows:

At a meeting of the board held July 26, 1856, a new principal [J. W. Dickinson] of the normal school at Westfield was appointed in place of William H. Wells, resigned. He received his elementary education in the public schools at South Williamstown, and his preparation for college at Greylock Institute in same place, and at Williston Seminary, Easthampton. He entered Williams College in September, 1848, and graduated with his class in August, 1852. In September following he received the appointment of assistant teacher in the normal school at Westfield. He served under Mr. Rowe, principal, until March, 1853, and again until April, 1856, under Mr. Wells. During these 4 years of service as assistant teacher he made the principles and methods of teaching the subject of careful study and practice. This gradually prepared the way for a change in the work of the normal school. The course of study was

modified with more direct reference to the professional training of the pupil teachers. All subjects and objects were to be taught by topics and by the analytic objective method. The recitations were to be conducted no more by question and answer, but independently by the pupils, who were to teach the review lesson to one another as it had been taught to them. These changes in the methods of teaching required a preparation of the means, so that there might be no violation of the principles upon which the method was founded. This turned the attention of the school to collecting such objects, illustrative apparatus and reference books, as were necessary for a thorough system of objective teaching and study. The branches of learning required to be taught in the public schools were taken up, with special reference to teaching them to others in accordance with the laws of the human mind that control it in the acquisition of knowledge and development of its faculties. That the pupils of the normal school might have an opportunity of observing the application of their methods to real children, the town generally provided the school of observation, where they could add experience to their theories. The results of these things soon appeared in the professional spirit excited in the different departments of the normal school, in the improved work of its graduates, and in the new interest which their good example produced throughout the country in the study of the philosophy of education. The Westfield normal school was the first to show that all branches of learning may be taught by the same objective method, and that elementary knowledge should be taught with special and constant reference to the scientific knowledge which is to be occasioned by it.

I quote the following sentences from the biographical sketch of Dr. Dickinson, found in the same pamphlet:

Mr. Dickinson early became a most diligent student of pedagogical science, and was among the first to introduce those reforms in teaching which have since been working their way slowly into the best schools of the country. The Westfield normal school was the first to reduce the teaching of all subjects as well as objects to the analytic objective method, requiring the learner to use his own active power in working out, under the simple direction of the teacher, his own problems for himself.

CHAPTER IV.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL AT OSWEGO, N. Y.

The history of the normal school at Oswego, N. Y., constitutes an important chapter not only in the history of the training of teachers, but in the history of the public schools of this country. It originated, indeed, out of the necessities of the public schools of Oswego. In the spring of 1853 these schools were organized and consolidated under a board of education. Under the new arrangement a mixed system of schools went into operation, and a close classification was soon adopted. So thoroughly was this perfected that each teacher had but a single class of children of nearly the same age and of the same stage of advancement. Every grade had the same daily programme, so that the superintendent could tell at any given hour of the day exactly what exercises were going on in any school in the city. All promotions were made upon the basis of examinations conducted under the direction of the superintendent, who prepared all the questions and marked all the answers on a scale of ten. The standings were published in the annual report.

But Mr. E. A. Sheldon, who had been elected superintendent of schools in 1853, and who had originated this educational machine, was not satisfied with it. It seemed to him that something was wanted to give it life. As a mere machine, it was, indeed, worthy of all admiration. The definite tasks assigned to each teacher and pupil, each hour in the day, each day in the week, each week in the month, each month in the year, and each year in the course, were performed with praiseworthy exactness. Every rule and every definition was committed to memory with an exactness that defied criticism and applied with wonderful celerity. The system was, indeed, a perfect body, but it was dead, or rather it had never been alive. Words, words, words, were thrown into the hopper and the grist was nothing but words. The children could answer with great readiness all questions relating to what they had learned in their text-books, but outside of their text-books they were helpless. In a word, the system was an excellent machine for transferring the utmost possible amount of text-book information into the minds of the children, but as a means of developing latent powers, of cultivating permanent intellectual interest, of quickening and expanding the whole intellectual life, it was very defective indeed.

Mr. Sheldon began to be vaguely conscious of this without knowing how to remedy it. He had not given much attention to psychology, and had little acquaintance with educational theories. But the whole bent of his mind, and all the circumstances of his early life, led him to insist that an education should be real, that it should be so related to the work of life as to be practical in the best sense of the word. With that deep love of humanity which has been the motive of all great teachers, he improved the opportunity offered by some months of leisure in 1848 to look into the condition of the poor in Oswego. The ignorance and misery which he found among them amazed him. Day after day he was to be found in the poorest and most wretched parts of the city, becoming acquainted with the wants and miseries of the poor. Full of pity for them he induced some of his friends to help organize an "Orphan and Free School Association," whose object was to found a home for the orphans and to enable the poorer children of Oswego to go to school. Through the influence of the association a room was rented for a school, and to his own surprise and regret, he found everyone looking to him to take charge of it. And so it happened that in the winter of 1848 and 1849 he took charge of his first school—120 "wild Irish boys and girls of all ages, from 5 to 21," "utterly rude and untrained."

It was inevitable that such a school and such pupils would make a lasting impression upon such a man. To him, evidently, education was not a mere external thing, giving a certain smoothness and polish to the surface and leaving the interior unchanged. What his "wild Irish boys and girls" needed, what all men needed, he felt, was an education that prepares for the stern work of life, an education that animates, energizes and transforms the entire man. He felt that there was a terrible wrong in loading the memories of boys and girls with words, and calling it preparation for life. The feeling grew upon him that it would be better to bring the minds of his pupils into more direct contact with nature and reality; in a word, that the educational engine should be reversed, and instead of going from words to ideas, the effort should be first to develop ideas in the minds of children, and then encourage them to express them in words of their own. The suggestions in reference to "object lessons," in Page's "Theory and Practice of Teaching," the only work on pedagogy with which he was acquainted, seemed to him to look in the right direction. Accordingly he undertook to carry them out in his schools, but the results were not very satisfactory. The pupils continued practically to regard their lessons in geography, grammar, and arithmetic as so many exercises of the memory. They continued to memorize rules and definitions, and to apply them. They could not get ideas from their text-books and express them in their own language. In spite of all efforts to the contrary, they persisted in going to their recitations with the language of their text-books rather than their own. They found it easier to memorize than to think. In

the hope of breaking up this tendency, Mr. Sheldon had an edition of the geography in use published without any text, containing only the maps and pictures. But his teachers found it difficult to get along without their accustomed helps. They needed both facilities and direction, and Mr. Sheldon felt himself unable to give them either to his satisfaction. About this time he received a visit from the superintendent of another city in the State whose opinions were undergoing the same revolution as his own, and they resolved to make a beginning in the way of *providing the facilities they thought their teachers required* in order to do what they regarded as the proper kind of work. Mr. Sheldon was to prepare a set of reading charts and his friend a set of color charts. Shortly after this he visited the educational department of Canada at Toronto, where to his surprise and delight he found much more than he had ever hoped for. There were apparatus, charts, pictures for aid in teaching nearly every subject, books discussing educational principles and methods, and manuals to guide teachers in their work. There were natural history pictures, and pictures to aid in giving moral and religious instruction, published in London by the "Society for the Promotion of Knowledge;" a "Manual of Elementary Instruction" and "Lessons on Objects," prepared by Miss Elizabeth Mayo and her brother, Dr. Mayo. The latter was a distinguished English scholar and teacher, and a friend and pupil of Pestalozzi, with whom he had spent some time at Yverdun, and with whose ideas he had become thoroughly imbued. Through his influence, the "Home and Colonial Training Institution" was established at Gray's Inn Road, London. In this school were employed such men as Kriisi, the son of Pestalozzi's associate teacher, and Renier, who was also associated with Pestalozzi at Yverdun. Indeed, the institution was an embodiment of Pestalozzi's ideas and principles. It consisted of a school for training teachers and a school of practice, and it sent out thousands of teachers who zealously disseminated Pestalozzi's ideas. Under its patronage and direction many publications were issued intended to aid teachers in oral and development work. For example, there were the books of Miss Mayo already mentioned; "Lessons on Numbers," by Renier; "Model Lessons," "Information on Common Objects," "Manual for Teachers of Infant Schools," "Graduated Course of Instruction for Infant Schools and Nurseries." This wonderful museum was the result of the labors of Dr. Ryerson, who as minister of education for Canada, had collected the best educational tools he could find in the various countries of Europe.

This museum helped Mr. Sheldon to see what he wanted to do. When he returned to Oswego he resolved to thoroughly reconstruct the course of instruction and radically change the methods of teaching in the schools under his supervision. He resolved to begin this reformation at the bottom of the ladder and go up step by step. He accordingly laid out a detailed plan of work for the primary schools based on Pestalozzian principles.

I regret very much that the limits within which I am obliged to confine myself make it impossible for me to present this course of study without abbreviation. Marking, as it does, an epoch in the history of the public schools of this country, it well deserves the careful attention of those who are interested in our educational history. But for the details of the course I am obliged to refer my readers to the seventh annual report of the board of education, of Oswego, which is indeed almost entirely filled with a statement and explanation of the proposed changes.

The principles upon which the new course was based and the aims it sought to realize may be briefly stated. Mr. Sheldon quoted with approbation the statement of principles made by the "Home and Colonial Infant and Juvenile School Society," of London, as underlying its system of primary instruction. That statement was as follows:

That as the different faculties of children are developed at different periods, care should be taken to adapt their lessons to the state of their minds, in order that all the faculties may be called out in right order.

That the education of the mind must begin when the exercise of the mind begins, and should follow precisely, both in degree and amount, the natural order of its development.

That education consists, not in the amount which you can put into the mind of a child from without, but in the amount which it can gain from its own development and exercise from within.

The object of the plan of studies was stated to be "not so much to impart information as to educate the senses, arouse, quicken, and develop the perceptive and conceptive faculties, lead the children to observe, awaken a spirit of inquiry."

When Mr. Sheldon attempted to put this scheme into operation his teachers stontly resisted. They said: "We find it more than we can do to accomplish all that is now required, and we have only reading, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, and geography." The superintendent replied: "I expect you will do the work required in these branches with very much more ease than before, and in a much more rational and efficient way." The sequel proved that he was right, as the teachers frankly admitted.

The first year after the introduction of the new course of study Mr. Sheldon gave all his time and energy to the introduction of the new methods into the first year or lowest grade of the primary school. He met the teachers of this grade every Saturday, and during the following week he went through the schools of this grade, encouraging and aiding them in carrying out the instructions given the preceding Saturday. The second year he pursued the same plan with the next higher grade.

By this time the work began to attract attention outside Oswego, and the teachers thus trained were offered salaries in advance of those which the Oswego board felt disposed to give. Mr. Sheldon realized that he was trying to fill a tub whose bottom was full of holes. He

found that he was training teachers for the schools of other cities, and that if the wants of his own schools were to be supplied some method must be devised for supplying all vacancies with trained teachers.

With this object in view he proposed to his board to establish a department connected with the public-school system for the training of teachers. They readily assented. Accordingly, on the motion of the committee on teachers for the year 1860, the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That, in connection with the high school, there be organized a department composed of graduates of this school and persons from abroad who may apply for admission, to be styled the Model Primary School Teachers' Department, the object of which shall be to prepare teachers for the important work of primary instruction.

Resolved, That no person shall be admitted into this department who does not hold a certificate of graduation from the Oswego high school, or from some institution whose course of study and mental discipline are equally thorough, or who shall not on examination give evidence that she has thoroughly mastered those English branches usually taught in our best academics and high schools, and that she sustains a good moral character.

Resolved, That the time of this course shall be one year, and shall embrace the following subjects of study.

FIRST TERM.—A review of botany, mental philosophy, zoölogy, and linear drawing in its practical application in delineating objects in nature on the blackboard.

SECOND TERM.—Mineralogy, and review of botany continued, and moral philosophy begun; linear drawing, as last term.

THIRD TERM.—Moral philosophy and mineralogy continued; drawing as before.

There shall also be a course of reading, to be continued through the year, consisting of such standard works on the theory and practice of teaching as the board shall approve.

Resolved, That Primary School No. 2, located in the high-school building, be regarded as a model or experimental school, to be taught by the members of the model teachers' class, under the superintendence of such a teacher as the board shall provide.

Resolved, That the division of time between study, recitation, and practice in teaching shall be arranged as may seem at the time best to subserve the interests of the class and the school.

Resolved, That a diploma, or certificate of graduation, be awarded to all those who pass through the required course of this department, and show by their practice in the schoolroom an aptness and ability to teach; and that the necessary steps be taken to entitle the holder of such certificate to equal rank and privileges with those holding State certificates.

Resolved, That the terms of tuition for the admission of foreign pupils into this teachers' department shall be \$8 per term, payable in advance.

Resolved, That the secretary of this board be, and the same is hereby, directed to correspond immediately with the principal of the training school (for the preparation of teachers for primary instruction), under the patronage of the Home and Colonial School Society in the city of London, with a view of obtaining a teacher of high order, one familiar with the system of primary teaching as now adopted in our schools, and capable of taking charge of and instructing a teachers' class such as the foregoing resolutions contemplate; and that he make all the necessary arrangements for entering upon the proposed plan on the opening of the spring term.

The prominence given to subjects in natural science in this course of study will not escape the attention of the careful reader.* The ground of this course was that intending teachers might be thoroughly equipped for training the observing powers of their pupils, and interesting them in natural objects.

The resolution to import a teacher from London was not at once concurred in by the board. Mr. Sheldon resolved to do it, because there was no one in this country who was familiar with the work to be done. The board hesitated, on the ground that it would involve additional expense, but when he assured them that it should not add one dollar to their expenses they withdrew their objections.†

Mr. Sheldon accordingly immediately wrote to Mr. Reynolds, the secretary of the Home and Colonial Society. As he was writing the letter, Hon. A. C. Mattoon, chairman of the teachers' committee of the board of education, said: "Tell them to send us one who is able to introduce the new methods in America." Precisely that was done when Miss Margaret E. M. Jones, who had been for 15 years engaged in the training of teachers in that institution, was sent to take charge of the teachers' department in the public schools of Oswego. Dr. Sheldon says that she "was a woman of rare intellectual culture, with a clear and penetrating mind, having a broad grasp of educational principles, with the ability to make them clear to her pupils."

The school opened the 1st of May, 1861, with 9 pupils. These received diplomas at the end of the year, and a large number of the teachers of the Oswego public schools had availed themselves of the instruction given. The board were pleased with the work and there was no disposition to give up the undertaking. Miss Jones, whose contract expired at the end of the year, was prevailed upon to stay six months longer, and Professor Krüsi, who, it will be remembered, had been connected with the Home and Colonial Institution, was invited to Oswego to assist her. Other assistance was also provided for, and the school opened the second year with a larger class and a larger corps of teachers.

Mr. Sheldon's observations of the results of the new methods on both teachers and pupils, led him to believe that their general adoption in the schools of the country was a matter of the highest importance.

Accordingly, at his suggestion, in December, 1861, the board of education sent an invitation to some of the leading educators in different States to come to Oswego to observe the practical workings of the new methods.

* Mr. Sheldon summarized the course as consisting of mental and natural sciences and the art of teaching by object lessons.

† He was able to make this assertion good, because a number of his teachers agreed to relinquish half their salary for a year in consideration of the benefit they hoped to receive from the training class, and also because the salaries of a number of teachers in the primary school were saved through the employment of pupil teachers from the training class.

This invitation was cordially responded to, and at the appointed time a goodly number of educators were present.

Mr. Sheldon's address is worthy of being quoted in full. He spoke as follows:

For more than eight years we have been striving to improve our schools, and when we compare them with what they were at the time of their organization we feel that a decided progress has been made; but never have their deficiencies been so apparent as at the present moment. Whatever the improvement, it certainly has not kept pace with our ideas of what it ought to be.

We have asked you here to examine a system of instruction we have been endeavoring to incorporate into our schools, for the origin of which we claim no credit; neither do we claim that the principles of this system are new in this country. For years they have been quietly and almost imperceptibly creeping into our educational theories, and have, although in an isolated and disjointed manner, made their way into our best schools. Good teachers everywhere are working more or less in accordance with these principles, modified perhaps in some degree, and are thus preparing the way for a system of primary education, of which they constitute the very web and woof. It is this feature which we claim as new in this country. We have never had any system of primary education, based on sound philosophical principles, carried out in a definite and well-arranged course. Whether such is the system to which we now call your attention we leave you to judge; it is for this purpose we have presumed to invite you here to-day. Should your judgment, after a careful investigation, accord with our own, it can but lead to a complete revolution in our methods of teaching; it will make teaching a profession, a title it has yet to earn.

Among those who accepted this invitation were David N. Camp, State superintendent of schools in Connecticut, and principal of the State Normal School; D. H. Cochrane, principal of the Albany State Normal School; William F. Phelps, principal of the State Normal School at Trenton, N. J., and Miss L. E. Ketchum, principal of the experimental department of the State Normal School at Bloomington, Ill.

A special committee was appointed to prepare a report. After an examination of three days, spent for the most part in observing lessons which were intended to illustrate methods of teaching, the committee, through its chairman, Professor Phelps, made a long and able report. I have only space to quote its conclusion. It is as follows:

(1) That the principles of that system are philosophical and sound; that they are founded in, and are in harmony with, the nature of man, and hence are best adapted to secure him such an education as will conduce in the highest degree to his welfare and happiness, present and future.

(2) That the particular methods of instruction presented in the exercises before us, as illustrative of these principles, merit and receive our hearty approbation, subject to such modification as experience and the characteristics of our people may determine to be wise and expedient.

In conclusion, the committee beg leave to present, in the form of resolutions, the following recommendations:

Resolved, That in the opinion of your committee the system of object teaching is admirably adapted to cultivate the perceptive faculties of the child, to furnish him with clear conceptions and the power of accurate expression, and thus to prepare him for the prosecution of the sciences or the pursuits of active life; and that the committee do recommend the adoption of the system, in whole or in part, wherever such introduction is practicable.

Resolved, That the system of primary education, which substitutes in great measure the teachers for the book, demands in its instructors varied knowledge and thorough culture; and that attempts to introduce it by those who do not clearly comprehend its principles, and who have not been trained in its methods, can only result in failure.

Two years after this (in 1863), thanks to the opposition of Dr. H. B. Wilbur, superintendent of the New York State Asylum for Imbeciles, the Oswego methods received a still more emphatic commendation from a committee representing a much wider constituency. Dr. Wilbur was one of the gentlemen who accepted the invitation of the Oswego board, and was a member of the committee whose chairman made the report, the conclusion of which I have just quoted. It seems that he did not concur in it. Accordingly, at a meeting of the New York State Teachers' Association, held at Rochester in 1863, he read "a most sarcastic and vindictive paper" against Mr. Sheldon, his schools, and methods. At the next meeting of the National Educational Association Dr. Wilbur made a still more scathing criticism of the "Oswego System of Object Instruction." As a result of this paper a committee, consisting of some of the ablest educators in the country, was appointed to make a thorough examination of the system of instruction pursued at Oswego, and report at its next meeting.* Professor Greene accordingly went to Oswego and spent a week, and embodied the results of his very careful study of the Oswego system in a long and able report which he read on behalf of the committee before the National Education Association, held at Harrisburg, Pa., in the summer of 1865.†

The report discusses three questions:

- (1) What place do external objects hold in the acquisition of knowledge? Are they the exclusive source of our knowledge?
- (2) So far as our knowledge is obtained from external objects as a source, how far can any educational processes facilitate the acquisition of it?
- (3) Are the measures adopted at Oswego in accordance with the general principles resulting from these inquiries?

After answering the first question in the negative, the report proceeds to discuss the second question. After some preliminary statements and definitions not necessary to be repeated here, the report proceeds as follows.

While an external object may be viewed by thousands in common, the conception of it addresses itself only to the individual consciousness. My conception is mine alone—the reward of careless observation if imperfect; of attentive, careful, and

*The committee consisted of the following gentlemen: Barnas Sears, D. D., Providence, R. I.; Prof. S. S. Greene, Providence, R. I.; J. L. Pickard, at that time superintendent of schools in Chicago; J. D. Philbrick, superintendent of schools in Boston, Mass.; David N. Camp, State superintendent of schools in Connecticut; R. Edwards, principal normal school, Illinois, and C. L. Pennell, St. Louis, Mo.

†This report was published in pamphlet form by the National Teachers' Association. It is well worthy of careful study, not only by the student of educational history, but by the teacher who wishes to see a delightfully lucid exposition of the philosophy of object lessons.

tried observation if correct; between mine and yours a great gulf is fixed. No man can pass from mine to yours or from yours to mine. Neither in any proper sense of the term can mine be conveyed to you, nor yours to me. Words do not convey thoughts; they are not the vehicles of thoughts in any true sense of that term; a word is simply a common symbol which each associates with his own conception.

Neither can I compare mine with yours except through mediation of external objects. And then how do I know that they are alike—that a measure called a foot, for instance, seems as long to you as to me? My conception of a new object, which you and I observe together, may be very imperfect. By it, I may attribute to the object what does not belong to it, take from it what does, distort its form or otherwise pervert it. Suppose now, at the time of observation, we agree upon a word as a sign or symbol for the object or the conception. The object is withdrawn; the conception only remains, imperfect in my case, complete and vivid in yours. The sign is employed. Does it bring back the original object? By no means. Does it convey my conception to your mind? Nothing of the kind; you would be disgusted at the shapeless image. Does it convey yours to me? No; I should be delighted at the sight. What does it effect? It becomes the occasion for each to call up his own conception. Does each now contemplate the same thing? What multitudes of dissimilar images instantly spring up at the announcement of the same symbol—dissimilar not because of anything in the one source whence they are derived, but because either of inattentive and imperfect observation of that source, or of some constitutional or habitual defect in the use of the perceptive faculty. What must be the actual condition of children, then, at the proper age to enter school?

After pointing out the fact that the number of clear and definite conceptions in the minds of children when they start to school is very likely to be overrated, and that current modes of teaching concerned themselves for the most part with filling the memory with symbols without seeing to it that these symbols were used as the signs of clear and definite conceptions, it proceeds as follows:

Now against all this way of teaching language, object teaching, in any proper sense of the term, raises an earnest and perpetual protest.

But what is object teaching? Not that so-called object teaching which is confined to a few blocks and cards to be taken from the teacher's desk at set times, to exhibit a limited round of angles, triangles, squares, cubes, cones, pyramids, or circles; not that which requires the pupil to take some model of an object lesson drawn out merely as a specimen, and commit it to memory; nor is it that injudicious method which some teachers have adopted in order to be thorough, that leads them to develop distinctions which are suited only to the investigations of science; nor is it a foolish adherence to the use of actual objects when clear conceptions have been formed and may take the place of physical forms; nor is it that excessive talking about objects which makes the teacher do everything, and leaves the child to do nothing, that assigns no task to be performed—a most wretched and reprehensible practice; nor, again, is it that which makes a few oral lessons, without anything else, the entire work of the school.

But it is that which takes into account the whole realm of nature and art, so far as the child has examined it, assumes as known only what the child knows, not what the teacher knows, and works from the well-known to the obscurely known, and so onward and upward till the learner can enter the fields of science or abstract thought. It is that which develops the abstract from the concrete, which develops the idea, then gives the term. It is that which appeals to the intelligence of the child, and that through the senses, until clear and vivid conceptions are formed, and then uses these conceptions as something real and vital. It is that which follows nature's order—the thing, the conception, the word, so that when this order is re-

versed the chain of connection shall not be broken. The word shall instantly occasion the conception, and the conception *shall be accompanied* with the firm conviction of a corresponding external reality. * * * It is that which cultivates expression as an answer to an inward pressing want, rather than a fanciful collection of pretty phrases culled from different authors, and having the peculiar merit of sounding well. It is that which makes the school a place where the child comes in contact with realities just such as appeal to his common sense, as when he roamed at pleasure in the fields. * * * It is that which relieves the child's task only by making it intelligible and possible, not by taking the burden from him. It bids him examine for himself, discriminate for himself, and express for himself, the teacher the while standing by to give hints and suggestions, not to relieve the labor. In short, it is that which addresses itself directly to the eye, external or internal, which summons to its aid things present or things absent, things past or things to come, and bids them yield the lessons which they unfold; which deals with actual existence and not with empty dreams—a living realism and not a fossil dogmatism. It is to be introduced in a systematic way if it can be done, without much form where system is impracticable, but introduced it should be in some way everywhere. * * *

Does the plan pursued at Oswego conform to these general principles? We answer unhesitatingly, in the main it does. It may not be right in all its philosophy or in all its practice. Whether the practice is better than the philosophy, or the philosophy than the practice, we will not pretend to say. Neither is it our object or purpose to appear as champions of the system, to defend it against attacks, or to cover up what is faulty. We simply appear to report it and our opinions upon it, so far as the examinations of one week will enable us to do so. * * * The training school, which forms a prominent feature of the system, is at present established in the Fourth ward school building. Besides the training school this building contains a city primary, with its classes A, B, C, a junior A, B, C, and a senior A, B, C. Each primary and each junior school is provided with a permanent principal and permanent assistant for each of the classes. In the Fourth ward school, however, only one assistant is permanently appointed. The place of the second assistant is supplied from the training school. The exercises in these two grades are the same throughout the city, except in the building of the training school, where additional exercises, hereafter to be described, are introduced. In this building, then, we shall find the ordinary lessons in "object teaching," as well as the peculiar lessons of the training school. Let us enter any primary school at the beginning of the year, with the C class, at the age of 5, *fresh from home life*, for the first time to enter upon school duties. They come with their slates and pencils, and this is all. Their first exercise is not to face the alphabet arranged in vertical or horizontal columns, and echo the names of the letters after the teacher in response to the question, "*What is that?*"—a question that the teacher knows they can not answer, and therefore ought not to ask; but some familiar object, one of the boys of the class, it may be, is placed before them and called upon to raise his hand; the class do the same. This is beginning with the known. Then he is called upon to raise his right hand. This may be an advance into the obscurely known. The class do the same if they can make the proper distinction; if not, the first lesson marks clearly the distinction between the right hand and the left. Something real and tangible is done. The children can now distinguish between the right ear and the left ear, the right eye and the left eye. Here is acquired knowledge applied.

But what of their slates? The teacher may first give a lesson, practical of course, on the use of the slate and pencil. Standing at the blackboard, she utters the sound represented by some letter, as *t*. The class utters it. They repeat it till the sound becomes a distinct object to the ear. She then prints upon the board the letter *t*. This becomes an object to the eye. She points to it and gives the sound, they repeat the sound. She points again, they repeat. She gives the sound, they point. Two objects are associated. Now in their seats the letter *t* is to be made upon their slates

till the next lesson is given. In this second lesson, an advance is made upon the parts of the human body, or another sound, as the short sound of *a* is given, then the character as before. Now the two sounds are put together, then the two letters. Two objects are combined and we have the word *at*. But before this lesson is given, the children go through with a series of physical exercises. Perhaps, next, the whole class is sent to the sides of the room. Here is a narrow shelf answering both as a table and a ledge to the blackboard. Under this are apartments containing beans. The children take them one by one and count. They arrange them in sets of two or three, etc. They unite one and one, that is bean to bean, one and two, etc. They take away one from two, one from three, and so on. They now return to their seats and make marks upon their slates, to take the place of the beans. In short this primary room is a busy workshop, not one idle moment.

One year is passed in this manner. The children have learned many useful lessons; have mastered a set of reading cards; have learned to spell many words involving the short sounds of vowels and most of the consonants. They have lessons on form and color, on place and size, on drawing, or moral conduct, and these are changed once in two weeks.

They are now promoted to the B class. They commence reading from the primer. They can write upon their slates and form tables. They have *object lessons* more difficult and more interesting. They can read the statement of the facts developed as they are drawn off upon the board. They can write them themselves. They now learn to make their own record of facts upon their slates. * * * They make out numerical tables for addition and subtraction, not by copying, but by actual combinations with beans or otherwise. They thus realize these tables. In short, a mingling of object lessons with writing, spelling, reading, singing, physical exercise, adding, subtracting, multiplying, dividing, elementary geography, and natural history, occupies their attention through the first three years. All the lessons are given objectively. The children realize what they learn; and this is not the mere theory of the system; it is, in the main, the actual working of the plan. * * *

In the junior grade, similar but more advanced lessons are given, until the pupils are prepared for the senior schools, where these peculiar characteristics cease. And yet, be it remembered that all the exercises in the ordinary school work are intended to be true object lessons.

Let us now pass to the training school. Here, it should be borne in mind, are regular primary and junior schools under permanent teachers, who act the part both of model teachers and critics before the members of the normal school, or training class. The members of this class become alternately pupils and teachers, known under the name of pupil teachers. At the beginning of the term they are assigned to act as assistants one-half day and as pupils the other, alternating with each other during the term, so that each may go through every exercise. The regular teacher gives a lesson to the class. The assistants observe and mark the methods as models for imitation both as respects the steps in the lesson and the management of the class under instruction. One of the assistants—a pupil teacher—next gives a lesson. She is now under a double criticism; first from her equals, the other pupil teachers present; and, second, from the regular teacher. She is not doing fictitious but real teaching. She has not first to imagine that a class of adults is a class of children, and then give a specimen lesson. She has a class of children, sent to school for real purposes by parents who entertain other views than to have their sons and daughters made mere subjects for experimenting.

There is work done under the feeling of responsibility, with all the natural desire to succeed, nay, to excel.

Under these circumstances the merits or demerits of her lesson will be pretty surely made known to her. * * *

But now the scene changes. These pupil teachers return to the room of the training class, and their places are supplied by the retiring set. In this room the theory

of teaching is discussed and exemplified by practical lessons given by the normal teachers to small classes of children brought in from the primary or junior grades. These lessons are to be drawn off by the class and examined as illustrations of the theory. Then, again, a pupil is called upon to give a lesson to a similar class, while both the training class and teacher act as critics. The points of excellence and of defect are freely discussed, and practical hints as to the method of the lesson, its effects upon the class, etc., are freely given. Under this kind of training a most efficient corps of teachers is prepared to fill all vacancies and give increased vitality to the schools throughout the city.

Occasionally the sentences and forms of expression had a bookish aspect and lacked spontaneity, and there were enough of them, if captiously seized upon, to make the method appear ridiculous.* So, again, expressions and terms were sometimes evolved which would not be out of place in a scientific treatise. * * *

These, however, at most were but spots on the face of the sun. The whole plan was admirable in theory and in practice.

These long extracts enable the reader to see not only what Professor Greene thought of the Oswego methods but why he thought so; and they contain not only an admirable exposition of the theory upon which, in his judgment, object teaching is based, but a detailed account of the modes in which the Oswego system conformed to it. Truly Dr. Wilbur did the cause of education very substantial service in occasioning so capable and painstaking a witness to make a careful and thorough study of the Oswego system.

Since pupils outside Oswego were seeking admission into the training school, and since its graduates were supplying the schools of other places with teachers, the Oswego board applied to the legislature for aid from the State in supporting their training schools. Their application was heartily seconded by Hon. Victor M. Rice, who was then State superintendent of public instruction. Accordingly, on the 4th of March, 1863, the legislature of the State of New York passed an act appropriating \$3,000 annually for two years to the support of the training school at Oswego, on condition that the people of the city furnish buildings and grounds and other necessary accommodations within one year from the passage of the act, and that 50 teachers intending to teach in the common schools of the State should be instructed in it for as much as 40 weeks in each year, and that each senatorial district should be entitled to send annually two first-class teachers on the appointment of the State superintendent.

In a circular dated the 8th of February, 1864, State Superintendent Rice announced that the school would be opened on the 17th day of April, following. The circular contained a statement of the objects of the school, the course of instruction, and the conditions of admission. Of the course of study it is only necessary to say that it still consisted substantially of "mental and natural science, and the art of teaching by object lessons." Candidates for appointment were required to be not less than 17 years of age, to give evidence of superior health, of good moral character, and of at least fair natural ability. They had

* I think this explains Dr. Wilbur's articles.

to possess a thorough knowledge of reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, and grammar, and a fair knowledge of algebra as far as quadratic equations, the first book of geometry, the history of the United States, and the elements of natural philosophy.

According to an act passed the 7th of April, 1866, the city training school became a State normal and training school, providing certain conditions were complied with, and this having been done, the buildings, grounds, and appliances of the school were accepted by the State March 27, 1867.

The history of the institution from that date to the present need not detain us long. Undoubtedly there has been growth, but that has taken place along the line, and in the direction already indicated.

The most instructive changes have taken place in the organization of the school. At the outset, as we have seen, the school was organized as a strictly professional school. Candidates for admission were required to have pursued a course of study equal in thoroughness and extent to that pursued in the best high schools of the State. But the faculty of Oswego soon discovered that the knowledge of such students was not sufficiently thorough, or at least that a sufficient number of pupils, with a sufficiently thorough preparation, could not be found to fill the school on that plan. Accordingly, in 1865 it was decided to add a course of study in the English branches to the more strictly professional work. In 1867 the ancient and modern languages were added.

At the beginning of this chapter, I said that the history of the normal school at Oswego constituted an important chapter, not only in the history of the training of teachers, but in the history of the public schools of this country. It constitutes no part of my plan to present in detail the grounds of the last statement. Nor is it necessary to do so, to convince anyone of its truth who is even tolerably well acquainted with our educational history for the last 25 years. Any such person knows that the methods of teaching in our large towns and cities have radically changed within that period, and that the change has been in the direction of the reforms first introduced into the public schools through the practice school at Oswego. In his annual report made at the close of the second year after the adoption of the new methods, Mr. Sheldon said: "During the past year we have been honored by visits from many of the most prominent educators in the country for the purpose of witnessing the practical working of the system, and learning something of its principles in detail, and without a single exception it has met with their most hearty approbation. It is rapidly gaining favor in every quarter. It has already been adopted in several of our leading cities and normal schools, and wherever it goes it meets with a most enthusiastic reception. Among the cities that have adopted it are New York, Cincinnati, Toledo, Syracuse, and Paterson." Evidently there was a general and profound dissatisfaction with current methods. The eagerness with which the new system was examined and the readiness with which it was

introduced in cities at such great distances from each other, shows that thoughtful educators all over the country were in a state of mind very similar to Mr. Sheldon's when he went to Toronto, but as a matter of fact the new methods were introduced into this country through the schools of Oswego.

That this institution has exercised a profound influence upon training schools for teachers, is just as little open to question. At the suggestion of Principal William F. Phelps, of the New Jersey State Normal School, Miss Lewis, principal of the primary department of the model school in that institution, went to Oswego to learn the new methods in order to introduce them into that school. Miss Jennie Stiekney, a graduate of the Salem (Massachusetts) State Normal School, after completing the course at Oswego, was employed by the Boston board to organize a city training school on the plan of the Oswego school, and train their teachers in the new methods. She was for many years the principal of this school, until it grew into the present city normal school, with Dr. Larkin Duntou at its head. Miss Rebecca Jones, a lady of large experience, came from Worcester, Mass., to Oswego, and, immediately after graduation, was invited by the Worcester school board to organize a training school in that city on the Oswego plan, which has developed into the present State normal school of national reputation, with Mr. Russell as principal. Another graduate, Miss Pond, was invited to organize a city training school in Lewiston, Me. Miss Mary V. Lee, and Mrs. McGonnegal, two other graduates, were invited to organize a training school in Davenport, Iowa. In addition to these, Oswego graduates were invited to organize training schools in Cincinnati, Ohio, Indianapolis, Ind., Rochester, Syracuse, and Malone, N. Y., Dayton, Ohio, Detroit, Mich., Philadelphia, Pa., Washington, D. C., Reading, Pa., and many other smaller places in different parts of the country.

We have seen, already, that a number of the city training schools organized by Oswego graduates grow into normal schools. But this is a very small part of the influence upon normal schools exerted by the Oswego school. All the State normal schools in New York, excepting the one at Albany, have been organized on the Oswego plan.* Normal College in New York City was organized on the same plan, with Oswego graduates to do the work in methods and criticism. When the normal school at Winona, Minn., was organized, systematic work in methods and practice in teaching under criticism, under the influence of Oswego, was made a part of the regular work of the school, and Oswego graduates were employed as critic and method teachers. The three other normal schools which have since been organized in Minnesota have followed the same plan, and have employed Oswego graduates to do the professional work. The State normal school of Indiana, at Terre Haute, was organized on the same plan, with Oswego graduates as method and critic teachers. The normal school at Normal

* The Albany school is about to be organized on the same plan.

Park has, for many years, employed Oswego graduates for method and other work. Besides these institutions, Oswego graduates have been called to do similar work in a number of the State normal schools of Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, Wisconsin, New Jersey, Nebraska, Missouri, Mississippi, California, Kansas, and Iowa.

This will give some idea of the direct influence exerted by Oswego, but in the nature of the case the indirect influence was even more powerful. As to the significance of this influence I will state my opinion in another chapter.

CHAPTER V.

THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT WORCESTER. MASS.

We have seen that one of the Oswego graduates was invited by the Worcester school board to organize a training school in that city. By the terms of a resolution which went into effect June 25, 1871, the board of education of the State of Massachusetts were authorized and required to establish a State normal school in Worcester. This was done accordingly, and on the 11th of September, 1874, the exercises of dedication took place, and on the following Tuesday the school was opened to pupils.

But I do not propose to write a history of the institution. I wish merely to give a full and somewhat detailed account of two features of it, both of which were new in this country at the time of their introduction there; I allude to its system of apprenticeship, and to its method of encouraging its pupils to make a study of children.

The system of apprenticeship consists of systematic observation of schools and actual practice in teaching under the joint supervision of the city superintendent of schools and the faculty of the normal school.* The general character of the system may be described as follows: After having been in the school a year and a half, or three terms, the student is allowed to go into one of the public schools of the city of Worcester to serve as assistant to the teacher of that school. His work as assistant consists in taking part in the instruction, management, and general work of teaching, under the direction of the teacher, and even in acting as substitute for the teacher for an hour, a half-day, or a day, at the discretion of the latter and with the approval of the superintendent. But one student at a time is assigned to any one teacher, but each student serves in at least three grades of schools in the course of his term of service, the duration of which is six months, or half a school year. After finishing his apprenticeship the student resumes his course at the normal school, spending another half-year there before receiving his diploma. During the period of apprenticeship 4 days of each week

* My account of this system and of the method of teaching psychology consists of summaries and abstracts of, and in some cases direct quotations from, the catalogue of the school, and from an article in the September (1889) number of the New York Academy, by Principal Russel, and from very full answers to detailed questions which I have received from the principal.

are devoted exclusively to it by those employed in the work. One day of the week they spend in the normal school in the following manner:

They hold such consultations with the teachers of the school, and make such use of books, as may be most helpful to them in their immediate work as apprentices.

They make informal statements to the school of such facts of their experience as may be of advantage to the other students to know, concerning ways of teaching, methods of discipline, and the like, keeping in mind always the private character of the daily life of the school room, and under special warning against revelations that might seem objectionable.

Each apprentice keeps a diary of the occupations and experience of every day's service, and this record is inspected by the faculty of the normal school. He also makes out a report at the end of his term in which he gives his own estimate of his success.

I give below copies of diaries for a week, kept by several of the apprentices, not however with any idea of their being published:

Monday, November 18: To-day has been my pleasantest day in this school. The fourth grade seems to realize that I have something to do with them, and they have been more orderly.

I attribute this fact partly to my not having had any of their classes before. We began the study of the United States, and the children seemed to take great interest in the geography lesson. I didn't care so much about the language lesson, because I never liked the study, but in my attempt to interest the children I became interested myself.

The programme has been more varied to-day, and the children have not known what was coming next. I think this fact held their attention and interest and made the school quieter.

Tuesday, November 19: This morning it was more difficult to hold the attention of the fourth grade in the second lesson in verbs. The boys almost all gave characteristic ones—jump, fight, march, etc.

One day last week a boy named ———, a bright colored pupil, left a purse made of two shells on the desk. I asked him this noon if he did not want it. He said, "No, you can have it." I declined it in a way not to hurt his feelings, I thought. Afterwards, when I told Miss M. about it, she suspected something wrong, and questioned him. He seemed to get on all right with the questions until asked why he did not give it to me that day. He couldn't answer that. Miss M. thought perhaps he was afraid to take it home for fear he would be scolded for buying it, but he said they knew at home that he paid a quarter for it.

There still remains some mystery about the purse.

Wednesday, November 20: It was suggested to-day that we ask the teachers whom we are with to write the criticisms they make, so that they may have more weight.

Miss M. came to-day and told us about an experiment she had tried in the boys' high school in Boston. One word was written on the blackboard each day, and the boys were asked to write the picture formed in their minds by the sight of the written word.

Thursday, November 21: This morning I had charge of everything about the room and Miss M. played visitor. I had not had all the work before, and I found it something of a task to keep to the programme and have enough work for both grades. But I enjoyed the day, and found the children quite orderly. I think having the school in that way, with Miss M. to fall back on in case of an emergency, will be a great help to me when I am left alone for a half-day.

This morning I explained what a bulletin is, and said we would try to have one in school. It took some time to make them understand what I meant, and after I had answered all the questions and told them I would write it to-morrow and show them how, several children asked me if they should bring newspapers, and one girl brought me a "telegram."

One girl has pleased me by asking two or three times if she may read "The Charge of the Light Brigade." I don't know where she got the idea, but it seems to run in her mind.

Friday, November 22: I have become so interested in the geography lesson that I am inclined to hurry the children. Miss M. cautioned me about going on to a new subject before I have drilled on the old one. I made out the average age of the children and found it to be 10 years 4 months. I wrote my first bulletin this morning. When I looked over the papers to find items it seemed impossible to find something suited to the age of the children. I was tempted at first to write about Brazil, but came to my senses when I thought, "They don't even know the name." But we found a good deal to talk about, and I enjoyed it as much as the pupils.

Here is another:

Monday, September 30: This morning when I arrived at school my teacher told me that she was to substitute in the first grade for awhile, and that I must go on as usual. I was frightened, but after I was fairly in the schoolroom I found it easy to go on. The children did very well, and I had no trouble. When Miss J. came back I was sorry to see her.

I had an unusually interesting lesson with the second grade this morning. As this is the first lesson in the morning, the children usually give good attention; but it seemed to me to-day that they were really interested. On the contrary, the afternoon lesson dragged more than usual.

Tuesday, October 1: This afternoon I gave the language lesson to the second grade as usual. I took up questions. The children gave them to me and I wrote them on the board. They seemed to take hold of this better than they did of declarative sentences. After they had copied the questions written on the board, some made up questions of their own and wrote them on their slates.

I remember that one apprentice said that she did not use the word "sentence" in her school. I found that my teacher used it and that the children understood it.

I still have some trouble in the number lesson to keep the attention.

Wednesday, October 2: At the normal school, as Mr. Russell was absent at the second period, we had a talk among ourselves. I enjoyed it and heard some good suggestions.

Miss ——— read us more of President Eliot's article, which continued to be interesting.

I enjoyed the platform exercises.

Our periods with Miss J. are always pleasant. I felt rather discouraged at hearing we were not to use books. I have not decided yet how I am to manage in the dressing room.

Wednesday night: I feel discouraged, but at the same time eager for Thursday. When I hear the rest talk, I feel that I have not done anything.

Thursday, October 3: This has been one of my good days. I have been watching the children playing at a new game, which has suddenly become the rage. They tie a string to each corner of their handkerchief. Then these four strings are tied together and a stone is tied on. The handkerchief is taken in the middle and thrown into the air. It turns over and comes down like a balloon. Both boys and girls are playing with this toy, and some have considerable skill in throwing it.

My teacher told me to-day that I spelt too many words for the children in the reading lesson. I am glad she told me, for it seems to me, when I think of it, that I have spelt a great many. I was glad to have her make some criticism, for she does not say much to me about my work. I did well without a book. I enjoyed it, and the children seemed quieter.

Friday, October 4: This morning Miss J. came in. I was glad to see her, and I did not feel greatly embarrassed. I had a number lesson with the second grade while she was in, which is not my "show-off" class. Still I was glad to have it, because it has not been interesting to me or the children, and Miss J. gave me several suggestions about it.

After recess I had the same class and tried some of her suggestions. The children seemed more lively.

The school guessed words for a few minutes this afternoon. One stood in the floor and said "I am thinking of a word beginning with *a*" (*b, c, etc.*). Then the one who guessed correctly gave the next word. The children liked it, and the teacher told me that later in the term they grow skillful in choosing words. For instance, last term one child took "soot" in the chimney.

Here is another:

Monday, November 18: As there was no school Saturday, Miss H. gave a drawing lesson to-day. I went around among the children to help them. I was interested in watching one boy draw, he drew so nicely and seemed to have a good idea of form, finding his own mistakes.

In the geography lesson we continued a review of the United States. When the children recited they did not do as well as when we began it on Friday. I directed a lesson in grammar. I tried to make a point of having good order and succeeded in a degree. After the spelling lesson, as there was a few moments left, Miss H. said she would finish a fairy story which the children had begun to read. I had to laugh to see the positions of some of the children as she read. Their necks were stretched out and they looked eagerly at her until she finished.

Tuesday, November 19: For reading to-day we began to review. I supposed that the pupils would not like to read again what they had read before. On the contrary, they were interested in the story and willing to talk. For arithmetic I gave eight examples in which dollars and cents were to be multiplied, as $\$7.20 \times 43 = ?$. The children did better with these to-day than ever before. Some finished very quickly and I gave these other examples on their slates. They liked this, and a few asked me to give them some on their slates. I think the lesson in grammar to-day was the most interesting of any I have given yet. I explained gender, giving only the masculine and feminine. I gave a few examples and asked the children to give others. I varied the lesson a great deal by changing around with my questions. They were not quite as still as usual, but they were interested in the lesson, and in their eagerness to answer and tell were a little noisy. At the end of the lesson I thought they understood what I had been talking about pretty well. They were pleasant and I laughed with them, and although it was dark and disagreeable outside we did not mind it inside. I was interested in the spelling match and enjoyed it as much as the children did.

Wednesday, November 20: To-day Mr. Russell read us a very interesting letter from a graduate. He also spoke about the observation of children to awaken our interest in it. The observations made so far have been very good. Dr. K., a teacher from N., visited the school a few days ago and liked very much our way of studying psychology through the observation of children. He thought the recording of facts about ourselves showed that there were good relations between the principal and ourselves. Mr. Russell said that telling about our own childhood made us have more sympathy with children and understand them better. Miss W., whom I think every pupil is glad to see, was at the normal school and told us some very interesting results of experiments tried in the boys' English high school at Boston. Some words were written on a blackboard, one at a time, and the boys were given a few minutes in which to write what they saw or thought when they saw the written word. Some of the explanations were very queer.

Thursday, November 21: The pupils were very disorderly to-day. We had a new kind of example, and before the lesson I had the children explain how they were to

be done. They troubled me so by moving and handling and dropping things that Miss H. suggested that I keep them after school for about 10 or 15 minutes. She went home at 3:30 and left me to do as I pleased. The children were surprised when, instead of dismissing them, I told them we would explain the examples now. We went through all the examples in about half the time it took us in the morning. Yesterday it was suggested that cards be used in the recitations. I made some and used them to-day. The children watched me closely as I called the names from the cards; none seemed surprised when called on. They seemed to know that I might call on any one, not in regular order as before.

Friday, November 22: For arithmetic to-day, as the pupils made hard work of the examples yesterday, I changed only the numbers. They did better to-day. I enjoy the reading lessons very much, the children talk so freely. They tell some very interesting things. We have one girl who came from New Hampshire, and one who, I think, lived at one time in California. They tell us of things in those places. One of our boys, too, seems to have a good general knowledge of things.

For language to-day I gave the pupils some masculine nouns, and they were to tell me the corresponding feminine. They did very well. One boy wrote the feminine of nephew. In giving masculine forms Miss H. asked one boy to give the names of his masculine relatives, as his uncle. He gave a few, and another boy was called on to help him out. He gave what we all understood to be "mother-in-law." We all laughed heartily. The idea of little Georgie having a mother-in-law was amusing.

Besides the practical acquaintance with the work of teaching and training in teaching gained through the system of apprenticeship—which is, of course, its primary object—it gives the faculty of the normal school fuller data for estimating the teaching ability of their students. The apprentice is visited by the faculty while engaged in his work and carefully observed as well as aided by suggestions. Moreover the teacher of each school in which he has served makes out a report in the following form:

[State Normal School at Worcester.]

Report of the apprentice work of, grade street school. Time, from to.....

[Scale, 10; use no fractions.]

Number of absences.	Number of tardinesses.	Power of control.	Power of interesting.	Skill in question- ing.	Skill in explain- ing and illus- trating.	Enthusi- asm.	Bearing.

1. What traits of excellence (if any) have been shown in teaching or management?
2. What weakness or deficiency?

Signature

I have before me a number of the blanks as they were actually filled out by the teachers of the Worcester schools. In one, the number of absences, is 2; another, 0; another, 0; number of tardinesses, 1; in all, 3. Power of control, in one, 8; another, 7; another, 6. Power of interesting, in one, 7; another, 8; another, 7. Skill in questioning, in one, 7; in one, 8; in one, 6. Skill in explaining and illustrating, in one, 6; in one, 8; in one, 7. Enthusiasm, in all three, 7. Bearing, in one, 7; another, 9; another, 5.

In addition to these reports, each teacher is expected to make further statements about the apprentices under the head of general explanations and remarks. I have a number of them before me. They are remarkable for their definite and specific character.

As to the practical workings of the system, the evidence before me would seem to leave no doubt. The school board of the city heartily approve of it, because of the benefits which indirectly accrue to the city schools because of the greater fitness of the apprentices to become teachers. In addition to this, Principal Russell writes me that after 3 years' experience in teaching graduates are asked to state pretty fully how they regard the apprenticeship. He says that "a few state frankly that it was not useful to them, because they could not command themselves sufficiently to teach in the presence of an experienced person with the consciousness that they were observed and criticised. When the apprenticeship was first tried, a student was expected to serve only from 2 to 6 weeks, and a small number who were in the school at this time express doubt of its usefulness on account of its shortness. Both then and now, however, the testimony is overwhelmingly in favor of it," and that is not put too strongly, if I may judge from the replies which I have seen, which he assures me are a fair sample.

The other feature of this school, of which I spoke, is its method of teaching psychology. Acting on a suggestion of President, then Professor, G. Stanley Hall, a plan of making the original observation of children a part of the regular course of study was worked out a number of years ago which has ever since been carried out with great success.

Principal Russell explains the method as follows:

Soon after entering the school, students are made acquainted with this feature of our work, and very little effort is required to give them a new interest in children and their ways, partly, no doubt, from the novelty of the thing, but more because the new comers quickly perceive in the school the presence of such an interest. They very soon feel the growing enthusiasm which objective study is so apt to enkindle in youths' minds, and some of them show almost immediately the right apprehension of what is wanted and the sure test that will lead to success. Others, of course, lack this and never make first-rate observers.

The first real task is to correct the prevailing notion that what is desired is the striking or remarkable sayings and doings of precocious children. It is difficult for beginners to understand that only what is common or habitual in ordinary children is of value. They can hardly believe at first that newspaper paragraphs about children are generally false, and that even if true they would be of little use. A second point for beginners is to refrain from all reflections and comments of their own, to report precisely what they observe, no more and no less, with the accuracy of a photograph. A third precaution has to be much insisted on, that of never allowing the child under observation to know or suspect that he is being observed. Another important thing is to record the observation at the earliest convenient moment. * * *

New pupils are told in a general way in what realms or fields most of their observations will lie; as, for example, the knowledge and ignorance displayed by children, their language and gestures, curiosity, shyness, vanity, lying, etc.; their likes and dislikes, attachments, aversions, fancies, caprices; their favorite stories, songs, and myths, whatever makes them laugh or cry; ideas of the sky, of death, etc.; their

abilities, as shown in drawing, building, planning, and the like; and above all, their plays and games, social and solitary. No limit is put to the scope of these observations, and no question is raised as to their possible utility. * * *

The work of making these observations is not at all compulsory, but nearly every pupil engages in it from genuine interest; it is, indeed, the most nearly self-sustaining exercise in the school. A distinct gain in skill is noticed in a majority of students from term to term, and during the latter part of a term the proportion of interesting and valuable papers is greater than during the first part.

The records as handed in are read by a teacher and classified provisionally under such rubrics as knowledge, reflection, imagination, conscience, feeling, play, etc. Such as are of special interest or significance, whether for matter or form, are placed for a few days where they can be read by the pupils, and they never fail to attract eager readers.

At times some particular childish trait will come into prominence and be observed by many students simultaneously. Sometimes a question will come up as to whether such or such a thing is true of children generally, and there will be in response a great number of observations directed to that point. Occasionally a student will strike out in some new direction. For instance, one tried the effect of smiling pleasantly at every little child she passed in the street, and recorded the nature and number of responses she got—they were almost all smiles in return. The same person tried frowning in a similar way. During the past winter we have had an unusual number of observations relating to lying, and a good many with reference to vanity. The peculiar shouts and cries of children, whether in play or in derision, have been reduced to musical notation; we have a large number of pictures spontaneously made by children; also a small collection of playthings similarly produced.

Students are furnished with blanks, printed upon half-sheets of note paper of five different tints, upon which to record their observations. White paper is used in recording observations which the students make themselves; pink for well-attested observations reported by others; green for mentioning whatever they read on the subject; and chocolate for observations that extend continuously over a specified period of time. The printed headings embrace the following items: The date; the observer's name, age, and post-office address; the name (or initials) of the child observed, its sex, nationality, and age in years and months; and the length of time between making the observation and recording it. No sort of pressure is exerted to induce students to make any specific number of records, but as a matter of fact they are found to average about two a week during the whole course of 2 years and a half.

At my request Principal Russell has kindly sent me a number of the records of observations made by his students, a few of which I give below: *

Name of child observed, Lucie K.; sex, female; nationality, American; age, 2 years, 10 months; length of time between making the observation and recording it, 1 day.

"Last night my mother said to Ella: 'You had better put away your playthings now; it is almost supper time.' Lucie said: 'No, May will,' and she went to work picking up her things and talking. 'I declare, I never saw anything so cute. I don't see who brought this cup (her small scoop) in here; it belongs in the pantry. I got to put it in the bag where it belongs,' and she went and put it away. 'There, this chair belongs in the corner.' She pushed it as far in the corner as she could. 'That music stool belongs up to that piano; this goes on it, so.' She came to me and

* In this and the following records I omit the name and age of the observer.

said: 'Do you know, somebody bringed my scoop in here, and I had to put it away? This floor is awful dirty; I got to sweep it with my new broom.' I told her folks did not sweep at night, they waited until morning. She said: 'Yes, I guess I'll wait till morning, my broom is awful tired.' I told her that her room looked very nice. She said: 'My house is very nice all over. There, my baby's crying, it's sick in its neck 'cause it went out without its claunchery (handkerchief) on. O, it's awful sick.' She then said it was time for her baby to go to bed. She carefully undressed her doll and asked me for one of Allen's (the baby's) nightdresses because her doll was so sick she must have a big one."

Here is another:

Initials of child observed, G. S.; sex, male; nationality, American; age, 8 years; length of time between making the observation and recording it, 1 day.

G. "Harry Custer goes here to school, now."

I. "Does he? Who is Harry Custer?"

G. "The cowboy."

I. "What?"

G. "The cowboy's boy."

I. "What is a cowboy?"

G. "A hunter."

I. "Where did Harry Custer come from?"

G. "Out West. He used to live out West, but he boards here now—in the city."

I. "What grade is he in in your school?"

G. "The fourth—my brother's. He shot a boy up here and killed him, and the policeman couldn't catch him, and when the policeman ran down to his house his father came out and was going to shoot him, so the policeman went away, and they don't dare to try and get him, for fear they'll get shot."

I. "Who is Harry Custer's father?"

G. "William Custer."

I. "Aren't the teachers afraid to have such a boy in school?"

G. "They don't dare to say anything for fear he'll shoot 'em. He carries a revolver, and my brother says that when the teacher is going to whip him and says 'Hold out your right hand,' he points his revolver at her and holds it there, so she don't dare to whip him." (His teacher says there is no such boy as Harry Custer in the school.)

Here is another:

Name of child observed, Florence; sex, female; nationality, American; age, 12 years; record made at the time of observation.

"Fourth of July, Florence came in and told me that she had been having so much fun. When asked what she had been doing, she said that she, with one or two others, had lighted firecrackers, and when they saw a fly they put this near it. Florence said, 'O, it is lots of fun; the fly will be walking along, and the next thing he will be blown all to pieces, his head in one direction and his wings in another.'"

Here is another:

"Children as Suicides," is the title of an article in the Catholic World for November, 1888. It is to be found on page 183, and it is written by Agnes Pepphir.

And another:

Initials of child observed, W. C.; sex, male; nationality, Irish; age, 7 years. Length of time between making the observation and recording it, 15 minutes.

"W. said he liked his dog better than his kitten.

"I asked him why, and he said, 'O, because a dog can bark and do anything. Some of them can carry baskets. And you can make them follow you every place, and cats won't. And if you sell a dog you can get more money than if you sell a cat.'"

"I asked him if he sold his dog what he would do with the money. He said 'Buy another dog.'"

And another:

Ago of children observed, 5 and 6 years; length of time between making the observation and recording it, a week.

The teacher placed a cylinder upon her desk and asked the children to make a picture of it. Several went to the blackboard and all of the children drew rectangles, some of which were very imperfect. This was their first lesson of this kind and the drawings were entirely spontaneous.

Principal Russell says that the end in view in encouraging students to make these observations has been twofold:

First, and chiefly, to give such exercise in the observation of children as is calculated to bring the observer into close and sympathetic relations to them, to awaken in those who are to become teachers a reverent interest in all the realities and mysteries of childhood.

Secondly, and incidentally, to accumulate a body of well-ascertained facts that may serve in future to enlarge and rectify our knowledge of children and so help to lay the foundation of a more adequate and pedagogically useful psychology of childhood.

That both of these ends are in the very highest degree important I think no one will question, and it seems to me equally evident that both of them are promoted by the study of children. Principal Russell says that his graduates say, after experience in teaching, that they find no feature of their preparatory work more directly beneficial, especially in dealing with exceptional children, than this training in the observation of children. And it seems to me that no trained student of mind and the science of education will need the help of such testimony to convince him of its truth. Since teaching consists in dealing with mind, in putting it in such positions, surrounding it by such influences as to induce it so to act as to develop in this direction rather than in that, surely it is self-evident that the more we know of actual living minds, in all the richness and infinite variety that are the universal characteristics of reality, the better this can be done. I would be the last to deny that a careful study of books on psychology interpreted by as careful a study of the facts of his own experience may be very helpful to the teacher. But if he uses this knowledge merely as a starting point, as a thread by means of which to wind his way into the labyrinth of minds as they manifest themselves to him in everyday life and in history, literature, and art generally; if he tries by means of it not merely to comprehend the mental processes of the Napoleons and Alexander Hamiltons and Thomas Jeffersons and Andrew Jacksons and John Quincy Adamsses of history; of those "doughty old mediæval knights" who were ready to pronounce "a curse on those stupid letters" because they thought "a life of toilsome and heroic action" altogether preferable to "the clerk's petty tricks of writing;" of the Chinaman, who finds his ideal in the past and looks upon all progress as a return to a state of excellence which has once existed—if, I say, he uses that knowledge of mind gained by a careful study of manuals of psychology as interpreted by the facts of his own experi-

once not only to explain the actions of men as they appear in history and to assist him in comprehending them, but to explain the actions of the men and women and children with whom he comes in contact in everyday life, and to assist him in comprehending them, his knowledge of mind will be as much more helpful as it is more vivid and accurate and wide. It may be said, perhaps, that this study of mind in history, however helpful it may be from the point of view of culture and general discipline, is of little use to the teacher. I can not admit that; I know of no way in which the teacher can get a more vivid sense of the almost omnipotence of education in molding and transforming human beings than by the careful study of history. African and European, Turk and American, modern Chinaman and ancient Greek—what monuments are these contrasts of the power of education! The teacher who realizes such illustrations of its power as history abounds in can hardly fail to put more heart into his work. “But, at least,” it may be said, “the value of the study of mind in history can not be urged as a reason for encouraging normal-school students to study children.” I think it can. I believe that most teachers who have based their instructions in psychology on a text-book will agree with me when I say that it is extremely difficult in such cases to give students the idea that the book is not to be the chief source of their knowledge of mind. The idea that their text-books should be regarded as a series of suggestions, or better, as a series of hypothetical assertions to be accepted as true only on condition that they find them true in their own experiences and in the observation of the people with whom they come in contact, is, in the majority of cases, not impressed upon them with sufficient force to make it of any value. But where the study of children is a part of the regular work in psychology, students are sure to get the impression that the subject of their study is mind, mind in themselves, mind in the people about them. And when the habit of supplementing their knowledge of mind as acquired by introspection, by observations of children, is formed, it will almost inevitably be extended to a study of mind in all its manifestations, so far as these manifestations come within the range of their observations. But while all knowledge of mind is helpful to the teacher, it will not be denied that the knowledge of the minds of children is especially useful, and that precisely this knowledge is especially enlarged by the methods pursued at Worcester. His special opportunities for observing children and his special interest in them naturally incline the teacher who has been trained in such methods to make a special study of them.

I have already incidentally called attention to the fact that the methods pursued at Worcester tend to greatly increase the value of the usual course in psychology. In order to emphasize this fact, as well as to present somewhat fully the excellent methods used there in the systematic teaching of that subject, I will quote at length a description of them furnished me by Principal Russell. It is as follows:

The teachers' method of instruction is both conversational and expository; it is oral and familiar; connection with previous instruction is made by questions, or by some recapitulation, or reference, or by a fresh example of some mental process which pupils are to identify, or analyze, or classify, by means of knowledge already attained.

The text-books in the hands of all the members of the class are the "Hand Book" (or else the "Outlines") of Sully, and a "Manual" on "The Cultivation of the Senses." Bain's "Mental Science" and Day's "Psychology" are to be had by all who desire to keep a copy for continued use; and several copies of Porter's "Elements" and of Hopkins's "Outline Study of Man" are accessible. We have also such books of reference as Carpenter's "Mental Physiology," Calderwood's "Relations of Mind and Brain," Ladd's "Elements," Taine's "Intelligence," Spencer's "Principles," McCosh on the "Emotions," Maudsley's "Body and Mind," and many others. No recitation from a text-book is expected, but pupils are advised to make themselves acquainted with special chapters or pages. The instructor sometimes reads to the class passages from German or French books, as those of Beneke, Waitz, Perez.

Pupils are called upon to employ introspection for the purpose of getting a clear idea of the particular mental process or activity under consideration, that they may know it as it is in their own experience, or as it has been, so far as they can recall it by memory.

But for a general knowledge of mind they are advised, on the one hand, to study the books that contain the observations and the views of scientific psychologists; on the other hand, to observe the phenomena of mind as manifested in human beings about them. And they are directed particularly to the observing of the minds of children, because this field seems to lie best within the range of their ability, to be of great interest to them, and to have direct practical bearing on their occupation as teachers.

Examples of the mental processes of children, their associations of ideas, their imagination, their reasoning, are asked for by the instructor, and are given in abundance by pupils, out of their own observations and from the supply that is coming in continually, like a perennial spring of water, in the "records" of observations made by the school at large.

The "apprentices" are advised to take notes in the schools in which they are serving, of the working of children's minds, both in regard to learning and understanding in different branches of study, and in reference to temperament, behavior, and discipline. In their weekly interviews with the teacher of psychology, these apprentices discuss with him such cases as they bring to his notice, *e. g.*, a boy who is deaf but would never admit that he was so, heard the apprentice say that she was deaf (as she was temporarily, on account of a cold), whereupon he confessed that he was himself deaf. A boy who had been unable to get

the correct answer to a question in arithmetic was found to have misread the question persistently, reading the expression "sold it again for \$40" as "sold it at a gain of \$40."

The pupils in psychology are not infrequently required at the beginning of a lesson to write for 5 or 10 minutes upon a topic that has been treated by the teacher. At longer intervals, the whole instruction period is occupied with a written examination.

The time allowed to instruction in psychology (apart from the talks with the apprentice class) is three lessons a week for a school year, the lessons being of 25 minutes.

In the instruction, the emphasis is laid upon a few fundamental facts and laws of the mind's activity. Metaphysics is not attempted. There is no expectation that the pupils will gain an exhaustive knowledge of the nature of the mind, nor is it thought that a logically complete scheme or system, if taught, can be held as such by the immature mind. What is hoped is that the average pupil will gain some practical working knowledge of the principal activities of the mind, and of those conditions of mental activity to which methods of teaching should be conformed.

The second end aimed at in this study at Worcester—the accumulation of a body of well-ascertained facts for the purpose of enlarging and rectifying our knowledge of children and thus helping to lay the foundations of a more adequate and pedagogically useful psychology of childhood—Principal Russell says is merely incidental to the first. As principal of a normal school, the primary object of which is the preparation of students for the work of teaching, he doubtless is right in so regarding it, but as an educator, having in view not the immediate future merely but results for all time, I very much doubt whether he is justified in regarding it as in any sense subordinate to the first. What I regard as the most important of the practical questions of pedagogy, the determination of the reading-matter and the methods of teaching it most likely to develop in students a genuine appreciation of good literature, must be settled by just such observations and experiments as he is inducing his students to make. It is a work which, in the nature of the case, will never be completed, but it will only approximate completeness through the combined labors of generation after generation of teachers who have received this kind of training. And this, of course, is only one example out of a thousand that might be selected to show the pedagogic importance of such work. What is it we need to know in order to make successful teachers of children? We need, it seems to me, to know three things: (1) What children are; (2) what they ought to be; (3) what methods we can use to make them grow in the right direction. Evidently, the only way we can learn what children are, is, not by an *a priori* projection on a reduced scale of the mind of an adult into the body of a child, gradually enlarging it to keep it in harmony with his growing body, but by a systematic, patient, persistent study of

children, poring over them, so to speak, as we have been obliged to pore over all the books in the vast library of nature in order to wrest from them even a few of their secrets. President G. Stanley Hall well says that "the living, playing, learning child, whose soul heredity has freighted so richly from a past we know not how remote, on whose right development all good causes in the world depend, embodies a truly elementary psychology. All the fundamental activities are found, and the play of each psychic process is so open, simple, interesting, that it is strange that psychology should be the last of the sciences to fall into line in the great Baconian change of base to which we owe nearly all the reforms, from Comenius down, which distinguish schools of to-day from those of the sixteenth century. It is a striking fact that nearly every great teacher in the history of education who has spoken words that have been heeded, has lived for years in the closest personal relations to children, and has had the sympathy and tact that gropes out, if it can not see closely, the laws of juvenile development and the lines of childish interests." The Baconian change of base! Who that reflects upon the enormous development of the various branches of natural science as a result of it will undertake to adequately estimate the results that may come from making it in the study of children?

We have decided questions relating to methods in the same *a priori* scholastic way. "Moving bodies have a natural tendency to come to a stop," said the schoolmen. "Why?" "Because they do." "Some boys have a natural dislike of books and study," our sage teachers have been saying. "Why?" "Because they don't like them." As a patient study of the facts has brought to light the truth that not the moving body but the conditions to which it was subject were responsible for its stopping, so it may be that this "natural disinclination to study" is not natural at all, but due entirely to the fact that we have not supplied the right conditions, that we have not brought the mind into contact with the kinds of facts fitted to arouse its interests. How much the systematic study of teachers in general might accomplish in this direction I think we shall feel that it will be difficult to overestimate when we reflect upon what has been done in an entirely unsystematic way by a few isolated workers.

I think, therefore, that we may truly say that the successful introduction by the Worcester Normal School of the method of studying children as a part of the work in psychology marks an important era in the history of the training of teachers in this country. I venture to commend it to the careful consideration of those normal-school principals who wish not only to give their students the best possible preparation for their work, but to train up a generation of teachers whose observations and experiments will constitute important contributions towards the solution of the most important questions relating to education.

As to the comparative merits of the system of apprenticeship, and the

system of teaching in a practice school under the supervision of a critic teacher, I do not feel like expressing an opinion. In a city where the schools are in the charge of excellent teachers—as they undoubtedly are at Worcester—it is likely that pupil teachers would get quite as much benefit from criticism under the former system as under the latter. And I incline to think that in such cases the public could more confidently rely on the combined judgment of the teachers under whom the apprentice had served, and the faculty of the normal school, than in the judgment of the latter alone. But in cities and smaller towns, where the schools are not of a high order of excellence, the apprenticeship system would be manifestly impracticable.

CHAPTER VI.

THE NORMAL-SCHOOL IDEA AS EMBODIED IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL AT ST. CLOUD.

By President THOMAS G. GRAY.

One can justly criticise only what one has rightly understood.
Fischer.

It is impossible to define the work of an institution in any other manner than to reveal its conception of its problem and purpose. What was it set to do? What means does it employ to accomplish its end?

In the few pages following a brief answer is suggested to these two questions from the point of view which may be said to represent the "normal-school idea" as it is embodied in this institution.

The philosophy of method is the method of philosophy. For the latter is *nothing more than the science of knowing and knowledge*. The modality of spirit is always in the last analysis the central question of philosophy. Its answer must find its valid ground quite beyond the reach of doubt, otherwise all procedure from it will be halting and uncertain. This ground must be sought in the field of metaphysics. *Here alone, in the domain of the science of knowledge itself, can we hope to find a starting point for method.* The question is not one of psychology, for the latter science is, as all other sciences are, but data in the science of thought.

This point of view, apparently so self-evident, is one most difficult to attain. The mind becomes so habituated to the external body of fact in the world that the ablest thinker finds it well-nigh impossible to realize for any length of time that the universe for man is the universe we know, the universe as given to us. What it is, if it be at all, or could be, as not known to us, we can form not the slightest conjecture. The knowing mind is quite as large a factor in knowledge as the thing known. We speak of color and form, of species and genera, of truth and error, and quite forget that apart from the knowing mind these very words would cease to exist, with all for which they stand to us.

There can be no doctrine of method that does not undertake to define the mode of knowledge. There is no such thing as method apart from thought. Genera and species have no existence in the vegetable and animal kingdom, and he who becomes a master in botany is not one who learns many individual facts from nature, but he who thinks into

unity, under his *a priori* conceptions, the wholly isolated and unrelated facts of the natural world. Nay, rather does the modality of knowledge lie wholly on the spirit side of sensation, not on the matter side.

What is meant by the question, *How does the mind know?* There have been, from Plato down the line of history, many profound students of this problem. Some of the most powerful intellects of the race have wrought upon it. But only as individuals. In so far as their natural inclinations and surroundings led them to the consideration of what has always been regarded a very abstruse subject, they investigated the question for us and have brought us their results. These are weighty and voluminous and of most rare value.

But it has remained for the present century to see society in its organic capacity set to itself this stupendous problem, and establish an institution whose purpose it is to work out a better solution than the world has hitherto known. This institution is the normal school.

Begun in ignorance of its real mission, still too young to show any final results, it is nevertheless true that this is its purpose, and to this will it rise. It had to create its faculties, its literature, its atmosphere. It has been met at every stage with the conservatism of tradition and pharisaism. The idea resident in the brain of Socrates, of Plato, of Jesus, of Kant, of Bacon, is perennial, nay, immortal; and the normal school is no more subject to dissolution than the conception of the modality of knowledge in the minds of these men. There has no new idea been given the race, except that society, the larger intelligent entity, has now its hold upon it, and the normal school is its externalization.

Some would have us believe that the chair of pedagogy and the normal school are of diverse origin and purpose. Such are shallow observers of the meaning of history. These institutions represent but one idea—*chronologically the normal school is the older.* But each represents the attempt society is making to answer the same question. So long as institutions do not differ in purpose, their differences in means amount to nothing in the progress of history.

Naturally enough the first attempts upon this problem sought the most empirical facts. The term method, whose meaning inspired the whole movement, was made to stand for an order of evolution or arrangement in the external body of knowledge. This, of necessity, developed into empirical processes, tricks with things, if thereby and therein the soul might be forced or surprised into the act and result of knowing. The body of truth to be taught from pulpit and press, from school desk and at home, was supposed to contain some magic secret of a true order of acquisition, which, when once discovered, would prove an adequate guide to the tyro in teaching, who, though a fool, might not err. This was the dream of Pestalozzi. He declares: "I believe that we must not dream of making progress in the instruction of the people as long as we have not found the forms of instruction which make of the teacher, at least as far as the completion of the elementary studies is concerned,

the simple mechanical instrument of a method which owes its results to the nature of its processes, and not to the ability of the one who uses it."

This notion of "logical method," "order of independence," came to be a fetich, and dominated and still dominates, to a degree at least, the normal schools of America.

The newer phase of growth appears in the recognition of the truth that method is an order of thought, not things—it is subjective, not objective. The mind receives to itself as a self-determining entity, or force, the universe, and receives it under the limitations and modes of its own existence. The spirit, infinitely free, goes forth to its own realization, or to the realizing of itself. A house, a bat, a tree, a flower, is the external realization of an idea, human or divine. All soul activity is self activity, and must be the projecting of the self into a world, a cosmos. The spirit can not be passive, inert. The very conception of force precludes this. We can not think of a passive force. If, then, the mind be active, be a force, and a self-determining force at that (a fact necessary to grant and to place beyond the reach of doubt as the first postulate of freedom), it can not, in the nature of the case, be passive. What then, the question returns, is the modality of spirit? This is the sphere of method, this is the significance of the term. We shall never find in the externalizations of ideas the modalities of their expression or acquisition. The science of botany, I would repeat, is not in flowers and stems, roots and leaves. It is in the thinking, knowing mind. The moment the mind passes from the isolated instances of experience in the forms of time and space to the conceptions of unity in a nature of things, the world becomes a reality in us, and we can not dissociate it from ourselves.

If a normal school be true to its mission it must rise to a conception of its purpose and bend its energies to its accomplishment. The first question, therefore, to put to a normal school, or its confrère, the chair of pedagogy, is: "What system of thought or theory of knowledge do you teach?" It will not do to answer "Pestalozzianism," or "Froebelianism," for neither of these men ever had anything to be called a theory of knowledge; yet this is the only answer some of the foremost normal schools could give. The chairs of pedagogy are even further behind, for no one in this country has yet produced any considerable contribution to the real problem. They seem to be blindly groping for some solid ground on which to stand. What they and the normal schools must have, and what they will yet attain, is a rational metaphysic, a science of science, a science of knowledge.

It may be further postulated that no advance toward final ground of thought has ever been made from a reliance upon the body of knowledge itself. This is, of course, a mere truism, for knowledge is the result of the knowing process, and therefore the inquiry must be pushed

back into the sphere of the soul itself. This is where Plato and Jesus, Bacon, Kant, Fichte, and Hegel placed it, and each, speaking of Jesus merely as an exponent of the modality of knowledge, made some contribution to the great problem. Any other process must result in a mere rearrangement of the parts of the external or objective body of truth, and such is the sole source of the validity of all pedagogical processes based upon the Spencerian school of thinkers. To repeat, sense perception does not contain the content of the term science. We must look to the modes or forms of spirit. If a class is aided by a study of Sully's Psychology it is not because of, but in spite of, his guiding principles. Fortunately no student is ever dependent on his teacher for his *a priori* forms of knowledge; these are his by virtue of his being an intelligent spirit, and by means of, and because of, these he is able to take even from such a guide the elements of an experience and think them into unity in the forms of his own soul. This alone saves every one of us from mental chaos and madness. This suggests the explanation of the oft-noted fact that men in contact with the most diverse in experience yet attain to the stature of cultured, educated manhood.

This resumé of methodology suggests a number of practical laws for the determination of the courses of study and methods of instruction which are to be employed in the training of teachers. Among them may be enumerated:

(1) All the parts of knowledge are or must have been facts in consciousness. One element, therefore, in pedagogical preparation must be the conscious classification of the various facts in all the sciences and departments of learning as data in psychology. That is, a science of knowledge must be made and mastered by the would-be pedagogue. But this implies in the world of thought a task as herculean as that confronting the biologist in the world of life—an infinity of individuals for classification. It is evident, therefore, that the elementary or typical forms of thought must be first determined. Just as in the natural world an oyster studied becomes the type of all its multiplied kind, so a type form may be found in the outgoings of the self-determining spirit. This must lead the student to Kant. To this problem Kant addressed his gigantic energies.

As applied to the particular subject of instruction the principle compels the student to select the characteristic marks or conditioning facts of a subject, those facts without which the science would not be, and under which all details, the instances of an experience, must arrange themselves. This is a crucial test of the student, nor can any teacher without a firm footing in an ultimate theory of knowing make the least approach to any final results. Not mental science and Latin, mental science and arithmetic, mental science and grammar, but mental science in Latin, mental science in arithmetic, mental science in grammar, and

all other forms of knowledge,—this must be attained as the view point of teaching.

It is quite needless to add that the study of mental science, as commonly conducted, is almost valueless as an aid to teaching. Handled as if its data were ever doubtful and its conclusions vain imaginations, it is looked upon by the student as a subject quite outside himself; without any real data, and when the text-book is put down his little packages of psychological truths (God save the mark!) are ticketed and labeled and laid carefully away in the archives of memory. Many a man declares that it never occurred to him, as a student, that the mind he was supposed to study was his own; that he was to observe a fact at first hand, and pursue the subject as he would any other science.

(2) It will thus appear that the true order of studies for a course in pedagogical training must be the direct reverse of the academic course. The latter is the order to be followed by the student mind in acquisition, the former is the rearrangement into a science of knowledge of the elements of learning already in possession. However this pedagogical process be related in proximity of time, it must of necessity chronologically and logically follow the academic process. Could normal schools obtain a student body with adequate academic preparation, they could at once devote all of their energies to their real function. But, as was said before, they must create their literature, their faculties, their student body. At present they can hope to show the world what the problem really is; they can not yet present its complete solution.

The course of study must, therefore, recognize as its conditioning law the above principle. The true order of subjects must be: (1) Those that help directly in the formation of a science of knowledge, chiefly metaphysics, psychology, and methodology, including the history of education; that is, the education of history—history regarded as the record of the evolution of ideas, the psychology of the race. (2) Those that look toward intelligent skill in the means of education, as methods; that is, psychology applied to the various activities of the scholar and school, a conscious synthesis of the manifold details in subject, topic, recitation, and organization. This is the true art of education. (3) To the above must be added such subjects as will give the student at least a fair conception of the body of human knowledge as a whole. An effort must be made to fill out the academic conception of subjects; that is, to set a fact in the light of all knowledge. This work should be thrown back upon academic schools, colleges, academies, and high schools, as far as possible, but the normal school faculties must, at present, do more or less of it. It is evident that it should be done before inducting the students into the professional work. If a student must learn arithmetic and chemistry, as an academic student, let him be taught, but do not debase the real work of forming a science of

knowledge by making him believe he is getting a sort of magic power, some *hocus-pocus* by which he will be prepared to teach it. Call the work by its right name. After this work is done, and it is a *sine qua non* take up true pedagogical inquiry in the order above indicated, and then treat of the various subjects from a pedagogical point of view.

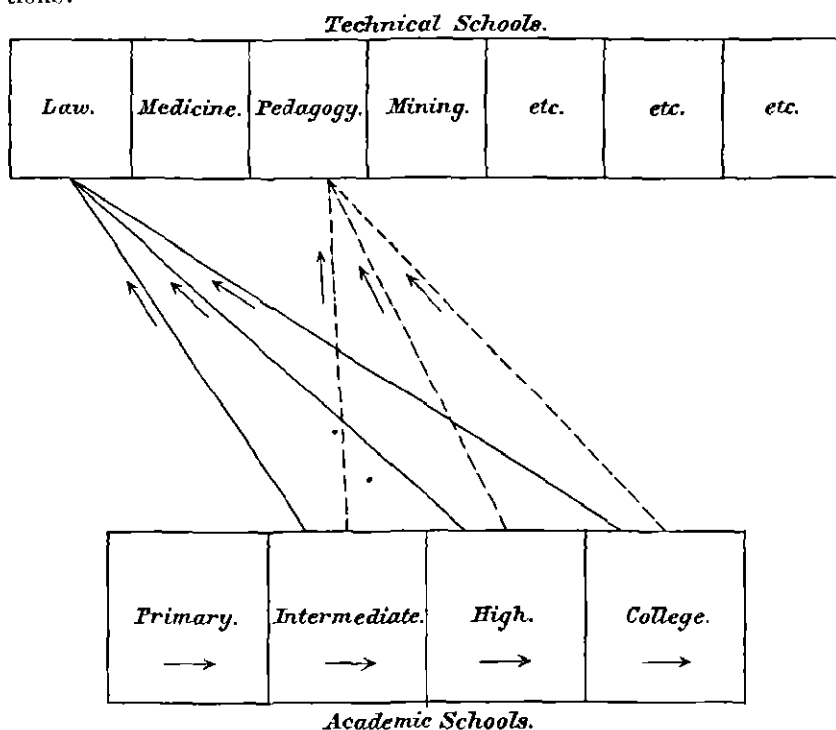
(3) It is evident that the so-called elementary subjects, elementary because they contain the elements of human knowledge, must be the objective ground for all methodology. They form, under ordinary conditions, a sufficiently comprehensive subject-matter for the doctrine of method to cover. At any rate, no start can be made in the science of knowledge that does not first comprehend these subjects. Their consideration from the pedagogical, that is, the normal-school point of view, must come last in the course of study. The inversion of this obvious order has introduced confusion into normal-school work, and brought upon it the contempt of academic schools.

(4) It is also evident that to the department of methodology a model school should be attached—a ground for the operation of experience. "Studies do give forth directions too much at large, except they be bounded in by experience."

(5) Since the normal school is to train teachers in the art of knowing and expressing knowledge, in the art of being, it must, in order to work intelligently, be in possession of the science of knowledge. This fact constitutes it a technical school of university grade, and the highest in a possible series of schools in a system of education, since it assumes to examine into the very grounds of all forms of knowledge, and must thus bring into review the purposes, processes, and results of all other schools. In a word, it is a school of philosophy. It is needless, surely, to interject the remark that this view would not make the normal school a Utopian institution, that it would not place it so far away as to make it of no value to the common-school system. The point of the question turns upon this inquiry: When a pupil enters a normal school what should be his purpose, and what are the means for his realizing it? The normal schools ought and must be able to render some other than the usual answer of academic schools, viz, to make a better scholar, by increasing the sum total of knowledge and mental power. Not to make better scholars, though this, of course, must be an incidental blessing, but to make teachers. Not to make teachers without scholarship, as an occasional lunatic charges upon the schools, but to make teachers out of scholars.

The recognition of the normal school as one of the technical schools of university grade has been of slow growth. With all of Horace Mann's acumen, he apparently did not see that it has this as its true relation in a system of education. Massachusetts, without a State university, was not, in this respect, a fortunate soil in which to plant the normal school. But it must be evident to the most casual observer

that a system of education has the following necessary parts and relations:



To the child entering the primary school an open way through all the academic schools should appear; beyond these, should be offered the special school needed to convert the accumulated potential energy of an academic course into some form of actual energy needed by society in its organic life. While any technical school is open to a student having the requisite preparation to do its special work, it is plain that the student who has gone through the most extensive course of academic preparation will profit most in the technical course. This fact is already well solved in the schools of law and medicine and business. In these schools, when the student is once entered, the question of academic scholarship is never raised. The geographical location of any technical school can mislead no one as to its logical relation in a system of education.

It must appear that it is highly illogical to place normal and high schools in the same category. They have an entirely diverse purpose. The normal school is not one of primary, secondary, or tertiary grade. It is a technical school.

In the practical solution of the problem of training teachers the normal school at St. Cloud admits to the lowest class those holding or capable of securing a second-grade county certificate. The reason of this is obvious. The State, through the county superintendent, declares

the candidate competent to teach, and licenses him for a year. It would be absurd for the State to declare the same person unfitted to enter upon a course of training for teaching in a school the State has established for that special purpose. If he is fit to teach before he comes to the normal school, he ought certainly to be fitted to begin to learn how to teach.

The course of study recognizes the views set forth above. The academic work is placed as far as possible in the first two years, the pedagogical in the last two. Were public opinion but far enough developed this philosophical arrangement would be the real one throughout.

The common branches thus come after the academic work, and after general psychology and methods. This enables the pupil to at least undertake the construction of a science of knowledge. The history of education, regarded as an evolution of thought rather than a chronology of devices, is carried on in conjunction with this work. The practical lessons of experience, as set forth in school economy, are brought to the student as guides to his own conduct, while the whole course is closed with several months of actual daily teaching in the model school, under a superintendence whose chief business it is to interpret for the pupil teacher the philosophy of his work and confirm his skill in the use of means. This pupil teaching thus becomes the real teaching of trained teachers, under the skilled supervision of specialists. The pupil teacher is not a pupil in a class; he is a teacher. He is not assigned to practice for 20 minutes, but teaches the entire school day, until the faculty is satisfied of his efficiency.

It is evident that all supervisory criticism must be helpful and intelligible in proportion as it is the expression of a correct science of knowledge. The formation of every judgment, the smallest fact in knowing or feeling, has its true interpretation from this point alone. In a general way it may be said that the dominant principles of the guiding metaphysic of this institution are those derivable from the science of knowledge as contained in the writings of the men above named, though to formulate such a science would transcend the limits of this outline.

CHAPTER VII.

CHAIRS OF PEDAGOGY.

There are probably three reasons for the fact that the first institutions founded in this country for the training of teachers were for the teachers of the common schools: (1) There were no schools in which the branches taught in the common schools were taught in the thorough way in which teachers ought to know them; (2) there were very few schools where girls, whose aptitude for teaching primary-school children the New England educational reformers of half a century ago saw very clearly, could get even a good high-school education; (3) these were the schools which European countries had provided for the training of teachers. The organization and courses of study of European normal schools, particularly those of Germany, leave little doubt that the first reason decided the character of their institutions for the training of teachers.

If this is a correct account of the causes that led to the founding of normal schools in this country, it is easy to see why they did not involve, as a logical consequence in the minds of our educators, the establishment of departments of pedagogy in our colleges and universities. If institutions had existed 50 years ago in which intending teachers of elementary schools could have received the thorough instruction in the branches they were preparing to teach, it is safe to say that normal schools would not have been founded. The founders of the first normal school in this country undoubtedly saw that the preparation to teach required not only an ample and accurate knowledge of the subjects to be taught, but a knowledge of the science and art of teaching. But circumstances required them to lay so much stress on the former element that it is not strange that the public generally regarded it as the entire business of the normal school to provide it, and that they themselves came to look upon that as its chief function.

Since then the chief business of normal schools was thought to be to provide instruction in the subjects which intending teachers of elementary schools were preparing to teach, and since institutions already existed for the thorough instruction of those preparing to teach in the higher grades of schools, the perception of the necessity for the establishment of departments of pedagogy in our colleges and universities has not been general, even among educated men. If normal schools had been founded to embody the idea that a knowledge of pedagogy is

of the first importance to the teacher, such departments would have been generally established long before this. And the fact that several of such departments have been established in the last 15 years we may regard as a distinct recognition of the fact that scholarship, however ample, is not all that is required of the teacher; that the history and science and art of education are matters which it is of the first importance for him to know.

From 1835 to 1873 the University of Iowa gave elementary normal instruction. In 1873 this professional instruction was modified in form and was transformed into a department of pedagogy, the first permanent department of the kind ever established in an American college.* In 1879 a professorship of pedagogy was established in Michigan University; 2 years later another in the University of Wisconsin; and 3 years later, one in the University of North Carolina, and one in Johns Hopkins University. Since then similar departments have been organized in Ottawa University, Kansas (1885); Indiana University, Cornell, New York, and Ohio University (1886), and the University of the City of New York (1887). Efforts are making to establish such departments in the University of Pennsylvania, the University of the Pacific, Ohio State University, and Vanderbilt University. Some institutions, as Columbia College, N. Y., which have no department of pedagogy, lay special stress on pedagogy in the department of philosophy. These are some of the facts which permit us to hope that a department of pedagogy will soon be recognized as an essential feature of the best colleges and universities in the country.

To give some idea of the kind of work attempted in these departments, I will quote at length from an article in "Didactics in the State University of Iowa" in the March, 1881, number of *Education*. The article was written by Dr. S. N. Fellows, the occupant of the chair of pedagogy in that institution. It is, of course, unnecessary to say that the work in these departments varies greatly in different institutions. I select the University of Iowa simply because the facts at my command enable me to give a somewhat detailed account of it. It should be said, however, that the courses of study in the department in that institution were arranged primarily to meet the wants of its graduates who filled the higher positions in the profession of teaching in the State, particularly superintendencies of schools. The question asked by the Iowa State University was: "What professional qualifications do they (the graduates spoken of above) need?" Dr. Fellows answered the question as follows:

First. A superintendent needs a knowledge of the means and ends of education, and how to use the former so as to secure the latter. This is especially necessary in arranging a course of study, grading and classifying the school, assigning teachers to their respective positions, supplying all the necessary conveniences for work, and in all the management and control of the school.

* A department of pedagogy was organized in Brown University in 1850, but was discontinued after 5 years.

Secondly. He should be able to guard parents and teachers against the baneful results of incompetent teaching. The opportunity afforded, in schoolrooms where there is no intelligent supervision, for sham and pretense is unequalled. The extent of incompetency will never be known, nor can the evil results in the characters and lives of the pupils be estimated. The superintendent should possess the ability to detect and disclose incompetency in any of its forms, and by wise counsel and influence encourage, inspire, correct, or secure the removal of teachers, as occasion may demand, and thus guard the interests and promote the welfare of all concerned.

Thirdly. He should know how to economize force. The amount of wasted energy in school work is incalculable. Waste may arise from undirected and misdirected effort, too much time given to unimportant matters, a badly arranged course of study, lack of thoroughness, irregularity, want of plan and system, improper physical conditions, lack of enthusiasm, and imperfect discipline. The superintendent should so understand the vital educational forces, their modes and laws of action, that he can overcome these and other forms of friction and waste, and obtain the best results with the least expenditure of energy. To meet these demands well he should possess an acquaintance with the order of development and laws of growth and action of the physical, mental, and moral powers; the relative importance and position of the several branches of study; the principles underlying methods so as to determine the relative value of diverse methods; the relation of physical conditions to health, study, and discipline; the fitness of competing text-books and all the appliances necessary in the practical work of the schoolroom. Another has said that to be properly furnished for the duties of a superintendent, one needs to possess "an exhaustive acquaintance with the literature of education, filled at present with the fruits of intense activity of master minds, and the sagacity to actualize all its golden suggestions in the school. Such, in brief, are some of the professional qualifications which, added to the ripest scholarship, are demanded for this, perhaps the most important and responsible position in our public-school system.

The nature, extent, relative position, and methods of instruction in didactics in this university have been determined, with the view of fitting as far as practicable, such of our alumni as engage in teaching for the work indicated above.

The following is a syllabus of our course of study, arranged more in its logical than in the chronological order pursued:

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN DIDACTICS.

A. *History of education.*

I. Writers: (1) Bacon, (2) Milton, (3) Locke, (4) Rousseau, (5) Spencer.

II. Practical educators: (1) The Jesuits, (2) Ascham, (3) Sturm, (4) Raitch, (5) Jacotot, (6) Comenius, (7) Basedow, (8) Pestalozzi, (9) Froebel, (10) Willard, (11) Mann.

B. *National systems of education.*

I. The United States: (1) City systems, (2) State systems, (3) the relation of the Federal Government to education.

II. Other nations: (1) England, (2) France, (3) Germany.

C. *Practical educational topics.*

(1) Illiteracy in the United States. (2) Relative rights of the State and the individual in regard to education. (3) Compulsory education. (4) The high-school question. (5) Industrial education. (6) Moral instruction in schools. (7) The normal-school problem. (8) Higher education of women. (9) Coeducation. (10) The kindergarten. (11) Oral instruction versus text-books. (12) Gradation of schools. (13) Relation of psychology to didactics. (14) Waste labor in education. (15) Object teaching, its purpose and province. (16) Tenure of office of teachers.

D. *School economy.*

I. School organization: (1) Principles, aims, modes; (2) nature of a graded school; (3) courses of study; (4) reviews, nature, value, frequency; (5) examinations—kinds, frequency; (6) promotions—plans, frequency; (7) records and reports; (8) teachers' meetings; (9) criticisms—advantages, limitations, tendencies, and dangers in the graded system.

II. School management: (1) Employments: (a) Study, (b) recitation, (c) recreation. (2) Government: (a) Objects, (b) forces, (c) principles, (d) methods. (3) Physical conditions: (a) Sites, (b) ventilation, (c) light, (d) temperature, (e) exercise. (4) Moral culture: (a) Conditions, (b) limitations, (c) objects, (d) methods.

III. School supervision: (1) Ends, value, and modes of supervision. (2) The superintendent: (a) His qualifications, (b) duties, (c) his relations to teachers, pupils, parents; *discipline, course of study.*

E. *Principles of education.*

I. General statement: (1) The educator learns from the study of the child what and how to teach him. (2) It is what the child does that educates him.

II. The being to be educated: (1) Ends of education: (a) To develop all the faculties of the child; (b) to develop them in harmony with one another; (c) to develop them with due regard to (a) their proper order, (b) relative importance, and (c) future employment. (2) Characteristics of faculties: (a) As developed in mature mind; (b) as undeveloped germs in child's mind. (3) Development of faculties: (a) Order of development; (b) periods of development; (c) laws of growth and action. (4) The faculties classified: (a) For purpose of culture; (a') As to simultaneous cultivation; (b) as to their mutual relations; (c) with regard to branches taught; (d) with regard to methods of teaching. (5) Motives: (a) Nature and use of motives; (b) motives proper and improper; (c) motives adapted to each period of development. (6) Habits: (a) Nature and strength of habit; (b) kinds—physical, intellectual, moral; (c) forms—active, passive; (d) conditions and laws of growth; (e) habits to be formed in relation to each class of faculties.

III. Matter for exercise of learner's powers: (1) The branches taught: (a) The purpose and province of each; (b) their distinctive characteristics; (c) the order of their study; (d) their adaptation to purposes of culture; (e) their relative importance; (f) demand for increase of number.

IV. Methods of instruction: (1) Importance and utility of method. (2) Principles of method. (3) Tests of methods. (4) Principles of method applied: (a) To each class of faculties; (b) to periods of development; (c) to branches taught.

V. The educator: (1) His functions: (a) To provide suitable materials; (b) to stimulate pupil's activity; (c) to direct and supervise pupil's work; (d) to guide him to the formation of right habits. (2) Qualifications: (a) Personal; (b) scholastic; (c) professional. (3) Motives. (4) Responsibilities.

In this institution didactics is pursued during the senior collegiate year as an elective study.

First. It is a senior study. The knowledge acquired in preceding years contributes to the work in didactics. The collegiate seniors have a discipline and culture that enable them to grasp the principles and philosophy of education with comparative ease. As a historical fact, a large proportion of our own classes have had an experience of at least a year or two in teaching. This being the last year of study before entering permanently upon their chosen life work, they eagerly seize upon every suggestion that will be of practical use in the schoolroom. Besides, they are at the same time pursuing the study of psychology, logic, and moral philosophy, branches related so closely to didactics as to greatly assist in its study.

Secondly. It is an elective study. Only such students as intend to teach are admitted into the class. It would be a serious embarrassment if those desiring only

general culture should be admitted. As a result of this provision it requires but little effort to maintain a spirit of zeal and earnest work.

Thirdly. Didactics extends as a daily exercise through the entire school year, and includes about 175 lectures, recitations, and exercises.

The methods of instruction employed are:

First. Recitations from approved text-books, with familiar oral lectures and discussions, in which the members of the class participate.

Second. Lectures by the professor and other members of the faculty.

Third. Wide and careful reading.

Under the first method, including the lectures of the professor in charge, all the subjects are considered that are enumerated in the course of study under the two last general divisions, viz: D, School economy; and E, Principles of education.

About 100 lectures and recitations are devoted to these topics.

There has recently been inaugurated a brief course of lectures by the president of the university and professors of the collegiate department, upon the subjects or branches of instruction pertaining to their respective chairs. The importance, relative positions, distinctive characteristics, and ends aimed at in teaching each branch in public schools are discussed in these lectures.

The ends secured by these lectures are:

(1) A more complete recognition by the university of the need and value of instruction in didactics.

(2) It unites the university more closely with the public schools of the State.

(3) The university becomes a more important factor in State education.

(4) The students in didactics receive the benefit of the experience and observation of the collegiate faculty.

Simultaneous with the above instruction in lectures and recitations, and occupying from one to two days of each week, the class is engaged in careful reading under the direction and supervision of the professors. The subjects thus considered are embraced in the first three general divisions of the course of study, viz: A. History of education; B, National systems of education; and C, Practical educational topics.

To illustrate the method pursued we give in detail the directions and references upon one of the subjects assigned.

ILLITERACY IN THE UNITED STATES.

Questions to guide in reading.

1. Does illiteracy exist?
2. Where does it exist? (a) Among colored or white population? (b) Among native or foreign population? (c) In manufacturing or agricultural districts? (d) In what States?
3. To what extent in each?
4. Is the ratio of illiteracy to population increasing or diminishing?
5. Relation of illiteracy to labor.
6. Relation of illiteracy to crime.
7. Relation of illiteracy to pauperism.
8. Relation of illiteracy to insanity.
9. Causes of illiteracy.

References.

1. *Cyclopedia of Education.*
2. *Census reports, 1840, 1850, 1860, 1870.*
3. *Reports of Commissioner of Education for 1870, 1871, 1872, 1877.*
4. *Report of Massachusetts Board of Education, 1860.*
5. *Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1871-72.*

*Not only the few hundreds of volumes in the teacher's library but the whole university library is laid under contribution, and by means of the copious indexes provided, students can pursue their investigations beyond the references given. * * ** The members of the class read with notebooks and pencils in hand, and the recitation hour of one day in each week is occupied in hearing their reports of progress made, with discussions thereon by the class, and the results are corrected and supplemented by the professor whenever there is need of it. It will be perceived that the above plan of reading is systematic in method, definite in aim, and economizes the time of the student.*

* For a full statement of the work done in the department of pedagogy in Michigan University see appendix to Professor Payne's "Contributions to the Science of Education."

CHAPTER VIII.

THE NEW YORK COLLEGE FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The New York College for the Training of Teachers was developed out of an association founded in 1884, which was known as the Industrial Education Association, and is the creation of its first president, Dr. Butler. This association was organized for two purposes: (1) To create a public interest in manual training as an integral part of general education and a public belief in its value; and (2) a distinctly educational purpose—to provide teachers of manual training wherever they might be desired. During the first year of its existence it sent out a circular announcing that it proposed to distribute writings and documents explanatory of the theories of manual training and of the practical methods of incorporating it into the present school system as an integral part of a common-school education, and to send persons competent to lecture upon these subjects, and also to send out teachers to show how manual training might be introduced into existing schools, or if necessary, establish independent schools for manual training, and to work in schools wherever needed throughout the country.

But the association soon found itself confronted with a very serious difficulty in attempting the purely educational part of its work, and that was the lack of trained teachers. When its doctrines were accepted and competent teachers were asked for to put them into practice, it found itself unable to supply them. To overcome this difficulty it resolved to organize a college for the training of teachers.

The question before the association as they first conceived it was, How to train teachers of manual training? But Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, who was president of the association, at once saw that to train teachers of manual training only was not to train teachers but tradesmen; that "the graduates of such a college could be artisans but not artists."* But it was one of the cardinal principles of the association "that the complete development of all the faculties can be reached only through a system of education which combines the training found in the usual course of study with the elements of manual training." It stated definitely that its aim was not the teaching of trades, but the development of all the faculties; that "manual training, to have its fullest value, must be an integral part of general education."†

* See p. 10 of his annual report, made to the board of trustees May 4, 1888.

† See "Principles and Outline of Work of the Industrial Education Association," published in December, 1886.

Dr. Butler saw that if these principles were to be made the basis of intelligent action, it would be necessary to train teachers of manual training who should be qualified to teach the other class subjects. For any subject taught by a special teacher is *not* regarded as an essential part of the course of study. The very fact that the regular teacher has not received that kind of training creates an impression upon parents and pupils alike that it is in the nature of an accomplishment, and can, therefore, be dispensed with without serious loss; but to create that impression of manual training would be fatal to the objects for the accomplishment of which the association existed.

The association accordingly restated their question. Instead of asking how they could train teachers of manual training, their inquiry was how they could train teachers who would know how to teach manual training, and Dr. Butler proposed and was authorized to organize a college for the training of teachers for the purpose of giving a practical answer to it. With this object in view, the college was founded in September, 1887.

In addition to the prominence given to manual training, this institution has aimed from the start to do a work undertaken by no other institution in this country, and for that matter by no other institution in the world with the exception of the Paedagogium, at Vienna, and the Higher Normal School, near Paris. As its name indicates, it aims to be not a normal school, but a college for the training of teachers, an institution to which graduates of normal schools and colleges may go for their purely professional training, as intending doctors and lawyers go to schools of medicine and law. In his annual report, made May 4, 1888, Dr. Butler said:

It [the college] is not a normal school and is not intended to be such. * * * They [the normal schools of the country] are academies or high schools with a slight infusion of pedagogic instruction. They certainly are not to the profession they represent what the law school, the medical school, and the theological seminary are to their respective professions. Col. Francis W. Parker recently wrote: "Circumstances have made them [the normal schools] at the best but half measures for the training of teachers. State normal schools are excellent high schools and a little more. * * * The need of the hour is the establishment of purely professional training schools—schools that would take rank with the best law and medical schools." It was to supply this need, to establish a purely professional training school for teachers, a school whose course of study should embody the theory that manual training should be a part of every school curriculum, and the ability to give instruction in it and to understand it as a part of the teacher's equipment, that the college for the training of teachers was founded.*

The theory upon which the work of this institution is based is that the "slight infusion of pedagogic instruction" given in the best normal schools and in those colleges which have departments of pedagogy no more affords sufficient preparation to the teacher than does the instruction in physiology in the same institutions to the intending doctor;

* See p. 9 of Circular of Information of 1889-90, issued by the college.

that as the general knowledge of physiology which can be obtained in our best colleges needs to be supplemented by a careful, detailed study of the human body, of its conditions in health and disease, of the treatment proper to it in its normal and abnormal conditions, and of actual work in the hospital under competent supervision, so that general knowledge of pedagogy and the human mind and the history of education which can be obtained in our best normal schools and in the few colleges which have departments of pedagogy needs to be supplemented by a broader, deeper, more detailed study of pedagogy and the human mind, by a wider and more accurate study of the history of education, and of educators, and of educational ideas, and of the institutions in which they have been embodied, and by a careful survey and comparison of contemporary educational systems in Europe and this country, and by enough actual work in teaching under competent supervision to make it of real value as an experience, and a genuine test of teaching ability. We have been talking in this country for a long time about the supreme importance of education. We have begun to realize at last that if education is a matter of supreme importance, then the preparation of the educator must be of equal importance; that it can not be of vital importance to do a difficult work well without being of vital importance to prepare those who are to undertake it in the best and completest manner possible. This indisputable—nay, more than that—this self-evident truth, has been a mere idea, a soul without a body, until the New York College for the Training of Teachers was founded. This institution was the first attempt in this country to give practical recognition to the fact that the training of the teacher *is at least as important as the training of the lawyer or doctor*; that the men and women who are to undertake the grave and responsible tasks of formulating courses of study, and giving advice as to courses of reading, and of supplying the conditions of healthy, symmetrical growth; in brief, that the men and women who are to determine to a large extent the environment by which the child is to be surrounded in the most critical period of his existence, and which will be the most potent factor in determining his destiny, that these men and women should have the benefit of all the experience and reflection of the teachers and educators of the race in attempting what sober truth obliges one to call the most important work in the world.

But though these ideas shaped the organization and work of the college from the first, it was unable, through lack of sufficient funds, to obtain a proper charter from the board of regents of the University of the State of New York until January 12, 1889. On that date the charter was issued in response to an application from the promoters of the college stating that they wished to establish and conduct a purely professional school for the training of teachers; "that the elements of a secondary education are not to be taught at the proposed college, but are to be required of candidates for admission; that the object of the col-

lege will be to give instruction in the history, philosophy, and science of education, in psychology, in the science and art of teaching, and the methods of teaching the various subjects included under that head; that a school of practice and observation will be maintained in connection with the college, and that a course of instruction and practice of not less than 2 years is to be organized, the completion of which to the satisfaction of the trustees and faculty of the said college may entitle the candidate to the degree of bachelor of pedagogy."

The charter authorized the trustees of the college "to grant and confer the degree of bachelor of pedagogy upon any person of the age of 20 years and of good moral character upon the recommendation of the faculty of said college, setting forth that the candidate for the said degree has completed the course of study in the said college to the satisfaction of the faculty, and to confer the further degrees of master of pedagogy and doctor of pedagogy upon such conditions as to them may seem proper."

From what I have already said it will be evident that manual training constitutes an important part of the course of study, although this is merely a concession to temporary exigencies. Where a sufficient number of institutions exist to give candidates an opportunity to prepare themselves in this department it will be required as one of the elements of a secondary education.

There appear to be two more exceptions to the purely professional work of the college. Two periods a week are devoted to instruction in general history during the senior year. The theory upon which this work is based is "that right historical study is an aid to culture, breadth of view, and sympathy, and that it gives discipline in reasoning of the practical kind most needed in the affairs of life; that it trains the imagination, and that it is a special preparation for the worthy handling of the great questions relating to man and society." The other apparent exception is in the department of natural science. The object of instruction in that department is to prepare the student to give experimental lessons in elementary science to pupils in primary and grammar grades. A course of experiments is pursued for the purpose of developing an explanation of such simple phenomena as come under the daily observation of children and are most likely to excite their interest. The students are taught to make their own illustrative apparatus. No examination in science is required for admission to the college, as it is found to be better that students should do their reading in science in connection with their experimental work.

The elements of a secondary education which are to be required of candidates for admission, include arithmetic, plain geometry, United States history, geography, and English, to which requirements it is in contemplation to add free-hand drawing.*

In the course of study that leads to the degree of bachelor of pedagogy three periods a week are given to instruction in psychology throughout

* Both sexes are admitted.

the junior year, two to the science of education during the whole of the junior year and three throughout the senior year, two to methods of teaching throughout the junior year and three throughout the senior year, three to the theory and practice of the kindergarten throughout the junior year, six to natural science during the junior year, and five to practice teaching throughout the senior year.*

I am glad to be able to say that in the department of psychology the greatest stress is laid on the study of children. In an appendix to this chapter will be found a copy of a blank with which each student is furnished, and also of the directions which they receive for their guidance in that work.

We have seen that candidates for a degree are instructed in the theory and practice of the kindergarten three periods weekly during the junior year. In this course an outline of the kindergarten system and its philosophy are given by means of lectures, and students receive opportunity for observation and practice with children in the kindergarten sufficient to show how the theory is carried into practice. This course is not intended to train practical kindergartners, but to enable students to appreciate kindergarten work and to see its relation to all the later education of the child.

For those who wish to become practical kindergartners, two courses, an elementary and advanced, are provided. The elementary occupies one year, and is complete in itself. Besides daily observation and practice in the kindergarten this course includes four lectures weekly. The subjects studied are the theory of Froebel's system, the mother play and nursery songs, the gifts and occupations, elementary crystallography, clay modeling, color, elementary botany, story telling, and vocal music, including the adaptation of the tonic sol-fa system to the kindergarten. A brief course in form study and drawing is also pursued. In addition, students taking the special kindergarten courses are required to attend the lectures in psychology with the candidates for the degree of bachelor of pedagogy, and also the three exercises weekly in physical training with the same students.

The advanced course for kindergartners occupies two years, and is occupied with the same subjects, treating them more fully and in greater detail. Students taking that course are also required to attend the lectures given to the senior class on the science of education. Certificates are given to students satisfactorily completing these courses.

Students who are not candidates for either of these certificates or for the degree of bachelor of pedagogy may take such special courses as they elect, but in order to obtain a certificate of proficiency in their chosen department they must take the course in the history and institutes of education.

We have seen that candidates for the degree of bachelor of peda-

* This is by no means a complete synopsis of studies. I have omitted, for instance, the courses of study in manual training.

They spend 5 hours a week throughout the senior year in practice teaching. But besides affording to students this opportunity the model school is intended to serve two other important purposes: (1) "To demonstrate that manual training can be introduced into schools of primary and grammar grade, both with benefit to the pupils and without interrupting their progress in other studies; (2) to afford opportunity to those intending to pursue the professional course at the college to receive thorough preparation for entrance."

The school consists of four grades: The kindergarten, primary, grammar, and high school, and the course of study is intended to occupy about 12 years—1 in the kindergarten, 4 in the primary, 4 in the grammar, and 3 in the high school.

This very meager account is sufficient, I think, to vindicate the statement which I made in the beginning, that in its conception this institution occupies a unique position among the institutions of this country. It is differentiated from all the other institutions in the country that undertake the training of teachers by its attempt to embody two principles: (1) The principle which I have already stated at length, that the vital importance of education makes the preparation of the teacher of vital importance, and that therefore his professional training should at least equal in thoroughness that given to the candidates for any other profession; and (2), that manual training should form an integral part of general education, and that every thoroughly equipped teacher should be qualified to teach it. The development of the first principle to its logical consequences will, I suspect, make it necessary to state it in a more radical and aggressive form. The thorough study of the science and philosophy of education is sure to make unmistakably clear the fact that double duty is required of the teacher who would thoroughly prepare himself for his work. When the law and medical students have finished their general education they are at once ready to enter a professional school. Not so with the intending teacher. When he has finished his general education he should spend 2 or 3 years in the thorough study of some one or more subjects before he enters a professional school, and that as a part of his preparation as a teacher. The more profoundly and thoroughly the science of education is studied the more evident it will be that a part of a teacher's equipment is thorough scholarship in some department or other. Thus only will he get that "magnificence of mind" which will enable him "to be a spectator of all time and existence;" that culture, in a word, the possession of which is certainly one condition of the highest success in teaching, to say nothing of the scholarship which is indispensably necessary to success in the more responsible positions. When this determines the conditions of admission to the New York College for the Training of Teachers, and when its courses of study are arranged accordingly, the first principle which underlies its organization and work will require restatement somewhat as follows: As the work of the teacher has more direct and important bear-

ings upon the well-being of society than that of any other profession, his special professional training should be more complete and thorough than that required for any other profession. When that principle determines the work of the college throughout, a diploma from some college in good standing will be required as a condition of admission, and students will be strongly urged to spend 2 or 3 years in the special study of some one or more subjects before taking up their purely professional studies, and its course of study will be correspondingly difficult.*

This is in no sense intended as a criticism upon the organization and work of the New York College for the Training of Teachers. "Such a being as man, who hopes to accomplish anything in such a world as the world we live in," *must constantly take into account the immense difference between the ideal best and the practical best.* I have no doubt that there was a pathetic contrast between the ideal normal school as it existed in the minds of Horace Mann and Cyrus Peirce, and the poor reality which began to exist at Lexington in 1839, but the Lexington Normal School has developed into something much more like the ideal of its original founders in this country. I have no hesitation in saying that I regard the organization of the New York College for the Training of Teachers as one of the most important steps which have ever been taken in this country or in the world in educational matters. Not merely or, indeed, chiefly, for what it is, but for the ideal which it cherishes and towards which we may hope it will grow as fast as public opinion permits. The thing for the friends of education to do is not to criticise this or that detail, especially when the defects grow out of necessary compromises with stubborn facts. It would be absurd, for instance, to say that a college for the training of teachers should only admit college graduates, when public opinion does not demand such training of college graduates, and when so few of them have any realization that they need anything of the kind. When such educational centers as Yale and Harvard and Princeton make absolutely no provision for instruction in pedagogy, it is absurd to insist that the projectors of an institution which aims to be a purely professional training school for teachers should admit none but graduates from colleges in good standing, or those who can give evidence of possessing an equal amount of culture. When men generally appreciate that it is vastly more important to get a good teacher for their children—a man whose knowledge of mind and the science of education will enable him to treat mind in a thoroughly rational and intelligent way—than it is to get a good doctor—a man to look after their physical well-being; or a good lawyer—a man to look after the property they are to inherit—then the training demanded of the profession, and the emoluments offered to it, will make possible the realization of the ideal that underlies the New York College for the Training of Teachers.

* It gives me great pleasure to say that a letter from Dr. Butler assures me that the views just stated are shared by the faculty and trustees of the institution, and that they look forward to doing just what I propose to raise the standard of their work.

I have no space in which to adequately discuss the other distinctive principle that underlies the organization of this institution—the value of manual training as an integral part of general education. This only I will take time to say: Every friend of education, whatever his opinions on this subject, must rejoice to see the question put to the test of actual experiment. If the New York College for the Training of Teachers can make good its contention; if by its model school it can “demonstrate that manual training can be introduced into schools of primary and grammar grade, both with benefit to the pupils and without interrupting their progress in other studies,” then I am sure that educators throughout the world will say: Let manual training be made an integral part of general education.

COPY OF A BLANK FURNISHED STUDENTS FOR RECORDING THEIR OBSERVATIONS OF CHILDREN.

• NEW YORK COLLEGE FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS, DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY.

STUDY OF CHILDREN.

Source: Original, reading, hearsay. (Cross out two.)

Subject: ——— principle involved ———.

Observer: Name ———, age ———, address ———.

Child: Name ———, age ———; nationality ———; sex ———; heredity, etc. ———.

Date: Observation ———; record ———.

COPY OF DIRECTIONS, CAUTIONS, ETC.

• A. *Cautions.*

- I. Do not seek the remarkable sayings and doings of precocious children; seek what is common and habitual.
- II. Report only the observations without comments or reflections.
- III. Never allow a child to know that he is observed.
- IV. Avoid drawing conclusions (even in your own mind) from too few data. Darwin observed worms many years before he dared to write about them.

B. *Things to be observed.*

1. Knowledge.

- a. The development of the several senses: Which develops first? Which most rapidly?
- b. Learning to talk.
 1. How young?
 2. What words first?
 3. How many words in a given time?
- c. How do children gain knowledge?
 1. When examining a new object, what quality first strikes them—form, color, taste, use?
 2. When asking questions, what kind of questions do they ask?
- d. How clear are the mental pictures which they form?
- e. A child's curiosity.
 1. How limited?
 2. How satisfied?
 3. Differences in children in the degree of curiosity?
- f. In what line is the greatest ignorance displayed?

I. Knowledge—Continued.

- g.* The effect of parentage and nationality on the extent and direction of a child's knowledge.
- h.* How do children gain ideas of beauty, of personal rights, of moral law?
- i.* Where do they get the idea "I am I?"
- j.* Study the capabilities of children as shown in sewing, drawing, building, planning, etc.

II. Attention.

- a.* How can you gain a child's attention? How keep it?
- b.* How cultivate attention?
- c.* Under what circumstances have you observed long-continued concentration?

III. Imagination.

- a.* Is imagination natural to children?
- b.* Does the power increase with age?
- c.* Note examples of lying (real or apparent) resulting from imagination.
- d.* Note the results of reading "Arabian Nights," etc.
- e.* Study children's ideas of the sky, of death, of God, and spiritual things.

IV. Reason.

- a.* How soon do children begin to reason?
- b.* Is there any difference of power between boys and girls?
- c.* Seek examples of the reasoning power of children?

V. Habit.

- a.* How soon do children begin to form habits?
- b.* Note the formation of habits.
 - 1. What are formed with ease?
 - 2. What are formed with difficulty?
- c.* How are habits formed?
- d.* How are habits broken?

VI. Memory.

- a.* What kind of memory is most found in children?
- b.* When do they exhibit striking differences?
- c.* What examples of long memory?
- d.* What instances of logical memory; of recognition without recollection?

VII. Feeling.

- a.* Likes and dislikes.
 - 1. Things.
 - (a) Amusements, plays, and games—social and solitary.
 - (b) Favorite stories, songs, and myths.
 - (c) Animals, flowers, etc.
 - (d) Plants.
 - 2. Persons.
 - (a) Attachments and aversions.
 - (b) Shyness, self-consciousness, pride, vanity, fear, anger.

VIII. Conscience.

- a.* Is it innate?
- b.* How soon are there any signs of conscience?
- c.* Examples of confession of wrongdoing brought about by conscience alone.

IX. Wills.

- a.* Do young children have strong wills?
- b.* When should obedience begin to be required? How?

X. Ways of dealing with children.

- a.* When naughty.
- b.* When afraid.
- c.* When shy.
- d.* When self-conscious.

X. Ways of dealing with children—Continued.

e. When injured.

f. When angry.

XI. Progress of children.

a. In the acquisition of knowledge.

1. Through the senses.

2. Through memory.

b. In overcoming faults.

c. In the development of will.

d. Compare the progress of children with the progress of brutes, *e. g.*, teaching a child and a dog to pick up a stick.

XII. General observations.

a. In what respects do children differ most?

b. What is the influence of heredity?

c. To what extent will environment and education overcome the effects of heredity?

QUESTIONS FOR CHILDREN, TO FIND OUT THE CONTENTS AND WORKINGS OF THEIR MINDS.

[The plan involves selection of some ten children, differing in ability, training, school advantages, in groups of about the same age. Each one is to be asked every question alone. The answers are to be accurately recorded in uniform style for filing and comparison.]

I. Observation.

How many legs has a fly? How many wings? What can a fly do that you can not? When a horse eats grass does he walk forward or backward? A cow? How many toes has a horse? How many feet has a snake? How does a robin look? What kind of nest does she build? What colored clothes does a policeman wear? How does a dog cross a deep stream? What color is the sky?

II. Information.

Who is the President of the United States? Where do potatoes come from? What are your shoes made of? What is leather? Where does milk come from? Did you ever see the surface of the earth? Why is it dark at night? How are the streets of the city lighted at night?

III. Sense of beauty.

What is the prettiest thing you ever saw? Why do you think it is pretty? What kind of music do you like best? What are the prettiest flowers you know? Do you like pictures? Why?

IV. Personal tastes.

What games do you like to play best? Why? What would you like for Christmas? What little boy or girl do you like best? Why? Which do you like better, city or country? Why? Would you rather ride in the cars or in a carriage? What colored flowers do you like best?

V. Imagination.

If you should go to the moon what would you see? What are fairies? How does an angel look? What is lightning? What would you like to do when you grow up? What do dogs think about? Can they talk to each other? How? What is heaven like? What is the sky made of? How far away is the sky?

VI. Reasoning powers.

Why doesn't it snow in summer? Why does a cat make so much noise when she walks? Where do the fishes go when it rains? Why doesn't a dog walk on two legs? Are snow and rain alike? Why does a fire engine go so fast? What is the use of doors? Why don't grown-up people go to school? Do bootblacks like to have it rain? Why doesn't grass grow in winter?

CHAPTER IX.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE NEW YORK ACADEMIES UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

There are four facts which make it impossible to suppose that the great majority of our teachers can be induced to prepare themselves for their work by pursuing a course of study in a normal school for 2 or 3 years, or in any institution whose specific object is the professional training of teachers: (1) A very large majority of our teachers are women, and, therefore, in the nature of the case do not intend to make teaching a life-work; (2) partly because of this and partly because of the low estimate which is put on the work of teaching, teachers are very poorly paid; (3) most teachers can earn even the low wages they receive for only a part of the year, since schools in the rural districts are not kept open during the whole of the year; (4) chiefly because of the two facts last mentioned the greater part of the men who engage in teaching do not intend to make a life-work of it, but use it simply as a stepping-stone to something else.

There is good reason for supposing that most of these facts are of a transient nature. The study of the science of education, which is so marked a characteristic of the history of education in this century, and which is becoming more and more thorough, and the importance of which is becoming more and more generally recognized, is sure to work profound changes in the course of time. When the American public come to realize the transcendent importance of the work the teacher undertakes to do, when they really understand that upon the proper development of the child all good causes depend, to use G. Stanley Hall's phrase, and when they realize to what an extent this depends upon the teacher, and how impossible it is for him to do his work properly without the most careful and thorough preparation, they will see to it that he has such preparation. Their schools will be open at least 10 months in the year and children everywhere will be required by rigidly enforced laws to attend them; their teachers will receive salaries more nearly in keeping with the importance of their work, and men with natural aptitude for teaching will have no temptation to quit the profession of teaching for any other. A large majority of our teachers will probably continue to be women, but the time will surely come when public opinion will imperatively demand that they make careful and thorough preparation for their work, and they will the more readily comply with it the more

clearly they perceive that in preparing themselves to teach they are giving themselves the best possible preparation for the only work that is more important than that of the teacher—the work of the mother.

But we are living in the present, not in the future, and our business is to deal with facts as they are, not as they may be, or ought to be, or as we hope they will be. I think it was Fuller who said “he would have caught a great cold if he had had no clothes to wear but the skin of a bear not killed,” and our children will be very badly taught if we neglect the professional training of teachers altogether because we cannot give them such training as they ought to have. Looking existing facts squarely in the face, one of the most important problems before the educators of to-day is, how to give the rank and file of teachers, the poorly paid teachers of country schools, the best preparation which the condition of things in our time makes possible.

I think the most suggestive and hopeful experiment in this direction is now making in some of the academies and union schools of the State of New York, and therefore I propose to give a somewhat detailed account of it.

It will be remembered that the first attempt made by any State in this country to provide professional training for teachers was made by the State of New York. But the normal departments established in certain academies in that State by the board of regents of the university aimed to give substantially the same amount of training as the normal schools which were subsequently established. That, undoubtedly, was one of the reasons why they failed. The teachers for whom they were provided could not afford to take such a long and thorough course. But after the State had adopted a different policy, after it had concentrated its resources in a single institution whose courses of study and methods of teaching were entirely determined by the needs of intending teachers, the need of properly trained teachers for the country schools, the schools whose salaries could not secure the services of the graduates of the normal school, continued to be felt, and in response to it teachers' departments in academies and union schools were reestablished in 1849. From that time until 1889, teachers' classes were provided for by the board of regents in certain academies and union schools, with courses of study which were intended to be adapted to the needs and circumstances of the teachers of the country schools.

The limits within which I am obliged to confine myself, compel me to omit the history of these training classes, as interesting and suggestive as I think a careful study of it would prove to me. I therefore pass at once to speak of the experiment now making in accordance with a law passed in 1889 which transferred their supervision from the supervision of the board of regents of the university to that of the superintendent of the department of public instruction.

The object of the law was to make possible the unification of the various agencies for the training of teachers in the State so as to make

them a consistent and organic whole. Before its passage, the teachers' classes in academics and union schools were under the supervision of the board of regents, while the institutes and normal schools of the State were under the supervision of the superintendent of public instruction. It was so obviously desirable that the department which had exclusive supervision of the institute and normal schools should have supervision of all the agencies for training teachers, that the proposed change met with practically no opposition.

In the State of New York there are four such agencies, normal schools, teachers' institutes, teachers' classes in academics and union schools, and the system of uniform examinations. The relation between the last two is so close that it seems to me desirable to explain what the system of uniform examinations is and how it came to be adopted. I will therefore quote from Superintendent Draper's report for the year 1888, as follows:

For several years the loose and indiscriminate issuance of certificates by local officers has been the source of earnest solicitude and discussion by the progressive school-workers of the State, until educational sentiment has very generally crystallized in favor of a public uniform examination, upon question papers prepared by the state department, the answer papers to be returned to, and marked at, the department. * * *

During the last session of the legislature a comprehensive measure designed to establish such a system passed both houses, but failed to become a law for want of the approval of the governor. The pendency of this measure attracted very general attention and aroused a full discussion of the matters to which it related and the evils it was intended to arrest, among the people and in the press, which has been productive of very consequential results.

At a meeting of the State Teachers' Association, in July last, action was unanimously taken suggesting that the school commissioners request the department to supply the question papers and agree to issue no certificates except upon regular examinations conducted in part, at least, in writing. Acting upon this suggestion 65 commissioners of the 113 promptly prepared the request and entered into the agreement, and from the 1st of September the question papers have been supplied at the first of each month from the department. So far as I am informed the experiment has resulted successfully, and without friction or embarrassment, wherever tried in good faith.

Experience has, of course, shown the advisability and indicated the features of a more perfect plan, which has been arranged and submitted to the commissioners whose terms of office commenced on the 1st day of January, 1888. *They have been left free to adopt it or not, but over 80 have asked for the question papers and signified their readiness to enter upon the system and be subject to the regulations concerning it.**

New forms of certificates have been prescribed for the districts entering upon the uniform examination system. Three grades of certificates have been prescribed for the districts entering upon the uniform examination system. Three grades of certificates are provided as heretofore, but the length of time which they have to run has been changed. The new first-grade certificate will be good for 5 years, the second grade for 2 years, and the third grade for 6 months.

Candidates for certificates of the third grade will be required to pass an oral examination in reading, and a written examination in arithmetic, composition, geography, grammar, orthography, penmanship, and physiology and hygiene. Candi-

* They have all since entered upon the system.

dates for certificates of the second grade will be required to pass an oral examination in reading and a written examination in the subjects required for certificates of the third grade, also in American history, civil government, current topics, and elementary drawing from copies and objects. Candidates for certificates of the first grade will be required to pass a written examination in the subjects required for a certificate of the second grade, with the exception of reading, also in algebra, bookkeeping, elements of physics, methods, and school law.

The third-grade certificate can not be issued to the same person more than twice. It is only intended for beginners. The second-grade certificate can only be renewed upon reëxamination. The first grade may be renewed, in the discretion of the commissioner, without reëxamination. Examinations will be held in the second and third grades monthly, and will be concluded in one day. Examinations for the first grade will be held twice in each year, in March and August, and continue two days. The manifest purpose of this arrangement is to require teachers to work up into the highest grades. * * *

The examinations must be conducted, at least in part, in writing, and the answer papers must be kept on file by the commissioner subject to the order of the state department. The standards which must be attained in order to secure a certificate are fixed in the regulations. The commissioner is at liberty to extend the examination beyond that prescribed by the department if he chooses. He may also put his standards higher than those fixed by the department. He may refuse to issue a certificate at any time. But he can not hold a less severe examination, nor can he lower the standards. The general purpose of the system is to fix minimum standards of qualifications which all must certainly attain who teach in the public schools.

In the report for 1889 there is a paragraph which throws further light upon the relation of teachers' classes to the system of uniform examinations. It is as follows:

The examinations for commissioner's certificates have been somewhat modified with reference to the work of the classes. A regular examination is now held by the commissioner of the institution at the conclusion of each term, which relates, so far as is deemed advisable, to the work done by the class in the preceding term. This policy will be continued, and with a view to inducing all candidates for teachers' certificates in the rural districts to go through the training classes and so gain the professional work therein held out to them. *Indeed, it does not seem too much to hope that in time a teacher's certificate in the country will be gained only at the end of a fair course of professional study in an institution so situated and equipped as to enable it to provide such course.**

The report for 1888 contains a paragraph which indicates the relation which the teachers' classes will eventually sustain to the normal schools. It is as follows:

The course of study in the training class should conform to that in the normal schools, so that a student going from one to the other would find his work not only along the same lines and harmonious, but continuous and without a break. Ulti-

* That time seems nearer at hand than the last sentence would indicate. A letter from Superintendent Draper, dated February 13, 1890, contains the following paragraph: "There is a strong movement in this State towards exacting professional training on the part of all persons desiring to teach in the public schools. A bill is now pending in the legislature which provides that after January 1, 1892, no candidate shall be licensed or employed in any city or incorporated village who, in addition to scholastic qualifications, has not spent at least 32 weeks in a normal school or training class." Of the fate of this bill I am not at this writing informed, but that some such law will be passed in New York before many years seems very nearly certain, unless all signs fail.

mately, as rapidly as practicable, the normal schools should cease the elementary and nonprofessional work, which can as well be done in the ordinary schools of the State. Professional work which can be done in the training classes should be left to them. Graduation from the classes should entitle admission to the normal schools.*

So soon as practicable after the passage of the law making it the duty of the State superintendent to supervise the training classes, a conference was held between that officer, the normal-school principals, and a committee of the principals of academies and union schools, at which the whole subject was very carefully considered and a plan of operations was agreed upon.

About sixty institutions were designated to organize classes for the fall term. The selection of these institutions was determined by the following considerations:

- (1) The proper distribution of the classes among the counties of the State.
- (2) The location of the classes to accommodate the greatest number of suitable candidates.
- (3) Such equipment of the institution as will give assurance of doing substantial work both in the theory and practice of teaching.

Candidates for admission must be at least 16 years old; must hold the third-grade certificate or the regents' preliminary certificate and a pass card in physiology; and must subscribe to a declaration to the effect that their object in asking admission to the training class is to prepare themselves for teaching in the public schools of the State, and that it is their intention to become teachers. The trustees, principals, and school commissioner are required to satisfy themselves that the candidates have the moral character, talents, and aptness necessary to success in teaching.

Each class must consist of not less than 10 members and must be instructed for not less than 10 or more than 13 weeks. The institutions in which these classes are taught receive \$1 for each week's instruction of each member, but the whole number of weeks allowed each class must not be more than 25. The money paid by the State goes to the management of the institution, and not to any individual. The violation of this rule is considered as a sufficient reason for discontinuing the assignment.

Each class, besides being under the inspection of an officer who devotes his entire time to that work, is subject to the visitation of the school commissioner of the district in which the institution in which the class is organized is situated. It is likewise his duty to advise and assist the principals of those institutions in the organization, management, and final examination of those classes, and to make a report to the State superintendent, in the manner prescribed by him, concerning their instruction and the qualifications of their individual members.

Two periods of 45 minutes each must be devoted to instruction in the topics laid down in the course of study. In addition, such members of the class as have time and ability may be permitted to pursue such other studies as are taught in the institution and as will be most profitable to them, for which, however, no tuition may be charged.

The following was the course of study for 1889-90:

First term.—The mental powers and the laws of mental development (1 week), school economy (3 weeks), reading and spelling (3 weeks), numbers (3 weeks), regents' examination (1 week).

Examination of training class for a second-grade license under the State uniform examination at the close of the term.

* This paragraph was written, it will be remembered, before the passage of the law transferring the supervision of the classes to the department of public instruction.

Methods in form study and drawing, 1 day each week through the term.

As one term is not considered long enough to give teachers the training they need, institutions with ample facilities and a good record may be appointed to instruct two classes during the year.

The course of study for the second term was as follows:

History of education (2 weeks), school law (1 week), language (3 weeks), primary geography (2 weeks), methods in physiology (2 weeks), examination of training class for a second-grade license under the State uniform examination at the end of the term; methods in form study and drawing, 1 day each week through the term.

It will be noted that the above course devotes 13 weeks to the study of methods during the two terms. Part of this time is spent in observation and practice work under the direction of the teacher of the class. He is expected at least twice a week to give the class an opportunity to witness practical work, in order that they may be trained how to observe critically and to intelligently interpret the principles of teaching. In addition, it is desired that each member of the class be given actual work in teaching as often as consistent with the work of the school.

CHAPTER X.

GENERAL SURVEY AND SUMMARY.

We have traced the development of the normal idea in this country from the time when it was first faintly conceived by Elisha Tinknor, in 1789, until the founding of the New York College for the Training of Teachers.

Has there been progress, and, if so, what are its moments?

That there has been progress, no candid student of educational history will deny, but as to its moments there will be a much greater diversity of opinion.

The first chapter in the history of State aid in the preparation of teachers—the history of the teachers' classes in the New York academies up to 1844—is valuable chiefly as a warning. The first and most important lesson which it teaches is that institutions which undertake the training of teachers should make that their sole business, or at least should put their department of pedagogy in the hands of a man who devotes his entire attention to it; to treat the science of pedagogy as a matter of secondary concern is fatal, because its value is far from being universally conceded. For a similar reason it is important that normal departments and departments of pedagogy should be in charge of men of first-rate ability. Until the just claims of the science of pedagogy are universally recognized, it is more than doubtful whether chairs of pedagogy will not do more harm than good when filled by men of ordinary ability, whose feeble and commonplace treatment of their subject fails to show the necessity of such departments.

Another lesson taught with great emphasis by that history is the necessity of taking into account the condition and circumstances of teachers in determining the courses of study of training classes and normal schools. No one can read President Gray's account of what a normal school should be without being struck by the almost pathetic contrast between his ideal normal school and the reality forced upon him by circumstances. An institution which is in its conception a school of philosophy, admits students without examination who hold second-grade certificates! But whatever may be thought of his theory, we shall agree that his practice is right. The fierce struggles between the ideal and the real doubtless result in concessions on both sides, but the largest concessions are wrung from the ideal, though in the nature of the case it is sure to get the better in the long run; for the ideal never ceases to be the ideal, while the real of to-day is not the real of to-morrow.

Each adjustment of the real in favor of the ideal is the death of one real and the birth of another, but ideals are tireless and merciless, and each new real must meet the fate of its predecessors in the course of time. But the final victory of the ideal is won only by an uninterrupted series of apparent defeats. Hence institutions which undertake to train teachers must begin where they can. However lofty the ideal they allow themselves to cherish, they must base their courses of study on the solid ground of actual facts. The teachers' classes in the New York academies neglected to do this, and hence they failed to accomplish their purpose.

The significance of the normal schools of Massachusetts, up to the time when Dr. Dickinson became principal of the school at Westfield, consisted not so much in the teaching of any particular philosophy of education as in the recognition of the fact that there is such a philosophy, and that teaching is good or bad according as it conforms to it. Their insistence upon this truth was of course of capital importance, inasmuch as it completely changed the point of view of those who accepted it. Perhaps the most valuable doctrines taught by these schools related to discipline and in general to the motives which teachers should appeal to. When Cyrus Peirce began to teach he was a firm believer in corporal punishment, and he put his theory into practice with conscientious energy. Little by little he began to have doubts of its value, and long before he was made principal of the school at Lexington he had come to disbelieve in it thoroughly. As he said in his letter to Barnard, his theory went to the entire exclusion of corporal punishment, and also of the premium and emulation system. He was able to *dispense with such motives in part through his power of appealing to his pupils' sense of duty, in part through his ability to arouse their interest in the subjects they studied, and he insisted that they could reach the same results in the same way.*

Another very valuable contribution to educational doctrine by these schools was their theory as to the kind and amount of knowledge of the so-called academic subjects which intending teachers should have. From the first they were organized on the theory that the knowledge which suffices to make an intelligent citizen is not sufficient to make a good teacher; that the teacher should know more of what he undertakes to teach than an intelligent citizen does, *in order that intelligent citizens may know as much as they ought to know, and that therefore the distinction drawn by some normal schools between academic and professional work is unsound and illogical.* They have held from the beginning that the specific and peculiar knowledge of the subjects he undertakes to impart, which the teacher needs simply because he is a teacher, is as much entitled to be called professional as the study of the science and art of teaching.

And the Lexington Normal School from the first set an example which the normal schools of this country would do well to follow; it did what

it could to keep out of the profession of teaching those who have no natural aptitude for it, and it recognized itself as under an obligation, not to its pupils to help them to good positions, but to the public to assist them to select teachers suited to their needs.

The normal school at Oswego certainly made some important advances. The objective method of teaching, the method which brings the mind of the pupil into direct contact with facts, and thus seeks to stimulate it to the proper kind of activity, first received its complete illustration in all grades of schools in the practice school of this institution. In the beginning, I imagine that the objective method, as conceived by Dr. Sheldon, was nearly identical with the system of primary instruction by object lessons. But little by little his conception of its scope enlarged. He saw that as pupils can gain clear and definite concepts of objects, not by memorizing lessons about them, but by direct examination of them, and in that way only, so the only way to stimulate the mind to any kind of activity is to bring it into contact with those facts, the knowledge of which has a natural tendency to occasion it. Whatever the subject of study, he saw that the true order is, first, the reality, and then the play of the mind about it. And when he grasped the idea he put it into practice and illustrated it in all the grades of his practice school. *In doing this, I say that the Oswego school made a distinct advance.* I do not, of course, mean to intimate that the objective method, as a method of teaching, was new when it was taught to the students of the Oswego training school. As a method of teaching it is certainly as old as Socrates, probably much older. Indeed, no more perfect illustration of it could be given than is given by the Socratic method, and it is safe to say that all first-rate teachers from and before Socrates down to the present have used it more or less consistently. No one can read the letter of Cyrus Pierce to Barnard and doubt that he taught objectively. He taught his pupils what they should do in certain emergencies, not by telling them what they ought to do, but by asking them what they would do, doubtless helping them, Socratic fashion, to see their mistakes when they answered wrong. But to use a method of teaching is one thing; to formulate it so clearly as to be able to teach it to others is a very different thing. Men reasoned a long time before Aristotle wrote his *Logie*, or Bacon his *Novum Organum*, and good teachers taught objectively a long time before Comenius, with more or less clearness, first formulated the theory. As a theory, it was first taught in this country by Dr. J. W. Dickinson during his principalship of the normal school at Westfield, but it was first illustrated in all grades of the public school, from the primary department to the high school, in the practice school at Oswego.

The school at Oswego marks an epoch in the history of the normal schools of this country in another respect, and that is, in the emphasis which it laid upon the importance of practice teaching. In the half-dozen State normal schools of Massachusetts to-day there is but one

practice school, at Framingham, and that was discontinued while the school was at West Newton.

From the first, the school at Oswego set a high value upon this work, and it is doubtless due in no small measure to its influence, that a practice school is now so generally regarded as an indispensable adjunct of a normal school.

But a teacher may have a thorough comprehension of the objective method, and of the subjects he undertakes to teach, and be a poor teacher because he may not know enough of children to know what facts to direct their attention to. No argument is needed to show that the better a teacher knows children, the more he knows of their likes and dislikes, of their knowledge and their ignorance, of the things that interest them and the modes in which their interests are developed, the more effectively he can use the objective method.

This is one of the reasons why the normal school at Worcester, in making the study of children a part of the regular work of its students, has taken an important step forward. I say one of the reasons; the uses to which a teacher's knowledge of children can be put are so various, the attitude of mind and the sympathy with children which naturally result from such study are so important, that I hesitate to attempt to express in a set of formal propositions what I regard as the significance of that movement. I believe that so many pedagogic problems of transcendent importance must wait for their solution until generation after generation of trained teachers have made a record of their observations and experiments, that I am quite unable to give adequate expression of my conception of the significance of the first step in this country on the road that leads to this destination.

But a teacher may have a perfect comprehension of the objective method and great skill in applying it; he may have a profound knowledge of the psychology of children so as to have all the help which that science can give him in his attempts to bring the minds of his pupil into contact with the kind of facts most likely to stimulate them to the right kind of activity. But what is the right kind of activity? If he answers that it is that kind of activity which results in a certain kind of development, and which leads to the acquisition of certain valuable knowledge, he only opens the door to further questions. Why does he regard development as an end of education? As we glance back over the history of education we see that this is but one of many ideas of education which the nations of the world have cherished. Upon what does he base his contention that his ideal is the true one? And further, in what precisely does his ideal consist? What kind of development is he aiming at? Symmetrical development, he would probably answer. But what is symmetrical development? When are our faculties harmoniously developed? What is their true function, their proper relation to each other, in the ideal man? Further, what are his tests for deter-

mining the value of knowledge, and how did he get it? And still further, what is the nature of the knowledge he wishes to help his pupils to acquire? Does he seek to give them absolutely certain knowledge of certain important truths? Or does he seek to have him regard all things believed and known, as the phrase goes, as working hypotheses, very excellent indeed for the practical purposes of life, but utterly valueless to the speculative intellect in its search after absolute knowledge? Plainly, until he can answer these questions, he has no philosophy of education, no philosophy of his methods of teaching, no rationale of his processes; in one word, no justification for what he does. The monks of the Middle Ages thought asceticism, a life of repression and self-denial, the ideal life. Were they right? If so, our whole scheme of education is fundamentally and thoroughly false. The Chinese agree with us in insisting on the importance of development, but the faculty they would lay chief stress on is the mechanical memory. Are they right?

It is the vivid perception of these difficulties, the clear realization of the fact that our educational edifice, however magnificent in its outlines and elaborate in its details, is without a foundation unless that foundation is found in philosophy; and further, that unless philosophy not only gives us our starting point and our goal but guides us all along the journey by which we attempt to traverse the distance between the two, we are mere empiricists, no matter how much we know of the minds of children and how skillfully we use it for the accomplishment of our purposes. It is the vivid realization of these truths that determines the conception which President Gray has attempted to embody in the normal school at St. Cloud. "The philosophy of method is the method of philosophy," he says; true, in precisely the same sense that the route from Chicago to New York is the route from New York to Chicago. In stating the philosophy of method, the natural course is to start from the method and reason back step by step until the facts of consciousness are reached, upon which, in the last analysis, it is based. In stating the method of philosophy the natural course is to take the opposite direction, starting from the facts of consciousness, to reason step by step until we have found a firm basis for science and the activities of everyday life. Hence, inasmuch as the normal school exists for the purpose of making better teachers; inasmuch as it "is to train teachers in the art of knowing and expressing knowledge, in the art of being, it must, in order to work intelligently, be in possession of the science of knowledge. This fact constitutes it a technical school of university grade, and the highest in a possible series of schools in a system of education, since it assumes to inquire into the very grounds of all forms of knowledge, and must thus bring into review the purposes, processes, and results of all other schools. In a word, it is a school of philosophy."

This is certainly suggestive. I do not here stop to inquire whether

The logical consequences of this reasoning are not that an institution can not exist whose mission is to prepare teachers for the lower grades of schools, and whose courses of study are adapted to this end; I do not raise the question whether, when the normal school has risen to its mission, when it has become a technical school of university grade, the highest in a possible series of schools—I do not raise the question whether it may not be urged with the same force that the schools which then do the work which the normal schools are now doing will not also be, in their conception, schools of a university grade, rudimentary schools of philosophy, so to speak; I do not raise these questions because here our business is to get at “the soul of truth” in this conception. That it has an element of truth of great value I, at any rate, am firmly convinced. The logical outcome of the movement inaugurated in Massachusetts in the year 1839 certainly is an institution which recognizes as one of its duties the task of formulating and teaching the philosophy of method, and this philosophy of method will be the method of philosophy.

It is in the complete recognition of this truth contended for by President Gray that an institution which does thoroughly the work which the normal schools undertake must be a technical school of university grade—the highest in a possible series of schools in a system of education—that I find the great significance of the New York College for the Training of Teachers. Surely it is not too much to say that the founding of an institution which embodies such an idea is an epoch in the history of education, not only in this country but in the world.

SUGGESTIONS.

But what of the future? In what direction shall the friends of education bend their energies in order to bring about the more thorough training of teachers? What functions should be assigned to existing agencies? Should any new ones be established?

Taking up these questions in the reverse order in which I have asked them I should answer the last one in the negative. Institutes, teachers' classes in academies and high schools, normal schools, in which I would include city training schools, professorships of pedagogy, schools of pedagogy, of which the New York College for the Training of Teachers is the only example in this country, cover the ground.

What functions should be assigned to them? That question has been most discussed in this country with reference to normal schools, and I think it will be convenient for us to begin with them. They are the only agency which has been employed on a large scale in this country, or, for that matter, in the world, for the training of teachers, and there is, therefore, a larger body of history in their case from which to draw suggestions.

I agree with President Gray that it is impossible to define the work of an institution in any other manner than to reveal its conception of its purpose and problem. Let us then begin our inquiry as he has done by asking, What was the normal school set to do? What means does it employ to accomplish its end?

I know of no way of learning the answer to these questions except by going to history. I can not accept President Gray's *a priori* method, because being *a priori* it takes no account of facts whose character is such that they decide the whole question. Since the normal school was set to make better teachers by making their work rational, reasons President Gray, and since their work can only be entirely rational by being based on a sound philosophy, therefore, in order to accomplish its purpose it must be a school of philosophy. Now, when I say that I regard that as an entirely logical argument, based on true premises, it would seem that I ought to admit the conclusion, but I do not. I am not at all clear that with such beings as men to do the work of such a world as the one we live in it is possible to make the work of the rank and file of teachers entirely rational. If their work is to be entirely rational, it must be based on philosophy, and the institution which prepares them for it must be a school of philosophy. But if the work of the great majority can not be entirely rational, if unalterable facts make that out of the question, then the institutions which prepare them to make their work as rational as possible, under the circumstances, may be as unlike a school of philosophy as the normal school at Worcester, which expressly disclaims the teaching of metaphysics. What are these unalterable facts? Let any reader seriously ask himself what prevents the teachers of the town he lives in from making such a study of Kant's Critique as President Gray's ideal contemplates, and he will not need to read my answer. The teachers of your town, my reader, have not mastered Kant because they could not if they wanted to, and if they had, your town would be obliged to get along without their services. The work of the world must be done with such tools as the world has, and the teaching of the world must be done by such men and women as the compensation offered for it can secure. The men and women who can assimilate a great system of philosophy are not forthcoming in our world in sufficient numbers to take charge of the schools of the world, and if they were, and if they had spent the long years in study which such an achievement requires, they could hardly be induced to do it for \$30 or \$40 a month. It seems to me, therefore, pretty near self-evident that most of our schools must be taught by teachers who have no system of philosophy, and that they must either get their training in institutions which are not schools of philosophy or go without it altogether. The truth of the matter is that the great majority of teachers are in much the same predicament in this particular as the rest of the world. The work of every man implies a set of beliefs whose foundation

can be found only in philosophy. But as Edison has made some remarkable inventions, probably without any system of philosophy, so Pestalozzi, who was certainly innocent of any such thing, proved a rather inspiring teacher.

Rejecting President Gray's method, then, and going to history, what does it tell us about the work the normal school was set to do. Now, it seems to me there are two ways of getting the testimony of history on this point. We may inquire (1) what the founders of the normal school intended it to be, so far as we can learn from the courses of study and conditions of admission which they laid down and from any other attainable evidence, and (2) we may inquire what kind of teachers have actually been trained in the normal school. If the answers to these questions coincide, I think we may conclude that we have learned what the normal school was set to do.

To both these questions the answer of history is perfectly clear. The fact that of the first three normal schools in this country one was for females exclusively at a time when no positions to teach were open to women except in the elementary schools, and possibly a few subordinate positions in the secondary schools, and the fact that they all had the same course of study, proves conclusively that what they were intended to do was to train teachers for the lower grades of schools. And the example of Massachusetts in this particular has been followed more or less closely by all the normal schools of the country. It is, of course, true that the conditions of admission have been raised and that the courses of study have been considerably extended. But so have they been in the colleges of the country, and it is safe to say that the standard of scholarship in the latter is quite as much higher than that of the normal schools to-day as it was fifty years ago.

"The answer which history returns to the second question, as to the kind of teachers which have been trained in them, is equally clear. In 1875, Miss Delia A. Lathrop, herself a graduate of the Oswego Normal School, and then principal of the training school in Cincinnati, read a paper before the National Educational Association containing the following paragraph:

The faculties of these schools [the normal schools] will not take exception to the statement that many, a large proportion, of their graduates are persons of indifferent intellectual acquirements. They have barely the education necessary to get a certificate for teaching a village or city school, with such a margin of attainment as shall afford them a good degree of self-respect. The cases are rare, I think you will all admit, in which the acquirements reach the standard of college graduation; in the majority of instances they are less than that of a first-class city high school. I know we normal-school people feel it to be a serious matter to admit so much, and it is not necessary, perhaps, to publish our weaknesses to the world, but in the privacy of our own conferences we ought to have the courage to know and speak the truth. Hence it follows that college graduates take precedence of normal-school graduates in situations demanding excellent scholarship. It would be interesting to know how many normal-school graduates are to-day employed as principals of secondary schools, high schools, or academies, and how many as assistants in such

schools. Their deficiency in the higher departments of education cuts them off from aspiration even to such places.*

The substantial truth of this statement, I believe, no one acquainted with the facts will venture to question.

Since, then, the normal school was from the first designed to train teachers for the elementary schools and for the subordinate positions in the secondary schools, and since this is the work which it has actually done I think we may fairly conclude that that is its true function.

What means should it employ to accomplish its end? In attempting to answer this question we are at once confronted with the much discussed question as to the proper course of study for a normal school. Should it be partly academic and partly professional,† or wholly professional? In other words, is it a part of the work of the normal school to give instruction in the subjects which their students are afterwards to teach, or should they confine themselves entirely to instruction in the history and science and art of education, psychology, and the like?

An examination of the preparation required of the teachers of the higher grades of schools will bring to light the principle by which the answer to this question must be determined. Who are the teachers in high schools and academies? Graduates of colleges. Who are the professors in our colleges? Men who have done post-graduate work of university grade for two or three years, men whose attainments fairly entitle them to a doctorate of philosophy. Who are our university professors? Men of extraordinary ability who have made a profound and thorough study of their specialties in the best universities in the world, and whose great powers enabled them to thoroughly assimilate the instruction which they received.‡ What is the meaning of these facts? Their meaning is that it is a universally recognized principle that teachers must know more than they are expected to teach. The teacher of science in a high school paid special attention to science during his college course, in order that he might learn enough to teach the high-school pupils. The professor of some particular branch of science in a college, besides paying special attention to it during his college course, spent two or three years in special study of it after graduation, in order

* The report of the superintendent of public instruction for 1883 shows that there were at that time twenty-seven public schools, each employing fifteen or more teachers. Of these twenty-seven schools, sixteen had superintendents who were educated in the university, six were in charge of men who were educated in schools outside of the State, and five were supervised by graduates of the State normal school. This statement is sufficiently significant, but it does not exhibit the full extent to which the university has become the source from which the higher teaching force of the State is recruited. For example, in the Detroit high school there are seven assistants who were educated in the university, and this case is typical of the state of affairs in other first-class high schools.—*Contributions to the Science of Education*, W. H. Payne.

† I use this term in this sense provisionally, as will appear further on.

‡ It will of course be understood that these statements are made merely of the great majority of cases.

that he might fit himself to teach college students. The university professor spent a larger time studying the same subject before he began to teach, and has risen to his present position step by step as his writings and lectures proved him to have attained such a mastery of his subject as to qualify him to teach it to specialists.

We need not go far to find the basis of this principle. Whether a teacher aims to communicate knowledge or to occasion the development of his pupils, it is alike necessary for him to know more than he hopes to teach. As Fitch well says, some knowledge is inevitably lost in transmission. A teacher deals with a variety of minds, and if his knowledge of his subject is meager he can not select and adapt his matter to suit their different capacities. His range of illustrations will be limited; his examples stereotyped; his method of presenting his subject weak and lifeless. Without interest in his subject he can not arouse it in his pupils. He can not stimulate their curiosity by giving them glimpses of landscapes lying beyond the field upon which they are especially concentrating their attention, because he has never seen them himself. He can not encourage them to think by encouraging them to ask questions, because he is afraid he would have to expose his ignorance. And if some bright pupil chances to ask a question in spite of the forbidding atmosphere, he receives an equivocating, oracular answer, because the teacher is so painfully conscious of his own ignorance that he is afraid to say he does not know. That intellectual humility which naturally results from the feeling of the infinite smallness of what one knows in comparison with the infinite unknown, the pupils of such a teacher will never experience. They will never get the power that comes from seeing all the details of a subject as parts of a single whole, because the teacher knows nothing but disconnected, unorganized facts, and therefore can teach nothing else.

These are a few of the considerations which justify the universally accepted principle that a teacher must know more than he expects to teach his pupils, because he can not teach all he knows. If this is true, it follows that the knowledge of a well-equipped teacher may be divided into two parts: (1) That which he has learned, not because he is to follow this or that occupation, but because he is a man; (2) that which he has learned because he needs it as a teacher. The teacher's professional preparation, therefore, consists likewise of two parts: (1) Of the acquisition of that knowledge of the subject he is to teach which he needs simply because he is a teacher; and (2) that knowledge of the history, philosophy, and science of education, that knowledge of methods and practice in applying them which will make him an intelligent educator and a skillful teacher. It would seem, therefore, that unless there is a special reason for separating these two parts of the training of normal students that the natural course would be to make the same institution responsible for both. An institution whose special work is the professional

preparation of teachers, is much more likely to have right ideas as to the amount of knowledge of the subjects he is to teach which a teacher needs than any other, to say nothing of the fact that the teaching of academic subjects affords excellent opportunities for illustrating methods.

But it is not only true that there are no special reasons for committing the first part of the teachers' professional training to some other institution—there are no institutions which make provision for giving intending teachers of the normal-school grade a professional knowledge of the subjects they are to teach. The theory, therefore, that the academic department of normal schools is a mere concession to existing exigencies, I hold to be radically false. I hold with the Massachusetts board of education that "the design of the normal school is strictly professional; that is, to prepare in the best possible manner the pupils for the work of organizing, governing, and teaching the public schools," and that this professional preparation includes "the most thorough knowledge, first, of the branches of learning required to be taught in the schools; second, of the best methods of teaching these branches; third, of right mental training;" and I hold that in our system of schools the normal school is not only the proper agency for undertaking the whole of the professional training of intending teachers of a certain grade, but that it is the only institution which really professes to supply any of his professional needs. The theory that normal schools have no business to give instruction in the subjects their students are preparing to teach, I regard as a survival of the fallacy of the monitorial system which held that the bare knowledge of a fact qualifies its possessor to teach it.

And when I undertake to estimate the weight of the various authorities on the two sides of the question, I acquiesce with the more confidence in the conclusion to which logic and our experience lead me. Able names can doubtless be quoted on both sides, but what authorities can those who deny the right of academic instruction in normal schools to be called professional work, what authorities can they throw in the scales to counterbalance the tremendous weight of the example of the Germans, who require their normal students to spend two years in getting a more thorough and scientific knowledge of the subjects they are to teach and one year in the study of pedagogy? What names can they oppose to those of Edward Everett, Horace Mann, Dr. J. W. Dickinson, Dr. William T. Harris, to say nothing of less known men? And, unless I am very much mistaken, the tide of opinion among normal-school men is setting very steadily in the direction of the position I am advocating. I can not take the space to quote from the letters I have received, but it is safe to say that, although there is not a consensus of opinion, the great majority of normal-school men in this country believe that that academic instruction which normal-school

students need in order to prepare for teaching is a part of the professional work of normal schools.

Assuming, then, that a part of the professional training of teachers consists in a special knowledge of the subjects they are preparing to teach, and that the whole of the professional training of teachers of the normal-school grade should be undertaken by normal schools, our next inquiry is, What kind of academic instruction should normal schools give? What subjects, in other words, is it especially important for intending teachers of the best elementary schools to know?

I have no idea of attempting to give a detailed answer to this question. I propose merely to offer a few suggestions, with a brief statement of my reasons for them.

I think we shall all agree that the development of the right kind of interests is the most important end of education, for with this end gained every thing else is secured. From this it follows that the most important part of the teacher's preparation is that which qualifies him for this work. What subjects does he need most of all to pay special attention to, in order to do this most successfully?

History, certainly, for one thing; chiefly, of course, the history of our own country, but general history also, if room can be found for it. State normal schools are under peculiar obligations to give their students thorough instruction in the history of the United States, and that history can not be understood without some knowledge of general history. But apart from their relations to each other, the more the teacher knows of either the better fitted he is to occasion the development of healthy interest in his pupils. Of course, general history will not be taught in a formal way in any grade of school below the high school, but if the teacher has any knowledge of it he can find plenty of opportunities to use it, and if his pupils have access to a library—which should form a part of the equipment of every school—his historical allusions and illustrations will be sure to set some of them to reading. It is hardly necessary to add that instruction in history in a normal school may be made to contribute powerfully to the knowledge of psychology and the history of education. History is the record of the conversion of human potentialities into actualities. What impulses have I that show me that I, with a different social environment, might have been a Spartan, or a monk, or a schoolman, or a knight? Such questions are sure to give the more thoughtful students a deeper interest in both psychology and history, and a more real knowledge of both. And the instructor in history in a normal school will surely not forget to make his pupils realize how profoundly the ideals of life have differed in different ages, and to call their attention to the very great difference in the prominence of the part which schools have played in different civilizations. If, as should be the case, the instructor in history is likewise the instructor in geography, he will have abundant opportunities to teach valuable historical truths, and at the same time, give reality to the psychological truth that

the environment of the mind is an exceedingly important factor in its development.

Another subject upon which normal schools should lay great stress is English literature. The aim of instruction in this department should be twofold: First, to cultivate in the pupil a genuine taste for *good* books; and, second, to give him as wide a knowledge as possible of the *kind of reading most likely to develop a taste for good reading* in the boys and girls of our schools. In fact, the professor of English literature in a normal school should be quite as much a professor of reading. In connection with the professor of psychology he should make experiments to determine the kind of books which children of different ages and types of mind like; he should bring the results of these and similar experiments before his classes and help them to realize their value. He should make his pupils feel the truth which G. Stanley Hall has stated so emphatically: "At any rate I am profoundly convinced that just as, from the point of view that regards charity as a science rather than a virtue, it is wrong to give alms to beggars unless we are able and willing, personally, or by agencies to that end, to follow them up and see that our gifts are so spent as to do the recipient good and not harm, so the school has no right to teach how to read without doing much more than it now does to direct the taste and confirm the habit of reading what is good rather than what is bad."

If society ever comes to see the place which the school ought to fill among the agencies of civilization, and to realize how essential the proper teaching of reading is to the proper work of the school, I believe an acquaintance with, and an appreciation of, *good literature* will be regarded as an absolutely essential qualification of a teacher of elementary schools. The college specialist may get along without it, but the elementary teacher can not.

The solution of a large part of the problem of education depends upon the answer to the question, how to induce the pupils of our schools to form the habit of bringing their minds into contact with the best thoughts of the wise men of the race. When that problem is solved, *the schools will have done all that influence can towards giving the right direction to the energies of the rising generation*, and the solution of this problem, so far as it can be solved at all, depends upon the proper teaching of reading.

I believe, also, that a prominent place in the course of study of a normal school should be given to natural science. Physiology, botany, zoölogy, mineralogy, geology, physics, astronomy, and chemistry should be taught—some of them because of their bearing on geography, others because they enable the teacher to explain many simple natural phenomena in which children are likely to have an interest, and others because the study of them tends to develop those habits of careful observation which are the teacher's best qualifications for forming such habits

in his pupils, and leading to that love of nature which naturally results from them.

It goes without saying that the pupils of a normal school should be thoroughly grounded in all the subjects they are preparing to teach. *In the study of those subjects in which they are instructed, not because they expect to teach them but because of the light they throw on related subjects, more or less of superficiality may be tolerated, but the subjects they are preparing to teach they should be taught thoroughly.* They should be made to realize in their own experience the difference between *empirical and scientific knowledge*. They should be made to know American history, for example, not as a series of disconnected facts, but as the necessary unfolding of a great drama, owing to the fact that their geographical situation compelled different States, with unlike civilizations and unlike institutions, to attempt to unite themselves *together into a harmonious whole*. Everywhere and always their rational memory should be cultivated, and they should be made to realize the tremendous difference between knowing and thinking—between accepting a thing as true on authority, and seeing that it is true for one's self.

A few words as to the second part of the professional work of a normal school, the teaching of pedagogy and related subjects. Of course, the history of education should be studied, and *it seems to me so much of general history should be connected with it as to enable the student to realize the connection between the history of education and the history of civilization*. The object aimed at should be to give the student a clear comprehension of the principles of the great educational reforms of the world. The subject should be *so taught as to familiarize the class with the literature of the subject, and at the same time train them in habits of research*. The course should include a survey of the educational systems of the leading countries of Europe, and besides the system of the State in which the normal school is situated, those of one or more States of the Union which are regarded as particularly excellent—say, the systems of New York and Massachusetts.

In connection with the science of education, special attention should be paid to the subject of educational values, that the student may have a clear comprehension of the relation between his tools and the work they are intended to accomplish. In instruction in methods, the student should never be allowed to lose sight of their psychological basis. The charge so often brought against normal-school graduates, that they are slaves of methods, is too often true, simply because they forget that a method of teaching derives its sole value from its conformity to the laws of the human mind.

As to instruction in psychology, it is unnecessary for me to repeat the recommendations made elsewhere. I will only further remark that I regard the introduction of the methods of studying children pursued at

Worcester and the New York College for the Training of Teachers as the most significant fact in the history of the normal schools of this country.*

I do not think the teaching of the ancient languages in our normal schools can be defended on the principle by means of which alone the teaching of some academic subjects can be justly regarded as a part of their professional work. Though it would not be safe to say that the graduates of those schools are never called upon to teach them, it is certainly true that it is quite exceptional, so much so that the normal school can not with any propriety claim that the preparation to teach them is any part of its legitimate work. And though the study of these languages of course throws a good deal of light on our own, no one would contend that 3 or 4 years spent on the study of them is time well spent for this purpose. A third of the time spent on the study of the masterpieces of English would not only give the student a much better knowledge of the structure of his language but would at the same time tend to give him what is far more valuable—a living appreciation of good literature. It should always be borne in mind that the normal school is a professional school, but though it may in its professional character justly undertake some academic work, it does not follow that any academic instruction is a part of its legitimate work. Regarding the normal school as the professional school of students preparing to teach in the elementary schools and in the subordinate places in the secondary schools—and this we have seen is its function—all academic subjects should be rigidly excluded except those which the students are preparing to teach, or those related subjects which enable him the more thoroughly to comprehend the former. The normal school is not a school of general culture. The argument, therefore, that this or that subject should be taught in the normal school because of its culture value is entirely irrelevant. But even on this ground I do not believe the study of Latin and Greek in our normal schools can be defended. The "fruit-bearing stage" in these subjects can not be reached in the time that normal-school students can devote to them.

In concluding this discussion as to the proper work of the normal school, it ought to be said that while always and everywhere it should be a strictly professional school, the work which it undertakes as such

*There is, I freely grant, such a thing as teaching genius which is independent of training. There are teachers also who, though destitute of this genius, are yet thoughtful men, in whose minds the routine methods of the normal school are vivified into living principles; but in the vast majority of cases these technical methods of the school workshop remain merely in the dead form of rules and maxims, and leave the teachers precisely where the apt mechanic now is. It is the insight into philosophical principles that gives a true and never-failing supply of intellectual energy to the teacher; it is the apprehension of ideas that ennobles and inspires him; it is contact with the history of past efforts to educate the race that gives to him breadth and humanity. Without the sustaining energy thus supplied, it seems to me that the teacher's vocation is dreary enough; with it, there is a daily renewal of spiritual life for himself and his pupils.—Laurie, *The Training of Teachers*.

will vary widely under different circumstances. Its function is to prepare teachers. Of this preparation, as we have seen, there are two elements, scholarship and training in pedagogy. It can easily be seen that the work required of a normal school in the matter of scholarship will depend greatly on its environment. If the schools from which its students come are very poor, if it must admit students with very little scholarship, or have no students, it is evident that it might, in its strictly professional character, lay great stress on scholarship and give a great part of its time to it. An amount and kind of academic instruction under such circumstances is not only admissible but required by the very nature of its function as a professional school for the training of teachers of a certain grade. That training which its students must have in order to make good teachers, and which they can not get anywhere else, it must give them. The normal schools of the South for the training of colored teachers have rightly given their attention chiefly to scholarship. They have been the only schools in which their students could get the scholarship which is indispensable to the teacher, and, therefore, the schools whose function is the preparation of teachers have occupied themselves chiefly with supplying this want without in the slightest degree derogating from their professional character.

We have seen that the function of the normal school is to train teachers for the best positions in the elementary and the subordinate positions in the secondary schools. Where shall those who are to fill the higher positions in the secondary schools, the superintendencies of the smaller cities, and positions of a similar grade, get their training? The answer is simple. They will either get it in the colleges they attend or they will not get it at all.

Normal schools have endeavored to get college graduates to come to them for their professional training, but they have not succeeded to any considerable extent, and it is safe to say that they will not. Moreover, it is more than doubtful if it is desirable that they should. The difference in the age, attainments, and development of the average normal student and the average college graduate is so great that the attempt to instruct them in the same classes would almost necessarily result in failure. Either, therefore, the teachers who fill the higher positions in our secondary schools must get their professional preparation at college or they will not get it at all.

We have seen that the professional preparation of the teacher consists of two parts: (1) Of the acquisition of that knowledge of the subjects he is to teach which he makes simply because he is a teacher; and (2) that knowledge of the history, philosophy, and science of education, that knowledge of methods and practice in applying them, which will make him an intelligent educator and a skillful teacher. The college will give him the first part; ought it to give him the second?

That that question can be asked strikes me as one of the most remarkable examples of the power of tradition and custom over man's

country political considerations are a very prominent factor in determining the appointment of teachers.

Why has it failed? Because it has not reached the leaders of public opinion. Has the public been convinced of the necessity of professionally trained physicians by an experimental knowledge of their worth? The success of patent-medicine venders would hardly lead one to think so. No, the leaders of public opinion have been convinced and the rank and file have simply followed suit.

How shall we convince the leaders of public opinion of the necessity for professionally trained teachers? By establishing departments of pedagogy in our colleges and universities. Such a substantial recognition of the fact that there is such a thing as a science and art and history of education, which intending teachers should carefully study, would of itself exert a powerful influence on the great public. But this is as nothing in comparison with the fact that the bulk of the students outside those who availed themselves of the opportunities offered in the department would soon become convinced of its importance. The discussions in the pedagogical recitation room would filter through the whole body of students to a sufficient extent to enable them to see that there is at least as much reason why the intending teacher should make professional preparation for his work as there is in the case of the candidate for any other profession. In this way the men who are soon to be centers of influence in their respective communities, the future doctor and lawyer and professional men generally, would be reached, and with these strongholds of public opinion gained the battle would be half won.

What work shall these departments of pedagogy undertake to do?

In considering this question it should be borne in mind that the college is what the normal school is not—a school of general culture. And though its elective courses in the department of pedagogy, and it may be in other departments, give it to some extent the character of a professional school, nevertheless it should make its professional work contribute to culture ends, as far as possible, particularly in the department of pedagogy, in order that students not intending to teach may be attracted to it.

For this reason, among others, such departments, it seems to me, should lay great stress on the history of education. It should be taught in connection with two parallel courses—the history of philosophy and the history of civilization; and all three should be so taught that their interdependence may be clearly seen—the history of philosophy as the self-knowledge of each age; the history of the processes of bringing into clear consciousness the fundamental assumptions which each age makes about the universe and man and their relations to each other; the history of education as the history of the institutions by which each age undertakes to realize its ideal, and by which, in part, its ideal is modified. To say nothing of its professional

value, and if taught critically, this would be very great, I know of few courses of study better calculated to give the student that breadth of view, that liberality of sentiment, that "magnificence of mind," which are of the very essence of culture.

If the endowment of the institution makes that degree of division of labor possible, the professor of pedagogy ought not to be burdened with the department of psychology, although the two chairs should be in the closest sympathy with each other. In the latter department the students should be encouraged to enlarge their conception of mind by a constant use of the objective method, particularly in the study of children. And when they take up the work in pedagogy proper, this work should be continued under the direction of the professor in a more systematic way and for more specific and definite ends. Such experiments as those made by G. Stanley Hall and Superintendent Greenwood, for the purpose of ascertaining the contents of children's minds, should be conducted and the results carefully recorded. Such work would have a twofold value: it would gradually put the professor of the department into the possession of a large amount of original data, of which he could make very effective use, and it would, at the same time, give his students an excellent training in original research in the psychology of children, and thus tend to enlarge the knowledge of the world on this most important subject. But the greatest stress in this line of work should be laid on experiments to test the kinds of good literature in which children may be interested. For reasons stated elsewhere, I regard this work as second in importance to none which the educator can possibly undertake. And it seems to me entirely practicable to encourage students to make a kind of experiments which will not only help them to a clearer comprehension of the importance of the problem, but which will enable them to make substantial contributions towards its solution.

The work in the science of education will consist to a considerable extent in a summing up and systematizing of results reached in a critical study of the history of education. Great stress should be laid on the education values not merely of different studies but of different courses of study. The work in the history of education will have made the student familiar with the educational systems of the leading countries of the world, and he should be led to a point where he can have an intelligent opinion of their fitness to serve in reaching the ends of education.

So far as the professor of pedagogy gives instruction in the art of education it should relate to the courses of study proper to schools of different grades, methods of organizing and grading, modes of superintending, and kindred topics. If he can get an experienced and able superintendent to deliver a course of lectures on some of these topics it would probably be more effective. Instruction in methods should not be given by the professor of pedagogy. Each professor should give a

course of lectures on methods of teaching his own subject for the benefit of those who are preparing to teach it. This is but one of many ways in which a department of pedagogy would react favorably on the work of its own college. When professors begin to reflect on their own methods for the sake of formulating them to others they are in a fair way to improve them. With Prof. E. J. James, I believe that instruction in colleges is in the majority of cases decidedly inferior to that in our city schools, and the reason, as I think, is that college professors have given so little attention to the study of pedagogy. It would be interesting to know what proportion of the college professors in this country have ever read a single work on the history of education.

But the courses of study in normal schools and departments of pedagogy are not adapted to the needs of those teachers who aspire to fill the most responsible positions in the profession. It is to me an interesting fact that both President D. C. Gilman and G. Stanley Hall spent the year immediately after they accepted their present positions in studying the educational institutions of Europe. I do not, of course, mean to intimate that any school of pedagogy could give courses of lectures which would be an equivalent for such an actual study on the ground of educational institutions. I merely mention the fact as testimony of the most unimpeachable kind from two very capable witnesses as to the kind of preparation demanded for certain kinds of work.

Consider also the kind of work devolving upon our city school superintendents and its very great responsibility. I believe that few intelligent men would hesitate to say that Superintendent McAllister is exercising a more potent influence upon the next generation of the people of Philadelphia than any other five men in the city. What is the implication? It is that men who fill positions of such great responsibility *should make the most thorough possible preparation for their work.*

It seems to me evident also that State superintendents and normal-school principals ought to be specialists in pedagogy, and when one considers the kind of questions which college faculties are constantly called upon to decide, it is difficult to believe that the same conclusion does not hold of them.

What institutions should provide the training which these educators need? I answer, schools of pedagogy. We have seen already that the conception upon which alone such an institution can be based is that the profession of teaching requires, not as thorough preparation as that of any other, but more. For we know enough of educational science to know that the teacher must be a scholar, and professional training at the expense of scholarship would be a step backwards rather than forwards. If, then, the candidates for the higher positions in the profession should not only devote as much time to the study of their specialty after the completion of their liberal education as the lawyer and doctor devote to theirs, but two years in addition in a school of pedagogy, it must be because the work for which they are preparing is

more difficult and important, one in which *society* has greater interests at stake. That I firmly believe this to be true no reader of the preceding pages will need to be told. If the end is more important than the means, then the mind is more important than the body, and if a profession which aims to promote the welfare of an end is more important than one which aims to promote the welfare of a means, then the profession of teaching is more important than the medical profession or any other profession whatever, with a single exception, and I do not think it would be difficult to show that this exception is apparent only.

I do not feel qualified to suggest the kind of work which a school of pedagogy should undertake to do, except in the most general way. In the nature of the case it should be a purely professional school, and the reasons which justify normal schools in regarding certain kinds of academic work as a part of their professional work do not hold here. Schools which furnish the intending teacher with ample facilities for the study of his specialty already exist, and it would be absurd for the school of pedagogy to undertake to duplicate their work.

Beyond that it is very clear to me that it should build upon the same foundation as the college department of pedagogy, only more elaborately. The history of education should be taught so thoroughly and in such detail as to occupy the entire time of an able professor. The educational institutions of the leading countries of Europe should be studied critically and in great detail; there should be courses of lectures on the history of universities and normal schools, on city school systems, all the while with the object not merely of showing what has been, but with the attempt to determine a little more precisely what ought to be.

There should be also a professor of reading. His work should consist in a critical account of the efforts making all over the world to solve the reading problem, and in researches and experiments to ascertain the kind of good reading in which children can be interested. The students in his department should of course be his assistants in this work, and one of his chief aims should be to give them such guidance in it and such a conviction of its importance as to insure their continuing it independently after leaving the school.

In one of its departments the school of pedagogy should realize President Gray's idea of a normal school. It should make a thorough study of the aims and principles and methods of education from the point of view of philosophy. In this department logic, as John Stuart Mill defines it, "the science which investigates those processes of the understanding which are employed in the estimation of evidence," should be thoroughly studied.

For the realization of this ideal, which I have thus faintly outlined, we must wait. How long we must wait depends upon the rapidity with which departments of pedagogy are organized and put into effective operation. As I have said elsewhere, what we want in this direction is

not merely departments of pedagogy, but such departments in the charge of men whose work will be an overwhelming demonstration of their value, of their necessity, indeed, if society is to make the most intelligent efforts to secure its own well-being. When such departments form a part of the regular work of a good college, then the day when schools of pedagogy will be regarded as an essential feature of our educational system will be near at hand. The organization of the New York College for the Training of Teachers, whose avowed aim is to grow into such a school, is indeed an omen of great significance. It is the beginning of a new era—the era when the profession of teaching is to take its proper place among the professions of the world.

We have seen that a majority of our teachers can not afford to take as thorough and extended a course as that offered by the normal school. To meet their wants, the provision made in the teachers' classes of certain academies and union schools of the State of New York seems to me to be worthy of imitation. Indeed, I think it may be said in general that New York offers the amplest facilities for the training of teachers, and presents to teachers the strongest inducements to avail themselves of them of any State in the Union. As to the training classes in the academies of that State, the only criticism I feel disposed to make is that I should like to see them lay more stress on scholarship, particularly in United States history and English literature.

But the provision of a good course of training for that class of teachers by no means insures that they will avail themselves of it. They will do it or not, according as it is made their interest to do so, and it will be made their interest only on condition that the public appreciate its importance. If I am right in my opinion that the surest way to convince the public of the value of professionally trained teachers is by the establishment of departments of pedagogy in our colleges and universities, we see from another point of view how immensely important such departments are. To break down the wall of conservatism that surrounds our colleges, to secure from them the same respect for the profession of teaching which they give to the professions of law and medicine, would be to effect the most important advance which has ever been made in the history of education or the world.

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CHAPTER XLVIII.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE HISTORY OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

By M. A. NEWELL, formerly Secretary of the Maryland State Board of Education.

I.

THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF NEW ENGLAND.

1. MASSACHUSETTS.

It is said that the first normal school of which we have any authentic account was established in Rheims, France, in 1681 by the celebrated Abbé de La Salle. But the normal idea goes much farther back. "*Vixere fortes ante Agamemnona.*" Luther was filled with it. The mediæval universities had for their prime object the production of doctors—teachers. And what were the "schools of the prophets" but teachers' seminaries of a special kind?

It is very probable that the normal school established by the Abbé de La Salle bore more resemblance to the Hebrew "schools of the prophets" than to the State normal schools of New England; but let him have due credit for his work. The schools of the Christian Brothers, of which he was the founder, are the most progressive of any under the auspices of the Roman Catholic Church. The exhibit which they made at the New Orleans Centennial Exposition was highly creditable, and excited both surprise and admiration.

But though France may have been first in point of time, Germany "bettered the instruction." In 1697 August Hermann Francke organized a teachers' class in connection with his school at Halle. Among the students who flocked to his school to learn his improved methods of teaching was Johann Julius Hecker, who founded a teachers' seminary in 1735 at Stettin, in Pomerania, and another at Berlin in 1748. The graduates of the school at Berlin were considered so far superior to untrained teachers that it is said that Frederick the Great gave orders that no others should be employed to teach in schools on the crown lands of his kingdom. The school established at Berlin was afterwards removed to Potsdam, and both it and the school at Stettin became State institutions, the first State normal schools ever established.¹

To James G. Carter, of Lancaster, belongs the credit of having first arrested the attention of the thinking men of Massachusetts to the necessity of immediate and thorough improvement in the system of free or public schools. He has been called the father of normal schools in America, but recognizing the subsequent claims of "Father Peirce," we should rather call Mr. Carter the "grandfather." His "Letters to the Hon. William Prescott on the free schools of New England" in 1824, and his "Essays on popular education," on "Education as a science," and an "Institution for the instruction of teachers in 1825," were pioneer efforts in the great work, and

¹ Fifty-third Annual Report of the Board of Education, Massachusetts.

unlike most pioneer work, were as valuable and useful for construction as for destruction. In 1827 he opened an institution with special reference to the education of teachers on the plans which he had expounded, and memorialized the legislature for aid. The memorial sets forth, "That he is about to open a seminary in a central part of the State for the general instruction of children and youth of both sexes, and also for the particular instruction of those who may resort to him for that purpose in the science of education, or in the best means of developing the physical, moral, and intellectual powers of the young by judicious and wholesome exercise of those powers, and at a subsequent period of conveying to their minds the greatest amount of useful knowledge." The normal school was evidently in his head not in a protoplasmic state, to be evolved and differentiated subsequently, but full grown, like Minerva in the brain of Jupiter, fully armed and equipped. Unfortunately, Vulcan was not on hand with his ax to effect a speedy delivery.

Mr. Carter asked the legislature, as the chosen guardian of the schools, to extend to private enterprise a moderate amount of public patronage, so as to diminish the necessary expenses to individuals, and to open its doors to all who would aspire to the responsible employment of teachers of youth. By this union of private and public means he believed that "a seminary for the education of teachers might be at once commenced upon a scale more commensurate with its importance to the community, more adequate to the public demands for better instruction, more in keeping with the fundamental principles of the free schools, and more consonant with the whole spirit of our free institutions."

The committee to whom the memorial was referred made a favorable report. They say that Mr. Carter's plan "is entirely practical in its character, simple in its details, and peculiarly calculated to develop the powers of the mind, and that the studies it requires are brought wholly and appropriately within the pale of downright utility." The committee further say that while they "incline to the opinion that this institution should be detached entirely from all other pursuits and be devoted wholly and distinctly to the simple object in view, they would not be considered as deciding definitely that it could not be safely connected with some of the literary establishments of the State." It is worthy of note that the sentiment of Massachusetts, so far as that sentiment has found record, was not in favor of the experiment tried afterwards in New York of grafting a normal scion on an academic stock, nor of the Pennsylvania system of pooling the issues between the State and a private corporation. The committee preferred an institution "detached entirely from all other pursuits" with the "simple object in view"—the preparation of teachers.

The committee are very frank in expressing their views as to the necessity of such preparation. They say "it needs neither argument nor an exhibition of facts to demonstrate to the legislature that the free schools of the Commonwealth are not such as they ought to be—that they fail, most essentially, of accomplishing the high objects for which they were established. Upon this subject public opinion is fully settled. Nor is it difficult to arrive at the true cause. Can it in the large majority of cases be traced to any other cause than the incompetency of teachers?" The logic is simple and irrefutable. Our schools are not what they ought to be. The cause of failure is the incompetence of the teachers. To have competent teachers we must instruct them in the business of their profession. Therefore, etc., Q. E. D. But neither the logic nor the eloquence of the committee prevailed with the legislature. The recommendation of the committee was lost by a majority of 1.¹

The story of the origin of normal schools in the United States has been told so often and so well that it is introduced here merely for the sake of completeness, and must be disposed of in the briefest possible manner. It was not due to any noticeable uprising of popular opinion; it had not been heralded by any voice crying from

¹ Memorial of James G. Carter to the legislature of Massachusetts, with report of committee, 1827.

the wilderness; it would have come, sooner or later, in any event; but the precise date of the advent seems to us mortals almost like an accident.

In August, 1834, the Rev. Charles Brooks, of Medford, Mass., on his way from London to the United States, made the acquaintance of Dr. St. Julius, of Hamburg, who had been sent by the King of Prussia to learn the condition of schools, hospitals, prisons, and other public institutions in the United States. The six weeks companionship of these two men (record-breaking steamers had not then been invented) resulted finally in planting the seed which afterwards grew up as the normal school system of the United States. Mr. Brooks says: "I fell in love with the Prussian system, and it seemed to possess me like a missionary angel. I gave myself to it, and in the Gulf stream I resolved to do something about State normal schools. This was its birth in me, and I baptized it 'my sea-born child.' After this I looked upon each child as a being who could complain of me before God if I refused to provide for him a better education after what I had learned. The whole Prussian system," he says, "is built on these eight words, 'As the teacher is, so is the school,' and, therefore, we must have seminaries for the preparation of teachers."

In 1835 Mr. Brooks called a convention of the citizens of Plymouth, to whom he opened the whole matter as clearly and as strongly as he could, showing that the great work must begin by founding a State normal school in Plymouth County. The audience was warmed up, and Ichabod Morton, dean of the first parish, rose and said: "Mr. President, I am glad to see this day. The work is well begun; the facts now presented to us so plainly prove conclusively the inestimable value of teachers' seminaries. Mr. Brooks says he wants the first one established in the old colony, and so do I, sir, and I will give one thousand dollars toward its establishment." Thus the Prussian stranger began its journey from Plymouth Rock.

Many conventions were held, many speeches were made, many resolutions adopted, in 1838, but the points emphasized in nearly every convention were:

First. The deplorably low condition of the public schools.

Second. The necessity for immediate and radical reform.

Third. A declaration that the inauguration of normal schools after the Prussian model would reform and vitalize the whole system of elementary education in the State.

At one of these conventions (Hanover, September 3, 1838) Daniel Webster and John Quincy Adams were present, and though both had attended under the condition that they were not to be called on to speak, yet neither of them was able to refrain from giving expression to the feelings and sentiments which had been developed by contact with the enthusiastic leaders of the movement.

Mr. Webster said he was anxious to concur with others in aid of the project. The ultimate aim was to elevate and improve the primary schools. If the town schools were no better than they were when he attended them, he was sure they were insufficient to the wants of the present day. This plan of a normal school is designed to elevate the common schools and thus to carry out the noble ideas of our Pilgrim fathers. But there is a larger view yet. Every man and every woman, every brother and every sister is a teacher. Parents are eminently teachers. Now, if normal schools are to teach teachers, they make parents and all who in any way influence childhood competent to their high office. In families there will be better teaching, and the effect will be felt throughout society.

Mr. Adams said:

The original settlers of New England were the first people on the face of the globe who undertook to say that all children should be educated. On this our democracy has been founded. Our town schools and town meetings have been our stronghold in this point, and our efforts now are to second the efforts of our pious ancestors. Some kingdoms of Europe have been justly praised for their patronage of elementary instruction, but they were only following our early example. Our old system has made us an enlightened people, and I feared that the normal school system was to

subvert the old system, take the power from the towns and put it into the State, and overturn the old democratic principle of sustaining the schools by a tax on property; but I am happy to find that such is not its aim or wish; but on the contrary it is accordant to all the old maxims, and would elevate the town schools to the new wants of a growing community. We see monarchs expending vast sums to establish normal schools through their realms, and sparing no pains to convey knowledge and efficiency to all the children of their poorest subjects. Shall we be outdone by kings? Shall monarchs steal a march on republics in the patronage of that education on which a republic is based? On this great and glorious cause let us spend freely, yes, more freely than on any other.

Mr. Brooks and his immediate and active coadjutors, Edmund Dwight, Ichabod Morton, George B. Emerson, Dr. Channing, James G. Carter, Horace Mann, and other less conspicuous but not less honored men, had joined in their minds the idea of a State board of education and a State normal school as essential elements of the proposed reform of the system of her public schools. It was plain to them then, as it is plain to us now, that a State normal school without the support and direction of the State itself would be but as a ship set adrift on the ocean without sails and without a pilot. Each seemed to them to be the necessary complement to the other, and much of the objection raised afterwards against the State board of education was really directed against the State normal school.

FIRST STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The board of education was established by a vote of the legislature, and was organized on the 29th of June, 1837, with Horace Mann as secretary. The promoters of the enterprise hoped to have Mr. Carter as the executive officer, but they were, fortunately as we now think, overruled. No better man than Horace Mann could have been selected. It was understood from the beginning that the first business of the board was to organize a State normal school. Without Mr. Brooks the child would not have been born at that time; without Horace Mann it might not have survived the perils of infancy.

The new board of education recommended, as was expected, the enactment of a law for the establishment of State normal schools. It is doubtful whether their recommendation would have been adopted had not a "*deus ex machina*" descended for the occasion. Mr. Edmund Dwight proposed to the legislature that he would be responsible for \$10,000 to aid in the establishment of teachers' seminaries, provided the legislature would give the same amount for the same cause. On the 19th of April (a marked day in the history of the United States) the legislature passed resolutions accepting the gift, and authorizing the governor to draw a warrant on the treasurer for \$10,000 for the purpose specified in the resolutions. Thus were the State normal schools of Massachusetts launched upon an ocean of uncertainty, but with a fair prospect of reaching the desired harbor.¹

The board decided to establish three normal schools—one for the northeastern, one for the southeastern, and one for the western part of the State, to be continued three years as an experiment; and as the money at their disposal was not sufficient to erect buildings, they proposed to establish the schools at suitable places as soon as the requisite assistance was given. Many towns in different parts of the State submitted proposals; and at a meeting of the board December 28, 1838, it was voted "to locate a normal school for the qualification of female teachers at Lexington, and one at Barre for both sexes."

This is the first official use of the word "normal;" and it is to be noticed that it needed an explanatory phrase, "for the qualification of female teachers." The word in the sense in which it was used was not English, and was not understood except by educational experts. The English "Training school for teachers," or the

¹Two lectures. I. History of the Introduction of State Normal Schools into America, by Charles Brooks, of Medford, Mass. Boston, 1864.

German "Teachers' seminaries" would have been intelligible and suggestive; but the French "Normal" conveyed no precise information to any but well-educated people. There is not a principal of a normal school who was living twenty-five years ago who has not been addressed, as the writer has been, as principal of the "normal" school, or (Dii avertite omen!) principal of the "Mormon" school. But words are things. They are more. They are living things. They take root. They bear fruit. And this word "normal" has borne much bad fruit. There are scores of so-called "normal" schools in the country which have nothing "normal" about them except in their advertisements and catalogues. But the word became popular, and unscrupulous dealers in education used it as an unprotected trade-mark to make their wares more salable.

LEXINGTON-FRAMINGHAM SCHOOL.

The Rev. Cyrus Peirce was engaged to teach the school at Lexington. Had he proved a failure, success would have been postponed for a quarter of a century. But he had said, "I would rather die than fail," and though he came very near dying, there was no symptom of failure. He succeeded even beyond the expectation of Horace Mann, a man of great expectations. "He not only knew how to teach with precision, but he evoked from his pupils such a force of conscience as insured thorough study and assimilation of whatever was taught." There is no doubt that the rapidly increasing popularity of normal teaching was largely due to the conscientiousness, the sagacity, and the professional skill of "Father Peirce."

The opening day came, July 3, 1839, and with it a heavy rain. Assembled in the reception room of the normal building were the august visitors of the school, with the newly elected principal, and before them sat three timid girls—only three—to be examined and enrolled as the first pupils of the first State normal school in America. The first quarter closed with 12 students. In the fall a model school was conducted with 33 pupils. "The normal students are," says Mr. Peirce, "in the very undesirable condition of being familiar with the books without knowing anything they contain." The studies for the first term were the common branches, algebra, natural philosophy, physiology, mental philosophy, bookkeeping, moral philosophy, and geometry. In an address delivered about this time by his excellency Edward Everett, chairman of the board of education, his excellency laid down very clearly the lines on which normal instruction is built and the objects it should seek to accomplish.

(1) Instruction, especially in the common branches.

(2) The art of teaching.

(3) The science of school government, and theory applied to practice in the model school.

Truly we have not advanced far since those days. Movements there have been, but motion is not always progress.

Mr. Peirce worked for three years in Lexington, performing an almost incredible amount of labor. There was no appropriation for assistance of any kind, and he took it upon himself to supervise or actually perform the menial services of the school. He seldom allowed himself more than four hours sleep out of the twenty-four. He attended to the fires, he rang the school bell, he heard almost every recitation in the normal room, and visited the model room at recess. With the assistance of his wife he examined the written exercises, the compositions, the school journals, answered the demands of his large correspondence, and arranged all the details of every day's school duties with a persistence and conscientiousness unsurpassed, if ever equaled, elsewhere. "Had it not been for Cyrus Peirce," says Dr. Henry Barnard, "I consider the cause of normal schools would have failed or have been postponed to an indefinite period."¹

¹Mrs. Electa N. Lincoln Walton, in the Forty-third Report of the Board of Education, Massachusetts.

COUNTER REVOLUTION.

The course of aggressive reforms, like the course of true love, never runs smooth. The normal school had demonstrated its power; therefore the normal school must be crushed. In March, 1840, the committee of education was directed by an order of the house of representatives to "consider the expediency of abolishing the board of education and the normal schools, and to report by bill or otherwise." The board of education and the normal schools were regarded as Siamese twins—the death of one would be the destruction of the other. The normal schools were not popular at first. Brooks and Carter and Mann believed in them, but there were many who regarded them as newfangled heresies. The committee on education belonged to the latter class. The teacher, like the poet, they said, as Gail Hamilton said forty years ago, "nascitur, non fit;" the faculty of acquiring necessarily implies the faculty of imparting; all that is needed is knowledge. That will bring with it skill. The arguments of the committee are worth reproducing, inasmuch as they contain the germ of all that has been said in opposition to normal schools for the last half century.

(1) *They are imitated from France and Prussia, where "the smallest bridge can not be built or any village road repaired until a central board has been consulted."* "The French and Prussian systems appear to be much more admirable as a means of political influence and of strengthening the hands of the government than as a means for the diffusion of knowledge."

(2) *Academies and high schools are fully adequate to furnish a competent supply of teachers.* "Comparing the normal schools already established with the academies and high schools of the Commonwealth, they do not appear to present any peculiar or distinguishing advantages."

(3) *There is no need of professional instruction.* "It is insisted by the board of education that the art of teaching is a peculiar art, which is particularly and exclusively taught at normal schools, but it appears to the committee that every person who has himself undergone a process of instruction must acquire by that very process the art of instructing others." [*Nomine mutato.* Every person who has himself undergone the process of being shaved by a barber, must acquire by that very process the art of shaving others.]

(4) "It is obviously impossible, and it is perhaps not desirable, that the business of keeping these [district] schools should become a distinct and separate profession, which the establishment of normal schools seems to anticipate."

(5) "We have no adequate security that the teachers thus taught at the public expense will remain in the Commonwealth, and it seems hardly just that Massachusetts should be called upon to educate at her own cost teachers for the rest of the Union."

(6) These normal schools "do not appear to have any stronger claims on the public treasury than many of our academies and high schools."

(7) "The idea of the State controlling education, whether by establishing a central board or by organizing normal schools, seems a great departure from the uniform spirit of our institutions—a dangerous precedent and an interference with a matter more properly belonging to those hands to which our ancestors wisely intrusted it. It is greatly to be feared that any attempt to form all our schools and all our teachers upon one model would destroy all competition, all emulation, and even the spirit of improvement itself." *

The committee, in accordance with their report, submitted a bill abolishing the board of education and the State normal schools. But Horace Mann and his enthusiastic supporters were too strong for the conservative committee, and the bill was lost by a vote of 245 to 182.¹ The "counter revolution" failed.

Just forty-seven years later a gentleman of Alabama published a pamphlet

¹ Commonwealth of Massachusetts. House Document No. 49, session of 1840.

entitled "The normal school question investigated," which had the same object as the report of the committee and met with the same fate. It begins, "Ought the normal schools of Alabama to be abolished? I think they ought, and in the following pages shall give some of the reasons why I think so." But the reasons are so much shrouded in rhetoric that it is hard to find them. A few specimens will suffice:

There is nothing taught in the normals which is not taught in the other schools of the State. Why, then, should they be supported by the State? * * * Those seeking an education very naturally accept the free tuition tendered them, and, besides, they very readily see that, with much lower attainments and much less merit, they can secure the more desirable situations for having attended the normal, so that the very natural tendency is to lower rather than exalt the standard. Besides, the State may have the satisfaction of seeing her true and tried teachers crushed financially and driven from the field. * * * The appropriations to the normal schools have all the offensiveness of the worst kind of class legislation, and as such are fine fuel for communistic fires. * * * I am aware that many are looking to our normal schools to furnish us teachers. Such hopes are delusive. They will never be realized. * * * Normal students, when you get them through school, will not accept work in our common country schools. * * * Is it a part of the legitimate duties of our lawmakers to establish and endow institutions to manufacture teachers? Would it not be better to have teachers educate themselves like [*sic*] men do for the other professions? * * * I can scarcely realize how men can be sincere when they talk about the abolition of these [normal] schools affecting disastrously the educational cause of the State. No fears need be entertained. The tide is rising. These normals are only a little driftwood on the surface, showing that the swell is coming. Their abolition would possibly affect disastrously a few towns and a few teachers, but it will in no wise retard the steady growth of a healthy educational interest in the State. This interest was here before the normals came, and when they are gone it will continue to grow.¹

The rhetoric of the pamphleteer had no more effect on the legislature of Alabama in 1887 than had the logic of the committee on education on the Massachusetts legislature in 1840.

The normal schools of Massachusetts in their youth were not popular institutions. Carter and Brooks and Horace Mann believed in them from the first. Daniel Webster and John Quincy Adams and men of their stamp, capable of broad views of the present and prescient of the future, gave in their adhesion, but conservatism, localism, and vested interests were against them. A formidable assault through the newspapers, principally religious newspapers, led by a minister of the Gospel, caused some fear and trembling for a moment, but served in the end to show the strength of the fortress. Thirty-one Boston schoolmasters raised the old cry, "Great is Diana of the Ephesians!" A Boston school committee objected to the employment of a school superintendent who should spend part of his time in the training of teachers because "such training would lead to repeated experiments with new methods." But in spite of opposition, and partly because of opposition, the normal schools went on "conquering and to conquer."

Three years of unremitting and excessive labor in Lexington proved too much for Mr. Peirce's health—a man of less power of endurance would have broken down sooner—and in 1842 he resigned, and after two years' rest returned to his old charge. The school had now outgrown its accommodations, and a suitable building was offered at West Newton. The price was \$1,500, which was given to Horace Mann by Josiah Quincy, jr. Before this Mr. Mann had sold his own library to fit up the normal boarding house at Lexington. In 1849 Mr. Peirce's health again failed, and he was compelled again to resign.

The school soon outgrew its accommodations at West Newton, as it had done those at Lexington, and in 1852 an appropriation of \$6,000 was made by the legislature to defray the expense of providing a more commodious building and a better site for the school with the necessary appurtenances and apparatus. The choice of site fell

¹ The normal question investigated. Rome, Ga., 1887.

upon Framingham, a spot "beautiful for situation," but so far from the nearest railway station that the school fell off in numbers for some years.

On Christmas day, 1887, the boarding house of the school, Crocker Hall, which had been built in the year previous, was partially destroyed by fire, and the legislature at their first session thereafter appropriated \$105,000 for the repair of the hall and the erection of a new academic building. If this appropriation is compared with the amount voted to remove the school from West Newton to Framingham, an idea may be formed of the rise in value of normal schools in thirty-five years.

Principals of the Lexington-West Newton-Framingham School.

Cyrus Peirce.....	1839 to 1842
Samuel J. May.....	1842 to 1844
Cyrus Peirce.....	1844 to 1849
Eben S. Stearns.....	1849 to 1855
George N. Bigelow.....	1855 to 1866
Annie E. Johnson.....	1866 to 1875
Ellen Hyde.....	1875

THE BARRE-WESTFIELD SCHOOL.

Two months and one day after the opening of the normal school at Lexington the school at Barre (established by vote of the board of education at the same time) was opened for the reception of students under the principalship of Samuel P. Newman, a graduate of Bowdoin College. The opening was signalized by an address from the governor of Massachusetts, Edward Everett, one of the most perspicuous and most polished of his speeches, perspicuous and polished as they all are. He sets forth with great plainness and with sufficient amplification the aims and purposes of normal schools:

(1) A careful review of the branches of knowledge required to be taught in our common schools, it being of course the first requisite of a teacher that he should first know well that which he is to aid others in learning. Such an acquaintance with these branches of knowledge is much less common than may generally be supposed. The remark may sound paradoxical, but I believe it will bear examination when I say that a teacher thoroughly versed in those branches only which are taught in our common schools is as difficult to find as a first-rate lawyer, divine, or physician, statesman, man of business, or farmer. * * *

(2) The art of teaching. To know the matter to be taught, and to know it thoroughly, are of themselves, though essential, not all that is required. There is a peculiar art of teaching. The details of this branch are inexhaustible, but it is hoped that the most important principles may be brought within such a compass as to afford material benefit to those who pass even the shortest time at these institutions.

(3) The third branch of instruction to be imparted in such an institution concerns the important subject of the government of the school, which might perhaps more justly have been named the first. The best method of governing a school—that is, of exercising such a moral influence in it as is most favorable to the improvement of the pupils—will form a very important part of the course of instruction designed to qualify teachers for their calling. * * * How much is implied in the words, "to govern a school!" For several hours in the day the teacher is expected to exercise the authority of a parent over fifty or sixty, perhaps over ninety or a hundred children. Without the aid of that instinct of natural affection which fortifies parental authority he is expected, with a parent's power, to control alike the docile and the obstinate, the sullen and the gay. And he is to do this not by violence and storm, but by wisely threading the maze of that living labyrinth, the affections of the youthful heart. * * * The instruction of the normal school will therefore dwell on the government of youth as of paramount importance, as that part of the teacher's duty which demands the rarest union of qualities, which most tries the temper, and, when faithfully and judiciously performed, is most important in its results. Give me the child whose heart has embraced without violence the gentle

¹ Proceedings of the semicentennial celebration of the State Normal School, Framingham, July 2, 1889.

love of obedience, in whom the sprightliness of youth has not encroached on deference for authority, and I would rather have him for my son, though at the age of twelve he should have his alphabet to learn, than be compelled to struggle with the caprice of a self-willed, obstinate youth whose bosom has become a viper's nest of the unamiable passions, although in early attainments he may be the wonder of the day.

(4) In the last place it is to be observed that in aid of all the instruction and exercises within the limits of the normal school, properly so called, there is to be established a common or district school as a school of practice, in which, under the direction of the principal of the normal school, the young teacher may have the benefit of actual exercise in the business of instruction.

The temptation to quote from the magnificent peroration to this magnificent address is too strong to be resisted. Like other classic gems it has found its way into our schoolbooks, and though much worn it will never become trite:

Permit me, fellow-citizens and friends, in bringing this address to a close, to congratulate you on the establishment, in the bosom of this community, of an institution destined, we trust, to be an instrument of much good. We place it under the protection of an intelligent public. Its organization is simple; its action will be wholly free from parade or display; its fruits, we trust, will be seen in raising the standard of common-school education. This object, we confess, we regard as one of paramount importance—second to no other not immediately connected with the spiritual concerns of man. If there be any persons to whom the words "common schools" and "common-school education" convey an idea of disparagement and insignificance, such persons are ignorant, not merely of the true character of our political system, but of the nature of man. I certainly intend nothing derogatory to our higher seminaries of education in town or country. * * * But whether we consider the numbers who enjoy their benefit, the relative importance to the State of an entire well-educated population and of the services of those who receive the advantages of an education at the higher seminaries, taken in connection with the fact that a liberal education may be had elsewhere, but that a common-school education must be had at home or not at all, no rational man, as it seems to me, can fail to perceive the superior importance of the common schools. They give the keys of knowledge to the mass of the people. * * * Our common schools are important in the same way as the common air, the common sunshine, the common rain—invaluable for their commonness. They are the corner stone of that municipal organization which is the characteristic feature of our social system; they are the fountain of that widespread intelligence which, like a moral life, pervades the country; they are the nursery of that inquiring spirit to which we are indebted for the preservation of the blessings of an inquiring Protestant spiritual faith. Established as they were by special legislation in the infancy of the colony, while they are kept up and supported with a liberality corresponding with the growth of the country no serious evil can befall us. Whatsoever other calamities, external or internal, may overtake us, while the schools are supported they will furnish a perennial principle of restoration. With her 3,000 district schools, supported at the public expense, nothing but the irreversible decree of Omnipotence can bring the beaming forehead of Massachusetts to the dust. Vicissitudes may blight the foliage, but there will be vigor in the trunk and life at the root. Talent will constantly spring up on her barren hillsides and in her secluded vales and find an avenue through her schools to the broad theater of life, where great affairs are conducted by able men. Other States may exceed her in fertility of soil, but the skillful labor of her free citizens will clothe her plains with plenty. Other States may greatly outnumber her, but her ingenuity will people her shady glens and babbling waterfalls with half-reasoning engines which will accomplish the work of toiling myriads. Other States will far surpass her in geographical domain, but the government of cultivated mind is as boundless as the universe. Wheresoever on the surface of the globe and in the long line of coming ages there is a reasonable being, there is a legitimate subject of mental influence. From the humblest village school there may go forth a teacher, who, like Newton, shall bind his temples with the stars of Orion's belt—with Herschel, light up his cell with the beams of before undiscovered planets—with Franklin, grasp the lightning. Columbus, fortified with a few sound geographical principles, was, on the deck of his crazy caravel, more truly the monarch of Castile and Arragon than Ferdinand and Isabella, enthroned beneath the golden vaults of the conquered Alhambra. And Robinson, with the simple training of a rural pastor in England, when he knelt on the shore of Delft-Haven and sent his little flock upon their gospel errantry beyond the world of waters, exercised an influence over the destinies of the civilized world which will last till the end of time.¹

¹ Orations and Speeches on Various Occasions by Edward Everett. Boston, 1850.

The school was kept at Barre for only three years. The whole number of students was 165; young women, 90; young men, 75. On the death of its principal it was suspended for two years, and was then removed to Westfield and placed under the care of the Rev. Dr. Emerson Davis as temporary principal. It occupied for one term the old academy building while rooms were being prepared for its accommodation in the town hall, where it remained for two years, until a building of its own was completed and dedicated to its service September 3, 1846.¹ At this dedication the Rev. Dr. Heman Humphrey made the principal address. He said he would touch upon four topics:

- (1) Upon the urgent demand for better-qualified teachers in our common schools.
- (2) Upon the reasons why those who are to be teachers should be educated with special reference to the profession.
- (3) Upon what is embraced in a good professional teacher's education.
- (4) Upon the adaptation of the normal system to give such education.²

At the centennial celebration it was stated that the whole number of students registered since the opening at Barre was 3,619, and the number of graduates since 1855 (before which there was no formal graduation) 1,222.

There are two courses of study in the modern school, a two years' and a four years' course. It will be interesting to compare these courses of study with the modest demands of Edward Everett and Dr. Humphrey fifty years before, and with the first printed course of studies under Principal Rowe in 1847.

Course of studies at the Westfield Normal School, 1847.

Reading of Scripture daily.
Orthography.—Fowle's Common School Speller, McElligott's Analyzer, and Worcester's Dictionary; also daily exercises in etymology as connected with spelling.
Enunciation and reading.—Tower's Gradual Reader, Russell and Goldsbury's American School Reader, and Leavitt's Fourth Book.
Writing.—Exercises given by the principal.
Physiology.—Cutter's and Jarvis's.
Drawing.—Schmidt's.
Grammar.—Wells's and Greene's; also Greene's Chart.
Algebra.—Day's and Thompson's algebras; also Tower's Mental Algebra.
Geometry.—Playfair's Euclid.
Philosophy.—Olmstead's.
Phonography.—Andrew's and Boyle's works.
The globes.—Problems.
Theory and practice of teaching.—Page's, Abbott's, and Palmer's treatises.
Vocal music.—Three times a week.
English composition.—Once a week.

Topics of the two years' course.

FIRST TERM.

Arithmetic.—Notation, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of integral numbers; common fractional numbers; decimals; compound denominate numbers; metric system taught by apparatus; practical work.

Geometry.—First three books of Wentworth's Geometry, or their equivalent. Pupils do not use text-books. They are required to work out and teach most of the definitions, theorems, and constructions of the course.

Zoology.—General characteristics of animals; chief groups of animals, with methods of determining relative rank; special study of mammals, birds, etc. The school has an excellent "working cabinet" which is in daily use in classes.

Vocal music.—Rhythmics, melodies, dynamics, sight singing, methods.

Composition.—Capitals, punctuation, letter writing, business forms, language lessons.

United States history.—Periods of discoveries; explorations; settlements and

¹ Semicentennial of the State Normal School, Westfield, Mass., June 25, 1889.

² Barnard's Normal Schools and Other Institutions, Means, and Agencies designed for the Professional Education of Teachers. Hartford, Conn., 1851.

colonies, with the included wars; revolution; constitution; civil war and events following; collateral reading.

Drawing.—Study and analysis of solids; clay modeling; plane figures; straight and curved lines; free-hand drawing on blackboard and paper from object, dictation, and memory; elementary designs; color.

SECOND TERM.

Arithmetic.—Percentage, and its application in commission, taxes, interest, banking, etc.; extraction of roots, with applications; mensuration; examples and problems in all subjects taught, to apply knowledge. Pupils are encouraged to seek information at the post-office, at lawyers' offices, banks, stores, and the teacher's desk, and thus to become familiar with the practical applications of arithmetic in the affairs of everyday life.

Grammar.—Outline of subject; parts of expressions taught and named; words studied with reference to classification, properties, and construction; parsing and analysis of sentences.

Geography.—Scientific study of the form, size, and motions of the earth; configuration and relief of the land masses; atmospheric and oceanic movements; climate; plant and animal life, and especially man, including distribution of races, and all conditions affecting this distribution; religion, government, and whatever affects the civilization of the races.

Algebra.—Usual topics preceding quadratics.

Botany.—Study of specimens in class room and in field, for knowledge of structure, habits, etc.; bases of classification; analysis of points with artificial keys.

Drawing.—Work of first term continued; geometrical drawing; working drawings; surface developments (objects constructed); free-hand perspective; botanical analysis; historical ornament; design. Drawing is required for only one year, but many continue the study for an additional term or two. For those who do this the subjects are: Model and cast drawing in outline, shading in crayon and charcoal (stump), applied design, details of human figure from the flat and casts.

Composition.—Paragraphing; compositions on subjects assigned; criticism in class and by class; spelling.

THIRD TERM.

Physiology.—General outline of subject; anatomy, physiology, and hygiene of digestive organs, including classification of food stuffs and methods of preparing food; anatomy, physiology, and hygiene of circulatory and respiratory organs; animal heat—its nature, source, distribution, regulation, etc.; clothing—use, qualities desirable in, qualities of common materials, how to dress hygienically, etc. Anatomy is taught from anatomical preparations of organs of the human body; and physiology, as far as possible, by observing organs of other animals in action.

Physics.—Physical properties of matter; definition and enumeration of forces; effects of gravitation, including pressures of liquids and gases, with consequences and applications; electricity, special attention being given to elementary phenomena and to practical applications; machines or means of applying force. In this subject everything is taught experimentally, pupils being required, as far as possible, to perform all important experiments for themselves.

Geography (six weeks).—Philosophic study of topics taken up in second term.

Rhetoric.—Study of figurative language and qualities of style, with practical applications, followed by several weeks of composition writing and criticism; study of the mind and its qualities, including wit, humor, etc.; the sensibilities, especially taste.

English literature.—History of language; study of the life and style of the following authors, and of selections from their works: Wickliffe, Chaucer, Crammer, Spencer, Bacon, Shakespeare, Milton, Johnson, Whittier, Hawthorne, Lowell, Longfellow; reading (in addition) of *Idyls of the King*, *Ivanhoe*, *Henry VIII*, *Merchant of Venice*, *Julius Caesar*, one book of *Paradise Lost*, *Macaulay's Essay on Johnson*, *Snowbound*, *Among the Hills*, *Vision of Sir Launfal*, *Commemoration Ode*, *The Old Manse*, *Evangeline*, *Courtship of Miles Standish*. There are some variations from term to term.

Mineralogy.—Study of all common minerals, rocks, and ores for qualities and uses.

FOURTH TERM.

Astronomy.—Methods of describing position of heavenly bodies; refraction, parallax, and precession; classification of heavenly bodies; particular study of earth, sun, and moon; tides; eclipses; geography of celestial sphere.

Reading.—Vocal culture; sight reading; study of pieces; methods.

Chemistry.—Chemical physics and inorganic chemistry, with laboratory practice by each pupil.

Theory and art of teaching.—Psychology in its relation to principles and methods of teaching; school organization and government; school laws of Massachusetts; several weeks of purely professional work in common English branches; civil polity.

Geology.—Study of agencies now at work modifying the structure of the earth; historical geology; special study of local features.

Drawing.—Blackboard practice in elementary work for primary school, illustrating reading, language, geography, botany, zoology. etc. Color (theory and practice).

Topics of the four years' course.

Same as those for the two years' course, with the following additions:

Geometry.—Plane geometry completed. The method is the same as for the two years' course.

Algebra.—Pupils have constant drill in the application of the principles, and are taught how to teach the following topics to classes in the upper grades of school: Involution, evolution, radicals and radical equations, imaginary quantities, quadratics, simple indeterminate equations, inequalities, ratio, proportion, progressive series, binomial theorem, logarithms and logarithmic tables.

English literature.—Pupils will select one of the following courses:

COURSE I.—*Chaucer*: Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, The Knight's Tale. *Shakespeare*: Hamlet or Macbeth, As You Like It, Lear, Midsummer Night's Dream, twelve sonnets. *Milton*: L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Comus, Lycidas, Paradise Lost (Books I and II), Samson Agonistes.

COURSE II.—*Shakespeare*: Hamlet, As You Like It, twelve sonnets, Life. *Milton*: L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Paradise Lost (Book I), six sonnets, Life. *Scott*: Waverley, Marmion. *Eliot*: Romola. *Tennyson*: Idyls of the King, songs in The Princess. *Thackeray*: Henry Esmond.

COURSE III (Nineteenth Century).—*Scott*: Heart of Midlothian. *Thackeray*: Henry Esmond. *Wordsworth*: Intimations of Immortality. *Tennyson*: Idyls of the King. *Eliot*: Romola. *Byron*: Prisoner of Chillon. *Bulwer*: Last Days of Pompeii. *Carlyle*: Essay on Burns. *Mrs. Browning*: sonnets, short poems. *Froude*: extracts from History of England. *Macaulay*: selected essays.

Drawing.—Models in outline; models in crayon or charcoal (stump); casts in charcoal; botanical analysis and applied design; foliage from nature; historical ornament; color; perspective (parallel and angular); machine drawing; building construction.

Physics.—Sound, heat, light, electricity, and magnetism, with practical applications.

Chemistry.—Qualitative analysis of liquids and solids; chemical theories; preparation of chemicals and apparatus.

Botany.—Structure, composition, growth, functions, and classification of plants; preparation of specimens, etc.

Latin.—Elementary work; translation of Cæsar, Cicero, and Virgil; sight translation; colloquia; scanning and prosody; study of customs, men, times, and style; writing Latin (the more important rules of construction being developed inductively); methods. Pupils are required to teach in the elementary work.

French.—First year: Sauveur's Petites Causeries and Contes Merveilleux, with conversation and dictation exercises; Lambert and Sardou's Manual; Smith's French Principia; Roulier's First Book of French Composition.

Second year: Bernard's L'art d'intéresser en Classe; Rougemont's La France; Sand's Petite Fadette; Michelet's Jeanne d'Arc; Souvestre's Confessions d'un Ouvrier; Tableaux de la Révolution Française; Roulier's First Book of French Composition; Lambert and Sardou's Manual; Chardenal's French Exercises; Bluet's Class Book of French Composition.

German.—First year: Whitney's German by Practice; Worman's Elementary German Grammar; Schiller's Wilhelm Tell.

Second year: Conversations based on Andersen's Bilderbuch ohne Bilder; Otto's German Grammar; Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea; Goethe's Ausgewählte Prosa (Hart's edition).

General History.—Ancient Greece and Rome, with reference to modern institutions. Institutions and modes of life of the middle ages, with reference to the evolution of our political and other institutions. Modern history, including the development of the nationalities of western Europe and constitutional liberty.

The writer had the pleasure of visiting the Westfield school in 1865, when under the principalship of John W. Dickinson, now secretary of the board of education of Massachusetts. The impression made at that visit will never be obliterated. Though fresh from the study of other normal schools of high reputation—New Jer-

sey, Albany, Oswego, and others—he thought, and still thinks, that the Westfield school was *sui generis*. One spirit seemed to pervade every room, every class, every student, every teacher—the spirit of John W. Dickinson, the genius loci. An immense and complicated machine animated by one spirit, every part working harmoniously with every other part for the accomplishment of one purpose. In every department of study you found strictness of definition, precision of statement, rigidity of reasoning, variety of illustration, abundance of practical application. Every question, every answer, every recitation, every exercise breathed pedagogy of the severest type. One might, had he been inclined to find fault, have asked for a little more liberty, a little more self-assertiveness on the part of the students, a little more impulsiveness, a little freer play of individual thought, but the keenest critic must have acknowledged that the school was an organization “nobly planned” and skillfully directed by an expert whose convictions were like the laws of the Medes and Persians and who had the full courage of his convictions.

In 1872 the legislature appropriated \$72,000 for a boarding hall ample enough for the accommodation of all the students, and lately an appropriation of \$150,000 was made to erect a new school building on new grounds.

MODEL SCHOOL AT WESTFIELD.

The board of education contemplated the addition of a model school, or school of practice, to each of the normal schools under their jurisdiction. It was expected that the town school would furnish this necessary supplement, and such a school was maintained in connection with the normal school at Westfield from 1844 till 1855. But “the relations of this school to the town and to the normal school were never entirely satisfactory, and they were dissolved in 1855, leaving the normal school to obtain its experience by practice on its own members. After this change the Westfield school turned its exclusive attention to the study of the philosophy of teaching, to gaining a technical knowledge of the branches of learning taught in the schools, to preparing such courses of study as are the right occasions for the acquisition of useful knowledge and right mental development, and to training the pupils to teach by requiring them to recite all review lessons in the form of teaching exercises. This method of work produced good practical results, and yet it did not furnish an opportunity for an experience in teaching and controlling a school of real children. To supply the want as far as possible, a school of observation was organized in 1866, and so related to the normal school that its principal could, by permission from the town school committee, nominate the teachers, suggest a course of studies and exercises, and the method of teaching that should be practiced. The normal pupils were granted the privilege of observing the operations of this school and of teaching some of its classes.”¹

Principals of the Westfield school.

Samuel P. Newman	1839-1842
Emerson Davis	1844-1846
David S. Rowe	1846-1854
William H. Wells	1854-1856
John W. Dickinson	1856-1877
Joseph G. Scott	1877-1887
James G. Greenough	1887

BRIDGEWATER NORMAL SCHOOL.

It has already been stated that the State board of education decided, in April, 1838, to open three normal schools, each to be continued three years as an experiment. Urged by the eloquence and zeal of the Rev. Charles Brooks, the people of Plymouth

¹ Fifty-third Annual Report of the Board of Education, Massachusetts.

County were the first to apply to the board to have one of these three schools located within their borders. The board resolved formally to grant the request "as soon as suitable buildings, fixtures, and furniture, and the means of carrying on the school, exclusive of the compensation of teachers, should be placed at the disposal of the board." At a county convention which met at Hanover in September, 1838, a resolution was passed to raise \$10,000 for this purpose. It was found easier to pass the resolution than to raise the money. In fact, it never was raised, although six towns were desirous of the honor of having the normal school within their limits. Finally the board was asked to name the terms on which they would locate the school at Bridgewater.

The board voted "that the school be established at Bridgewater for the term of three years, on condition that the people of the town put the townhouse in such a state of repair as may be necessary for the accommodation of the school, and that they place at the disposal of the visitors of the school the sum of \$500, to be expended in procuring a library and apparatus; and that they give reasonable assurance that the scholars shall be accommodated with board within a suitable distance at an expense not exceeding \$2 a week."

The conditions were accepted, and the school was opened in the old town hall in September, 1840, with a class of 21 young women and 7 young men, under the charge of Capt. Nicholas Tillinghast. The hall was a frame building, 40 by 50 feet. For the accommodation of the school the main room was divided lengthwise by a board partition, so constructed that the lower half could be raised so as to throw the two rooms into one for general exercises. The seating corresponded to the building—a pine board attached to the desk behind.

At the end of the three years for which the town hall was engaged, it became necessary to obtain a permanent and more capacious building. A memorial was presented to the legislature of 1845, signed by Charles Sumner and other prominent citizens of Massachusetts, asking for an appropriation of \$5,000 for normal school buildings, on condition that a like sum should be contributed by private individuals for the same purpose. The people of Plymouth promised to give the required contribution, and were very anxious to have the school removed to that town, but the board of education decided the question in favor of Bridgewater. Plans and specifications were prepared and proposals called for, but no contract could be made because the board had not sufficient funds at their disposal. After considerable delay, Horace Mann came forward and gave his personal obligation to make up the deficiency, which turned out to be about \$700, which he paid; but the money was afterwards returned to him from the State treasury. The house was only a plain wooden structure, 64 by 42 feet, and two stories high; but it was considered one of the most attractive schoolhouses in the State. At the dedication in August, 1846, Mr. Mann made one of his characteristic speeches. Referring to the opposition which the normal schools had met with, he said:

I honor the great body of common school teachers in Massachusetts for the magnanimity they have displayed on this subject. I know that many of them have said, almost in so many words, and what is nobler, they have acted as they have said: "We are conscious of our deficiencies; we are grateful for any means that will supply them; nay, we are ready to retire from our places when better teachers can be found to fill them. We derive, it is true, our daily bread from school keeping, but it is better that our bodies should be pinched with hunger than that the souls of children should starve for want of mental nourishment, and we should be unworthy of the husks which the swine do eat if we could prefer our own emolument or comfort to the intellectual or mental culture of the rising generation. We give you our hand and our heart for the glorious work of improving the schools of Massachusetts, while we scorn the baseness of the men who would appeal to our love of gain, or of ease, to seduce us from the path of duty." This statement does no more than justice to the noble conduct of the great body of teachers in Massachusetts. To be sure there always have been some who have opposed the normal schools, and who will probably continue to oppose them as long as they live, lest they, themselves, should

be superseded by a class of competent teachers. These are they who would arrest education where it is, because they can not keep up with it or overtake it in its onward progress. But the wheels of education are rolling on, and they who will not go with them must go under them.

A boarding hall for the students was built in 1869 in accordance with a resolution of the legislature which authorized the commissioners of the Massachusetts school fund to lend the board of education \$15,000 for that purpose, and requiring the board to collect from the occupants of the boarding hall "a sum sufficient to cover the interest at 6 per cent per annum on the cost of said buildings and furniture, and a reasonable insurance of the same." The next legislature increased the loan to \$25,000. The interest was punctually paid, but in 1871 the legislature released the board from the obligation to pay interest and insurance, and so the loan became a gift.

The hall was hardly built when it needed to be enlarged, and the school building also required enlargement. Both enlargements were carried through, and in 1889 a new building was imperatively required. It was erected at the cost of \$150,000, and is one of the handsomest and best equipped of all the normal school buildings in the country. In addition to the usual assembly room, study rooms, recitation rooms, and libraries, it has 7 laboratories—2 physical laboratories, 2 chemical, 1 mineralogical and geological, 1 biological, and 1 industrial. The last is furnished with carpenters' benches and sets of tools, a circular saw and jig-saw attachment, and is especially useful to students who wish to make sets of apparatus for their own schools without great expense. In the early days it was not easy for graduates of this school to find places as teachers; now the demand for graduates exceeds the supply.

The school is organized, like the other State normal schools of Massachusetts, under the direction of the board of education, with three courses of study—a two years' course, an intermediate course, and a four years' course. The two years' course includes arithmetic, bookkeeping, elementary geometry, algebra, elementary physics, chemistry, mineralogy, botany, zoology, geology, physiology, geography, astronomy, reading, orthography, etymology, grammar, rhetoric, literature, composition, penmanship, drawing, vocal music, gymnastics, military drill, history and civil polity of Massachusetts and of the United States, and school laws of Massachusetts, psychology, science and art of education, school organization, school government, and history of education. It goes without saying that on some of these slices of bread the butter must be spread exceedingly thin.

The four years' course has, in addition to the above, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, surveying, physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, general history, English literature, drawing, Latin and French; Greek and German at the option of the principal and visitors.

The intermediate course adds to the studies of the two years' course such advanced studies as the regular order of exercises may permit.

The catalogue of 1890 gives the names of 130 students in the two years' course, 64 in the four years' course, and 5 in the intermediate.

The early plans of the board of education looked to the maintenance of a model school, or school of practice, as an essential element of each of the State normal schools. The proper adjustment of the theoretical to the practical part of the work has been one of the greatest difficulties met with in most of the normal schools of the country, city training schools, perhaps, excepted. The Bridgewater school has had the benefit of much and varied experience on this point. For the first six years the model school was kept in a small schoolhouse, erected for the purpose by the center school district of the town, and was taught sometimes by a salaried principal and sometimes by the students of the normal school under the supervision of the principal of that school. We are told that "practice teaching in the model school was not very attractive to the normal pupils. Those who had taught before coming to the normal school felt

that they were not specially benefited by this practice; and those who had never taught before did not become sufficiently interested to appreciate work" [how could they in the two weeks allotted to them?] "and some parents preferred that their children should not be experimented with." The school was closed in 1850; but the new building (1891) has model school rooms for 120 scholars.¹

Principals.

Nicholas Tillinghast	1840-1853
Marshall Conant	1853-1860
Albert G. Boyden	1860

SALEM.

In 1852 the board of education, at the same meeting at which the proposals from Framingham were accepted, resolved to recommend to the legislature the establishment of a normal school in Essex County. The legislature approved the recommendation and made an appropriation to carry it into effect. Proposals were received from Salem, North Andover, Groveland, and Chelsea, and after a careful examination of the claims of the several localities the board decided on Salem, and experience has proved the wisdom of the selection. A suitable site was furnished by the city; a brick building was erected two stories high and 67 feet square, and was dedicated with appropriate exercises in September, 1854, Governor Washburn presiding. The school opened with 65 pupils (the largest opening number up to this date), under the superintendence of Mr. Richard Edwards, a graduate of the Bridgewater Normal School, afterwards principal of the normal school at St. Louis, and later State superintendent of public instruction in Illinois. He was succeeded in 1857 by Prof. Alpheus Crosby, who resigned in 1865, and was followed by Daniel B. Hagar, the present principal.²

As a necessary consequence of the labors of three men so distinguished as educators, the school overflowed its banks, and the legislature was called on for an appropriation of \$25,000 to enlarge the building, which was promptly and cheerfully granted.

The building as enlarged contains a reception room, 7 recitation rooms, and 3 dressing rooms; an assembly room seated for 210 pupils, rooms for the principal and the assistant teachers, 3 laboratories and lecture rooms, a cabinet, a drawing-room, a library, and a room for text-books. The tower contains a valuable telescope, which was paid for by the voluntary contributions of several graduating classes. The school is intended for the preparation and training of young women exclusively. The course of instruction is the same as in other normal schools of the State.

According to the Report of the Massachusetts State Board of Education for 1889, 83 per cent of the graduates of this school have taught in the State: "50 in normal schools, 2 as principals; 144 in high schools, 11 as principals; 46 in academies and seminaries; 9 in colleges, 2 as professors; 7 in universities; 10 in deaf-mute schools; 8 in the Clarke Institution at Northampton; 5 in kindergarten schools; 4 in training schools; 2 in State industrial schools; 1 in the school for the blind."

WORCESTER.

The normal school at Worcester is thirty-five years younger than the pioneer school at Lexington. The experience of these years was in great part utilized by the new school. There was no need of experimenting. There was no fear of lacking

¹ History of Bridgewater State Normal School, 1876; Report of Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1889; Catalogue of Bridgewater State Normal School, 1890.

² Catalogue of the teachers and pupils of the Salem State Normal School, 1854-1887. Annual catalogue, 1890.

support. There was no dread of public opinion.¹ The way had been prepared. The paths had been made straight and the rough places smooth. But the school was not content to follow in the wake of its predecessors. From the first it manifested an individuality of its own; and this has been strengthened by the double good fortune of permanence of location and permanence of its working staff. It has had but one principal in its seventeen years of life, and the changes in the subordinate members of the faculty have not been so numerous as to mar the continuity of the work. From the first no instructors were employed but persons having distinguished professional qualifications, including mature age, wide attainments, and successful experience.

The whole number of students admitted up to January, 1890 (the date of the last available report), was 855, of whom 400 completed the course and graduated with credit. Ninety-five per cent of these graduates engaged in teaching almost as soon as they were free to do so.

The Worcester school is a school of methods, par excellence; not of pedagogic methods merely, but business methods as well. The following selection of blanks will illustrate this in part. (The numbering is the editor's.)

When a student has signed the declaration to teach in the public schools of Massachusetts, as is required in all the normal schools of the State, the following blank is sent to the parent or guardian for signature before the student is formally admitted:

(1) *Certificate of parent or guardian.*

I hereby authorize and approve the declaration signed by Miss _____ as a condition of admission to the State Normal School at Worcester, Mass.

Dated at _____, 18...

[Signature.] _____

Parent. Guardian.

[NOTE.—All blanks are of the feminine gender, so to speak; although young men are legally admissible.]

In order to assist students from a distance in procuring suitable boarding accommodations, the following circular is sent to persons likely to have rooms to spare and to be willing to receive normal students:

(2) *State Normal School at Worcester.*

Please fill in the particulars as indicated below and return this paper to us. We have only a limited number of boarding pupils, and therefore can not always send even to satisfactory places.

Name, _____.
Address, _____.
Accommodations, _____.
Number of rooms, _____.
Number to occupy each, _____.
Size of rooms, _____.
Number of windows in each, _____.
How warmed, _____.
Is light furnished? _____.
Is washing done? _____.
Do you take any other boarders? _____.
Terms, _____.
References, _____.
Remarks, _____.

¹ Some years before this a student of a new normal school, not in Massachusetts, said to her instructor in methods, "Professor, are we to teach this way when we go home?" "Certainly, that is expected," replied the professor. "Well, if I do," was the answer, "I shall be hissed out of the district." But she did; and though she was not exactly "hissed out," she was made so uncomfortable that she sought and found another and better school.

The student, having been duly enrolled and established in a comfortable temporary (or permanent) home, is required to fill up the following blank every week:

(3) *Student's weekly report.*

Report of ———. For the week ending ———, 18—.

[Approximate estimates only are required.]

Time spent.	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wednesday.		Thursday.		Friday.		Saturday.	
	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.
At school												
In study												
At work.....												
In recreation.....												
At table.....												
In sleep.....												
Accounted for												
Not accounted for.....												
Total.....	24	00	24	00	24	00	24	00	24	00	24	00

Questions for students.

1. What has been your latest bedtime during the week? ———.
2. How many meals have you missed? ———.
3. How many evening hours have you spent away from your room? ———.
4. How many hours of outdoor exercise have you had? ———.

Remarks: ———.

[Signature] ———.

Street and number. ———.

(Indorsement:) I have read this report, and believe it to be substantially correct.

[Signature] ———.

Leave of absence being sometimes necessary, the following card is given to the student when the leave is granted:

(4) *Certificate of leave of absence.*

This is to certify that Miss ———, a member of the State Normal School at Worcester, Mass., has permission to be absent ———, until ———, 18—. ———, Principal.

———, 18—.

Before the expiration of the leave the student receives a postal card as follows:

(5) STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
Worcester, Mass., ———, 18—.

Your leave of absence expires on ———, 18—. Please write me whether you expect to come back to school at that time, or whether you desire to prolong your absence. If the latter, please give your reasons and inclose your certificate to me in order that the extension of time may be noted on it.

Very sincerely, yours, ———, Principal.

If the extension is granted, a card to that effect is sent to the student.

Occasionally a student is obliged for good reason to leave the school before the expiration of the term. In this case the student receives the following:

(6) *Certificate of dismissal.*

This certifies that Miss _____ is honorably dismissed from the State Normal School at Worcester, Mass.

_____, 18—, _____, Principal.

As supplementary to the systematic study of psychology, the pupils of this school have been engaged for several years in the study of children, objectively, upon a plan which may be outlined as follows:

The principal requests the students to observe the conduct of children under all circumstances—at home, at school, in the street, at work, at play, in conversation with one another and with adults—and record what they see and hear as soon as circumstances will permit. When the nature of the work is explained to the school great emphasis is placed upon the necessity of having the records genuine beyond all possibility of question; of having them consist of a simple, concise statement of what the child does or says without comment by the writer; of making both the observation and the record without the knowledge of the child; and of noting the usual, rather than the unusual, conduct of the individuals observed.

For convenience in classification blanks of five colors are provided for the records; white paper is used for such observations as students make themselves, red for well-attested ones reported by others, yellow for reminiscences of their own childhood, green for mention of whatever they read on the subject, and chocolate for observations that extend continuously over a specified period of time. Each blank has the following heading:

(7) STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT WORCESTER.

Study of children.

1. Date, _____.
2. Observer's name, _____; age, _____; post-office address, _____.
3. Name (or initials) of person (child) observed, _____; sex, _____; nationality, _____; age (years and months), _____.
4. Length of time between making the observation and recording it, _____.

Record, _____.

If the record is from hearsay the names of both recorder and observer must be given.

Pupils write their records at their convenience (immediately after making the observation is the best time), and put the papers in a designated place. A teacher reads them from time to time and classifies them under the heads of knowledge, reflection, imagination, conscience, feeling, play, etc.¹

For "exceptional" cases another blank is used with the same items as No. 7, but with the following additional particulars:

- (8)
1. Form (body, limbs, size, apparent strength, symmetry, etc.), _____.
2. Head and face (size, shape, symmetry, features, complexion, etc.), _____.
3. *Movement and postures* (head and neck, forehead, eyes, mouth, arms and hands, spine, legs and feet) _____.
4. *Health* (nutrition, color, activity in play, sleep, etc.) _____.
5. *Intelligence* (attention, memory, imitation, speech, etc.) _____.
6. *Disposition* (moral, emotional) _____.
7. *Additional* (parents, brothers and sisters, accidents, incidents, etc.) _____.

The public schools of Worcester are the practice or training schools of the normal school. The harmonious relations existing between the two authorities—and not

¹ Fifty-third Annual Report of the Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1889.

often found elsewhere except in city training schools—have led to the establishment of a system of apprenticeships “under the joint supervision of the city superintendent of schools and the faculty of the normal school.” Each student after a year and a half spent in the normal school is allowed—not compelled—to go to one of the public schools of the city to observe, to teach, and, occasionally, to take part in the government. - The apprenticeship lasting for six months, every student has an opportunity to serve in at least three grades of schools. Each apprentice keeps a diary of the occupation and experience of every day's service, and this record is inspected by the faculty of the normal school. On the completion of the apprenticeship the teacher of the city school in which the service was rendered fills up the following blank:

(9) *Report of the apprentice work of* _____.

Grade _____, _____ street school.

Time, from _____ to _____.

Scale 10—use no fractions.

Number of absences, _____.

Number of tardinesses, _____.

Power of control, _____.

Power of interesting, _____.

Skill in questioning, _____.

Skill in explaining and illustrating, _____.

Enthusiasm, _____.

Bearing, _____.

What traits of excellence (if any) have been shown in teaching or management?

What weakness or deficiency? _____.

Remarks. _____.

[Signature.]

When the apprentice graduates the following certificate is given in addition to the usual diploma:

(10) *Certificate of apprenticeship.*

MASSACHUSETTS STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT WORCESTER.

_____, of _____, a regular graduate of this school (class of _____, 18—), besides doing the work of the two-years' course, has served for half a year as apprentice (or assistant) in the public schools of the city of Worcester.

WORCESTER, MASS., _____, 18—.

_____, Principal.

The watchful eye of the school is on the students even after they have left their alma mater. If any should forget this, they will be reminded by the following circular:

(11) *STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.*

Worcester, Mass., _____, 18—.

To _____, of _____ Class.

Please answer the following questions and return to me.

The report to be made up from these answers will be seriously impaired in value if you fail to respond promptly.

Very truly, yours,

_____, Principal.

1. (a) Where, (b) how many times, (c) how many weeks, and (d) in how many different schools have you taught since you graduated? _____.

2. (a) How large is your present school, and (b) is it exceptionally difficult to manage? _____.

3. (a) What wages per week do you receive, and (b) of how many weeks does your school year consist? _____.

4. What evidence have you that your teaching has been successful? ———.
- Note.—Reelection, promotion, and increase of salary are the best (though not the only) evidences of success.
5. To what, chiefly, do you attribute your success? ———.
6. Is your health, so far as you are aware, *unimpaired*? ———.
7. What are your expectations with reference to continuing teaching? ———.
8. Give the name and post-office address of a school officer to whom you are or have been directly responsible. ———.
9. Give (a) your present and (b) your permanent post-office address. ———.

As the graduate derives great advantages from the instruction and discipline of the normal school, it is thought but right in return that the graduate teacher should contribute something to the experience and further development of the normal school. Accordingly a letter making inquiry into the practical effect of normal training on young teachers, so far as they are able to realize it, is sent to graduates of two years standing.

(12)

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WORCESTER, MASS.

To ———, of ——— Class.

It is thought that the experience of our earlier graduates must enable them to form valuable opinions as to the comparative usefulness in practical teaching of the various points in study and training to which they gave special attention here. Such opinions frankly expressed would furnish important hints for the future management of the school.

The following questions are therefore sent to those who have taught two years or more since graduation. Full and frank answers are earnestly desired, and will be of real service to the school.

1. Have you had much occasion to use the knowledge of hygiene that you acquired here; and if so, in what ways chiefly? ———.
2. (a) Do you use and value what you learned here in "Principles?" ———.
- (b) In "Methods?" ———.
3. State pretty fully how you regard your "apprenticeship." ———.
4. (a) How much occasion have you had for your acquirements in music? ———.
- (b) In drawing? ———.
5. (a) In what respects do you feel best satisfied with your course here? ———.
- (b) In what respects least satisfied? ———.
6. (a) What one or two acquirements or habits gained chiefly here do you find most useful in schoolteaching? ———. (b) What one or two least useful? ———.
7. What exercise or study, *considering the time it required*, do you regard as the most valuable to you? ———.
8. What influence, if any, do you attribute to the school in the formation or development of your character? ———.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, AT WORCESTER.

Weekly programme, spring term, 1891.

[EXPLANATIONS: The Roman figure before a class shows the number of the class. The fourth class is divided into two sections, known as *a* and *b* divisions. G means graduates' class.]

9.00 to 9.25

FIRST STUDY PERIOD.

	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
9.30 to 10.30.....	I. Arithmetic. II. Music. III. Grammar. (a) Reading. (b) Geology.	I. Music. II. History of education. III. Arithmetic. (a) Grammar. (b) Geography. Apprentice.	I. Hygiene. II. Psychology. III. English. (a) Geology. (b) Grammar. (b) Botany.	I. Geography. II. Physiology. III. Drawing. (a) English. (b) Reading.	I. Civil government. II. Arithmetic. Natural science. III. Principles. (a) Geometry. (b) English.
10.05 to 10.25.....	I. Civil government. II. Principles. III. Drawing. (a) Geology. (b) Botany.	I. Teaching. II. History. III. Grammar. (a) Geology. (b) Geometry. Apprentice.	I. History of education. II. English. III. English. (a) Geometry. (b) Geology.	I. Psychology. II. Drawing. III. Arithmetic. (a) Geography. (b) Grammar.	I. Psychology. II. Arithmetic. Natural science. III. Reading. (a) Drawing. (b) Geography.
10.40 to 11.10.....	I. Psychology. II. Arithmetic. Natural science. III. Principles. (a) Geography. (b) Botany. (b) Grammar.	I. Psychology. II. Music. III. Principles. (a) Geography. (b) Geology. Apprentice.	I. Geography. II. Rhetoric. III. Principles. (a) Geometry. (b) English.	I. Grammar. II. Drawing. III. Principles. (a) Geology. (b) Geography.	I. Teaching. II. Psychology. III. Drawing. (a) Geography. (b) Geology.

11.17 to 11.27

WRITING.

11.27 to 12.00

SECOND STUDY PERIOD.

12.00 to 1.00

NOONING.

1.00 to 1.50

PLATFORM EXERCISES.

1.55 to 2.25	I. Hygiene. II. English. III. Botany. (a) Drawing. (b) Geography.	I. Arithmetic. II. Arithmetic. Natural science. III. History. (a) Reading. (b) Drawing. Apprentice. G German.	I. Grammar. II. Rhetoric. III. Reading. (a) Botany. (b) Geometry.	I. Study. II. History. III. Grammar. (a) Reading. (b) Music.	I. Drawing. II. History of education. III. History. (a) Grammar. (b) Geometry. G German.
2.30 to 3.00	I. History of education. II. Psychology. III. Botany. (a) Geometry. (b) Drawing.	I. Arithmetic. II. Elementary methods. III. History. IV. Drawing. Apprentice. G German.	I. English. II. History of education. III. News. (a) Botany. (b) Grammar. (b) Geometry.	I. Teaching. II. History. III. Elementary methods. (a) Music. (b) English.	I. Drawing. II. Elementary methods. III. News. (a) Reading. (b) Grammar. G German. G History.
3.05 to 3.25	PHYSICAL EXERCISES.				
3.30 to 4.00	I. Music. II. Grammar. III. History. (a) English. (b) Reading.	I. Drawing. II. Grammar. III. Elementary methods. (a) Geometry. (b) Reading. Apprentice. G German.	I. Civil government. II. Physiology. III. Arithmetic. (a) English. (b) Reading.	I. Hygiene. II. Arithmetic. Natural science. III. English. (a) Grammar. (b) Geometry.	I. Geography. II. Physiology. III. Elementary methods. IV. Music. G German. G History.
4.10 to 4.40	THIRD STUDY PERIOD—OPTIONAL.				

NORMAL ART SCHOOL OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Drawing has for many centuries been recognized as one of the branches of a finished education in two opposite directions: Technological, as a necessary auxiliary in architecture, engineering, and kindred pursuits; and fashionable, from works of tapestry down to the copying of prints. The fashionable-school catalogues of the beginning of the century generally wound up with "drawing and the use of the globes" at so much extra. Even to-day there are thousands of teachers who make a living by assisting their pupils in making pictures to be framed for parlor adornment on which not one stroke of the pupil's own hand can be recognized.

The introduction of drawing as a necessary elementary study is but of recent date.

In 1749 Benjamin Franklin published his "Proposed hints for an academy," in which we find the following:

Studies to be selected and adopted.—As to their studies, it would be well if they could be taught everything that is useful and everything that is ornamental. But art is long and their time is short. It is therefore proposed that they learn those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental.

Writing, drawing, and arithmetic.—All should be taught to write a fair hand and swift, as that is useful to all. And with it may be learned something of drawing by imitation of prints, and some of the first principles of perspective.

This is perhaps the first recognition in the United States of drawing as entitled to the same rank as writing and arithmetic, among the "useful" branches of learning.

In 1821 William Bentley Fowle took charge of a Lancasterian or monitorial school in Boston, in which he made drawing a general exercise. Mr. Fowle was ahead of his time, like many other reformers, and after two years' service, his employers discovered that they had no further need of him; but the people had, and a company of private citizens built a schoolhouse and invited him to take charge of it. The school, called the Female Monitorial School, was a notable success.

In 1827 Mr. Fowle published an elementary work on drawing, translated in part from the French of M. Francoeur, with additions and alterations to adapt it to the use of schools in the United States. In his preface he says:

Notwithstanding the great utility of this branch of education, it is a lamentable fact that it is seldom or never taught in the public schools, although a very large proportion of our children have no other education than these schools afford. Even in the private schools where drawing is taught, it is too generally the case that no regard is paid to the geometrical principles on which the art depends. Not one in fifty of those who have gone through a course of instruction can do more than copy such drawings as are set before them. They never originate any design, and rarely attempt to draw from nature.

If Master Fowle had lived forty years longer, he might have made the same remarks with equal truth and equal pertinency.

Among the pioneers of the movement which culminated in the general introduction of drawing as a common-school study must be reckoned the Hon. Henry Barnard, editor of the *American Journal of Education*, and subsequently the first U. S. Commissioner of Education.

In 1838 Dr. Barnard delivered several lectures on drawing as the foundation of all industrial education, and urged that drawing should be taught in the common school *pari passu* with reading and writing. It was generally believed at that time that the ability to draw was a gift bestowed only on a few, and that, consequently, it would be a waste of time and energy to make it a common school study—in fact, throwing pearls before swine. Dr. Barnard's views on this subject are briefly presented in the following extract from Professor Stone's Report on the Practice of Music and Drawing in the Common Schools of Prussia, made to the legislature of Ohio in 1838, and printed.

The universal success also and beneficial results with which the arts of drawing and designing, vocal and instrumental music, have been introduced into schools was

another fact peculiarly interesting to me. I asked all the teachers with whom I conversed whether they did not sometimes find children actually incapable of learning to draw and to sing. I have had but one reply, and that was that they found the same diversity of natural talent in regard to these as in regard to reading, writing, and other branches of education; but that they had never seen a child who was capable of learning to read and write who could not be taught to sing well and draw neatly; and that, too, without taking any time which would at all interfere with, indeed which would not actually promote, his progress in other studies.¹

DRAWING IN PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS, 1840.

How slow is the process of observing, appreciating and imitating the best methods of instruction may be seen by comparing the system used in the Realschule of Berlin in 1840, with the systems, or want of system, in vogue in the United States thirty years later. Again we are indebted to that invaluable thesaurus, the American Journal of Education (August, 1840):

The drawing department of this school [the Royal Realschule of Berlin] is superintended by a teacher who has introduced a new method of instruction particularly adapted to the purpose for which drawing is to be applied in common life and in the arts; a method which is found to enable a much larger proportion of the pupils to make adequate progress than the ordinary one of copying from drawings. In this method the pupil begins by drawing from simple geometrical forms, those selected being obtained from models in wood or plaster, of a square pillar ($7\frac{1}{2}$ inches high and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in its square section), a niche, and a low cylinder (the form of a mill-stone). The square pillar separates in joints, affording a cube and parallelepipeds of different heights. The hemisphere which caps the niche may be removed, leaving the concave surface of its cylindrical part. The exercises of the pupils run thus: First, to place upon a board, or upon his paper or slate, a point vertically above another point, or so that the lines joining the two shall be parallel to the right or left hand edge of the board, paper, or slate; second, to join them; third, to place a point horizontally from the second, and at a distance equal to that between the first and second points; fourth, to place one vertically over the third, and at a distance equal to that below the first, and to join the third and fourth. The third and fourth being then joined, a square is formed. After practice in this, the simple elevation of the cube is drawn; next, a perspective, by the use of a small frame and silk threads, such as is common in teaching the elements of this subject, and by means of which the pupil acquires a knowledge of the practice. * * * This method of teaching has been introduced quite generally in Prussia, and with the best results as to the formation of accuracy of eye and of hand.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON DRAWING.

Compare with this the report of the "special committee on drawing," Boston, 1870. A few short extracts will suffice:

When this committee was appointed, the programme of studies in the schools of the first twelve wards of this city included drawing. The Boston programme was well, so far as it went; but it was not followed. In many of our schools no time was given for even the very mechanical exercise the rules prescribed. There was a general feeling among the teachers that drawing was simply an accomplishment for those whose leisure might be amused by its exercise, and that a large majority of the children in their charge would be better off without it; and with this impression joined to the knowledge that there were no examinations or requirements in this

¹ While this statement is correct in the main, the writer feels it due to truth to say that it is too broad. He has met with many exceptional cases where a good reader could not be taught to sing. Color blindness is not uncommon; tone blindness is probably just as common. There is this difference, that the inability to recognize a color (in school education) hurts only the observer; the inability to produce the proper sound is an annoyance to all who are compelled to listen. With regard to drawing, the sentiments of the present writer are expressed in the following anecdote: At a meeting of the International Conference on Education, held in London, August, 1884, James Russell Lowell, in the course of some extempore remarks, said that he "once knew a teacher of drawing of whom he asked the question: How many can you teach to draw? 'Anybody.' It is to me you speak; how many can you teach in a hundred? 'Well, fifty.' But how many can you teach well? 'Perhaps twenty.' But how many to draw what you would call well? 'Well, perhaps, in two or three years, one.'"

department for promotion to higher schools, it is not strange that the time, already insufficient, was found too short for drawing. In some schools the routine of taking out the books, allowing the children to play with pencil and paper for half an hour, and then putting away the result, often without examination, was virtuously performed. In a few schools instruction, and good instruction, was given by the master and his assistants. But this was very exceptional. * * * There was nowhere any system from the primary to the high schools.¹

But though no great progress had been made in the teaching of drawing in the thirty years referred to, the subject was kept before the people, and the way was prepared for action when opportunity should offer.

REMBRANDT PEALE IN PHILADELPHIA.

In 1840 Rembrandt Peale, the painter, being convinced that drawing could and should be taught in public schools of every grade, offered his services, at a merely nominal salary, to the Philadelphia High School as professor of graphics. His purpose was to verify his theory by actual experiment. The experiment was entirely successful. He then offered to introduce his system into the lower schools if the directors would allow him. This proposal stirred up much opposition. To teach children, children of the poor, to draw was an unheard of and dangerous innovation. Drawing was an accomplishment, not a necessity; a luxury to be enjoyed by those only who were willing and able to pay for it. In the common schools it would be a waste of time. So argued the "conservatives." The "progressists" had a majority of votes, but the minority were so persistent and so virulent in their opposition that the scheme was dropped, and Peale resigned his position in the high school shortly afterwards. "Could Mr. Peale's ideas have been realized," wrote Prof. John S. Hart to Hon. John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, "in a great mechanical and manufacturing city like Philadelphia, I have no doubt it would have added millions annually to the productiveness of its artisans. Thirty years ago I expressed the belief, and I am willing still to abide by the record, that such a system as Mr. Peale's, fully and fairly carried out, would have been worth to the city pecuniarily more than the entire cost of her system of public schools."²

WILLIAM MINIFIE IN BALTIMORE.

In 1848 and 1849 there was in the Boys' High School of Baltimore a teacher of drawing, Mr. William Minifie, who taught the subject as a science and not as picture making. Based on geometry, his progressive studies proceeded systematically, and the progress made by his pupils was most striking. After teaching in the high school for one or two years this teacher was dismissed, because, forsooth, some member of the committee, who was utterly ignorant of any form of art, had some favorite, equally guiltless of any ability to teach industrial drawing, whom he wished employed; rational drawing was relegated to the limbo of forgotten things, picture making was encouraged, and the school children of Baltimore for the next twenty years were deprived of the very opportunity England had taken such pains to furnish, and which, twenty years later, Massachusetts made such commendable efforts to procure.²

Post hoc et propter hoc. In his elaborate report on the school drawing exhibits in the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, Mr. Charles B. Stetson writes:

The specimens of drawings done by the boys in Baltimore City College [formerly high school] which are here exhibited consist almost wholly of reproductions from flat copies in light and shade. There are landscapes, trees, rocks, dilapidated houses, fences, bridges, carts, etc. The boys who are compelled to do such work are truly to be pitied. There is nothing to indicate the course of instruction, if really there is anything of the sort.

¹Art and Industry. Education in the Industrial and Fine Arts in the United States, by Isaac Edwards Clarke, A. M., Part I. Drawing in Public Schools. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1885. A most interesting and valuable work, to which the present writer is indebted for a great part of the contents of this chapter.

²Art and Industry, p. 30.

The following history of the Normal Art School is taken from the fifty-third report of the Massachusetts board of education, with some abridgment and many omissions:

A petition was presented to the legislature of 1869, asking that the board of education be requested to report a definite plan for providing instruction in drawing in all towns of the Commonwealth having more than 5,000 inhabitants. * * * In response, the legislature passed a resolve, which was approved June 12, 1869, instructing the board of education to consider the expediency of making provision for giving free instruction to men, women, and children in mechanical drawing in all towns having 5,000 inhabitants or more and to report a definite plan therefor to the next legislature.

The board, through a committee of three of its members, recommended the passage of a law "which shall require elementary and free-hand drawing to be taught in all the public schools of every grade, and which shall further require all cities and towns of ——— inhabitants to make provisions for giving annually free instruction in industrial or mechanical drawing to men, women, and children in such manner as the board shall prescribe." * * *

By an act of the legislature approved May 16, 1870, drawing was included among the branches of learning required to be taught in the public schools. Provision was likewise made for giving free instruction in industrial or mechanical drawing to persons over 15 years of age, all to be under the direction of the school committee. The above act was to take effect upon its passage. To ingraft upon the educational system of the State this branch of instruction created a demand for special training in the art of drawing; but from what source were the instructors to come? Clearly an institution for training the teachers must be established, or no satisfactory results would follow.

In the autumn of 1871 the board employed Mr. Walter Smith, recently from the Art School, Leeds, England, to be State director of art education. * * * Convinced of the necessity of providing some means for the training of teachers in the new branch of study, Mr. Smith advised the establishment of a school for that purpose. The board, acting upon Mr. Smith's recommendations, at once appealed to the legislature for the means to establish a normal art school. The first appeal was not successful. The means were finally provided, and on November 11, 1873, the school was located in rooms in the third story of a private dwelling then in possession of the State, in Pemberton square, Boston. * * *

These were wholly inadequate to the demands, being originally prepared for 36 students, while the school at first numbered 107 and in a short time contained twice that number. The legislature of 1875 authorized the sergeant-at-arms to assign to the school other rooms in another dwelling in Pemberton square. From this location in the fall of 1875 it was removed to rooms, 10 in number, in School street block, opposite the city hall. Here it remained for a term of five years, when it was again removed to better-fitted and more ample rooms in the Deacon House on Washington street. Its last remove was in 1878, to a building constructed for its special use on the corner of Dartmouth and Exeter streets. The Normal Art School building was constructed at an expense of about \$85,000. It is favorably located. Though undorned, it is artistic in design and finish. It is abundantly provided with the necessary appliances for art teaching, and is in every respect a model of convenience for the purposes it was built to serve. * * *

The number of students kept pace with the constantly increasing means of accommodation, and was always in advance of these until the art building was erected. The present number is 220. The number that have received certificates and diplomas is 498; the number that have graduated from the full course is 71. * * *

RESULTS OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SCHOOL.

The law of 1870, which required drawing to be taught in schools of all grades throughout the Commonwealth, went into operation in the absence of every direct means for its enforcement. There were but few teachers of drawing in the State; there was no published scheme for instruction in drawing which was adapted to the several grades of schools; there was no popular public sentiment among the people which demanded its introduction into the list of branches required to be taught.

The Normal Art School has, during the seventeen years of its existence, prepared teachers of practical skill in the art of drawing, for the evening schools now kept in all the cities and large towns of the State. It provided a large number of art directors and teachers of drawing for public and private schools, for the normal and technical schools, and for the collegiate institutions, and they are filling important positions in all parts of the country. * * *

Perhaps the most important result produced by the school is seen in its influence on the general culture of the pupils in all schools where drawing is taught. It trains them to observe with accuracy and intelligence. Its exercises cultivate the imagination and the judgment; they increase the power of invention, and produce an evident effect in purifying the heart and refining the taste.

When the Normal Art School began its work the highest idea of drawing in most schools which gave the subject any attention was picture making, with little else besides copying from books. At present the scheme for teaching this branch begins with molding the elementary forms in clay and extends through all grades of exercises to the highest forms of the art. The present scheme is the elaborated product of much careful study and varied experience by numerous patient observers and workers; and, while it incorporates much that is of foreign birth, it avoids the mistakes of other countries and furnishes a system of instruction well adapted to our own. * * *

The indirect result is what was anticipated by some of its early advocates and what was inevitable: it is creating a taste among the people for art in designs foreign to our hitherto unfamiliar eyes, and at the same time is training designers and artists for manufacturing establishments which but a few years since were wholly dependent upon aliens, or upon the product of their taste and skill brought from other markets.

PROF. WALTER SMITH.

The spread of elementary drawing throughout the public schools, not only of Massachusetts, but of the United States, is largely due to the experience, skill, and untiring energy of the first principal of the Boston Normal Art School and State art director, Prof. Walter Smith. The principles he advocated and the methods he pursued, exhibited in his Boston work and diffused and popularized by his lectures at teachers' institutes at home and addresses at educational conferences throughout the country, were as good seed sown on good ground and brought forth fruit, "some thirty, some sixty, and some an hundred fold." Disciples followed in crowds and in their turn became apostles of the new art education. A man of such energy, of an aggressive spirit, of great self-confidence, of such firm belief in his own doctrines, his own plans, his own methods, could not fail to stir up opposition. The assailants in normal-school contests have two methods of attack. They may attack the system itself or they may attack the head of the system. When the attack is made on both sides at once, it needs no prophet to foretell the result; the man is sure to fall, as in Walter Smith's case—a very small, almost insignificant, minority in the legislature, aided by the governor (Benjamin F. Butler), making an attack on the system, while a powerful combination outside the legislature made war upon the man. The board of visitors formed a sort of aulic council around the art school, and their orders, though given with the best intentions, proved very embarrassing to the commander in chief.

No doubt mistakes were made on both sides; but when two undertake to ride a horse one must ride behind, and the obstinate Englishman refused the back seat. Taking all the circumstances into account, an unconciliating chairman, an unconciliatory principal, a number of very sensitive teachers, a publishing house acting on strictly business principles, it is rather to be wondered at that the fiat had not gone forth sooner, "Delenda est Carthago." And so Walter Smith returned to his native land, not without due recognition of his splendid talents on both sides of the Atlantic.

In their first report after the retirement of Professor Smith the committee on drawing say:

That we are able to carry on drawing so successfully as we do under existing circumstances is due to the past, which gave us a sound system of instruction, trained many teachers in the practice of free-hand and model drawing, taught the principles of design, substituted true for false models as objects of study, and both perfected and equipped the free evening drawing schools, which deservedly rank among the most useful institutions of the city.

Referring to the appointment of Mr. Walter Smith in 1883 as head master of the art department of the Technical College at Bradford, England, the Right Hon. A. J.

Mundella in a public address "congratulated the Technical College on having Mr. Walter Smith as an art master." "There were few art masters," he said, "who had the experience and who possess so completely the successful art of teaching as Mr. Walter Smith and who knew how to apply art to industry."¹

COURSE OF STUDIES.

The school offers two courses of study—a four-years' course, which gives training in the scientific and artistic branches and in their application to industries, and a two-years' course, which trains for the work of teaching and supervising drawing in the public schools. There are four classes—A, B, C, and D. On the completion of the work of Classes A and C students receive a diploma certifying that they are qualified to teach mechanical and architectural drawing. On the completion of the work of Classes A, B, and D they receive a diploma certifying to their qualifications to teach industrial art.

Applicants for admission to Class A must pass examinations in the following subjects:

1. Model drawing (outline).
2. Model drawing (shaded).
3. Historic ornament (outline from cast).

Upon entering Class A choice is given to each pupil of beginning (a) a course of study that will fit him especially for teaching and supervising drawing in the public schools, or (b) one that will prepare him to teach the broad subject of industrial art. Those desiring to enter on the former course (a) are required to pass an entrance examination (in addition to the subjects mentioned above) on the following subjects: (1) English grammar and composition; (2) history of the United States; (3) geography; (4) plane geometry; (5) elementary botany; (6) elementary physiology.²

CONNECTICUT.

EARLY LEGISLATION.

The law establishing the first State normal school of Connecticut was passed in 1849. It states explicitly that the object of this school "shall be not to educate teachers in the studies now required by law, but to receive such as are found competent in these studies and train them in the best methods of teaching and conducting common schools." It provides that the number of pupils shall not exceed 220, that applicants shall sign a written declaration that their object in seeking admission to the school is to qualify themselves for the employment of common-school teachers, and that it is their intention to engage in that employment in the State; and that to all pupils legally admitted "the tuition and all the privileges of the school shall be gratuitous." For the support of this school there was appropriated "the bonus derived from the 'State bank,' and the interest which may accrue thereon, from which the sum of twenty-five hundred dollars annually, for the term of four years, shall be paid to said trustees with said interest, no part of which sum shall be expended in any building or fixture for said school." At the same session the principal of the normal school was made *ex officio* superintendent of common schools. Slight changes were introduced into the original law in 1866, 1872, 1883, and in 1889. The most important changes were (1) the maintenance of two normal schools, one of them east of the Connecticut River; (2) the appropriation of \$40,000 a year for their support; (3) the regulation of the number of students to be admitted is left to the State board of education; (4) authority is given to the State board of education to establish and maintain model schools under permanent teachers, approved by the board, in which pupils of the normal schools shall have an opportunity to practice modes of instruction and discipline.

NEW BRITAIN.

The school was opened at New Britain in 1850 with encouraging prospects. During the first year the number of pupils enrolled was 154; it rose, in 1855, to 359, and

¹Art and Industry, Part I, Drawing in Public Schools, p. 62.

²Circular of the Massachusetts Normal Art School, 1890-91.

then gradually decreased till, in 1864-65, it fell to 138. For the next four years the school was suspended (1865 to 1869), from causes which the editor has not been able to ascertain definitely, and at which he prefers not to guess, though he visited the school in its dying moments. But in 1869 it was reopened with 132 students, and the numbers continued to increase till 1874, when it was again closed for a year. In 1875 it was again resumed and the progress, judging from numbers, from that to the date of the last catalogue was steady and nearly uniform. This catalogue contains the names of 401 students.

The building now occupied by this school was erected in 1882, and by successive alterations and additions has become almost a model. Besides the usual assembly room, schoolrooms, recitation rooms, lecture rooms, library, etc., it has two laboratories, a cabinet, a manual training room, a cooking room, a lunch room, a room for drawing and modeling, a gymnasium, and two kindergarten rooms.

The grouping of studies under several teachers is in some instances "very peculiar." For example, Miss A has drawing and literature; Miss B, arithmetic and geography; Miss C, drawing and language; Miss D, singing and arithmetic; Miss E, kindergarten and stoid; Miss F, mathematics and English. The purpose is probably to prevent a teacher from running in one rut by giving her two ruts to run in. The gentlemen teachers, it should be noticed, are provided with but a single wheel, with one exception, and he has a bicycle, "principles of teaching" and "writing." It must be acknowledged that certain unquestionable advantages may be obtained from this system of "union of opposites," especially when, as appears to be the case in the present instance, it is the result of design and not of accident or necessity.

A characteristic feature of the Connecticut normal school is seen in the

TRAINING DEPARTMENT AND MODEL SCHOOLS.

The State board of education has under its supervision and full control three model schools—one at New Britain, with 404 pupils and 11 permanent teachers; one at Bristol, with 252 pupils, and one at South Manchester, with 635 pupils.

The professional training course at New Britain will be understood from the following outline:

The *first year* gives a review of common-school subjects, with the special object of making the students familiar with the best methods of teaching children.

The *second year* is devoted to observations, methods of teaching, trial lessons, assisting in model schools, psychology and general principles, and independent teaching under supervision.

Observation.—At the beginning of the second year those students who have reached the required standard of scholarship in all subjects, and who are thought to be sufficiently mature, begin to work in the model schools. They visit the classes daily and describe the lessons they observe.

Methods.—The teachers of the model schools sum up for the training class the essentials of each subject to be taught to children and teach children when members of the class are present.

Trial lessons are required as fast as individuals show a good understanding of the work they observe. Students do not usually give lessons in the presence of all their classmates. Criticism of the teaching is not a public exercise, and each student receives personal suggestions and advice.

Assisting.—After observing in the model schools, students are assigned to the model-school teachers as assistants. They are taught to place work on the blackboard, keep the register, make a programme, and hear classes in all subjects taught in the room.

Psychology and general principles.—From this time on commonly accepted principles are discussed and some instruction is given in physiological psychology.

Independent teaching.—After the completion of the preliminary training described, every student must teach and govern successfully for three months one of the departments in charge of the State board of education, located outside of New Britain, but under the supervision of skilled teachers and closely connected with the parent school.

The members of the senior classes in the normal school observe frequently in the

kindergarten. The kindergartner gives to this class a careful statement of the principles and theory involved and instructs them in the occupations relating to primary work. The first five months are spent in observation and in study of the following special subjects: Biology, botany, physics, chemistry, physiology, free-hand drawing, modeling, coloring, involutional geometry, manual work, gymnastics, singing, literature, and penmanship.

A special diploma is awarded to graduates of the kindergarten training class.¹

A normal school which is organized with special reference to the requirements of any particular locality can not safely be used as a model for another where the environments are different; yet one who should wish to organize or to reorganize a normal school in any part of this country would do well to study carefully the plans and methods of the school at New Britain. They are fully up to the times, provided always that the actual working corresponds exactly to the printed statement.

WILLIMANTIC.

This school was established by an act of the legislature passed in 1889. The sum of \$75,000 was appropriated for the construction of a building, but without waiting for its completion the school was opened in September, 1889, in rented rooms. It is the counterpart, in miniature at present, of the school at New Britain. It is under the same superintendence and control and aims at developing the same principles by the same methods.

RHODE ISLAND.

What Horace Mann had been in the educational history of Massachusetts, Henry Barnard was in that of Rhode Island. He was the first State school commissioner, and spent some of the best years of his life in efforts to establish a system of State normal schools in Rhode Island. He visited every portion of the State, delivered lectures, organized teachers' institutes, and began what he called an "Itinerating normal school agency." During his term of office more than 1,100 public meetings were held to discuss subjects connected with the public schools, and at all these meetings one of the most prominent topics was the necessity of a thoroughly organized State normal school.

After one year's incessant and well-directed labor he was sanguine enough to believe that the time had come for carrying his projects respecting the State normal school into execution. His plan was to have two normal schools—one in Providence and the other somewhere in the country. The school in Providence was to supply the missing link between the municipal schools and Brown University. The country school was to be a "training school" with an industrial annex in which pupils might pay part of their expenses by manual labor.

The scheme was too complicated—one might almost say too good—to command popular favor. But the legislature seemed willing to try it, at least in part. In 1845 a bill was passed authorizing the establishment of "one thoroughly organized normal school in the State," but no appropriation was made for carrying the law—if it can be called a law—into effect. The people were simply authorized to spend their own money and declined to spend it.

Now, Brown University came to the rescue. The university created a new chair, a professorship of didactics, and Samuel S. Greene, then superintendent of schools in Providence, was appointed to the position, which he was allowed to hold in connection with the superintendency. In the winter of 1851-52 the first normal classes were taught in the hall of the Providence high school. Next fall the school was opened, in rooms rented for the purpose, with 85 students and 3 assistant teachers. The following term was made noteworthy by a course of lectures on physical geography delivered by the celebrated Professor Guyot.

¹ Catalogue of the Connecticut Normal Training School, New Britain, Conn. Fortieth year, 1891-92.

Donations and tuition fees, however, were totally inadequate to the support of such an institution. Even the \$1,000 appropriated by the general assembly in 1854 proved to be but a drop in the bucket, and on the urgent recommendation of Mr. Elisha R. Potter, the school commissioner, who succeeded Dr. Barnard, the general assembly, May, 1854, passed an act establishing a "State normal school" and appropriating \$3,000 for its support. The school was opened on the 29th of May with 27 students, under Dana P. Colburn principal; before the end of the session the registered students numbered 88. Within two years a library of 1,200 volumes was accumulated and a beginning made in the collection of apparatus. The "collection" was slim enough—"two movable blackboards, one 6-inch and two 12-inch globes, a valuable collection of outline maps and charts, and a set of anatomical plates." The value lay in the fact that it was a "beginning" and in the right direction.

The genial spring was not followed by the usual bountiful harvest. Unseasonable winds began to blow, and kept on blowing. It was said by some that the towns should give more pecuniary aid, and that the State treasury should be relieved in part of the expense of maintaining the school. All parts of the State were not equally benefited, and yet all parts were equally taxed. The old and not yet exploded fallacy that education is a local more than a general benefit was urged for all and more than it was worth. It has fortified itself and been dislodged in many strongholds—the family, the district, the township, the State. When it is once expelled from the citadel the country will be safe. The citizens of Bristol were willing to receive the ark of the covenant, and thither it was carried; but the blessing did not follow it. About the beginning of the civil war the numbers in attendance fell off to 19—5 young men and 14 young women.

At the close of the spring term in 1865 school adjourned for a vacation of five weeks. It was hoped that the general assembly would send it back to Providence, but the hope was not realized. The operations of the school were suspended until after the meeting of the legislature in May, and in July it was suspended indefinitely. But "blessings brighten as they take their flight." The institution was "not dead, but sleeping," awaiting the voice of the master. School committees were urgent in their demand for its reestablishment. One committee declares that "the need is becoming every year more urgent." Another, that "the best interests of public education can not be promoted without the establishment of a State normal school." Another, that "the importance of establishing a State normal school as a means for the advancement of our common schools needs no argument." Another says, "We hope that a normal school will be established in this State, and that no persons will be employed to teach in our public schools except graduates of that or similar institutions. Much of the time of the children is now thrown away at the commencement of each term by employing teachers, who, while their intellectual culture is all that could be desired, know but little, if anything, of the art of teaching."

Then the master appeared.

Mr. Thomas W. Bicknell received the appointment [of State school commissioner] in May, 1869, and he at once set himself to work to bring about the desired result. He left no stone unturned during the years 1869 and 1870 to inspire and combine the public sentiment in favor of the enterprise. It is true that the ground had already been prepared and the seed had been sown by the labors of his predecessors, and he was able to reap the harvest which had in part been brought on to its growth and maturity by them. But at this particular moment it seemed to need precisely the qualities which Mr. Bicknell possessed and the efforts which he put forth to bring the former labors to their consummation. * * * By public educational lectures in every town in the State; by teachers' institutes, and papers and discussions thereon; by the newspaper press, which opened its columns freely to the commissioner; by the Rhode Island institute of instruction; by the distribution of educational tracts, and by personal interviews with the members of the general assembly, the labors of the commissioner began to bear fruit.¹

¹ The Dedication of the State Normal School Building, Providence, R. I. Printed by order of the general assembly.

In 1871 a bill was introduced for the establishment of a State normal school, and was passed by a very large majority after a very brief discussion. The people were prepared for it. The board of education and the commissioner were made trustees, and they wisely selected Providence as the location of the school. The school was opened in September, 1871, in a rented building; but in 1877 the legislature made an appropriation of \$40,000 for the purchase of a building for the permanent home of the school. The city of Providence being about to erect a new high school building, the old high school estate was purchased for \$30,000 and fitted up comfortably for the use of the normal school with the remainder of the appropriation. The school took possession of its new home in December, 1878. From the "Catalogue and circular" of 1890 we learn that the number of students for the scholastic year, including graduates who completed their course in January, was 200. The full course (seven half years) includes 100 lessons in composition and grammar, 300 in arithmetic, 100 in chemistry, 150 in drawing, 100 in the English language, 100 in geography, 100 in physiology and hygiene, 50 in bookkeeping (single entry), 100 in general history, 100 in geometry, 100 in reading, 200 in Latin, 100 in rhetoric, 100 in algebra, 100 in botany, 100 in physics, 100 in English literature, 50 in physical geography, 50 in geology, 50 in psychology, 50 in logic, 50 in ethics, 50 in zoology, 50 in pedagogy, 50 in primary methods, 50 in methods in geography, 50 in methods in grammar, 50 in mineralogy.

Principals.

Dana P. Colburn	1854-1859
Daniel Goodwin	1859-1860
James C. Greenough	1871-1884
T. J. Morgan	1884

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

The history of the normal school campaign in New Hampshire is curious, interesting, and instructive—an early and promising attack, a victory, long in doubt; ignorance and prejudice behind the intrenchments; indifference, perhaps treachery within the lines; a deficient commissariat, skirmishes without results, compromises without advantage, indomitable pluck on one side, invincible obstinacy on the other—triumph at last. "The darkest hour of all the night" proved to be "the hour before the morning." All the battles with ignorance, prejudice, misrepresentations, jealousies, parsimony, which had been fought and won in thirty other States, had to be fought again. And not in vain.

"For freedom's battle once begun,
Bequeathed by bleeding sire to son,
Though baffled oft is ever won."

Now peace, with wings outspread, hovers over the beautiful normal buildings at Plymouth; and for a peace offering thousands of dollars can be had almost without asking where hundreds were once sulkily refused.

The story of the State Normal School of New Hampshire can best be given in the words of the present principal of the school, Dr. Charles C. Rounds, in an address which he delivered on the dedication of the new building. The present editor regrets that want of space compels him to omit many paragraphs from this interesting paper. After a brief sketch of the development of normal schools in the State of Massachusetts, Dr. Rounds says:

In 1823 there was established at Franklin, N. H., by the munificence of Mr. Joseph Noyes, a school called the *Instructors' School*. Its principal for many years was Capt. Benjamin M. Tyler, a graduate of Captain Partridge's Military School at Norwich, Vt. In regard to normal methods of teaching Captain Tyler was far in advance of his time, and in spring and fall terms for years he formed and taught a teachers' class in the principles of the various branches of study and in methods of

teaching and school management. It has been claimed that more than sixty years ago there could be found at Franklin a superior normal school.

At a public dinner in Boston a few years since I heard Hon. J. W. Bradbury, of Maine, a colleague of Webster and Calhoun in the United States Senate, tell the story of the next normal school in New Hampshire. In 1829, having finished his course of legal study, he had three months to wait before admission to the bar. He had noted, as many were noting at that time, the miserable condition of the common schools and the mental poverty of the teachers therein. Instead of taking a vacation he came across the line from his home, in Parsonsfield, Me., to Effingham, and organized for a three-months' term a school for the preparation of teachers.

The next attempt in our State to give teachers special preparation for their work was made here in Plymouth by Samuel Read Hall, who had been connected with the school in Concord, Vt., in 1823, and with Phillips Academy in 1829. In 1837, while teaching in Phillips Academy, he was asked to become preceptor of Holmes Academy in Plymouth. He accepted, on condition that it should be called a teachers' seminary and should have a department specially for the training of teachers. These conditions were accepted, and for two years (1837-1839) the teachers' seminary at Plymouth continued, and then was closed in consequence of the failure of an expected endowment.

I hold in my hand the first catalogue of this teachers' seminary. The course of study and the classification of the school show the honesty of the man and the character of this, as a normal school, much truer to the name than many pretentious institutions which followed long after its time. Although it had a classical department, the teachers' department evidently lay nearest the heart of Mr. Hall.

Though this school antedated by two years the establishment of the normal school at Lexington, Mass., after its closing for many years no other similar attempt was made. Normal schools were established in other States in numbers increasing by a constantly accelerating ratio, but here the reliance seems to have been upon academies, and these doubtless did what they could. But under such auspices popular education could not advance, and after trying all other agencies the conviction became stronger and stronger that again a special effort must be made. In 1870 the act was passed for the establishment of a normal school. * * *

There is not time now to give the history of the efforts which culminated in the passage of the normal-school law, nor of the contests which resulted in locating the school in the buildings of the Holmes Academy, at Plymouth. It was finally here established, and for several years sustained by the tuitions paid by pupils, and by the generosity of the town, of private individuals, and of the Boston, Concord and Montreal Railroad. Here I quote from the principal's report to the trustees in 1887: "Thirty-two years after the first normal school in Massachusetts had been established, with two years in its course of study, and years after Maine, Connecticut, and Rhode Island had established normal schools on the same basis, the State Normal School of New Hampshire was established, with the legal provision that said normal school shall be established and maintained without expense to the State, except the necessary expenses of the trustees, which shall not exceed the sum of \$300; that the school should be in session at least twenty weeks each year, and that pupils could graduate from one of the courses at the end of one school year. Large numbers actually went out from the school with diplomas at the end of a course of only twenty weeks. Yet the school, sustained by tuitions and voluntary contributions, opened with a good faculty and 70 students, and in its second year enrolled 184 different pupils. To an urgent request of the trustees for \$12,000 for building and \$3,000 for a library, the State responded with a total appropriation of \$5,000. In the first four years of the school the State gave nothing for current expenses. For the lack of funds the faculty had to be cut down, and at the close of the third year the school suffered the loss of its first principal by death from overwork. During a part of the fourth year the faculty consisted of only two teachers, each teaching from seven to eight hours a day, and one of these broke down before the close of the year. In 1875 the State made its first appropriation for current expenses, and the school was declared a free school, but tuitions were still exacted from those who did not complete the course of the first or the second year until 1886. For four years, without endowment, the school had been sustained by tuitions and contributions. It is safe to say that a State normal school established under such auspices and sustained on such a basis was never before known.

"The report of 1876 speaks of constant improvement in the school, of jealousies which had sprung up against the school as an intruder into the educational field, and of the great harm which had been done to the cause by the graduation of large numbers from the short course of twenty weeks—a course of study only one-quarter the length of the shortest courses of other New England normal schools. Of the 175 graduating up to this time 158 had graduated from the twenty-weeks' course. In

1878 the jealousies and opposition referred to in earlier reports resulted in reducing the annual appropriation for the school to \$3,000. The numbers in the school had been greatly reduced; the outlook was most discouraging. Yet, instead of trying to increase the numbers by merely popularizing the school, it was made more severely professional than ever before. The one-year course was abolished. As might have been expected the numbers did not rapidly increase, but the character of the school as a school for professional training was established beyond all possibility of cavil. The policy continued by cutting down even the modest appropriations asked, or of refusing them altogether, and the complaint continues from year to year of insufficient accommodations and means of instruction. * * *

In 1885 an appropriation of \$2,000 was asked for, but was refused. This was apparently a turning point in the history of the school. Hostilities which hindered its work ceased. Friends in increasing numbers came to its aid. The press gave it more and more generous support. In 1887 it received from the legislature an appropriation of \$12,000 for building, and the annual appropriation for support was raised from \$5,000 to \$7,000. * * * The legislature of 1889 gave an additional appropriation of \$60,000, and you here to-day behold the fair results, a lasting monument to the many friends who worked so faithfully to secure this appropriation, as well as to the memory of the devoted teachers of the earlier days, who, amid discouragements, kept alive in New Hampshire the idea of the normal school and carried it through its phases of development. We have this beautiful schoolhouse, which, for solidity of construction, for convenience, for its provisions for comfort and health, and adaptation to the work for which it is designed, may well challenge comparison with any other. We have a boarding hall so planned and furnished as to offer to our pupils a comfortable, healthful, and elegant home. * * * The normal school begins its twenty-first year under these favorable auspices. Like a traveler who, after long wandering through morass and fog, comes out into the sunshine on solid ground, so we at last find firm support for our feet and see the sunshine on our path.¹

The course of study does not differ greatly from that of other first-class normal schools limited to a two-years' course, as will be seen by the following programme:

Course of instruction.

[Figures denote number of lessons per week (music and writing, each two lessons counted as one).]

	First year.		Second year.	
	First term.	Second term.	First term.	Second term.
Language.....	Reading, 3; grammar, 3; composition, 3.	English literature, 2.	English language, 3; essays, 1.	Essays, 1.
Mathematics....	Arithmetic, 3; elements of geometry, 2.	Geometry, 3	Algebra, 4	Bookkeeping and reviews, 4.
Natural science.	Physiography, 3	Geography, 4; botany, 4; physics, 3.	Chemistry, 3; physiology, 3.	Physical geography, 4.
History	American history, 4.	General history, 4 ..	Civil government and school law, 2.	History of education, 4.
Professional	School economy, 2; drawing, 2; music, 1; writing, 1.	Psychology, 4; drawing, 2; music, 1.	Methods and training, 6; drawing, 2; music, 1.	Pedagogy, 4; methods and training, 8; drawing, 1.

VERMONT.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT CASTLETON.

The institution now known as the State Normal School at Castleton, Vt., celebrated its centennial in 1887, having changed its name several times during the century. It was established by act of the legislature in 1787 as a county grammar school, in and for Rutland County, to be held "at the house commonly known by the name of the new schoolhouse, near Dr. William Woolcott's in Castleton, provided that the county of Rutland shall not be at any cost or charge in completing or repairing the same." Another act of the legislature provided "that it shall be known by the name and

¹ Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, being the Forty-fifth Annual Report upon the Public Schools of New Hampshire. Concord, 1891.

style of the Corporation of Rutland Grammar School." In 1805 it was enacted "by the general assembly of the State of Vermont that the name and style of the Rutland County Grammar School be, and the same is hereby, altered to the name and style of the Vermont Classical High School." This act was repealed in 1830. In 1806 an act was passed authorizing the establishment of one normal school in each of the three Congressional districts of the State with two courses of study; graduates of the short course to receive certificates for five years, the others for fifteen.

In 1867 the legislature granted an annual appropriation of \$500 to each of these normal schools for the purpose of assisting indigent young men and women "inhabitants of this State who may desire to more perfectly qualify themselves for the office of teaching by attending the normal schools within this State." Persons so aided were required to teach at least two years subsequent to their graduation.

This sum was increased in 1870 to \$1,000, and in 1882 an additional \$500 a year was appropriated to each of these three schools. In 1888 the legislature extended their charters until the year 1900.

The first session of the normal school at Castleton was opened on the 2d of January, 1868.

In 1878 the legislature, fearing that the normal schools might attempt to fly too high, passed the following enactments to clip their wings:

No. 113. Sec. 2. No more than two courses of study shall be allowed in the normal schools of this State. No studies or subjects not included in the course of study established for them shall be taught in the normal schools of the State, nor in any school or department established and controlled by the trustees or by the teachers of any normal school in the State.

Sec. 3. The two courses of study for the normal schools may include such branches of learning as have been set, or shall be set, in them, by the trustees of any normal school acting in concurrence with the State superintendent of education; but *no foreign language, ancient or modern, shall be a subject of instruction in any normal school.*

Yet the course of study in the Vermont normal schools is by no means narrow, judging from the list of text-books used.

First course: Hill's Geometry for Beginners, The Franklin Algebra, Greenleaf's Complete Arithmetic, Prang's Drawing Books, Maury's Physical Geography, Walker's Physiology, Wood's Object Lessons in Botany, Eggleston's History of the United States, Macy's Our Government, True's Our Republic, Conant's Vermont, Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar, Conant's Drill Book in English, Scott's Lady of the Lake, American Poems, American Prose, Principles of Education Practically Applied, Gill's Systems of Education, Putnam's Psychology, Payne's Lectures on the Science and Art of Teaching, De Garmo's Essentials of Method.

Second course: Wentworth's Algebra and Geometry, Sharpless and Phillips's Natural Philosophy, Young's Astronomy, Kellogg's Rhetoric, Swinton's Outlines of the World's History, Arnold's English Literature, Lockwood's Lessons in English, Painter's History of Education, Thomson's Seasons, Bacon's Essays, Janet's Elements of Morals.

The number of students in attendance during the school year ending July, 1890, was 230. The number of graduates since 1868: First course, 350; second course, 85.¹

Principals.

Miss E. O. Patch	1868-1869
Rev. R. G. Williams	1869-1874
Edward J. Hyde	1874-1875
Rev. Geo. A. Barrett	1875-1876
Walter E. Howard	1876-1878
Judah Dana	1878-1881
Abel E. Leavenworth	1881

¹ Castleton School Centennial. Report of the proceedings. Rutland, 1888.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT RANDOLPH.

The Randolph Academy, or Orange County grammar school, was established in 1806 in a building now occupied as a dwellinghouse. Its last principal was Edward Conant, "the father of the Vermont normal schools," by whose aid chiefly the academy was changed in 1866 to a training school for teachers—one of the three for which the legislature made an appropriation in 1867, as has been already mentioned.

Normal schools naturally divide themselves into three groups: Those whose work is chiefly academic, and whose aim is to secure scholarship in the subjects taught; those of the character of city training schools, which strive to give their students a large amount of practical teaching after certain prescribed methods; and those which seek to give their graduates a scientific basis of practical pedagogy. The Randolph school claims to belong to the last class.

From February, 1867, to June, 1890, the whole number of students admitted was 1,877. Of these 819 graduated in the first course, and 122 in the second course.¹

Principals.

Edward Conant	1867-1874
Abel E. Leavenworth	1874-1879
Andrew E. Edson	1879-1884
Edward Conant	1884

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT JOHNSON.

This school was started as an academy about the year 1828 with 16 scholars, in a room which had formerly been a shoe shop. In 1836 the school was incorporated by act of legislature as the Lamville County grammar school, and public lands were granted toward its support. In 1866 the school surrendered its original charter and was recognized as a State normal school. The old academy building was at this time rebuilt, greatly enlarged, and fitted up nearly as it stands now. The last principal of the academy, S. H. Pearl, was the first principal of the normal school. In 1884 the village primary school was placed under the care of the principal of the normal school as a model and training school, in which normal students should have the opportunity of doing practical work under the direction of experienced teachers.²

The number of students June, 1890, was 136.

Principals.

S. H. Pearl	1867-1871
C. D. Mead	1871-1872
Harlan S. Perrigo	1872-1875
William C. Crippen	1875-1881
Edward Conant	1881-1884
A. H. Campbell	1884

MAINE.

FIRST NORMAL SCHOOL AT FARMINGTON.

The teachers of Franklin County, Me., at their annual convention in 1857 passed a resolution "That the interests of our common schools and the teachers having them in charge not only require the fostering care of the State, but most imperatively demand the immediate establishment of that long-neglected source of improvement, a State normal school." This was no uncertain sound, although it was but the echo of the

¹ The Normal Register; a History of the First Vermont State Normal School. Montpelier, Vt., 1885.

² History and alumni record of the State normal school, Johnson, Vt., 1887. Catalogue, June, 1890.

demand made ten years before by William G. Crosby, the secretary of the first board of education of Maine. For thirteen years longer the voice was heard as of one crying in the wilderness, till at last, in 1860, the legislature was stirred up to activity. The first experiment was an endeavor to establish normal departments in 18 academies of the State. Of course, the attempt was a failure. The law was repealed in 1862, and an act for the establishment of normal schools was passed in 1863. A commission of three persons, appointed by the governor and council, was to locate two normal schools, one in the eastern and one in the western part of the State: "Provided, that the citizens of such places will furnish, without expense to the State, suitable buildings for the instruction of 200 pupils for the term of at least five years; and provided, that such locations be not within the limits of any incorporated city." To sustain these schools for five years, four half townships of the public lands were appropriated, to be sold in whole or in part, as should be deemed best by the governor and council. The commission decided to locate one of these schools at Hampden, the other at Farmington, but two years afterwards Castine was selected in place of Hampden. The trustees of Farmington Academy offered a cash donation of \$4,000, together with the academy building, which they proposed to enlarge so as to accommodate 200 students. The school began in August, 1864, in a temporary hall, for the new building was not as yet completed. Thirty-one students were present at the opening, and during the year 130 students were entered, a number larger than in any subsequent year.¹

Principals.

Ambrose Parsons Kelsey.....	1864-1865
George M. Gage.....	1865-1868
Charles C. Rounds	1868-1883
George C. Purington.....	1883

SCHOOL AT CASTINE.

From the circular of the State Normal School at Castine, Me., for 1890, we learn that the object and work of the normal school are plainly stated in the act establishing these schools in that State:

They shall be thoroughly devoted to the training of teachers for their professional labors. The course of study shall include the common English branches, in thorough reviews, and such higher branches as are especially adapted to prepare teachers to conduct the mental, moral, and physical education of their pupils. The art of school management, including the best methods of instruction and government, shall have a prominent place in the daily exercises of said schools. While teaching the fundamental truths of Christianity and the great principles of morality recognized by statute, they shall be free from all denominational teachings and open to persons of different religious connections on terms of perfect equality.

This school has been in operation twenty-three years and has had over 2,000 different pupils connected with it since its organization.

A model primary school is in operation in one of the rooms of the normal building, which has been fitted with primary furniture for that purpose. This school is under the control of the principal of the normal school and is taught by a teacher specially selected for that work. It has four grades, and is free to all children of these grades, as far as its capacity extends. The pupil-teachers are here furnished with a model which will help them to form an ideal of what a primary school ought to be. This enables them to have a standard of excellence in mind when they go out to teach, which it will be safe for them to strive to attain.

The following is the outline of work actually done in the model school in the different grades:

¹History of the State Normal School, Farmington, Me., by George C. Purington, A. M., Farmington, Me., 1889.

MODEL SCHOOL AT CASTINE.

FIRST YEAR.—*Reading.*—Word, sentence, and phonic methods from charts. The lesson is first taught from the blackboard in script. *Spelling.*—By sound and letter. *Number.*—The Grube method, modified, as far as 10. Counting and writing numbers. Fraction $\frac{1}{2}$. Simple practical examples. *Geography.*—Position. Divisions of land and water, with molding board. *Language.*—Story-telling by the children; use of words in sentences, and careful correction of bad forms of speech. *Drawing.*—Lines and angles, and simple figures. *Writing.*—On blackboard and slates. *Object lessons.*—Form, color, human body, animals, plants, etc.

SECOND YEAR.—*Reading.*—First and Second Readers. Sight reading. *Spelling.*—From reading lessons. *Number.*—Modified Grube system to 20. Continue counting and writing numbers and practical examples. Exercises with fractions $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$. *Geography.*—Map of schoolroom. Oral lessons on continents, with maps and molding board. *Language.*—Continue work of first year. Writing simple sentences. Use of capitals and periods. *Drawing.*—Simple geometrical figures and original designs. *Writing.*—With ink in tracing books. *Object lessons.*—Continue work of first year.

THIRD YEAR.—*Reading.*—Third Readers. Sight reading. *Spelling.*—From spelling book. *Number.*—Multiplication and division tables. Continue practical examples. Work in fundamental rules. Fractions $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{10}$. *Geography.*—"Our World No. 1." *Language.*—"Elementary Lessons in English." *Drawing.*—Continue second year's work. *Writing.*—With ink in copy books. *Object lessons.*—Continue second year's work.

FOURTH YEAR.—*Reading.*—Fourth Readers. *Spelling.*—From spelling book. *Number.*—Continue work of third year. Work in common fractions, United States money, decimal fractions, and factoring. *Geography.*—Elementary text-book. *Language.*—"Elementary Lessons in English." *Drawing.*—Original designs and simple object drawing. *Writing.*—With ink in copy books. *Object lessons.*—Continue work of third year. The object lessons are graded so that attention is called to name, parts, form, size; then to qualities and uses; then to relations, so that though the object may be the same in different grades, the lessons taught become more and more difficult.

Normal school—Course of study.

FIRST YEAR.

F Class.	E Class.	D Class.
Arithmetic, from percentage. Grammar. Geography. School economy. Reading. Writing, one-half term. Elementary music, one-half term.	Arithmetic, methods. Grammar. Geography. Algebra. Physiology.	Algebra. Geometry. Physics. Physical geography. Drawing.

SECOND YEAR.

C Class.	B Class.	A Class.
Geometry. General history. Physics. Rhetoric. Botany. Bookkeeping, one-half term.	Psychology. Chemistry. United States history. Civil government. Moral philosophy. Practice teaching.	Didactics and history of education. Practice teaching. English literature. Astronomy. Geology, one-half term.

Principals.¹

Grenville T. Fletcher	1867-1879
Rolliston Woodbury	1879-1889
Albert F. Richardson	1889

¹ Catalogue and circular of the State Normal School at Castine, Me., 1890.

II.

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK, PENNSYLVANIA, NEW JERSEY, AND MARYLAND.

NEW YORK.

EARLY HISTORY.

In 1825 De Witt Clinton, governor of New York, in his annual message, speaking of the common school system, says: "In furtherance of this invaluable system I recommend to your consideration the education of competent teachers." This recommendation is repeated in his message of 1826: "I therefore recommend a seminary for the education of teachers in the useful branches of knowledge." The phrase "the education of teachers in the useful branches of knowledge" indicates that the governor had but a vague notion of the proper function of a "teachers' seminary;" and it is not to be wondered at that for many years after his death the people of New York struggled long and fruitlessly to make normal instruction an annex of the academy system. In his last message, 1828, the governor lamented that no law had been passed to elevate the talents and qualifications of teachers.

In 1830 a committee of the citizens of Rochester petitioned the legislature to establish a State seminary for the education of teachers.

In 1833 Governor Marcy said in his message to the legislature: "One of the most obvious improvements in relation to common schools would be a plan for supplying them with competent teachers." There is no good reason to suppose that the "competency" thus desired extended further than a knowledge of the subjects taught in the common schools.

In 1835 John A. Dix, chairman of a committee of the board of regents, recommended the establishment of teachers' classes in the academies.

In 1839 Governor W. H. Seward recommended that "Normal-school instruction be ingrafted on our public school system." In the same year John C. Spencer, secretary of state and ex officio State superintendent of schools, secured the passage of a law creating a board of visitors of schools. The chairman of the board was the Rev. Dr. (afterwards Bishop) Alonzo Potter, and with him was associated Francis Dwight, who afterwards became superintendent of schools for the city and county of Albany and secretary of the executive committee of the board of regents.

In 1842 a convention of county superintendents was held in Utica, at which the Rev. Dr. Alonzo Potter, Horace Mann, and George B. Emerson advocated the establishment of a normal school; to which project the superintendents promised their support. In 1843 a similar convention was held, and again the county superintendents reported in favor of a normal school. In the same year Calvin H. Hulberd, as chairman of the assembly committee on colleges, academies, and common schools, made an eloquent and elaborate report, accompanied by a bill to establish a normal school for the period of five years. The bill was passed May 7, 1844. The law provided that the sum of \$10,000 shall be "annually paid to the superintendent of common schools, from the revenue of the literature fund, for the maintenance and support of * * * a normal school for the instruction and practice of teachers of common schools in the science of education and in the art of teaching, to be located in the county of Albany." The "normal-school idea" had grown since the time of De Witt Clinton, who so ably advocated the establishment of a seminary "for the education of teachers in the useful branches of knowledge." The law also placed the school "under the supervision, management, and government of the superintendent of common schools and the regents of the university," but practically the school was governed by an executive committee of five persons appointed by the

regents, of whom the law required that the State superintendent of common schools should be one.

The school was first located in the depot building of the Hudson and Mohawk Railroad Company, the rent of which, \$500 a year, was paid by the city of Albany; afterwards, 1849, in a house built by the State, at the cost of \$25,000, on a lot presented by the city in the rear of the old State Hall. The lot was not a very desirable one, and the building corresponded to the lot, though at the time it was regarded as "large and commodious."

The first principal was the now long lamented David P. Page, of whom nothing further need here be said, for he "being dead yet speaketh."¹ One of the first "regulations" prescribed by the executive committee, doubtless at the instance of Mr. Page, deserves more than a passing notice: "The internal regulations of the school shall be left to take their form and character from the circumstances as they arise, and as the teachers may hereafter suggest."

NORMAL DEPARTMENTS IN ACADEMIES.

For several years before and after the organization of the Albany school there had been maintained in several academies in the State of New York a department for the instruction of common-school teachers. These departments were of two classes: One was established by the regents of the university by virtue of chapter 140 of the Laws of 1834, for the support of which the regents appropriated annually to each academy \$400—a sum supposed to be equal to the expense of maintaining the department; the other class consisted of those academies to which a share of the revenue of the literature fund, equal to \$700 a year, was distributed for their ordinary support, and which were required by the regents, pursuant to chapter 237 of the Laws of 1838, to establish and maintain departments for the instruction of common-school teachers. There were in 1840 eight academies in the first class and seven in the second. The number of students entered in these departments was, in 1835, 138; and in the following years successively, 218, 284, 374, 498; and in 1840, 668. The State superintendent, John C. Spencer, in his report for 1840 says he is "convinced that there has been a decided improvement in these departments. The standard of instruction in their vicinity has been raised. The desire for competent instructors has increased; their wages have advanced; the demand for them has augmented, and a general influence in favor of primary education of the most salutary character has been diffused." He thought these departments should be sustained and encouraged, and the means of establishing a larger number in other academies should be provided. Where there were no academies he would have normal schools established—the neighborhoods furnishing the grounds and buildings and the State paying the teachers.

These normal departments do not seem to have been either popular or efficient, notwithstanding the indorsement of Mr. Spencer. An academy in King's County reports: "No students are at present (1840) connected with this [the normal]

¹ "David P. Page, though he labored but four years, filled those four years with such a consecrated purpose and professional skill that he left an impress upon the normal schools of this country that will live for centuries. This school, more than any other in the country, became a center of normal influence, which has pervaded every part of the United States; and I believe that if the true history of the establishment of normal schools in this country could be written, it would be seen that the influence of the school at Albany during its first four years has had more to do, directly and indirectly, with the organization and methods of instruction of other similar institutions than all other schools combined; and this I believe to be due to the rare genius and inspirational power of David P. Page, the ablest normal-school principal that this country has produced—a man whose consecrated spirit, high moral endowments, magnetic presence and manners, rare genius for organization and management, intuitive knowledge of human motive and character, and strength of personal influence, make him stand out peerless and alone among the many excellent and eminent men who have adorned similar positions in our country." (Dr. Edward Brooks, superintendent of schools in Philadelphia, in "Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1876.")

department, nor have any applied for admission since its organization." A seminary in Dutchess County reports that "but few students, compared with the usual number in the school, have applied for admission to the teachers' department." The Troy Female Seminary reports: "No students have been instructed in this institution for the express purpose of teaching in common schools." The Albany Female Academy reports that "no separate department has been established exclusively for the education of common-school teachers." The Ithaca Academy established a department for the education of teachers, but no students presented themselves for instruction in that department.

On the other hand, the St. Lawrence Academy reports: "The establishment of this department has exerted a powerful and salutary influence on the character and supply of teachers of district schools." And in the Genesee Wesleyan Seminary there were 184 students in the teachers' department.

Prof. Alonzo Potter, having visited officially a number of these academies, made an elaborate and instructive report on their condition, in which, after giving them due credit as aids in the education of teachers, he says: "The principal evil connected with our present means of training teachers is that they contribute to supply instructors for select rather than common schools; and that, for want of special exercises, they perform even that work imperfectly." Yet the academic idea is not yet extinct in New York, and in many so-called "State normal schools," both there and elsewhere, "the trail of the serpent" may be distinctly traced.

From the annual school report of Superintendent Young we learn that in the year 1842 there were 681 students under instruction in teachers' departments in the academies of New York. He says: "These departments have doubtless given increased character and efficiency to the business of instruction, but it must be admitted that most of them have practically failed in the accomplishment of the great object for which they were instituted—the special qualification of teachers for the common schools." The great cause of this failure seemed to him to be that "the bounty of the State is diffused over too great a surface, the small sum of \$4,800 being divided equally among sixteen separate institutions." Accordingly he advocates the establishment of a State normal school at Albany. "Normal schools," he says, "will not be an innovation. They have, on a limited scale, been in operation for some years in the city of New York, and a similar institution was recently organized at Kingsboro in Fulton County."

PIONEER SCHOOL AT KINGSBORO.

It is refreshing to compare the simple exercises of this pioneer school with the three and four story programmes of some normal schools of the present day.

The school opens at 9 o'clock a. m. by reading the Scriptures and prayer. A general exercise follows on arithmetic, consisting of lectures and demonstrations from the blackboard by the principal and students in turn. Lectures are given on notation, numeration, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, the denominate numbers, reduction, and fractions; and a course of lectures has been given by the principal on ratio and proportion, with a practical application to the rule of three, direct, inverse, and compound. In addition to this exercise in arithmetic, the whole school is divided into four classes, each class spending one-half hour per day in the solution of problems on the blackboard and in reading, the teacher telling them how to solve them and the reason of the operation. Particular attention is given to the principles of arithmetic and their practical application to the business of life. There are two classes in algebra and two in natural philosophy. Algebra has had a tendency to withdraw the attention of the students from the elementary branches, consequently less attention will be given to this branch during the remainder of the term. The whole school is exercised in linear drawing, including most of the figures in geometry. Considerable attention has been given to penmanship, but not as much as its importance deserves. An accomplished writing master has been engaged to teach this art, which will claim special attention during the term. The students are required to recite regular lessons in geography, taking their regular turn in hearing the recitations. Then follows a general exercise of the whole school called classifying, or, in

other words, repeating in concert the names of the different States and kingdoms of the world, with their capitals, the oceans, bays, seas, gulfs, lakes, rivers, etc. This exercise is very interesting and profitable, as students will gain a knowledge of the names and situations of places much sooner in this way than any other with which I am acquainted. This exercise is followed by a lecture on the globe. In English grammar the females constitute one class, the males another, and about three-quarters of an hour every day has been occupied by each class in parsing, correcting false syntax, etc. Then follows a general exercise of the whole school, consisting of lectures by the students alternately, parsing difficult sentences, correcting grammatical errors which occur in daily conversation, and with discussions on disputed points in grammar. One composition a week is required of every student, which is corrected by the principal in the presence of the writer.

The whole school exercise daily upon the sounds of the letters and the principles of orthography. Great attention is given to elocution and reading. In addition to a daily exercise in concert by the whole school, including the elementary sounds of the English language, difficult specimens of articulation, and the best and most difficult pieces in our language, five students declaim every day. The exercises are intended to cultivate and improve the voice, train the organs of speech, and improve the articulation, pronunciation, and taste of the pupil. Attention is given to the grammatical and rhetorical pauses, emphasis, quantity and quality of voice, and everything necessary to enable the pupil to read with beauty, force, and variety.¹

The reader will bear in mind that this schedule is fifty years old.

The establishment of the State Normal School at Albany was not followed immediately by the organization of similar schools in other sections of the State. A long time sometimes intervenes between the planting of a tree and the ripening of the fruit. The lack of enthusiasm in the cause of normal schools may be traced partly to the early death of the first principal, partly to a general suspicion that the Albany school was not doing strictly normal work, and partly to a preference for the local academies that were supposed to be quite capable of preparing teachers for their calling. It is certain that much of the opposition which normal schools afterwards encountered in the State was due to the zeal of the friends of the academies. At this very time (1891) an experiment is under way which may have the effect of giving the training of teachers for district schools to the academies on the ground that normal graduates are not willing to do "common school" work for common school compensation. If it succeeds, the New York system will be logically perfect: Training classes, normal schools, and the normal college, corresponding to the elementary school, the high school, and the college in the scheme of public instruction.

Nineteen years after the opening of the Albany school a normal school was established at Oswego, under E. A. Sheldon, principal; and four years thereafter (1867) it was accepted by the State as a State normal school. The present writer visited this school in 1865, and made a report to the State superintendent of Maryland, from which the following extracts are made:

The training school at Oswego was organized mainly for the purpose of furnishing the city schools with teachers competent to carry out the objective or Pestalozzian system of teaching. The public schools of Oswego are divided into four grades: The primary, the junior, the senior, and the high school. Each school is divided into three classes, and the course of each class lasts for one year. Pupils are admitted at five years of age, and if they pass regularly and without interruption through the whole course, they are graduated at the age of 17. New classes are formed only once a year. Scholars presenting themselves after the new classes have been formed are admitted, provided their attainments correspond with the standard of any particular class. If they are found defective in certain studies they are sent to what is called the "Ungraded school," an ingenious contrivance to prevent the uniformity of the classes from being broken by an influx of unprepared scholars. For the first four years of the child's school life he is taught without books—reading-books of course excepted. The elements of language, number, place, color, and form; lessons in "objects," drawing, singing, as well as arithmetic and geography are taught by the living voice of the teacher, aided by maps, charts, pictures, real "objects" when they can be introduced, and an unremitting use of the blackboard. * * * Of the

¹ New York State School Report for 1892.

"objective system" of teaching pursued in these schools, I can not speak too highly. I have examined and studied it very closely and I do not hesitate to say that it is not only a good system, but the only good system that I have seen for the rational education of young children. * * * The training school is intended to prepare teachers for conducting the exercises of the "Oswego system," and is admirably fitted to accomplish this result. It is divided into two sections whose time is divided equally between learning and teaching. One section "recites" in the morning and teaches in the afternoon, the other recites in the afternoon and teaches in the morning. The students are not permitted to give any lesson to the section until they have rehearsed the same lesson themselves, and have written out a careful analysis of it.¹

For a more detailed and very excellent account of the Oswego school, the reader is referred to Circular No. 1, 1891, of the United States Bureau of Education, by Prof. J. P. Gordy. The tree planted at Albany in 1844 now began to yield an annual harvest.

The normal school at Brockport was established in 1867; Fredonia, in 1868; Cortland and Potsdam, in 1869; Buffalo and Geneseo, in 1871; and, after a rest of fifteen years, Newpaltz, in 1886; Oneonta, in 1889, and Plattsburg, in 1890. Though each of these schools has some distinguishing peculiarities, it would be tedious and unprofitable to discuss them separately, especially as at present (1891) they are all working under the following uniform curriculum, prescribed and enforced by the State superintendent of public instruction:

COURSE OF STUDY.

The following is the course of study now in force in the different normal schools: The elementary English course will be discontinued after the school year 1891-92, and the requirements for graduation will then be at least the work now laid out in the "Advanced English course," which will then be designated as the "English course."

ELEMENTARY ENGLISH COURSE.

FIRST YEAR.

First term.—Arithmetic, composition and grammar, botany and familiar science, linear drawing, reading, vocal music, physical culture.

Second term.—Algebra, composition and rhetoric, physiology and zoology, physical geography and map drawing, reading, vocal music, physical culture, a course of reading in history of the United States.

On completing the work of this year, pupils may be admitted to the professional work, as indicated in the second year of this course, if, in the judgment of the faculty, they are sufficiently mature, and have sufficient mental discipline to enable them to do it successfully; otherwise, they will be required to go on with the subject work in one of the advanced courses until the faculty may deem them prepared to take up the study of philosophy of education and methods.

SECOND YEAR.

First term.—Philosophy and history of education, school economy, civil government and school law, methods of teaching the elementary English branches, methods of giving object lessons, including lessons on objects, form, drawing, size, color, place, weight, sound, animals, plants, human body, moral instruction, general science, and common manufactures, declamations, essays, and select readings.

Second term.—Teaching in school of practice, a course of reading connected with professional work, essays, declamations, and select readings.

ADVANCED ENGLISH COURSE.

Students, to be admitted to this course, must pass a satisfactory examination in all studies in the first year in the elementary English course.

FIRST YEAR.

First term.—Algebra, geometry, English literature, physics, declamations, essays, and select readings.

¹ First report of the State superintendent of public instruction of Maryland.

Second term.—Rhetoric, general history, trigonometry, perspective drawing, chemistry, geometry, declamations, essays, and select readings.

SECOND YEAR.

First term.—Philosophy and history of education, school economy, civil government and school law, methods of teaching the elementary English branches, methods of giving object lessons, including lessons on objects, form, drawing, size, color, place, weight, sound, animals, plants, human body, moral instruction, general science, and common manufactures, orations or essays, and select readings.

Second term.—Mineralogy and geology, astronomy (half term), orations or essays and select readings, teaching in school of practice, a course of reading connected with professional work.

CLASSICAL COURSE.

Students, to be admitted to this course, must pass a satisfactory examination in all the studies of the first year of the elementary English course.

FIRST YEAR.

First term.—Algebra, geometry, Latin, English literature, declamations, essays, and select readings.

Second term.—Latin, general history, rhetoric, geometry, trigonometry, declamations, essays, and select readings.

SECOND YEAR.

First term.—Latin, Greek or French or German, physics, astronomy (half term), orations or essays, and select readings.

Second term.—Latin, Greek or French or German, chemistry, mineralogy and geology, orations or essays, and select readings.

THIRD YEAR.

First term.—Latin, Greek or French or German, philosophy and history of education, civil government and school law, school economy, orations or essays, methods of teaching the elementary branches, methods of giving object lessons, including lessons on objects, form, drawing, size, color, place, weight, sound, animals, plants, human body, moral instruction, general science, and common manufactures.

Second term.—Latin, Greek or French or German, teaching in school of practice, orations or essays, a course of reading connected with professional work.

SCIENTIFIC COURSE.

This course includes all the subjects of the advanced English course, together with a two years' course in two of the following languages: Latin, French, German, Greek.

It must not be inferred that all the State normal schools of New York are purely and simply "training schools for teachers." Nothing is easier than to write a uniform programme; nothing more difficult than to carry the ideal into practice. And it is well that it is so; a school without individuality is simply a wheel in a machine. Differences of situation, of local surroundings, of inherited traditions, of present aspirations, will differentiate the schools, whatever may be the outward bond of uniformity. It would not be surprising if, even at present, comparing the "training school" theory with the academic practice, it should be hard to determine which is the main building and which the annex.

POTSDAM.

Music seems to be a specialty in the Potsdam Normal School. The Outline of Work in Music in the State Normal and Training School, Potsdam, N. Y., is an 8vo. pamphlet of 34 pages, the substance of which may be gathered from a circular of the school bearing date January 1, 1890, and containing the new uniform curriculum:

OUTLINE OF COURSE IN VOCAL CULTURE AND SINGING.

First year.—Voice placing, breathing studies, special attention to distinct articulation, purity of tone and clear intonation; English songs and ballads.

Second year.—Study of vowels and consonants, development of voice in clear and

somber timbres, mechanical exercises for execution, chromatic scale, preparatory studies for trill, English and Italian songs and arias.

Third year.—Studies in execution continued, trill and other embellishments, study of selections from operas and oratorios, study for intelligent interpretation of the best songs.

Fourth year.—Studies in execution continued; study of classical songs, selections from opera and oratorio; French, German, and Italian songs; special attention paid to delivery, facial expression, and stage presence.

A diploma will be given to those completing the course satisfactorily.

PIANO FORTE.

First grade.—Emery's Foundation Studies, or Part First of New England Conservatory Method

Second grade.—Twelve Little Studies, Kohler, op. 157. Kohler, op. 50. Loeschhorn, op. 52. Duvernoy, op. 120. Loeschhorn, op. 66. Major and Minor Scales and Arpeggios from "Complete set of scales," by A. D. Turner. Easy and progressive pieces. Clementi's Sonatinas. Daily practice of technique.

Third grade.—Bertini, op. 29. Berens, op. 61. Heller, op. 46. Turner's Melodious Studies, op. 30. Study of Octaves. Krause, op. 5. Kohler, op. 128. Bach's "Little preludes and two part inventions" (ed. by F. Kullak). Pieces for left hand alone, Hummel, op. 43. Pieces by Mozart, Haydn, Mendelssohn, and modern composers. Daily practice of technique.

Fourth grade.—Turner's Elements of Modern Octave Playing. Cramer's Studies (Bulow edition). Bach's Three Part Inventions. Damper Pedal Studies, op. 15, by A. D. Turner. Clementi's Gradus ad Parnassum (ed. by Tausig). Studies for left hand, by Rheinberger, and A. D. Turner's op. 29. Selections from Mendelssohn, Beethoven, Schumann, Chopin, and other composers. Daily practice of technique.

Fifth grade.—Moscheles, op. 70. Bach's Inventions. Bertini, op. 66. Mayer, op. 119. Selections from Schumann, Chopin, Mendelssohn, Beethoven, Liszt. Mozart's Concertos. Pieces committed to memory. Daily practice of technique. Study of harmony.

Chopin, op. 10. Selections from Bach's "English Suites" and "Well Tempered Clavichord." Kullak's Octave Studies. Selections from Chopin, Schumann, and Liszt. Concertos and concert pieces by the classic composers. Two piano pieces. Daily practice of technique. Study of harmony.

Of the 19 teachers in the "Faculty," 5 and an assistant are devoted exclusively to music.

The Potsdam school has also issued, among other pedagogic circulars, an "Outline of the work in primary methods," 39 pages 8vo., in the main an admirable compend and guide for the use of young and untrained teachers, but without originality. The "Object lessons" are no improvement on the pioneer efforts of Miss Elizabeth Mayo, nearly half a century ago, as will be seen from the following extracts from the "Outline:"

QUALITIES FOR LESSONS IN PART II AND PART III.

Light. Because shavings, feathers, wool, curled hair, dry leaves, etc., are easy to lift or carry, they are said to be light.

Heavy. Because iron, lead, stone, marble, silver, gold, etc., are not easy to lift or carry, they are said to be heavy.

Artificial. Because flowers, fruit, etc., are made by man to look like those made by God, they are said to be artificial.

Useful. Because wood, iron, etc., are of use to man, they are said to be useful.

Adhesive. Because gum, sealing wax (when heated), etc., stick or adhere, they are said to be adhesive.

Soluble. Because sugar, salt, etc., will dissolve in water, they are said to be soluble.

Caution.—If substances not soluble in water, but soluble in spirits, are mentioned, be sure to name the solvent.

Insoluble.

Compressible. Because bread, sponge, etc., can be made smaller by squeezing or pressing, they are said to be compressible.

Incompressible.

Preservative. Because sugar, salt, salt-peter, etc., will keep or preserve meat, fruit, etc., they are said to be preservative.

Aromatic. Because cinnamon, sassafras, etc., have a fragrant odor and pleasant, spicy taste, they are said to be aromatic.

Pungent. Because pepper, mustard, etc., have a sharp, hot, biting taste, they are said to be pungent.

Fusible. Because wax, lead, etc., will melt, they are said to be fusible.

Pulverable.

Ductile.

Pliable.

Reflective.

Permeable.

Impermeable.

Medicinal.

Manufactured.

Lessons on manufacture appeal strongly to conception. They lead children to be observing.

Brittle. Because crayon, glass, china, etc., break easily with a snap, they are said to be brittle.

Tough.

Porous. Because bread, sponge, cork, bone, etc., are full of little holes or pores, they are said to be porous.

Fibrous. Because rope, corn stalks, etc., are made of little threads or fibers, they are said to be fibrous.

Liquid. Because water, milk, etc., can be poured out in drops, they are said to be liquid.

Solid. Because sand, corn, stone, etc., can not be poured out in drops, they are said to be solid.

Crumbling. Because bread, cake, etc., break easily into little pieces (crumbs), they are said to be crumbling.

Odorous. Because camphor, perfumery, etc., have an odor, they are said to be odorous.

Inodorous.

Fragrant. Because (some) flowers, oranges, etc., have a pleasant odor, they are said to be fragrant.

Acid. Because lemon, vinegar, cream of tartar, etc., have a sour taste, they are said to be acid.

Flexible. Because whalebone, etc., bend easily without breaking, they are said to be flexible.

Elastic. Because whalebone, rubber, etc., will bend when pressed, and then go back (return) to form (or shape), they are said to be elastic.

Opaque. Because milk, stone, wood, etc., can not be seen through, they are said to be opaque.

Transparent. Because glass, water, air, etc., can be plainly seen through, they are said to be transparent.

Semitransparent. Because mica, thin paper, oiled paper, etc., can be dimly seen through, they are said to be semitransparent.

Sapid. Because bread, milk, etc., have a taste, they are said to be sapid.

Inspid. Because water, etc., have little or no taste, they are said to be inspid.

Palatable. Because bread, milk, etc., have a pleasant taste, they are said to be palatable.

Wholesome.

Nourishing.

Saline. Because salt, etc., have a salt taste, they are said to be saline.

Combustible. Because cloth, sponge, wood, etc., will burn, they are said to be combustible.

Inflammable. Because wood, etc., burn with a flame, they are said to be inflammable.

Durable. Because hard wood, iron, etc., will last a long time, they are said to be durable.

Hard. Because wood, iron, etc., do not give or yield easily to the touch, they are said to be hard.

Soft. Because wool, sponge, etc., give or yield easily to the touch, they are said to be soft.

Buoyant. Because wood, cork, etc., float upon water, they are said to be buoyant.

Absorbent. Because bread, sponge, etc., soak up or absorb water, milk, etc., they are said to be absorbent.

Sparkling. Because salt, loaf sugar, etc., shine or sparkle in little points, they are said to be sparkling.

Granular. Because salt, sugar, etc., are made up of little grains, they are said to be granular.

Vegetable. Because trees, grass, etc., grow from the ground, they are said to be vegetable.

Animal. Because leather, etc., are obtained from animals, they are said to be animal substances.

Mineral. Because iron, lead, etc., are dug from mines in the ground, they are said to be minerals.

Natural. Because God made trees, grass, etc., they are said to be natural.

The "Outline of Work in Grammar," published by the same school, is a very interesting pamphlet of 64 pages. It contains a syllabus of the work in grammar for several terms, the last term being in the first year of the normal course. From this "Seventh Term in Grammar" a single page is selected to show the analytical spirit that pervades the whole course.

I. CONNECTIVES: co-ordinate.

1. *Parts of Speech*—conjunctions.

2. *Kinds*:

a. Copulative conjunctions are—

(1) Principal—"and."

(2) Associate copulative connectives, used for emphasis or some additional idea—*so, also, likewise, moreover, too, besides, now*.

(3) Correlative co-ordinate connectives, not only awaken an expectation of something additional, but make the second part emphatic—*both, and, as well as, first, secondly, etc.*

b. Adversative connectives.

(1) Principal adversative, "but."

(2) Associate adversative used for emphasis or some additional idea—*yet, still, nevertheless, notwithstanding, however*.

(3) Correlative Adversatives—*not only—but; but also; but likewise*.

c. Alternative co-ordinate connectives.

(1) Principal—"or" which offers, "nor" which denies a choice.

(2) Associate alternatives for emphasis—*else, otherwise*.

(3) Correlatives—*either—or, neither—nor*.

d. Illatives imply consequence or inference.

(1) Principal connective usually understood, "and."

(2) Associate connectives indicating inference—*hence, thence, therefore, wherefore, consequently, accordingly, as, etc.*

II. CONNECTIVES: subordinate.

1. *Definition*.

2. *Classification*.

[1] Connecting substantive clauses.

a. Connecting statements [conjunctions]—*that, that not, but, but not*.

b. Containing questions [interrogative adjectives, adverbs and pronouns]—*which, what, who, where, whither, whence, when, how long, how often, why, how*.

[2] Connecting adjective clauses [relative pronouns, relative adverbs]—*who, which, what, that; whoever, whosoever; whichever, whichever; when, where, why*.

[3] Connecting adverbial clauses [conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs].

a. Local, or connectives of place—*where, whither, whence, etc.*

b. Temporal, or connectives expressing time—*when, while, as, before, after, till, until, since, whenever, soon as, etc.*

c. Causal:

(1) Causal—*because, for, as, since, etc.*

(2) Conditional—*if, unless, except, provided that*.

(3) Final—*that, that not, lest, so that, such that*.

(4) Concessive—*though, although, notwithstanding, however, whatever, with their correlatives, yet, still, nevertheless*.

d. Manner or degree: (1) Correspondence—*just as, same as, such as;*

(2) Comparison—

1. Equality—*as—as*.

2. Inequality—*than, more than, less than*.

3. Proportionate equality—*the—the, the—so much the*.

THE NEW ADVANCE.

The honest intention and earnest desire of the State school authorities of New York to make their normal schools distinctly professional, and to exclude from them the two classes of students that have heretofore interfered with the declared purposes of these schools—those who desired boarding-school veneering, and those who needed preparatory education which they could have obtained at home—are made manifest by the following extracts from the circular of the State superintendent (November 1, 1890) already quoted from.

No students can be admitted who have not already acquired a substantial elementary education. This can be gained in all the ordinary schools, and the professional training schools can not properly be taxed with work which the common schools can perform as well. * * * There is room and welcome in the normal schools for the graduates of the elementary and secondary schools, and even for those who have made substantial advancement in the elementary course without technical graduation, provided they give promise of becoming successful teachers, and possess the desire to become such; but *there is no room for students who have laid no real foundation for professional training, and who have no well-determined purpose about the matter, and no fair conception of the responsibilities and obligations of a teacher's occupation.* [*Italics are the editor's.*] * * * No student is desired at a normal school who does not read readily and intelligibly, spell correctly, and write legibly and neatly. Regardless of diplomas, certificates, and examinations, principals will refuse admittance to all students who do not possess these acquisitions in a highly creditable degree.

If these conditions are complied with in good faith, New York may well boast of having the best arranged and most perfectly equipped system of normal schools in this country.

The preparation actually required and exacted from candidates for admission to the New York normal schools will be best understood from the following sets of examination papers:

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

[Prepared by a committee of normal principals and published by the State department of public instruction.]

Entrance examination, February, 1900.

Write the subject of the examination, your name, and the date at the head of your papers.

The work should be written out in full in the answers.

Correct answers will receive ten credits each, and a proportionately less number will be allowed as the answer approximates correctness or shows knowledge of principles.

In order to secure admission candidates must gain an average of seventy credits in the three branches and not fall below sixty credits in any one of them.

Use care in spelling, writing, and general neatness of appearance.

ARITHMETIC.

1. What is a proof for division? Define a composite number. Define the prime factors of a number. After several numbers have been resolved into their prime factors, how is the G. C. D. of those numbers found? How their L. C. M.?
2. Reduce $17\frac{1}{4}$ to twelfths and write the analysis.
3. If it takes one man $7\frac{1}{4}$ days to do a piece of work, how long will it take three men to do $2\frac{3}{4}$ times as much?
4. Multiply nine thousandths by eight hundred and divide the product by thirty-six millionths.
5. You sell to-day to James Carson for cash 2 bbl. flour, at \$6.25 per bbl.; 264 lb. corn meal, at \$1.10 per cwt., and 1,850 lb. coal, at \$5 per ton. Make out bill in proper form.
6. Having lost $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of his capital, a man had \$10,850 left. How much did he lose?
7. Write an ordinary bank note, dated to-day, for \$200 at 60 days, and find its proceeds if discounted at a bank.
8. At \$5.75 per bbl., what costs 3 bbl., 17 gal., 2 qt. of vinegar?

9. What is the exact contents, in cubic yards, of a cellar wall 2 feet thick and 9 feet high, whose outside measurement is 36 feet by 24 feet?
10. How many rods on the side of a square field containing 100 acres?

GEOGRAPHY.

1. What determines the position of the tropics and polar circles?
2. Define latitude, longitude, isothermal lines, river system, and promontory.
3. Name three canals of New York State and state what waters they connect.
4. Mention three counties of New York State on islands.
5. Locate the following cities and give a fact about each: Chicago, Boston, Riga, Bombay, Glasgow.
6. In what zone is Asia situated?
7. Name and locate two lakes of Africa.
8. On what waters would you sail from Edinburgh to St. Petersburg?
9. Describe the largest river in South America.
10. Mention two conditions which determine the climate of a place.

GRAMMAR.

- (1.) "You all did see that, on the Lupercal I thrice presented him a kingly crown, Which he did thrice refuse." (2.) "The mellow year is hasting to its close; The little birds have sung their last." (3.) "So sweet a kiss the golden sun gives not To those fresh morning drops upon the rose."
1. Diagram or analyze sentence (1) by any method you may have learned.
2. Parse the verb of the principal clause in (1).
3. Decline and parse all the pronouns in (1).
4. Parse all the verbs in (2).
5. Select the nouns in (3), tell their cases and give reasons.
6. Select and classify the adjectives in (3).
7. Write a sentence containing a verb in the active voice, and recast the sentence so that the verb shall be in the passive voice.
8. Write a sentence containing a predicate adjective.
9. Correct the following sentences:
 - (a) The number of students are very great.
 - (b) Everyone has their enemies.
 - (c) This is the friend which I love.
 - (d) George sent you and I some candy.
 - (e) Either Mary or John have gone.
10. Write a composition containing not less than fifty words, setting forth your idea of the usefulness of studying grammar.

Entrance examination, September, 1900.

ARITHMETIC.

1. What is the name of (a) the tenth period in whole numbers; (b) the sixth period in decimals; (c) the eighth place in decimals.
2. Write twenty whole numbers of six significant figures each, and add them.
3. Illustrate your method of verifying your work when you have multiplied two large numbers together.
4. Find (a) G. C. D. of 1872 and 432 by two methods; (b) L. C. M. of same two numbers.
5. Divide $(2\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4})$ by $(2\frac{1}{2} - 1\frac{1}{2})$ and reduce the number to a decimal.
6. How many yards of carpet $\frac{3}{4}$ of a yard wide is required to cover a floor 17 feet long and 16 feet 6 inches wide?
7. In what time will \$680, at 4 per cent simple interest, amount to \$727.60?
8. A collector who charges 8 per cent commission on what he collects pays me \$534.75 on a bill for \$775, how much of the bill remains uncollected?
9. A cellar is to be dug 30 feet long and 20 feet wide. At what depth will 100 cubic yards of earth have been removed?
10. How many feet, board measure, in a plank 16 feet 4 inches long, 1 foot 7 inches wide, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick?

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Name the counties bordering on (a) the Hudson River; (b) Lake Ontario.
2. In what county is (a) Rochester; (b) Syracuse; (c) Binghamton; (d) Middletown; (e) Jamestown; (f) Utica; (g) Poughkeepsie.
3. List of the cities named in question 2 in order of greatest population.
4. Name (a) the four longest railroads in this State; (b) their termini; (c) the cities through which they pass, respectively.

5. By what number, approximately, would you multiply the population of New York State to produce the population of the United States?
6. How many (a) States in the United States; (b) Territories.
7. Name (a) the Territories; (b) the States that have been admitted since the last Presidential election.
8. Name three railroad lines to the Pacific coast.
9. Name the largest State in area in the United States and compare it in size with (a) France; (b) the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; (c) Germany; (d) Russia.
10. Draw a rough outline map of the Western Hemisphere and locate the large (a) political divisions; (b) rivers; (c) mountains; (d) bays; (e) gulfs; (f) capes.

GRAMMAR.

1. Give a synopsis of the verb "to see" in the third person singular of all the modes and tenses in the active voice.
2. *Classify adjectives and give illustrations.*
3. Compare much, ill, able, faithful.
4. Give the rule for the formation of the possessive case.
5. Write the possessive case plural of sheep, man, lady, enemy, son-in-law.
6. Name the grammatical forms of the parts of speech and the parts of speech to which they severally apply.
7. Copy the following and underscore the logical subjects once and the grammatical subjects twice: (a) "A thing of beauty is a joy forever;" (b) Chaucer, the father of English poetry, wrote the *Canterbury Tales*;" (c) "The morn, in russet mantle clad, walks o'er the dew of yon high eastern hill."
8. Diagram or analyze the following by any method: "Franklin, who afterwards became a distinguished statesman and philosopher, learned his trade in the printing office of his brother, who published a paper in Boston."
9. In the first five questions make a list of (a) the nouns and their cases; (b) the verbs and their principal parts; (c) the prepositions and their terms of relation.
10. Write a description of some village or city—seventy-five words. Give special attention to punctuation and capitalization.

In this "new departure," or to speak more accurately, in this return to first principles, the Albany school is expected to take the lead. The executive committee, to whom the reorganization of the school was committed, found that the instruction heretofore given had been chiefly academic; that teachers had been chosen for their scholarship rather than for pronounced professional ability; that the work done in the early years was largely the same as was done in the academies and high schools; that while increased attention was being given to pedagogy, yet the conditions of admission were so low that students of very meager attainments in scholarship were permitted to enter, and consequently a large part of the time of the teachers was spent in teaching subjects usually taught in academies and high schools; that the expectation that graduates of the normal school would become teachers of district schools had not been realized, because such graduates could command a larger salary than districts were able to pay; that consequently the district schools must secure their teachers from the union schools, academies, and high schools; and that it would be wise and economical to offer in the Albany school a course of study which should prepare its graduates to become "teachers and trainers of those persons in the union schools, academies, and high schools who are to become the instructors of the young in small or sparsely settled communities."

English course.

Candidates for admission are required to be at least 17 years of age and to pass a satisfactory examination in the following subjects for admission to the English course:

Arithmetic.	Rhetoric.	Geography.	Physics.
Algebra through	English literature.	American history.	Chemistry.
quadratics.	Bookkeeping.	General history.	Astronomy.
Geometry.	Civil government.	Botany.	Geology.
Plane trigonometry.	Elements of linear	Physiology.	
Grammar.	drawing.	Zoology.	

No "degree" is to be conferred on graduates of this course, but they will receive a diploma which authorizes them to teach in the public schools of the State.

Classical course.

Candidates for admission must be at least 17 years of age, but no one will be graduated who is not at least 20 years of age. The entrance examination embraces all the subjects required for entrance to the English course and in addition—

Caesar, three books.

Xenophon's *Anabasis*, three books.

Cicero, *six orations*.

Homer's *Iliad*, three books.

Virgil's *Æneid*, six books.

Greek prose composition.

Latin prose composition.

Instead of the requirements in Greek, candidates may offer a two-years' course in French or German or a less amount of both.

COURSE OF STUDY.

First term.—Philosophy of education, school economy, drawing; methods of teaching the following subjects; Number, arithmetic, botany, place, geography, physiology, color, language, grammar, zoology, object lessons, reading, penmanship, composition; a course of reading connected with professional work.

Second term.—Methods of teaching the following subjects; Algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, Latin, rhetoric, mineralogy, geology, astronomy, preparation of specimens and apparatus.

Third term.—Methods of teaching the following subjects: Latin, Greek or French or German, history, solid geometry, mensuration, physical geography, civil government, trigonometry, sanitary science, bookkeeping, school architecture, preparation of specimens and apparatus.

Fourth term.—History of education, school law, kindergarten methods; methods of teaching the following subjects: Music, drawing, physical culture, elocution, teaching in model school; a course of reading connected with professional work; discussion of educational themes.

Graduates of this course receive the degree of "Bachelor of Pedagogy." Future announcements will prescribe the conditions on which the degrees of "Master of Pedagogy" and "Doctor of Pedagogy" will be conferred.

TEACHERS' TRAINING CLASSES.

The number of teachers employed in the public schools of New York is, according to the last report of the State superintendent (1891), 31,703. Reckoning the average professional life of a teacher at five years, the State requires at least 6,000 new teachers every year. The normal schools send out fewer than 1,000 graduates every year. Estimating the number of graduates and undergraduates of the normal schools who go into the schools as teachers at 1,500, there is still a large deficit of trained or partly trained teachers. How is this deficiency to be supplied? The answer has been already given—by establishing training classes in connection with the academies and union schools. The legislature in 1890 passed an "Act in regard to professional instruction of common-school teachers in academies and union schools," and appropriating \$60,000 annually "for the instruction of competent persons in academies and union schools in the science and practice of common-school teaching, under a course to be prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction," who is to designate the academies and union schools in which such instruction shall be given and also to prescribe for them a uniform curriculum. The purpose and scope of these training classes—they would have been called normal schools a few years before—will be best understood by reading the "curriculum."

COURSE OF STUDY.

The following course of study is prescribed upon the advice of a committee of principals representing the union schools and academies of the State. This course was devised to meet the requirements of the uniform system for teachers' certificates and to satisfy the conditions for admission to advanced classes in the normal schools of the State:

First term.

FIRST RECITATION—ARITHMETIC.

[One recitation daily throughout the term.]

Review of the following topics with special reference to teaching:

1. Definition of terms.
2. Notation and numeration.
Numbers in the decimal scale; numbers in varying scales; fractions; expressions of per cent.
3. The four fundamental processes applied to numbers in the decimal scale; numbers in varying scales; fractions.
4. Reductions.
Decimals; fractions; numbers in varying scales.
5. Properties of numbers.
Classification; factors; divisors; multiples.
6. Ratio and proportion.
7. Involution and square root.
8. Practical measurements.
9. Applications of percentage—in which time is not an element.
10. Interest and discount.
Partial payments by United States rule; true discount; bank discount; commercial discount.

SECOND RECITATION—GEOGRAPHY.

[One recitation daily for eight weeks.]

Review of the following topics with special reference to teaching:

1. Definition of terms.
2. Shape, size, and motions of the earth; day and night; the seasons.
3. State of New York.
Boundaries and extent; mountains; rivers and lakes; counties; cities and important villages; agricultural and mineral productions; commerce; railroads and navigable waters; climate; industries or occupations; places noted for natural scenery; places of historic interest.
4. The United States.
Boundaries and extent; States and Territories; mountain and river systems; agricultural and mineral productions; important cities; population; commerce and transcontinental lines of travel; industries or occupation.
5. Other countries of the world, especially Europe.
6. The great mountain systems and ranges of the world.
7. The principal rivers of the world.
8. Latitude and longitude; local and standard time.
9. Physical phenomena.
Climate; tides; ocean currents and trade winds.
10. Races of men.
Location; characteristics; occupations.

The remainder of the term is to be devoted to the study of methods of teaching. The relative time given to each of the following subjects is left to the discretion of the instructor:

METHODS IN PRIMARY NUMBER.

[See Observation and practice work.]

METHODS IN GEOGRAPHY.

[See Observation and practice work.]

Second term.

FIRST RECITATION—LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR.

[One recitation daily through the term.]

Review of the following topics with special reference to teaching:

1. Definition of terms.
2. Parts of speech.
Classes; modifications; inflections; syntax.
3. Analysis of sentences.
Principal clauses; subordinate clauses; analysis of clauses; modifiers—words, phrases, clauses; classification of modifiers as to office.

4. Construction—involving a knowledge of the foregoing topics.

5. Composition.

Divisions—subject, heads, thoughts. About familiar subjects—objects, animals, metals, plants, incidents.

Letter writing, bills, orders, receipts, acknowledgments, introductions.

SECOND RECITATION—PHYSIOLOGY.

[Four weeks.]

Review with special reference to teaching. (See syllabus.)

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND SCHOOL LAW.

[Four weeks. See syllabus.]

The remainder of the term is to be devoted to methods of teaching. The relative time given to each of the following subjects is left to the discretion of the instructor:

METHODS OF TEACHING READING.

[See Observation and practice work.]

METHODS OF TEACHING LANGUAGE.

[See Observation and practice work.]

1. *Form-study and drawing*, one recitation every week through each term. The particular day of the week is left to the convenience of the instructor. Where desirable this topic may be presented each day consecutively until completed.

2. *The examination* of the training classes under the uniform system will be held the third Saturday of January and the second Saturday of June.

3. *The laws of mental development and principles of teaching* are to be considered especially in the study of methods of teaching; but as these laws and principles are fundamental to the professional study of the teacher, they can be illustrated and developed in connection with any of the above subjects of study.

OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE WORK.

1. The course of study devotes ten weeks each term to the special study of methods of teaching; during the first term, ten weeks to number and geography; during the second term, ten weeks to reading and language. Part of the time given to these topics must be spent in observation and practice work under the direction of the instructor of the class acting as critic. One consideration specially noted in granting applications is the opportunities afforded for observation and practice work, and it is insisted that these opportunities be improved.

2. *Observation.* In addition to receiving methods of teaching on the authority of the instructor, it is very important that the members should be trained to critically observe and intelligently interpret the principles of teaching by being brought in contact with the pupils in the actual work of imparting instruction. To afford this training, it is expected that the critic teacher, at least twice a week, will give an opportunity to witness practical work, either by taking the class to other departments of the school to observe the work of experienced teachers, or by bringing pupils from other departments to receive a model lesson from the critic teacher.

3. For *practice work* it is recommended that each member be given actual work in teaching, both by taking charge of a class in other departments of the school as often as is consistent with the work of the school, and by having pupils brought before the training class to receive a lesson from a member designated for that purpose.

4. At a subsequent recitation let this observation and practice work be reviewed by the critic teacher, the underlying principles clearly brought out, and the proper methods forcibly presented. In the presentation of the methods the outlines as given in the syllabus may prove suggestive to the critic teacher. The time devoted to the observation work and the criticisms on the work will be accounted part of the regular daily periods of class instruction.

5. Very much depends upon the instructor of these classes whether the instruction and practice drill are of proper grade and character. The number of graduates sent out each year from our normal schools is ample to furnish competent and thoroughly trained teachers to take charge of the classes. Duty to the common schools demands thoroughly trained teachers for this work.

6. If the inspector in his visitations shall find any person in charge of the instruction who is not qualified by professional study or experience to properly present the work,

he is authorized to report the fact to the superintendent, who will annul the appointment to instruct such a class.

SYLLABUS.

The following outlines are presented to aid in the study of methods of teaching, as prescribed during the last ten weeks of each term. Inasmuch as the training classes are not all of the same grade of scholarship, these outlines are not given with the expectation that they are to be followed strictly to the letter, but rather as suggestions to teachers who have no better plan of work.

FORM STUDY AND DRAWING.

The syllabus for work in form study and drawing will be the course prepared by the late Dr. French and issued by the Department of Public Instruction.

THE MENTAL POWERS AND THE LAWS OF MENTAL DEVELOPMENT.

- I. The mind:
 - (1) The teacher must have practical knowledge of the mind.
 - (2) The laws of its growth.
 - (3) Means of its culture.
 - (4) The right methods of using the means of culture.
 - (5) What the mind is, and does.
- II. Attention:
 - (1) How to secure.
 - (2) How to retain.
 - (3) Conditions of.
- III. How knowledge is gained:

Perception—

 - (1) Ideas of pressure and resistance. The sense of muscular resistance.
 - (2) Ideas in regard to the surface of objects. Touch and its organs.
 - (3) Ideas of flavor. Taste.
 - (4) Ideas of odor. Smell.
 - (5) Ideas of sound. Hearing.
 - (6) Ideas of light and color. Sight.
 - (7) Secondary (or acquired) perceptions.
 - (8) Law:—Ideas belonging to one sense can not be conveyed through another sense. Application of this law in teaching.
 - (9) Sense training.
 - (a) Neglect of.
 - (b) Importance of.
 - (c) Best means of.
- IV. Memory.

Two-fold character:—Reproduction and recognition, spontaneous and voluntary.

Kinds.

 - { Arbitrary—Rote learning.
 - { Suggestive—Learning by heart.
 - { Associative.

Growth of memory—"Plastic Period."

How best cultivated.

Educational value.

On what depends.

Kinds.

 - { Reproductive.
 - { Constructive.
- V. Imagination.

Necessity of training.

Its utility in education and in life.

Means of cultivation.

Relation to general school work.

Relation to preceding powers.

Results to be aimed at by teacher.
- VI. Reason.

Kinds.

 - { Inductive. Deductive.
 - { Analytical. Synthetical.
 - { Demonstrative. Dogmatic.

Means of cultivation.

Senses trained by object-teaching.
- VII. Principles of mental culture.

Ideas before words; thoughts before sentences; knowledge before definitions; facts before inferences; processes before rules.

Power to do comes by doing. Power to think comes by thinking.

Right habits result from acts frequently and rightly performed.

METHODS IN NUMBER.

I. Preliminary selections:

- (1) Distinguish between number-teaching and the formal teaching of arithmetic.
- (2) Arithmetic is a science and an art.
- (3) A brief presentation of the mental faculties that are brought into action and developed by its study and practice and a brief study of each faculty.
- (4) *The mental principles upon which recognized or accepted pedagogical rules are based, and their application in teaching arithmetic.*

II. Primary work:

- (1) Method—concrete.
- (2) Furniture.
 - (a) Frames.
 - (b) Pictures.
 - (c) Counters—beans, corn, pebbles, etc.
- (3) Write numbers.
 - (a) Distinguish between the object and the number. Object word—figure.
- (4) The idea of number.
 - (a) Its expression.
 - (b) The relation of numbers.
 - (c) Kinds of numbers.
- (5) Develop the idea of the order and relation of the figures in the numbers. (Ideas of the meaning of each step dwelt on until comprehended. Explanations and practice in the use of numbers.) Grube's method.
- (6) (a) Limitations of first year's work; outline of second; development of each number; combining and separating.
 - (b) Develop idea of the terms, and define.
 - (c) Develop idea of operations, and give rule.
 - (d) Develop idea of proofs, and state methods.
 - (e) Make tables.
 - (f) Give examples.
- (7) Teaching of the fundamental rules.
 - (a) Methods of teaching reading and writing numbers.
 - (b) Systems of practice in addition to gain rapidity and exactness.

III. Factoring:

- (1) Development of: *divisors, multiples, terms, principles.*
- (2) Operations and applications illustrated by examples and problems.

IV. Fractions. Development of:

- (1) The idea of a fraction.
- (2) The terms, forms, values, classes, uses, changes in forms.
- (3) Operations, principles, reduction.

V. Decimal fractions:

- (1) Treated the same as common fractions.
- (2) The distinctions between decimal and common fractions and simple whole numbers made clear.

VI. Denominate numbers:

- (1) Development of tables, scales, their meaning, use, and how derived.
- (2) Kinds of units as to form, name, and application.
- (3) Reductions, principles, and operations developed from work.

VII. Percentage:

- (1) Derivation, meaning and application of the term.
- (2) Development of terms, definitions and principles.
- (3) Elements of: base, rate, percentage, difference, and amount.
- (4) Development of formulas and rules.
- (5) Oral and written solutions of examples and problems.

METHODS IN GEOGRAPHY.

I. Local primary:

- (1) The hands and pointing.
- (2) Direction and facing.
- (3) Location and direction.
- (4) Points of the compass.
- (5) Lines and their names.
- (6) Lines for the points of the compass.
- (7) Draw ground plan of a schoolroom.
- (8) Plan of lot and house.
- (9) How to begin map study.

II. Advanced primary:

- (1) Study of district, with roads, bridges, buildings, railroads, and water courses.
- (2) Study of township, with villages, hamlets, streams, and bodies of water.
- (3) Study of township, with the surrounding towns.
- (4) Draw outline map of county, with township lines.
- (5) How to go from county to the earth as a whole.

III. General study of countries:

- (1) Position.
- (2) Boundaries—outline map.
- (3) Relief.
- (4) Drainage.
- (5) Soil.
- (6) Climate.
- (7) Vegetation—Flora.
- (8) Animals—Fauna.
- (9) Occupation of the inhabitants.
- (10) Talks on definitions; when to learn them and how to use them.
- (11) Suggestions in regard to arousing interest in the study.

IV. Work on State of New York:

- (1) Outline map on blackboard.
- (2) Boundaries. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Land.} \\ \text{Water.} \end{array} \right.$
- (3) Mountains—class to learn location of three or four ranges; describe in class; locate on the blackboard map.
- (4) Valleys—class to give location; describe.
- (5) Lakes—class to give location; describe.
- (6) Rivers, five largest—class to learn source, direction of flow and into what each empties; important cities on each.
- (7) Islands—class to give location; describe.
- (8) Cities—class to learn location, and important and interesting facts about buildings; processes of manufacturing articles. The work to be reproduced in composition form for next recitation.
- (9) Railroads and canals—require termini, direction; principal cities along the line; principal industries of each.
- (10) Conversational lessons—on occupation, productions, education, government, and public buildings.
- (11) Dictation on map.

PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE.

I. Utility of the study:

- (1) Practical.
 - (a) Knowledge of hygiene will affect personal habits and practices to some extent.
 - (b) An intelligent conception of the body as a piece of delicate mechanism tends to prevent its owner from trifling with it—one does not tinker with a fine watch, or entrust it to a blacksmith to be mended. Quacks and nostrums do not find favor with one that understands the body.
 - (c) Though a knowledge of hygienic laws does not always ensure their practice, yet that knowledge on the part of future parents and teachers, if well grounded in the apprehension of the perfection and complexity of the human machine, must tend to better hygienic management of children at home and at school.
- (2) Educational.
 - (a) Affords opportunity for the study of things, as opposed to the study of words and abstractions—things in which pupils may be easily interested, and of which their parents will be glad to have them learn—thus training their powers of observation and comparison.
 - (b) Serves as a center about which the teacher may group the beginnings, and the most important elementary facts of biology, chemistry, and physics.
 - (c) Gives abundant exercise in tracing out adaptations of means to ends.
 - (d) Develops the idea of analogy as distinguished from similarity.

I. Utility of the study—Continued.

- (e) As the nomenclature of anatomy and physiology is tolerably precise, recitations in these subjects give opportunity in older classes for the cultivation of accurate diction. In younger classes the propensity of bright children to delight in their ability to use new words, especially "hard names," finds natural and healthy indulgence if the teacher makes sure that they first have the ideas, and then discreetly encourages them to acquire the names; avoiding any forcing.

II. Suggestions to teachers:

- (1) Teach objectively and by observation as much as possible.
- (2) Exhibit, when possible, the part or object described, taken from the lower animals.
- (3) For objective teaching of physiology great assistance is rendered by the possession of a manikin, models, charts, microscope, and prepared specimens.
- (4) Encourage the pupils to invent simple experiments and to observe analogies from nature to illustrate the lesson.
- (5) Aim to present the laws of life in a practical way, so that they will become a guide to living.
- (6) Teach physiology by a daily practice of hygienic laws. To allow pupils to sit in draughts, to pay no attention to ventilation and arrangement of light, to be careless in regard to diet, dress, and hours of sleep, teaches to little purpose.
- (7) Show clearly, without overstatement, the pernicious effect of alcohol and narcotics upon life and health, organ and function.

III. Method of work. Primary:

- (1) The study of physiology should be confined to parts that can be seen or felt. Names should be taught, and children should be exercised in "touching." They should be led to discover the functions and adaptations of these parts, and to compare them with corresponding parts of lower animals.
- (2) All pictures or descriptions that would excite unpleasant thoughts or morbid fancies are out of place with young children.
- (3) Terms to be taught:

Head:	forearm,	root,	Neck:
trunk,	radius,	gum,	throat,
limbs,	ulna,	enamel,	windpipe,
right,	wrist,	incisors,	larynx.
left,	palm,	eyeteeth,	Breast:
Legs:	knuckles,	molars,	breast bone,
ankle,	thumb,	tongue,	ribs,
knee,	forefinger,	saliva.	arm-pits.
hip,	middle finger,	Eye:	Back:
thigh,	ring finger,	pupil,	chest,
kneecap,	little finger,	iris,	abdomen,
calf,	finger tip,	eyeball,	loins,
shin.	Skull:	socket,	spine.
Foot:	crown,	(orbit),	Skin:
toe,	hair,	eyelids,	cuticle,
nail,	face,	eyelashes,	true skin,
ball,	cheek bone,	eyebrows,	pores.
sole,	forehead,	tears.	Sweat:
instep,	temples,	Nose:	blood,
heel.	cheek,	nostrils,	arteries,
Shoulder:	chin,	bridge,	veins.
shoulder blade,	mouth,	septum.	Muscles:
collar bone,	lips,	Ear:	sinews,
arm,	teeth,	lobe,	(tendons),
elbow,	crown,	canal.	joints.

In review teach names of corresponding parts of lower animals; e. g., stifle, hock, pastern, hoof, etc.

- (4) Lessons on the care of the eyes, ears, teeth, skin, hair, hands, and feet, should be given in connection with the study of those organs, and there should be talks about habits of eating, drinking, breathing, bathing, sitting, and sleeping.

III. Method of work—Primary—Continued.

- (5) Unfortunately, object lessons on the effects of alcohol are too sadly frequent in the vicinity of most of our schools. The attention of the children may be called to the melancholy and too plainly visible effects of intemperance upon the body, and they may be led to pity the sinner and detest the sin. But the utmost care must be used not to hurt the feelings of children that suffer from the drink habit in others.

IV. Method of work. Intermediate:

In graded schools the same general method of oral work may be continued through the intermediate years. The organs and processes of digestion, circulation, respiration, and excretion should be taught. Pupils should become familiar with the location and appearance of the organs by the use of pictures and charts or blackboard drawings, by touching those parts of their bodies beneath which these organs are situated, and particularly by examining the organs themselves as found in other animals. Functions should be explained in a general way, and the hygiene of the organs carefully taught. The effect of stimulants and narcotics should be emphasized, with care to avoid extravagant statements which the observation and experience of the children would contradict.

V. How to use a text-book:

- (1) Introduce each main topic and, as far as possible, each subdivision by the exhibition and examination of a real thing—bone, muscle, nerve, brain, skin, heart, artery, lung, stomach, liver, kidney, etc.
- (2) Recitation should be both topical and by question and answer; one method for advance, another for review.
- (3) Make much use of the pictures and diagrams. Have them recited by blackboard memory sketches.
- (4) Illustrate such terms as oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, pressure of the air, carbonic acid, osmose, etc., by simple chemical and physical experiments before these terms occur in the book.

VI. How to use specimens:

When fresh joints, etc., are used for illustration, take the utmost pains to secure neatness. Use dinner plates, plenty of tissue paper or white cloth, pins and needles. Cover every part except what is to be shown. Keep all covered till the proper time comes. Have water and clean towels handy. The exhibition of the muscles and nerves, and even of the organs of respiration, circulation, and digestion of a small, cleanly animal (*e. g.*, a red squirrel), if well managed, arouses intense interest and is very instructive.

VII. How to make models and illustrative apparatus.

VIII. Reference books:

Colton's Practical Zoology (gives very full directions for the study of organs of animals); Blaisdell's Our Bodies and How We Live (contains numerous simple and practicable experiments); Martin's Human Body—Briefer Course (makes prominent the doctrines of energy, and gives good directions for demonstrations); Buckalew and Lewis's Practical Work in the Schoolroom (primary lessons); Woodhull's Manual of Homemade Apparatus; Woodhull's Simple Experiments for the Schoolroom; Lind's Easy Experiments in Chemistry and Natural Philosophy.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

I. Organization of school:

- (1) Temporary—
 - (a) Necessity of knowing what to do the first day.
 - (b) Order of the work.
 - (c) How to keep all busy.
 - (d) Manner of forming classes.
 - (e) How to change from your temporary to a permanent organization.
- (2) Permanent—
 - (a) Suggestions about forming programme.
 - (b) Number of classes.
 - (c) Order of classes.
 - (d) Time given for study—for recitation.
 - (e) Model programme for the work of an ungraded school, made out by members of the class.

- II. Sessions:
 - (1) Length.
 - (2) How divided.
 - (3) Recess.
 - (4) How long to keep young pupils in school.
- III. Study:
 - (1) Objects of study.
 - (2) Conditions requisite—
 - (a) In pupils themselves.
 - (b) In their surroundings.
 - (3) Power of concentration.
 - (4) Incentives—
 - (a) Proper.
 - (b) Doubtful.
- IV. Recitations:
 - (1) Objects.
 - (2) Methods of conducting—
 - (a) Advantages of each.
 - (b) Kind of work for which each is adapted.
 - (c) Use a variety of methods.
 - (3) Teacher's preparation—
 - (a) What it should include.
 - (b) Need of preparation.
 - (c) When teacher should use a book in the class.
- V. Questioning:
 - (1) Character of questions—
 - (a) Capacity of pupil.
 - (b) A mental force.
 - (c) Logical order.
 - (d) The first question most important.
 - (e) Teacher should study the answer before asking.
 - (2) Object of questions: To direct, to incite, to lead, to arouse, to test.
 - (3) Principles of questioning.
 - (4) Manner of giving out questions.
 - (5) Order of questions.
 - (6) Position of pupil in answering.
 - (7) Questions to be avoided.
 - (8) Answers to questions: To the point, clear, direct, concise, definite, complete.
- VI. Examinations:
 - (1) Object.
 - (2) Frequency.
 - (3) Methods.
- VII. School ethics:
 - (1) Duty of teacher.
 - (2) Duty of pupils.
 - (3) Duties of school officers.
 - (4) Duties of superintendent.
- VIII. School government:
 - (1) Object.
 - (2) School control.
 - (3) Elements of governing power.
 - (4) Cause of disorder.
 - (5) Means of avoiding disorder.
 - (6) Rules and regulations.
 - (7) School punishment.
 - (8) How to detect offenders.
 - (9) Self-reporting system.

SPELLING.

- I. Combining spelling with reading.
- II. Oral:
 - (1) Definition.
 - (2) Advantages.
 - (3) Disadvantages.
 - (4) Method of presentation.

III. Written:

- (1) Definition.
- (2) Advantages.
- (3) Disadvantages.
- (4) Method of presentation.

IV. Syllabication.

V. Word analysis:

- (1) Classes of letters—
 - (a) Vowels.
 - (b) Consonants.
- (2) Classes of words—
 - (a) Primitive.
 - (b) Derivative.
 - (c) Simple.
 - (d) Compound.

VI. Practice phonic analysis and sounds of the letters for clearness of articulation.

VII. Use of diacritical marks.

SCHOOL LAW.

I. Kinds of license:

- (1) Normal-school diploma.
- (2) State certificate.
- (3) College-graduate's certificate.
- (4) Limited license.
- (5) Certificate of board of education.
- (6) Certificate of school commissioner issued under the uniform-examination system.

II. License annulled:

- (1) Evidence against moral character.
- (2) Deficiency in learning or ability.
- (3) Appeals to State superintendent.

III. The teacher's contract:

- (1) Prerequisites.
- (2) Relation to trustee.
- (3) With whom made.
- (4) The duration.
- (5) The duties—
 - (a) To keep a successful school.
 - (b) To keep school open every school day.
 - (c) To instruct all pupils.
 - (d) To keep the school register.
- (6) Breaking of contract.

IV. The teacher's authority:

- (1) Absence and tardiness.
- (2) Control of the child's studies.
- (3) The Bible and religious exercises.
- (4) Suspension and expulsion.
- (5) The parent.
- (6) Corporal punishment.

V. School officers:

- (1) Duties.
- (2) Term of office.
- (3) Salary.
- (4) How elected.
- (5) How removed.

VI. School meetings:

- (1) When held.
- (2) How called.
- (3) Qualifications of voters.

READING.

I. Thought:

- (1) Definition.
- (2) Ways of getting it.
- (3) Ways of expressing it.

- II. (1) Definition of reading.
(2) Preparation made for reading before school life begins.
(3) Use of the principle of association in teaching reading.
(4) Comparison of methods.
- III. The alphabet method:
Objections—
(1) Term is given before idea.
(2) Works from the *unknown to the known*.
(3) *Does not begin objectively*.
(4) Makes slow stumbling readers.
(5) Does not secure good expression.
(6) A very slow method.
- IV. The phonic method:
Can not have a perfect phonic method—
(1) The same letters represent different sounds.
(2) Different letters the same sound.
(3) Some letters have no sound.
- V. The word method:
(1) Advantages—
(a) Teaches ideas before terms.
(b) Commences objectively.
(c) Begins at the child's standpoint.
(d) Makes sight readers.
(e) Children read with intelligence and expression.
- VI. The sentence method:
(1) Advantages—
(a) Does not violate any principle of teaching.
(b) Begins at the child's standpoint.
(c) Can be made interesting.
(2) Objections—
(a) Can not be followed strictly.
(b) Gives no key by which pupils can help themselves.
- VII. Suggestions in the different methods:
(1) In the alphabet method perception and memory are chiefly cultivated in detecting resemblance and difference.
(2) In the phonic method care should be taken in producing the exact sound.
(3) In the word method the order of development is—
(a) The idea suggested by the object.
(b) The spoken word expressing that idea.
(c) The written word expressing the idea.
(d) The thought expressed by a collection of words.
- VIII. Steps in the work of each lesson:
(1) A conversational lesson about some familiar object.
(2) Show the object or a picture of it, or make a drawing of the object.
(3) Have the pupils give the name of the object—the spoken name.
(4) Write the name on the board.
(5) Drill on the word, having pupils pronounce it.
(6) Require pupils to write the words on their slates.
(7) Combine words into sentences.
- X. How to conduct first work:
(1) Vocabulary to be used.
(2) Practices to be observed.
(3) Practices to be avoided.
(4) How combine spelling and reading.
(5) When use books.
(6) How use them.
- X. Means of maintaining interest:
(1) Sight reading.
(2) Supplementary reading.
- XI. Errors to be avoided:
(1) Too great rapidity in advancing pupils.
(2) Mispronunciation of words.
(3) Mechanical reading.
(4) *Too much criticism*.

- XI. Errors to be avoided—Continued,
 (5) *Too much drill on nonessentials.*
 (6) Neglect to pursue the natural order of mental growth.
 (7) Attempt at elocutionary effect.
- XII. Points that may need special attention:
 (1) Attend to pupils' positions.
 (2) Attend to pupils' breathing.
 (3) Attend to the thought.
 (4) Attend to the expression of the thought.

METHODS IN LANGUAGE.

- I. Suggestions to teachers:
 (1) Strive to make the child do. He learns to use by using.
 (2) Be careful about the use of language before children.
 (3) Make every lesson a language lesson.
 (4) Train the faculties in the natural order.
 (5) Aim to awaken thought, to cultivate the use of correct language, to arouse criticism.
 (6) Study the art of questioning. It is the teacher's passport to success.
 (7) Use the following methods: Objective, inductive, analytic, synthetic, oral, and written.
 (8) Have every thought expressed in a correct sentence.
- II. Oral lessons:
 (1) Objects: Quality, parts, material, use.
 (2) Conversations and descriptions of actions, of animals, of plants.
 (3) Complete sentences in answer to all questions.
 (4) Supplying omitted words in elliptical sentences.
 (5) Formation of new sentences from known words.
 (6) Describing what is seen in pictures.
 (7) Reproduction of facts from reading and object lessons, of short stories.
 (8) Memory lessons, short quotations.
- III. Written exercises:
 (1) Copying sentences from reading lessons; supplying omitted words in elliptical sentences; construction of new sentences from known words; short sentences reviewing facts learned in language and object lessons.
 (2) Dictation: Sentences from reading lessons.
 (3) Results to be reached: Spelling, penmanship, capitalization, punctuation.
 (4) Original work: Short sentences, descriptive of pictures, objects, animals, plants, etc.
 (5) Reproduction from facts in lessons in reading and geography.
- IV. Different kinds of sentences:
 (1) Development of idea.
 (2) Construction.
 (3) Definition.
 (4) Drill.
- V. Development of parts of speech:
 (1) Name words (or nouns).
 (2) Action words (verbs).
 (3) Quality words (adjectives).
 (4) How, when, where words (adverbs).
 (5) Personal pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections.

The committee appointed by the conference of secondary principals recommend as especially adapted for the use of instructors and pupils, the following books:

On psychology, *Sully and Hill*; on pedagogy, *White and Johnson*; on history of education, *Painter and Hailman*; on school management, *Wickersham and Baldwin*; on memory, *Kay*.

PENNSYLVANIA.

EARLY HISTORY.

The normal fire, which was lighted at Lexington in 1839 and which smoldered in New York for some years after the death of Professor Page, did not reach Pennsylvania as a practical force until 1854. During the summer of that year a number of the citizens of Millersville and its vicinity, desiring a more liberal education for their children than was furnished by the common schools of the neighborhood, erected a building for the purpose of accommodating a school, which they proposed to call

"The Millersville Academy." This building was offered to the late Prof. James P. Wickersham, then county superintendent, for the purpose of holding a teachers' institute for three months. The attendance at the institute was so large and the general results so satisfactory that the trustees resolved to enlarge their building and establish a regular normal school.

The legislature had passed a law in 1857 granting certain privileges to such private institutions as would comply with the requisitions of the law and engage in the work of training teachers. Among these requisitions were the following: That each normal school established under the law should possess ground to the extent of 10 acres; a hall, capable of seating 1,000 persons, and boarding accommodations for at least 300 students. The trustees and stockholders of the Millersville Academy at a public meeting voted "that it is expedient to so enlarge the grounds attached to the school and to make such additions to the building connected therewith as to bring the school within the requirements of the act of assembly of May, 1857," already referred to. The institution was continued as a permanent county normal school until it obtained official recognition as a State normal school in December, 1859.

But the "normal idea" had taken root in Pennsylvania long before the fruit appeared. In a letter to the chairman of the joint committee on education (session of 1833), the Rev. George Junkin, president of Lafayette College, at Easton, writes as follows, in answer to a query of the committee:

Are your teachers formed or prepared in the common schools or have you model schools for them? In prosecuting this inquiry it may be best to state distinctly the thing desired, or, in other words, define a good teacher; and I suppose three qualifications to be indispensable: (1) The art of governing a school. (2) The art of communicating knowledge. (3) The knowledge to be communicated. These are set down in what I take to be the order of their importance, but they are all equally indispensable. * * * The capacity of a teacher to train other minds will very much depend on the systematic accuracy to which his own mind has been subjected in its training. The art of communicating must be deeply affected by the practice of acquiring and the habits formed by that practice. These remarks all go to evince the necessity of a model school, in which shall be taught the science—that is, the knowledge of letters and other things to be taught to the children in our common schools, and the arts of communicating and governing. It does appear to me impossible to obtain the right kind of teachers, and in adequate numbers, without it. This point settled, our next business is to settle a plan of attaining this object, and here I know of but three projects: (1) A manual labor academy near Harrisburg, under the immediate direction of the State authorities, in which 100 of the future teachers are to be pupils. [Here follow five weighty objections to this plan.] (2) The establishment of model schools, without manual labor, where the future teacher shall be taught on the best plans. We have settled the question of model schools; they are necessary, and chiefly with reference to practical training in the difficult matters of government and discipline. Without an actual school of children, you have no model at all, be the building and fixtures and apparatus and teacher ever so perfect. There lies, then, in the very nature of the case, this necessity, to wit: You must have a school to teach the science, and another school to teach, by the living thing itself, the arts of government and practical details. Now these are furnished, and the only remaining or third project or plan, which is that of establishing, in the existing colleges of our State, model schools, a teachers' course. This project has in its favor the plea of perfect simplicity, and may be explained in a few words:

(1) Let each college fix upon a liberal course of studies for school-teachers, and constitute a new degree in graduation.

(2) Let a common school, to be kept full of children from the neighborhood, in every respect such as is desirable to see in every district of the State, be established contiguous to the college buildings, which school shall be a model in its buildings, fixtures, desks, books, apparatus, rules and regulations, and mode of management.

(3) Let the candidate for the collegiate honor of a school teacher's diploma be in every respect on the same footing in college with other students—study in the same class his own particular branches, submit to the same system of discipline, and let him in addition to these spend a part of every day in the common school as a spectator, and occasionally as an assistant.

(4) When he shall have completed his course, which will take two years, let him pass a final examination and, if approved, receive the honorable testimony of the board of trustees.

(5) Let every teacher thus qualified, who shall teach within the State, receive, besides the provision made for his support by the people, a yearly allowance from the school fund for every year he shall teach in one place.

The Doctor proceeds to give in six paragraphs what he conceives to be the advantages of this "project." No clearer statement has since been made of the way in which a university chair of pedagogy may be employed for the preparation of teachers of common schools. Beyond this the pioneers of normal training had not at that time ventured.

Pennsylvania claims "to have been the first of our American States to inaugurate the work of preparing teachers." If by "preparing teachers" is meant the furnishing of teachers with sufficient knowledge of the subjects taught in common schools, the claim is somewhat vague, as every good school or college does the same. If it means that Pennsylvania was the first to establish an institution whose principal object was to give instruction in the science and art of teaching and the mode of organizing and governing schools, the claims of Massachusetts must be considered. "The University of Pennsylvania, begun as an academy in 1749, was designed partially as a school for teachers. Dr. Franklin, the chief among its founders, in addressing the common council of the city for aid in its behalf, states that as the country is suffering greatly for want of competent schoolmasters, the proposed academy will be able to furnish a supply of such as are 'of good morals and known character' and can 'teach children reading, writing, arithmetic, and the grammar of their mother tongue.'"¹ The good Doctor had evidently no conception of a normal school as we now understand the term. The Western Boarding School, established by the Society of Friends in 1790, made a report in 1824, announcing that "several of both sexes have so profited by the course of studies and the mode of instruction thus derived as to be qualified for teachers of schools in many parts of the country." The Moravian School, established in 1807 at Nazareth Hall, had "a special department for the preparation of teachers, in which young men received such instruction as qualified them either to teach in schools established at home, or to open and conduct schools in the missionary field." Dr. Benjamin Rush, in an address to the legislature in 1786, favored "the establishment of a system of free schools, of one university at Philadelphia, and of three colleges, one at Carlisle, one at Lancaster, and one at Pittsburg," and added, "the university will in time furnish masters for the colleges, and the colleges will furnish masters for the free schools." In all this there seems to be an intention to make scholars who might or might not afterwards become teachers, but there is no intimation that more than scholarship was needed. In 1838 the trustees of Lafayette College erected a building for a model school, placed a distinguished Scotch educator at the head of it, and established a teachers' course. But the people were not as yet educated up to this point and the project failed. The city of Philadelphia has the credit of establishing the first city training school in this country. The Philadelphia Model School, as it was called, was inaugurated in 1818 expressly as a teachers' school, for the purpose of qualifying teachers "for the sectional schools and for schools in other parts of the State." The name "Model" was imported from England, where it was used to designate a school in which young persons could observe and practice the art of teaching. The Philadelphia Model School was a necessary adjunct of the Lancasterian system, which prevailed in that city until 1836, and in a modified form until 1848.

COLLEGES AS PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

The plan of utilizing the colleges of the State as preparatory schools for teachers—they can not be called "training schools"—was followed for more than a quarter of a century, and with the same results as in New York.

¹History of Education in Pennsylvania, by James Pyle Wickersham, LL. D. Lancaster, Pa., 1886.

In 1831, Washington College received from the State an appropriation of \$500 a year for five years on condition "that the trustees shall cause that there be instructed annually, gratis, 20 students in the elementary branches of education, in a manner best calculated to qualify them to teach common English schools."

In 1832, Jefferson College was given \$2,000 a year for four years on condition that "6 students in indigent circumstances should be educated gratuitously for four years," and thereafter 24 students should be prepared for teachers of common schools.

In the same year Reading Academy received \$3,000, with the stipulation that 4 poor students be educated for five years, free of expense of tuition, for teachers of common English schools.

In 1834, Pennsylvania College was given \$3,000 a year for six years on condition that 15 young men students should be prepared for teachers.

In 1837, Marshall College received a grant of \$2,000 a year for two years on condition that 20 students be prepared for teachers of the English language.

In the same year Allegheny College received a grant of \$2,000 a year for four years, for which were to be instructed annually 12 students, free of expense, for teachers in the English language.

"But the experiment of educating teachers in the colleges failed," says Dr. Wickersham, "because there was not then much demand for teachers thus prepared, and for the stronger reason that the general work of a college and the special work of a teachers' school can never be made to harmonize." State Superintendent Burrows, in his report for 1838, says, "The colleges have already been tried as a means of supplying teachers, and with little success. * * * Hope from this quarter is dead."¹ The present writer may add as his own experience that a semicollegiate education is the worst possible introduction to the teaching now required in the common country schools. Few teachers and few schools survive the experiment.

PROFESSIONAL NORMAL SCHOOLS RECOMMENDED.

In 1838 Superintendent Burrows abandoned the plan of educating teachers in departments connected with colleges and academies and advocated the establishment of separate free institutions for the instruction of teachers, in which they should receive "a full and careful course of theoretic and practical instruction in the art of teaching." Superintendent Haines in 1849 advocated the establishment of a normal school in each county and a central institution of the same character, but of higher grade, for the whole State. Superintendent Curtin in 1857 recommended in substance the provisions of the act which was passed by the legislature in that year for the establishment of normal schools. In drafting this bill and carrying it through the legislature, Dr. Wickersham, then principal of the normal school at Millersville, was the leading and guiding spirit. His good judgment, energy, zeal, and practical success as a teacher, as county superintendent and State superintendent, caused the example which he set in the second district to be followed rapidly by several of the other normal districts, and ultimately by all but one.

LAW FOR ESTABLISHMENT OF STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

For normal purposes the State was divided into thirteen districts, in each of which one normal school might be established under the law of 1857, before referred to, and additional enactments passed in 1859, 1872, 1875, and 1879. The pecuniary and other affairs of each State normal school are managed by a board of 18 trustees, 12 elected by the contributors or stockholders and 6 appointed by the State superintendent of public instruction. All changes in by-laws and rules for regulating proceedings of these boards must be approved by the State superintendent before going into effect. The State appropriations made directly to normal schools are distributed through a

¹ History of Education in Pennsylvania, by James Pyle Wickersham, LL. D. Pp. 377-381.

commission, consisting of the governor, the superintendent of public instruction, and the attorney-general, in such a manner as to do exact and equal justice to the several schools.¹ Each school is required to have at least six professors of liberal education and known ability in their respective departments: One of orthography, reading, and elocution; one of writing, drawing, and bookkeeping; one of arithmetic and the higher branches of mathematics; one of geography and history; one of grammar and English literature, and one of theory and practice of teaching, together with such professors, assistants, and tutors as the condition of the school may require. Every school is required to have attached to it one or more schools for practice, or model schools, with not less than 100 pupils, in which the students of the normal schools may have an opportunity to acquire a practical knowledge of the art of teaching. The qualifications for admission and the course of study are by law uniform in all the schools and are determined by a convention of the principals, subject to approval by the State superintendent.

The following notices are taken with much abridgment from the reports of principals of State normal schools to the State superintendent of public instruction and will be found in full in the last (1891) annual report of the superintendent, pages 183-198. The items in the footnotes are excerpted from the latest accessible catalogues of the several schools:

FIRST DISTRICT, WEST CHESTER (G. M. Philips, principal).—There has been no interruption in the prosperity of our school during the past year. Every year sees a substantial but healthy growth in our numbers, and, as usual, we report that the attendance during the past year has been the largest in the school's history. * * * The work in the gymnasium has been carried on with marked success. The physical measurements of our students at the end of the year, when compared with the measurements of the same students at the beginning of the year, showed marked improvement in almost every case. * * * Our post-graduate course has proved to be a marked success. It will be of great value in furnishing higher schools with competent, well-qualified teachers. * * * Many new books have been placed upon the shelves of the library, the number of volumes now reaching about six thousand. * * * The year just ended completes the twentieth year of this school's history, and the tenth of my principalship.²

SECOND DISTRICT, MULLERSVILLE (E. Oram Lyte, principal).—The prosperity of this school is still increasing, the attendance last year being the largest in its history. The total number of students for the summer session was 772 (386 of each sex), and 1,225 for the year. The graduating class numbered 72, all of whom obtained good positions as teachers, except a few who have returned to complete the scientific course. * * * One of the most important improvements made during the past year was the completion of the large gymnasium. The style of architecture of the building is Romanesque. The lower floor contains three rooms, entirely separated from each other. One of these contains the bowling and pitching alleys, and the others are each provided with lockers and bathing accommodations. On the main floor are the reception room, examination room, and the large room for exercising purposes, with elevated walking track, etc. The gymnasium is completely furnished with the latest and most approved apparatus. Two teachers are constantly engaged in the department of physical culture [one lady and one gentleman]. * * * Believing that a good model school is absolutely necessary for the proper training of

¹ The amount of special and direct State appropriations to the normal schools of Pennsylvania from the organization of each till June 1, 1891, was \$1,520,000.

² The West Chester State Normal School was founded in the year 1871 by joint efforts of the trustees of the West Chester Academy and the citizens of West Chester and vicinity. The main building is new, built of greenstone and marble, 256 by 234 feet, four stories high with basement. It is one of the finest and handsomest school buildings in the country. A first-class gymnasium, 104 by 64 feet, is just being finished. It is of stone, two stories high, and is fitted up with every modern improvement, including a full supply of the best apparatus, running track, bathrooms, large swimming pool, bowling alleys, ball cage, etc. With the single exception of Harvard's, it is the largest gymnasium in America, and is believed to be, without any exception, the best and most complete gymnasium connected with any school or college in the United States. The school property has now cost upward of a third of a million of dollars. The number of different students during the year (1889-90) was 709, of whom 395 were ladies and 314 gentlemen. (Nineteenth Annual Catalogue of the West Chester State Normal School, 1890).

teachers, no expense has been spared to increase the efficiency of our practical school. It now contains nine grades, beginning with the kindergarten and ending with the advanced grammar grade.¹

THIRD DISTRICT, KUTZTOWN (Nathan C. Schaeffer, principal).—The new wing was ready for occupation at the opening of the spring term. The class rooms in it, equipped with all the latest improvements, added greatly to the efficiency of our work. We were thereby enabled to reduce the size of our classes. When students recite in sections numbering from 20 to 30 they can complete a course of several years in a session or two less than it takes if they recite in classes numbering from 50 to 75. Mental growth is greatly stimulated by daily individual contact with live teachers. Probably the greatest need of our Pennsylvania normal schools is a faculty paid by the State. This would lead to free tuition, smaller classes, a standard of scholarship for admission, and would put an end to the strained relations that sometimes result from undue competition.²

FIFTH DISTRICT, MANSFIELD (D. C. Thomas, principal).—Six hundred and twenty-nine students were enrolled during the past year. Of these, 93 graduated in the elementary course, 2 in the scientific, and 12 in music. The accommodations in our ladies' building were not sufficient for the constantly increasing attendance of that sex. An addition to the present building is in process of construction. When done, it will be a magnificent structure. The work will cost at least \$100,000.

SIXTH DISTRICT, BLOOMSBURG (J. P. Welsh, principal).—The year just closed has added another year of success to the history of this institution. The attendance has been greater than ever before; the senior class was the largest ever graduated here, and was composed of young men and women of exceptional promise as teachers. One hundred and five certificates of admission to the next senior class were issued to juniors at the close of the year, while 37 applicants for this certificate were rejected by the faculty. * * * In September last the manual-training department was organized, and was placed under the management of a teacher who received special training for the work. Under his direction this department has been a marked success. Students, grading from the model school to the senior class, received instruction in the nature and uses of tools and materials. A series of graded lessons has been arranged for this purpose, which terminate in the senior year with wood carving and the construction of useful articles, such as philosophical and mathematical apparatus needed in schools. * * * The classes of 1891 and 1892 have presented to the school a set of gymnastic apparatus, consisting of chest weights, intercostal machines, parallel bars, vaulting bars, wrist machines, flying rings, quarter circles, giant strides, boxing gloves, striking bags, etc. * * * I believe that the professional character of the normal schools would be elevated if, in every instance, all applicants for the normal certificate were examined in actual teaching.³

¹ The normal school buildings are large, the east front being 352 feet and the south front 160 feet, and conveniently arranged in every respect. There are boarding accommodations for 400, and school accommodations for 800 students. The buildings are surrounded with grounds to the extent of ten acres, which have been tastefully laid out and are used for play and pleasure grounds. The value of the buildings, grounds, furniture, etc., is more than \$250,000. The institution is well supplied with philosophical apparatus, and possesses also a good cabinet of mineralogical, geological, and ornithological specimens. The total number of students from the opening of the school to the close of the school year in 1888 was 22,184, and the number of graduates 905. The number of volumes in library, 5,550. (Thirty-sixth Annual Catalogue of the Pennsylvania State Normal School at Millersville, Lancaster County.)

² There is a striking resemblance between the origin of the Kutztown Normal School and that of the normal school at Millersville. Both owed their beginning to the efforts of the respective county superintendents, John S. Ermentrout and James P. Wickersham. Both commenced as summer normal schools. Both were developments of neighborhood academies. Before the organization of the Kutztown school there existed in Kutztown and the neighborhood mere academies or seminaries under the control of a limited number of stockholders—the Franklin Academy, the Fairview Academy, and Maxatawny Seminary. But the people demanded better education, and were willing to embark in any enterprise that promised to improve their schools. As the county superintendent was traveling from Lyons to Kutztown, he saw in the distance the building known as Maxatawny Seminary. It occurred to him that, if the people of this section had taken sufficient interest in the cause of education to erect that building, they might be induced to assist him in carrying out his project of establishing a regular State normal school for the Third normal district. In 1865 the teachers were invited to attend a county normal school in Maxatawny Seminary. Students flocked thither from every part of the county and from adjacent districts, and the seminary was found to be too small for their accommodation. This inspired the people with a determination to erect such buildings as the school law requires and to establish a regular normal school for the Third normal district. (Historical Sketch of Kutztown and Maxatawny, by John S. Ermentrout, 1876.)

³ The school property attracts much attention. It is at an elevation of over 150 feet above the Susquehanna. The view from this elevation is almost unrivaled. Fourteen acres of campus afford ample space for lawns and athletic ground, and include a beautiful oak grove of 3½ acres. The three main buildings are of brick—one is the dormitory, two are devoted to school work. Institute hall contains an auditorium capable of seating 900 persons. The dining room is 103 by 40 feet, and will accommodate over 300 guests. The manual-training room is 40 feet square, and contains benches and tools for the accommodation of 30 pupils at a time. About 250 pupils, at different periods of the day, pass for instruction to this department. They are taught here the structure and uses of different

SEVENTH DISTRICT, SHIPPENSBURG (G. M. D. Eckles, principal).—The year just closed has been one of unusual prosperity for the Cumberland Valley State Normal School. There has been a considerable increase in the patronage of the school, and we believe a marked improvement in the character of the work done. We graduated fourscore young men and women from our school this year, by far the largest class in its history. This increase in numbers has not been secured by any sacrifice of the standard of qualifications fixed by the school. In our junior class the grade of qualifications has been raised, and we expect to continue the raising of our standard with this class from year to year, as the raising of the standard of the juniors is necessarily followed by a corresponding raising of the standard of the seniors. Nearly all the dormitories have been painted and ornamented with neat designs. The designs for the room decorations were all made by students and by those connected with the school.¹

EIGHTH DISTRICT, LOCKHAVEN (James Eldon, principal).—The Central State Normal School is now fully established in its new home. During the year which ended July 2, 1891, every room in the building was occupied, two in a room, and many boarders had to be accommodated with lodgings in adjacent buildings. At the last commencement 44 graduated in the elementary course, and 90 juniors were admitted to the senior class. Several of the graduates before the term closed were elected to responsible positions as principals of schools.²

NINTH DISTRICT, INDIANA (Z. X. Snyder, principal).—Growth characterizes the living. From this standpoint the Indiana normal is a living institution. During the year it has grown in every direction—scholastically, professionally, in efficiency, in teaching power, and in numbers. The annual attendance was 790. * * * The erection of a greenhouse has aided very materially in the beautifying of the grounds. * * * One hundred guns were received from the State for the purpose of military drill. * * * In our industrial department three types of work are done: Kindergarten, sloyd, and manual training. * * * A number of good microscopes were purchased for the science department. * * * The model school has passed from a mere practice school to a model school in the true sense. It is a school where experts teach, enabling the juniors and seniors to observe. * * * The trustees contemplate the erection of a gymnasium. It will be commenced in the spring. * * * The classes of 1889 and 1890 erected a beautiful fountain on the campus.³

TENTH DISTRICT, CALIFORNIA (Theo. B. Noss, principal).—Our attendance of students was larger than ever before, reaching a total of 711, of whom 502 are in the

kinds of wood, the nature of each tool, and the principle on which it works; they then make a drawing, afterwards an object to correspond, and finally give an oral or written description of the object. * * * Lessons are given in shorthand and typewriting. * * * An athletic association, composed of students, has charge of all outdoor sports, such as baseball, tennis, football, and the like. The ladies are drilled in wand and dumb-bell exercises, and have organized several walking clubs. (Circular of the State Normal School of Bloomsburg, Pa., 1891.)

¹The last catalogue (1890-91) claims for the Shippensburg school the following among other advantages:

1. We employ none but high-grade teachers. * * * All our teachers are specialists in their departments.

2. Our school is thoroughly and properly disciplined. * * * We hold ourselves responsible for the moral as well as the intellectual development of our students.

3. We lay great stress on the professional training of our students. * * * The practice teaching in the model school is under skillful supervision and competent direction.

4. Our school is organized in the interest of the students. Our system of classification enables us to advance students as rapidly as their progress will permit. No person is held in check to accommodate the interests of dull and inattentive scholars.

5. Our graduates are distinguished by their originality, being something more than blind imitators.

6. Our school is not crowded beyond its capacity.

7. Our graduates are doing noble work in their chosen profession. We have no difficulty in securing good positions for them.

11. We do not claim to have the best school in the country, but we do claim that there is none better.

* This school was founded in 1871, but was not open for the admission of students until the fall of 1877. In December, 1888, the fine building occupied by the school from its organization was totally destroyed by fire, but the work of instruction was carried on without interruption in a large hotel building, fitted up for the purpose. In May, 1890, the new building was occupied, 200 students being present. To the erection of this building the State contributed \$105,000. It is of brick, with brown-stone trimmings, and has three distinct parts. It is lighted at night by 450 electric lamps.

The training school is composed of children from 5 to 6 years of age. These are divided into classes so as to represent every grade of teaching required in the public schools of the State, from the kindergarten to the high school. The time given to the practice of teaching is not less than forty-five minutes each day for twenty-one consecutive weeks. All students receive class instruction in vocal music. Lessons are also given, at an extra charge, on the piano, organ, violin, cornet, and other instruments. There are two literary societies, each having its own hall, library, and reading room. The art department offers instruction in oil painting, china painting, portrait painting, and sketching.

Principals.—Albert N. Raub, 1877-1884; George P. Beard, 1884-1887; James Eldon, 1887. (Catalogue of 1891-92.)

* The catalogue of 1890-91 showed seven departments: (1) Kindergarten department, (2) primary department, (3) grammar department, (4) high school department, (5) principals and superintendent's department, (6) ungraded department, (7) manual-training department.

normal department and 209 in the model school. A new building is now in course of erection. It will be used for the model school, for the sloyd shop, and for the natural science department. The large attic story of this building, which is 86 by 56 feet in size, will be fitted up as a gymnasium. Our graduating class this year consisted of 18 gentlemen and 17 ladies; most of these have already secured desirable positions as teachers for the coming year.¹

ELEVENTH DISTRICT, SLIPPERY ROCK (Albert E. Maltby, principal).—The normal school at Slippery Rock has just closed a very successful school year. The increased attendance under adverse circumstances is certainly very encouraging, and the future seems bright with indications of continued growth and prosperity. Our last graduating class numbers 12. * * * Over 500 pupils were in attendance during the year, and the class-room accommodations were taxed to their utmost extent. * * * The plans for a new building have been drawn, and work will begin immediately. The structure will be in brick, handsomely ornamented with stone, and will contain class rooms, society halls, reading rooms, music rooms, parlors, library, gymnasium, offices, and principal's residence. The total cost is estimated at \$50,000. * * * Every effort is being made to bring out the beautiful in our campus and school grounds. An addition of some 5 acres, and the planting of many valuable trees have done much toward improvement in appearance. The ball field is unsurpassed by that of any other school.²

TWELFTH DISTRICT, EDINBORO (Martin E. Benedict, principal).—The past school year closed the 3d of July. There were 89 graduates. One hundred received junior certificates. * * * The average age of the class was 22 years and 8 months. Over 60 had taught in the public schools. Nearly all have entered the schoolroom as teachers, and they received from \$40 to \$100 a month. * * * In the model school, 60 students can practice a day, one class each. * * * The library occupies a room 50 by 65 feet, and is open daily from 8 o'clock a. m. until 4.15 p. m. The books are in open cases and all students are free to take books from the cases. The librarian is in constant attendance. * * * In recitation the students stand at the blackboard with chalk and pointer, or directly before the class, and in their own language give the substance of the lesson.³

THIRTEENTH DISTRICT, CLARION (A. J. Davis, principal).—This school completed the fourth year of its history without any remarkable changes or innovations. The stringency of the times affected the population of the district with peculiar force, and

¹ Number of students—413 normal, 229 model. On the 11th of April, 1890, the school celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of its opening under the charter name of South Western Normal College. It is the outgrowth of an academy first opened in 1852. From the time the success of the experiment at Millersville, in 1855, became known, the undertaking of a similar enterprise at California was freely discussed and was finally achieved (1874). (Catalogue of the State Normal School at California, 1891.)

² During the autumn of 1887 the question of organizing a school in the town was agitated. The project found many friends and soon assumed definite form. A meeting was called at which it was determined to erect a building and open an academy. The community was canvassed for money to erect a building and support a school until it should become self-sustaining. While this work was in progress the discovery was made that there was no normal school in the district. A second meeting was called, at which it was resolved to erect the necessary buildings and apply for recognition as the State Normal School of the Eleventh district. In the spring of 1888 an organization was effected, a charter obtained, and the erection of the buildings was begun. In the spring of 1889 the buildings were completed and inspected by the committee appointed by the State, who unanimously recommended the "recognition" of the school as the State Normal School of the Eleventh district. The number of students on the catalogue of 1890-91 was 340 in the normal department and 160 in the model school.

³ Means employed to train teachers.—These are study, recitation, reading, observation, practice, and instruction. The value of study varies, *ceteris paribus*: (1) As the time spent in the study; (2) as the square of the energy; (3) as the square of the interest; (4) as the cube of the methods; (5) as the fourth power of the quality; (6) as the spirit of willing obedience.

Students in the normal school recite as teachers. They receive no help. Each member of the class while others are reciting is both pupil and critic. The normal school teachers aim to act as model teachers, and thus student teachers, even unconsciously at recitation, become acquainted with methods of teaching.

The library is rich in works upon teaching, and students are taught to select, read, and digest the thoughts of educational writers.

The library occupies a room in the new building 50 by 65 feet. It is opened daily from 8 a. m. until 4.15 p. m. The students learn to know books and to enjoy reading them. They are taught to read with profit, and are referred to the manual of reading among the reference books. The books are classified as follows: (1) Works of reference; (2) works upon teaching; (3) periodical literature.

Two literary societies, the Potter and the Everett, hold regular sessions Saturday afternoons. Each occupies a pleasant and well-furnished hall 25 by 40 feet. All students are free to join or not, as each prefers.

A musical department has been organized whose aim is to prepare teachers for leading the music in public schools, and for skill in teaching music. Especial attention is given to the cultivation of a musical touch and a correct interpretation of the standard works. The department offers two courses, (1) a course for the thorough training of teachers; (2) a course for persons wishing to become skilled singers.

The number of normal pupils is 670, of whom 345 are reported as "unclassified." The model school numbers 203.

the attendance of students during each term was less than in the corresponding terms of the preceding year, the first instance of retrogression since the organization of the school. * * * The number of books in the library is about 3,000. * * * The senior class manufactured a fine lot of apparatus, under the direction of the professor of physics and the instructor in woodworking.¹

The course of study in the State normal schools of Pennsylvania is intended to be uniform and is prescribed by a convention of principals, aided by the State superintendent; but as the order in which the legal studies are to be pursued is not prescribed, and the number and kind of additional studies are not limited, each school maintains a distinct personality, notwithstanding the basis of uniformity. The legal course and one of the catalogue courses (Bloomsburg) are given below :

The courses of instruction prepared for the State normal schools of Pennsylvania, and approved by the State authorities, are as follows :

ELEMENTARY COURSE.

JUNIOR YEAR.

Pedagogics.—Elements of school management and methods.

Language.—Orthography and reading; English grammar, including composition; Latin, sufficient for the introduction of Cæsar.

Mathematics.—Arithmetic, except mensuration; elementary algebra.

Natural science.—Physiology and hygiene.

Historical sciences.—Geography, physical, mathematical, and political; history of the United States; civil government.

The arts.—Penmanship, sufficient to be able to explain some approved system, writing to be submitted to board of examiners; bookkeeping, single entry, seven weeks; drawing, a daily exercise for at least twenty-eight weeks, work to be submitted to board of examiners; vocal music, elementary principles, and attendance upon daily exercises for at least one-third of the year.

SENIOR YEAR.

Pedagogics.—Psychology, embracing the intellect, sensibilities, and will; methods; history of education; model school work, at least twenty-one weeks of actual teaching daily during one period of not less than forty-five minutes; a thesis on a professional subject, and two meetings each week for the discussion of the practice of teaching.

Language.—The outlines of rhetoric, together with at least a fourteen weeks' course in English literature, including the thorough study of one selection from each of four English classics; Latin, Cæsar, through the Helvetian war.

Mathematics.—Arithmetic, mensuration; plane geometry.

Natural sciences.—Elementary natural philosophy; botany.

Historical sciences.—Reading of general history in connection with the history of education.

The arts.—Elocutionary exercises in connection with the study of English literature.

SCIENTIFIC COURSE.

Pedagogics.—Moral philosophy; logic; philosophy of education; course of professional reading, with abstracts, notes, criticisms, to be submitted to board of examiners.

Language.—Latin, six books of Virgil, four orations of Cicero, the Germania of Tacitus, or a full equivalent; an equivalent of Greek, French, or German will be accepted for spherical trigonometry, analytical geometry, calculus, mathematical natural philosophy, and mathematical astronomy; literature.

Mathematics.—Higher algebra; solid geometry; plane and spherical trigonometry and surveying, with use of instruments; analytical geometry; differential and integral calculus.

¹ This school is the outgrowth of the Carrier Seminary, and was recognized as a State normal school in February, 1887. It was opened on the 12th of April following with 150 pupils in attendance. The catalogue of 1888 contains the names of 364 normal students. The seminary hall contains the chapel, auditorium, principal's office, recitation rooms, library, and gymnasium. The school gives a four years' course in music, instrumental and vocal. Lessons are given in oil painting, china painting, crayoning, and pencil drawing; and also in stenography and telegraphy. (Second Annual Catalogue of the Pennsylvania State Normal School, at Clarion, Pa., 1888.)

Natural sciences.—Natural philosophy, as much as in Snell's Ohmsted; astronomy, descriptive and mathematical; chemistry; geology or mineralogy; zoology.

History.—General history.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION ARRANGED FOR THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT BLOOMSBURG.

ELEMENTARY COURSE.

JUNIOR YEAR.

First term.—Arithmetic, beginning with stocks, as in Brooks's; English grammar, beginning with "Complex sentences" in Reed & Kellogg; reading and spelling, Latin, geography, practical teaching, drawing, vocal music.

Second term.—Arithmetic, algebra, beginning with "fractions" in Wentworth; English grammar, Latin, history of the United States, beginning with administrations; practical teaching, drawing, bookkeeping.

Third term.—Algebra, English composition, reading and spelling, Latin, civil government, $\frac{1}{2}$; geography, mathematical and physical, $\frac{1}{2}$; physiology, practical teaching.

SENIOR YEAR.

First term.—Geometry and mensuration, rhetoric, reading of general history, natural philosophy, school economy, teaching, mental philosophy.

Second term.—Geometry and mensuration, English literature, elocution, Cæsar, botany, $\frac{1}{2}$; natural philosophy, $\frac{1}{2}$; methods of instruction, teaching, mental philosophy, history of education.

Third term.—Geometry and mensuration, Cæsar, botany, methods of instruction, teaching, history of education.

SCIENTIFIC COURSE.

When students have completed the studies of the elementary course or the equivalents they can enter this course and graduate in two years. The studies are as follows:

JUNIOR YEAR.

Philosophy of education, higher algebra, solid geometry, plane and spherical trigonometry, surveying, analytical geometry, chemistry, geology, mineralogy, general history, Latin, professional reading.

SENIOR YEAR.

Differential and integral calculus, natural philosophy, mathematical and descriptive astronomy, logic, zoology, moral philosophy, Latin, English literature, professional reading, general review.

All students in this course have the privilege of taking an equivalent of Greek, French, or German for the portions of higher mathematics, specified under substitutions.

ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT.

1. Preparatory collegiate.

FIRST YEAR.

Latin, arithmetic, English grammar, history.

SECOND YEAR.

Latin (Virgil), Greek (Anabasis and Iliad), Latin and Greek composition, geometry, history, Franklin's autobiography, Milton.

2. General academic.

JUNIOR YEAR.

First term.—Orthography and reading, English grammar, history of England, arithmetic, physiology, geography, penmanship and drawing, vocal music.

Second term.—Orthography and reading, English grammar, arithmetic, algebra, United States history, Latin, penmanship and drawing.

Third term.—English grammar, civil government, Trench on Words, algebra, botany, Latin, drawing.

SENIOR YEAR.

First term.—Mental philosophy, natural philosophy, geometry, rhetoric and English classics, bookkeeping, drawing.

Second term.—Geometry, Latin, English classics, elocution, drawing.

Third term.—Latin, reviews, drawing, geometry.

3. Senior academic year.

First term.—Trigonometry and surveying, chemistry, elements of criticism, French, German, or Latin.

Second term.—Geology, political economy, general history, French, German, or Latin.

Third term.—Evidences of Christianity, astronomy, general history, French, German, or Latin.

The Pennsylvania normal schools are not free schools. The local boarding-school element from which most if not all of them were "evolved" rendered it imprudent to make tuition free; but by an act of the legislature the following appropriations are made by the State of Pennsylvania to normal students and graduates:

1. Each student over 17 years of age who shall sign a declaration of intention to teach in the common schools of this State shall receive the sum of 50 cents per week.

2. Each student over 17 years of age who was disabled in the military or naval service of the United States, or of Pennsylvania, or whose father lost his life in said service, and who shall sign an agreement as above, shall receive the sum of \$1 per week.

3. Each student, who, upon graduation shall sign an agreement to teach in the common schools of the State two full years shall receive the sum of \$50.

4. Any student to receive these benefits must attend the school at least one term of twelve consecutive weeks, and receive instruction in the theory and practice of teaching.

The amount expended under this act in the school year ending June 1, 1891, was \$47,875.25.

Comparative table of statistics of the State normal schools of Pennsylvania for the school year ending June, 1890.

Schools.	1891. Years in exist- ence.	1890. Population of district.	Appropri- ation. granted.	1890.		
				Total enroll- ment.	Students in normal school.	Profits in model school.
Millersville	32	296,715	\$102,500	730	568	162
Edinboro	30	291,236	117,500	879	630	249
Mansfield	29	249,279	127,500	613	613	100
Kutztown	25	368,121	107,500	679	540	139
Bloomsburg	22	221,620	162,500	434	342	92
West Chester	20	557,965	107,500	717	654	61
Shippensburg	18	287,578	144,500	303	204	67
California	17	283,878	117,500	642	413	229
Indiana	16	201,741	135,500	736	581	175
Lockhaven	14	193,824	187,500	335	225	100
Clarion	4	173,687	67,500	905	422	463
Slippery Rock	2	657,425	27,500	434	298	140
Fourth district ¹		626,608				
Philadelphia ²		1,046,961				

¹No school organized.

²Not included in State school system.

NEW JERSEY.

EARLY HISTORY.

In 1825 Philip Lindsay, D. D., acting president of the College of New Jersey, advocated the establishment of teachers' seminaries, for these among other reasons:

That at present the great mass of our teachers are mere adventurers; either young men who are looking forward to some less laborious and more respectable vocation, and who, of course, have no ambition to excel in the business of teaching and no motive to exertion but immediate and temporary relief from pecuniary embarrassment, or men who despair of doing better or who have failed in other pursuits, or who are wandering from place to place, teaching a year here and a year there, and gathering up what they can from the ignorance and credulity of their employers.

Three years later Prof. John Maclean, afterwards president of the University of New Jersey, recommended, in a lecture on the school system of the State, "the establishment of an institution to educate young men for the business of teaching."¹

Nineteen years after this (1847) a convention of the friends of education in Burlington County, N. J., was held at Mount Holly. A committee on business was appointed, who reported a series of resolutions in favor of the establishment of a State normal school. The resolutions were fully discussed, but in order to afford time for further deliberation the convention adjourned to meet in the same place on the 2d of December. At this adjourned meeting letters of approval and congratulation were read from the following eminent public men: William H. Seward, of New York;² Rev. William H. Campbell, secretary of the executive committee of the State normal school at Albany;³ Bishop Potter, of Pennsylvania;⁴ Joseph R. Chandler, editor of the *United States Gazette*;⁵ Horace Mann, of Massachusetts;⁶ Edward Everett;⁷ John G. Pal-

¹ Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1868.

² The advantages resulting from the professional education of teachers in what are called normal schools are universally conceded among the friends of education in this State. If I had ever doubted on this subject, all my doubts would have been removed by the experiment of the institution in this city (Albany), which has been eminently successful. The ultimate operation of normal schools will be to elevate the standard of public education and, of course, the dignity of those to whom its labors are confided. (Report on normal schools to the convention of the friends of education, Burlington, N. J., 1847.)

³ I had doubts when our normal school was first started as to the necessity of such an institution among us; but my opinion is entirely changed. * * * I have become convinced of the great value of the normal school. My conviction is the result of actual observation, and from this I feel justified in saying that a normal school is indispensable in carrying out any State educational system. * * * I hope soon to hear that New Jersey has instituted a State normal school. (Ib.)

⁴ I rejoice to hear that the State of New Jersey is moving in respect to the education and training of teachers for common schools. It is beyond doubt the most essential step in the great work of improving and, as it were, of regenerating our system of common-school instruction. * * * The establishment of the State normal school was therefore looked forward to as the essential complement to all other plans. (Ib.)

⁵ While all other professions and pursuits have their appropriate schools and other means of preparation for the duties of their calling, why should the teacher alone be neglected? Why should he be allowed to try experiments upon our children until he has learned how to teach, wasting the precious time of our youth by the timidity naturally resulting from his want of practice, or destroying their tempers by the restlessness of one who has never learned to have command over himself? * * * I really believe that the important scheme of public schools can not be carried out as it should be without trained teachers. (Ib.)

⁶ I regard normal schools as the one indispensable thing for carrying forward a system of common schools. * * * How it can happen that a man shall need to serve an apprenticeship to make a boot, but can instruct and train a child by instinct is more than I can comprehend. (Ib.)

⁷ It affords me much pleasure to hear that you are taking measures for the establishment of a normal school in New Jersey. * * * It seems quite evident that the art of teaching—an art so difficult and so important—should require some special training for its attainment. If it did not, it would differ from all other intellectual arts. * * * The fact is that hardly any teacher is, as such, self-formed. He employs, as an instructor, the methods which were in use at the school where he received, his own education some years—perhaps a good many years—before. His teacher, in like manner probably followed traditional methods. Such a course can result in nothing but the perpetuation of errors, and must end in degeneracy. (Ib.)

frey, editor of the North American Review;¹ John A. Dix, of New York, formerly superintendent of common schools;² David P. Page,³ principal of the New York normal school at Albany.

The business committee reported a forcible and logical argument in favor of establishing a State normal school, and answering the most plausible objections.

(1) As to the expense.

(2) As to the difficulty of securing the services of the graduates of the normal school to the business of instruction in the State.

(3) As to the allegations that there is no necessity for normal schools, inasmuch as the business of instruction, like other social and private wants, is regulated by the commercial law of supply and demand.

(4) As to the assertion that it is not so much teachers that we need, nor schools for the education of teachers, as it is a higher compensation for their services.

(5) As to the apprehension that a due measure of religious instruction and influence can not be reconciled with the exclusion of sectarianism.

(6) That normal schools are an importation from Prussia, a monarchy, a despotism, well enough adapted to such a Government, but unsuited to the genius and temper of ours.

Time having thoroughly refuted the objections, the cogent and eloquent answers given in the report may be omitted here; but one is tempted to imagine that Bryant wrote "*Error crushed to earth will rise again*" when one recalls the fact that thirty-seven years after this report was written the sixth objection was strongly but ineffectually urged in the legislature of a neighboring State by the son of a German Jew.

The report was accepted and the accompanying resolutions adopted *seriatim* without a single dissenting voice; yet it was not till the year 1855 that an act was passed by the legislature of New Jersey containing the following sections:

There shall be a normal school or seminary for the training and education of teachers in the art of instructing and governing the common schools of this State, the object of which school or seminary shall be the training and education of its pupils in such branches of knowledge and such methods of teaching and governing as will qualify them for teachers of our common schools.

The board of trustees are authorized to maintain a model school under permanent teachers in which the pupils of the normal school shall have opportunity to observe and practice the modes of instruction and discipline inculcated in the normal school, and in which pupils may be prepared for the normal school.

The act appropriated \$10,000 annually to the support of the school, but no provision was made for a site or buildings. It was left to the people to supply by voluntary action the means for which no provision had been made by the legislature.

This appeal to the people met with a warm and generous response. New Brunswick, Beverly, Orange, Trenton, and other places made liberal offers. After careful deliberation the trustees selected Trenton, where, by the liberality of the citizens, a large

¹ As chairman of a committee of our [Massachusetts] house of representatives I drew and defended the resolves of March 3, 1842, which placed normal schools on a permanent footing and established school libraries. I did more for others' good that day than in all the rest of my life put together. (Report on normal schools to the convention of the friends of education, Burlington, N. J., 1847.)

² It is now nearly nine years since I have been connected with the common-school system of New York. It was during the six preceding years, under my official superintendence, and it was among the first objects of my execution to improve the education of teachers; for without competent instructors schools are of very little use. * * * You will infer that I am very decidedly in favor of normal schools for the education of teachers. (Ib.)

³ In our State there is no doubt in the public mind but that teachers should be specially educated. The question now started is, Ought they to be educated by the State? * * * It seems to me it must be done by the State or not be done at all. The pay of teachers is not generally high enough yet to warrant much outlay of time and capital by the teachers themselves in their preparations, and they must be encouraged to do it by having a portion of the expense paid for them. Schools for teachers started without public aid have failed, I believe, in every instance. At any rate, they have degenerated into mere academies, in which the pupils have, as elsewhere, been allowed to choose their own studies, and, of course, to choose to neglect the elementary branches most necessary for them to learn. (Ib.)

and commodious building was erected after a plan prepared by the trustees. Sundry citizens of New Jersey sent a petition to the legislature in 1861 praying for the repeal of the act establishing the State Normal School, and asking for the appointment of a joint committee to investigate certain matters therein referred to. The committee on education reported that they did not "perceive either the necessity or the expediency of a committee of investigation, because all the facts called for were fully set forth in public documents to which all have ready access." The petitioners submitted that "at times like the present no unnecessary burden should be laid upon the people." The committee replied that "the great lesson taught at times like these [the beginning of the war] is that we should relax no effort, omit no expenditure, and cripple no resource necessary to the instruction and enlightenment of the masses of the people. The whole fabric of our Government reposes upon the foundation of virtue and intelligence universally diffused among the people; but such a foundation is possible only through good common schools everywhere established, liberally supported, and efficiently conducted by able and skillful teachers. To make good schools, we must first make good teachers. This is precisely the object and aim of the normal school, and the committee believes that a thorough investigation of the facts will establish beyond controversy that these aims and objects are being realized in a most satisfactory degree."

The committee concluded with a unanimous expression of their conviction that the prayer of the petitioners ought not to be granted.

There was until lately in some parts of the State a feeling adverse to the continuance of the normal school. The opposition was partly caused by entire misapprehension of the character and aims of the institution, and partly by an exaggerated estimate of the annual cost of supporting it. Not a solitary well-founded objection was raised, but the attacks being repeated annually were detrimental to the best interests of the institution and to the cause of popular education in the State.

OPENING OF THE SCHOOL AT TRENTON.

The State Normal School of New Jersey was opened in the fall of 1855 in a temporary building, rented for the purpose. New buildings were erected from time to time as they were needed. The last building was completed in 1890. It is so located as to connect the old buildings and thus enable the students to pass to all parts of the entire institution without going out of doors. It contains a chemical laboratory, a physical laboratory, a manual training shop, a library, a gymnasium, and an auditorium which seats about 600 persons.

On the opening day, in October, 1855, there were 15 pupils in attendance. At the close of the half year, 43. The attendance varied considerably from year to year. After rising to 140 in 1863, it fell to 53 in 1866. Of late it has been steadily on the increase; the last catalogue contains the names of 326 students enrolled in the normal school; 541 in the model school, and 127 in the Farnum Preparatory School. The number of students graduated from the normal during the year was 89—7 men and 82 women. Twenty-four of the graduates were from the advanced course; the remainder from the elementary course. All of them, except 4, were teaching "when last heard from," at salaries ranging from \$35 to \$80 a month.

The Farnum Preparatory School is located in the city of Beverly on the Delaware River, about 15 miles from Philadelphia. It was built by Paul Farnum in the year of 1855, and by an act of the legislature in 1857 it was made a part of the State school system, and placed under the control of the trustees of the State Normal School. An endowment of \$20,000 was bequeathed to the school by Mr. Farnum. The objects of the school are twofold: First, to act in conjunction with the normal school in the work of preparing teachers for the public schools of the State; secondly, to furnish to the citizens of Beverly and the vicinity a well-organized and well-conducted school, and the best advantages for the proper education of their children. Pupils,

intending to teach are admitted into the four highest classes free of tuition charges. These pupils receive daily lessons in teaching, and are required to assist the instructors in the work of the school. After passing through the preparatory department, they are admitted to the professional course of the normal school without examination. The income of the school is derived from three sources—the State appropriation of \$1,200 annually, the interest on the endowment of \$20,000, and the proceeds of tuition fees, which average about \$20 a year per capita.

Principals of the New Jersey State Normal School.

William F. Phelps.....	1855-1864
John S. Hart.....	1864-1870
Lewis M. Johnson.....	1870-1876
Washington Hasbrouck.....	1876-1889
James M. Green.....	1889

COURSE OF STUDY AT TRENTON SCHOOL.

The course of study for the normal extends through three years of two terms each. The work of the first year is formative in character, designed for such students as have been over it, but not in the thorough and disciplinary manner necessary to those who are to be teachers. While the work of this year can not be said to be strictly professional, it is made necessary by the conditions of our State, and, being taught by the regular normal teachers, it becomes in a peculiar way preparatory to the strictly professional work of the years to follow.

The work of the second and third years is strictly professional. While arithmetic, grammar, geography, United States history, etc., are again taken up in these years, they are considered fundamentally in the light of method or how to teach.

The professional subjects—psychology, theory and practice, the history and philosophy of education—are pursued, accompanied by practice teaching, extending over two years.

The practice teaching is so arranged that experience in teaching is given to each student in each of the common branches. This experience consists in observing the regular teacher, preparing plans for teaching, subject to the approval of the critic teacher, and actually teaching, both in the presence and absence of the regular teacher.

The following are the studies of the respective years. In each branch there are five forty-minute recitations per week, or the equivalent:

B.—Geography, physical and political; grammar, with composition; practical arithmetic; United States history, with Constitution; penmanship and bookkeeping; industrial drawing and vocal music, each the equivalent of one term; elocution, with orthography and declamation.

A.—Psychology, theory and practice, one term; methods in the elementary branches; practice, one term; zoology and physiology, one term; botany, one term; algebra, drawing, rhetoric, one term.

Senior.—Elementary physics; elementary chemistry, with mineralogy; geometry, first five books; Shakespeare, one term; outline history, one term; history and philosophy of education; practice teaching, two periods a day; manual training; physical training, throughout the course.¹

MARYLAND.

The history of the State Normal School of Maryland is the history of the public schools of Maryland. Up to the year 1865 there was no general system of public schools, except in the city of Baltimore. There were schools in every county, some good, some bad, most of them indifferent; but there was no coordination, no supervision, and very little vitality. In 1864, when the star of the Confederacy was about to set, a constitutional convention was called, in which a large majority of the members were supporters of the Union. The two most important objects of this convention were the extinction of slavery and the establishment of a State system of education. Both were accomplished. The new constitution contained the following sections:

¹ Annual Catalogue of the State Normal School of New Jersey, 1891.

SECTION 1. The governor shall, within thirty days after the ratification by the people of this constitution, appoint, subject to confirmation of the senate at its first session thereafter, a State superintendent of public instruction. * * * He shall report to the general assembly within thirty days after the commencement of its first session under this constitution a uniform system of free public schools. * * *

SEC. 3. * * * In case of failure on the part of the general assembly to provide [a public school system as required by the constitution], the system reported to it by the State superintendent of public instruction shall become the system of free public schools of the State: *Provided*, That the report of the State superintendent shall be in conformity with the provisions of this constitution, and such system shall be subject to such alterations, conformable to this article, as the general assembly shall from time to time enact.

The chairman of the committee of education in the constitutional convention was Joseph M. Cushing, esq., of Baltimore. He foresaw the possibility that the legislature might not carry into effect promptly the constitutional requirements respecting education, and therefore persuaded the convention to order that the State superintendent (who had not yet been appointed) should prepare a bill and submit it to the next legislature, with the provision that if the legislature failed to enact a law as required by the constitution the bill should become law. It was already well understood that Dr. Van Bokkelen would be appointed State superintendent. To these two gentlemen belongs the chief credit for the establishment of the public school system of Maryland. They deserve to rank with the educational pioneers of Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania.

The bill submitted to the general assembly by Dr. Van Bokkelen was "harmonious in its parts and comprehensive in its aims—a plan not of common schools, but of thorough and extended public education." It embraced eight titles: (1) supervision; (2) that which is to be supervised; (3) modes of securing competent teachers; (4) sources of income; (5) university of Maryland; (6) benevolent, remedial, and reformatory institutions; (7) aids and encouragements to universal education; (8) miscellaneous.

In the law finally enacted upon the basis furnished by the State superintendent the subjects embraced in the fifth, sixth, and seventh sections were omitted, and in the others his suggestions were followed without material variation.

In his first report, explaining the principles on which the bill was founded, Dr. Van Bokkelen says:¹

The enactments of the bill submitted are predicated upon principles which have been often discussed and now are accepted as the foundation of all sound legislation on the subjects with which they are connected.

First. Education ought to be universal.

Second. Education ought to be free.

Third. The property of the whole State is responsible for such education of every child in the State as will prepare him to perform the duties of a man and a citizen, in obedience to the laws of God and the laws of the Commonwealth. * * * Education must be free, free as the light and the air. The public schoolhouse must be open to every child, as open as the public highway which leads to its door. And this, not because it is the charitable duty of the State to offer education to all, but because it would be a high crime against humanity to withhold it. The free schools of the State are in no sense charity schools. Through them the State does not give one jot or tittle that each child has not a right to claim. It is the duty of the State, as the agent of the people, as the legal trustee of the whole property which she protects and enables to be used, to take care that the young are not defrauded of their rights. * * * Hence, as a natural sequence, the law which provides at public cost universal and free education should oblige parents to send their children to school and should inflict severe penalties on manufacturers who task young children in their mills, wearing out their bodies and starving their minds. * * * To correct, perchance atone, for the errors of the past, it is proposed to establish at once a thorough system, perhaps a model system. Maryland has no time for gradual development.

¹ Report of the State superintendent of public instruction to the general assembly of Maryland, together with a bill entitled "A uniform system of public instruction for the State of Maryland," Annapolis, 1865.

By one volition she can attain that which has cost her sister States years of experiment to secure. She has taken her place among the Commonwealths that proclaim universal freedom; why not rank also with those that provide universal education? Not the education which halts before the door of the primary school, but marches on, takes the poorest youth whom God has endowed with intellect, nurtures that intellect, gives it the benefit of the best culture and exhibits the pure benevolence of republicanism, which, by bestowing equal privileges upon all, gradually raises the humble to an equality with those who enjoy all the benefits of wealth and social position. Wisdom counsels us not to wait for years to accomplish that which by one earnest, vigorous, unselfish effort can be done in months. The work is before us. No partial system of gradual development, waiting for the decay of old prejudices or the abandonment of local preferences, can do this. If done at all, it will be by a system, perfect in its adaptations, comprehensive in its aims, and immediate in its operations. It will cost money; so do all great public works; but it will be the best and most productive investment the State has ever made—the purse appropriated to the development of brain.

The bill of Dr. Van Bokkelen was not accepted in its entirety, but it became the basis of a system which, with many alterations in nonessentials, has lasted to the present day, has served as a model to other States, and was pronounced by the late governor of the State in his farewell message to be “nearly perfect.”

The law as finally enacted provided for a State board of education, a State superintendent, county superintendents, district schools, graded schools, high schools, State uniformity of school books, a normal school and a model teachers' association, teachers' institutes, and an income from State taxation capable of supporting the schools six months in the year, with unlimited power of local taxation.

The first section of the chapter on the normal school reads thus: “There shall be located in the city of Baltimore, until the board of education shall otherwise direct, a State normal school for the instruction and practice of teachers of public schools in the science of education and the art of teaching and the mode of governing schools. The sessions of the State normal school shall be held in such suitable building as may be provided by the mayor and city council of Baltimore, or, they declining to do so, in such building as the State superintendent may select.”

The mayor and city council of Baltimore “declined to do so.” With a boys' high school and two girls' high schools, which they considered quite equal if not superior to a normal school, they did not feel under any obligation to enter into partnership with the school authorities of the State. Besides, at this time the relations of the State superintendent and the city superintendent were somewhat strained. Therefore search had to be made for a “suitable building.” None could be found; but after patient waiting a large hall was procured, by no means suitable in any respect, but the best that could be obtained. The school was opened on the 15th of January, 1866, with 11 students. At the close of the session in June there were 48 names on the roll. The next year there were 129 students, divided into four classes, each of which occupied one of the four corners of the hall. Notwithstanding this disadvantage the numbers continued to increase steadily for six years, when a large and commodious building was rented at \$3,000 a year, which gave accommodation to both the normal and the model school for three years. It soon became evident that even this large building would in a short time be too small. Accordingly it was necessary to apply to the legislature for a new building specially arranged for school purposes. Application after application failed to produce any result, but finally, by dint of constant hammering, an appropriation of \$100,000 was granted to purchase a site and erect a building. The school took possession of the new building in 1876. It is a very beautiful structure and contains a hall capable of seating nearly 800 persons, ten class rooms, a library, a reception room, an office, a laboratory (physical and chemical), an apparatus room, a calisthenium, and a residence for the principal. But even this house is now insufficient for the demands of the school. It needs a larger library and reading room, a gymnasium, a lecture room, a drawing room, a manual training workshop, a larger chemical laboratory, a sewing room, a

kitchen for lessons in cookery, and additional cloak and toilet rooms. Numbers are no test of the professional value of a school, although they may afford a fair estimate of its popularity. One may travesty the words of Pope—

But most by *numbers*, judge the poet's song—

and apply them to schools, normal and abnormal. A school that gives what its clientèle demands, and at a satisfactory cost, is sure to grow in numbers, at least if it has been properly located. The Maryland school has never courted numbers. From 18— to 1890 one principal object was to retard its numerical growth. The organic law restricted the number of professional students pledged to teach in the public schools of Maryland to 200, with the permission to receive as many pay students as amounted to half the number of those enrolled and pledged to teach in the public schools. But as the free appointments were divided among the several counties in proportion to the number of representatives each county had in the general assembly, there arose a difficulty in the distribution. At first this arrangement allowed two students for each member of the legislature, but as the population increased the number of representatives increased, and the per capita became one and a fraction. Now there is no known method of teaching a fraction of a student or even of obtaining a fractional student to be taught, and so the multiplier 2 was necessarily continued, and under the present law must continue for many years.

As has already been stated, the law allows the admission, on the payment of fees, of one student, free of obligations to teach in the public schools, for every two who have signed the declaration of their intention thus to teach. The purpose was to preserve the professional character of the school as a training school for teachers. Accordingly no special instruction is given to unprofessional students; they simply have the privilege of joining such regular classes as they may be inclined and qualified to enter. There is but one curriculum for all. In striking contrast with the number of "courses" advertised in many normal-school catalogues—elementary, advanced, scientific, classical, commercial, collegiate, etc.—the primary object of the school is simply the training of young persons as teachers of the common district schools in esse and in posse. The effect of constant adherence to this principle has been that about 95 per cent of the graduates and 50 per cent of the undergraduates and a majority of the unpledged students who completed the course have become teachers of the public schools—a small proportion of them in city schools, but by far the largest number in rural districts.

A model school was provided for in the organic law: "The State board of education shall make provision for model and experimental primary and grammar schools, under qualified teachers, in which students of the normal school shall have an opportunity to practice the modes of instruction and discipline inculcated in the normal school." The model school is still an experiment, not an achievement. It was commenced in the first year as a school of observation and practice, the practice largely predominating. It was necessarily a pay school. Had it been a free school it would have come into undesirable competition with the public schools of the city. As a pay school, some parents complained, without just reason, that their children were made subjects of experiment. The fact is that the children were better taught than they had been before or have been since. But *vox populi* prevailed because the fees were a welcome addition to the restricted income derived from the State. The school then became a school of observation with a seasoning of practice. At present it affords a minimum both of observation and practice, owing to peculiar circumstances, which throw no light on the general question of the place of the model school in an institution for the training of teachers. The subject presents no difficulties in a city training school nor in small towns where there is a unity of purpose between the local school authorities and the superintendent of the normal school. But a State normal school, located in a large city, organized for the special

purpose of preparing teachers for the district country schools, will have a hard road to travel to establish a school of observation and practice which shall meet both the theoretical and practical requirements of the case.

The scholastic attainments required by law for admission into the normal school are a knowledge of the branches "hereinbefore required from teachers." In other words, an applicant for admission must be already legally qualified to teach school. The theory is correct, but in practice not one in ten would apply for admission. The aim of nine-tenths is to be legally qualified, not better qualified. A strict adherence to the law would have had the effect to prepare a very few teachers for higher—or, rather, for more remunerative—positions than country schools, and thus the main intent of the law would have been frustrated. The appointment of free students was vested in the boards of county school commissioners, and they, taking a practical and not a legal view of the case, sent up large numbers of students who needed academic rather than professional instruction, and the normal-school authorities had no right, and indeed no desire, to refuse them admission.

This large infusion of academic instruction was not without its advantages. The young graduate, when thrown upon his own resources as a teacher of a country school, found more help and inspiration in the recollection of the practices and methods of his normal teachers than in the psychological principles and pedagogical precepts with which his notebook was filled.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.¹

The course of instruction extends through three years. Graduates of high schools and certificated teachers may enter the second year's class without examination, and the third year's class on passing an examination on the studies of the second year.

First year, first term.—Review of arithmetic, mental and written; geometry, first book; object lessons; history and geography; English composition, letter writing; pedagogy, lectures on methods in elementary schools; Latin grammar (optional).

First year, second term.—Algebra, through simple equations; English grammar, parsing and analysis; English composition; physiology; Latin reader (optional); lectures on teaching, organization and government of elementary schools.

Second year, first term.—Geometry (plane), continued; geography and map drawing; algebra, completed; botany and natural history; pedagogy, lectures on principles; Latin (optional), Virgil.

Second year, second term.—Arithmetic, completed; parsing and analysis; elocution; English literature; pedagogy, lectures on principles and methods; chemistry, laboratory work; cooking.

Third year, first term.—Physics; physical geography; botany (field work); English literature; geometry, completed; Latin (optional), Cicero.

Third year, second term.—General review of elementary studies, with reference to practical teaching; trigonometry and practical surveying (for men); bookkeeping by double entry; teaching exercises; pedagogy, history of education; psychology, logic.

Singing, drawing, and calisthenics are taught in every term except the last; also sewing (to women) and military tactics and the use of woodworking tools (to men).

Students will be examined on entrance in order to ascertain the proper class to which they should be assigned. Admission to the lowest class will require that the candidate should be able to read fluently, spell correctly, write legibly and rapidly, and perform accurately easy computations in whole numbers and in vulgar and decimal fractions. Young persons who have not received a good primary education should not expect to obtain it at this school, under the claim that they are training for teachers; but all due allowance will be made for earnest and diligent students who will exert themselves to obtain a good standing during the first term of probation. No student will be allowed to enter an advanced class until all the work required in the lower classes has been performed satisfactorily.

Students differ very greatly, both in natural ability and acquired preparation. It is not expected that all shall make equal advancement in equal times. To fail to pass an examination is of itself no disgrace. The disgrace lies in the want of due diligence; or, still more, in the desire to seem to be that which one is not.

¹ From the Catalogue of 1890.

Number of students in normal school proper June 1, 1891.

Ladies.....	307
Gentlemen	24
	331

Number of graduates:

From the organization to June, 1890.....	768
Who taught in public schools, about	691
Who were teaching in 1891 or when last heard from	547
Ladies, married.....	119
Deceased (from 1866 to 1891)	40

Principals.

Libertus Van Bokkelen, D. D. (ex officio).....	1865-1867
M. A. Newell, Ph. D	1867-1890
E. B. Prettyman	1890

III.

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC STATES.

VIRGINIA.

STATE FEMALE NORMAL SCHOOL, FARMVILLE.

On the 31st of March, 1879, the senate of Virginia passed the following resolution:

Whereas the State of Virginia, during almost the entire period of her history, has liberally provided for the higher education of her sons, and is now supporting three superior institutions for such purpose; and

Whereas the Commonwealth has never, at any period of her history, made any provision whatever for the education of her daughters; Therefore, be it

Resolved, That the superintendent of public instruction be, and he is hereby, requested to gather and in his next annual report furnish to this body such information and views in regard to higher female education as might be useful in considering the propriety and practicability of making by this State some provision in this direction; and that he inquire and report the cost of education in such female seminaries of other States as are assisted or supported at public expense with any matter of interest concerning the same.¹

The resolution says not a word about normal schools—wisely, perhaps; higher education was more popular with Virginia legislators than normal education. But the State superintendent in his response to the order of the legislature included normal schools among the agencies of higher education, while he pressed upon the community “the unjust discrimination that had been made in favor of the sons and against the daughters of Virginia.” Five years elapsed—years of financial embarrassment and years of needed enlightenment of the public mind under the tuition of that eminent public educator, Dr. W. H. Ruffner, State superintendent—and when the legislature of Virginia took up the question of the higher education of women in 1884 it was prepared to give a favorable answer.

The normal schools of the South, with the exception of South Carolina, were post bellum and, to a great extent, propter bellum. Being the necessary complement of a system of free schools, without such a system normal schools had no *raison d'être*. It is a curious coincidence that every argument that has been brought against the establishment of normal schools had previously been urged against the maintenance of free public schools. We may expect to find the development of a State system of public schools to be accompanied or followed by the establishment of normal

¹ Report concerning the State Normal School at Farmville. House Doc. No. 2, 1885.

schools. The efficiency of either may always be measured by the progress of the other.

The State Female Normal School of Virginia is the successor and, to a certain extent, the outgrowth of the Farmville Female College, an institution which had been in successful operation for many years previous to the transformation. The legislature enacted in 1884 that there should be established a normal school expressly for the training and education of white female teachers for public schools. Each city of 5,000 inhabitants and each county of the 100 counties in the State was to be entitled to send one pupil free of cost for tuition; also one free pupil for each additional representative in the house of delegates above one. The law appropriated \$5,000 for preliminary expenses and \$10,000 a year for current expenditure, the amount to be paid out of the public free-school fund. This last clause produced some embarrassment and delay. The second auditor refused to honor the draft of the school board for \$10,000 because the attorney-general had given his opinion that it was not legally chargeable to the public-school fund, but to the general treasury, and the auditor declined to pay the amount out of any other fund than the one specified in the act. So the question was carried to the court of appeals, which decided that the amount could not be paid out of either. But the legislature at its first session thereafter cut the Gordian knot and the money was paid.

The first principal of the school was Dr. William H. Ruffner, who had been for twelve years previously State superintendent of public instruction. In an address delivered by him in 1885, before the county superintendents of Virginia, he explained the modes of teaching employed by the instructors:

In normal schools generally the oral method of instruction is employed more fully than is usually practicable in other schools. On most subjects there is no text-book used in the way text-books are commonly employed—that is, there is no uniform set of books in which lessons are assigned to be couched and recited. Books are used only for reference, and any book containing the facts or expositions wanted may be resorted to. In teaching the elementary principles of any study, no use whatever is made of a book.

The principle sought is developed as far as possible by a system of questions addressed orally to the students in class, which will often bring together truths already known in such a way as to reveal their fundamental relations and suggest the desired principle. Examples and perhaps concrete illustrations may also be employed as guides. The teacher must, of course, make affirmative statements, but these are made only when the principle or the fact can not be reached through the previously existing knowledge or the understanding of the student. When, by the combined efforts of teacher and students, the desired statement is put in due form, it is written on the blackboard and copied into the note books and subsequently recited upon. After a time topics are assigned, which the students are required to prepare themselves to expound, and they are expected to resort not to particularly specified books, but to any books they can find which will afford them the help they need. A reference room, furnished with suitable books, is provided for this purpose.

A still more specialized feature in the course is the teaching exercise, given daily by the students as a part of each lesson. The students repeat the teacher's work according to their several ability. Usually the student is notified in advance that she will be called upon to teach a given topic at the proper time, and she is expected to develop the subject by a carefully prepared system of questions and statements, exactly as if she were instructing a class in her own school. At the end of each exercise the members of the class are allowed to make criticisms, and the teacher also corrects any error as to matter or manner.

Dr. Ruffner's successor, Prof. John A. Cunningham, found that these teaching exercises occupied too large a part of the time of the class, and were in his opinion a serious obstacle to progress in the study of subject-matter. As the majority of students were pursuing many of their studies for the first time, it was thought impossible for them to assume the point of view of the teacher in a subject of which they had obtained an incomplete view. Besides, the necessity for such exercises had been lessened by increased amount of work in the practice school. Accordingly the

course of study was divided so as to give two years for academic training and one of strictly professional work. The courses of study, as now (1891) planned, are—

First year, two terms.—Language, including syntax, composition, and thorough sentence analysis; algebra and geometry; physiology, one term; physical geography, one term; general history, drawing, vocal music, elocution, Latin (elective).

Second year, two terms.—History of the English language, rhetoric, and literature; geometry, one term; a teachers' review of arithmetic, one term; chemistry, one term; civics, one term; drawing, vocal music, Latin (elective).

Third year, professional course.—Psychology; history and science of education; school management; methods in arithmetic, grammar, geography, and reading; school laws of Virginia; observation and practice in the model school.

Graduates from known high schools are admitted to the professional course and after one year's successful study under the direction of the faculty are given a diploma.

The annual appropriation from the State is \$10,000.

The number of students for the year ending 1890 was 143, of whom 14 were in the professional course and 8 in special courses.¹

WEST VIRGINIA.

MARSHALL COLLEGE, HUNTINGTON.

The State normal school of West Virginia was established by act of the legislature February, 1867, which provided "That there be established a State normal school, to be called the 'West Virginia State Normal School,' for the instruction and practice of teachers of common schools in the science of education and the art of teaching." Marshall College, near the young and growing city of Huntington, having already acquired considerable reputation as an educational institution, was made the State normal school, and the property of the college was transferred to the State. Subsequently five branches of the State normal school were established by law, making six normal schools in the State.² The supreme direction is in the board of regents, composed of the superintendent of free schools, ex officio, and one member appointed by the governor from each of the four Congressional districts of the State. The board of regents has provided for two distinct courses of study in the State normal school and its branches—a normal training course and an academic course. The former occupies three years; the latter two years. The junior year in the normal department embraces orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, English grammar and language lessons, United States history, elementary algebra, civil government, physiology, drawing, exercises in composition and declamation. The middle year embraces orthography, reading, prose composition, sentence analysis, physical geography, algebra to quadratics, elements of general history, theory and practice of teaching, elements of pedagogy, the school law of the State, exercises in composition and declamation, ancient or modern languages (optional). The senior year includes spelling by dictation and written exercises, English literature and rhetoric, algebra (completed), elementary geometry and trigonometry, elements of natural philosophy, natural history, botany, bookkeeping by single entry, psychology, history of education, frequent exercises in hearing classes recite, the organization and classification of schools.

The practical working of the regents' scheme will be better understood from the following programme, taken from the Catalogue of the State Normal School at Fairmont for the year 1890:

¹ Report and Catalogue of the State Female Normal School of Virginia, 1888, 1889-1890.

² Catalogue of Marshall College, the State Normal School, Huntington, W. Va., 1889-1890.

Programme for daily work.

FALL TERM.

[8.45 to 9.10 a. m., opening exercises, including orthography.]

	9.10-9.50.	9.50-10.30.	10.40-11.20.	11.20-12.
Junior class ...	Civil government ..	Mental arithmetic..	Higher arithmetic to per cent.	Elementary language.
Middle class ..	Elementary algebra.	Mental to fractions.	Higher arithmetic to exchange.	Higher language begun.
Senior class ...	Higher algebra.....	Natural philosophy.	Psychology.....	English grammar.
	1.20-2 p. m.	2-2.40.	2.40-3.30.	3.20-4.
Junior class ...	Penmanship.....	United States history.	Reading.....	Intermediate geography.
Middle class ..	Elementary physiology.	Physical geography.	Elocution.....	Bookkeeping.
Senior class ...	Rhetoric.....	Geometry.....	English literature ..	General history.

WINTER TERM.

	9.10-9.50.	9.50-10.30.	10.40-11.20.	11.20-12.
Junior class ...	Civil government ..	Mental arithmetic..	Higher arithmetic to exchange.	Elementary language.
Middle class ..	Elementary algebra.	do	Higher arithmetic to series.	Higher lessons in English.
Senior class ...	Higher algebra.....	Natural philosophy.	Psychology.....	English grammar.
	1.20-2 p. m.	2-2.40.	2.40-3.20.	3.20-4.
Junior class ...	Penmanship.....	United States history.	Reading.....	Intermediate geography.
Middle class ..	Higher physiology..	Physical geography.	Elocution.....	Bookkeeping.
Senior class ...	Rhetoric.....	Geometry.....	English literature ..	General history.

SPRING TERM.

	9.10-9.50.	9.50-10.30.	10.40-11.20.	11.20-12.
Junior class ...	Elementary algebra begun.	Mental arithmetic..	Higher arithmetic to series.	Elementary language.
Middle class ..	Higher algebra to powers.	do	Higher arithmetic..	Higher English.
Senior class ...	Theory and practice school law.	Natural philosophy.	Psychology.....	Grammar.
	1.20-2 p. m.	2-2.40.	2.40-3.20.	3.20-4.
Junior class ...	Penmanship.....	United States history.	Elementary English literature.	Intermediate geography.
Middle class ..	Higher physiology..	Geometry begun ...	Higher English literature.	Bookkeeping.
Senior class ...	Rhetoric.....	Mensuration and trigonometry.	English literature ..	General history.

The academic course is understood to be equivalent to a preparatory college course, and is accepted as such by the State university.

Tuition is free to all regular normal students. The number of free appointments is regulated by the board of regents and distributed among the several counties of the State according to population. Each normal school is entitled to seventy free scholars, selected by the county superintendents and approved by the State superin-

tendent. "Male pupils must not be less than 14 and females not less than 13 years of age."

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, FAIRMONT.

The State normal school at Fairmont was opened in 1868. A bill proposing the establishment of such a school at this place was introduced into the legislature in the session of 1865-66, but failed to pass. Not discouraged by the failure, the citizens formed a joint stock company under the title of "The Regency of the West Virginia Normal School," secured a charter, purchased a lot, and commenced building, but before the house was completed the normal school passed under the control of the State. In 1872 a new and much larger building was erected, 80 by 40 feet and three stories high. The cost was about \$20,000, of which one-half came from the State treasury and the other from the citizens of Fairmont and Marion County.

The course of study at Fairmont, though conforming to the requirements of the regents' course, is elastic and very accommodating:

Can pupils be accommodated in any course they may desire to pursue? Most certainly they can; and if classes are not formed ready for them to enter, such classes will be organized for their advantage. The plan of the school is to meet the demand of its patrons. * * *

To what extent can pupils pursue branches of learning? To this inquiry our reply is: To the same extent they can in any other institution. In this school there are both normal and collegiate departments. * * *

Is it better to remain out of school and teach a year, or to teach a term of four or three months each year and try at the same time to keep up with the classes in the normal school? We have no hesitation in saying it is best in every respect for the student, whether lady or gentleman, to teach but three or four months in the year and to hold his position in the classes of the normal school at the same time. This a young man of energy and good health and application can do by an extra effort. * * * The only plan to secure success on the part of young persons in gaining an education by their own efforts is to join the normal school at once, become identified with its work, and then avail themselves of the provisions of its regulations, which allow students to teach four months during the year.¹

SHEPHERD COLLEGE, SHEPHERDSTOWN.

During the spring of 1871 Mr. Shepherd Brooks was asked to give the buildings erected by his grandfather, and which had been used as a court-house for some years, for the purpose of opening therein a classical and scientific school, and the request was readily granted. A board of trustees was incorporated, a charter obtained, and the school opened in September. In the following February the legislature authorized the organization of a branch State normal school at Shepherd College; but owing to legislative changes the school did not get fully into operation until September, 1873.

In addition to the normal and academic departments common to all the normal schools of West Virginia, Shepherd College has, according to the catalogue, a collegiate department, and an "ornamental department," which includes a course in vocal and instrumental music, a course in French, a course in botany, a course in drawing, and a course in art embroidery. The music course requires four years for its completion and the French course three years. The last catalogue has the names of twenty-three students in the "ornamental department."

Shepherdstown is a very interesting place. It is the oldest town in West Virginia. The college bears the name of one of the original settlers, Thomas Shepherd, who led a colony of emigrants from Pennsylvania in 1734. The battlefield of Antietam is but 3 miles distant. South Mountain is in sight, and farther east is Harper's Ferry. One of the cliffs, just outside the corporation, is known as Rumsey's Walk. Pacing its heights, an inventive genius, James Rumsey, conceived the plan of the

¹Catalogue of the Twenty-first Annual Session of the Fairmont Branch of the West Virginia State Normal School at Fairmont, Marion County. Charleston, 1890.

first steamboat, and built a boat which antedates Fulton's by more than twenty years, and launched it on the Potomac in 1785.¹

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, GLENVILLE.

The State Normal School at Glenville was established by an act of the legislature passed in February, 1872, and was opened in pursuance thereof in January, 1873. In 1885 there was a State appropriation of \$5,000 made for a new building, and in 1887 \$2,000 additional were granted for the purchase of furniture and apparatus. As in the other normal schools of the State, there are two courses, the normal and the academic, arranged on the lines prescribed by the board of regents; but "any studies desired may be pursued in addition to those in the normal curriculum, and every pupil is always furnished with all the studies he can successfully pursue." Boarding, with room, fuel, and light, can be had at from \$2 to \$2.50 per week. "Boarding is lower priced here than at any other school of high grade in the State." Term reports, containing the number of days absent, the number of times tardy, and the average grade in each branch studied, and the results of examination in each branch, made up from the records of the school, are transmitted through the pupils to the parents or guardians of every pupil. There is a small but very useful library of reference books, and a cabinet of philosophical apparatus complete enough for the illustration of ordinary text-books on natural philosophy².

The students registered (1889-90) numbered 96; 19 seniors, 23 middle class, and 54 juniors. The faculty consists of the principal, two regular assistants and two assisting students.

NORTH CAROLINA.

STATE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, GREENSBORO.

The constitution of 1776 contained the following (Article XLI):

A school or schools shall be established by the legislature for the convenient instruction of youth, with such salaries to the masters, paid by the public, as may enable them to instruct at low prices; and all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities.

The constitution of 1868, Article IX, section 16, declares that—

The general assembly shall establish and maintain, in connection with the university, a department of agriculture, of mechanics, of mining, and of normal instruction.

A considerable amount of normal instruction was given previous to 1888, in connection with the University of North Carolina, by means of teachers' institutes, summer normal schools, and a normal course of three months in the university; and in 1888 a chair of pedagogy was established. But as the university is open to men only, this step increased the urgency of the demand for a school for women. It was said, as had been said in Virginia some years previously, that it took the State more than a century to learn that "youth" means girls as well as boys; that from three-fourths to nine-tenths of the money used to employ instructors in higher education for boys is paid by State and national appropriations, or by the income from endowment funds; and that if the State proposed to pay for nearly all a boy's higher education, it ought to do at least as much for his sister. The justice of these views was clearly, forcibly, persistently, and one might almost say authoritatively, urged by the teachers of the State. The fourth annual session of the North Carolina Teachers' Assembly was held at Morehead City in June, 1887. It was one of the largest and most intelligent assemblages of teachers of one State ever seen in the

¹ Sixteenth Annual Catalogue of Shepherd College, branch of the State Normal School, Shepherds-town, W. Va. Charleston, 1889.

² Catalogue of the West Virginia State Normal School at Glenville, Gilmer County, W. Va., for the year 1889-90.

South. The chief topic discussed was the need of a State normal college for both sexes. The committee appointed at a previous meeting (1886) to memorialize the general assembly for the establishment of a normal college was continued, with instructions to keep the subject before that body until the college was established. Each succeeding teachers' assembly passed similar resolutions and appointed similar committees. One is reminded of the importunate widow whose "continual coming" worried the judge. But though the argument of the committee was reenforced by the governor and the State superintendent, it was not until 1889 that the subject was seriously taken up by the general assembly. At that session the legislature was "almost persuaded," the bill presented by the committee of the general assembly having passed the Senate, and failed in the House by but a few votes. At the next session, 1891, with the aid of the King's Daughters, Dr. J. L. M. Curry, and the North Carolina Farmers' Alliance, the assault was renewed and the fort surrendered.

The act establishing the institution required that it should be located "at some suitable place where the citizens thereof will furnish the necessary buildings or money sufficient to erect them." The town of Greensboro offered \$30,000 cash and a 10-acre lot within the corporate limits—the last being a donation from two public-spirited citizens of Raleigh.

The buildings are beautiful without and comfortable within, and were expected to be ready for occupancy on the 23th of September, the day named for the opening of the school. The faculty consists of the president, Charles D. McIver, professor of (1) principles and history of education and the science and art of teaching, and professors in the following chairs: (2) history and English literature; (3) mathematics and German; (4) natural sciences; (5) physiology and hygiene, physical culture; (6) Latin and French; (7) vocal music and elocution; (8) industrial art; (9) domestic science.

It is intended that the school should embrace three departments: (1) The normal department; (2) the business department; (3) the domestic science department.

The object of the normal department is not only to give the very best literary and scientific training, but also to give such a course in the principles and history of education and in the science and art of teaching as will give the student the ability and the inclination to teach others.

The business or commercial course embraces stenography, typewriting, telegraphy, and bookkeeping, and is intended for women who wish to make their own living but have no desire to become teachers.

The domestic science department recognizes the fact that the natural and proper position in life for the average woman is at the head of her own household. It includes theory and practice in sewing, cutting and fitting, cooking, care of the sick, and general household economy.

To complete the full course of instruction will require four years of work, and graduates will receive a diploma equivalent to a life certificate to teach in the public schools of North Carolina.¹

SOUTH CAROLINA.

The winged seeds of the "normal idea" had been wafted as far south as Charleston before the war; but what good seed could flourish amid the flames of civil strife? The people of South Carolina had a State normal school, not in idea merely, but in actual existence, in 1860. It was called the "Girls' High and Normal School;" but as each Congressional district was authorized to send fifteen students to the normal department, it was de facto a State normal school.

The commissioners of free schools, C. S. Memminger, chairman, in explaining the purposes of the school, say: "It is proposed to form into a special class all those [young women] whose purpose is to devote themselves to this honorable work [teach-

¹ Prospectus of the Normal and Industrial School of North Carolina, 1892.

ing], and whose qualifications admit of their receiving the proper course of instruction. * * * The power of teaching well comes not by intuition. * * * It comes as other arts come, by special training."¹

Of course the school expired amid the flames.

In 1874 a State normal school was opened at Columbia, and after a short career, full of promise, was closed by the withdrawal of the State appropriation.

WINTHROP SCHOOL.

In the summer of 1886, Prof. D. B. Johnson, superintendent of the graded schools of Columbia, went north on a professional visit to several normal schools, and, in an interview with the trustees of the Peabody fund, was assured of an annual appropriation of \$1,500 for the purpose of establishing, in Columbia, a training school for the teachers of South Carolina. In December, 1886, an act of the legislature was passed entitled, "An act relating to the Winthrop Training School for Teachers." The preamble and first section read thus:

"Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the State of South Carolina, now met and sitting in general assembly, and by the authority of the same:

"SECTION 1. That there is hereby founded and established, at Columbia, S. C., 'The Winthrop Training School for Teachers;' that the particular aim and object of said school shall be to educate and train persons desirous of following the profession of teaching."

Section 2 constitutes the board of school commissioners of the city of Columbia ex officio "Trustees of the Winthrop Training School for Teachers," and confers upon them the most ample powers for the execution of the trust.

Section 3 provides that the functions and duties of the trustees of the Winthrop Training School for Teachers shall be separate and distinct from those of the school commissioners of the school district of the city of Columbia.

Section 4 authorizes and empowers the trustees to receive donations and bequests, and to hold real and personal property to the amount of \$100,000 for the use and benefit of the school.

Section 5. "The said trustees are authorized and empowered to grant diplomas to all persons who satisfactorily complete the prescribed course of study and training in said school; and persons holding such diplomas will be entitled, without further examination, to teach in any of the public schools of the State as first-grade teachers."

The school was named in honor of Robert C. Winthrop, the venerable chairman of the trustees of the Peabody fund.

The school is not altogether a free school; there is a fee for tuition of \$2 a month, or \$5 a term for each of the three terms of twelve weeks, if paid in advance at the beginning of the term. One young lady from each county is received free of tuition charges on the recommendation of the county board of examiners. The State of South Carolina makes annual appropriation for 34 scholarships, of the value of \$150 each, a scholarship to be given to one student from each county of the State; \$30 of this sum is given to the school for tuition, text-books, etc., and the remaining \$120 is given to the student in installments of \$40 each at the beginning of each term, to assist her in defraying her personal expenses of traveling, board, etc. This money is paid out to the students only upon the order of the State superintendent of education. The beneficiaries of the scholarships are selected by competitive written examinations in the different counties. In addition to the State scholarships, a scholarship for tuition is given by the school to the young lady in each county who receives second rank in the county examinations. Neither the State scholarship nor the tuition scholarship is given unless the examination proves satisfactory, and no scholarship is allowed to any person for more than one session. On the completion

¹ Annual Report of United States Bureau of Education, 1867-68.

of their course beneficiary students are required by law "to teach for one year in the common schools of the respective counties from which they were appointed, provided positions are offered them as first-grade teachers in such schools."

COURSE OF STUDY.

The curriculum (catalogue 1889-90) includes the following studies and the methods of teaching them: Reading, spelling, English language, arithmetic, geography, physiology, history of the United States, lessons on form and color, lessons on plants and animals, elements of physics, penmanship, drawing, vocal music and calisthenics, psychology, history of education, school organization and management, and practice in teaching.

Applicants for admission are required to be not less than 17 years of age, and must express their intention of engaging in the profession of teaching. They must also pass a satisfactory entrance examination in reading, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history of the United States, and penmanship.

The school [says the superintendent] is a normal training school in all its courses. Its aim is strictly professional, and only those pupils are wanted who are ready to undertake the work with a feeling of personal interest in teaching as a profession. * * * The design of the school is to prepare for teachers young women who already have a good education by training them in methods of teaching and school management. * * * The normal class work extends through the course, and includes logical reviews of all subjects of common-school study from the teacher's standpoint. In each study the subject is analyzed into its divisions and subdivisions, arranged topically in logical order. In most of the common-school studies the outline is divided into an elementary course for the primary grades, and a secondary or scientific course for the higher grades. * * * The practice teaching is intended to be an application of the principles studied in the normal class, so that the whole course of training may give, not a servile imitation of methods now in use, but such independent, progressive teaching ability as will enable one to adapt herself to the needs of any school, whether graded or ungraded, in city or country.

The practice department of the school contains about 100 children, forming classes in the first, second, and third primary grades. These children are taught by the pupil-teachers, subject to the constant supervision of two of the teachers of the school. Opportunity is also given to the students to observe thoroughly the work done in the higher grades of the Columbia graded schools.¹

The Hon. James H. Rice, State superintendent of public instruction, says in his report for 1888:

The legislature established a normal college for males within the South Carolina University. * * * The Winthrop Training School for Females was established two years ago. * * * By a happy arrangement with the trustees of the Winthrop Training School the students of both institutions have the privilege of attending upon the lectures of both colleges. It [the Winthrop Training School] was founded by Superintendent D. B. Johnson with slender means, and seemed as frail a bark as the *Mayflower* of the Pilgrim fathers. To the timid it promised nothing but disaster to mariners and crew. Under the skillful and practiced hand of the president it has weathered the storm. * * * This movement is rich in promise alike to the State and the young lady students. We secure trained talent for the schools and they have the means of making an honorable living. This is the first dollar South Carolina has given to educate her daughters, and it has been most worthily bestowed. * * * It is proper to say that this effort was made possible by the liberality of the Peabody trustees, through their accomplished secretary, Dr. S. A. Green. * * * Institutions for normal training are now a part of the ordinary educational machinery and need no vindication. * * * It is presumed that the State has only begun this work. Modifications may and will be needed in the plan of operations and the methods of assistance. She can never retrace her steps.²

¹ Reports of the Winthrop Training School, Columbia, S. C., 1886, 1890.

² Twentieth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of South Carolina. Columbia, 1888.

GEORGIA.

NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL COLLEGE FOR GEORGIA GIRLS, MILLEDGEVILLE.

The original bill for the establishment of this institution was introduced into the Georgia legislature in July, 1889, and became a law in the following November. The corner stone of the college building was laid in November, 1890, and the college was opened on the 30th of September, 1891, with 88 pupils. The year closed with 171 regular matriculates, including 64 normal students proper, and 92 special students. The second session (September, 1892) opened with 272 pupils coming from 94 different counties in Georgia. The college seems to have sprung, like Pallas from the head of Zeus, full grown and fully armed.

The building and grounds cost \$100,000. The annual appropriation from the State amounts to \$18,000, which is supplemented by a donation from the Peabody fund of \$1,800.

The title "Normal and Industrial" indicates the purpose of the college, which is to enable girls—

- (1) To do intelligent work as teachers, according to the best modern methods.
- (2) To earn a livelihood by the practice of some of the industrial arts suitable to women.
- (3) To exert an uplifting and refining influence on the home circle and on general society.
- (4) To acquire skill in those domestic arts that lie at the foundation of successful housekeeping.

The four principal departments, normal, industrial, collegiate, and domestic, do not form four distinct and separate schools; they are coordinate parts of one complete system, and are so related to one another as to form one harmonious whole.

The full normal course extends through four years. The professional studies for each year are: *Freshman*, Baldwin's School Management; *Sophomore*, Baldwin's Educational Psychology and observation visits to model school; *Junior*, Compayré's History of Pedagogy and observation visits to model school; *Senior*, Practice teaching in Model School.

The model school was established and is maintained entirely by means of an annual donation from the Peabody fund. It serves both as a school of observation and as a practice school for students of the senior normal class. It is composed of forty children from 6 to 11 years of age divided into four grades.

The general, or literary and scientific course for normal students is identical with the collegiate course.

COLLEGIATE DEPARTMENT.

Freshman class.—Elementary algebra, Meiklejohn's English Language, Parts I and II; physics, American classics, Roman history, Cæsar, prose composition.

Sophomore class.—Algebra, completed; English Language, Parts II and III; chemistry, History of England; studies in Scott and Tennyson, Cicero and Virgil.

Junior class.—Geometry, plane and solid; critical study of Shakespeare's plays, geology and physical geography, ancient and mediæval history, Horace, Livy, Tacitus.

Senior class.—Trigonometry, arithmetic reviewed, critical study of English classics, astronomy, civics and current history, standard current literature, cooking.

All pupils who take the college course only, without the normal course, are expected to devote at least five hours a week to the study of some one of the industrial arts.

Care has been taken not to overcrowd the curriculum with a multiplicity of studies. The plan of instruction has been intensive rather than extensive. Every art and science is a microcosm, containing in itself the principle and essence of all other arts and sciences; for instance, study chemistry well and you have the principle and essence of all science; study Shakespeare well and you have the principle and essence of all poetry; study the story of ancient Rome well and you have the principle and

essence of all history. Another reason for making the studies fewer than are usually found in college courses is that time may be had for the industrial arts, to which every pupil is required to give a fair share of her attention.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

The studies in this department are, (1) stenography and typewriting; (2) telegraphy; (3) bookkeeping; (4) dressmaking; (5) free-hand and industrial drawing; (6) cooking.

In selecting these from all the available industries, the authorities of the college had regard primarily to their business value and secondarily to their culture value. * * * Carefully compiled statistics show that the first four arts mentioned have a greater business value for women than any other employments whatever. * * * Cooking, the sixth and last in the list, was selected, of course, almost entirely for its domestic or household value. * * * The design of this institution, however, is to educate the head as well as the hand, and its firm purpose is to avoid turning out mere workwomen, ignorant of everything except the narrow craft by which they earn their living. No pupil, therefore, will be allowed to devote herself to the industrials to the exclusion of all other studies unless she can demonstrate to the president that she has already a fair English education.¹

FLORIDA.

The legislature of Florida passed an act in 1851 establishing two seminaries of learning, "one upon the east, the other on the west side of Suwanee River; the first purpose of which shall be the instruction of persons, both male and female, in the art of teaching all the various branches that pertain to a good common-school education; and, next, to give instruction in the mechanic arts, in husbandry and agricultural chemistry, in the fundamental laws, and in what regards the rights and duties of citizens." Four townships of land were granted to the State of Florida by the General Government (acts of 1823 and 1845) for the purpose of endowing two such seminaries, and the sale of those lands produced a fund for their support. The East Florida Seminary was located first at Ocala, Marion County, and was removed to Gainesville by an act of the legislature passed in 1866. The normal element, which was never strong, soon died out, and the need of it has not been much felt since 1887, when provision was made for the organization of two State normal schools, one for the white teachers and one for the colored.

In that year the legislature passed an act appropriating \$4,000 a year for the support of a normal school for white teachers, and locating it at De Funiak Springs, in Walton County, on the Pensacola and Atlantic Railroad, about midway between the Chattahoochee River and Pensacola.

The course of study covers two years. Graduates receive a diploma as licentiate of instruction, which is equivalent to a first-class life certificate within the State. The minimum age of admission is 16 years, and applicants must pass an examination in the common-school branches. Before being admitted students must pledge themselves to teach for two years in the State if a suitable opportunity is offered. Such students pay no tuition fees if residents of the State; nonresidents pay \$5 a quarter (ten weeks). The faculty consists of the president, two professors, and one assistant teacher. The last catalogue contains the names of ninety students, young men and young women.

The studies of the normal departments are as follows:

Junior, first term.—(1) Rhetoric and composition, four hours a week; (2) general history, four hours a week; (3) algebra, four hours a week; (4) Latin, four hours a week; (5) physiology, two and a half hours a week; (6) drawing, one and a half hours a week.

Junior, second term.—(1) Rhetoric and history, four hours a week; (2) algebra,

¹ First Annual Announcement of the Georgia Normal and Industrial College, 1891-92.

four hours a week; (3) Latin, four hours a week; (4) physics, four hours a week; (5) geometry, four hours a week; (6) drawing, one and a half hours a week.

Senior, first term.—(1) English literature, history and essay writing, four hours a week; (2) algebra, four hours a week; (3) Latin, four hours a week; (4) physics, four hours a week; (5) geometry and plane trigonometry, four hours a week; (6) drawing, one and a half hours a week.

Senior, second term.—(1) Chemistry, four hours a week in class room and four in laboratory; (2) Latin, four hours a week; (3) spherical trigonometry, surveying, navigation, four hours a week; (4) astronomy, four hours a week; (5) civil government and Florida school law, four hours a week.

Psychology and pedagogy extend through the two years' normal course.

The following are stated as the "special features" of the school:

"(1) Tuition is free; (2) highest board only \$10 per calendar month; (3) no uniform required; (4) open to both sexes; (5) curriculum covers a period of two years; (6) diploma a life certificate in this State; (7) a school for mature persons—pupils 28 years of age in attendance; (8) a State institution under the direct supervision of the State board of education."¹

IV.

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION.

OHIO.

There is no State normal school in Ohio, although it was among the first, if not the very first, to recognize by legislative action the need of such an institution and to take some preliminary steps for its establishment. The general assembly in 1836 requested Prof. Calvin E. Stowe,² who was then about to visit the countries of Europe, "to collect during his contemplated tour such facts and information as he might deem useful to the State in relation to the various systems of public instruction and education which had been adopted in the countries through which he might pass, and to make a report of the same, with such observations as he might offer, to a future general assembly." On his return Professor Stowe presented a report warmly advocating training schools for teachers as an indispensable factor of any State system of common schools, and especially recommending the establishment in Ohio of a normal school with model schools and schools of practice.

Two years later, Samuel Lewis, State superintendent of common schools, presented a report to the legislature in which he favored the establishment of a State university for the education of teachers and others.

In 1841, William Trevitt, secretary of state, urged the legislature to follow the example of Massachusetts in the establishment of normal schools. One of his successors, Mr. Galloway, recommended the planting of one normal school at Columbus. In 1851, Henry W. King, secretary of state, advocated the establishment of as many normal schools as the school system of Ohio should demand.

The only result of these earnest and long-continued efforts was the increased popularity of the cause, especially among teachers, which was evidenced by the upspringing of a number of independent normal schools, some of which, or their successors, are now doing good service.

In 1868, in response to the request of the general assembly, the Hon. Emerson E. White, then State school commissioner, presented a report containing a most lucid, elaborate, and convincing argument in favor of normal schools. He had made himself familiar with their organization and practical results by visits to some of the

¹ Sixth Annual Catalogue of the State Normal College at De Funiak Springs, 1892.

² Report of the United States Commissioner of Education [Dr. Henry Barnard] to the Senate and House of Representatives. Government Printing Office, 1868.

most celebrated State normal schools then in operation, at Westfield, Framingham, Albany, Oswego, Trenton, N. J., New Britain, Conn., and Ypsilanti, Mich., besides the training schools at Boston and Philadelphia. He quotes, in support of his views, the opinions of some eminent educators: Rev. James Fraser, of England, who had been sent to this country by the royal commission on education to investigate our system of common schools; Hon. Egerton Ryerson, chief superintendent of public education for Upper Canada; M. Guizot, then minister of public instruction in France; Victor Cousin, Horace Mann, Josiah Quincy, Edward Everett, George S. Boutwell, Mark Hopkins, Barnas Sears, George B. Emerson, Joseph White, Birdsey G. Northrop, John D. Philbrick, and others. But the testimony of this cloud of witnesses weighed not a feather with the legislators of Ohio. Dr. White then goes on to set forth his plan for maintaining one State normal school in connection with ten State normal institutes at an expense of \$20,000 a year, "a sum altogether insignificant when compared with the grand object it is to promote. The law making the appropriation might be called 'an act appropriating \$20,000 to keep the half of three millions of dollars from being squandered on incompetent teachers.'"

The lack of a State system of normal schools is to a certain extent compensated by teachers' institutes, independent normal schools, and the opening of a normal department in the Ohio University with an experienced teacher as principal and professor. Among the independent normal schools may be mentioned the

NATIONAL NORMAL SCHOOL AT LEBANON.

In the summer of 1855 some of the leading teachers of southwestern Ohio called a convention for the purpose of establishing a normal school in the vicinity of Cincinnati. The call also contemplated an institute of three weeks to be held in the buildings of the Miami University at Oxford, Ohio. About 350 teachers assembled in answer to the call. Among them were John Hancock, now gone to his rest, to his gain and our great loss, and Andrew J. Rickoff, still (1891) happily preserved to us. During this institute an organization was effected and legally incorporated, called The Southwestern State Normal School Association. The purpose was to establish and sustain a State normal school in southwestern Ohio until State aid could be obtained. Lebanon was selected as the most eligible site for the school. The trustees of the Lebanon Academy transferred their building and grounds to the normal school trustees, with an agreement to furnish eighty pupils for five years to aid in sustaining the school. Alfred Holbrook was elected principal, at a salary of \$1,200 a year, which he was expected to make out of the tuition fees. The school was opened in November, 1855, with about 95 pupils. For the first year the principal received, for his own and his wife's services, \$320. The school was then given entirely into the hands of the principal, who received for his services the second year \$800, the other teachers getting the same proportion of their nominal salaries. The number of pupils registered during the year was 257. In the third year 335 pupils were enrolled. During the war the attendance fell off, but in 1866 the number of pupils was 709, and the twentieth annual catalogue gives the names of 1,500 different pupils. The catalogue for the year 1890 specifies the following "departments:"

School of common branches.

Conservatory of music.

Preparatory school.

School of phonography and typewriting.

College of business.

School of telegraphy.

College of teachers.

School of elocution and oratory.

College of science.

School of modern languages.

College of engineering.

School of pharmacy.

College of liberal arts.

School of elocution.

College of law.

School of photography.

College of medicine.

School of theology.

College of Bible study.

These departments are supervised and administered by the president with the aid of 53 instructors and officers.¹

In 1885 the legislature of Ohio made an appropriation for the establishment of a normal department in the Ohio University, the oldest collegiate institution north-west of the Ohio River. This action was a distinct recognition of the claims of normal education upon the State, and an indication that teachers are in need of professional preparation and are entitled to reasonable facilities for obtaining it. In accordance with this idea the college formulated two courses of study, a short course leading to a certificate, and a longer course leading to the degree of bachelor of pedagogy. The following are the required subjects for the degree of bachelor of pedagogy:²

Exercises per week.

FRESHMAN YEAR.

	Fall term.	Winter term.	Spring term.
United States history.....	5	5	5
Solid geometry.....	5		
Algebra.....		5	
Plane trigonometry.....			5
A foreign language.....	5	5	5
Elocution.....	2	2	2

SOPHOMORE YEAR.

A foreign language.....	5	5	5
Physics.....		5	
Advanced physiology.....	5		
Biology.....			5

JUNIOR YEAR.

A foreign language.....	5	5	5
English literature.....	5		
History of education.....		5	5

SENIOR YEAR.

Psychology.....	5		
English literature.....	5		
Logic.....		4	
Astronomy.....		4	
Science of education.....			4

As students who receive this degree are expected to have not only a theoretical knowledge of education as a science, but also some practical knowledge of it as an art, they are urgently recommended to acquire some experience by teaching before completing the course. For such teaching, if done under the direction of the professor in charge of this department, the student may receive credit as a part of his elective work.

Psychology and the history of philosophy are regarded for the present as belonging to the normal department of the university; and, therefore, the methods of instruction in psychology may probably be taken as typical of the whole normal course. The following brief extracts from a monograph by the professor of psychology in the university throw some light on this important subject of "methods."

Text-books.—The extent of text-book work in psychology is one of the first practical questions that presents itself to the teacher. There is great danger that the work may become set, mechanical, and irreclaimably fixed in the lines of thought, and even of expression, of a text-book. Such abject servility may, to be sure, be

¹ Catalogues of the National Normal School, Lebanon, Ohio, 1876-1890.

² Catalogue of the Ohio University for 1891. Athens, Ohio.

averted in some degree by original thought on the part of the instructor, but he will be singularly successful who entirely liberates his students from authorial despotism. Statements printed in cold type acquire a certain authority and repress independent unprejudiced thought. The tyrannical text-book is, moreover, very likely to banish from the class room the freshness and vivacity which distinguish oral discussion.

These objections to text-books are, however, balanced by many considerations. As a fixed and permanent basis for class-room work, text-books are invaluable. It is only with great difficulty that a course which proceeds entirely by lecture and discussion is thoroughly followed and systematized. * * *

Lectures or discussions?—Granting, then, that a considerable portion of the recitation period should be devoted to independent work, the alternative of lecture or of discussion is offered. In very large classes the lecture is the more effective way of covering a subject, for discussion being necessarily more or less individual is, owing to the numerous views presented, very liable to degenerate into aimless, profitless talk. * * * Certainly, if properly used, the lecture is invaluable in presenting clearly and systematically to a large number an otherwise unwieldy mass of material. The lecture, however, in affording no opportunity for the expression of the doubts and perplexities of the student, betrays a fundamental weakness. Error will persist far longer, and be eradicated with much more difficulty than by the Socratic dialectic, for the lecture does not educe and thus correct or eliminate the student's mistakes. It leaves him to stumble along by himself, and deprives him of close intellectual contact with the instructor. * * *

The three auxiliaries.—An ideal alliance of the instructor's three auxiliaries might be negotiated somewhat on the following terms: The text-book should be used only in preparation for the recitation, and not, except in a very general way, for the conduct of the recitation itself. Lectures intended to throw the subject under consideration in fresher and stronger lights should be frequently given and should form an important, and indeed a vital, part of the course of study. The greater part of the class-room work, however, should assume the form of discussion of the subject-matter furnished by text-books and lectures, while by the suggestive questions of the Socratic dialectic the student may be further aided and stimulated. * * * By some such judicious combination of methods the field of psychology may be clearly and fully placed before the mind of the student, his interest roused and concentrated introspectively, and his power of original thought educed and developed.¹

The supreme place which the study of psychology holds in the normal department of the Ohio University may be inferred from the following extracts from "An open letter to young teachers:"

Never before in the history of the world has such emphasis been laid on the importance of studying mind and pedagogy and the history of education as at the present. Not merely in such highly civilized countries as France, England, Germany, and Italy, but in Mexico, in the South American Republics, even in Jamaica, there is abundant evidence to show that men are coming to see the absurdity of mind doctors who have made no study of mind, of educational practitioners who have made no study of the art of education and the science that underlies it. * * * Do you intend to be a live teacher, determined to live by the best light of your own generation, or a fossil contented to make such preparation as was deemed sufficient a hundred years ago? If you are determined to succeed, then you will try to give yourself the qualifications necessary to success. You are living to-day and what you need is an outfit suited to to-day and not to a hundred years ago. Where will you get this preparation? * * * You ought to attend an institution which makes a specialty of preparing teachers for their life work. How many institutions are there in the State which make a special study of mind in its relations to education and which make a special study of the art and science of education? Unless I have been misinformed, there is but one, and that is the Ohio University at this place. [The italics are the author's.] There are indeed other colleges which have normal departments, and there are normal schools, but it is not the name but the thing that you want, and the thing—an institution which makes a specialty of preparing teachers for their life work, by making a careful study of mind in its relation to education and of the science and art and history of education—is to be found in this State at Athens.²

¹ Methods of Inducing Introspective Power: One aspect of the Pedagogics of Psychology. W. F. Peirce, Athens, Ohio, 1892.

²An open letter to young teachers by J. P. Gordy, Ph. D., principal of the normal department and professor of pedagogy in Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

INDIANA.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TERRE HAUTE.

The first section of the constitution of Indiana contains the following article: "Knowledge and learning generally diffused throughout a community being essential to the preservation of a free government, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to encourage, by all suitable means, moral, intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement, and to provide by law for a general and uniform system of common schools wherein tuition shall be without charge and equally open to all." In accordance with this constitutional provision it was enacted by the general assembly in 1865 "that there shall be established and maintained a State normal school, the object of which shall be the preparation of teachers for teaching in the common schools of Indiana." This act provided for the location and erection of a building, the admission of students, the organization of the school, and the annual appropriation of funds for tuition and expenses. The diploma of the normal school is by law equivalent to a State certificate, relieving the holder from county examinations. The board of trustees has authority to grant certificates of proficiency to such teachers as have completed any of the prescribed courses of study, and to give diplomas to graduates who have taught satisfactorily for two years. By a recent order of the board of trustees, all candidates for graduation are required to hold a county license to teach for a period of not less than two years.

The departments of the school are the following: Department of history and philosophy of education, of grammar and composition, of biology and geology, of reading, rhetoric, and literature, of history, of geography, of mathematics, of Latin, of mental science and methods, of music, of drawing and penmanship, of physics and chemistry. Each department is under the charge of a separate professor, with such assistants as are found necessary from time to time.

Courses of study.
FOUR YEARS' COURSE.

First year:				
First term	Educational psychology (general nature of mind).	Orthoepy (penmanship).	Arithmetic	Grammar.
Second term	Educational psychology (stages of knowing).	Physical and mathematical geography.	do	Do.
Third term	Educational psychology (feeling and will).	Physical and political geography, with map drawing.	Reading	United States history.
Second year:				
Fourth term	Methods (reading and language).	Physiology	Composition	Do.
Fifth term	Methods (number and form).	do	Latin	General history.
Sixth term	Methods (geography and history).	Latin	Rhetoric	Do.
Third year:				
Seventh term	Latin	Physics	Music and drawing	Literature.
Eighth term	do	do	Algebra	Advanced composition.
Ninth term	History of education.	Botany	do	Latin.
Fourth year:				
Tenth term	do	Zoology or chemistry.	Geometry	Do.
Eleventh term	Philosophy of education.	Zoology or chemistry (qualitative analysis).	do	Do.
Twelfth term	do	Practice in training school.	Trigonometry	Latin graduating thesis.

THREE YEARS' COURSE.

First year:					
First term.....	*Educational psychology (general nature of mind).	*Reading, penmanship.	*Arithmetic	*Grammar..	
Second term.....	*Educational psychology (stages of knowing).	*Mathematical and physical geography.	do	do	
Third term.....	*Educational psychology (feeling and will).	*Physical and political geography, with map drawing.	*Reading...	*United States history.	
Second year:					
Fourth term.....	*Methods (illustrated by reading and language).	*Physiology	Composition	do	Latin.
Fifth term.....	*Methods (illustrated by number, history, and geography).	do	Algebra	General history.	Do.
Sixth term	History of education.	*Music, drawing..	do	General history or rhetoric.	Do.
Third year:					
Seventh term.....	do	Chemistry	Geometry ..	Literature..	Do.
Eighth term.....	*Philosophy of education.	Physics or botany.	do	*Advanced composition.	Do.
Ninth term.....	*Practice in training school.	Physics.....	Botany	*Graduating thesis.	Do.

NOTE.—Thirty-six terms' work is necessary to complete this course. The subjects marked thus * are required; the remaining subjects may be elected by the student.

The four years' course is designed to meet the needs of those students who wish to make thorough and extended preparation for public school work.

The three years' course is intended for young persons of limited scholarship who expect to confine their teaching to the district and graded schools of the State.

There is also a two years' course for graduates of commissioned high schools. Many cities do not maintain a training school for educating their own teachers, and this course is designed to supply the place of training schools for such cities, and thus to relieve the school officers from the necessity they feel of employing as teachers the graduates of their high schools who have had no training in teaching.

In addition to the courses described, there is a course of one year for college graduates, to meet the needs of those graduates who wish to enter the field of teaching and superintending schools and who feel the need of professional training for this work. This course assumes that the student has already acquired a liberal knowledge of the subjects taught in the public schools, and that his purpose is to add such professional knowledge as college professors and school superintendents peculiarly need.

The "practice work" continues through two terms. It consists of observation and teaching in the practice schools, which form one department of the normal school. The pupils taught are children belonging to the regular grades of the Terre Haute school system. This work consists of three kinds—(1) Lessons given daily by the students before the practice class as a whole; (2) lessons given daily at different hours when none or only a part of the practice class is present; (3) the observation of lessons given by the teacher, in charge of the room. While a lesson is being taught the other members of the class take careful notes. On the following day it is carefully discussed by the members of the practice class and the teacher in charge of the room. In this discussion four things are done. (a) The point of the lesson is distinctly stated; (b) it is classed as favorable or unfavorable; (c) the principles that are the ground for considering it favorable are stated; (d) an explanation is made in order to show that the principles stated underlie the given act of teaching.

The average term enrollment for the session 1890-91 was 526. The whole number

of different students was 932. The total number of different students since the organization of the school in 1870 is 6,943.¹

ILLINOIS.

STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY.

A general meeting of the friends of free schools assembled in Bloomington, Ill., on December 26, 1853. Three topics were thoroughly discussed at this meeting: The duty of the legislature to create the office of State superintendent, to establish and maintain a normal school, and to organize a State teachers' association. The normal school question provoked a long and spirited debate, the same objections being urged as had been made twenty years before in other States and have been annually repeated in some quarters ever since.

After the adjournment of the convention the Illinois State Teachers' Association was organized. The most prominent topic in all the early meetings of this association was the organization of a normal school. There were three parties in the contest: The normal school men, who wanted a separate institution for the exclusive purpose of training teachers; a large class of educators, who desired to have either an industrial university with a normal department or a normal school with an industrial department, and, thirdly, those who favored the founding of normal departments by the State in connection with denominational colleges already established.

At the meeting of the association in 1856 it was resolved "That the educational interests of Illinois demand the immediate establishment of a State normal school for the education of teachers." In the following February the legislature passed, and the governor approved, "An act for the establishment and maintenance of a normal university."

This act of the legislature provided for a university, although what was established was in fact a normal school. The intention was to gather around the new institution the different colleges—classical, agricultural, industrial, law, medical, etc.—which should finally constitute a great university.

It was the duty of the State board of education "to fix the permanent location of the normal university at the place where the most favorable inducements are offered for that purpose." The board advertised for proposals, and several cities and towns competed for the prize. The bid of McLean County (\$141,725 in real estate and subscription pledges) was so far ahead of the others that the board located the university "on the 160 acres of fine rolling land within three-quarters of a mile from the junction of the Illinois Central and Chicago and Alton railroads," upon the condition that the full amount of the McLean County subscription of \$70,000 should be legally guaranteed within sixty days, in default of which the location was to be made at Peoria. They employed Abraham Lincoln to draw up a form of bond or guaranty to be signed by responsible citizens of Bloomington.

The corner stone of the university building was laid on September 29, 1857, but the financial crisis of that year caused the work to be temporarily discontinued, and hence the buildings were not thoroughly completed until the early part of 1861. The total cost of the buildings, with all the incidental expenses, books, and furniture, was about \$200,000, a large part of which was raised and utilized by the strenuous and persistent efforts of Gen. Charles E. Hovey. The courts having decided that the normal university was a private institution belonging to the board of education as a corporation, and therefore that the State was not liable for the debts of the board, the legislature of 1867 enacted and declared that the State Normal University is a State institution, the property of the State of Illinois, and held in trust by the board of education.

¹ Twenty-second Annual Catalogue of the Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute. 1891.

During the long years while the great building was rising to completion the school work was carried on in a cramped and inconvenient building called Major's Hall. It must have been a queer old place, and many of the inhabitants, teachers, and students were *sui generis*. H. B. Norton, one of the students of those early days, wrote thus to the committee of the Quarter-Centennial Celebration:

We were daily convened in the upper story of Major's Hall. I suppose that these younger generations of normalites are not aware that such a building ever existed. The walls of the old house were rickety, and iron girders with huge S's at the ends held in place the brick masonry. Our assembling room was the third story. In the second story were recitation rooms, rather dark, and ill adapted to our needs. Grocery and hardware stores occupied the first floor. The building was heated by a coal stove in each room, and as Illinois coal is gaseous and explosive, the stove doors were frequently blown open with loud sounds and clouds of yellow smoke. C. E. Hovey was principal in those days, but Ira Moore was the one most directly in charge. Dr. Willard, looking very pale and frail, soon began to open his wonderful budget of philological knowledge. Hewett came within a month after my arrival, I think. He was a small man with a big head in those days. He had very demonstrative boot heels, and especially hated cats, and went to sleep in Baptist meetings. He used to give us prodigious lessons in history and geography. He couldn't draw maps, but made us draw very nice ones. I remember his geography lessons even unto this day. The names of the branches of the Amazon, the forms and heights of the Andean and Himalayan plateaus—these are mine yet, and will be to all eternity. My history work has not stayed with me so well. There was once a slight unpleasantness between my class and their teacher as to how General Greene got away from Cornwallis. It was quite a double and twisted business anyhow, and we inwardly vowed that we wouldn't learn it. The teacher gave us hard words and low marks, but our obstinate stupidity won the day. * * * We were shabbily dressed in those days. I think my pantaloons were generally too short, and my coat seemed to have been made for some other person. We were very poor but very plucky. We boarded ourselves, mainly on corn mush; washed the floors and built the fires at the normal hall, worked hard, lived hard, and were poorly provided with all things. Our parents were sad-faced, struggling pioneers of the prairies, but we were cheery, resolute, and happy in our life and our work. To the toiling youth of frontier homes thirsting for knowledge the Illinois Normal University opened the gateway to a new life. We loved it, rejoiced in it, and were thoroughly loyal to its name and fame.

The school saw but little of its principal in those years. Two miles to the northward, across the sodden prairies, in the rainy autumn of 1858, were clay pits, heaps of brickbats, half complete foundations for a stately structure yet in embryo. The construction fund was exhausted, the State heavily in debt, business everywhere distressed and languishing—truly a somber prospect for the completion of a building demanding, on the basis existing before the war, \$100,000. It would be as easy to-day to raise a million. To secure these needed funds was the task which Charles E. Hovey set before himself. It was a labor for Hercules. His own fortune was pledged over and over. Had his plans failed he would have been weighted for life with hopeless bankruptcy. This enormous task he undertook and carried through. He had a place on the programme of the school's daily work, but his classes generally wrought out their own salvation. But in the winter of 1860-61 the building was completed. * * * We of the pioneering days need no reminder of the grand work which could hardly have been performed by another than Gen. Charles E. Hovey.

We were free in our conduct to a singular extent. No school rules rested upon us. Our hours and methods were wholly our own. We lived as we pleased, formed our friendships and associations, made our calls and managed our affairs entirely at our own choice and pleasure. Very few schools were ever so slightly governed. I do not believe that our successors of to-day can be journeying under any similar slackness of reins. Nevertheless, the record of those years was a thoroughly Spartan one. We were from Puritan households, disciplined in self-restraint. Industry and poverty were our safeguards.

A magnificent park, stately buildings, a beautiful and prosperous city, methods well ordered and politics established, splendid museums and laboratories, a wealthy and more cultured generation of students—these are the pleasant things that greet the view as you gather to the silver wedding of our Alma Mater. It is not true that the former days were better than these, but we who saw the working out of the beginnings had also our joys, struggles, and coronations, and we received a training

which, if less orderly and exhaustive than that rendered now, nevertheless gave us some measure of fitness for our life work.¹

The first president of the university was Charles E. Hovey, but at the beginning of the civil war he entered the Army as colonel of the Normal Regiment, which he had organized. Nine of the instructors—Leander H. Potter, Ira Moore, J. H. Burnham, Aaron Gove, Julian E. Bryant, Joseph G. Howell, Edwin Philbrook, Samuel Willard, and E. R. Roe—accompanied him as officers, and a majority of the male students as privates. Dr. Richard Edwards was president from 1862 to 1876; Dr. Edwin C. Hewett from 1876 to 1891.

John W. Cook is the present president (1892).

The faculty of 1892 consists of the president and 22 professors and assistants. The "summary" of the normal department shows 5 special students, 39 seniors, 21 middle class A, 36 middle class B, 117 middle C, 91 junior A, 138 junior B, 241 junior C; total in normal department, 688.

Course of study.

Studies.	First year.			Second year.			Third year.			Hours a week.
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	
	15 weeks.	12 weeks.	12 weeks.	15 weeks.	12 weeks.	12 weeks.	15 weeks.	12 weeks.	12 weeks.	
Elements of pedagogy	*	*	*							2
Pedagogy	*	*	*							4½
Elementary psychology				*						4½
Practice teaching					*	*	*	*	*	5
Advanced psychology and Rosenkranz							*	*	*	3
Illustrative teaching							*	*	*	3
School laws of Illinois—three weeks								*	*	3
Reading and dictionary	*	*	*							4½
Spelling	*	*	*							4½
Grammar	*	*	*							4½
Rhetoric					*					4½
Criticism						*				4½
English literature							*	*	*	5
Shakespeare and themes								*	*	5
Arithmetic	*	*	*							4½
Algebra			*	*						4½
Geometry			*	*	*	*				4½
Bookkeeping—eight weeks		*	*	*	*	*			*	5
Drawing	*	*	*	*	*	*				2
Writing	*	*	*	*	*	*				2
Geography	*	*	*	*	*	*				4½
History of the United States			*	*	*	*				4½
Civil government				*	*	*				4½
Ancient history					*	*				4½
Physical geography					*	*	*	*	*	4½
Medieval history						*	*	*	*	5
Zoology				*	*	*				4½
Physiology					*	*				4½
Botany					*	*	*	*	*	4½
Physics						*	*	*	*	5
Chemistry						*	*	*	*	5
Vocal music			*							2

The * shows that the study is pursued at the time indicated.

Latin, Greek, German, astronomy, advanced algebra, trigonometry, surveying, analytic geometry, calculus, advanced science study, political science, and advanced pedagogy are optional studies.

The model department has enrolled 613 pupils in high school, grammar school, intermediate school, and primary school. Deducting names counted twice, the whole number of different students for the year is 1,236.

Candidates for admission to the normal department are required:

1. To be at least 17 years of age, if young men; 16, if young women.

¹ History of the Illinois State Normal University, by John W. Cook and James V. McHugh, Normal, Ill., 1882.

2. To produce a certificate of moral character.

3. To sign the following declaration:

I hereby solemnly declare that my purpose in attending the normal university is to fit me for teaching in the public schools of Illinois and that I will carry out this pledge in good faith; and I do further pledge myself to report to the president of the university semiannually where I am and what I am doing for three years after graduating at said institution.

4. To pass an examination before the county school superintendent in reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, United States history, and the elements of English grammar sufficient to entitle them to a second-grade teachers' certificate.

Each county in the State is entitled to gratuitous instruction for two pupils in the normal university, and each representative district for as many pupils as there are representatives in the district. The selection is made in the following manner: The school superintendent of each county receives and registers the names of all applicants; these applicants are examined, and from the number found to possess the requisite qualifications the pupils are selected by lot. The same mode of selection obtains in the representative districts. If vacancies occur in any county or representative district the president of the university is authorized to fill them.

Graduates from the normal department are entitled to receive a State certificate good for five years.

LABORATORY METHODS.

The pupil enters the laboratory and finds on the table before him some apparatus, accompanying which are *some printed* directions of what he is to do with the material before him. After seeing that his apparatus is in proper order he *proceeds as directed*, and having completed the experiment, at once writes out neatly, accurately, and tersely the experiment in full, embracing these points: (1) What I did; (2) What I saw; (3) What I conclude. (Ruled tablets of uniform size are used for this work, and at the close of the term the leaves which are daily detached for the separate exercises are bound in permanent form.) The pupil writes up his work without consulting the text-book or his fellow pupils, and hands his results to the instructor before beginning another experiment. (Should his work be unsatisfactory, he is required to perform it again until the intended facts are made clear to him. After a few days' work, repetition is seldom needed.) The pupil is thus taught to be independent in his efforts and to cultivate his reasoning powers. He acquires control of his hands; he learns how to put things together and get results; he studies things in relations; he prepares himself for everyday life, whether it be in the schoolroom, in the workshop, or in whatever department of life.

The experiments are arranged in systematic order, so that the pupil is led step by step into a more complete knowledge of the subject under consideration. The apparatus is as simple and inexpensive as it is possible to use and be assured of good results; and pupils are taught how to construct it, so that they can teach this work in the common schools without waiting for expensive, showy apparatus to be furnished by school boards. * * * About one hundred experiments are performed each term.¹

SOUTHERN ILLINOIS NORMAL UNIVERSITY, CARBONDALE.

The act of incorporation was passed in 1869, but classes were not opened till 1874, owing to unavoidable delays in the commencement and in the completion of the building. It was a magnificent building—almost too magnificent. The young ladies complained of the fatigue of climbing four lofty stories, and the height of the ceilings prevented the comfortable heating of the rooms by the furnaces originally used. Sixteen thousand dollars expended in steam-heating apparatus put an end to all complaints on the last count, and an accidental fire November 28, 1883, reduced the height of the ceilings to zero. It broke out in the mansard story over the Museum. Water tanks had been provided for such emergency, but unfortunately they were below the fire, and water will not rise above its level even in a university. An effort was made to bring into service the small fire engine belonging to the university, but

¹Thirty-fourth Annual Catalogue of the Illinois State Normal University, for the academic year ending June 23, 1892. "N. B. The statements made in this catalogue are to be interpreted literally." Page 70.

owing to "a defect in the construction of the water pipes" a stream could not be thrown on the fire. Four elements of safety were present, water, hose, engine, and willing hands, but they could not be correlated, and in less than two hours the house was in ruins. The willing hands saved all that could be saved—books, furniture, apparatus, even doors and windows, valued at \$75,000, including the basement and the walls that were still standing.

Two days rest, or rather, indeed, two days change of work, and recitations went on as usual in rooms in some of the business blocks kindly provided by the citizens.

English and Latin course.

	Studies.	Normal.											
		First year.			Second year.			Third year.			Fourth year.		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
I.....	Psychology.....							†	†				
	Ethics.....									†			
	Pedagogy.....				†	†						†	†
	School law.....									†	†		
	Practice teaching.....						†	†	†				
II.....	Botany.....						†						
	Physics.....				†								
	Zoology.....					†							
	Physiology.....						†						
	Chemistry.....										†		
III.....	Geology.....											†	
	Astronomy.....												†
	Arithmetic.....	†	†										
	Algebra.....				†	†	†						
	Geometry.....							†	†				
IV.....	Bookkeeping.....											†	
	Reading and phonics.....	†			†								
	Grammar.....				†								†
	Rhetoric.....							†					
	English analysis and composition.....								†				
V.....	English literature.....										†	†	
	Elocution.....												†
	Spelling.....												
	Geography.....	†	†								†	†	
	History.....		†	†									
VI.....	Civil government.....										†		
	Penmanship.....		†										
VII.....	Drawing.....					†	†					†	
	Vocal music.....												
VIII.....	Physical culture.....												
	Latin.....	One term.	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†			
	Greek.....	Daily exercises.	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	Optional.		

The † indicates the place of the study in the course.

The ‡ means half-term study.

The "English course" differs by the omission of Latin and Greek, and is comprised in three years.

On the evening of the fire, while the embers were still smoking, the mayor of Carbondale called a mass meeting of the citizens. It was resolved to build a temporary schoolhouse, and in less than forty working days the students were installed in their new quarters, a comfortable frame building with fourteen rooms. Here the school rested for four years till the completion of the permanent building, for which the general assembly in 1885 made an appropriation of \$152,065.

The school work is conducted in three distinct departments—the normal, the high school, and the preparatory. The preparatory is subdivided into grammar school, intermediate, and primary. By the last catalogue (1891-92) there were in attendance in the normal department 342 students; in the high school, 41; in the preparatory, 315 (grammar school 239, intermediate 38, primary 38)—total, 698. The average per term was 452.

To be admitted to the normal department students must have completed their sixteenth year and must be able to pass an examination equivalent to the requirements of a second-grade certificate. To obtain free tuition a student must sign a

pledge to teach in the public schools of the State for three years, or at least as long as he has been a student of the university. The pledge comes into effect only after graduating and on the expressed condition that "a situation can be had with reasonable effort." All graduates recommended by the faculty and approved by the board of trustees are entitled to a State certificate, granted by the State superintendent of public instruction, good in any county of the State for five years.

TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

The strictly professional work of our normal school is made up of three distinct parts, in the first of which are found practical and economic pedagogy. In practical pedagogy our pupils are given, by text-book and lecture, a knowledge in outline of the child's powers and the order of their development. By the same methods, also, they are given a knowledge of the methods of teaching the branches usually found in the common schools. In economic pedagogy the attention of pupils is directed to the organization and management of schools and classes, to the end that every child in school or class shall secure his individual and personal right to instruction and training. The discussion of special subjects in both practical and economic pedagogy is followed by reports of observations made in the training school, the reports covering the special topics previously discussed. After the economic pedagogy, and as a supplement to it, the school law of the State is taken up and its chief provisions mastered.

The student of pedagogy, having completed the elementary course pointed out in the preceding paragraph, is put in charge of a class, and his work as teacher is carefully supervised. The preliminary study of methods has put him in a state to teach and manage his class intelligently, and has given him increased power to profit by the superintendent's instructions. One year of this practice teaching is required of all who are graduated from our school. The daily task, not counting the preparation, covers about half an hour of time. This teaching work covers the second section of the course in pedagogy.

Having completed the first two divisions of the professional course, the student is prepared to take up the higher pedagogical studies. These include a full course in psychology, a thoughtful discussion of the conditional principles of all right teaching, and a study of men and methods prominent in past educational efforts. For the advanced course, then, the studies are psychologic, philosophic, and advanced pedagogy. As an aid to easy reference the three branches of the higher course are grouped and known as theoretic pedagogy, and for the same reason the three in the elementary course are collected and recognized as practical pedagogy.¹

MICHIGAN.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, YPSILANTI.

The State Normal School of Michigan was established by the legislature in 1849. The organic law reads as follows:

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the State of Michigan, That a State normal school be established, the exclusive purpose of which shall be the instruction of persons, both male and female, in the art of teaching and in all the various branches that pertain to a good common-school education; also to give instruction in the mechanic arts and in the arts of husbandry and agricultural chemistry, in the fundamental laws of the United States, and in what regards the rights and duties of citizens.

Commenting on this enactment, Superintendent Gregory, in his report for 1859, says:

The main design is to be a school for teachers, where they may receive instruction peculiarly adapted to their profession, though the law contains some rhetorical flourishes about giving instruction in the mechanic arts and in the arts of husbandry and agricultural chemistry, etc. The normal school is to the primary schools what theological seminaries are to the churches. It is simply the teachers' college and a school for professional training.

But the desire for normal schools was manifested long before the enactment of this law. In 1836 Superintendent Pierce, in his official report, wrote enthusiastically on

¹ John Hull, president elect of Southern Illinois Normal University, in report to the superintendent of public instruction, 1884.

the merits of the Prussian system and recommended the adoption of a similar plan in Michigan. His successors, Superintendents Sawyer, Comstock, and Mayhew kept up the agitation, and it was during the superintendency of the last that the law just quoted was passed by the legislature.

Proposals were received by the board of education from several points in the State, each offering to donate lands and sums of money to secure the location of the school. The most favorable came from Ypsilanti, offering an eligible lot for a building site, a subscription of \$13,500, the use of temporary buildings, and the payment of the salaries of the teachers of the model school for five years. The State board of education enlarged the grounds and erected a brick building at a cost of \$15,200, which was ready for use in the autumn of 1852. This building was partly destroyed by fire in 1859, but was rebuilt and ready for the reception of students in September, 1860. An additional building was finished in 1869. Other much-needed buildings were added in 1878 and 1882. The entire cost of all the buildings from the establishment of the school to the last-named year was about \$84,000. Since that time extensive alterations and additions have been made at the cost of \$60,000, and there is now ample accommodation for an annual attendance of 900 students in the normal and 300 in the other departments.

The management of this school was for several years a series of experiments. It was not intended at first to be a purely professional school. It occupied the educational field in common with other literary and scientific institutions, but provided in addition some training in the science and art of teaching. The question was seriously discussed in the State Teachers' Association and elsewhere whether it was not time for the normal school to abandon academic work and maintain a true American normal school, devoted exclusively to professional instruction and training. The State board of education was requested by the faculty to prepare a course of study adapted to the proposed new departure. The committee appointed by the State board to investigate the subject reported that the normal school should, if possible, be brought more into sympathy with the high schools of the State, and should assume a more purely professional character. For the accomplishment of these objects two plans were suggested. One was to elevate the standard of academic attainment required for admission and to remodel the course of study so as to combine academical and professional study during the entire course. The other plan was to require all academic preparation to be made prior to admission to the normal school. The committee did not recommend either plan, but proposed a compromise, which was adopted and met the fate of all compromises—failure to attain either object. It was abandoned after a trial of about two years. There were many districts in Michigan, as there are still in every State, in which it is impossible for young persons to obtain academic instruction suitable in kind and adequate in extent to serve as a basis for a purely professional normal course; and these are the very places where the need of trained teachers is most urgent.

In the summer of 1871 a new departure was made in the constitution of the school of observation and practice. A plan similar to that followed at the Oswego Normal School was tried for two years, but proved unsatisfactory and was abandoned. It was found that the practice school must be entirely under the same management and control as the normal. Divided authority is fatal to efficiency.¹

As the normal school is now organized (register of 1890) students are offered a choice from several courses of study, arranged to meet the demands of the various grades of schools and the needs of different classes of teachers. Students graduating in any of the courses are entitled to a certificate of qualification to teach in the public schools of Michigan. The three-year courses lead to such a certificate, good for five years. The four-year courses lead to a life certificate and a diploma. The advanced (six-year) courses and the course for college graduates lead to the degree

¹ The Semicentennial of Michigan, Prof. J. M. B. Sill's address, Detroit, 1886.

of bachelor of pedagogy. In all the courses certain studies are "required" and certain others are "elective;" that is to say, chosen by the student, with the advice and consent of the principal. Any person holding the degree of bachelor of pedagogy in this school may upon application receive the degree of master of pedagogy upon the following conditions: (a) He shall furnish evidence satisfactory to the State board of education that he has been engaged in teaching or in school supervision continuously and with pronounced success for five years since receiving the bachelor degree; (b) he shall prepare and present a thesis acceptable to the State board of education upon some subject connected with the history, science, or art of education, the board reserving the right to assign the subject of such thesis.

In defending the right of the normal school to give advanced academic instruction the principal says:

The function of the normal school is to equip teachers both professionally and academically for duty in any place in these public schools to which they may be called, whether such schools are primary or secondary in the character of the instruction offered by them. No teacher is so equipped unless his own studies have been carried considerably beyond the limit to which he is required to conduct his own pupils. It follows, then, that the normal school graduate ought to be furnished with an education that carries him considerably beyond the limits of any secondary education that he may be called upon to give. In other words, he ought to pursue his own course of training so far that there shall be an ample margin between what he knows and what he may at any time be called upon to teach. * * * This margin of knowledge in case of those who complete advanced courses in this normal school comprises a liberal course in literature, art, and science.¹

COURSES OF STUDY.

Studies offered in the three and four years' courses, showing also the number of weeks which each study regularly occupies.

	Weeks.
Art and manual training:	
1. Penmanship.....	10
2. Drawing.....	20
3. Advanced drawing.....	20
Civics:	
4. Civil government.....	10
5. Political science.....	10
English:	
6. Reading and orthoepy, teachers' academic review.....	10
7. Grammar, teachers' academic review.....	10
8. Rhetoric.....	20
9. English literature.....	20
10. Advanced English literature.....	10
11. American literature.....	20
12. Old and middle English.....	20
13. Study of masterpieces.....	20
History:	
14. United States history.....	20
15. United States history and civil government, teachers' academic review...	10
16. General history.....	20
17. Grecian and Roman history.....	20
18. English constitutional history.....	20
19. United States constitutional history.....	20
Languages, ancient:	
20-27. Latin, 4 terms, each.....	20
28-31. Greek, 4 terms, each.....	20
Languages, modern:	
32-36. French, 5 terms, each.....	20
37-43. German, 7 terms, each.....	20
Mathematics:	
44. Bookkeeping.....	10
45. Arithmetic, teachers' academic review.....	10
46. Algebra, I.....	20

¹ Principal J. M. B. Sill in "History of higher education in Michigan," by Andrew C. McLaughlin, Circular of Information No. 4, 1891, United States Bureau of Education.

47. Algebra, II.....	20
48. Plane geometry.....	20
49. Solid geometry.....	20
50. Higher algebra.....	20
51. Trigonometry.....	10
52. Surveying.....	10
Music:	
53. Vocal music.....	20
54. Advanced vocal music.....	20
55-58. Voice culture, 4 terms, each.....	20
59. Harmony.....	20
60. Advanced harmony.....	20
61. Musical composition.....	20
62. History and literature of music.....	20
63. Solo singing, I.....	20
64. Solo singing, II.....	20
65. Conducting, etc.....	20
Natural sciences:	
66. Physiology and hygiene.....	20
67. Botany.....	20
68. Zoology.....	10
69. Comparative Zoology.....	10
70. Geology.....	20
71. Geography, teachers' academic review.....	10
Physical sciences:	
72. Physics.....	20
73. Advanced physics.....	20
74. Chemistry.....	20
75. Advanced chemistry.....	10
76. Astronomy.....	10
77. Instrumental astronomy.....	10
Professional studies and exercises:	
78. Psychology.....	20
79. Psychology applied.....	20
80. Professional training in arithmetic.....	5
81. Professional training in geography.....	5
82. Professional training in grammar.....	5
83. Professional training in reading.....	5
84. History of education.....	10
85. Physical technics.....	10
86. Training in physical science.....	10
87. Biological laboratory practice.....	10
88. Practice teaching.....	20
89. Practice teaching.....	10
90. Practice teaching.....	10
91. Practice teaching.....	20
92. Kindergarten instruction and methods.....	20
93. Senior rhetoricals.....	

Studies 54, 56, 57, 58, and 60-65, inclusive, are excluded from studies to be credited in making up a course, except when the student is pursuing the music course. Studies 86 and 87 are interchangeable in all courses. Work in any ancient or modern language is not credited in making up the amount due in any course until a record in such language covering at least three terms has been earned.

Advanced studies offered to students in advanced courses.

	Weeks.
94. Advanced psychology.....	10
95. Discussions and comparisons of educational systems and theories.....	10
96. Advanced practice teaching and supervision.....	20
97. Entomology.....	20
98. Sanitary science (lectures).....	10
99. Meteorology.....	10
100. General geometry and calculus.....	20
101. Advanced rhetoric.....	20
102-105. Latin, 4 terms, each.....	20
106-109. Greek, 4 terms, each.....	20
110. Studies in German and French literature.....	20

Program of recitations and exercises.

FIRST TERM.

First hour.—Advanced drawing. Algebra I. Algebra II. Elementary physics. French IV. Geology. German I. History and civil government. Latin I. Latin IV. Old and Middle English. Psychology. Reading and orthoepy. Rhetoric. Training in physical science. Voice culture I.

Second hour.—Algebra I. Algebra II. American literature. Chemistry. German II. General history. Greek II. Higher algebra. Psychology applied. Practice teaching. Vocal music. Zoology, first ten weeks. Comparative zoology, second ten weeks.

Third hour.—Arithmetic, preparatory. Arithmetic, first ten weeks. Arithmetic, second ten weeks. Chemistry. German III. Geometry I. Geometry II. Grammar, first ten weeks. Grammar, second ten weeks. Harmony. History of education. Latin I. Physiology and hygiene. Practice teaching.

Fourth hour.—Arithmetic, first ten weeks. Arithmetic, second ten weeks. Civil government. Elementary drawing. Elementary physics. French III. German I. Grammar, preparatory. Grammar, first ten weeks. Grammar, second ten weeks. Greek and Roman history. Latin II. Latin III. Practice teaching. Training in physical science. Voice culture II.

Fifth hour.—Advanced English literature. French II. Geography, first ten weeks. Geography, second ten weeks. Greek III. Latin II. Musical composition. Penmanship, first ten weeks. Penmanship, second ten weeks. Rhetoric. Reading and orthoepy, first ten weeks. Reading and orthoepy, second ten weeks. Training in physical science.

Sixth hour (afternoon.)—Professional work in arithmetic, grammar, reading, geography.

SECOND TERM.

First hour.—Algebra I. Algebra II. Advanced vocal music. Advanced drawing. Elementary physics. English literature. German I. German IV. Latin I. Latin IV. Physiology and hygiene. Psychology applied. Physical technics, second ten weeks. Rhetoric. Surveying, second ten weeks. Trigonometry, first ten weeks. United States constitutional history.

Second hour.—Algebra I. Algebra II. Advanced physics. Botany. English constitutional history. French II. French III. Geometry I. Geometry II. Greek II. History of education. Political science, second ten weeks. Practice teaching. Training in physical science. United States history. Voice culture.

Third hour.—Arithmetic, first ten weeks. Arithmetic, second ten weeks. Botany. Civil government. German II. Grammar, first ten weeks. Grammar, second ten weeks. Latin I. Latin II. Psychology. Practice teaching. Training in physical science. Vocal music.

Fourth hour.—Arithmetic, preparatory. Arithmetic, first ten weeks. Arithmetic, second ten weeks. Advanced harmony. Elementary drawing. Elementary physics. German I. General history. Grammar, first ten weeks. Grammar, second ten weeks. Literature of music. Latin III. Physiology. Practice teaching.

Fifth hour.—Advanced chemistry, first ten weeks. Astronomy, second ten weeks. Geography, first ten weeks. Geography, second ten weeks. German III. Greek III. History and civil government. Latin II. Penmanship, first ten weeks. Penmanship, second ten weeks. Rhetoric. Study of masterpieces. Training in physical science. United States history. Voice culture IV.

Sixth hour (afternoon.)—Professional instruction in arithmetic, grammar, reading, geography.

The enrollment in the normal school proper in 1870-71 was 231, and the number increased gradually and regularly till the end of the year 1876, when the number was 449. In each of the next seven years the enrollment was less than 400, but in the year 1883-84 it sprung up to 475, and every succeeding year has shown an annual increase, the number in 1890-91 being 909. During its existence it has graduated 1,761 young men and women, nearly all of whom became public school teachers in Michigan. The average number of graduates in the last five classes exceeded 100.

The general supervision and control of the school is in the hands of the State board of education, consisting of three members elected by the people and holding office for six years, together with the State superintendent of public instruction, who is a member and secretary of the board, ex officio.

Current expenses for the year ending June 30, 1891, were.....	\$64, 636. 40
From the interest on the permanent fund.....	5, 260. 19
From admission fees, etc.....	5, 451. 21
Balance	53, 918. 00
Met by legislative appropriation.	

Principals.

Adonijah S. Welch	1853-1865
David P. Mayhew.....	1865-1870
C. Fitz Roy Bellows (acting principal)	1871
Joseph Estabrook	1871-1880
Malcolm M. Vica.....	1880
Daniel Putnam (acting principal)	1881-1883
Edwin Willetts.....	1883-1885
Daniel Putnam (acting principal)	1885-1886
John M. B. Sill'	1886

The training school is a department of the normal school. It is organized as a regular eight-grade school of 250 pupils and a well-equipped kindergarten of 24 children below regular school age. The course of study extends from the kindergarten to the high school, and embraces the subjects and amounts of work usually required in first-class city graded schools. The work in the training department is under the charge of the director, assisted by two critic teachers, a model primary teacher, and a kindergartner. Under careful supervision of this normal corps the actual teaching is, in the main, in the hands of the senior class. These are assigned to the work of teaching and observing by the director, and are daily met for criticism and instruction by him or by the critic teachers. The model primary room is conducted as a school of observation.*

WISCONSIN.

NORMAL EXPERIMENTS.

The legislature of Wisconsin in 1857 passed a law entitled "An act for the encouragement of academies and normal schools," appropriating 25 per cent of the interest arising from the sale of the swamp lands of the State for the purpose of aiding such colleges and academies as might comply with certain regulations. The design of the law was twofold: First, to aid institutions of learning which had labored efficiently in the cause of education, although they had hitherto been entirely dependent on private enterprise for their support. Second, to enable such institutions to render an equivalent for the funds received from the State by preparing persons for teaching. For the carrying out of this law a board of regents was established, consisting of the Governor and the State superintendent of public instruction ex officio, but without a vote, and 9 members appointed by the Governor, by and with consent of the Senate. This board of regents had authority to make all by-laws and needful regulations for carrying into effect the provisions of the act not inconsistent with the constitution and by-laws of the State. Section 10 provided that all the income of the fund contemplated by the act shall be distributed to the colleges, universities, and academies severally (except the State University) which shall establish and maintain normal classes in proportion to the number of pupils instructed in such classes, according to regulations prescribed by the board of regents, until the amount awarded to any one of such schools shall reach the sum of \$3,000 annually. It was further provided that whenever any town, city, or village in the State shall propose to give a site and suit-

* Prof. John M. B. Sill, ubi supra.

* Register of the Michigan State Normal School 1889-90.

able buildings and fixtures for a State normal school, the board of regents may in their discretion apportion to the same annually a sum not exceeding \$3,000 for the support and maintenance of teachers therein.

The board of regents, looking doubtless to the experience of the New York academics, appear to have been anxious to prevent the academics aided under this act from becoming mere high schools with a normal annex--on paper. They say that the following subjects must be studied in the normal department: "Education, its nature and design; physical education; intellectual education; moral education; æsthetic education; the history of education; an examination of the powers of the mind, especially with reference to receiving and communicating knowledge; school-house architecture; organization and classification of schools; modes of teaching different subjects; rewards and punishments; the office of teacher, his duties to himself, his school, and the public; the duty of the State in reference to educating its citizens; the educational policy of Wisconsin." It was proposed that these studies should be carried on chiefly by the aid of lectures and in connection with the two years' course in ordinary academic branches. Students, before being admitted, were required to pass an examination on reading, spelling, arithmetic, elementary algebra, physiology, history of the United States, descriptive geography, and composition.

At the meeting of the board of regents in 1859 the following course of study was adopted:

First year.—Higher arithmetic, algebra, Latham's English Language, plane and solid geometry, drawing, Anglo-Saxon roots and derivations, chemistry, theory and practice of teaching.

Second year.—Trigonometry and surveying, botany, physiology, natural philosophy, geology, meteorology, rhetoric, physical geography, theory and practice of teaching.

Third year.—Constitutional history; Latin, French, or German; comparative philology, logic, intellectual philosophy, analytical geometry, calculus, descriptive geometry, drawing, educational history.

In 1859 Dr. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, was appointed agent of the board of regents with instructions "to visit and exercise a supervisory control over the normal departments of all such institutions as should apply for a participation in the normal-school fund, and to conduct county teachers' institutes and give normal instruction in the same." Dr. Barnard's labors had a stimulating and encouraging effect, but they were unfortunately cut short by a long period of severe illness.

In 1860, twenty institutions presented claims for a share in the normal fund in proportion to the number of pupils in each who had pursued normal studies according to the requirements of the board of regents. Among these institutions \$4,640 were distributed, in sums varying from \$40 to \$740. The institutions to which these sums were distributed were Beloit College, Lawrence University, Galesville University, Wisconsin Female College, Milwaukee Female College, Platteville Academy, Milton Academy, Walworth County Institute, River Falls Academy, Richland City Institute, Allen's Grove Academy, Horicon High School, Kenosha High School, Oshkosh High School, Racine High School, Janesville High School, Fond du Lac High School, Beaver Dam High School. Five of these expanded afterwards into State normal schools—Platteville, River Falls, Oshkosh, Walworth (Whitewater), and Milwaukee.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM.

In Wisconsin, as in Pennsylvania, the county institutes were the immediate ancestors of the normal schools. In the year 1860 there were held 47 institutes, reaching 31 different counties and bringing together 4,346 teachers and persons interested in the cause of education. In connection with these institutes there were delivered 200 public addresses, which reached at least 10,000 persons directly interested in the

cause of public instruction. By these means new life was given to the school system of the State. Patrons of the schools were led to know what good schools are and how they are to be obtained. Teachers were led to think and to strive to qualify themselves better for their responsibilities. In the schools new and more rational methods of instruction began to be adopted in place of the old-time rote system. The demand for institutes was greater than the supply, and the desire found its satisfaction only in the establishment of normal schools.

The State Normal School at Platteville was opened in 1866, at Whitewater in 1868, at Oshkosh in 1871, at River Falls in 1875, and at Milwaukee in 1885.

The exclusive purpose of these normal schools, as expressed in the organic law of 1857, was "the instruction and training of persons, both male and female, in the theory and art of teaching and in all the various branches that pertain to a common-school education, and in all subjects needful to qualify for teaching in the public schools; also to give instruction in the fundamental law of the United States and of this State in what regards the rights and duties of citizens." It will be seen from this that in these schools academic instruction was at first not only permissible but mandatory; consequently they were obliged to maintain preparatory departments. The following are at present the requirements for admission:

1. Any applicant holding the diploma showing that he has satisfactorily completed the course of study for common schools as laid down in the manual of the department of public instruction will be admitted to the junior preparatory without examination.

2. Any candidate will be admitted without examination to the senior preparatory (a) who holds a full third-grade certificate gained within one year, or (b) who furnishes satisfactory evidence of having completed the second year's work in any free high school of this State, or one of equivalent course.

3. Any candidate who holds a duly signed diploma of graduation from any high school in the State, or who holds a first-grade certificate, still in force, granted by any school superintendent in Wisconsin, will be admitted to normal courses without examination.

Other candidates for admission are examined thoroughly in arithmetic, geography, spelling, penmanship, reading, and English grammar. The following set of questions will indicate the standard for admission in arithmetic. The questions in other subjects are nearly of the same grade.

Entrance examination—Arithmetic—Time, 3 hours.

[From catalogue of Oshkosh Normal School, 1890.]

1. From a cask of wine worth \$1.20 a gallon one-sixth part is drawn and replaced by wine worth 80 cents a gallon; what is then the value of the wine in the cask?

2. What per cent of the area of the floor of a room 35 feet square would be left uncovered by 147 yards of carpet 30 inches wide, allowing 5 per cent waste of carpet in fitting?

3. If stock bought at 10 per cent discount pays 5 per cent on the investment, at what price should the same stock be bought to pay 6 per cent?

4. An estate agent bought two houses; the first cost three-fourths as much as the second; in selling, he gained 20 per cent on the first and lost 5 per cent on the second; his net gain was \$160. Find his net gain per cent.

5. A society collected for charitable purposes a fund of £960; each member paid as many pence as there were members in the whole society. How many members were there?

6. A miller exchanged flour worth \$5.40 a barrel for hay worth \$9 a ton. If the farmer asked \$10.50 for the hay, what price should the miller put on his flour?

7. It cost \$800 to fence a farm 80 rods square. How much more will it cost to fence a farm of equal area in the form of a rectangle four times as long as it is wide?

8. A speculator bought a piece of land at \$1,500 and afterwards sold it for \$1,795.40; the buying and selling were done through a broker who charged 2 per cent for each transaction. Find the broker's fee.

9. Two trains start at the same time from London and Exeter and go toward each other at the rate of 24 and 32 miles an hour, respectively. When they meet it is

found that one train has run 24 miles more than the other. How far is it between the cities?

10. A dealer imported 50 chests of tea containing 30 pounds each, invoiced at 45 cents a pound. It paid a duty of 15 per cent on the invoiced price, and \$17.50 freight; he found 5 chests were damaged so that he had to sell them for 50 cents per pound. At what price per pound must he sell the remainder to gain 20 per cent on his entire outlay?

The attendance at the several schools on the 1st of September, 1890, was as follows:

	Normal students.	Teachers.
Platteville.....	204	14
Whitewater.....	184	16
Oshkosh.....	206	20
River Falls (including preparatory).....	130	11
Milwaukee.....	72	11

Three courses of study have been provided by the board of regents:

I. An elementary course of two years and a half.

II. An advanced course of two additional years.

III. A professional course of one year. This course is intended principally for graduates of the University of Wisconsin, or of a college having an equivalent course, and who have had one year's experience in teaching; but applicants who pass a satisfactory examination at the school in all the branches required by law for a first-grade county certificate and who furnish proof of three years' successful experience in teaching are admitted.

The ordinary professional work of the schools is distributed through the elementary course and the last year of the advanced course, and includes school economy, school organization, school management, school law, theory of teaching, history of education, mental science, and twenty weeks' practice in the model school for each student. The instruction in this department is given partly by conversation lectures and partly from text-books. The text-books of this class used in the Whitewater school are Raub's School Management, Wisconsin School Laws, Burke's Laws of Public Schools, Swett's Methods of Teaching, Sully's Psychology, Quick's Educational Reformers, Browning's History of Educational Theories, White's Elements of Pedagogy, Bain's Education as a Science.

The general arrangement of studies as to years will be best understood from the subjoined table.

Course of study, State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis.

ELEMENTARY.

First year.		Second year.		Fifth term.
Arithmetic, 10 weeks; algebra 10 weeks.	Arithmetic, 13 weeks; algebra, 7 weeks.	Plane geometry..	Book keeping, 10 weeks; physical geography, 10 weeks.	Algebra, 10 weeks.
Descriptive geography	Geography, 10 weeks; physiology, 10 weeks.	Botany, 10 weeks; word analysis, 10 weeks.	Physics, 10 weeks; reading, 10 weeks.	Physics, 10 weeks; physiology, 10 weeks.
Language lessons, 10 weeks; orthoepy, 10 weeks.	Reading, 10 weeks; English grammar, 10 weeks.	Composition.....	History of United States.	Civil government, 15 weeks.
School organization; observation in model school.	School economy, 10 weeks.	Theory of teaching.	Methods of teaching.	Practice teaching.
Vocal music.....	Drawing.....	Drawing, 10 weeks.	Practice teaching.	Drawing, 10 weeks.

Course of study, State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis.—Continued.

ADVANCED.

Junior year.		Senior year.	
Rhetoric.....	English literature.....	Geometry.....	Political economy.
Zoology, 10 weeks.....	Chemistry.....	Geology, 10 weeks.....	Geology, 10 weeks.
Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.
General history, 10 weeks.	General history, 15 weeks.	Mental science.....	History of pedagogy.
Algebra, 10 weeks.....		Practice teaching.....	Practice teaching.

Callisthenics and chorus practice throughout the course. Composition and recitations. Classes in penmanship and spelling are maintained constantly for students of all grades who need such practice.

The training department or model school in the several normal schools is conducted in three divisions, primary, intermediate, and grammar; there being three grades (one year each) in the first, three in the second, and two in the third. Some idea of the "methods" used and recommended may be formed from the subjoined outline of the primary course in reading, taken without abridgment from the catalogue of the State Normal School at Oshkosh, for the year 1889.

Reading.

PRIMARY GRADE, FIRST YEAR.

I. Before coming to school the child has made progress in spoken language to such an extent that he can enunciate the words of a vocabulary *more or less extended*, and he associates with those words the ideas they express.

As reading, in its beginnings, is learning to recognize in written or printed signs words already familiar to the learner in spoken language, economy, simplicity, and the necessity of interesting the child all demand that the words chosen for this first work should come from the child's own vocabulary and possess a lively interest for him. This vocabulary may be ascertained and interest secured by leading the child, by conversation upon some familiar object—one present is best—to furnish the words for his own first lesson; and, as ideas in isolation are less instructive than those in relation, get him to furnish a sentence, thus, leading him from the first to use the unit of expression.

This sentence should be written upon the board with its initial capital and terminated with its appropriate punctuation mark.

Lead the child to talk about the idea expressed that the association between form and sound and sense may be fully established.

II. Isolate the word that has the liveliest interest for the pupil and have him copy it upon his slate.

This primarily to impress the outline of the word upon his memory.

Incidentally, writing and spelling are begun.

After a few words have been taught, compare the form of those words in such a way that the pupil will begin to realize that words are made up of parts. For example, erase the h in hat and ask what the word thus obtained is. Then place c before the last word and ask what it now is. Call the letters which you erase and substitute by name that the pupil may learn the names of any which he does not already know.

III. By easy work in phonic comparison enable the child to master the pronunciation of new words. For example, the child is acquainted with the word *at*; also with the powers of b, f, m, and p in words already known. If these elements are uttered and followed by the word "at" the pupil will easily recognize the words bat, fat, mat, and pat thus formed.

IV. Draw out the pupils to make stories about present objects, or familiar objects not present, or pictures, thus cultivating language and furnishing reading matter in which they will take an interest. This should be written upon the board and read *one or more times* by the members of the class. For seat work, this should be copied by the class upon their slates.

V. Change from script to print, preparatory to taking up the reading book, by using a chart having words in both texts side by side, or by means of cards prepared by the teacher for that purpose.

VI. Work should early be begun in helping the child to *quickly* recognize the form of words with which he is already somewhat familiar, thus preventing a drawling and unnatural style in reading. To accomplish this, the teacher may point out and the child pronounce the most difficult words before he begins the reading of any particular passage or paragraph. Keep a list of the words studied upon the blackboard where it can easily be seen by the class. Make sentences from this list, varying the arrangement as much as possible. Add the new words as learned. Review constantly. He should by some or all means be led to discriminate between word pronouncing and reading.

VII. As it is easier to prevent than to cure, from the first pay careful attention to enunciation, correct pitch, and correct inflections.

See that the pupil reads in distinct, *pleasant* tones, with distinct articulation. Do not allow a high, strained key. By arousing the child's imagination, get him to use the same key and inflections which he would use were he talking instead of reading.

The teacher should, as often as necessary, assist by furnishing a model. A good motto is, "Talk when you read; read as you should talk." This necessitates an understanding, on the part of the pupil, of what he reads.

Make sure by questions and explanations that he understands what he is to read before he begins. Encourage him to find out all he can for himself, by examining the pictures illustrating his lessons.

VIII. Voice culture should begin with the child's school work. Attention should be paid to the position of the child, whether sitting or standing, while producing tones. Judicious breathing exercises and vocal gymnastics should be practiced. *Pleasant*, natural, flexible tones should be secured and practiced by pupil and teacher. Singing and readings should go hand in hand, and it is desirable that the same teacher should teach both. Occasional exercises in simultaneous reading should be given, but the teacher must carefully guard against harsh tones and indistinct utterance.

IX. Finish the First Reader, and before taking the Second be sure that the child has had all the supplementary reading that is necessary to make him thoroughly familiar with the meaning, pronunciation, and spelling of all the words he has thus far had.

PRIMARY GRADE, SECOND YEAR.

I. The method given in the first year's work for pronouncing new words by means of phonic comparison should be continued and expanded. If the books in use furnish no lists for phonic spelling the teacher should select such a list from the lesson to be read, and by comparing these new or unfamiliar words with those already known, lead the child to determine for himself their pronunciation. This phase of the work may well be emphasized, however, not beyond the point of lively interest for the pupil.

Provide seat work for pupils of this grade by selecting from the succeeding lesson, and arranging in lists those words which have parts in common, as *rack, lack, back, whack*. Head these lists by similar words familiar to them and set them to determining for themselves the pronunciation of the unfamiliar ones. Ask them to copy upon their slates those which they thus determine and bring them to class.

II. Continue the method given in the first year's work for securing a *ready* pronunciation of words which are pronounced only with hesitation.

For creating and sustaining an interest in the lesson, precede the reading it by some carefully considered questions.

These should be of such a nature as will stir the imagination to see what is really in the lesson, and secure an interest in it. Care should be taken that the impression gained should not be dimmed by too much questioning or the admission of *irrelevant* questions.

If the pupil *understands* what he reads he will be interested if the selection is suitable.

III. Methods for securing expressive reading may be extended in this year's work, and may be considered under two heads, viz, the physical element and the mental element.

(A) As physical power is so large a factor in expressive reading, as good a degree as possible should be secured by attention to the following exercises: (1) Good standing position, including carriage of the head and shoulders. (2) Good supply of breath, secured by judicious breathing exercises. (3) Good articulation. The work in phonic spelling will do much toward the accomplishment of this. Classify lists of words or phrases involving skill in articulation, and give the class a three or five minute drill before beginning the reading lesson.

Secure good pronunciation and enunciation by a similar drill.

Pupils readily engage in and are profited by gymnastic drill of the speech and vocal organs

(B) Mental element. Cultivate this element by the following means: (1) By the methods used for making the pupil understand what he reads (see II). (2) By assisting the pupil's imagination. The following are a few of the many ways in which this may be done. Let pupil A ask a question or make a statement to B, standing by his side. Then let B go across the room or outside the door while A repeats his remark or question. This would constitute a lesson in force. Let a pupil read something expressive of joy and follow it, at once, by something expressive of pity, thus getting him to use different degrees of pitch. Compare pure and whispered qualities of voice by reading something expressive of joy, followed by something expressive of fear or secrecy. Teach degrees of rate in a similar way.

Assign the different parts of a colloquy to different pupils and have them take their places before the class to read it.

NOTE.—Strong force, low pitch, and impure quality should not be taught to immature voices.

(3) By relieving the mind of the task of doing too many things at once.

Have the pupil recite selections from memory.

In this way he may expend his mental energy in expressing thought and feeling and be relieved of the task of recognizing word forms, of keeping the place in the book, and of holding the book itself.

IV. As the object of all this is *good reading*, and as this can be secured only by much practice, get as much reading as possible done by the class.

Have the reviews read by one pupil, the others listening.

If the teacher will sometimes read the review to the class, the pupils will be interested and profited.

Let the class read selections at sight, or those to which they have given no previous study. This will aid them in *quickly* recognizing word forms and enable them to do more reading than they otherwise could.

Care should be taken, however, that the selections for sight reading should not be too difficult.

Appoint individuals to prepare and read before the class selections which the others in the class have not seen.

V. Finish the Second Reader and furnish supplementary reading sufficient to make the pupil thoroughly familiar with the vocabulary thus far gained. Narratives are better for this purpose than additional readers of the same grade.

PRIMARY GRADE, THIRD YEAR.

I. The methods of work at this stage suggest themselves when we attempt to answer the following questions:

(1) What has the lesson told the child?

(2) Can he express by means of the voice, and with distinctness and fluency, that which the lesson has told him?

II. To make the results under the first head as full as possible, the following steps are suggested:

(1) An explanation by the teacher of those allusions which the pupils do not understand.

(2) Lead the pupils to determine for themselves the *new* idea in a sentence when it contains one that is obvious.

(3) Get at the meaning of difficult words by aid of the context or by placing these words in such sentences that more light will be thrown upon their meaning.

Call out from the class synonyms for these difficult words, if possible.

(4) Have the pupils paraphrase the little poems in their readers.

NOTE.—These suggestions assume that the reading matter is on a level with the comprehension of the pupil, and that, therefore, this will aid, not crowd out, the actual practice in reading.

As sentences are vehicles not only of thought, but emotion, no pupil should be allowed to feel satisfied with his work when he has expressed thought *only*, especially in sentences where the emotion predominates, as is often the case in the reading for this grade. It is not easy to give general directions for the accomplishment of this desirable result, but it can be done, if the teacher and pupils are in such close sympathy that she can interest them *strongly in that which interests her*.

If the above conditions can be established, then give simple directions, good examples, and abundant practice.

III. For the purpose of securing distinct, fluent utterance, practice the exercises given for that purpose in the first and second year's work.

Let them also give short whispering exercises.

Have the final consonant, or consonants, distinctly given; but do not emphasize this practice to the sacrifice of fluency.

During this year require the pupils to establish the habit of looking up from the text while reading. A valuable sight drill and greater naturalness of expression are secured by this.

Teach the marking of the long and the short vowels.

IV. The power to articulate clearly and easily, and to command varied rate, pitch, force, and quality, must become automatic or no such thing as expressive reading is possible. *Early training* may make these processes as automatic as walking or the use of the pen; but if the consideration is deferred until late in school life it will only be accomplished in those cases where the ambition is strong enough to submit the pupil to a long and tedious discipline.

V. Finish the Third Reader and increase the amount of supplementary reading.

PRACTICE TEACHING.

The principal of the Oshkosh school, in his report for 1878-79, writes:

The work of practice teaching has been increased and improved until the problem whether a student teacher could ever be trained to control and discipline a class as in his own school has ceased to be a question. As in other phases of training, some learn the art with difficulty, and are required to work a longer period, but nothing is more clearly proved than the fact that tact in teaching is a cultivable trait.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

After much deliberation and discussion of the principles, objects, and practices of the kindergarten, the board of regents determined to establish a kindergarten in one of the normal schools as a model for observation and practice. Accordingly, they opened at Oshkosh what they claimed to be the "first kindergarten officially and directly connected with any State normal school in the United States."¹

Kindergarten culture [says the report for 1880] is designed to correct many of the faults of our common schools, where knowledge is generally imparted in a concentrated form by teachers and text-books; where the child is crammed with the greatest possible amount of what might be termed positive knowledge in the least possible time, in many instances to the detriment of his healthy development. Kindergarten work will develop healthfully and harmoniously all the faculties of the child, as an organism that needs but to have its surroundings brought into harmony with its nature to grow into beauty and usefulness. It does not drive, but leads. The restless disposition of a child, so trying to the parent and the teacher, and so often firmly repressed, is made useful and a source of happiness and pleasure to the true kindergarten. The methods and discipline ordinarily pursued in our common schools have a tendency to dwarf the physical development of a child. The kindergarten cultivates the same by frequent changes and a wise combination of exercises of body and mind. * * * Kindergartening in the common schools of our State may not be an accomplished fact for many years to come, but the board of regents have thought it wise to give our normal pupils a theoretical and practical knowledge of its principles, aims, methods, and apparatus, in order that they may be able to apply those methods and principles in their future school work as far as circumstances will permit. If our students are to be missionaries for higher views of education, they should certainly be made acquainted with all the educational systems and methods deserving consideration. Among these systems none have received more earnest attention at the hands of prominent educators than Froebel's system of kindergartening.

The experience of the school more than fulfilled the expectations of the board of regents. The kindergarten was at first used as a school of observation merely; but a few years later it was used, as the other model departments were used, as a school of practice; and it was found that the lessons learned in the kindergarten by the normal students gave them a much clearer insight into the underlying principles of all school work and helped to solve many vexatious problems in school management.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MILWAUKEE.

The State Normal School, located in Milwaukee, was authorized by an act of the legislature passed in 1880. The grounds and buildings, provided by the city of Mil-

¹ This is a mistake. A kindergarten was opened in Baltimore and "officially and directly connected" with the State Normal School of Maryland in the fall of 1876, and was maintained until closed for want of room, caused by large increase of numbers in other departments.

waukee at an expense of \$53,000, were presented to the State in 1885, and the school was opened in September of that year. It is claimed as a great advantage to this school that it is situated in a great and growing city, in which there are large commercial and manufacturing industries, a public library of 60,000 volumes, an art museum, and a museum of natural history. Every school is largely controlled by its local environment, and one of the chief functions of this school is to take the place of a city training school. Accordingly, students are admitted from the high school, without examination, on presenting a certificate of having completed the first three years of one of the existing courses of study in the high school at Milwaukee. The regular normal course may be completed in two years, and comprises (a) a review of all the branches of study taught in the common schools; (b) a critical study of physics, chemistry, and natural history, with the methods of presenting these subjects in the schoolroom; (c) a course in English language and literature, history of the United States, civil government, and political economy; (d) a course in school management, history of education, science of education, and psychology. Every student is required to spend at least forty weeks teaching in the model school under the supervision and direction of the training teacher, but no one is permitted to begin the work of teaching until he has studied psychology.

The following is a syllabus of the lessons on the "Elements of political economy," mentioned in (c) above:

ELEMENTS OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

1. Fundamental notions of value, wealth, labor and capital. The three forces or factors that enter into the production of wealth. Advantages, disadvantages, and limitations of division of labor.

2. The mechanism of exchange: Various forms of currency. Banking functions. Bimetallism. Some common errors in regard to money. Regulation of production and exchange by legislative enactment, and popular fallacies respecting the same. Nature and cause of panics.

3. Distribution of profits: Rent, interest, natural and legal rate, usury laws, profits on capital and on business. Wages, real and nominal, of skilled and unskilled labor; of men and women. The "wage-fund" doctrine. Cooperative societies. Trades unions and strikes. Principles and methods of taxation. Revenue of the State, and of the United States.

4. The use of wealth: Productive and unproductive consumption. Economic significance of luxury. Subsistence and population.

Debates upon topics pertaining to this study encouraged, and students led to read both sides of disputed questions. Text: Laughlin, Walker.

It is to be regretted that the catalogue from which this admirable syllabus is taken contains in its "Arrangement of Studies" no notice of the place or time it occupies in the school work.¹

MINNESOTA.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WINONA.

Near the close of the session of the first legislature of the State, August 2, 1858, an act was passed preparing for the establishment of three normal schools. This legislation was suggested by Dr. John D. Ford, of Winona, and secured by his efforts through the legislative delegation from Winona County. At the first meeting of the State normal board of directors it was resolved, "That the first normal school be located at Winona, provided the subscription from Winona of \$7,000 be satisfactorily

¹ Biennial Reports of the Board of Regents of the Normal Schools of Wisconsin. Madison, 1880 and 1890.

First Annual Catalogue of the State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis. 1869.

Twenty-second Annual Catalogue of the same. 1890.

Fifth Annual Catalogue of the State Normal School at Oshkosh. 1872.

Annual Catalogues of the same, 1888, 1889, 1890.

Annual Catalogues of the State Normal School at Milwaukee, Wis. 1890, 1891.

secured to the uses of said school." This was at that time the only State normal school west of the Mississippi.

On the evening of the 9th of November, Lieutenant-Governor Holcombe, president of the board of directors, delivered an address on the subject, "Education with reference to the establishment of the first normal school of Minnesota," which is said to have done much to elevate, if not to create, that sentiment of earnest support of educational interests which has marked the history of the city of Winona.

In the first annual report of the normal board to the governor the claims of the school to generous support and its vital relation to the common schools of the State were set forth in a clear and forcible manner. The board also urged in this report that "a competent superintendent of public instruction be appointed;" that "a general supervision of the subjects of schools, school-teaching, and school lands is absolutely necessary," and that "the school lands should be put into a condition to realize the largest possible annual fund." To the credit of this normal board and its secretary, Dr. Ford, it may be said that the first State tax for school purposes was authorized and levied upon their urgent recommendation.

An appropriation of \$5,000 having been secured, it was decided to open the school on the first Monday in September, 1860. Prof. John Ogden, of Columbus, Ohio, was elected principal at a salary of \$1,400. In his inaugural address, Professor Ogden said:

It shall be the leading object of the normal school so to distribute its labors and other exercises that all the faculties of the pupil, physical, intellectual, moral, and spiritual, shall be addressed in due proportion, at the proper time and in the proper manner; and so to develop, strengthen, elevate, and purify these powers in the student and so train him in the educational processes that he may readily apply them to the education of the children and youth committed to his care. More pains shall be taken to make teachers than mere scholars, well knowing this to be the point upon which normal schools fail more frequently than upon any other. Here, then, fellow-teachers and friends, in this brief outline, behold my ideal of a school. Behold my type of a national education. Behold what your schools ought to be, and every school must be, if we ever expect to meet a tithe of that weighty obligation resting upon us, the public servants of this great and growing Commonwealth.

At the session of the legislature in 1861 a special act was passed creating the first board of education of Winona. This board was to consist of one school director from each ward of the city, with the principal of the normal school and such members of the normal board as were residents of the city. The idea was to copy somewhat after the Oswego plan of uniting the jurisdiction of the normal and the public schools of Winona, and using the public schools as graded and model schools; but in the following year this law was repealed and the joint jurisdiction ceased.

Professor Ogden resigned the principalship of the school in December, 1861, for the purpose of entering the Union Army. In his letter of resignation he said:

*My distracted and dishonored country calls louder for my poor service just now than the school does. * * * My brethren and fellow-teachers are in the field. Some of them, the bravest and the best, have already fallen. Their blood will do more to cleanse this nation than their teaching would. So will mine. I feel ashamed to tarry longer.*

The school was continued for another term under a temporary principal and was then suspended until November, 1864. The reasons for this suspension were: (1) The interest in the great struggle then pending overshadowed everything else; (2) competent teachers could not be found to take charge of the school; such men were generally in the war; (3) the means for the support of the school were inadequate—the State had made no appropriations beyond the first \$5,000; (4) the State was too busy in the war to care for its educational interests.

During the session of the legislature in the spring of 1864, at the earnest solicitation of the citizens of Winona, an act was passed renewing the appropriations to the school and reestablishing it on a permanent basis. This act provided that the sum

of \$3,000 be appropriated for the current year, \$4,000 for the following year, and \$5,000 annually thereafter. No movement, however, was made to reopen the school until the following September, when Prof. William F. Phelps, formerly principal of the State Normal School of New Jersey, was elected principal, and entered immediately upon the duties of his office. His rare ability as an organizer and disciplinarian was at once apparent in the prompt and efficient measures taken to reestablish the school and to raise it to the high standard which it subsequently attained. The following extract from his first annual report indicates the policy of the school under the administration of twelve years which followed the reopening:

The normal school aims to educate and train teachers to a proper conception of the principles and to a skillful execution of the practice of their difficult art. It seeks to impart to them an accurate knowledge of those subjects which they are required to teach, that they may teach with intelligence and taste. It must, moreover, labor to develop in them all those excellences of character which will make them fit examples to those who are to be brought under their influence and molded into intelligent and virtuous citizens. It must thoroughly imbue them with a love for their work. It must generate in them the true *esprit de corps*. It must make them acquainted as far as possible with those multifarious and complicated processes which are best calculated to draw out the faculties of the young and bring their threefold natures into harmonious and healthful activity. In fine, the normal school should inspire its pupils with those comprehensive views of education which should shape all their measures and methods, and thus enable them, by an intelligent and judicious adaptation of means, to aim directly at the development of all that pertains to a noble and symmetrical manhood and womanhood.

Up to this time the school had been held in one of the city buildings (now the Winona library building), the use of which was given without cost—another evidence of the friendliness of the citizens to this struggling institution. The legislature of 1866 made the first appropriation of \$10,000 for a school building. The whole of this sum was used in constructing a foundation, an important measure which committed the State fully to the completion of the building. The corner stone was laid on the 19th of October, 1866. In the spring of 1867 an appropriation from the legislature of \$50,000 was secured for building purposes, and the building was occupied by the school in September, 1869, though not completed till the following December. It is acknowledged to be, even at this date (1892), one of the most nearly perfect buildings of the kind in the Northwest. Its admirable adaptation to the existing and prospective wants of the school and its nearly faultless construction are largely due to the experienced judgment and wise forethought of the principal.

The growth of the school in numbers, in reputation, and in all the characteristics of an excellent training school continued without marked interruption until 1876, when the legislature failed to make the usual annual appropriation for the support of the three normal schools of the State. The normal board was called in extra session, and several propositions to close the schools at once were voted down by a bare majority. The opposition to these proposals was led by the Hon. Thomas Simpson, the resident director at Winona. Finally the board took action, which was intended merely to give the schools a chance for continuance if they could find any means of existing without involving the board or incurring a debt. The resident director at Winona determined that the school should not go down. He made a temporary reduction of the teaching force, some abatements of salaries, and some extra charges for tuition. By these means the school was kept in vigorous operation until the following year, when the appropriation was not only restored but was made permanent. The action at Winona had much to do with inspiring a like spirit and determination on the part of the local management of the schools at Mankato and St. Cloud.

During the summer of 1876 Principal Phelps resigned to accept the presidency of the State Normal School at Whitewater, Wis., and Prof. Charles E. Morey was elected to the principalship, which he held until his resignation in 1879.

PROFESSIONAL COURSE.

Methods, psychology, history and science of education, school economy, practice, elemental principles of and methods in arithmetic, grammar, geography, and reading; drawing.

Exercises in vocal music, elocution, essay writing, and spelling are maintained throughout these courses of study.

The professional course is intended especially for graduates of high schools and colleges. It consists of the strictly pedagogical branches, with practice teaching and a review of the elementary subjects from the teaching point of view.

In the regular course a full half year is given to the subject of detailed methods of instruction in the branches which involve the elements of knowledge. These "methods" are not empirical, but are the result of a careful application of the laws of mind to the arrangement and grading of work, to the art of questioning, to the acquisitive and elaborative processes, and to the recitative or reproductive states of knowledge. Pedagogy is regarded as applied psychology.

A full half year is given to practice teaching in the model school. This work is done under the immediate supervision of a skilled teacher, who helps the student to apply the laws of mind in the actual work of the schoolroom. "It is thus not blind experimentation, trusting to luck that somehow the right way will at last be discovered or hit upon by experience, but it is scientific prevision and insight applied to work. It is work with a conscious purpose, with the advantage of a preformed ideal and a definite knowledge of its conditioning laws. It is no more blind than is the work of a Faraday or a Tyndall in natural science."

The school is well furnished with apparatus for work in physics, physiology, and chemistry, and a carefully selected cabinet for illustrations in geology, mineralogy, and natural history. Chemistry is taught by a combination of class work and laboratory practice. The student during the afternoon of each day performs all the experiments for himself in the laboratory; on the following morning, in the classroom, he reports upon his researches, and, aided by the teacher, text-book, and classmates, he corrects his judgments and prepares for the experimental work of the afternoon.

The total number of students in the normal department (1890) is 195, 26 being in the advanced course and 169 in the elementary. The model department is divided into three grades, averaging about 40 each. The faculty consists of the president, Thomas J. Gray, and 13 professors and instructors.¹

IOWA.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, CEDAR FALLS.

On the 6th of September, 1876, the State Normal School of Iowa was opened at Cedar Falls with an enrollment of 27 students. At the end of the year the enrollment was 155; at the end of the second year, 237; at the end of the third year, 252; fourth year, 339; fifth year, 334; sixth year, 352; seventh year, 301.

The site and buildings, owned by the State and previously occupied as a soldiers' orphans' home, were transferred to the normal school for its accommodation. It was known at the time that the buildings were inadequate to the requirements of a great school such as this was destined to be; but it is the beginning that costs, and here was at least a beginning. It is not surprising to learn that for many years the cry of the school was that of the horse-leech, "Give, give!" In the second biennial report the board of directors asked for a library and reading room, a room for a museum and apparatus, a room for general assembly, a room for chapel, more rooms for recita-

¹Catalogue of State Normal School, St. Cloud, Minn., for year ending June, 1890.

tions, and more rooms for dormitories. They asked also for an increased appropriation, because the school had doubled in size since it was organized, necessitating the employment of students to assist the overworked teachers, and because it was difficult to obtain competent teachers at the salaries the board could afford to pay. In the third biennial report the same requests were repeated in almost the same words.

In 1881 the board asked the general assembly for an appropriation of \$30,000 for the construction of an additional normal building. The request was granted, and the new building was ready for occupation and was formally dedicated in June, 1883. The board expressed their gratitude, but reiterated their request for a larger appropriation to enable them to pay the teachers better salaries—"a sum sufficient to make their compensation equal to that paid for like services in similar institutions in adjoining States." The board was well pleased with the new building. "It is three stories high and is furnished with all modern improvements. It contains a chapel, a model school room, a library, two society halls, chemical and physical laboratories, offices, cloakrooms, music rooms, recitation rooms, and dormitories." But while acknowledging the obligation, the legislature is gently reminded that increased accommodations will bring in an increased number of students, and an increase of students necessitates an increase of teachers, and an increase of teachers means an increased appropriation for current expenses.

The sixth biennial report keeps up the demand. The principal needs a residence, a cottage outside of the college walls within which he has been compelled to reside to the great discomfort of his family. The school needs a new dormitory to accommodate not less than a hundred sleepers. It needs an addition to the library, for one-half of the books were the personal property of the retiring principal and retired with him. It needs a liberal appropriation for a chemical laboratory. It needs a new supply of pianos; "the board are certain that could the proper authorities overhear them they would quickly replace them with the best." (It is to be hoped that the "proper authorities" were spared the infliction.) Next to music comes cleanliness. The school needs a laundry with modern appliances, for "washerwomen quit without notice, and the weather at times prevents drying." The school being a mile and a half from the city, and the team in use being old (one horse, over 20 years), a new team and bus are indispensable. The main hall must have a new roof, the floors must be renewed or repaired, electric lights must be furnished, and for the supply of all these wants the board asks only an appropriation of \$61,800. Most of the above-mentioned requests were granted by the legislature; but the seventh biennial report—the latest that the editor has seen—renews the application for a cottage for the president, for electric lighting, for an additional number of teachers, for more books in the library, and for additional apparatus for the illustration of the natural and physical sciences. The estimate of expenses for the next two years is \$62,100.

The growth of this school in popularity, efficiency, and professional character has more than kept pace with the growth of its environment; it has been always ahead of the latter. Like an endogenous plant, it has grown from within. Every call for additional external facilities has been preceded by a call from the living organism that admitted of no refusal. The school was opened in 1876, with five teachers: The principal in the chair of mental philosophy, moral philosophy, and didactics; a professor of ancient languages and natural science (though ancient languages do not appear in the printed curriculum); a professor of mathematics and English literature; a teacher of geography and history; and a professor of vocal and instrumental music. The students were arranged in two classes—senior elementary and junior elementary. In 1879 two teachers were added: A teacher of elocution, drawing, and accounts; and an assistant. In 1883 another teacher was added for natural science and as assistant in mathematics. In the same year the elementary course was discontinued, and the school became more decidedly professional, and next year the model school was opened. At this time the normal course was taught in three classes, each occupying

one year—senior didactic, middle didactic, and junior didactic, with a post-graduate didactic course attended by one student. The enrollment had now reached 408 in the normal and 68 in the model school. "Careful count," says the principal in his report for this year, "justifies me in saying that 92 per cent of all whom we enroll enter upon the work of teaching." The principal also expresses his opinion that "the greater benefit derived by the State from the school is derived from the nongraduates and not from the graduates." The reason given is that there are nine times as many of them, and the limited preparation of the many will, in the aggregate, exceed in usefulness the extended preparation of the few.

After ten years' service the principal, J. C. Gilchrist, retired and Homer H. Seerley took his place with eight colleagues, the new chair being that of "methods." There are now (1892) four courses of study open to those who are preparing for the profession of teaching:

- (1) The scientific course, of four years.
- (2) The didactic course, of three years.
- (3) The supplementary course for high-school graduates, of two years.
- (4) The professional course for college graduates, of one year.

The following table exhibits in detail the work of the several successive years:

Course of study—English course.

Departments.	First year.			Second year.		
	First term.	Second term.	Third term.	First term.	Second term.	Third term.
Language....	English grammar.	English grammar and composition.	Etymology and word analysis.	English literature.	English literature.	
Mathematics....	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.	Bookkeeping.	Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.
Science.....	Geography.		Physiology..	Physical geography.		Botany.
History.....		United States history.	Constitution of United States.		Ancient history.	Medieval history.
Art.....	Blackboard work.	Reading and music.	Penmanship and drawing, books.	Reading and music.	Penmanship and drawing, advanced.	Elocution and music.
Didactics....	Theory of education.	Primary methods.	Methods of instruction.	School economy.	Principles of education.	School laws. ¹
Departments.	Third year.			Fourth year.		
	First term.	Second term.	Third term.	First term.	Second term.	Third term.
Language....			Rhetoric....	English classics, history of English language.	Ancient literature.	
Mathematics....	Geometry..	Geometry..	Trigonometry, surveying.	Advanced algebra, spherical trigonometry.	Analytical geometry.	Logic.
Science.....	Physics....	Zoology, physics, and chemistry.	Geology, chemistry.	Laboratory work.		Astronomy.
History.....	Modern history.				Political economy.	Moral science.
Art.....	Drawing, perspective.					
Didactics....	Psychology.	Philosophy of education.	Philosophy of education. ²	True order of studies.	History of education.	

¹ Half-time study with constitution and laws of Iowa.

² Three lessons per week.

³ Two lessons per week.

There is also a "Latin elective course," which differs from the English course principally in substituting Latin (Cesar, Virgil, and Cicero) in the second, third, and fourth years for some of the language lessons in the other course.

The last available catalogue (1890-91) contains the names of the faculty for that year: The president, professor of psychology and didactics; a professor of English language and literature, a professor of mathematics, a professor of geography and history, a professor of methods, a professor of the Latin language, a professor of physical science, a professor of natural science, a professor of didactics and methods, an instructor in the English language, an instructor in mathematics, an instructor in penmanship and drawing, an instructor in vocal and instrumental music, an instructor in elocution and physical culture, an instructor in applied English, and an instructor in history and civics. A comparison of the functions of this faculty with those of the first and subsequent faculties will give a good example of evolution and differentiation in normal-school work. The career of this school has been traced more minutely and in greater detail than that of some others because it seemed typical of natural growth in accordance with the necessities of the environment.¹

MISSOURI.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KIRKSVILLE.

In 1870 the legislature of Missouri made provision for two State normal schools, one to be located north and one south of the Missouri River. The school for the first normal district was located at Kirksville/and opened as a State institution on the 2d of January, 1871. Adair County voted \$100,000 to secure the location of the school, with the understanding that the annual current expenses would be met by the State. The first annual State appropriation was for \$5,000; the last (1890), for \$12,500.

Previous to the legislation which provided for the establishment and maintenance of the State normal schools, a private normal school had been conducted for three years and a half by Prof. J. Baldwin with such efficiency and popularity that it was adopted as the State normal school of the district without any change in the faculty or the course of study. The building is 180 by 90 feet and four stories high. With the grounds, furniture, apparatus, and library, the cost was \$150,000. All the movements of the school are regulated by bells rung by an electric clock, the first clock of the kind ever used by any school for a similar purpose.

There is no boarding hall or dormitory. Board in respectable private families costs from \$2.50 to \$3 a week. Tuition for the year costs \$20, payable in four quarterly installments of \$5 each. The work of this school is special. It does not offer a general, academic, college, preparatory, or seminary education. Those, and those only, are invited to attend who want to learn how to teach.²

The means employed for the training of teachers are:

(a) Thorough study by the students: They are expected to study their lessons and to become familiar with hard study.

(b) Careful and critical recitation under the direction of the teacher: Students are expected to recite without assistance from the teachers.

(c) The study of teaching: This includes three distinct courses of study. The first embraces the object, means, and methods of teaching; the motives of the teacher and the methods of organizing, conducting, and governing schools. The second treats of the methods of teaching the various branches of study. The third relates to the study of the mental and moral powers, their nature and culture.

¹ Reports and catalogues of the State Normal School of Iowa from 1876 to 1891, inclusive.

² Annual catalogue of the Missouri State Normal School, first normal district, for the school year 1889-90.

Programme of daily recitations.

FIRST TERM, SEPTEMBER 2, 1890, TO JANUARY 22, 1891.

Hours.	Advanced course.		Elementary course.				Preparatory course.	
	Class A, fourth year.	Class B, third year.	Class C, second year.	Class D, second year.	Class E, first year.	Class F, first year.	Class G.	Class H.
8.40 ..	Astronomy.		Opening exercises and announcements.				Elocution.	Physiology.
9.00 ..			(a)	Beginner's Latin concluded.				
9.40 ..	Teaching.	Psychology.	(a)	Geometry.	English literature, American authors.	Bookkeeping (optional).		Geography.
10.20 ..	Teaching.		Spelling, calisthenics, and rest.				Physical geography.	Grammar.
11.00 ..			(a)	Music.....	Algebra.....			
11.40 ..	Methods..	Solid geometry.	(a)	Rhetoric..	Drawing..	Civil government.	Arithmetic.	Penmanship.
12.20 ..	Music	Caesar.....	School economy.	Noon lunch and rest.		Algebra.		
12.50 ..				Zoology ..	Elements of psychology, methods.			
1.30 ..	English literature.	General history.	Music.....	Physics.....	Beginner's Latin.		United States history.	Arithmetic.
2.10 ..	Cicero's orations.	Physics...	History of education.			Botany		Elements of elocution.
2.50 ..	Dismission.							

SECOND TERM, JANUARY 27 TO JUNE 11, 1891.

8.40 ..	Teaching.	Ethics....	Opening exercises and announcements.				Arithmetic.	Geography.
9.00 ..			(a)	Rhetoric..	Drawing ..	Civil government.		
9.40 ..	Geology ..	Trigonometry and surveying.	(a)	Geometry.	English literature; American authors.	Bookkeeping (optional).		
10.20 ..	Teaching.		Spelling, calisthenics, and rest.				Physical geography.	Grammar.
11.00 ..			(a)	Music	Algebra ..			
11.40 ..	History of education.	General history. Elocution.	(a)	Beginner's Latin, concluded.		Algebra ..	Physiology.	Grammar.
12.20 ..	Institutes and graded schools.	Virgil	School; economy.	Noon lunch and rest.		Elocution		
12.50 ..					Zoology ..			
1.30 ..	English literature.		Music	Elements of psychology, methods.	Beginner's Latin.		United States history.	Arithmetic.
2.10 ..	Horace ...	Chemistry	History of education.	Physics.....		Botany		Elements of elocution.
2.50 ..	Dismission.							

a The elementary graduating class will observe and teach in the model school.

MODEL AND TRAINING SCHOOL.

The model department was established in November, 1882, for the purpose of exhibiting the best methods of classification, teaching, and discipline, which the normal students could observe and take part in as instructors and afterwards imitate when they become teachers of public schools. Members of the graduating classes are required to teach under the careful criticism of experienced teachers, and no one is graduated or licensed to teach in the schools of the State who does not satisfactorily stand this test. Each day a meeting of the student teachers is held by the principal of the model school, when the criticisms of the day are read and discussed and the work for the next day arranged. This school of practice is necessarily a local school, composed almost entirely of small children. It was not established for the convenience of Kirksville, but because it was considered to be "just as necessary an instrument of a normal school as a library, laboratory, or gymnasium." Several times a week classes from the model school are taught by members of the method classes of the normal in the presence of the class, the principal of the model department, and other members of the faculty. At the close of the lesson the class is dismissed, and the method and manner of the teacher are freely and fully discussed by all present—faults pointed out and improvements suggested. The following "directions" are given to student teachers in the model school:

A. Require and secure: (1) Good conduct in class room. (2) Quiet and orderly movements passing to and from class room. (3) Erect position of pupils. (4) Promptness and accuracy. (5) Neatness of blackboard work.

B. (1) Make a careful preparation for each lesson, including both matter and method of the recitation. (2) Stand before the class. (3) Request rather than command. (4) Ask definite questions and give positive directions. (5) Show pupils how to study and how to recite. (6) Be energetic, thorough, firm, clear, and efficient.

C. Cautions: Guard against much talking, dependence on the text-book, scolding, and fault-finding.

D. Strive to secure: (1) Thorough study, clear recitation, a lively interest, close attention, rapid progress. (2) Use visible illustrations and illustrative objects as much as you can with profit. (3) Keep the recitation room in good order.

Reading: Require pupils to sit and stand erect. (2) Have a short preliminary drill in vocal sounds, phonetic spelling, exercises in articulation, pitch, force, and rate. (3) Give frequent examples of good reading. (4) Require pupils to understand both the meaning of the words and the thought of the reading lesson. (5) Require pupils to read naturally and with pure tone. (6) Have variety in manner and method. (7) Let the pupils bring choice extracts from books, papers, and magazines and read them in class.

Spelling: (1) Use the written spelling method. (2) Pronounce each word distinctly and but once. (3) Require the writing to be neat and plain. (4) Have missed words rewritten at each lesson. (5) Review misspelled words daily. (6) Keep a list of missed words and use them at review.

Geography: (1) Have a map before the class. (2) Have the pupils draw maps on the board. (3) Have the lesson written on the board by parts of the class. (4) Have the lesson recited by topics, and without questions. (5) Use the globe, objects, and pictures for illustrations. (6) Drill upon the pronunciation and spelling of the difficult names.

Arithmetic: (1) Have much blackboard work. (2) Aim at accuracy and neatness first, rapidity next. (3) Aim to secure intense mental action. (4) Give original examples as tests. (5) Require definite and logical explanations and analyses. (6) Let pupils acquire ability to perform the operation before drilling on rules and explanations.

Grammar: (1) Have all definitions illustrated by original examples. (2) Keep the blackboard in use. (3) Dwell on new points until well understood. (4) Practice writing sentences, abstracts, correspondence, etc. (5) Dwell on common errors.¹

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WARRENSBURG.

This school was established in the spring of 1871 in pursuance of an act of the general assembly dividing the State into two normal-school districts, and authorizing

¹ Twenty-third Annual Catalogue of the Missouri State Normal School, first normal district, for the year 1890-91, pp. 23-31.

[illegible]

Course of study—Continued.

Elementary section.	Preparatory, one year.		Elementary normal.								Weeks.
			First year.				Second year.				
	Class H.	Class G.	Class F.		Class E.		Class D.		Class C.		
	First and third terms.	Second and fourth terms.	First and third terms.	Second and fourth terms.	First and third terms.	Second and fourth terms.	First and third terms.	Second and fourth terms.	First and third terms.	Second and fourth terms.	
History:											
History of the United States.....	*	*	*	*							40
Civil government						*					10
Art:											
Penmanship.....	*	*				*					20
Free-hand drawing.....					*	*					20
Map drawing.....							*	*			10
Reading and voice culture.....	*	*							*	*	20
Elocution.....			*	*				*	*		20
Vocal music.....				*							20
Professional studies:								*			10
Elements of mental science.....								*		*	20
Methods of teaching.....									*	*	20
School management.....								*	*	*	20
Practice teaching.....									*	*	20
Advanced normal.											
Advanced section.	Third year, Class B.				Fourth year, Class A.				Weeks.		
	First term.	Second term.	Third term.	Fourth term.	First term.	Second term.	Third term.	Fourth term.			
Language and literature:											
English literature.....	*	*	*		*	*				20	
Latin lessons.....				*						30	
Latin reader.....					*	*				10	
Cæsar.....					*	*				20	
Virgil.....							*	*		20	
Mathematics:											
Algebra.....	*		*	*						20	
Solid geometry.....		*								10	
Plane trigonometry.....					*					10	
Spherical trigonometry.....										10	
Astronomy.....							*	*		15	
Science:											
General physics.....			*	*	*	*				20	
Chemistry.....			*	*	*	*				20	
Botany.....	*	*	*	*						15	
Zoology.....		*					*	*		20	
Geology.....						*		*	*	20	
Logic.....										10	
History:											
General history.....			*	*						20	
Professional studies:											
Mental science.....	*	*	*							15	
Moral science.....		*	*					*	*	15	
Philosophy of education.....								*	*	20	
Graded schools.....					*	*			*	10	
Methods of teaching.....				*	*	*			*	20	
Institute and reviews.....	*	*							*	10	
Practice teaching.....	*	*							*	20	
History of art.....							*	*		20	
Art:											
Perspective drawing.....	*	*			*	*				10	
Elocution.....										10	

Spelling, word analysis, rhetorical, and callsthetic exercises throughout the course.

In addition to the professional work laid down in the course, principles and methods of teaching and class management receive careful attention in connection with the academic studies and in the school of practice.

THIRD TERM, 1892-93.

1	Practice	Physics	Primary methods.	Zoology	Algebra	History, reading.	History	Writing.
2	Virgil	Advanced algebra	Practice	School management.	English analysis.	Physiology, arithmetic.	Arithmetic	
	Spelling, calisthenics, rest.			Spelling, calisthenics, rest.			Spelling, calisthenics, rest.	
3	History of education.	General history	Elocution with methods.	Free-hand drawing.	Physical geography.	Arithmetic, physiology.	Writing, geography.	Geography.
4	History of art.	Latin lessons	Rhetoric.	Botany	Physical geography.	Physiology	Arithmetic	Arithmetic.
	Noon intermission.			Noon intermission.			Noon intermission.	
5	Astronomy	Botany	Practice	Elements mental science.	Civics	Composition, American literature.	Writing	
6		Moral science	Plane geometry	Vocal music, elocution.	Free-hand drawing.	Grammar.	Grammar and composition.	Grammar and composition.
7	Geology	Practice	Bookkeeping	Algebra	Map drawing.	Vocal music.	Vocal music.	Reading.

FOURTH TERM, 1892-93.

1		Physics	Primary methods.	Zoology, algebra	Algebra	History, reading.	History	Writing.
2	Virgil	Advanced algebra		School management.	English analysis.	Physiology, arithmetic.	Arithmetic	Reading.
	Spelling, calisthenics, rest.			Spelling, calisthenics, rest.			Spelling, calisthenics, rest.	
3	History of education.		Elocution	Free-hand drawing.	Physical geography.	Physiology, arithmetic.	Geography	Geography.
4	History of art.	Latin reader.	Rhetoric.	Botany		Physiology	Arithmetic	Arithmetic.
	Noon intermission.			Noon intermission.			Noon intermission.	
5	Astronomy	Botany	Elementary physics.	Elements mental science.	Civics	Composition, American literature.	Writing	
6	Institute reviews	General history	Plane geometry	Vocal music, elocution.	Free-hand drawing.		Grammar and composition.	Grammar and composition.
7	Geology		Bookkeeping	Algebra	Map drawing.	Vocal music.	Vocal music.	Reading.

Daily program.

FIRST TERM, 1892-93.

Recitation hours.	Advanced normal course.		Elementary normal course.				Preparatory course.	
	Class A.	Class B.	Class C.	Class D.	Class E.	Class F.	Class G.	Class H.
1	Chemistry	Practice	Primary methods.	Zoology	Algebra	United States history.	United States history, reading.	Writing.
2	Spherical trigonometry, Spelling, calisthenics, rest.	Perspective		School management.	English analysis.	Physiology, arithmetic.	Arithmetic	Reading.
3	Elocution with methods.	Latin lessons	Elocution with methods.	Free-hand drawing.	Physiology, geography.	Physiology, arithmetic.	Writing, geography.	Geography.
4	Graded schools		Rhetoric	Botany	Physical geography.	Physiology	Arithmetic	Arithmetic.
	Noon intermission.			Noon intermission.			Noon intermission.	
5	Cæsar	Solid geometry	Practice	Elements mental science.	Civics	Composition, American literature.	Arithmetic	Writing.
6	English literature	Mental science	Plane geometry ..	Elocution	Free-hand drawing.	Vocal music	Grammar and composition.	Grammar and composition.
7	Practice	Zoology	Bookkeeping	Algebra	Map drawing	Vocal music	Vocal music	Reading.

SECOND TERM, 1892-93.

1	Practice	Zoology	Primary methods.	Zoology	Algebra	History, reading.	History	Reading, writing.
2	Advanced methods.	Perspective		School management.	English analysis.	Physiology, arithmetic.	Arithmetic	
	Spelling, calisthenics, rest.			Spelling, calisthenics, rest.			Spelling, calisthenics, rest.	
3	Logic	Latin lessons	Practice	Elocution	Physical geography.	Physiology, arithmetic.	Writing, geography.	Geography.
4	Practice		Rhetoric	Zoology		Physiology	Arithmetic	Arithmetic.
	Noon intermission.			Noon intermission.			Noon intermission.	
5	Cæsar	Trigonometry	Elementary physics.	Elements mental science.	Civics	Composition, American literature.	Arithmetic	Writing.
6	English literature	Mental science, moral science.	Plane geometry ..	Elocution	Free-hand drawing.	Vocal music	Grammar and composition.	Grammar and composition.
7	Chemistry		Bookkeeping	Algebra	Map drawing	Vocal music	Vocal music	Reading.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, CAPE GIRARDEAU.

The State Normal School for the third district was established by an act of the legislature approved March 22, 1873. This act created a board of regents for the management of the school, consisting of the State board of education and four regents appointed by the governor. There were several bids for the location, and the board selected Cape Girardeau. Pending the erection of a new building the school was opened in one of the public schoolhouses of the city. The new building is an elegant and substantial structure, four stories high, and sufficient for the accommodation of 500 pupils.

The course of study, constructed with special regard to the preparation of teachers for common and high schools, is substantially the same in the three State normal schools, though each school makes a special adjustment for its (real or supposed) special needs. The full course occupies four years—three in the “elementary” and one in the “advance” course. Those who complete the elementary course receive a certificate which authorizes them to teach for two years in the public schools of the State. Graduates from the advance course receive a diploma attesting the degree “Bachelor of Scientific Didactics.” The “bachelors” who teach successfully in the public schools in the State after receiving their diploma, and who complete a course of post-graduate reading prescribed by the board of regents, may be granted the degree of “Master of Scientific Didactics.” The post-graduate course is comprised in four divisions—history, poetry, fiction, and professional, as follows:

FIRST YEAR.—*History.*—Prescott's Conquest of Mexico, Lossing's National History of the United States, Motley's Dutch Republic, Hume's England. *Poetry.*—Homer's Iliad, Thompson's Seasons, Pollock's Course of Time, Coleridge's Ancient Mariner. *Fiction.*—Scott's Waverley and Ivanhoe, Irving's Knickerbocker History of New York, Dickens's David Copperfield, Johnson's Rasselas. *Professional.*—Holbrook's Normal Methods, Tate's Philosophy of Education, Northend's Teacher and Parent, Porter's Elements of Intellectual Science, Root's School Amusements.

SECOND YEAR.—*History.*—Macaulay's England, Guizot's History of Civilization, Irving's Life of Washington. *Poetry.*—Moore's Lallah Rookh, Tennyson's Harold, Longfellow's Hiawatha and Evangeline. *Fiction.*—Henry James's Portrait of a Lady, Howell's Undiscovered Country, George Eliot's Mill on the Floss, Goldsmith's Vicar of Wakefield. *Professional.*—Fitch's Lectures on Teaching, Gregory's Christian Ethics, Barnard's Object Teaching and Methods, Herbert Spencer on Education, Bain's Logic, Quick's Essays.

From 1883 to 1889, inclusive, 26 graduates received the degree of master of scientific didactics, and between 1877 and 1890 (both inclusive) 95 received the degree of bachelor of scientific didactics.

The enrollment of students the first year (1873-74) was 57—28 ladies and 29 gentlemen; for the last year (1889-90), 361—164 ladies and 197 gentlemen.

Tuition is free, but an “incidental fee” of \$3 a term (\$6 a year) is charged.

KANSAS.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, EMPORIA.

In the first month of the second year of her statehood, Kansas laid the legislative foundations of three great institutions—the State University, the State Agricultural College, and the State Normal School. There were grave doubts of the ability of the State to make the necessary appropriation to start the normal school at an early day; but in 1864 the legislature passed an act appropriating \$1,000 to the State Normal School to be used exclusively for the salaries of teachers. Prof. Lyman B. Kellogg was the first principal. In his report five years later, Principal Kellogg says: “On the 15th day of February, 1865, 18 students (15 more than were

greeted by Father Peirce in Lexington, when the first normal school of Massachusetts was opened, and 1 less than President Hovey had at the beginning of the Illinois University), were gathered in a room belonging to the district school of Emporia. With them there was one teacher. The 18 students had settees borrowed from a neighboring church. The teacher's seat was a chair, borrowed from the county treasurer's office. There was no teacher's desk; there were no text-books, maps, or other appliances. The parable of 'The Sower' was read, the Lord's Prayer repeated, and the normal school of Kansas was opened."

One room of the public schoolhouse of Emporia was occupied by the normal school during the first term. An assistant teacher being needed and no room being available, a citizen, whose children were attending the school, built a one-story frame building, 14 by 20, near the school and gave the use of it to the school without *charging rent*.

A new building for which the legislature had made an appropriation of \$10,000 was occupied by the school in January, 1867. The assembly room was capable of seating comfortably 120 pupils, and was the best audience room at that time in the city. The school, as usual with normal schools, outgrew its accommodations. In 1872 the legislature appropriated the sum of \$50,000 for the purpose of erecting a new normal-school building at Emporia, in addition to and connected with the building then occupied by the school. This appropriation was conditional on the city of Emporia contributing \$10,000 to the same purpose. The condition was complied with and a handsome building erected, the dedication exercises being held in June, 1873.

In 1876, instead of the usual appropriation bills for salaries and other expenses of the State normal schools, the legislature introduced a section into the miscellaneous appropriation bill allotting several sums to each of the three normal schools to pay current expenses up to March, 1876, with the provision that these appropriations shall be received in full for all claims against the State, and that said schools cease to be maintained at the expense of the State; and the State shall not be liable for any expense in excess of this appropriation, and that the Leavenworth and Concordia normal schools cease to be State institutions. These two schools had been established under laws of 1870 and 1873, respectively.

Being without funds to pay a faculty, the board discharged all the teachers with the exception of the president, Dr. Pomeroy, who was continued without salary to conduct the school. He was authorized to charge tuition fees and employ such teachers as he deemed necessary, but without expense to the board. Notwithstanding all these difficulties over 100 pupils were enrolled in the various departments during the year. The school was carried on for seven years on the tuition fees received from students and whatever money might be raised from the sale of normal lands.

The building completed in 1873 was an unlucky one. The tornado of April, 1878, tore off nearly half the roof of the stone building, rolled up two-thirds of the tin roof of the other, and demolished several chimneys and windows. The rain went through the ceilings from roof to basement, loosening the plastering and damaging the furniture.

The heating apparatus was very unsatisfactory, and yet on the morning of October 26, 1878, the entire building was destroyed by fire. Nothing was saved of the normal property—library, museums, apparatus all perished, with the library of the president and his household goods.

During the week following the fire the citizens of Emporia at a public meeting declared in favor of early steps for the erection of a new building. The result of their earnest efforts was that the legislature appropriated \$25,000 for the rebuilding of the State Normal School, provided that the city of Emporia and Lyon County

should contribute the sum of \$20,800. The erection of the building occupied about a year, and the house was so near completion by May, 1880, that the school took possession on that day.

There was no more room in this building than there had been in the other. Students continued to crowd in until the enrollment reached 746, three times the number that had been registered before the fire.

In 1887 the legislature made an appropriation of \$25,000 for the purpose of adding a wing to the building. The new building is a stately and beautiful edifice, admirably adapted to the purposes of the school. The main corridor is about 200 feet long, and the entire building contains 50 rooms. The rooms devoted to the kindergarten and the model school are furnished with all the modern appliances in the way of modeling boards, sand pans, number rods, reading boxes, balances, measures, charts, maps, geometrical forms, gifts, collections of the most common and most interesting minerals. The gymnasium is well supplied with apparatus for physical exercise. Besides wands, clubs, and dumb-bells for light gymnastics, there is suitable apparatus for heavy gymnastics. From \$1,000 to \$1,500 a year are now appropriated for apparatus and museum.¹

Great attention seems to be paid to the physical condition of students, as would appear from the following blank:

DATA FOR CALISTHENIC LEDGER.

Name, ———. Complexion, ———. Address, ———. Temperament, ———. ——— Check if tested for color blindness. Figure, ———. Date, ———, 189—. Class ———. Calisthen. Hr. ———. Line ———. No. ———.

Age	Breadth:
Weight	Head
Height	Neck
Knee	Shoulders
Sitting	Waist
Pubic arch	Hips
Sternum	Length:
Girth:	Right shoulder elbow
Head	Left shoulder elbow
Neck	Right elbow tip
Chest, repose	Left elbow tip
Chest, full	Right foot
Waist	Left foot
Hips	Horizontal
Right thigh	Stretch of arms
Left thigh	Capacity of lungs
Right knee	Strength of—
Left knee	Lungs
Right calf	Back
Left calf	Legs
Right instep	Chest
Left instep	Upper arm
Right upper arm	Forearm
Left upper arm	Total
Right elbow	Development
Left elbow	Vision
Right forearm	Hearing
Left forearm	Pulse:
Right wrist	Natural
Left wrist	Heart excited
Depth:	
Chest	
Abdomen	

Measured by ———.

Recorded by ———.

Approved by ———.

¹History of the State Normal School of Kansas for the first twenty-five years, Emporia, Kans., 1889; Seventh Biennial Report of Regents and Faculty of the State Normal School, Emporia, Kans., 1889-90; Annual Catalogue of the State Normal School, Emporia, Kans., 1889-90.

There are several courses of study, of which the following condensed table will give a good general idea:

Courses tabulated alphabetically.

[The † indicates when the subject is studied.]

Studies.	First year.		Second year.		Third year.		Fourth year.		Weeks.
	A.	B.	C.	D.	E.	F.	G.	H.	
Arithmetic	†								20
Algebra		†	†						40
Astronomy						†			10
Bookkeeping		†							10
Botany			†						20
Calisthenics	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	20
Chemistry					†				20
Civil law								†	7
Declamation (weekly)	†	†							40
Drawing		†	†	†					30
Elocution	†								20
English literature					†				20
Essay (weekly)			†	†	†				40
General history						†			20
Descriptive geography	†								10
Physical geography		†							10
Geology						†			20
Geometry				†					20
Grammar and composition	†								20
History, United States									10
History of education								†	20
Kindergarten and primary methods									10
Latin (optional)			†	†	†	†			80
Methods of teaching							†		10
Mental science							†		20
Music			†	†					20
Oration (weekly)						†	†	†	40
Outlines and reviews								†	20
Philosophy of education								†	10
Penmanship		†							10
Physics and meteorology				†					20
Physiology and hygiene							†		20
Political economy						†			10
Rhetoric, elements of		†							20
School economy and management							†		10
Teaching and criticism								†	40
Trigonometry and surveying					†				20
Zoology									20

Presidents.

Lyman B. Kellogg	1865-1871
George W. Hoss	1871-1873
C. R. Pomeroy	1873-1879
Randolph B. Welsh	1879-1882
Albert R. Taylor	1882

NEBRASKA.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, PERU.

The germ from which the Nebraska State Normal School sprang was the seminary at Peru, Nemaha County. The trustees offered the seminary building to the State for normal school purposes, and the legislature, in 1867, accepted the offer, established the State normal school at Peru, appropriated \$3,000 to aid in fitting up the building, and assigned 20 sections of land as an endowment fund. A new building was erected in 1873, and enlarged in 1885. The seminary idea predominated at first. Tuition in the seminary was charged at \$8 a term; in the normal department, \$8; in the model school, \$6; Latin, extra, \$2. "Music on melodeon, \$10; ornamental branches at usual rates." State students, two from each State senatorial district, who signed a declaration to teach for three years in the public schools of the State, were admitted at half rates.

But the normal idea finally prevailed, and the school is now purely professional,

and is free to all students properly qualified on paying \$5 for matriculation fee and a contingent fee of \$1 to cover breakage in the laboratories. There are two courses of study, the elementary and the higher.

The elementary course, which embraces two full years of study, is designed to prepare teachers for common ungraded and lower grade schools, and hence, in addition to a critical study of all common branches, it comprises a thorough course of instruction in the organization and management of ungraded schools, the methods of teaching the different branches, the art of rendering the elements of learning pleasant to the young, and the use of illustrative apparatus for primary schools.

The higher course is designed to furnish students wishing to become strictly professional teachers such education and training as will thoroughly qualify them for the discharge of the duties of any educational position in which they may be called to labor; and hence, in addition to the elementary course, it comprises a three years' course in the higher branches, including professional instruction in the laws of mental development with their application to teaching; the science, philosophy, and history of education; school laws in general, and the school system of Nebraska in particular; and school gradation, supervision, and management.

Each year is divided into three terms. The figures indicate the number of terms given to the several studies in the year. It is to be regretted that no intimation can be given of the number and length of the weekly recitations.

ELEMENTARY COURSE.—*First year.*—Arithmetic, 3; geography and map drawing, 3; language and composition, 3; reading and word analysis, 1; civil government, 1; book-keeping, 1.

Second year.—Arithmetic, 2; physiology, 1; United States history and geography, alternately, 2; drawing, 1; grammar and sentential analysis, 2; general reviews, with methods and practice, 2; school economy and general principles of education, 1.

HIGHER COURSE.—*First year.*—Algebra, 3; physics and chemistry, 3; rhetoric, 1; English composition, 1; botany, 1; Latin (optional), 3.

Second year.—Geometry, 2; trigonometry, 1; zoology and botany, 1; geology, 1; school laws, zoology, 1; general history, 1; English literature, 1; political economy, 1; Latin (optional), 3.

Third year.—Psychology, 3; astronomy, 1; moral philosophy, 1; logic, 1; science of education, 1; art of instruction, 1; methods of teaching, 1.

Vocal music, penmanship, and orthography are daily exercises, and constitute part of the regular course. Laboratory practice is required of all students in the higher course.

During the year 1891 there were 454 students in attendance, including 95 students in the practice school who were admitted without matriculation, and whose names do not appear in the catalogue. Of these, 12 graduated from the higher and 48 from the elementary course.

The faculty consists of the principal, George L. Farnham, A. M., and twelve professors and instructors.

The annual appropriation from the State is \$17,550.¹

SOUTH DAKOTA.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MADISON.

The State Normal School was located at Madison during the session of the legislature of 1881-82, the citizens of Madison agreeing to donate to the Territory one quarter section of land 1 mile from the city limits as a site for school buildings. The location being thought too far from town, a lot of 20 acres within the city was chosen and work upon the building commenced in the spring of 1884. In the meantime the normal school had been opened in 1883, with 11 pupils. The second year closed with 42 pupils on the register. The legislature of 1884-85 having made an appropriation of \$13,600 for finishing the building and \$14,000 for running expenses for two years, the school moved into the new building on the 2d of November. On the 4th of February following the building was entirely destroyed by fire. Before the

¹ Catalogue of the Nebraska State Normal School, 1891.

fire was extinguished the board of education called a meeting. Accommodations were secured in the opera house, the Methodist Church, and the Baptist Church. Next morning the school went on as usual. Not a recitation was lost. On the 6th of March the citizens of Dakota voted to raise \$25,000 to rebuild the normal school-house and finish the dormitory. The corner stone of the new building was laid on the 20th of July. It is a massive structure of granite and is the handsomest building of its size in the State. It is thoroughly ventilated and well warmed by steam.

The act establishing this normal school provides that its "exclusive purpose shall be the instruction of persons, both male and female, in all the various branches that pertain to a good common-school education; also, to give instruction in the mechanical arts, in agriculture, in chemistry, in the fundamental laws of the United States, and in what regards the rights of citizens." Candidates for admission must be 14 years of age, of good moral character, and well versed in the common-school studies. It is stated in the last annual catalogue that the sole design of the school is to educate and train competent teachers for the public schools of the State; that all studies are selected for their pedagogical value, that there are no optional studies, and all the professional studies, the methods, and practice work must be actually taken.

The following is the programme of daily recitations for the fall term of 1892:

Programme.

Professor.	First period.	Second period.	Third period.	Fourth period.	Fifth period.
Beadle.....	General history.	Psychology.....	United States history.	Pedagogy.....	
Dempster...	Ad. Arithmetic.	B. Algebra.....	A. Algebra.....	Geometry	B. Arithmetic.
Goff	Composition and rhetoric.	Ad. grammar...	English literature.	B. Grammar	American classics.
Mawson	Elocution	Zoology and physiology.		Drawing.....	Vocal music.
Pryne	B. Geography ..	B. Reading.....		Ad. geography..	Civil government.

Miss Herrig will give methods in the fifth period, and penmanship will be given in the third period.

Each student in the normal school, who is a citizen of the State, pays \$12 a year for tuition, and nonresidents of the State pay \$30 a year. Board and furnished rooms in the city of Madison cost from \$2.50 to \$3.25 per week. The cost in the dormitory, which is exclusively for ladies, is only \$2.35 per week.

The model school is a graded school of eight years, in which students from the normal department are required to put their methods and principles into practice, with the aid of critic teachers, who plan the subjects and supervise their daily work. The aim of the faculty is to make the model school the best elementary school in the State.

The average daily attendance in 1889-90 was 118; in 1890-91, 122, and the same in 1891-92. The number of first-year students on the last register was 125; second year, 33; third year, 22.¹

V.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION.

TENNESSEE.

PEABODY NORMAL COLLEGE, NASHVILLE.

The trustees of the Peabody fund, being convinced by an actual examination of the facts, as well as by the logical conditions of the question, that the greatest want of the South was a supply of trained teachers, authorized their agent, Dr. Barnas

¹ Catalogues of the State Normal School, South Dakota, 1888, 1889, 1890, 1891, 1892.

Sears, to establish and foster normal schools. The State of Tennessee seemed to him to offer many advantages as an "experimental station." Accordingly he came to Nashville in 1873 and proposed to contribute from the Peabody fund \$6,000 a year for the support of a normal school if the State legislature would appropriate a like sum. A bill for this purpose was introduced into the senate. It passed three readings in the senate, and would have passed the third reading in the house had the session lasted two days longer.

A bill of the same purport was introduced into the next legislature and was defeated on its first reading. The State was not in condition to make an appropriation of \$6,000 in addition to other and more imperative claims. The bill was amended by leaving out the appropriation clause and passed without difficulty. It was under this act that the normal school was established. The State board had neither money nor buildings, but the trustees of the University of Nashville came forward and tendered the use of their building and grounds; and so under the auspices and by the mutual cooperation of three boards—the State board of education, the university trustees, and the trustees of the Peabody fund—the Peabody Normal College was opened on the 15th of September, 1875, with Dr. Eben S. Stearns, chancellor of the University of Nashville, as president and two lady teachers as assistants.¹ At first there were only 13 students enrolled, but the school grew steadily and in 1887 numbered 177 students. After the death of Dr. Stearns, in 1887, Dr. William H. Payne, of the University of Michigan, was elected to the presidency. The school has an annual appropriation of \$10,000 from the State, which was first given in 1881; the other expenses are met by the Peabody board of trust and the University of Nashville. For a few years after the opening of the college it received \$3,000 annually from the Peabody fund, and in October, 1876, Dr. Sears, the general agent, announced that a limited number of scholarships, worth \$200 each, would be given under certain conditions. Next year, 19 students from various States took advantage of this offer, and the number increased gradually until it reached 114. Tennessee had no Peabody scholarships until 1883, but as early as 1880 the legislature had established 25 scholarships of \$100 each for the students of that State. The Peabody scholarships are distributed at present (1892) as follows: Alabama, 13; Arkansas, 10; Georgia, 14; Louisiana, 8; North Carolina, 14; South Carolina, 10; Tennessee, 14; Texas, 9; Virginia, 14; West Virginia, 8. They are awarded on competitive examination by the respective State superintendents upon a uniform set of questions prepared by the president of the college and sent to the State superintendents. Applicants are required to be not less than 17 years of age nor more than 30; of irreproachable moral character; in good health, with no physical defects, habits, or eccentricities which would interfere with success in teaching, and have a purpose to follow teaching as a vocation. The minimum literary qualifications for securing a scholarship are the following: The ability to read fluently, to spell correctly, and to express thoughts in grammatical English; to solve problems of moderate difficulty under all the ordinary rules of arithmetic, and to demonstrate any ordinary arithmetical principle; to locate the principal cities, rivers, and mountains of the world, and to give the boundaries of any specified State of the Union; to parse the words of any ordinary English sentence, and to correct ungrammatical English; to solve equations with two unknown quantities, and to describe the leading events in the history of the United States. It is expected that the standard for entrance will be raised from year to year. For the year 1891-92 scholarship students are advised to come with one year's preparation in Latin. A scholarship is good for any two successive years above the freshman class.

¹ Proceedings at the inauguration of William H. Payne as chancellor of the University of Nashville and president of the Normal College, Nashville, Tenn., 1887.

The general curriculum is divided into the following departments:

	Courses.
Greek, one year, three times a week	4
Latin, one year, three times a week	15
Psychology, half year, three times a week.....	1
Pedagogy, one year, three times a week.....	7
Mathematics, one year, three times a week.....	10
English and rhetoric, one year, three times a week.....	15
French, one year, three times a week.....	4
German, one year, three times a week.....	4
History and geography, one year, three times a week.....	9
Chemistry, one year, three times a week.....	7
Biology, one year, three times a week.....	4
Physics, one year, three times a week.....	3
Astronomy, half year, three times a week.....	1
Drawing, one year, three times a week.....	4
Vocal music, two years, two hours a week.....	

Each department is divided into several courses; Greek, for example, into 4; pedagogy into 7. A full course comprises 5 exercises a week, whether in recitations, laboratory work, or lectures. It is not necessary that the exercises constituting a full course should be in one and the same branch of study.

The college degree proper is that of licentiate of instruction. To obtain this degree the student must complete 18 full courses, of which the following are prescribed:

	Courses.
In Latin.....	2½
In psychology and pedagogy.....	2
In mathematics.....	3½
In English.....	2½
In chemistry.....	½
In physics.....	½
In biology.....	½
In music.....	1½
In history.....	2
Making.....	16½

From the other courses offered the student must choose and complete enough to make in all 18 full courses.

Scholarship students are credited on entrance with 5 full courses, and students have the privilege of being examined for advanced standing in any prescribed study if application is made within two weeks after entrance. If the examination is satisfactory credit is given for the study thus passed.

The main purpose of this college is the professional education of teachers for the more responsible positions in the public-school service of the South. In its academic work it aims to give its students a liberal education of the collegiate type, and to impart to them an appreciable measure of the scholarly spirit. But while a generous scholarship is indispensable to high excellence in teaching, the Peabody College recognizes that a teacher must be something more than a scholar. He must add to his general scholarship a comprehensive knowledge of educational doctrine, history, and methods; and this constitutes the professional work of the college. It is intended that this professional instruction shall be a characteristic feature of the college and that it shall be of a higher grade than has hitherto been given in any institution in the South.¹

¹ Catalogue of the Peabody Normal College, Nashville, Tenn., 1890.

The aim, purpose, and tendencies of this great normal school can not be thoroughly understood without reference to the views of the celebrated educator now at the head of the institution. Referring to the grafting of a normal school upon the ancient stock of the University of Nashville, Dr. Payne said in his inaugural address:

The transformation of the literary department of this university into a normal college, while at first sight an innovation in scholastic history, is really a return to the primitive purpose of university organization. In its origin and purpose the ancient university was a corporation of student teachers—of young men who sought the very highest intellectual culture of the time in order that they might become the teachers of the ignorant. A necessary condition imposed for obtaining the bachelor's degree was that the candidate should have taught previous to his graduation, and the condition on which the master's degree was subsequently granted was the express obligation to teach a certain number of years after graduation. Even to-day we hear an English educator of high rank asserting that the "true function of universities is to teach and to supply the world with teachers." To what nobler use, then, could this venerable university be converted than to the preparation of young men and women for the higher and more responsible places in the public-school service. * * * There is no better place than this to reaffirm a truth that is in danger of being forgotten, that the primary and fundamental qualification for teaching is generous scholarship, a confirmed love for the scholarly vocation, a high degree of intellectual training. * * * So far as my knowledge goes, this is the only normal school in this country which proposes to make its academic work of collegiate grade, and it is in such a school, placing before it such an aim, that I can most heartily labor. Normal schools of the ordinary type, with an academic course of the secondary or high school grade, have their manifest place and function, and should be established and liberally sustained in every State, but these will never suffice to give proper tone and inspiration to public education. For this necessary purpose there must be schools whose intellectual training is of the collegiate or university type. In this institution the middle, senior, and baccalaureate classes represent the higher aims to which I refer, while the junior class constitutes the normal school as distinguished from the normal college.

But academic work of a high grade does not of itself constitute a normal college. This is a distinctly professional school in its constitution and purpose, and so the instruction it offers must be in part professional. The teacher must be a scholar and something more—more by that special kind of knowledge which fits him for his specific duties. This special knowledge is the theory, the history, and the art of education.¹

These sentiments of Dr. Payne are reiterated and emphasized in his baccalaureate address of May, 1890:

The teaching profession is composed of two very unequal classes: the few who are leaders in educational opinion, and, compared with them, the almost innumerable host of teachers who carry into effect the plans and orders of their superiors. All well-conceived plans for the education of teachers must take this distinction into practical account, and there must be two classes of professional schools based on these two orders of endowment and duty; there must be a few West Points for educating the commissioned officers of the great army of teachers, and a much larger number of subordinate schools for the dissemination of "true opinion," for teaching subjects and methods to the rank and file of that mighty host of men and women who are the world's teachers. It is not conceivable that the entire teaching class can ever be inspired by the scientific or the professional spirit—that spirit which animates the discoverer and sets him apart for life service in the schoolroom. * * * I merely state a fact, and I state it in the mildest way, when I say that university and college men have but little respect for the scholarship that is produced in normal schools. This lack of respect does not proceed from rivalry, for any real rivalry between schools of such radically different grades is wholly out of the question. I think the feeling is caused for the most part by the assumption on the part of normal school students of scholarship and learning which they do not have. * * *

Normal schools profess to do work which their rank and organization make it impossible for them to do; their graduates are in some sort compelled to assume a competence which they do not have; and so they forfeit the respect of men who are really scholarly. I wish to say explicitly that so far as intent goes, the only fault that can justly be attributed to the State normal schools of the day on the score

¹ Proceedings at the inauguration of William H. Payne as chancellor of the University of Nashville and as president of the Normal College, Nashville, Tenn., October 5, 1887.

named is that they are overambitious. Without exception, so far as I know, these schools are administered by men whose good intent and honesty of purpose are beyond the slightest question. * * * But there are other so-called "normal schools or normal colleges" of whose honesty of purpose I can not speak with so much confidence. They are merely academies labeled with the trade-mark, "normal," and their advertised excellence consists in their being more than the equivalents of the "old-time" colleges and universities. In other words, they propose to do in two years what Harvard and Yale attempt to do in four. In these "independent" schools the word "normal" connotes a mode of diagramming a sentence, a short cut to a mastery of Latin, or some mere mannerism in teaching.

I have assumed that in its rank, organization, and aim this institution belongs to the smaller and higher class of schools whose function is the education of men and women for the more commanding places in the public-school service of the country. * * * It is not the province of this college to duplicate any normal school of the existing type.¹

The Peabody board of trust has lately made an appropriation of \$12,000 for a model school building, and this school is now in successful operation. It is a school of primary grade containing 40 children, from 6 to 10 years of age, taught by the most approved modern methods. It is a school of "observation" merely, in which students can study the work done by accomplished teachers; not an experimental school, "where children are to be practiced on by novices."

There is now in the South a demand for men who are competent to act as city and county superintendents, and one of the functions of the Peabody College is to train men for this useful and honorable career. Ample opportunities are presented for thorough instruction in scientific school supervision.

A commodious gymnasium has been erected and furnished with the most approved apparatus. Besides the general exercises, in which all are expected to participate, unless for good reason excused, special exercises are prescribed for individual cases, based on a careful diagnosis of each student's physical condition. The gymnasium also furnishes a pleasant diversion from study, and gives recreation of mind as well as exercise of muscle.²

ALABAMA.

STATE NORMAL COLLEGE, FLORENCE.

The Alabama State Normal College was established in 1873 as the "State Normal School" with an annual State appropriation of \$5,000. In 1881 the State appropriation was increased to \$7,500 per annum. In 1887 the board of directors was delocalized, no two members being appointed from the same county, and the name was changed to "Alabama State Normal College." Prior to 1886 the course of study was largely academic, little attention being paid to professional instruction. This was in part due to the fact that such instruction was best adapted to the students in attendance. Even as late as 1891 we are told:

The experience of all [?] normal schools is that they must do academic work. Teachers, consciously or unconsciously, imitate their instructors. This is especially true if they have been educated in schools where no particular attention is paid to methods of imparting knowledge. They come forth with no awakened thought upon the importance of correct methods, and with all their attention fixed upon the matter to be taught; consequently they repeat what they have seen, both as to the art of instruction and the management of the school. Many of the schools from which the normal college is supplied with students can not send forth those who are thoroughly prepared in the various branches of study, while not one in twenty of the teachers in these schools has had any special training for his work. Theoretically it may be desirable to confine the work of the normal college to strictly professional subjects, but practically it is not as yet possible.

Since 1886 more attention has been given to the professional training of teachers, and such instruction is now the leading feature of the institution.

¹ Baccalaureate address by William H. Payne, Ph. D., LL. D., May, 1890.

² Catalogue of the Peabody Normal College, May, 1890.

There are in the same building two distinct schools, each with its own organization, the State Normal College and a Model Training School. The president and critic of the former are, respectively, superintendent and principal of the latter. This arrangement is mutually advantageous; it affords for pupil teachers of the normal college a field for observation and practice in teaching, and it secures to children in the model school better instruction than they would otherwise be likely to have.

The course in pedagogics proper covers a period of three years. The work of the second year is largely practice work; in the third and fourth years practice and theory are combined. In the second year the aim is to teach pupils to prepare and give lessons as regards matter, method, and manner. The lessons are written, submitted to the teacher for correction, and given to classmates, who endeavor to act the part of the pupils for whom the lesson is intended and who afterwards present criticisms to be reviewed by the teacher. In the third year the philosophy of methods is discussed.

There are two courses, the advanced and the professional. The advanced, or regular course, occupies four years. The professional course requires but one year and is intended for teachers of experience and graduates of high schools and colleges who do not wish to take the regular course, partly because it traverses a large field with which they are already acquainted, and partly because they do not wish to be placed in the same "form" with boys and girls of 15, the minimum age for admission. In the following table the right-hand column is the professional course; the advanced course includes the whole:

Curricula.¹

Year.	Term.	Mathematics.	Science.	Language.	Form study and drawing.	Pedagogics.
First....	Each ...	Arithmetic.	Geography; map drawing; physical geography.	Language lessons; grammar; composition.	Study of type forms, modeling in clay, stick and tablet laying; paper folding and paper cutting; drawing (Prang's shorter course.)	During two recitation periods the pupils are taught a variety of subjects according to improved methods. This teaching is done by members of the senior class, under the supervision of critic teachers.
Second ...	Fall	Algebra	Physiology ...	Grammar critically reviewed; rhetoric.	Study of type forms; expressing ideas of form by making, by drawing, by language; first principles of decoration; conventionalizing; color (Prang's course.)	Lessons on the senses, objects, and qualities. Lessons on place, number, form, color, and force.
	Winter .. Spring..	Algebra Algebra	Physiology ... Botany.....	Rhetoric..... General history.	Object drawing; working drawings; constructions; perspective (linear); beauty in ornament; arrangements in colored paper; original designs. (Prang's course.)	Lessons on occupations, minerals, plants, and animals.
Third....	Fall	Algebra	Natural philosophy.	United States history or Latin.		
	Winter ..	Plane geometry.	Natural philosophy.	Civil government or Latin.		Methods in geography.
	Spring..	Plane geometry.	Natural philosophy.	Bookkeeping or Latin (Cæsar).		Methods in arithmetic. Methods in language.

¹ Eighteenth Annual Catalogue of the State Normal College and Model Training School, Florence, Ala., 1890-91.

Curricula—Continued.

Year.	Term.	Mathematics.	Science.	Language.	Form study and drawing.	Pedagogics.
Fourth ..	Fall	Solid geometry.	Chemistry....	Writings of select English and American authors or Latin (Cæsar).	Outline of art history; how to introduce drawing in our public schools; how to teach children to observe, to think, and to express their thoughts by drawing; review of primary and intermediate work (Prang's course.)	Recitations; school government; applied psychology; practice teaching.
	Winter ..	Trigonometry.	Chemistry....	Essays, orations, and select readings, or Latin (Cicero).		School organization and management; the teacher; school ethics; applied psychology; practice teaching.
	Spring.....		Chemistry....	Preparation of theses or Latin (Virgil).		School laws; school systems; history of education; applied psychology; practice teaching.

The income of the school is derived from several sources, as exhibited in the "Annual report of the president to the board of directors" at the annual meeting, June 10, 1890:

State appropriation.....	\$7,500.00
From Peabody educational fund.....	1,200.00
From tuition fees.....	2,396.93
From incidental fees.....	1,538.00
From miscellaneous sources (specified).....	1,301.95
	13,936.88

To students not less than 15 years of age who take the required course of study and pledge themselves to teach for two years in the public schools of Alabama, tuition is free; to others it is \$6 for each term of twelve weeks in the Model Training School, and \$8 for each term of the same length in the Normal College. Each student, however, is required to pay an incidental fee of \$2 at the beginning of each term. Boarding in pleasant private families can be had at from \$10 to \$13 a month. The number of students in attendance in the normal department in the session of 1890-91 was 218.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TROY.

The legislature of Alabama, in 1887, authorized the establishment of a State normal school at Troy on the condition that the city should furnish grounds and buildings adapted to the requirements of the school. The city complied with this condition at an expenso of \$25,000 and the school was opened in 1888. The State appropriation of \$3,000 was found to be entirely inadequate, but was supplemented by \$1,200 from the Peabody fund and by tuition fees averaging over \$2,000. Students who take the legal obligation to teach two years in Alabama are free of tuition, with the exception of an incidental fee of \$3 a term. Those who enter for general education only are charged \$30 a year.

Like many of the Northern schools, the school at Troy has had to fight its way. An effort was made in the legislature of 1891 to withdraw the appropriation, and a committee was appointed to investigate the subject of normal schools. The report was highly favorable, as will be seen by the following extract:

The State may choose as to the manner of caring for her poor and vicious. She may take the children of the poor and so strengthen them by education as to save

them from the poorhouse, or she may enlarge the poorhouse to receive them and their progeny. Alabama must build more schools or more jails and penitentiaries. Which it shall be is a question for your decision. As to your present decision, you know better than any others what it is to be; we may all be assured of the final decision as to public schools in Alabama. They have come to stay and grow as in other sections of our country, and this means that they will get more than a niggardly support. Alabama will yet attain greater things in the education of her masses.

The public school, once seen and admitted to be a necessity, we may better judge as to our next point—the means of rendering effective this great agent of the people's intellectual, moral, industrial, and material well-being—good and well-trained teachers. There are some good teachers who became so by their own self-training, just as there are some people who become great scholars without attending school, or as some lawyers, physicians, or ministers become professionally skilled without taking a course at a professional school. But it has been found that schools are helpful to scholarship, and that few ever get scholarship outside of their walls. It has likewise been found that professional schools give more systematic and extensive training than is likely to be secured without them. The normal school is the teacher's professional school, as is the medical the physician's, the mechanical the machinist's, the military the soldier's, the naval the sailor's. The State aids in the maintenance of schools for other professions, although these do not enter her direct employment after graduation, but are dependent upon fees derived from practice for all their remuneration. Not so with the teachers. They are to be employed by the State. In this they are like army and naval officers. The Army and Navy are Government enterprises, and to secure success in the management of these the Government trains her own officers in schools erected and supported by the Government for that purpose. This insures skill, uniformity, and efficiency. When the State undertakes a vast system of public schools to insure skill, uniformity, and efficiency in management she trains her own commanders (teachers) like the Government, at least in part. * * * In view of the facts heretofore enumerated, we hereby express it as our best judgment that it would be unwise to abolish the normal schools, and we recommend their continued and increased support, as their necessities may be made to appear from time to time in the future.¹

The report of the committee was adopted by a close vote, and the normal schools are safe, at least for the present.

The State Normal College, as it is now called, of Troy, Ala., embraces two schools.

I. Normal College, including the departments of (1) pedagogy and ethics; (2) English and civics; (3) pure and applied mathematics; (4) Latin language and literature; (5) natural science; (6) vocal and instrumental music; (7) physical training and education; (8) art, painting, and drawing; (9) penmanship and business.

II. Model schools: (1) High-school department; (2) intermediate department; (3) primary and kindergarten department. The entire work from the entrance of the kindergarten to graduation from the normal college is carefully graded and occupies twelve years.

The departments of elocution, music, art, and business receive no support from the funds of the board before mentioned.

The number of students in the normal school proper seems to have been, in 1890, 177; in the high school 124, and in special departments (music, elocution, art, and business), 239.²

A late circular gives the following:

Courses of study.

(1) Pedagogic, elementary and complete, three and four years, respectively; leading to the degree of bachelor of pedagogy.

(2) Scientific, four years, embracing the branches most essential to a modern education, thorough and practical. Degree, bachelor of science.

(3) Philosophic, five years, embracing both pedagogic and scientific courses. Degree, bachelor of philosophy.

(4) Music, vocal and instrumental, a thorough two years' course.

(5) Art, painting and drawing in its various forms, a two years' course.

¹ Report of joint committee on normal schools to the general assembly of Alabama, February 6, 1891.

² Catalogues of the State Normal School, Troy, Ala., 1888, 1889, 1890.

(6) Commercial bookkeeping, penmanship, business forms and laws, et al., as demand may be.

(7.) Elocution, embracing voice, gesticulation, physical culture, all on the Delsartean theory.

To such as complete the elementary, the pedagogic, or the philosophic course, a State life certificate is granted, which relieves the holder from further examination, and is an evidence of professional training and qualification which is recognized throughout the State.

Philosophic course of study.

Pedagogic course.			Scientific course.		
Class term.	Pedagogic.	English civics.	Mathematics.	Latin language.	Natural science.
Junior:					
Summer...	Methods of teaching.	Rhetoric and elocution.	Algebra and plane geometry.	Cæsar, composition.	Zoology.
Fall	School management.	Rhetoric and elocution.	Algebra and plane geometry.	Cæsar, composition.	Zoology and entomology.
Winter	School government.	English literature.	Plane geometry.	Cæsar, composition.	Physics.
Spring.....	Readings.....	English literature.	University algebra and solid geometry.	Virgil, scansion.	Botany.
Middle:					
Summer...	Practical psychology, methods of teaching.	Civics	Applied geometry and conic sections.	Roman history.	Physical phenomena, easy experiments.
Fall	Science of education.		Applied geometry and conic sections.	Roman history, Virgil, scansion.	Chemistry.
Winter	Philosophy of education.	Civics and United States history.	Plane trigonometry.		Chemistry.
Spring.....	Practice teaching.	Civics and United States history.	Spherical trigonometry and surveying.	Cicero, Amicitia, composition, higher syntax.	Physical geography.
Senior:					
Summer...	Practical psychology, history of education.	Lectures in political economy.	Analytical geometry.	Horace, odes.....	Geology.
Fall	Logic.....		Analytical geometry.	Horace, odes, meters, Roman literature.	Geology.
Winter	Ethics	Political economy.	Analytical geometry.	Horace, satires, Latin philosophy.	
Spring.....	School supervision and institute work.	General history lectures.		Selections from Latin poets, meters, mythology.	Astronomy.

N. B.—The philosophic course (B. Ph.) covers both the pedagogic and scientific. The pedagogic (B. P.) excludes middle and junior Latin. The scientific (B. S.) excludes junior pedagogy and fourth terms, middle and senior.

The model school is divided into three departments—primary, intermediate, and high school. The number of students in the normal department for the year 1889-90 was 177, excluding high-school pupils, "irregulars," and special collegiates (music, elocution, art, and business). The grand total enrollment of different names was 506.

ALABAMA NORMAL COLLEGE FOR GIRLS, LIVINGSTON.

The Livingston Female Academy, which was incorporated in 1840, is now called the Alabama Normal College for Girls. The State legislature of 1882-83 made to the girls of Alabama the first gift which the women of the State had ever received from the public treasury—an annual appropriation of \$2,000 and a donation of \$500 to

enable the directors of the Livingston Academy to add a normal department to the existing institution.

The full course of the college includes three departments—primary, intermediate, and collegiate. The normal course is identical with the collegiate, but with the addition of methods of teaching common-school studies, history of education, school laws of the State, and practice teaching.

The number of normal students (1891-92) is 35.

The whole number of normal graduates since 1884 is 72.¹

LOUISIANA.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, NATCHITOCHES.

The Louisiana State Normal was founded by an act of the general assembly in 1884. Under the provisions of that act the State board of education located the school at Natchitoches and appointed a board of administrators, but in 1888 it was enacted "That the board of administrators of the State Normal School shall consist of six competent white citizens, who shall be selected and appointed by the State board of education—one from each of the five circuits of the courts of appeals, and one from the city of Natchitoches." The school was opened in November, 1885, under Dr. Edward E. Sheib as president, who continued in charge till 1888, when he resigned and was succeeded by Prof. Thomas D. Boyd, who is now at the head of the institution.

The school grounds contain about 20 acres under fence and 80 acres of open woodland. The property, formerly occupied as a convent by the Sisters of the Sacred Heart, was purchased by the town and parish of Natchitoches and donated to the State for the use of the normal school. The buildings are comfortable, but entirely too small for the accommodation of a school which is growing so rapidly as this has done. The attendance in the normal department for the years 1888-1892 (both inclusive) was as follows: 42, 44, 84, 138, 163. The State appropriation for the last two years was \$12,500 each year; \$2,500 of this amount for insurance and repairs. A liberal donation from the Peabody fund—\$3,650 over that of former years—supplemented the State appropriation and enabled the school to continue without interruption in its prosperous career.

The faculty consists of the president, 5 professors, and 5 assistants and specialists. The course of instruction covers three years of eight months each, as follows:

First year.—Arithmetic, English grammar and composition, geography, history of United States, physiology and hygiene, penmanship, and bookkeeping.

Second year.—Advanced arithmetic, algebra, rhetoric, English literature, zoology, botany, general history, psychology, civil government, and history of education.

Third year.—Geometry, English literature, physics, chemistry, psychology, ethics, pedagogy, methods of teaching, school management, and practice teaching in the practice school.

PRACTICE SCHOOL.

In the practice school, consisting of four primary grades, the usual branches of such grades, including drawing, vocal music and calisthenics, are taught by the most approved modern methods. These grades are in charge of trained normal graduates, and form as indispensable an adjunct to a normal school as is the workshop to a school of practical mechanics, or the hospital to a medical college. For an hour each day the members of the senior normal class, divided into groups, are required to give lessons in these grades. This work is not mere experiment nor observation, but bona fide teaching under the direction of trained specialists. The work is reduced to a system, each student teacher being required to prepare the lesson beforehand in all its details, according to a plan devised by the training teacher. At the expiration of the practice hour the members of the senior class again assemble in their

¹ Catalogue of Alabama Normal College for Girls for the year 1891-92. Miss Julia Strudwick Tutwiler, principal, Livingston, Ala.

class rooms, when their work is subjected to the criticism of their classmates and of their training teacher, who point out all errors both in government and in instruction. No young teacher could go through this daily experience for months without acquiring much of that presence of mind, that self-control, that fertility of resources, and that ready knowledge of methods and devices which give the surest guaranty of success, not only in the schoolroom, but in any other field of human endeavor.¹

Admission.—The school is open to students of either sex. Applicants are required to be at least 16 years of age, and of good moral character; they must declare their intention to remain at the normal school until graduation unless sooner discharged, and must certify in writing their full intention to teach in the public schools of Louisiana for one year after graduation; they are also required to pass a satisfactory examination in the ordinary common school branches, "unless exempt from such examination by virtue of an adequate diploma or teacher's certificate." On successfully completing the course of study the student receives a diploma which entitles the holder to a first-grade teacher's certificate, which is valid for four years.²

VI.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS IN CALIFORNIA, OREGON, AND ARIZONA.

CALIFORNIA.

When the first normal school in California was opened, July 1862, but eight out the thirty-four States then in the Union had established State normal schools. These schools numbered 14 in all, distributed in the order of the date of opening as follows: Massachusetts, 4; New York, 2; Pennsylvania, 3; Connecticut, 1; Michigan, 1; New Jersey, 1; Illinois, 1; Minnesota, 1. Besides these, Philadelphia, Boston, and St. Louis each had a flourishing city normal school.

The necessity for the establishment of a State normal school in California was first urged by a few gentlemen in San Francisco, among whom were the State superintendent, Andrew J. Moulder; his successor, John Sweet; and the city superintendent, Henry B. James. By the earnest efforts of these gentlemen a city normal school was established in San Francisco in 1857. The sessions of the school were held weekly and the attendance of the city teachers was made compulsory. This school was continued until 1862; its graduates numbered 54.

In his annual school reports of 1859 and 1860 State Superintendent Moulder recommended the establishment of a State normal school, but both of the succeeding legislatures adjourned without action. When he appealed personally to the members of the legislature to pass the law organizing the school, not a few of them admitted that they did not know what a normal school was.

During the session of the first California State Teachers' Association, held in San Francisco, May, 1861, a committee was appointed to examine and report upon the subject of normal schools. This report was embodied by Superintendent Moulder in his report to the legislature of 1862, and earnestly commended by him to their consideration, with the statement that an appropriation of \$5,000 would be sufficient to establish the school and put it in successful operation. The result of the combined efforts of the State superintendent and the teachers' institute was that an act was passed by the legislature, May 2, 1862, providing for the establishment of a State normal school and appropriating \$3,000 for its support for five months. The first and second sections of this act read as follows:

1. The board of education of the State of California, together with the superintendents of common schools in the cities of San Francisco, Sacramento, and Marysville, are hereby constituted, ex officio, a board of trustees for the normal school of the State of California, as hereinafter provided.

¹ Reports of the Louisiana State Normal School, Natchitoches, La., to the general assembly, 1890 and 1892.

² Catalogue and Circular of the Louisiana State Normal School, 1890-91.

2. *Such board of trustees shall be known and designated as the "Board of trustees of the State Normal School," and they shall have power to establish and maintain in the city of San Francisco, or at such other places as the legislature shall hereafter direct, a normal school for the free instruction in the theory and practice of teaching of such citizens of this State as may desire to engage as teachers in the public schools thereof; to prescribe a course of study for such normal school, and the text-books to be used therein; to examine, employ, and fix the salaries of teachers therein; to hold stated examinations of the pupils attending such normal school, and to award certificates and diplomas as hereinafter provided; to arrange and carry into effect all the details necessary to carry out the purposes of this act.*

SAN FRANCISCO.

In pursuance of this act the board of education accepted the offer of the San Francisco board of education, tendering to the normal school the use of a vacant room in the high school building, *together with apparatus. The offer was accepted, and the board advertised that the school would be opened on the third Monday in July. A large attendance was anticipated and there was much discussion as to the proper apportionment of seats, so that each county in the State might secure its proportionate privileges in the school, while at the same time sufficient advantages should be afforded "to the greater number of persons who will undoubtedly seek admission to the school from our large cities."* The number of pupils to be admitted during the first term was finally limited to 60, provided that at least 1 pupil shall be admitted from each county. The expectation that a large number of students would apply for admission was not realized. On the day appointed for examination only 5 applicants presented themselves. Three days afterwards the school was organized in a room on the ground floor of the high school building, with Ahira Holmes, of San Francisco, as principal. The number of students increased until at the close of the term the school numbered 31, of whom 3 were young men. A considerable number of those admitted were found to be exceedingly deficient in the knowledge of the common-school branches, as well as in the mental discipline and intellectual vigor necessary to pursue the studies of the course to advantage. The declaration required by the trustees at admission was as follows: "We, the subscribers, do hereby declare that it is our intention to engage permanently in teaching in the common schools of this State, and that it is our object in resorting to this school to prepare ourselves for the discharge of this important duty; and we moreover pledge ourselves to remain at least one term in the school, and to observe faithfully all the regulations of the institution so long as we continue members thereof."

The unfortunate and unnecessary word "permanently" no doubt frightened off many girls who were also candidates for matrimonial honors, but who might have taught school for several years with great success. In the pledge now in use the objectionable word is omitted.

The act establishing the school provided for but one session of five months, but the board decided to open a second session and trust to the liberality of the legislature to carry it through. Their expectation was not disappointed. During the term three special teachers were employed—in music, drawing, and calisthenics, respectively. The whole number of students in attendance during the year was 50. The subjects taught were practical and mental arithmetic, physical and descriptive geography, English grammar and analysis, rhetoric, composition, reading, penmanship, algebra, plane geometry, physiology, natural philosophy, vocal music, and theory and practice of teaching.

The school began its second year no longer an experiment but an established State institution. Its first year of work had proved both the necessity for its existence and its possibilities of usefulness. The legislature of 1863 repealed the first act establishing the school and passed a second act, substantially the same, embodying it as part of the State school law and making an appropriation of \$6,000, which was double the original appropriation for the first year.

In January, 1864, the school was reorganized and divided into senior, junior, and subjunior classes, and a regular course of study for each class was prescribed by the board. By the new regulations each member of the senior class was required to spend one week in the model school and to write a full report of the work done while there. The haste of pupils to graduate was a great hindrance to the best success of the school, as it has been even in the best of schools to the present day.

The following extracts from a letter written by a graduate of the class of 1864 will give some idea of the difficulties encountered in the early days of this school:

My introduction to the school was made in the fall of 1862. It was then held in a side room of the high school of San Francisco. The room resembled a hat room deprived of its racks and improvised with rickety seats. The normalites were intruders upon the domain of the high-school pupils; hence had no rights that they could call their own. Ahira Holmes was principal, vice-principal, assistant, and professor to all the 25 normalites—that is, when they were in attendance.

In the beginning of 1863 we were moved to a tumble-down, two-story wooden structure on Fourth street. The place we went to was worse than the place we left; for while it stood on what may well be termed a *stable* foundation, it was shaky, and its outside stairs upon their two posts were shaky. When vehicles went rumbling over their cobbled way we suspended our class exercises; we had to, for the tremble, rattle, roar, and clatter drowned human voices. We had other misfortunes—there were no maps, apparatus, nor books of reference in or about our school. We had one piece of furniture in addition to our seats and desks—a piano, hired by the pupils.

During the first term the school waned and waxed. In waning it went down to about 20 pupils; then it ran up to 30; it trembled in the balance. The pupils held council what to do—to forsake the institution in a body, or continue faithful to the end. The decision was to stay with the school—old house and all. We were faithful to the end. From that time the school has gone on to prosperity.

The year of 1864-65 shows a continued increase of attendance and in the general efficiency of the school. The growing interest and confidence throughout the State in normal-school work are shown by the fact that twenty-three counties were represented by the new students admitted during the year. An arrangement was made with the San Francisco board of education by which four normal students were detailed each week to teach either as substitutes or assistants in the public schools of the city. This arrangement did not prove altogether satisfactory.

In June, 1865, Mr. George W. Minns, principal of the Boys' High School of San Francisco, was elected principal of the California State Normal School. The school opened for the year on the 10th of July, in Dashaway Hall, the model school being for a time disbanded. After six weeks it was transferred to the Lincoln School building, then just completed. In September it was again removed, this time to a primary-school building. Here the normal school found a permanent home during the remainder of its stay in San Francisco, and sang the song of the Psalmist (Rouse's version)—

Woe 's me that I in Mesach dwell
A sojourner so long,
That I in tabernacles dwell
To Kedar that belong!

By an act approved March, 1866, the State board of education was made to consist of the governor, the State superintendent of public instruction, the principal of the Normal School, the superintendents of schools of San Francisco, Sacramento County, Santa Clara County, San Joaquin County, and two professional teachers nominated by the State superintendent and elected by the board. By the same act the State board of education, with the exception of the principal of the State Normal School, was constituted the board of trustees of the State Normal School.

The revised school law provided that the graduates of the Normal School should receive State certificates of a grade to be determined by the State board of examination. Under this provision some graduates received diplomas, and others, first, second, or third grade certificates, the standing of each member being determined

by taking into consideration the recitation records during the term, the report of success in the training school, and the result of the written examination at the close of the term.

SAN JOSÉ.

In May, 1868, Dr. William T. Lucky being principal of the Normal School, the subject of a permanent location for the school began to be agitated, and in 1870 the legislature selected San José as the location and enacted a law providing for the selection of a site and the erection of a building. Some amendments were made to the laws governing the school, the principal change being in the constitution of the board of trustees, which was made to consist of the governor, the State superintendent of public instruction, and five others to be appointed by the governor. The same act appropriated \$24,000, biennially, "which said appropriation shall be set apart at the commencement of each fiscal year to support the State Normal School."

The corner stone of the first California State Normal School building was laid October 20, 1870, with imposing Masonic ceremonies conducted by the Grand Lodge of the State. The first session of the school in San José was opened in June, 1871, in rooms temporarily furnished by the city board of education. The new building was completed in 1876 at a cost of about \$285,000. Though but imperfectly adapted to school purposes, it was a handsome building, both in architectural design and in details of finish, with numerous porticoes supported by Corinthian pillars, handsome entrances, wide corridors, and spacious halls. It is unfortunate that so large an amount of time, money, and skill should have been expended on a building constructed almost entirely of wood. In November, 1873, a preparatory class was organized, whose special work was a thorough review of the elementary branches in preparation for the work of the junior class. During this year the senior class began regular practice work in the training school, the classes of which were made up of pupils from the public schools of the city. But in the following year the training school was opened as a pay school independent of the city schools, and soon became nearly self-sustaining.

In 1876 the course of study was extended to three years—junior, middle, and senior. In this year the legislature raised the annual appropriation to \$24,000.

With the school year of 1879-80 came a catastrophe which resulted in giving the strongest possible proof of the vitality of the school and of its hold upon the confidence of the people. On the morning of Tuesday, February 10, 1880, the building was totally destroyed by fire, originating, it is supposed, in a defective chute. The total loss was estimated at \$304,000. The board of education of the city of San José promptly tendered the high-school building for the use of the normal school, making arrangements to accommodate the high-school classes in other schools. Thus the school was enabled to continue its work with but one day's interruption.

On the 12th of April, 1880, the legislature passed a bill appropriating \$100,000 for the erection of another building at San José for the use of the State Normal School, and work on the new building was at once begun.

During the legislative discussions in reference to the normal school two assertions were made which did the school great injustice. One was that the normal school was a San José or Santa Clara County high school, and therefore should not be sustained by the State. In answer to this it was shown that during the current year 275 students had entered from counties outside of Santa Clara. The other allegation was that the graduates of the normal school were not as well qualified as many graduates of high schools; that they could not pass the examination to enter the junior class of the university, etc. To this it was replied that the normal school is not a high school, nor is it a preparatory school for the university. It has for its object the preparation of teachers for the district schools of the State. The most advanced graduates of the high schools find it hard work in one year to complete the review

studies and the training required in the normal school. One-third of the time of this year is devoted to the study and practice of teaching. The mere assertion that after this year's work students are not as well prepared to teach as those who know a little more Latin or French can carry but little weight.

Work on the new building was begun in May, 1880, and was prosecuted with such vigor that the school was able to occupy its new quarters in May, 1881. The new edifice, though plainer in its exterior than its predecessor, is well adapted to the purposes of the school, being modeled after the most approved normal-school structures in the East, and it has been pronounced by well-informed persons who have had ample opportunities for observation to be inferior to none on the continent at the time of its erection. Notwithstanding its spaciousness the school gave promise of rapidly outgrowing its accommodations.

In February, 1881, the legislature made an appropriation of \$25,000 for improving and fencing the normal-school square. The grounds were carefully laid out, walks and drives graveled, flowers and trees planted. New lawns have from time to time been laid out and additional flower beds and trees planted, so that the grounds are now a place of delightful recreation to the students and an ornament to the city.

In no way is the intellectual life of a school more clearly indicated than in the increasing use of the library. With the occupation of the new building came the employment of a special librarian, who kept the library open all day. The arrangement in the course of study of a study hour at the school building for each pupil opened the door to an increased use of reference books and gave some additional time for general reading. Visiting committees from the legislature, seeing both the usefulness of the library and the need of more books, recommended special appropriations for the benefit of the library, which were cheerfully granted. This in turn reacted upon both teachers and students, who, finding that more and better books were provided, were induced to make more and better use of them. In addition to these inducements the topical method of study, now growing in use and favor, by which the student is given a subject to investigate rather than a portion of some book to master, necessarily led to the demand for many books on each subject. The importance to the student of this familiarity with books can scarcely be overestimated. The library numbered in 1889 about 3,500 volumes. By the continued liberal appropriations of the legislature new books are added yearly, and an additional building is now needed.

By the course of study adopted in 1884 it is provided that each member of the senior class should spend one recitation period each day for three-fourths of the year in the training department—the first ten weeks in observation and the last five months in teaching. During the half term spent in observation, the pupils write out, as regular exercises, criticisms upon the work of pupil teachers and analyses of model lessons given by the regular critic teachers, besides receiving special lectures upon the work they have observed. During the five months of actual practice work they are required to make special preparation for each recitation under the supervision of the regular critic teachers, who give both class lectures and individual criticism. From the one class with which it began, the training department grew until it included four distinct subdivisions—primary, intermediate, grammar, and advanced grammar. From the time the pupil enters the lowest junior class until he graduates his attention is kept fixed on the fact that he is learning each subject with a view of imparting it to others, and the method of presentation is made a subject of continued observation. The pupil is thus from the beginning trained to teach. The philosophy of the work he has not at first culture enough to appreciate, or even to understand. As he advances to riper scholarship he receives about one hundred and twenty lectures, beginning with an outline of mental philosophy, upon methods of teaching, grading, and disciplining a school. These lectures cover not only the philosophy of education, but practical and detailed instruction in the minutiae of

teaching. Students are required to take copious notes of those lectures and to rewrite them for future reference. They thus are enabled to carry away with them voluminous notebooks of original work, intended and fitted to be guidebooks to young teachers when they come to reduce theory to practice.

In 1887 a workroom was fitted up and provided with tools for the use of pupils. For the first year instruction was given only by the regular teachers, but this not proving satisfactory, a skilled mechanic was employed during a part of the year to superintend the workshop. Attendance was entirely optional, but the results were satisfactory. An exhibit of students' work at the close of the term showed fancy tables, easels, footstools, etc., all of creditable workmanship.¹

Principals.

Ahira Holmes	1862-1865
George W. Minns	1865-66
Henry P. Carlton	1866-67 and part of 1868
George Tait	July, 1867, to February, 1868
William T. Luckey	1868-1873
Charles H. Allen	1873-1889
C. W. Childs	July, 1889

LOS ANGELES.

In March, 1881, an act was passed by the legislature establishing a "Branch State Normal School in Los Angeles County," the site to be selected and the building located by the board of trustees at San José. The school was opened in August, 1882, in a handsome and convenient building in the city of Los Angeles. The attendance the first year was 126 in the normal department, and 150 in the training school. The course of study arranged was the same as that of the school at San José, and both in the organization of the school and its management the parent institution was closely followed, and with most satisfactory results.

The legislature of 1890 made an appropriation of \$10,000 for building and furnishing a gymnasium. Each student is required to practice calisthenic or gymnastic exercises for one recitation every day under the supervision of a skilled and careful instructor.

The number of students entered on the catalogue of 1890-91 was, in normal classes, 288; in model and practice school, 200.

CHICO.

The legislature, in 1887, created another branch normal school, to be located at Chico, in northern California. It was opened in 1889 with 80 pupils, under the principalship of Prof. Edward T. Pierce; this number had increased to 120 by the end of the school year.

OREGON.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MONMOUTH.

Monmouth, the seat of the Oregon State Normal School, is in Polk County, 2 miles west of the Willamette River and 70 miles from Portland by rail. The State Normal School was established at this place in 1883. The necessity for such an institution was manifested by the fact that as soon as the school was opened students began to gather in from different parts of the State, and during the first year 104 were enrolled. The enthusiasm spread, and the number in attendance the second year was double that of the first; the fourth year showed an enrollment of 227; the fifth year, 261; the sixth year the attendance was so large that it was found necessary to suspend the model school until the new building should be completed. The new

¹ Historical sketch of the first State Normal School of California.

building is a magnificent brick structure especially adapted to its peculiar purpose, and is the gift of Polk County to the normal school.

The normal curriculum is divided into three courses. The elementary occupies one year; the regular, two years; and the advanced, one year. The elementary course includes, as professional studies, object teaching and use of apparatus, methods in arithmetic and grammar, methods in geography, reading, and history, and school organization; in mathematics, arithmetic; in sciences, geography, map drawing, and history; in English, grammar, analysis, and composition; in art, etc., elocution, vocal music, penmanship.

In the regular course the studies of the first year are, professional: school management, teaching in graded schools, hygiene of schoolroom, methods in mathematics and science; mathematical: algebra; science: philosophy and chemistry; English: rhetoric, English literature, ancient and mediæval history; art: elocution, vocal music, penmanship.

Second year, professional: civil government, Oregon school law, constitution of Oregon, history of education; mathematical: geometry and bookkeeping; science: physiology, geology, astronomy, botany; English and mental science: ancient and mediæval history, modern history, mental science; art: elocution, vocal music, penmanship.

The studies of the advanced course are, school gradation, school supervision, institute work, philosophy of education; trigonometry, surveying, mechanics; commercial law, political economy, moral philosophy, logic; German, French; Caesar, Cicero, Virgil.

The graduating class of 1889 numbered 36; that of 1890, 21.

Graduates of the State Normal schools of Oregon receive diplomas good for six years in any public school of the State; after which, if successful in teaching, they are entitled to life diplomas.

There are four other State Normal schools in Oregon, located, respectively, at Drain, Weston, The Dalles, and Ashland.¹

ARIZONA.

TERRITORIAL NORMAL SCHOOL, TEMPE.

This school was established by an act of the thirteenth legislature, amended and reenacted in 1887. The objects of the school are declared by said act to be the instruction of persons, both male and female, in the art of teaching and in all the branches that pertain to a good common school education; also to give instruction in the mechanical arts and in husbandry and agricultural chemistry, in the fundamental laws of the United States, and in what regards the rights and duties of citizenship. Applicants for admission are required to be not less than 15 years of age, and should be able to parse the words of any ordinary sentence; to solve any problem in arithmetic up to and including decimal fractions; to bound any State or Territory and to locate the principal rivers and cities of the world; to write a legible hand, and to read intelligently.

The Normal School building is a brick structure, 60 by 70 feet and one story high. A 10-foot hall extends through the building from north to south. The building is surmounted by a high roof, leaving a space of 8 feet between the roof and the ceiling. The entire structure is surrounded by a veranda 12 feet wide. Ventilators admit the passage of air in every direction.

Tuition is free to those who obtain an appointment from a member of the legislature and to those who sign the declaration that they attend the school for the purpose of preparing themselves for teaching in the public schools of Arizona.

¹ Ninth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Oregon, Salem, 1891.

All others are charged \$1 per month. In order to graduate the student must be at least 18 years of age, must have attended the school for a period of at least twenty-two weeks, and must pass a written examination in all the studies of the course. Graduates receive certificates which entitle them to teach a grammar school in any county in the Territory.

The regular course of study requires three years for its completion. The studies of the first year are reading (3), geography (3), grammar (3), history (3), drawing (3), arithmetic (3), spelling (3).

The studies of the second year are geography (1), arithmetic (2), spelling (3), writing (1), rhetoric (1), zoology (1), bookkeeping (1), physics (1), physiology (1), algebra (3), botany (1), pedagogy (1).

The studies of the third year are grammar (1), arithmetic (1), pedagogy (2), algebra (2), geology (1) (optional), school law and ethics (1) (optional), geometry (2), chemistry (1), civil government (1), astronomy (1), English literature (1).

Each school year is divided into three terms, and the figures above indicate the number of terms devoted to that subject in each year.

The following is the syllabus of the lessons in pedagogy:

Practical pedagogy.—Brief study of the mind; the teacher; the pupil; the parent; the school house and grounds; school management; discipline; recitations.

Theoretical pedagogy.—More complete study of the mind and senses; cultivation of the mind and senses; cultivation of memory, judgment, reason, imagination, etc.; the emotions; the will; nature and use of punishment.

History of education.—Biographies of noted educators; discussion of their methods, theories, and attainments; a thorough examination of the educational value of common public schools.

School law and ethics.—The right; the conscience; motives; passions; habit; different ethical systems. An analysis of the school law of Arizona.

The faculty consists of the principal, filling the chairs of language, mathematics, and pedagogy; and one professor, teacher of reading, history, literature, and natural science.

The number of students, session of 1890-91, was 30; 27 in the junior class, and 3 in the senior.¹

VII.

NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR COLORED TEACHERS.

The preceding chapters have been devoted to the consideration of normal schools for white students controlled by the State and supported wholly or in great part by the State. It was considered unadvisable to take up the history of normal schools for colored people in the same connection, because the two classes are so different that they afford no grounds for comparison. They arose under different circumstances, were carried on by different agencies, and were actuated by different purposes. The former sprung out of a growing conviction of the necessity of better teachers for the common schools; the latter from the want of any teachers. The one had a single purpose in view—the elevation of the common schools by the agency of qualified teachers; the other had for its purpose the elevation of a race by the creation of suitable schools. The progress of the one has been largely professional and intellectual, with occasional deviations in the direction of higher education, the industries, and æsthetics; the progress of the other has been in a small degree purely professional; in still larger measure academic, moral, religious, and industrial, with occasional flights into the region of classical and scientific learning and considerable dalliance with music. There are few institutions of the latter class known by title as "normal schools." There are "normal universities," "normal colleges," "normal and collegiate institutions," "normal seminaries," and many universities and colleges with "normal departments."

¹ Catalogues of the Arizona Territorial Normal School, 1890-91.

The establishment and maintenance of the State normal schools hitherto considered have been due either to the State solely, or to the State aided by local communities, and occasionally to local communities aided by the State. The origin of colored normal schools (the phrase is used for brevity and not by preference) was due to one or more of the following instrumentalities:

1. The National Government.
2. Religious or philanthropic associations.
3. Individual generosity.
4. State governments.

It is obviously impracticable, within the limits necessarily prescribed to this essay, to notice all the normal institutions or departments included in these classes. A selection of typical instances will be made, but the actual conditions and prospects of practical normal training will not be accurately represented without carefully weighing the report of the Hon. J. L. M. Curry to the trustees of the John F. Slater fund, from which the following extracts are made:

In some of the towns and cities there is possibly an unwise multiplication of denominational or independent schools. Christian denominations are rivals in their establishment, in getting the largest number of pupils, and in making the most attractive exhibition. It seems to be a weakness and an error common to all to seek to catalogue as many names as possible. The aggregate names, not the habitual and average attendance, but all who for any time, one day or several months, have matriculated. This militates against the usefulness and popularity of the free schools. In so far as these institutions not under State control impair the efficiency of, or divert attendance from, the public schools, they are mischievous; for the great mass of children, white and black, must more in the future than at present depend almost exclusively upon the State schools for the common branches of education. These schools, permanent, not subject to caprice or varying seasons, incorporated into the body politic, must be the chief factor in the education of the people. * * * The schools aided by the Slater fund give instruction in the primary grades, and a preponderant percentage of the pupils never get beyond what should be taught in a good public school. *The normal work is generally superficial, and is appended to the curriculum more as a future expectancy than as a present realization.* [The italics are the editor's.] These schools have unquestionably improved the negro teachers in the South. Teaching always derives benefit from the discipline, the knowledge, the culture of those who teach, and it would be unjust and unkind to withhold proper acknowledgment of the improvement of the teachers and of the cause of it. Nevertheless it is indisputable that the normal training is lacking in system, thoroughness, and the application of educational psychology. Persons are called and commissioned as teachers because they have passed creditably through the literary course of these schools. Such preparation for their work is excellent, essential, because professional skill must rest on scholarship, but it does not come up to modern requirements and possibilities. The normal work, as aided by us, should be more professional and more systematically and concentratively adapted to the preparation of teachers for school work. The higher literary instruction should be supplemented by a course suited to training teachers to teach. Improved teaching is the prime need of our school; and the surest and cheapest method of advancing general education and of meeting our obligations as a board is to aid in providing qualified teachers.

In all the schools some industries are taught, rather for the purpose of preparing the pupils for making a living by a trade, and of aiding in the maintenance of the schools by the sale of products, than for the development of the powers of the mind, and gaining a truer and ampler knowledge of the world "and of things as they exist in nature and are used in the industrial arts." These industries, thus pursued, do good to the individual negro, but they are an infinitesimal factor in working out the problem of "uplifting the lately emancipated population of the Southern States." Physical labor has been found advantageous in restraining appetites and preventing vicious indulgences, in dignifying and elevating manual labor as proper in itself, in economic production, in the manufacture of products, the sale or consumption of which helps in the difficult and ever recurring problem of how the school shall live from year to year; but the rationale of the use of tools and of construction, with examples of the application of science to art, may often be the best function of the manual-training school. Even where skillful and intelligent superintendents were found by us, the foremen were often merely mechanics, without general education, performing their work without understanding the principles involved. A blacksmith heats and

hammers and welds iron and puts it into shape, but he does nothing more. It is a wrong to the men, to the schools, to the race, to allow such superficiality, such weary apprenticeship. The first need in a shop, as in a school, is a competent instructor. . . . I venture to recommend strongly larger appropriations for strictly normal work, and that what is given for that end be applied to the salaries of teachers of whose competency the educational committee is satisfied.

THE MINER SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The first attempt at the education of colored girls as teachers was made in Washington, D. C., about the beginning of the year 1852.

Miss Myrtilla Miner, a lady of Northern birth and an experienced teacher, had been for some years previous to this time a governess in a Southern family. There she became impressed with the conviction that colored children had need of education, that they were capable of education, and that, under the conditions then prevailing, they could be educated only by teachers of their own race. So she came, alone and unknown, to Washington on the 3d of December, 1851, to carry her convictions into practical operation. She began on a small scale. She rented a small house, and gathered some 25 girls into it, and by rigid economy made the enterprise nearly self-sustaining. Contributions from personal friends in the North supplied what was lacking.

So the school went on for four years amid many discouragements, but gradually gaining strength, when, by Miss Miner's influence, a society was formed styled "The Washington Association for the Education of Free Colored Youth." The trustees were Samuel M. Janney, Loudoun County Va.; Johns Hopkins, Baltimore; Samuel Rhoads and Thomas Williams, Philadelphia; G. Bailey, M. D., and L. D. Gale, M. D., Washington; W. W. Bellows, D. D., New York; A. E. Stowe, D. D., Andover, and Henry Ward Beecher, Brooklyn. The association issued a circular in 1856 making a strong appeal for "funds to build an edifice for a normal school for the education of colored female teachers already established in the city of Washington." Their design was "to receive the more intelligent daughters of this [colored] people, educate and return them to their homes, to extend as parents and teachers the blessings of knowledge and religion." "They would open an asylum where they may be brought, emancipated, educated, taught housewifery as well as science, and thus be prepared to become teachers." An eligible site of 3 acres within the city limits had already been purchased, and the association asked for \$20,000 to erect a suitable building. The enterprise was retarded for some years by the ill health of Miss Miner. Work and worry had undermined a constitution naturally delicate, and in 1861 she went to California hoping to regain her lost vigor. But an injury caused by being thrown from a carriage robbed her of her little remaining strength, and she returned to Washington in July, 1864, to die. The Miner School is her only monument, and a few words will complete its history to date (1892).¹

In 1863 Congress passed an act to incorporate the institution for the education of colored youth in the District of Columbia. This was the original Miner School.

In 1877 an agreement was entered into between the trustees of the Miner School fund and the trustees of the public schools by which the former undertook to build a suitable schoolhouse between Fourth and Seventeenth streets west and R and P streets north, upon plans prepared by a joint committee of the two bodies, and the latter to take entire charge of the building. The trustees of the Miner School reserved the right to appoint teachers.

Dual managements are rarely successful. The contract was terminated in 1887. The Miner School has now no connection with the public schools, and as a normal school has ceased to exist.²

¹ Circular—Normal School for Colored Girls, Washington, D. C., 1856.

² Report of the Public Schools of the District of Columbia, 1887-88.

HOWARD UNIVERSITY NORMAL AND PREPARATORY DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The Thirty-ninth Congress conferred upon the Howard University a charter with the most liberal provisions, specifying the following departments: Normal, collegiate, theological, law, medicine, and agriculture. The normal department was opened in May, 1867, in a building leased by the Freedmen's Bureau for that purpose, on Seventh street, near the northern limits of the city. A farm of 150 acres, situated on the heights on Seventh street north, and overlooking the city and the surrounding country, was afterwards purchased and the university buildings were erected thereon.

The report of Howard University for the year 1874 states that the normal department is conducted under a joint committee of the university and the institution for the education of colored youth. The aggregate attendance for the year was over 300, the average for each term being 107, and the number of graduates for the year 7. In 1886 the number of normal students was 31, arranged in three classes, junior, middle, and senior. In 1887 there were 43 names in the normal department. In 1888 there were 53 names. The last catalogue, 1891, has 150 students in the "normal and industrial department," but it is impossible to say how many are "normal" and how many are "industrial." The normal students proper can not, however, exceed 34, being the number in the junior, middle, senior, and post-graduate classes. The normal department has a principal and 5 instructors in the following chairs: English grammar, arithmetic and civics; mathematics and history; English composition, French and German; geography, and United States history. The industrial department has a superintendent, a matron and preceptress and 7 instructors, 1 in sewing, 2 in mechanical drawing, 1 in printing, 1 in bookbinding, 1 in carpentering, and 1 in *tia* work.

There is nothing in the normal course in the junior and middle years to distinguish it from an ordinary high-school course. In the senior year students may take, in the second term, "theory and art of teaching or chemistry;" and in the third term, "methods of teaching or natural philosophy." History of education is the only prescribed pedagogical study in this normal school. Even the post-graduate course has no pedagogical element.¹

MARYLAND.

The Baltimore Colored Normal School is a survival of the "Baltimore association for the moral and educational improvement of the colored people." On the 28th of November, 1864, 26 philanthropic citizens of Baltimore met in a private house, pursuant to an invitation by printed circular, "to consider the best means by organized effort, in view of the present condition of the colored people of the State, to promote their moral, religious, and educational improvement." At this meeting a permanent organization was formed under the title given above, a constitution adopted, officers appointed, and a "special finance committee of ten to proceed at once to raise money." A special executive committee was also appointed and instructed "to start a school for the colored people, to rent rooms for the purpose, to procure teachers and furnish the school; also to rent and furnish rooms for the permanent occupancy of the board of managers, for which purposes they are authorized to draw upon the treasurer at their discretion."²

Immediately after the Christmas holidays, January 3, 1865, a school for colored children was opened under the auspices of the association in the rooms of one of the colored churches, and a few days later ground was broken in the counties by the opening of a colored school in Easton, Talbot County. At the end of the year there were 7 colored schools in the city—16 rooms crowded to their utmost capacity—and 18 schools in the counties. The total expenditure for the year was \$17,556.95. This

¹ Catalogues of Howard University, Washington, D. C., 1867, 1874, 1886, 1887, 1888, 1890, 1891.

² Minutes of the Association for the Moral and Educational Improvement of the Colored People. MS.

amount was raised from several sources—collections by the finance committee, donations from Society of Friends in England, Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association, appropriations from the city treasury, etc. A circular had been sent to 250 ministers in charge of congregations, Christian and Hebrew, asking for aid and sympathy, and specially requesting "whatever you may think or do, please acknowledge the receipt of this note." Twenty-three of the 250 did acknowledge it, but the only material aid from this source came from 2 rabbis—Rabbi Hockheimer and Rabbi Shold—each of whom sent a "contribution" with his reply to the circular.

Outside of collections by the finance committee and the annual appropriation of \$10,000 from the city treasury, the main reliance of the association was on the New England Freedmen's Aid Association. "They have never failed us, nor have we ever called on them for assistance without receiving a cheerful and liberal response. Without their constant sympathy, encouragement, and generous aid our work would have amounted to but a small result, and very likely not have been continued."

One great difficulty with which the executive committee had to contend was the lack of competent teachers. White teachers met with no encouragement. Colored teachers were but poorly qualified. Both white and colored had to run the gauntlet.

Owing to the still existing prejudices of our people, many of these teachers who have left comfortable homes to devote themselves to this great missionary labor have, instead of sympathy and encouragement, met with much harsh treatment. We instance the stoning of the children and teacher at Easton; the rough handling and blacking of the teacher at Cambridge; the indignation meeting held at Church Creek, Dorchester County, when resolutions were passed to drive out the teacher at that place; and last, but not least, the burning of church and schoolhouse at Millington, Kent County. These, with such outrages as the burning of colored churches in Cecil, Queen Anne, and Somerset counties, to prevent schools being opened in them, and the impossibility to obtain board for a white lady teacher in Annapolis add no little to the troubles of your committee.¹

A normal school for colored teachers was felt to be a necessity, and with the promptitude which characterized all the operations of the association and its officers a normal school was opened in the second year of the association schools. Its first shelter was in a rented building, but in December, 1867, it was removed to the permanent home which it still occupies—a Friends' meetinghouse, altered and specially adapted to its new uses. The secretary of the executive committee, Joseph M. Cushing, in the third and last annual report, says to the members of the association:

In presenting this third annual report of our association we welcome you to this normal-school building, just now ready for your occupancy. It seems eminently fitting that this old meetinghouse, which for so many years has witnessed the peaceful assembling of the Friends for spiritual communion, should hereafter be devoted to the dissemination of light and knowledge among those who have all their lives sat amid darkness and ignorance; that from this place the peaceful influences of education should issue to supplement and improve the results of war. This school is the legitimate result of our exertions for the past three years and is necessitated by our success in the work we have aimed to accomplish. We have now in operation in the counties of Maryland 73 schools, numbering nearly 5,000, and at the same time there are 50 new schoolhouses ready for occupancy and 39 others in course of erection, which will be finished during this year. * * *

To supply this immediate need of teachers in Maryland and also to answer the calls that will speedily come from the States farther South this normal school is open. Hence will go forth men and women thoroughly trained for the work of teaching, to carry to their own race the mental freedom from superstition and ignorance needed to perfect the freedom from bodily thralldom which emancipation has accomplished. This building will stand, a protest eloquent in its silence against all assertions that the African race will not learn and can not be taught.

The operations of the association in the city, the Colored Normal School excepted, were terminated in the fall of 1867 by the schools being incorporated into the public-school system of the city. There were remaining 73 schools in the counties which

¹ First Annual Report of the Baltimore Association for the Moral and Educational Improvement of the Colored People, November, 1865.

were running at an expense of about \$50,000 a year. These also were taken off the hands of the association in 1868, and became part of the State system of public education. Nothing is now (1892) left in visible and tangible form of the work of the old association but the normal school and the schoolhouses scattered over the State, many of them still used for their original purposes. But the stirring memories of those early days, the enthusiasm which carried the actors beyond the limits of what sober-minded people deemed possible, the brotherly feeling that brought help from North and East and from beyond the Atlantic, the dangers and the glories of "Timbuctoo"¹ will never pass away.

"For freedom's battle once begun,
Bequeathed from bleeding sire to son,
Though baffled oft, is ever won."

The normal school is fortunate in having no sensational history. It lost two principals by resignation and one by death, but still continues on the even tenor of its way. The income is derived partly from a State appropriation and partly from tuition fees. The instruction given is principally academic; it has been found practically impossible to retain pupils long enough for them to benefit by purely professional studies. There are three grades, normal, grammar, and primary. Graduates from the normal department have no difficulty in obtaining places, and in general they make very acceptable teachers. The number of pupils in all grades has for many years averaged about 200.²

VIRGINIA.

HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE.

The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute stands on the east shore of Hampton Creek, not far from Fort Monroe. The earliest English civilization on this continent was established at Hampton, and the first slaves brought to America were landed only a few miles off. The American Missionary Association purchased the site on which the institute now stands—an estate of 120 acres, then known as "Little Scotland"—fitted up the necessary buildings, and opened the school in April, 1868, with 20 scholars, on a manual-labor basis. Through liberal grants from the Freedmen's Bureau and donations from Northern friends a large schoolhouse was erected, in which 300 students could recite. The farm was supplied with buildings, stock, and tools. An industrial department for the manufacture of clothing was built up, and a printing office was established, in which the various branches of the printing trade were taught. In June, 1870, the institute received a charter from the general assembly of Virginia creating a corporation with power to choose their own successors and to hold property without taxation. In 1872 the general assembly passed an act giving to the institute one-third of the agricultural college land grant of Virginia. Its share was 100,000 acres, which was sold for \$95,000. Nine-tenths of this money was invested in bonds bearing 6 per cent interest. The other tenth was expended in the purchase of additional land, increasing the size of the farm to 185 acres. The number of pupils at the close of the fifth annual session was 213, representing different sections of Virginia and North and South Carolina.

The normal course of study at this time included an academic course in the English language, elementary mathematics, natural science and history. Among the eight additional "miscellaneous" studies is one called "drill in teaching."

¹A pet name given to a select coterie of the executive committee, noted both in council and in the field, where, as vile propagandists, they were met with unsavory epithets and still more unsavory missiles—not to speak of threats of lynching, fortunately not executed.

²First, second, and third annual reports of the Baltimore Association for the Improvement of the Colored People.

The receipts of the institute from its organization to June 30, 1873, were as follows:

1. From American Missionary Association	\$34,600.00
2. From societies and individuals, through A. M. A.	21,378.16
3. From Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands.	58,327.89
4. From interest of endowment fund	2,244.34
5. From interest of State Agriculture College land fund.	7,480.50
6. From trustees of Peabody fund	3,400.00
7. From Hampton students (vocalists)	10,971.30
8. From other sources	89,623.86
9. From donations for endowment fund	43,941.22
	271,967.27

The following extracts from the first report of the principal, Gen. S. C. Armstrong, made to the trustees in 1870, will show the ideas which, being logically followed for over twenty years, have made this institute the greatest school of the kind in this country, or in any country, and the model of many other great schools of similar purpose:

What should be the character of an educational institution devoted to the poorer classes of the South? * * * Plainly a system is required which shall be at once constructive of mental and moral worth and destructive of the vices characteristic of the slave. What are these vices? They are improvidence, low ideas of honor and morality, and a general lack of directive energy, judgment, and foresight. * * * His deficiencies of character are, I believe, worse for him and the world than his ignorance. But with these deficiencies are a docility and enthusiasm for improvement and a perseverance in the pursuit of it which form a basis of great hope and justify any outlay and the ablest service in his behalf. At Hampton we are trying to solve the problem of an education best suited to the needs of the poorer classes of the South by sending out to them teachers of moral strength as well as mental culture. To this end the most promising youths are selected. The poverty of these pupils has required the introduction of manual labor.

The plan of combining mental and physical labor is a priori full of objections. It involves friction, constant embarrassment, and apparent disadvantage to educational advancement, as well as to the profits of various industries. But to the question, "Do your students have sufficient time to study all their lessons faithfully?" I should answer, "Not enough, judging from the common use of time, but under pressure they make good use of the hours they have; there is additional energy put forth, an increased rate of study which makes up for the time spent in manual labor, while the physical vigor gained affords abundant strength for severe mental labor." Nothing is of more benefit than this compulsory waking up of the faculties. * * * However the future may decide the question, our two years' experience of the manual-labor system has been satisfactory. Progress in study has been rapid and thorough—I venture to say not excelled in any school of the same grade; there have been a steadiness and solidity of character and a spirit of self-denial developed, an appreciation of the value of opportunities manifested, which would not be possible under other conditions. * * * There are two objective points before us, toward one or the other of which all our energies must soon be directed as the final work of this institute. One is the training of the intellect, storing it with the largest amount of knowledge, producing the brightest examples of culture; the other is the more difficult one of attempting to educate in the original and broadest sense of the word—to draw out a complete manhood. The former is a laborious but simple work; the latter is full of difficulty. It is not easy to surround the student with a perfectly balanced system of influences. The value of every good appliance is limited and ceases when not perfectly adjusted to the higher end. The needle, the broom and wash-tub, the awl, the plane, and the plow become the allies of the globe, the blackboard, and the text-book. * * * But what should be studied in a course like this? The end of mental training is a discipline and power not derived so much from knowledge as from the method and spirit of the student. I think too much stress is laid on the importance of choosing one of the great lines of study—the classic or the natural sciences—and too little upon the vital matter of insight into the life and spirit of that which is studied. Latin, as taught by one man, is an inspiration; by another, it is drudgery. * * * Our three years' course, with but little preliminary training, can

not be expected to furnish much. Our students can not become advanced enough in that time to be more than superficially acquainted with Latin and Greek; their knowledge would rather tend to cultivate their conceit than to fit them for faithful educators of their race. The great need of the negro is logic and the subjection of feeling to reason; yet in *arranging his studies we must exercise his curiosity, his love of the marvelous, and his imagination as means of sustaining his enthusiasm.*

An English course, embracing reading and elocution, geography, mathematics, history, the sciences, the study of the mother tongue and its literature, the leading principles of mental and moral science and political economy, would, I think, make up a curriculum that would exhaust the best powers of nineteen-twentieths of those who would, for years to come, enter the institute. * * * Of all our work that upon the heart is the most important; there can be no question as to the paramount necessity of teaching the vital precepts of the Christian faith and of striving to awaken a genuine enthusiasm for the higher life that shall be sustained and shall be the strong support of the young workers who may go out to be examples of their race. * * * I think we may reasonably hope to build up here, on historic grounds, an institution that will aid freedmen to escape from the difficulties that surround them by affording the best possible agency for their improvement in mind and heart, by sending out not pedagogues, but those whose culture shall be upon the whole circle of living, and who, with clear insight and strong purpose, will do a quiet work that shall make the land purer and better.

The trades taught are carpentry and woodworking, harness making, shoemaking, the trades of the wheelwright, blacksmith, and tinsmith, house painting, printing, tailoring, steam engineering and gas fitting, and the rudiments of the machinist's trade.

The normal department employs 19 teachers in the following subjects: Mathematics, English literature, reading and elocution, history, grammar and composition, writing, geography, civil government, political economy, natural philosophy, natural history, physiology, and methods of teaching. The senior class receives daily lessons in the art of teaching and members of the class visit the training school daily for observation and practice.

The estimated cost of tuition is \$70 a year for each pupil. This does not include board, clothing, or books.

The total enrollment for the year ending July, 1890, was 692—443 men and 259 women. Of these, 85 men and 46 women were Indians.

NORMAL AND COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, PETERSBURG.

The Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute was established by an act of the general assembly of 1881 and 1882 for the higher education of the colored youth of the State and with special reference to the training of teachers. The act of incorporation appropriated \$100,000 of the proceeds of the sale of the Atlantic, Mississippi and Ohio Railroad for the erection of suitable buildings and \$20,000 annually for the support of the institute. The corner stone of the main building was laid July 4, 1883, and in October of the same year the institute was opened in the three departments—academic, normal, and preparatory. The extreme length of the building is 367 feet, and the width through the center building is 126 feet. It is four stories in height, including a mansard roof, which contains a lofty observatory. It is calculated to accommodate 750 pupils.

The act of 1881 was supplemented by another, which was approved May 20, 1887, which provided "that the school shall be known as the Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute, and shall embrace a normal department and a collegiate department, and also such professional departments as may be deemed expedient and proper. In the normal department shall be taught such branches as are usually taught in well-organized normal schools, and in the collegiate department shall be taught such branches as are usually embraced in a college curriculum." The act makes the institute subject to the government and control of a board of visitors consisting of seven members, of whom the superintendent of public instruction is a member and ex officio chairman. The other six members are well-qualified colored men, appointed by the State board of education, subject to confirmation by the senate.

The president of the institute and all professors and teachers are required to be colored persons. The board of visitors are given ample powers for the management and control of the institute, and are required to act under the direction and supervision of the State board of education, by whom they may be removed for failure to perform their duties. The board of visitors has the power to appoint a number of State students (colored) equal to twice the number of members of the house of delegates, and apportioned in the same manner. Such students must be between 15 and 25 years of age, and are selected by the superintendents of schools of the respective counties and cities. They are required to enter into a written contract to engage in teaching school or other educational work.

Another act of the same assembly provides that the president, professors, and teachers of the Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute shall be required during every year to conduct a summer normal school, without additional salary, for the benefit of the colored teachers of the public schools and those who expect to become teachers; said school to commence not later than the 1st of July and to continue for a term of five weeks. Students attending this summer normal school are allowed to occupy the institute buildings and to board in like manner as the regular students of the institute, the charge for board and lodging not exceeding \$2 a week.

The number of students in the college department (catalogue of 1889) was 11—all men; in the college preparatory, 20—17 men and 3 women; in the normal, 295—138 men and 157 women. The number of "State students" was 145. The model school consists of pupils—about 40 in number—between 6 and 15 years of age, who are taught mainly by the graduating class of the normal department. The normal course is completed in three years, and embraces arithmetic, geography, English grammar, United States history, reading, drawing, writing, and physiology in the junior year. The additional studies for the middle year are physics, algebra, general history, English classics, civil government, botany, and bookkeeping. In addition to the studies already mentioned, students of the senior year learn chemistry, rhetoric, psychology, Latin grammar and reader, school management, methods of teaching, moral science, astronomy, and political economy.

WEST VIRGINIA.

STORER COLLEGE, HARPERS FERRY.

The story of the founding of Storer College, as told by Miss Kate J. Anthony, of Providence, R. I., is full of instruction and as interesting as a romance. Only a brief sketch can be given here.

In February, 1867, President T. B. Cheney visited Mr. John Storer, of Sanford, Me., in behalf of Bates College. During the conversation he said to Dr. Cheney: "I have determined to give \$10,000 to some society which will raise an equal amount toward the founding of a school in the South for the benefit of the colored people." Dr. Cheney pointed out the advantages of Harpers Ferry as a location for such an institution and pleaded for time to raise the necessary supplement of \$10,000 among the friends of the colored people in the Free Baptist Church, of which he was a minister. Mr. Storer extended the time to the 1st of January, 1868. It was Mr. Storer's wish that the institution should eventually become a college, and be so chartered; with a proviso that it be operated as a normal school or seminary till the endowment fund should be adequate for college purposes, and that it be open to both sexes without distinction of race or color. The greater part of the necessary amount was raised during the year, and Harpers Ferry was settled on as the location most advantageous for the school. Dr. Cheney received hearty sympathy and encouragement and a promise of \$6,000 from the Freedmen's Bureau. The Government had four large brick mansions on Camp Hill, and in one of these—the Lockwood House—the school was opened on the 2d of October, 1867. Finally, through the earnest support of Mr. Fessenden in the Senate and of General Garfield in the

House, the four buildings, with 7 acres of land, became the property of the institution. But for Government aid and the fostering care of the Freedmen's Bureau, the college could not have been maintained. Before the time had expired for the collection of the additional \$10,000, Mr. Storer died, and Senator Fessenden, with whom Mr. Storer's bequest had been deposited, decided that he could not legally transfer it until the conditions were legally fulfilled. Double the necessary amount had been pledged, but pledges could not be received as equivalent to cash. On the last day of grace the executive committee was nearly \$3,000 short, and this amount had to be raised before midnight. "There are emergencies," says Miss Anthony, "when men wrest success from seeming impossibility. We can not now enter into details, but the requirements were met and Storer College saved, though that day is often referred to as the black Wednesday."

The next important step was to obtain a college charter. After much opposition this legislation was secured from the legislature by a majority of 1.

The school grew rapidly. It began in October with 19 pupils; in January it numbered 36, and in March 75. Lockwood House proved inadequate for the increasing numbers, and one of the other buildings was fitted for chapel and school purposes, and opened in 1869. In 1882 a new school building was erected with money raised from church auxiliaries and young people's societies in the North.

It is unpleasant to remember, and yet it would be unwise to forget, the opposition which such schools met in the early postbellum days. Let Miss Anthony tell the story, "with considerable abridgment by the present editor:"

We have mentioned opposition. Perhaps it is not well to dwell much upon this in these better days, but some reference is requisite to a true comprehension of what has been achieved. Shortly before the normal school was established a teacher in the vicinity wrote home: "It is unusual for me to go to the post-office without being hooted at, and twice I have been stoned on the streets at noonday."

It was considered necessary that our lady teachers have a military escort as they went from place to place. But when Storer College was set in their midst prejudice and opposition intensified to fever heat. * * * We can only hint at facts; the thrilling incidents and experiences of those early days would fill a volume. Naught but an unfaltering trust, an undaunted courage, and noble self-sacrifice could voluntarily endure and cope with these adverse elements, and such was the spirit that permeated and upheld our brave workers.

The change in public sentiment is indeed marked and wonderful. To-day the inhabitants of Harpers Ferry hold a true interest and even a pride in the college. Some of its old opponents are now numbered among its most devoted friends. And no person in the community is held in higher honor or warmer esteem than Mr. Bruckett [principal], once of all men most hated and despised.¹

The college is (1892) organized in three departments—academic, normal, and preparatory. By the last catalogue on hand there were 47 pupils in the academic, 180 in the normal, and 68 in the preparatory. The whole number of different pupils was 273. The normal course covers three years; it is mainly a grammar-school course, but instruction in the theory and art of teaching is given in the third year. The State of West Virginia provides annually for eighteen scholarships, including tuition and the use of books. The school gives eighteen scholarships.

The industrial department was commenced in 1887, originating in a donation of \$2,000 from Mrs. Mary L. De Wolf, of Illinois, made in memory of her deceased husband, whose name it bears. There is also a sewing department for girls.²

NORTH CAROLINA.

ST. AUGUSTINE'S NORMAL SCHOOL, RALEIGH.

The St. Augustine's Normal School and Collegiate Institute was incorporated in 1867 and opened at Raleigh in 1868. Its purpose was declared to be "the education

¹ Our Work at Harpers Ferry; Its History and Promise, by Miss Kate J. Anthony, of Providence, R. I.

² Biennial catalogues of Storer College.

of teachers for the colored people of the State of North Carolina and elsewhere in the United States." The first trustees, 11 in number, were the bishop, 5 clergymen and 5 laymen of the diocese of North Carolina. "The board, thus constituted, filling its own vacancies and perpetuating itself, the religious character of the school and its relation to the church as one of its institutions were amply secured." In 1869 the board received a bequest by the will of the Rev. Charles Avery, amounting to \$25,000, upon condition that it should be securely invested and the interest used for promoting the education and elevation of the colored people of the United States. The Freedmen's Bureau gave to the school \$6,248 to be expended in buildings. In 1870, and subsequently, the school received from the Barry fund gifts amounting to \$28,716. The last available catalogue of the school states that its object is threefold: "To afford young men and women of the colored race superior advantages for obtaining a thorough academic education, to train and equip teachers for efficient service, and to prepare young men for the holy ministry."

There are four buildings belonging to the institution—the main school building, the boarding hall for the female students (called the Smith building after the founder of the school), and residences for the principal and the vice-principal. The main school building is of brick, four stories high, 85 feet front by 44 feet deep.

Candidates for admission to the lowest grade are required to be able to read and write and to perform the four fundamental operations of arithmetic in whole numbers. The normal course extends through four years. In the first year, in addition to the common-school studies, physical geography, natural philosophy, and book-keeping are taught; in the second year, algebra, geometry, rhetoric, physiology, history of England, civil government, and the art and science of teaching; in the third year, geometry, astronomy, chemistry, psychology, general history, and the art and science of teaching; in the fourth year, trigonometry, geology, English literature, political economy, moral science, and the history of pedagogy. Vocal music and English composition are continued through the whole course. Instruction in dress-making is given to all the girls in the boarding department, and there is a carpenter shop for boys. The number of students in the several departments, by the catalogue referred to, was as follows:

Theological department (candidates, 3; postulants, 9)	12
Collegiate department (males, 12; females, 5)	17
Normal department (males, 33; females, 23)	56
Primary department (males, 23; females, 22)	45
	130
Mentioned twice	11
Total	
	119

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT FAYETTEVILLE.

The general assembly of North Carolina passed an act, which was ratified on the 9th of March, 1877, for the establishment of normal schools. The first section provides for a normal school for white teachers in connection with the State university, and appropriates \$2,000 a year for its support. The second section enacts "that it shall be lawful for the State board of education to establish a normal school, at any place they may deem most suitable, either in connection with some one of the colored schools of high grade in the State, or otherwise, for the teaching and training of young men of the colored race, from the age of 15 to 25 years, for teachers in the common schools in the State for the colored race; and to aid in the expense of carrying on such normal school the State board of education is authorized and instructed

¹ A Brief Statement of the History and Present Condition of St. Augustine's Normal School and Collegiate Institute. Raleigh, 1883. Catalogue of the same, 1890.

to draw upon the treasury for an amount not to exceed \$2,000 annually for the years 1877 and 1878." An amendment was passed in 1879 authorizing the admission of females and the establishment of a preparatory department in connection with the normal school. The appropriations for the years 1877 and 1878 were by the same act directed to be paid annually until the general assembly should otherwise provide.

In accordance with this legislation the State board of education established at Fayetteville a normal school for the training of teachers for the colored schools of the State. The school was held in a large and commodious building provided by the colored people of the city. The attendance for the first term was 58; for the second term, 67; for the third term, 85. In 1890 the attendance had increased to 145, of whom 75 were in the normal department proper. The course of study includes the usual grammar-school branches in English and mathematics, with Latin and first lessons in Greek and Wickersham's "Methods of Teaching." All students are required to give a written pledge to engage in teaching in the public schools of the State for at least three years, but it has been found that this pledge was hard to keep; many of the students engaged in teaching during the vacation and many others were anxious to do so, but could get no employment.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, SALISBURY.

This is one of the four schools established by the legislature of North Carolina in 1881 for educating and training colored teachers in the arts and methods of imparting instruction in the several branches of study taught in the public free schools of the State. The course of instruction embraces four years of three terms each—preparatory, junior, middle, and senior. Methods of teaching and kindred subjects have no definite place in the printed curriculum, but "map drawing, object lessons, composition, and lectures on pedagogics" are given during the entire year. The subjects of the senior year are Latin, Greek, algebra, geometry, astronomy, chemistry, zoology, botany, history, rhetoric, and civil government. Boarding, lodging, fuel, and lights are given to young women at the institution boarding house at \$6 per month. The number of students in the normal department is 21.¹

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, PLYMOUTH.

The State Normal School for colored teachers at Plymouth, N. C., was established in 1881 by an act of the general assembly appropriating a small sum for that purpose. Applicants are required to be at least 15 years of age and to possess a knowledge of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, and also to be able "to read pretty well in Holmes's Fourth Reader." Tuition is free to all students who are residents of the State. There is a three-years' course of study in addition to a preparatory year. The junior and middle years are confined principally to common-school studies, with algebra, moral science, botany, and civil government. The senior year adds English and American literature, general history, rhetoric, logic, geometry, bookkeeping, natural philosophy, political economy, Latin, and pedagogics.

The new building is a large and beautiful structure and will accommodate 250 students.

Boarding in private families costs from \$5 to \$8 a month.

The number of students enrolled in 1890, exclusive of the preparatory class, was 87, of whom 5 were seniors. The faculty consisted of the principal and two professors.²

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, GOLDSBORO.

In accordance with an act of the general assembly of North Carolina the State board of education established a State normal school at Goldsboro in the fall of 1888 for

¹ Catalogue of State Normal School, Salisbury, N. C., 1890.

² Catalogues of State Normal School, Plymouth, N. C., 1889-1891.

the education of teachers for the colored race. It is hoped that this school will help to furnish teachers properly equipped for their work. In many of the eastern counties the proportion of the school fund assigned to the colored people had been allowed to lapse for the lack of competent colored teachers. Rooms were provided and comfortably furnished in the graded-school building belonging to the city, and in the fourth year the number of students in all the departments was 139. Only 15 of them, however, could be fairly reckoned as normalites. An industrial department has recently been added; the boys are taught carpentry and painting, and the girls needlework, laundering, and cooking.¹

SOUTH CAROLINA.

AVERY NORMAL INSTITUTE, CHARLESTON.

The Avery Institute was opened on the 1st of October, 1865, in the State Normal School building in Charleston, which was offered for the purposes of the school by Gen. Rufus Saxton, assistant commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau. The school commenced with a corps of 20 teachers and 1,000 pupils, who occupied all the available space in the building. The school was removed from the normal building in September, 1866, and transferred to the military hall in Wentworth street, which could only accommodate 800 pupils. In 1868 it was removed to a new building on Bull street and its name changed from the Saxton School to the Avery Institute, in honor of the philanthropist who had given a large part of his fortune for the benefit of the colored race. The Rev. F. L. Cardozo, the first principal of the school, was aided the first year by a corps of 20 teachers, 10 Northern whites and 10 Southern colored teachers. The third school year, there being but 400 scholars and the school assuming the position and condition of a normal school, there were but eight teachers besides the principal, and all from the North.

The building to which the school was transferred in 1868 was erected at a cost of \$25,000 by the American Missionary Association, by which the property is owned and the school supported.

The total enrollment of pupils for the year ending June, 1891, was 395, 156 being in the normal department. The normal course of study is academic for the first and third years. The second and fourth years include school economy and methods and science of education. The college preparatory course adds Latin and Greek to the full normal course.

The design of the school is stated to be "mainly professional; that is, to prepare in the best possible manner the pupils for the work of organizing and teaching public schools." It consists of five subnormal grades and four normal department classes. Parallel with the normal course is the college preparatory course, which covers four years. There is no boarding department, and the patronage, therefore, is mostly local.²

SCHOFIELD NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE.

This school was established in 1863 by Martha Schofield, under the Germantown branch of the Freedmen's Union Commission. The object of the school is not only to impart book learning to the boys and girls, but to teach them the everyday duties of life, so as to fit them for filling honorable and useful positions in the home, in the church, in the schoolroom, and in the community. The course of study may be completed in four years. In the first three years the ordinary grammar school studies are pursued; in the fourth or senior year geometry, natural and moral philosophy, civil government, rhetoric, methods of teaching, and school economy. The principal industries are printing, carpentry, cobbling, sewing, and painting. The

¹ Catalogues of the school for the years 1869-90 and 1890-91.

² Catalogues of the Avery Normal Institute, 1876-1891.

expenses of the school are about \$5,000 a year, of which \$500 come from the John F. Slater fund and two-thirds of the remainder from voluntary contributions.

In 1890 there were 360 pupils, of whom 40 were in the normal department. The teaching corps consisted of the principal and seven assistants—four in the literary and three in the industrial department.

The Rev. A. D. Mayo visited this school in 1886, and writes: "I regard it in some respects the best of its kind I have seen in the South. Unlike the majority of this class of institutions, the Schofield School has not come up by the backing of a religious denomination, but has been established by the devoted and energetic services of its founder, Miss Martha Schofield, and her associate, William T. Rodenbach, continued through seventeen years."¹

GEORGIA.

ATLANTA UNIVERSITY.

The beginning of the Atlanta University was made by the American Missionary Association, aided by the Freedmen's Bureau. The original design was to establish one central institution for higher education, beginning with normal and preparatory departments, which were to grow into a college and finally into a university. A charter was obtained in 1867, and the first building was completed in 1869—a substantial four-story brick building with boarding accommodations for 40 women. The number of students the first year was 89. The legislature of 1870 voted an annual appropriation of \$8,000, a part of which was used in erecting a new building similar to the first. In 1871 a wing was added which accommodated 40 additional pupils. The legislature of 1872 refused to grant any aid, and the school became dependent upon the American Missionary Association and private benevolence. The legislature of 1873 passed almost unanimously an act making an annual appropriation of \$8,000 to this institution. The appropriation was made on condition that the money should not be paid till a commission consisting of certain members of the faculty of the University of Georgia had approved the plan of the trustees for its expenditure, and the further condition that there should be educated, free of tuition, one pupil for every member of the house of representatives, to be nominated by the members. In 1871 one young man graduated from the preparatory department and entered Oberlin College, where he was graduated in 1875. In 1872 another left the freshmen class and entered West Point. In 1873, 1874, and 1875 a class of four was graduated each year from the higher normal department. In 1876 the whole number of students was 240, of whom 63 were in the higher normal department. In 1879 the university received an official visit from a committee of the State board of examiners. The following extracts from their report may be interesting:

Your committee were impressed with the fact that the colored race, whether of pure or mixed blood, are capable of receiving the education usually given at such institutions. Whether they will be able to build, and build usefully, upon the foundation thus laid remains to be seen. * * * Referring to the very able report of your committee of last year, your present committee desire to express their gratification that it has apparently been heeded by those in immediate control of the university. The objectionable sectional books have disappeared from the library, and your committee are assured not only that "those Northern teachers do not try to alienate their pupils from old masters and homes and from their native State," but that every effort is used to counteract any tendency toward such alienation. * * * Your committee recommend that the State commissioners of the university be instructed to examine the text-books used with power to reject such as may prove objectionable; and it is believed that the faculty will heartily approve such a plan, as your committee feel satisfied that such books (if there be such now in use) have been adopted with a perfect unconsciousness of any objectionable feature. Your committee so think because free and candid conversations with the president and various members of the faculty have convinced them that the faculty are animated by a sincere desire

¹ Catalogues and Reports of the Schofield Normal and Industrial School, 1884, 1886, 1887, 1889, 1890.

to elevate the colored race upon its own merits, are free from any leveling tendencies, and recognize the fact that their pupils' true interests are to live in harmony and accord with their late owners, now, as in the past, their best friends.

The report of the State board of examiners for the following year states "that they were much gratified to learn that the future of the institution is very flattering. It is your committee's opinion that the State has acted wisely in her appropriation to the Atlanta University, and that a continuance of it is to her best interests."

The State appropriation of \$8,000 a year was continued until January, 1888. The following extract from the report of the board of visitors in 1887 will show the probable reason why the appropriation was discontinued:

We find in attendance at the Atlanta University a number of white students of various ages and both sexes, most of them having more or less connection with the members of the faculty or other officers, and one at least entirely unconnected with the officials. We mention these relations of the white students, not with the intention of suggesting that there is any real difference between allowing the attendance of children of the faculty and children of those other than the faculty, but in order that all the facts may be known. We have ascertained by conference with members of the faculty that it is their avowed intention to receive all white children who apply for admission into the school; and we interpret this, in connection with certain publications of theirs, as a desire to break down the existing barriers against the coeducation of the two races. We desire to say that we regard this practice as not only intrinsically wrong, but as being in this case an improper use of the money appropriated by the State to this institution. In every enactment which the legislature has made upon this subject since and including the year of 1874, as well as in the constitutional delegation of authority to make it, the appropriation has been made for the benefit of the colored race alone. Indeed, the act of 1874 in terms devotes the sum of \$8,000 per annum solely to that people, and that act is in the nature of a contract by which they receive that sum in lieu of other moneys. It occurs to us that the admission of white children to a participation in the benefits of this appropriation, aside from any violation of the general policy of the State, is in this case a misuse of public moneys.

The catalogue from which this extract is taken (1887-88) contains the following note:

Three facts may be properly cited as illuminating this passage in the report of the board of visitors:

First. Only one-fourth of the money for the current expenses of the school came from the State, the remainder being largely furnished by the gifts of benevolent friends of education.

Second. Only 7 children, to whom the objections of the committee would apply, were in attendance out of more than 400, of whom 1 was the child of a missionary of the American Missionary Association residing in the city, and 6 were children of teachers in the school, some of whom were reciting to their own parents.

Third. The class of children to which objection was made was in attendance when the law under which the committee acted was passed thirteen years before; and, to a very limited extent, has been in attendance ever since, with the full knowledge of all parties and with no objection or criticism.

The whole number of pupils in attendance in 1891 was 596, representing sixty-two counties in Georgia. There were in the—

College course.....	20
Preparatory course.....	51
Mechanical course.....	6
Normal course.....	82
Grammar-school course.....	354
Model school.....	85

The normal school includes, besides the usual high-school branches in English and science, "School economy and primary methods" in the junior class and pedagogies with practice teaching in the senior class.

The mechanical course covers three years, two of wood working and one of metal working; it is required of all boys above the third grade, in addition to their regular studies in other courses. Seven and a half hours each week are given to this work.

Boys are also taught some of the principles of farming and gardening, and attention is given to the raising and care of stock. The girls are taught various branches of household science, such as plain sewing, dressmaking, cooking, and laundry work, under experienced teachers. There is a large and well-appointed printing office in the principal University building, in which instruction is given to optional classes, both of boys and girls, without extra charge.¹

FLORIDA.

STATE NORMAL COLLEGE FOR COLORED STUDENTS, TALLAHASSEE.

The constitution of the State of Florida, adopted in 1885, requires, Article XII, section 14, that the legislature at its first session shall provide for the establishment, maintenance, and management of such normal schools, not to exceed two, as the interests of the public education may demand. In accordance with this constitutional requirement, the legislature of 1887 passed an act establishing a normal school for white teachers at De Funiak Springs and a normal school for colored teachers at Tallahassee, similar in all respects to the normal school for white teachers and subject to the same supervision and direction by the State board of education. The same annual amount (\$4,000) was appropriated to meet the current expenses of each school.

The school was opened in 1887 in a building erected for the purpose, a comfortable and well-arranged structure, furnished with the most improved furniture and apparatus. It is organized in two departments—preparatory and normal. The normal course covers a period of two years. Graduates receive the degree of licentiate of instruction and a teacher's certificate of the first grade, good for life. The normal course for the junior year includes algebra, geometry, Latin, general history, physics, and English composition; and in the senior year, astronomy, moral and mental philosophy, science of government, theory and practice of teaching, and a continuation of Latin and history. Candidates for admission are required to be 18 years of age or more, to be thoroughly grounded in all the common-school branches of study, to have a rudimentary knowledge of Latin, algebra, and general history, and to possess the requisite moral and physical qualifications.

A joint committee of the legislature visited the school officially in May, 1889, and made a very favorable report, from which the following extracts are taken:

Though less than two years have passed since this institution was established, yet even now the wisdom of such an undertaking is demonstrated by the results. Much of the work at present is of necessity academic in its nature, for the reason that many of the students have not had the opportunity to acquire that thorough and intelligent knowledge of the branches to be taught which is absolutely essential to the successful teacher. * * * The preparatory department is devoted principally to a review of the common English branches, conducted in the improved methods of normal instruction. It thus serves the double purpose of a training school and an academic course. The normal department is occupied with the higher branches of education and pedagogics. * * * The needs of the school we find to be: First, dormitories, where students from outside the town can be accommodated, protected, and controlled; and, second, an industrial department, where a knowledge of tool craft can be given to the teachers, who in turn can give to the youth of the common schools such manual training as will enable them to become intelligent and skillful producers of wealth.

The number of students enrolled the first year was 52, and the second year 55.²

KENTUCKY.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, FRANKFORT.

This school was opened in 1887. Its object, as stated in the act of assembly by which it was established, is the "preparation of teachers for teaching in the colored public schools of Kentucky." Candidates for admission are required to be at least

¹ Catalogues of the Atlanta University, 1889-1891, inclusive.

² Annual catalogues of the Florida State Normal School for colored teachers, 1890, 1890.

16 years of age, to be of good health, to give satisfactory evidence of good moral character, and to sign a pledge to teach in the colored common schools of Kentucky a period equal to twice the time spent as a pupil in the normal school. In addition to these requirements, every applicant for admission must hold a teachers' certificate or a certificate of graduation from a common school or pass an examination by the faculty on the subjects of instruction prescribed for common schools and attain an average of not less than 65 per cent, but on no subject less than 50 per cent. The school numbered 58 students in 1890, under the care of a principal and three assistants. Tuition is free to all colored residents of Kentucky who fulfill the required conditions; to nonresidents the tuition fee is \$2 per month.¹

TENNESSEE.

FISK UNIVERSITY.

The American Missionary Association opened a school among the escaping fugitives that took shelter under the guns of Fortress Monroe only five months after the war began. This was the first freedmen's school in the United States, but missionaries and teachers followed up the march of the Army and schools quickly took the place of encampments. The first freedmen's school in Nashville was established by the Rev. J. G. McKee, of the United Presbyterian Church, in October, 1863, but his school was abandoned when city schools were opened to colored children. The Fisk School was opened in January, 1866, and took its name from General Fisk, who was chief of the Freedmen's Bureau for Tennessee and the adjoining States. The school was then and is still supported by the American Missionary Association of New York. In August, 1867, a charter was obtained for Fisk University, with the expectation that it would grow with the growing wants of the colored people, and the expectation was not disappointed. In 1871 the old hospital buildings, which the school had used for five years, were so sadly out of repair as to be incapable of further service. At this crisis George L. White, a music teacher in the institution, conceived the idea of training a company of colored singers and carrying them through the Northern States on a concert tour. For some months he made scarcely money enough to meet current expenses, but at length the tide turned, his troupe became famous, and at the end of their first concert season they had netted \$20,000. Another season brought in \$20,000 more. The troupe then made a tour through Great Britain and returned with \$50,000. Thus Jubilee Hall was sung into existence, and was dedicated on the 1st of January, 1876.

The building is situated about 1 mile northwest of Nashville, and the surrounding grounds, belonging to the University, cover 25 acres. The greater part of the work of construction was done by colored men connected with the University.

At the dedication service Gen. Clinton B. Fisk made a very interesting address, from which room can be found only for a few sentences:

It is a decade since many of us, who share in this day's joys, participated in the inauguration of Fisk School, established in yonder vacated army barracks, under the auspices of the American Missionary Association by two of its most faithful, sagacious representatives, Rev. E. M. Cravath and Rev. E. P. Smith, who, after a survey of many inviting fields, decided that here, in this central city of the South, they would plant a university for the higher education of the freed people. It was the day of small things; and to an observer who did not with prophetic soul scan the future, the idea that a university should be the outgrowth of the beginning of ten years ago was absurd. Let us not despise the day of small things. When a young clergyman, centuries ago, landed from the Old World on the shores of New England in search of health, and failing to obtain it exchanged both the Old and the New World for Heaven, and in dying bequeathed £400 sterling for the founding of a college, he little knew how well he was building, and that Harvard would become a household word the wide world over. And when a few poor ministers of the gospel in Connecticut brought together each a few books and said, "We give these for the founding

¹ Second Annual Catalogue of State Normal School for Colored Persons, Frankfort, Ky.

of a college," they had no conception that their act was the first step in the creation of Yale. * * * The history of the rise and progress, successes, disappointments, and triumphs of Fisk University would reveal a story replete with illustrations of heroic Christian faith and a sublime courage which knows no such word as fail. The demand from every section of the country inhabited by the freed people for educational facilities exceeded the ability of the American Missionary Association and kindred organizations to supply. * * * Year by year, after the undertaking of ten years since, grew upon us the perplexing problem of obtaining the means to purchase a new site and erect the permanent initial building of Fisk University. When, through decay of the old buildings and the urgent demands for increased facilities, the solution of the problem became imperative, there was found one man equal to the emergency.

The son of a village blacksmith who, from limited advantages of culture, had risen to the position of a successful country school teacher, a brave and gallant soldier of the army of the Union, and a most faithful staff officer in my own military family, became the man of all work in the hour of our greatest need; and to no human agency nor to all other human agencies combined are the triumphs of this glad hour so much indebted as to George L. White. He conceived the idea of coining the slave melodies of the old plantation and the camp meeting into gold and silver wherewith to purchase this commanding site and upon it erect Jubilee Hall. How well do I remember when this good brother wrote me at my home in St. Louis and asked me to loan him \$300 to take his singers north of the Ohio River. I wrote him not to think of such a thing; that he would bring disgrace upon us all, and told him to stay at home and do his work. He wrote back that he trusted in God and not in General Fisk. Next we see him marching onward with his little band. Reaching the city of Cincinnati destitute, he went down to our old friend Halstead of the Commercial, and said to him, "You are a friend of General Fisk; I have some students of his who are going to sing Sunday morning at such a church. I have no money to pay for the advertisement, so you will please say in your paper that they are here." This was on Friday, and they were to sing on Sunday. Saturday morning's paper announced that General Fisk's Negro Minstrels from Tennessee were in the city and would sing at such a church next morning at 10.30 o'clock, and advised everybody to go. Everybody did go, as it was something really wonderful to witness a negro minstrel performance in a church on Sunday. The story of the Jubilee Singers fills a volume. In America they conquered social prejudices, and by their modest, Christian demeanor, which they have so happily retained, commanded the respect and generous patronage of the best and highest in the land. Beyond the sea, they have twice received hearty welcome and God-speed from the noblest and best of England, Scotland, and Ireland.¹

The first class was graduated from the college department in May, 1875, ten years after the founding of the Fisk School, 2 young men and 2 young women receiving the degree of B. A. The same year 3 were graduated from the normal department. The normal faculty is composed of the president, Rev. E. M. Cravath, and 7 instructors. The number of students in this department in 1890 was 67. The total attendance in all departments was 523, representing nearly all the States of the South and Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Nebraska, and Minnesota. The normal curriculum is in two divisions, elementary and advanced, each occupying two years: First year, Latin, algebra, English history, and physical geography; second year, in addition to the above, arithmetic, English literature, bookkeeping, physiology, school economy, and primary methods; third year, ancient history, rhetoric, plane and solid geometry, practice teaching; fourth year, review of arithmetic, grammar, geography and history, mental science, moral philosophy, astronomy, geology, physics, practice teaching.

Industrial training is not made a prominent feature, but all students who board in the University are required to devote one hour every day to such forms of labor as may be required of them. By a special appropriation from the John F. Slater fund, a printing office has been properly furnished, and the art of printing is taught to 15 young men every year.

Systematic instruction in woodworking, according to the most approved modern methods, is given to young men, the course lasting for three years. Nursing, cook-

¹History and Services of Dedication of Fisk University at Nashville, Tenn., January, 1876.

ing, plain sewing, and dressmaking are taught to the girls. A department of physical training for both men and women has also been lately opened.¹

CENTRAL TENNESSEE COLLEGE, NASHVILLE.

At the close of the war, in 1865, the condition of the emancipated slaves attracted the attention of patriots, philanthropists, and Christians, North and South. All the leading religious denominations of the North entered this field of missionary work. The Missionary Society of the M. E. Church appropriated \$10,000 to establish a school for freedmen in the South, and placed the money under the direction of Bishop D. W. Clark, who purchased a church building in Nashville and opened a school under Rev. O. O. Knight as principal and three colored women as assistants. The school was composed of scholars of all ages and sizes—grandparents and grandchildren were in the same class. They were poorly clad, and mostly homeless wanderers from the plantation. They found shelter in the army barracks, in abandoned houses, in cellars or garrets, in stables or other outhouses. Yet, in the midst of this destitution, they were hungry for education. Local preachers were taught some Biblical truths while they were studying the primer and the spelling book. This was the beginning of the theological department.

This school was chartered in May, 1866, by the legislature as the Central Tennessee College. The charter contains a provision that "not less than two-thirds of the members of the board of trustees shall at all times be members in regular standing in the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States of America." The trustees are authorized to confer such literary, professional, and scientific degrees and diplomas as are usual in such institutions, with the proviso that "they shall at all times maintain a biblical department for the education of young men who have been properly approved as candidates for the Christian ministry." Medical, law, and other departments were also organized subsequently.

It is said that in 1866 over 800 pupils were enrolled, but in September, 1867, the school opened with a small attendance, as a fee of \$1 per month was charged, and the public free schools for colored children were opened for the first time in Nashville. But with the smaller attendance the character of the students began to change for the better, and the demand for teachers being very great, the normal department was organized in harmony with the main object of the school, which was to educate teachers and preachers. The first catalogue was issued for the year of 1869-70. It reports an enrollment of 241, 9 in the preparatory, 17 in the theological, 76 in the academic, and the remainder in the intermediate course. In 1872 the buildings would no longer accommodate the students. To meet this emergency a band of students of the college, known as the Tennesseans, sung through the North so successfully that \$18,000 were raised, and a new building erected, which was occupied at the opening of the school year of 1875. During this year the medical department was opened in the basement of the new building. The dental department was opened in 1886, and the department of pharmacy in 1889. The John F. Slater industrial department was opened in 1884 for the practice of carpentry and printing. A blacksmith and wagon-making shop was opened in 1888, and a tin shop in 1889. In October, 1890, the mechanic-art shop was dedicated to the training of young men for useful work in wood, iron, brass, and steel, in the manufacture of steam engines and scientific and philosophical apparatus. This was the first shop of the kind opened to colored youth in this country.

Since the opening of the free schools in Nashville, the number in attendance has increased with great regularity every year from 150 in 1869 to 613 in 1891. The whole number of students, reckoning from the beginning of the school in 1865, is about 6,000. The number of graduates in the different departments is, junior nor-

¹ Catalogues of Fisk University, 1881-1890.

mal, 39; senior normal, 11; academic, 13; scientific, 3; college, 18; theological, 14; pharmacy, 4; dentistry, 13; medical, 119.¹

LE MOYNE NORMAL INSTITUTE, MEMPHIS.

In 1870 Dr. F. Julius Le Moyne, of Washington, Pa., gave \$20,000 to the American Missionary Association for the purpose of founding an English school for colored youth at Memphis, Tenn. From this fund the necessary buildings were erected, leaving about \$11,000 as an endowment fund. The school was opened in September, 1871, and has since been sustained by the association and this endowment fund. For the first two years the school was under the immediate care of Prof. J. H. Barnum, formerly of Oberlin. In October, 1873, Mr. Barnum was succeeded by D. E. Cottle, of Connecticut. Soon after Mr. Cottle assumed the duties of principal, yellow fever began its ravages in the city. The teachers remained at their work, although directed by the association to leave the city if they thought best. They were unwilling to desert their work in the hour of danger, but early in November Mrs. Cottle was attacked and died. Mr. Cottle survived her only a week, and the school was closed till January, 1874.

The school has had several names. It started as "The Le Moyne Normal and Commercial School." It was afterwards "The Le Moyne Normal School," and it is now known as "The Le Moyne Normal Institute." The school was designed to accommodate 250 pupils, but it became necessary to enlarge it from time to time, until now over 500 pupils are in regular attendance. It is declared to be the purpose and plan of the school to give a thoroughly practical English education, with special normal training for those who intend to engage in teaching. The normal course is in two divisions, elementary and advanced. The advanced course includes plane geometry, astronomy, physics, geology, history (sacred and profane), mental and moral philosophy, pedagogics, and practice teaching. In addition to these studies there is a special professional or teachers' course, of which the following is an outline:

1. (a) A knowledge of the human mind and its application to the work of education. (b) The order and conditions of the development and growth of mental faculties. (c) General principles of education. (d) Methods of school government and organization.
2. Object and aims of education.
3. Motives to mental activity.
4. Laws that govern attention, and the conditions of its proper training.

Each student-teacher receives thirty-two weeks of practice teaching under the direction of a critic teacher.

Manual training or industrial education has an important place in the course of study, both in the normal and in the lower grades. The girls have a systematic course of lessons in plain needlework of all kinds and some fancy work. In the eighth school year they have daily recitations in the theory of household economy and in cooking. Girls of the ninth year do practical work in the experimental kitchen. In addition to daily lessons of forty minutes, the class has actual practice in cooking certain days of the week, when the class time is extended to two hours. On each practice day four dishes are usually prepared by the girls under the supervision of the regular instructor.

Provision has been made to give the boys some practice in the use of wood-working tools and in typesetting and printing. For the woodworking classes fourteen benches and as many sets of carpenters' tools are provided. The shop is also furnished with a number of lathes and other foot-power machinery. The main object of this work is to train the eye and the hand of the pupils, and to make them perfectly familiar with the construction, care, and use of the tools. The entire time

¹ Twenty-fifth Annual Catalogue of the Central Tennessee College, Nashville, 1891.

of a special instructor is required in this department, as is also the case in the printing office and in the girls' department of industrial instruction.

The total number of students for the year in the normal department, including two preparatory classes, is 158. In the grammar and primary grades there are 450 pupils.

The faculty consists of the principal, A. J. Steele, with 16 instructors and assistants.¹

NORMAL DEPARTMENT OF ROGER WILLIAMS UNIVERSITY.

On the 13th of February, 1883, the Nashville Normal and Theological Institute was incorporated under the laws of the State of Tennessee as The Roger Williams University, and trustees were chosen under the direction of the board of the American Baptist Home Mission Society, by which the university is chiefly sustained. Candidates for admission are required to be able to read in the fourth reader. Young men and women, whose abilities and characters give promise of special usefulness, and whose circumstances render it necessary, are furnished with help sufficient to enable them to remain in school. In order to receive this assistance a student must commend himself to the faculty by diligence and progress in his studies, by freedom from bad habits, and by the manifestation of a good conscience and a worthy Christian character. The State of Tennessee has established for "children of Tennessee of African descent" fifty normal scholarships worth \$50 each, and the Roger Williams University is one of the schools which students may attend and enjoy this bounty. A State scholarship gives a student in this university his board and tuition for six months. State normal pupils "must be at least 17 years of age, of irreproachable moral character, of gentlemanly or lady-like habits, presumed good health, declared intention to make teaching a profession, and intention to teach at least two years in the public schools." Applicants for scholarships are examined in spelling, reading, penmanship, English grammar, rhetoric, geography, arithmetic, algebra, bookkeeping, physiology, United States history, elements of geology, and elements of agriculture, with the understanding, however, that, if no applicants are able to satisfy all these requirements, those who come nearest to the standard will be appointed.

In 1891 there were in the theological department 21 students; in the college department, 17; in the college preparatory, 25; in the normal department, 39. The total number of registered students was 226—101 men and 125 women—coming from 12 different States, but a majority from Tennessee. The normal course provides for the teaching of "pedagogics" in the senior year only, where it takes its place with 10 other studies.

FREEDMEN'S NORMAL INSTITUTE, MARYVILLE.

This school is under the management of the Religious Society of Friends. It was opened in 1876. In 1877 it had an enrollment of 125 students. It is claimed that "those who go out from this institution to teach have been so thoroughly trained by actual class and school work done by themselves, under the supervision of the principal, that their own schools will compare favorably with those taught by our best modern teachers."

Three courses of instruction are provided—a teacher's elementary course of two years, a teacher's advanced course of one year, and a classical course of three years. In the last available catalogue there were 68 students registered in the first year of the elementary course, three in the second year, two in the advanced course, and three in the classical course. A great majority of the pupils are in the preparatory and primary departments. The institute is conducted by the principal with 10 assistants. The theory and practice of teaching finds a place in the elementary but not in the advanced course.

¹ Catalogues of Le Moyne Normal Institute, Memphis, Tenn., 1872-1891.

George Sturge, an English Friend, gave to the Yearly Meeting of Friends for New England a fund, the income of which enables the committee having charge of the Freedmen's Normal Institute to reduce the expenses of students. Forty students for the fall term and 60 for the spring term are admitted to the normal class and receive 75 cents per week toward their expenses. Such students are expected to remain until they are qualified to teach in the common schools, and to teach in such schools for as many weeks as they were in the normal class receiving the benefit of the Sturge fund.¹

ALABAMA.

STATE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, HUNTSVILLE.

The State Normal and Industrial School at Huntsville, Ala., was organized in May, 1875. It had then only two teachers, an income of \$1,000 from the State, and no property. The State appropriation was raised in 1878 to \$2,000. For the first two years the school occupied a little church and some small rented houses. By the practice of the strictest economy a sum sufficient to purchase property was saved. A beautiful location was selected and a fair prospect of permanence was secured. Although the school received help from the Peabody education fund and the John F. Slater fund, and from friends North and East, the aim was, from the beginning, to draw its support mainly from the State, and all expenditures are estimated upon the basis of State funds. The legislature of 1885 raised the annual appropriation to \$4,000. The school grounds comprise about 4 acres fronting on one of the prettiest thoroughfares in the city. Palmer Hall, the principal building, is one of the best school edifices in the State. The chapel has a seating capacity of 500. The general assembly of Alabama of 1890-91 made this school the beneficiary of that part of the Congressional grant given under the act approved August 30, 1890, "to the more complete endowment and support of the colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanical arts." The institution is thus a normal, mechanical, and agricultural school for the colored people of Alabama. The new era of the school was inaugurated by the purchase of 182 acres of land 3 miles north of Huntsville on which the necessary buildings have been erected. The president's report for the session ending August 31, 1891, records the following departments:

I. Department of mechanic arts.—Section 1, carpentry; section 2, printing; section 3, mattress making; section 4, shoemaking.

II. Department of Agriculture.—Section 1, farming and horticulture; section 2, dairy and live stock.

III. Department of English language and literature.

IV. Department of mathematical science.

V. Department of physical science.

VI. Department of natural science.

VII. Department of economic science.—Section 1, laundering; section 2, cooking; section 3, sewing.

Among these "departments" the "normal" is conspicuous by its absence, but among the "courses of study" will be found a normal course of three years, the first year giving "practice in training school;" the second year, theory and practice of teaching, and the third year, theory and the practice of teaching with "school law." Comparing the title, "State normal and industrial school," with the printed programme, one is reminded of Falstaff's poor "half-pennyworth of bread."¹

In order to be admitted into the normal and industrial departments of the institution, a pupil must be 14 years of age, of good moral character, and able to read and write and understand arithmetic to fractions. Tuition is free, and boarding expenses are \$8 a month, of which \$7 are paid in cash and \$1 in work. "The aim of instruc-

¹ Catalogues of the Freedmen's Normal Institute, Maryville, Tenn., 1876, 1879-1889.

tion," says the president in his last report, "is to turn out practical men and women. Our plan is a combination of the constructive and instructive methods. The student sees his efforts constantly producing useful articles for home use or for the market. In the construction of an ordinary table there are all the steps from the first lesson of the apprentice to the finishing touches of the skilled cabinetmaker, and so on through all the departments of industry. Hence, the various industries soon return something to the institution and offer opportunities for students to help themselves through school."

Schedule of daily exercises.—Rising, dressing, and arranging rooms, 5 to 5.30 a. m.; study hour, 5.30 to 6.45; devotion, 6.45 to 7; breakfast, 7 to 7.50; school, 8 a. m. to 1 p. m.; dinner, 1 to 2; general work, 2 to 4; recreation, 4 to 6; tea, 6 to 7; devotion, 7 to 7.15; study, 7.15 to 9; retiring taps, 9.

The school employs 16 teachers, and the last catalogue registered 326 pupils, of whom 96 were in the normal department proper. The teachers are assigned as follows: To mechanic arts, 4; to agriculture, 2; to English language, 4; to mathematical science, 1; to physical science, 1; to natural science, 1; to economic science, 3.¹

TUSKEGEE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE.

The Tuskegee Normal School was established by an act of the legislature of Alabama, passed in 1880, and was opened in a church July 4, 1881, with 30 students and 1 teacher. The school has now (1891), including the night school and the training school, 730 pupils, of whom 212 are in the normal department. The normal course includes reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history, physiology, rhetoric, literature, algebra, geometry, physics, botany, bookkeeping, school laws of Alabama, theory and practice of teaching, music, drawing, civil government and political economy, mental and moral philosophy. The theory and practice of teaching is one of the eight subjects pursued by the senior class. The industrial department has advanced to a high state of efficiency; it is subdivided into the following branches:

1. *Agriculture.*—The farm of 1,480 acres not only furnishes valuable employment for students, but supplies largely the demands of the school.

2. *Brickmaking.*—On the farm have been found beds of clay suitable for making brick. From these beds the students have made bricks enough (and have laid them themselves) to build four substantial buildings for school use.

3. *Carpentry.*—The shop is furnished with several sets of tools, and the students are taught to make fences, build cottages, make and repair furniture, etc.

4. *Printing.*—The office is well furnished and is under the management of a first-class printer. The students do much job work for the school and the surrounding country.

5. *Blacksmithing.*—At present the blacksmith and wheelwright shops are combined. This department does all the work for the school and farm, and much for the town and country.

6. *Tinsmithing, shoemaking, harness making.*—All the roofing is done by students from the tin shop, and a large quantity of tinware is furnished the boarding department.

7. *Sewing.*—Much of the dressmaking for the girls and all the plain sewing of the school are done in this department. In connection with it is a sales room, in which the products of the sewing room are offered for sale to the students.

8. *Laundry.*—Here the girls are taught the art of washing and ironing after the most improved methods. Very little machinery has been introduced.

9. *Sawmill.*—A large portion of the farm is covered with pine forest, which supplies the mill with timber. A planing mill is attached which dresses the lumber for

¹ Annual catalogues of the State Normal and Industrial School, Huntsville, Ala., 1883, 1884, 1885, 1886, 1890. President's Report, 1891.

use. Without the sawmill, the brickyard, and the carpenter's shop it would have been impossible, with restricted means, to put up the buildings required by the institute.

Tuition is free. The price of board, including washing, lights, fuel, etc., is \$8 per month. Students are given an opportunity to work out \$2 or \$3 per month, so that with a good outfit of clothing \$50 is sufficient to carry an industrious student through the school year of nine months.

The appropriation of \$2,000 annually made by the State legislature at first was increased in 1883 to \$3,000 annually. The whole State appropriation is used to pay tuition, for all other expenses the school looks to its friends, North and South. The school property is (1892) valued at \$125,000, and is entirely free of debt.¹

EMERSON INSTITUTE, MOBILE.

The Emerson Institute is one of a large number of schools organized soon after the war by the American Missionary Association for the benefit of the freedmen in the South, and kept up after the special need for such aid ceased to be severely felt. The building known as the "Blue College," on Government street, was at first occupied as a primary school, and afterwards (1873), by the liberality of Mr. Emerson, of Rockford, Ill., it developed into a normal and academic institute. In the same year the building was destroyed by fire, but the school was maintained under great disadvantages until 1878, when it was removed to a new building in Holley's Garden. Four years later this house also was burned, and the school work was carried on in church buildings. In the summer of 1882 another and larger building was erected, and in 1889 an industrial building was added, in which the boys are taught wood-working and the girls to sew and cook. The "normal course" includes geometry, physics, general history, English literature, mental science, geology, astronomy, and the "science of education." The whole number of registered students (1891) is 322, of whom 28 are in the normal department.²

MISSISSIPPI.

TOUGALOO UNIVERSITY.

In 1869 the American Missionary Association purchased 500 acres of land, with a fine mansion upon it, at Tougaloo, 7 miles north of the State capital, and proceeded to open a school for the education of colored persons. There is a little romance connected with the early history of the place. Prior to the war a wealthy bachelor owned a valuable plantation of over 2,000 acres in the very heart of the State of Mississippi. A charming young lady, to whom he was paying his addresses, promised to become his wife if he would build her the finest house in the State. The condition was accepted, and the house soon began to show its grand proportions; but while the ardent lover was preparing a \$25,000 cage for his bird a rival carried off the bird. The cage remained stationary, and was used as a storehouse for cotton, until the officers of the American Missionary Association had their attention called to it as a favorable location for their projected school.

Two other buildings were soon after erected, and when the school was chartered by the State in 1871, there were comfortable accommodations for 60 boarding students. In the early history of the school it was adopted by the State as one of its normal schools, but, on account of the difficulty created by having two boards of trustees to run the same institution, the State withdrew its support in 1877. Two years later a board of visitors was appointed to visit the school annually and report

¹ Catalogues of the Tuskegee State Normal School, 1882, 1890. Report of the principal to the State commissioners, 1890.

² Catalogues of Emerson Institute, 1876-1890.

directly to the legislature. Since that time the State has appropriated from \$2,000 to \$3,000 annually for the support of the school. The foundation of a new hall, to replace Washington Hall, which had been destroyed by fire, was laid in 1882. It was called Strieby Hall, in honor of the oldest living secretary of the American Missionary Association. In the fall of the same year a blacksmith's shop was built, and in the next two years carpenter and tin shops were added, making a good beginning of an industrial department, which has since been liberally aided from the "Slater fund." In 1888 a small building was fitted up as a "Girls' Industrial Cottage," which served to make a beginning in that line of work. During 1886-87, through the generosity of Mr. Stephen Ballard, of New York City, a two-story building was put up on the old site of Washington Hall, and was called "Ballard Hall." This building furnishes ample accommodations for the schoolroom work in all the grades below the normal department. The "Ballard shops" were also completed during the year, furnishing ample room for all the shops under one roof. These two buildings were completed with the \$5,000 given by Mr. Ballard. They are substantial, commodious, and cheap. All of the work upon them was done by students trained in the industrial department.¹

The school is arranged in four grades—primary, intermediate, grammar, and normal. The normal course also embraces four grades of one year each. The subjects in the first grade are composition, algebra, physiology, and physical geography; in the second grade, algebra, rhetoric and literature, natural philosophy, and book-keeping; in the third grade, geometry, geology, general history, and botany; in the fourth grade, political economy, mental science, moral science, pedagogics, Scripture history, review of common branches, and composition.

The number of students in June, 1890, was, in the normal grade, 33; grammar, 90; intermediate, 160; primary, 100; total, 383.

The course of training in the industrial department is, first year, carpentry; second year, blacksmithing and wheelwrighting; third year, painting, turning, and tinning. All the young women are taught to sew and mend. Dressmaking is taught to a limited number. Class instruction and practical lessons in cooking are given every day. Four girls each month have the privilege of keeping house in the "Cottage," and while learning to cook and plan for themselves, they also lighten their expenses.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, HOLLY SPRINGS.

The State Normal School at Holly Springs was opened in 1870 for the purpose of training teachers (*colored*) for the public schools of the State. Only such persons as intended to become teachers were admitted to full membership. The enabling act of the legislature provided that "each representative in the State shall be entitled to send one pupil each term of twenty weeks of said school, said pupil to be recommended by the representatives to the board of trustees. The person thus admitted shall be free of tuition: Provided, The applicant shall be of good moral character and shall sustain a satisfactory examination and sign a declaration of intention to follow the business of teaching common schools in this State for at least the term of three years."

The last catalogue (1891) gives the number of registered students as 170—young men, 93; young women, 77. There are reported as studying geometry, 8; algebra, 24; Latin, 6; theory and practice of teaching, 9; pedagogy, 4; psychology, 8; English grammar, 108; reading, writing, and spelling, 120.

The course of study as published in the first catalogue of the institution is worthy of preservation. It is in some respects a model.

¹ Catalogues of the Tougaloo University, 1872-1890.

Course of study, tabular view, 1870.

	First year.		Second year.		Third year.		Fourth year.		No. of weeks for each study.
	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.	
Metaphysics.....				*					20
History and methods of education.....						*			20
Constitutions of United States and Mississippi.....							*		20
School laws of Mississippi.....								*	20
Teaching.....									80
Reading.....	*	*	*						60
Spelling.....	*	*	*						60
Grammar.....		*	*						40
Rhetoric.....				*					20
Criticism.....						*			20
English literature.....							*		20
Arithmetic.....	*	*	*						60
Algebra.....				*					20
Geometry.....					*				20
Trigonometry.....						*			20
Natural philosophy.....							*		20
Astronomy.....								*	20
Bookkeeping.....								*	20
Drawing.....					*				20
Writing.....									40
Geography.....	*	*	*						60
History.....					*				20
Chemistry.....						*			20
Botany.....							*		20
Physiology.....							*		20
Music.....									20

Optional studies: Latin, Greek, algebra (advanced), trigonometry (advanced), analytical geometry, calculus, zoology.

JACKSON COLLEGE.

This institution was at first known as the Natchez Seminary. It is one of the 17 institutions founded and sustained for the education of preachers and teachers for the colored people of the South. It was opened in 1877, but no catalogue was issued until 1880, when the seminary had on its roll 31 students preparing for the ministry, 46 preparing to teach, and 40 general students. The design of the seminary was declared to be "to aid those men who have a divine vocation to the sacred ministry to obtain a better understanding of the Holy Scriptures; to aid them to take a connected view of the Christian doctrines; to learn the best methods of teaching the way of salvation; to study the composition of persons; to become practically acquainted with the usages of the Church of Christ, etc."

Another design of the school was "to afford a good opportunity for study and instruction to young men and women who wished to be prepared to teach the public schools." The courses of study extended through five years, embracing the ordinary grammar school and high school branches of study, with mental and moral philosophy, biblical interpretation, sermon-making, preaching, church polity, and systematic theology. The expenses were very low—tuition, \$1 a month; room rent, \$1 a month; washing, \$1 a month, and board \$5 a month. Among the 23 rules for the seminary and family, the first deserves special notice: "There are no penalties for misconduct; none remain who fail to regard our simple rules."

In 1882 the "art of teaching" was added to the normal course, but it has no place in the printed curriculum of 1884. In 1885 the seminary took possession of its new building in Jackson, Miss., a fine brick structure three stories high, with a basement, erected by the Home Mission Society. It was then called Jackson College.

Though the name of a "normal department" has been kept in the catalogues to the present time, there is no evidence of any distinctive normal instruction being given. The following are the subjects assigned to the several instructors: Theology,

natural sciences, history, mathematics and music, and English studies. The normal department, so called, is really preparatory to the academic department, for "the academic course comprises all the studies of the normal course and two years of study in addition."

The John F. Slater fund provides for the industrial department. Students of both sexes are taught such branches of useful and practical knowledge as will enable them to earn their living by the labor of their hands. The young women have a sewing room and the young men have shops in which work is done in carpentry, lathe work, tin work, and brick laying.¹

The following summary is from the catalogue of 1890:

Preparing for the ministry	23
Preparing to teach	42
In industrial department	213
Converted to Christ	19
Males	114
Females	149
Total	263

LOUISIANA.

STRAIGHT UNIVERSITY, NEW ORLEANS.

In the spring of 1869 a few gentlemen conceived the idea of planting this university to meet an acknowledged want of the colored population. The Freedmen's Bureau and the American Missionary Association at once pledged their cooperation. A site was selected on one of the most beautiful streets in the city. The American Missionary Association purchased the grounds, and the Government assured the erection of buildings to the value of \$20,000. An act of incorporation was secured "with the power to confer all such degrees and honors as are conferred by universities in the United States of America." While the buildings were in process of construction a normal department was opened in one of the churches, and 80 students were registered. The institution bears the name of one of its most liberal benefactors, Seymour Straight. From the first there was contemplated the organization of a law department, a medical department, a collegiate department, a normal department, an academic department, and an elementary department. Time has not quite fulfilled all the expectations of its founders. The theological department is still in existence, with 6 students; the college with 9, including 2 preparatory classes, and the normal with 64. The academic and lower grades number 483. The faculty of the college department is the same as the faculty of the normal department, and the printed curriculum of the normal course indicates no strictly professional training, with the exception of psychology and science of education, in the fourth year, which divide the attention of the student with civil government, astronomy, geology, and English literature.²

NEW ORLEANS UNIVERSITY.

The New Orleans University was chartered by the legislature in 1873, but a regular normal department was not opened until 1883, when there were 25 normal students on the roll, the course of study being "a review of the studies of the grammar department with lectures on managing schools and teaching, together with practical exercises in the same." In 1885 the department was arranged in two divisions, the normal scientific and the normal language divisions. The difference is sufficiently indicated by the titles. The whole number of students in the normal department was 14. In 1888 the number registered was 9. In 1889 the number of normal students was 27,

¹ Catalogues of Natchez Seminary and Jackson College from 1880 to 1891.

² Catalogues of Straight University, New Orleans, La., 1870, 1877, 1886, 1890, 1891.

and the course was extended from two years to three, "methods of instruction and practice teaching," forming part of the curriculum in each term of every year. The number of normal students in the next two years was 38 and 39, respectively. The aggregate number of students attending the University was 562.¹

ARKANSAS.

BRANCH NORMAL COLLEGE OF THE INDUSTRIAL UNIVERSITY, PINE BLUFF.

The Branch Normal College is a department of the Arkansas Industrial University, established pursuant to an act of the general assembly approved April, 1873. It has been in operation since September, 1875. The enabling act requires the branch college to be governed by the same rules and regulations as the principal college, and makes it the duty of the board of trustees "to furnish the branch college with professors and teachers and other necessary employees, equal in numbers, attainments, and other desirable qualifications to those furnished and employed in said principal normal college;" "to prescribe the same books and the same course of study," and "to confer upon graduates thereof like honors, commendations, and degrees to those had or given in said principal normal college." The appointment of students to this branch college, like appointments to the parent university at Fayetteville, is vested in the county courts. All students thus appointed are entitled to four years' free tuition upon the payment of \$5 matriculation fee at the time of entering the school. The number of possible beneficiaries is about 400, and the average number of actual beneficiaries about 200, of whom one-third are in the normal department proper and two-thirds in the preparatory. The course of study has two divisions—the normal, leading to the degree of licentiate of instruction, and the classical, to the degree of bachelor of arts, the former occupying four years and the latter six. Pedagogics has a place in the second year of the normal course, history of education and school management in the third, and science of education in the fourth. The optional studies are reading and spelling, elementary chemistry, elementary botany, zoology, surveying, and ethics. Latin, geometry, plane trigonometry, algebra, physics, general chemistry, and psychology are obligatory.

The "normal course of study," according to the last announcement, "is not what goes by that name in many of our institutions—that is, a mere preparation for teaching the common-school branches—but differs from the usual college curriculum merely in the omission of one or two branches of higher mathematics, and having less in Greek. The institution is strictly confined to the higher branches, and children who are not somewhat advanced in the common-school branches are not admitted."²

It is interesting to compare the course of study outlined above with the printed programme for the year 1879-80, when the "real work of the normal" commenced.

First year.—Latin, algebra, plane geometry and trigonometry, physical geography, history, English diction, and elocution.

Second year.—Latin, plane and spherical trigonometry, descriptive geometry, inorganic chemistry, chemical physics, zoology, rhetoric, botany, and analytical geometry.

Third year.—Latin, solid geometry, differential calculus, integral calculus, mineralogy, geology, organic chemistry, English literature, and logic.

Fourth year.—Latin, natural philosophy, mental philosophy, moral philosophy, political economy, history of civilization, civil polity, evidences of Christianity, Constitution of the United States, international law, philology, and history of inductive sciences.³

Must we sometimes apply the definition of *faith* to school catalogues—"the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things not seen?"

¹ Catalogues of the New Orleans University, 1881, 1884, 1885, 1888, 1889, 1890, 1891.

² Catalogue and circular of the Branch Normal College of the Arkansas Industrial University, 1890.

³ Catalogue and circular of the Branch Normal College of the Arkansas Industrial University, 1879.

SOUTHLAND COLLEGE AND NORMAL INSTITUTE.

This institute was established by the Indiana Yearly Meeting of the Religious Society of Friends in 1864. The normal grade was instituted in 1869. The college department was organized in 1872.

For admission to the preparatory or normal course the student must have completed McGuffey's Fourth Reader, Swinton's Language Lessons, Eclectic Primary Geography, and Ray's Practical Arithmetic to decimal fractions. The course of study in the "preparatory and normal department" can be completed in three years. The first year is devoted to arithmetic, geography, and grammar; the second, after completing arithmetic and grammar, to history of the United States and bookkeeping; the third year to algebra, physics, physical geography, physiology, and civil government. Pedagogy is added for those who desire the diploma of the normal course. There are 5 students in the college department and 89 in the "preparatory and normal." The number of students in the normal department (1890) is 89.¹

TEXAS.

TILLOTSON COLLEGIATE AND NORMAL INSTITUTE, AUSTIN.

This school was founded by the American Missionary Association and is conducted under its auspices. It takes its name from the Rev. George J. Tillotson, of Weathersfield, Conn., who contributed largely in money and personal efforts to the erection of the main building. It was opened on the 17th of January, 1881, and at the end of the second year had an enrollment of 283 students, of whom 50 were pursuing the normal course.

The object of the institute is to furnish to the colored people an opportunity to acquire a thoroughly practical common-school education; to prepare those who propose to take a more extended course for entrance to the highest educational institutions of the land; to train teachers for all positions in the public schools.

There are two normal courses, "elementary and higher," each occupying two years. The studies of the first year are arithmetic, algebra, physical geography, reading, rhetorical exercises, history of Texas, vocal music, carpentry, sewing, cooking. Second year: Algebra and arithmetic completed, rhetoric, rhetorical exercises, physiology, botany, school economy, primary methods, carpentry, dressmaking, cooking. Third year: Plane geometry, physics, English and American literature, general history, elocution, rhetorical exercises, carpentry (optional). Fourth year: Astronomy, zoology, mental philosophy, civil government, rhetorical exercises, methods of teaching, practice teaching.

The number of students in the elementary course (1891) was 24; in the higher, 3.²

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, PRAIRIE VIEW.

This school owes its origin to an act of the legislature of Texas approved April 19, 1879, which authorized the establishment at Prairie View (formerly called Alta Vista) of a normal school for the preparation and training of colored teachers. The act requires the board of directors of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas to organize such a school as soon as practicable, so as to admit one student from each senatorial district, and at least three students from the State at large, to be taken from the colored population of the State, and to be not less than 16 years of age at the time of their admission. All students admitted are required to sign a written obligation binding each student "to teach in the public free schools for the colored children of their respective districts at least one year next after their discharge from the normal school and as much longer than one year as the time of their

¹ Catalogue of Southland College and Normal Institute, Helena, Ark., 1890.

² Catalogues of Tillotson Normal and Collegiate Institute, Austin, Tex., 1882-1891.

connection with the normal school shall exceed one year," and for the same rate of compensation as other teachers of such schools receive. The directors are also required to make rules by which students can obtain certificates of qualification as teachers, which will entitle them to teach without further examination. The sum of \$6,000 a year was appropriated for the support of the school. This sum was afterwards increased, the appropriation for 1889-90 being \$10,000 for the normal and \$5,000 for the industrial department.

Candidates for admission must sustain a satisfactory examination, conducted by a board of examiners appointed by the senators of the several districts of the State, in arithmetic as far as decimal fractions, orthography, English grammar and composition, history of Texas, and history of the United States. The course of study embraces three years. In the first year reading and spelling, grammar and geography, involutional geometry, drawing, writing, vocal music, and calisthenics. In the second year the same studies are continued, with algebra, physiology, and lectures on professional work and school management. In the third year there is a general review of common branches, with special reference to teaching them, and, in addition, natural philosophy, plane geometry, bookkeeping, rhetoric, English literature, general history, psychology, and civil government.

The industrial department is made subordinate to the normal features of the school. No attempt is made to equip students thoroughly in any particular line of the industries, but liberal provision has been made and shops have been furnished for the instruction and practice of young men in the principal operations of wood and iron working.

Girls have a special teacher who instructs them in the different kinds of sewing, both by hand and on machines, in cutting and fitting, in cooking, laundering, and general housework.

There are 225 acres of land belonging to the school. About 100 acres are cultivated in farm and garden. Lectures are delivered to the students on soil, fertilizers, cultivation of different crops, the care of orchards, stock raising, and care of cattle. A branch of the United States experimental station has been placed in charge of the agricultural department of this school.

The number of students enrolled in June, 1890, was 129. One student from each senatorial district and 15 from the State at large were admitted free of charge for board and tuition, and those who show a decided ability for teaching may be returned for a second year. The number of graduates from 1885 to 1889, inclusive, was 78, of whom all but 7 were reported in 1890 as "teaching" and 6 as "having taught."¹

MISSOURI.

LINCOLN INSTITUTE, JEFFERSON CITY.

Lincoln Institute had its origin in a fund of \$6,379 contributed by the Sixty-second and Sixty-fifth regiments of United States Colored Infantry when discharged from service in January, 1866. The school was opened in September of that year and was taught in rented buildings. In June, 1871, the present Lincoln Institute building was completed. It is a substantial brick structure, 60 by 70 feet, conveniently arranged and eligibly located upon a prominent hill just outside the limits of Jefferson City. The grounds contain 20 acres. The legislature of 1879 appropriated \$15,000 for the support of the institute; but this appropriation was found to be unconstitutional, being a grant of public money to a corporation. At the suggestion of Governor Phelps the board of trustees met and unanimously voted to transfer the institute to the State. The bill was then immediately approved, and the legislature

¹Annual Catalogue of the Prairie View State Normal School, Hempstead, Tex., 1890.

in succeeding years made liberal appropriations for its current expenses and also for repairs, buildings, library, and apparatus.

There are four departments—the college, the preparatory, the normal, and the elementary. The object of the normal department is to prepare teachers for the colored schools of the State. It has two courses of study; the first covers two years and the second four. Students who complete the two years' course receive graded certificates, entitling them to teach the branches named therein for two years from the date of graduation. Graduates from the four years' course receive diplomas which authorize them to teach in any county in the State without examination. Pedagogics has no definite place in the printed course of study, but "principles and methods of teaching, class management, and school government receive attention throughout the course, also spelling, elocution, and composition;" and normal students are required to participate in the teachers' institute, which is held biweekly.

By an act of the thirty-sixth general assembly an industrial department was established in connection with the institute. The object of this department, which was opened in October, 1891, is "to give the students an opportunity to learn trades and to study those branches of knowledge pertaining to agriculture."

The faculty consists of the president, 4 professors, and 2 assistants. The superintendent of the industrial department is a graduate of the manual training school of St. Louis.

The number of pupils enrolled in the normal department (catalogue of 1891) is 42; in the elementary, 151; in the preparatory, 11; in the college, 1; total, 205.¹

VIII.

CITY NORMAL AND TRAINING SCHOOLS.

The city training school, call it by what name we may, would seem to be the simplest of all normal school problems. Given a city of a certain population, increasing at a certain probable rate, a definite school system, a printed course of instruction, a number of principals selected by merit or by personal or political favoritism, it should not be difficult to train a sufficient number of assistants every year to aid these principals in the instruction and government of the schools. But the evolution of the training school has not been accomplished on purely professional lines. The need of good assistant teachers is the ostensible cause and furnishes the public with a sufficient motive; but other ends have also to be served. The school government is a close corporation; the school-teachers must be selected from among qualified residents of the city; the outside world must be kept out that home labor may be protected. But this very protection adds to the embarrassment of the school authorities in the selection of teachers, for there are three home applicants for every vacancy. The training school weeds out some of the incompetents, and the choice becomes more restricted and less embarrassing. The work of the training school, however comprehensive in theory, is practically restricted to the graduating of young teachers who will satisfy the demands of the principals and the superintendents in numbers not too large for the needs of the schools and yet not so small as to give the school directors no opportunity for choice. The school curriculum must not be too modern, for that would offend the old-fashioned principals; neither must it be antiquated, for that would not suit the progressive superintendents.

As if the problem were not already sufficiently complicated, the public steps in and demands that young people who are not to become teachers should have equal opportunities of higher education with those who are to receive professional instruction, hence the title "high and normal school," with which nearly all such institutions have been ushered into the world, and which has connected them as closely as were the Siamese twins. But the general, if not the universal experience, has

¹ Catalogues of Lincoln Institute, Jefferson City, Mo., 1879, 1880, 1881, 1882, 1884, 1886, 1887, 1891.

been that a school, like a locomotive, can not run on two lines, however slightly divergent, at the same time. It will be switched off either to the high school track or to the normal track. In the end the trains are divided, to the great advantage of both.

It has not been thought advisable to give many samples of the city training school. One might almost say, *ab uno disce omnes*. The Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1889 gives a list of 58 city training schools and classes, attended by 538 students. Most, if not all of these, are connected with city high schools and have no independent history. The experiences of the cities of Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and Chicago contain valuable lessons, and the history of the New York College for the Training of Teachers is exceedingly interesting.

GIRLS' NORMAL SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA.

The act of the legislature of Pennsylvania, passed in 1818, providing "for the education of children at public expense within the city and county of Philadelphia," gave to the controllers of public schools the power "to establish a model school in order to qualify teachers for the sectional schools and for schools in other parts of the State." At that time the Lancasterian system was in the prime of its popularity, and the "model school" allowed by the act was organized by Joseph Lancaster himself in a building still standing on Chester street above Race. This model school was used as a school of practice to train teachers and monitors, and to serve as a pattern to other schools of the same class. [One of the earliest recollections of the writer is of a visit made when he was a boy to a great Lancasterian school in a manufacturing city. The master stood on a high platform brandishing his rod of office in full view of some 300 pupils. Six small galleries, seated with benches raised in three or four ascending tiers, gave accommodation to from 12 to 20 small urchins in each gallery, over which presided 12 monitors. The children coned their lessons under monitorial supervision and the noise was like the distant roar of the much vexed ocean. The presiding genius on the platform touched a little bell and called, "Sand class, come up!" The sand class came up, and gathered around a shallow trough, 3 by 4 feet and 4 inches deep, filled with molding sand of the best quality, on which the master proceeded to illustrate the mysteries of the alphabet. Years passed on, and the galleries became recitation rooms, about 12 feet square, arranged around a central hall, and the boy monitors were supplanted by ladies. For many years the school buildings of Philadelphia continued to attest their Lancasterian origin, but finally the pendulum swung around to the opposite side, and a schoolhouse became a series of rooms, each in many cases as independent of the others as if they belonged to different countries. This independence extended largely to the schools of the system, if system it can be called which had been compared, before the revolution of 1883, to a "fortuitous aggregate of educational atoms." So much "obiter dictum" may help to a better understanding of the history of the Philadelphia Normal School for Girls.]

About the year 1836, the model school, having lost its distinctive character as a school of practice, became in effect one of the grammar schools of the city, though it still retained its name. Twelve years later the controllers of the public schools converted the so-called model school into a normal school for the purpose of qualifying young ladies to become teachers. It is claimed that this is the first normal school not under State control established in any city in the United States. The school was opened on the 1st of February, 1848, under Dr. A. T. W. Wright as principal, with 6 assistant teachers and 106 pupils. The course of study required two years for its completion. The school was popular from the beginning and soon outgrew its accommodations; a new building was erected for its use and the normal school was transferred to it in 1854 along with the model school, which still kept up its connection with the normal. This model school was discontinued as such soon after, and in lieu thereof a school of practice was organized. In 1857 Mr. Philip A.

Cregar was elected principal, and in 1859 the "Girls' Normal School" became the "Girls' High School." In 1861 the name was again changed to "Girls' High and Normal School," and the course of instruction was so modified as to give professional training solely in the last year of the course. These changes indicate the gradual growth of public sentiment in respect to the higher education of girls and the fitting of them for teachers.

In 1865 Prof. Geo. W. Fetter, the present (1892) principal, was elected, and under his wise and efficient management the school has done a great work for popular education in Philadelphia. The school building, which was new in 1854, became antiquated before a score of years had passed, and in 1876 the school was transferred to a new home, one of the largest and best arranged schoolhouses at that time in existence. It was dedicated on the 30th of October, amid congratulations on past success and prophecies of future prosperity. The Hon. Simon Gratz gave voice to the sentiments and wishes of the people when he said in his opening address:¹

And now, with a building which, in point of elegance and fitness, will rival any in the land, a corps of teachers who would do honor to any institution of learning, an enlarged and comprehensive course of study which will cultivate and sharpen the reasoning faculties, stimulate thought, and store the minds of the pupils with an ample stock of useful knowledge, and last, but of the first importance, that indispensable adjunct, a thoroughly organized school of practice in which constant opportunity may be had for testing the ability of the pupil to make practical application of her theoretical knowledge of methods of teaching and of discipline, may we not reasonably expect to achieve such results as will make the school worthy of the pride of our citizens?

The following is the course of study adopted in 1876, from which it will be seen that the word "High" need not have been removed from the official title, unless as a prophecy of good things to come:

Course of study in the Girls' Normal School of Philadelphia, 1876.

Class A, one year.	Class B, one year.	Class C, one year.	Class D, one year.
Mental science. Literature. Geology. Logic. Arithmetic. Composition, rhetoric. Elocution. Natural philosophy. Astronomy. Synonyms. Music. Theory of teaching. Trigonometry.	Algebra. Moral science. Physiology. Drawing. Arithmetic. Composition, rhetoric. Elocution. Chemistry. Botany. Mythology. Music. General history. Geometry. Physical exercises. Penmanship.	Algebra. Moral science. Grammar. Drawing. Arithmetic. Composition, rhetoric. Reading. Orthography. Geography. Etymology. Music. General history. Geometry. Physical exercises. Penmanship. Constitution of United States.	Algebra. Grammar. Drawing. Arithmetic. Composition, rhetoric. Reading. Orthography. Geography. Etymology. Music. American history. Geometry. Physical exercises. Penmanship.

The course of study has naturally changed during the many years of the existence of the school, both in its academic and its professional work, in order to keep pace with the advance of educational thought throughout the country. This school was among the first in the country to introduce a course of physical training, and for a number of years has had a complete and systematic course of instruction in this department. It was also one of the first institutions to introduce several forms of manual training suitable for girls. Sewing was introduced in 1881, and has been taught with success since that time. Cookery became one of the regular branches in 1887, and thus pioneered its introduction into the grammar schools of the city. Other changes are gradually made in the course of study to meet the demands of the time, until in 1887 the following quite complete course in academic and pedagogical training was adopted.

¹Address delivered upon the occasion of the dedication of the Philadelphia Normal School for Girls, Philadelphia, 1876.

Course of study in the Girls' Normal School.

A, fourth year	History of education.	Mental and moral science in their relations to education.	Methods of teaching.	Philosophy and method of the kindergarten.	Drawing, with instruction in methods of teaching this study.	School organization and management.	Modeling in clay, instruction in the gifts and occupations of the kindergarten.	Music.
	English language and literature.		Mathematics.	Science.	History.	Drawing.	Sewing.	Music.
B, third year	Literature, theme writing, reading of English classics.	Elocution ..	Higher arithmetic (including mensuration, principles of accounts, and book-keeping), geometry.	Chemistry, natural philosophy, astronomy, human physiology and hygiene.		Drawing..	Sewing...	Music.
C, second year	Rhetoric, theme writing, history of the English language (including the study of the derivations, formation, etc., of words), English literature, reading of English classics.	do.....	General review of arithmetic, geometry, algebra.	Zoology, geology, natural philosophy.	General history	do.....	Sewing, cooking.	Do.
D, first year	Grammar, composition, history of the English language (including the study of the derivation, formation, etc., of words), reading of English classics.		Algebra, arithmetic....	Physical geography, botany.	History and civil government of the United States, general history.	do.....	Sewing...	Do.

1. Physical exercises throughout the first, second, and third years.
2. Laboratory work in chemistry when possible.
3. Laboratory work as far as possible in physics.
4. Drawing to include the treatment of geometric drawing, construction, decoration, representation, and object drawing.

The growth and work of the school will be indicated by the following facts: The school opened February 1, 1848, with 106 pupils and 7 teachers, including the principal. In 1865 it contained 270 pupils and 10 teachers. Since that time the most remarkable increase in numbers has been made that can be found in the history of any normal school in the country, with the possible exception of the one in New York. It now (December, 1892) contains 1,850 pupils, with 54 teachers. Since its establishment 5,772 pupils have graduated. Of that number 4,878 have been engaged in teaching in the public schools of the city. At the present time nearly 2,400 of the teachers in Philadelphia are graduates of the school, including a large majority of the women principals of the city.

The school has also done a great work for Philadelphia in addition to its training of the teachers of the public schools. One of the graduates has filled the pulpit, quite a number have distinguished themselves in literary work, several have studied medicine and are successful practitioners, many have adopted art work as their profession, and a few have gone as missionaries to foreign lands. Two of the 7 assistant superintendents of the public schools of the city are graduates of the institution. But perhaps the greatest work of the school is found in the many happy homes into which the mother educated in the school has carried the influence of its culture, sending out of refined home circles the future citizens and rulers of the city.

With the growth of population and the increased interest in education, it was seen some four or five years ago that the building was inadequate to meet the demands for the higher education of the young women of the city. It was then proposed to reorganize the school by making of the present school a girls' high school and erecting a new building for the girls' normal school. Superintendent MacAlister, in his report for 1889, says: "The necessity for some radical changes in the normal school is now realized I believe by a large proportion of the members of the board of public education." The idea of a division of the institution into two different schools—a high school and a normal school—soon became the prevailing one. Professor Fetter, in his report for 1890, says: "A new building and a division of the school are now imperatively demanded."

The reorganization contemplated by the friends of the school is being carried into effect by Superintendent Brooks. The high and the normal schools are to be separated, making of them two distinct schools under different supervision and control. The new building for the normal school, which will be ready for occupancy in September next, will be one of the finest edifices of the kind in the country. The present building will then be used for a new girls' high school, which, in accordance with the present plan, will probably embrace three distinct courses of study—one intended to prepare young women for admission into the normal school, a second to qualify them for a business or a commercial life, and a third to give a higher education to such as do not desire to become teachers or enter upon business pursuits.

The normal school will have a two years' course, including the science and the art of teaching. The following outline will indicate the proposed scope of the normal course:

A.—*The science of teaching.*

I. *Methods of culture.*—(a) Physical culture, (b) mental culture, (1) intellectual, (2) æsthetic, (3) moral.

II. *Methods of instruction.*—(a) Language, (b) mathematics, (c) physics, (d) history, (e) the arts.

III. *School economy.*—(a) School preparation, (b) school organization, (c) school employments, (d) school government, (e) school authorities, (f) school systems.

IV. *The philosophy of education.*

B.—The art of teaching.

- (1) Observation of model teaching.
- (2) Practice in model schools.
- (3) Preparation of school apparatus.

Each of these topics will be subdivided into departments of instruction to be completed in the two years.¹

BOSTON NORMAL SCHOOL.

Dr. Edwin P. Seaver, superintendent of schools in Boston, writes as follows in his report for 1891:

One chief function of superintendent and supervisors is to provide a supply of competent teachers for the schools. This is the function of the normal school, too; but the normal school furnishes only a portion of the supply, namely, that which comes from the city itself. There has always been and there always will be a portion of the supply coming from outside the city.

This latter portion is in some respects the more important of the two. It happens sometimes that the policy of taking teachers from outside the city is discouraged, such a policy being supposed to make against the interests of the normal school or of its graduates; at other times the same policy is favored because of the pressing need to appoint experienced teachers rather than beginners in the most difficult places. So practice fluctuates, but within limits; for the necessity of employing some teachers from outside the city never wholly disappears even in the primary and grammar schools. With the supply of male teachers for these schools and of all teachers for high schools the normal school has little or nothing to do.

A normal school was established in 1852 by the city council, on the recommendation of the school board, as a part of the public-school system of Boston. In 1854 the school board, with the view of adapting the school to the double purpose of giving to its pupils both high-school and normal instruction, introduced a few additional branches of study, made a slight alteration in the arrangement of the course, and called it the Girls' High and Normal School. Under this name the school was continued until 1872, when the school board, finding that the normal element had been gradually absorbed by the high school, and had almost lost its independent, distinctive, and professional character, returned the normal school to its original condition as a separate school. Since then, under the name of the Boston Normal School, its sole work has been the fitting of young women for the office of teaching.

The course of study in this school is all pursued with special reference to teaching, and is as follows: (1) Psychology and logic, (2) principles of education, (3) methods of instruction and discipline, (4) physiology and hygiene, (5) the studies of the primary and grammar schools, (6) observation and practice in the training school, (7) observation and practice in the other public schools, (8) science of language, (9) phonics, (10) gymnastics, (11) vocal music, (12) drawing and blackboard illustration, (13) special study of the theory and practice of the kindergarten for those members of the postgraduate class who desire to qualify themselves for teaching in that department.

There is a postgraduate course of one year in this school for the further study of the principles of education and methods of instruction, and for observation and practice in teaching; and pupils attending this course may be employed as substitutes or appointed as permanent teachers.

In 1876 the Rice district was constituted a training school, where the normal pupils have an opportunity of gaining by observation and practice a familiar acquaintance with the discipline and instruction of the Boston schools. The training school contains eleven grammar and seven primary classes, numbering about 1,000 pupils.

¹ Reports of the public schools of Philadelphia; personal observation and correspondence.

A certificate that a candidate has completed the fourth year of the high-school course is accepted as proof of qualification for admission. The course of study in the Boston high schools embraces the following subjects: Composition; rhetoric; English literature; ancient, mediæval, and modern history; civil government; botany; zoölogy; anatomy and physiology; chemistry; physics; astronomy; arithmetic, including the metric system; algebra; geometry; plane trigonometry; Latin, or French or German; vocal music, and drawing.

The board of supervisors do not admit to an examination for a situation as teacher any person who is not a graduate of the Boston Normal School, or of one of the State normal schools, unless such person has had at least one year's experience as a teacher.

The following table shows how the time of the students is occupied:

FIRST TERM.

Subjects.	Hours per week.	Number of weeks.
Psychology	5	20
Physiology and hygiene	4	16
Arithmetic	4	4
Language:		
Oral expression and composition	3	9
Penmanship	3	3
Grammar	3	8
Geography	4	20
Drawing	2	20
Vocal music	1	20
Gymnastics:		
Theory	1	20
Practice (12 minutes daily)		

SECOND TERM.

Principles of education	5	16
Language:		
Reading, including phonics	4	8
Spelling	4	2
Literature	4	4
Grammar	4	2
Arithmetic	4	16
Elementary science:		
Minerals	3	5
Plants	3	11
Drawing	2	12
Form	2	4
Vocal music	1	16
Gymnastics:		
Theory	1	16
Practice (12 minutes daily)		
Observation and practice in the public schools (all day, 4 weeks)		

THIRD TERM.

Principles of education	5	7
Logic	5	3
Language:		
Oral expression and composition	4	3
Science and language	4	4
History	4	3
Arithmetic	3	10
Elementary science:		
Plants	4	2
Animals	4	6
Color	4	2
Drawing	1	10
Kindergartening	2	10
Gymnastics:		
Theory	1	10
Practice (12 minutes daily)		
Observation and practice in public schools (all day, 10 weeks)		

POSTGRADUATE COURSE.

The work of the postgraduate class includes: (1) A further study of the principles of education, with special reference to their application in teaching the different subjects of the regular course, and in school discipline; (2) the history of education.

THE NORMAL COLLEGE OF NEW YORK CITY.

The statute empowering the board of education to establish the free academy (now the College of the City of New York) for boys also empowered it to establish one or more similar institutions for girls. The legislature of 1847 intended to extend to each sex equal educational advantages, but the board of education neglected to carry out the provisions of the statute as regards girls. More than twenty years after the passage of the law the board of education established an institution for girls, in some respects similar to that for boys and in some respects inferior. Twenty years later the legislature passed a bill making the Normal College for Girls a real college, with all the powers appertaining thereto, and thus carried out the intention of the men who governed the State forty years previously.

In the fall of 1888 the board of trustees established an academic course of study, and an academic class was formed from volunteers from the normal freshman class. It started with 83 students; in 1892 it numbered 51. The falling off was caused by removals from the city and by the return of a few to the normal department.

Of late years the college has been embarrassed by the difficulty of limiting the admissions to the number which the building could accommodate. The number enrolled in 1890 was 1,766, but the number which could be efficiently instructed and comfortably seated was only 1,500. The simplest remedy seemed to be to raise the scholastic requirements for admission, but this would have been resisted by the principals, and would have been very unpopular. The difficulty was evaded temporarily by changing the "plan of marking," and as this contains some valuable pedagogic suggestions, it is quoted in full from President Hunter's report of 1892:

The plan of marking.—The plan was as follows: 1,000 was made the maximum mark that could possibly be attained; and this number was divided into 250 for arithmetic, 250 for English grammar, 150 for geometry, 100 for English composition, 100 for drawing, 100 for spelling, 25 for geography, and 25 for history. The subjects requiring reason and judgment received a value equal to two-thirds of the whole, while the purely memoriter subjects received only one-twentieth. The power to draw and the ability to spell are not infrequently natural endowments, they are certainly not signs of intellectual development; and yet on account of their importance, especially to teachers, each received a value of one-tenth. English composition, being really a part of English grammar, received also a tenth, for the reason that to the latter a very high mark had already been assigned. The low value given to geography and history, even had they been regularly taught, was perfectly correct; for the instruction heretofore in these subjects was little more than memorizing, which a child of 12 could accomplish perhaps better than a student of 15. Many candidates, weak in arithmetic, which is the foundation of the mathematical studies, and in English grammar, which is the foundation of the study of the English language, crept into the college on the strength of their memories, and at the expiration of a few months were compelled to request a leave of absence on account of personal illness, which simply meant inability to cope with the college curriculum. It goes without saying that geography and history could be so taught as to develop the higher mental powers—reason, judgment, and imagination. But the fact remains that as a rule they are not so taught, and until they are it seems wise to give them a minimum value as factors for admission. The proof, however, lies in the result. The introductory class, formed from the admissions under this method of marking, is the best and strongest the college has ever had.

Detailed schedule of the course of study.

NORMAL COURSE.

Department.	Subject.	Topics.	Text-book.	Time.
INTRODUCTORY.				
First term—First year.				
English.....	History.....	Ancient empires, Greece, Rome.....	Hain.....	3
	Grammar.....	Analysis, errors in speech, synthesis.....	Harkness.....	1
Ancient language.....	Latin.....	Easy Latin methods.....	Harkness.....	4
		Elementary grammar and exercises.		
Modern language.....	French.....	Progressive and practical course, Part I. Regular verbs. Translation. Reading. Colloquial exercises.	Duffet.....	4
	or		Sauveur.....	
	German.....	Elements of grammar. Exercises in reading and writing.	Aubert.....	
Mathematics.....	Algebra.....	Elementary course.....	Schlegel.....	4
	Geometry.....	Books III and IV.....	Ray.....	5
Physical science.....	Astronomy.....	Elementary course.....	Hunter.....	2
			Gillet & Rolfe.....	
Second term—First year.				
English.....	Composition.....	Exercises in prefixes, suffixes. Use of capitals. Letter-writing. Making abstracts and expansion.	Murison.....	4
Ancient language.....	Latin.....	Easy Latin methods.....	Harkness.....	4
		Grammar continued. Exercises.	Harkness.....	
Modern language.....	French.....	Progressive and practical course, Part I. Regular verbs completed. Irregular verbs begun. Translation. Reading. Colloquial exercises.	Duffet.....	4
	or		Sauveur.....	
	German.....	Elements of grammar continued. Conversational phrases.	Aubert.....	
Mathematics.....	Algebra.....	Elementary course continued.....	Schlegel.....	4
	Geometry.....	Book V. Geometrical proportion.....	Ray.....	5
Physical science.....	Astronomy.....	Elementary course continued.....	Hunter.....	2
			Gillet & Rolfe.....	
FRESHMAN.				
First term—Second year.				
English.....	History.....	England and contemporaneous events in France. Outline of modern Europe. History of United States and the Constitution of the United States. Mythology from dictation. Lectures.	Freeman.....	2
Ancient language.....	Latin.....	Sallust.....	Herberman.....	4
		Colloquial exercises.....	D'Ooge.....	
Modern language.....	French.....	Progressive and practical course, Part II. Irregular verbs continued. Translation. Reading. Colloquial exercises.	Duffet.....	4
	or		Sauveur.....	
	German.....	Grammar. Translation. Reading. Conversation.	Aubert.....	
Mathematics.....	Algebra.....	Problems.....	Schlegel.....	4
	Geometry.....	Solids and cones.....	Wentworth.....	1
Natural science.....	Botany.....	Systematic and physiologic.....	Olney.....	3
Physical science.....	Chemistry.....	Elementary course. Lectures.....	Wentworth.....	2
			Gray's Lessons.....	
			Remsen.....	
Second term—Second year.				
English.....	History.....	England, France, and modern Europe completed. United States completed. Mythology from dictation. Lectures.		2
Ancient language.....	Latin.....	Virgil, Books I and II; Prosody.....	Frieze.....	4
		Progressive and practical course, Part II. Verbs completed. Translation. Reading. Colloquial exercises.	Duffet.....	4
Modern language.....	French.....		Sauveur.....	
	or		Aubert.....	
	German.....	Grammar. Reading. Translation. Conversation on the geography of Germany.	Schlegel.....	4
Mathematics.....	Algebra.....	Problems continued.....	Wentworth.....	1
	Geometry.....	Conics and solids.....	Olney.....	3
Natural science.....	Botany.....	Systematic and physiologic continued.	Wentworth.....	2
Physical science.....	Chemistry.....	Use of the microscope.....	Gray's Lessons.....	
		Elementary course continued. Lectures.	Wood's Class Book.....	2
			Remsen.....	

Detailed schedule of the course of study—Continued.

NORMAL COURSE—Continued.

Department.	Subject.	Topics.	Text-book.	Time.
SOPHOMORE.				
<i>First term—Third year.</i>				
English.....	{Composition.....	Virgil, Books V and VI	Bain, Vol. I.....	3
Ancient language.....	{Rhetoric.....		Frieze.....	
Modern language.....	Latin.....	Grammar, Letter-writing, Translation, Dictation, Literature; seventeenth century.	Noël et Chapsal.....	3
	{French.....		Aubert.....	
Pedagogy.....	or	Grammar reviewed. Reading, Translation, Conversation on history of Germany.	Schlegel.....	2
	{German.....		Calkins.....	
Natural science.....	Psychology.....	Elements of, applied to primary teaching. Object lessons. Manual training.	Fitch.....	3
Mathematics.....	Physiology.....	Elementary course, including hygiene. Lectures.	Martin's Human Body.....	4
	Trigonometry ¹	Plane. Lectures.	Wentworth.....	
<i>Second term—Third year.</i>				
English.....	Literature.....	{Writers from Chaucer to Dryden. Poetic selections. Quotations. Composition.	Brooke.....	3
Ancient language.....	Latin.....	Cicero; first oration against Catiline. Oration for Archias.	Ward.....	
Modern language.....	French.....	Grammar continued. Dictation. Translation. Reading. Conversation. Literature continued.	Harkness.....	3
	or	Grammar. Reading. Translation. Conversation. Literature.	Noël et Chapsal.....	
Pedagogy.....	German.....		Aubert.....	3
Natural science.....	Psychology.....	Elements of, applied to teaching. Object teaching. Manual training.	Schlegel.....	2
Physical science.....	Physiology.....	Elementary course, including hygiene, continued. Lectures.	Calkins.....	3
	{Natural philosophy. ¹	Light and heat. Lectures.	Fitch.....	
	{Foods.....	Composition and preparation of. Lectures.	Martin's Human Body.....	4
			Gillet & Rolfe.....	
			Notes.....	
SENIOR.				
<i>First term—Fourth year.</i>				
English.....	{Composition.....	English writers, from Pope to Thackeray. American writers, from Franklin to Bryant. Roman literature. Lectures.	Bain, Vol. II.....	2
Ancient language.....	{Rhetoric.....		Brooke.....	
Modern language.....	Literature.....	Cicero's select letters	Ward.....	3
	Latin.....		Jeans.....	
Pedagogy.....	French.....	Grammar continued. Dictation. Translation. Selections of pedagogy. Conversation. Reading. Literature of eighteenth century. German literature. Translation. Selections on pedagogy. Conversation. Letter-writing.	Harkness.....	3
	or		Noël et Chapsal.....	
Natural science.....	German.....	Special in (1) language. (2) Arithmetic. (3) Geography (including modeling in sand, etc.), and (4) history of United States.	Aubert.....	3
	Methods.....		Schlegel.....	
Pedagogy.....	Practice.....	In the training department. Model lessons by pupil teachers. Criticisms and discussions of lessons. Modeling and carving.	Calkins.....	3
		With especial view of teaching geography, geology, and zoology. Lectures.	Fitch.....	
Natural science.....	Physical geography.....	The intellect. Elements applied to teaching. Lectures.	Mauzy.....	3
Mental science.....	Psychology.....	Electricity. Lectures.	James.....	3
Physical science.....			Sully.....	
			Notes.....	2
<i>Second term—Fourth year.</i>				
English.....	Rhetoric.....	Continued.....	Bain, Vol. II.....	2
Ancient language.....	Literature.....	English and American writers continued. Essay. Lectures.	Brooke.....	
	Latin.....	Horace; selections from Odes, Epistles, and Satires.	Ward.....	3
			Wickham.....	

¹ Mathematics the first term and physical science the second term.

² Every third week.

Detailed schedule of the course of study—Continued.

NORMAL COURSE—Continued.

Department.	Subject.	Topics.	Text-book.	Time.
		SENIOR—continued.		
		<i>Second term—Fourth year—Cont'd.</i>		
Modern language ...	French	Grammar completed. Dictation. Translation. Selections on pedagogy. Conversation. Reading. Literature of nineteenth century.	Noël et Chapsal .. Aubert	3
	or	German literature. Translation. Composition. Letter-writing. Selections on pedagogy. Conversation.	Schlegel	
	German			3
Pedagogy	History	The educational reformers. Comenius, Pestalozzi, Froebel. Lectures.		3
	Training	Moral and physical, of children ...	Fitch	
Natural science	Practice	Same as first term.		3
	Physical geography.	First term's course continued. Geology and zoology. Lectures.	Maury	
Mental science	Psychology	Emotions and will. Applications to morals and school government. Lectures.	Janes	2
			Sully	
Physical science		Electricity. Lectures	Netos	2

Drawing.—Instruction in drawing is given one hour a week in every class throughout the course. The lessons are of such a nature as to enable teachers to illustrate on the blackboard with ease and facility, and to cultivate the eye and hand with the view of preparing pupils for industrial pursuits. There is also instruction in modeling during the second and third years.

Music.—During the freshman, sophomore, and pedagogic years instruction is given in the science and art of music, including musical notation, relation of musical sounds, musical scales, musical intervals, elements of harmony, exercises in reading and writing music, and methods of teaching music.

Chorus singing in all the classes one and one-half hours a week.

All students are obliged to study Latin during the entire course. A choice is permitted of French, German, or Greek, so that, in addition to English, only two languages can be pursued. The total enrollment of the college in 1891 was 1,746 students, of whom 1,333 elected French, 574 German, and 41 Greek.

COOK COUNTY NORMAL SCHOOL, ILLINOIS.

"The Cook County Normal School has weathered many storms and has survived the test of nearly a quarter of a century," says the president of the board of education in a late report. Under the superintendence of Col. Francis W. Parker it has become, as was to be expected, a school *eni generis*. It will be difficult, therefore, to give a satisfactory account of it on conventional lines. Colonel Parker, as principal, occupies the chair of psychology and pedagogics. The vice-principal teaches mathematics, history of education, civics, and political economy. The other studies and exercises are provided for as follows: (a) History and literature; (b) the natural sciences; (c) elocution and the Delsarte system of expression; (d) drawing and methods in art; (e) physical culture; (f) painting, modeling, wood carving, illustrative drawing; (g) Sloyd and pasteboard work; (h) principles and methods of the kindergarten; (i) vocal music; (j) kindergarten; (k) geography; (l) curator of museum and assistant teacher of sciences; (m) assistant teacher of history and literature; (n) assistant teacher of mathematics; (o) assistant teacher of vocal music, penmanship, and primary methods; (p) librarian, secretary-treasurer, and assistant teacher of literature; (q) assistant teacher of language; (r) assistant teacher of science; (s) superintendent of home handwork; (t) assistant teacher of reading; (u) teacher

of taxidermy and collector for museum; (v) assistant teacher of elocution; (w) assistant teacher of elocution and reading; (x) manager of students' hall. The vice-principal is also principal of the practice school.

The central motive of the normal school is to prepare candidates for vacant positions as teachers in Cook County. The conditions of graduation are: "(1) Attendance for one year (forty weeks) on the professional training class; (2) satisfactory evidence of a high appreciation of the duties, responsibilities, and possibilities of the teacher's profession; (3) sufficient knowledge and skill to warrant the beginning of the work of teaching; (4) ability to control, govern, and teach a school fairly well; (5) a knowledge of the principles of education sufficient to guide the candidate to the discovery of right methods; (6) a love for children and a devotion to the work of teaching; (7) tact to adapt one's self to the circumstances and at the same time courage enough to cling to a growing ideal of the teacher's functions; (8) a close, earnest, indefatigable study of the science of education and of the subjects taught. A habit of preparing very carefully every lesson and all other work; (9) good health and an excellent character."

Graduates of a university, a college, or an accredited high school are admitted to the professional training class; also teachers of three years' successful experience holding first-grade certificates.

Ideally [says Colonel Parker] a pupil should enter the training class equipped with knowledge and skill sufficient to begin the work of learning how to teach. They should also have the mental power to study economically the laws of the mind and the principles of mental growth. Long experience has fully demonstrated that *very few graduates, if any, of a four years' high-school course have this requisite knowledge, skill, or power.* Four years' course in a good college should supplement the high-school course before a student enters upon professional training. It is far preferable to have a college course without professional training than to have only a high-school course with professional training. The true requirements should be a college course and professional training. But the standard of admission to a normal school is governed by circumstances which do not admit of an ideal standard. *When a majority of candidates for positions as teachers attain their purpose by two years in a high school and an examination it is obvious that an ideal standard of admission to professional training would close the doors of every normal school.*

The legitimate studies and work of a normal school, according to Colonel Parker, are the history of education, psychology, pedagogics or the science of education, pedagogy or the art of teaching, and practice teaching. "Theoretically it is much to be preferred that a good knowledge of the science of education should be gained before a candidate enters upon the functions of his office, but, when there is such short time for preparation and there is also a failure of mental power to grasp the principles of education, apparently the only feasible plan to pursue is to use the most efficient means to arouse a strong desire to know these principles. This is done by practice teaching."

Unprepared, desultory, fragmentary teaching in practice schools is considered to be worse than worthless to the pupils taught and profitless to the pupil teachers; consequently the school endeavors to make the practice work of great profit to the pupils taught, as well as the best possible means on the part of the pupil teachers of learning to teach. The practice school is a regular public school, belonging to and supported by the city of Chicago. It embraces the usual eight grades of a public school and is divided, for the practice teaching, into groups of pupils, from six to eight in each group. Two groups are made into a section, and two sections form a division. Each group, each section, and each division has a leader, chosen from the training class by the critic teachers. There is a regular line of promotion, measured entirely by skill in teaching, from the lowest assistant of a group to the highest assistant; from assistant to group leader, then to section leader, division leader, and lastly to special assistant in a room. The time of practice teaching is one hour each day. The primary grades have three lessons in the hour of twenty minutes each; the grammar grades have two lessons of thirty minutes each; thus when there are 40 groups, 100 different

pupil teachers can give lessons during the practice hour. The reasons given for this arrangement of groups are that the teaching of small classes is better adapted to the abilities of novices, that pupil teachers have more practice in teaching than by any other plan, and that pupils receive more individual attention.

Every third week the group leaders are moved up one group, and by this plan the successful members of the training class teach in all grades during the year. Each of the rooms of the practice school is under the direct charge of a critic teacher. The critic teachers are chosen for their knowledge and skill as teachers of their respective grades, and for their ability to teach and train pupil teachers. Each regular member of the faculty has the general supervision of the work done in the practice school in the subject which that member teaches.

The professional training class works in three divisions. The first division consists of pupils who require least help from their teachers. The third division requires the most help. Whenever a pupil of the second or third division is capable of doing the work of his division he is promoted. If a pupil of the first or second division fails hopelessly, he is demoted. When one gives evidence of incapability for the work of a teacher he is advised to withdraw.

The three divisions of this class are divided into eleven working committees each, with a chairman and vice-chairman, and to each committee is assigned by its chairman some special work, such as the preparation of maps or the construction of illustrative apparatus.¹

NEW YORK COLLEGE FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The normal school in its latest and highest development may be most profitably studied in connection with the New York College for the Training of Teachers, which was chartered by the board of regents of the University of the State of New York in January, 1889. Unlike many so-called normal schools, normal colleges, and normal universities, its name strictly defines its purposes and fixes its rank. It does not propose a scheme of universal education, but simply to train for the profession of teaching those who have obtained elsewhere the elements of a liberal education. It is not a school. It is not a university. It is strictly a college; and a plan is now perfected by which it will become to all intents and purposes a department of Columbia College, under the control of Columbia College, under the control of the faculty of philosophy of that university. At the very outset the founders expressed their intention to establish a purely professional school (not a normal school "in the usual sense of that term"), in which the elements of a secondary education were not to be taught, but to be required of candidates for admission. A similar requirement is the condition of admission, at least on paper, to most of the State normal schools, but is seldom strictly enforced. Indeed, to have insisted on this password would in bygone days have closed the doors against almost every applicant, and even at present such a preliminary would prevent a large majority of those who are most in need of normal training from crossing the threshold. But while excluding secondary education as such, the New York College offers a very wide range of professional instruction—the kindergarten, the primary school, the high school, manual training, physical training, music, domestic economy, form and construction, physical and natural science, language and literature, English and Latin, as well as psychology, philosophy, and history of education, and organization of schools. It seems to have taken its motto from Terence—the reader will excuse the hackneyed quotation—"humani nihil a me alienum puto."

The history of the development of this college is extremely interesting. An association of philanthropic ladies and gentlemen of New York City had been formed in

¹ Reports of the Cook County Board of Education and the Principal of Cook County Normal School for 1890.

1885 to promote industrial education. The work of this body grew rapidly, and in 1887 it found itself unable, through lack of means and trained teachers, to answer all the demands made upon it. At this juncture the association, known as the Industrial Education Association, invited Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, then as now professor of philosophy and pedagogy in Columbia College, to become its president. He accepted the position and began at once to organize the work so as to carry out two plans that he had long cherished—one to put the steadily growing manual-training movement upon a strictly educational basis, the other to found an institution of high grade for the professional training of teachers. The New York College for the Training of Teachers was then founded by him, and his plans were accepted by the Industrial Education Association, which thereupon dissolved, some of its members becoming trustees of the new institution. At first its means were small and its quarters cramped, and it devoted itself largely to preparing competent teachers of the several manual-training subjects. The college rapidly won the confidence of the community and of the country, and large sums of money were raised for its support and development. In two years (January 12, 1889) it was able to meet the conditions imposed by the regents of the University of the State of New York, and obtained from them a formal charter. In 1890 Dr. Butler, having accomplished the task that he had set before himself, resigned the presidency of the college in order to devote himself exclusively to the work of his Columbia professorship.

The students cover a wide geographical range. The register for 1892 contains the names of students from eighteen States, from Canada and from South America.

The habitat of the college at present is No. 9 University place, New York, formerly the location of the Union Theological Seminary; but it has already outgrown its environment, and a new site has been obtained, the gift of Mr. George W. Vanderbilt, twenty-one city lots on block bounded by One hundred and twentieth street, One hundred and twenty-first street, Amsterdam avenue and the Boulevard, opposite the location chosen for the new buildings of Columbia College. One hundred and fifty thousand dollars are in hand for the promotion of this enterprise, \$80,000 pledged, and New York is asked for \$450,000 more, which will doubtless be forthcoming in good time.

The public-spirited men and women who have founded and sustained this college are planning to make it yet stronger and better. * * * In the art of large giving which men and women of wealth are coming more and more to exemplify, there has been no lack of diversified experiment, from which experiment two principles, among others, have clearly emerged: First, that no form of beneficence can outrank gifts for education, for education does much to abolish the opportunity for charity, while it increases the quantity and refines the quality of life; second, that it is well to give to some educational agency with initiative in it, something which by virtue of new excellence will be widely imitated, either in generous emulation or through simple competitive sagacity. The college for training teachers has already had an influence for good on the public education of this city, State, and country. Its influence will grow in direct proportion as its faculty is increased and strengthened.¹

Candidates for admission must be at least 18 years of age, must present a certificate of good moral character, and pass an examination in the following subjects unless exempted from examination under rules given below.

ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS.

English language and literature.—Grammar, analysis and the writing of a composition correct in spelling, punctuation, expression, and division by paragraphs. In 1892 the subjects for composition were taken from Shakespeare's *As You Like It*, Longfellow's *Courtship of Miles Standish*, Irving's *Alhambra*, Addison's *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers*.

¹ From the New York Evening Post, April, 1892.

Mathematics.—Arithmetic, including the metric system of weights and measures, plane geometry, five books of Davies' Legendre or Wentworth's Geometry, algebra as far as quadratic equations.

Geography.—Physical and political geography, especially that of the continents of North America and Europe.

History.—General history, so much as is contained in Swinton's Outlines; United States history, so much as is contained in Johnston's History of the United States.

Physiology and hygiene.—An elementary knowledge, such as is given by any of the school text-books ordinarily used.

Drawing is not insisted on, but it is considered desirable that candidates should be able to draw intelligently a group of models and possess a general knowledge of the principles of construction and design.

Graduates of colleges and scientific schools in good standing are admitted without examination; also graduates of high schools and academies in the curriculum of which all the subjects of the entrance examination are included; and candidates who hold a college entrance certificate given by the regents of the University of the State of New York.

Students of both sexes are received on equal footing.

Departments.—The following departments are now in operation (1892):

I. Department of the history and institutes of education.

II. Department of the science and art of teaching.

III. Department of natural science.

IV. Department of mechanic arts.

V. Department of vocal music.

VI. Department of form study and drawing.

VII. Department of physical culture.

VIII. Department of domestic economy.

IX. School of observation and practice.

I. The department of the history and institutes of education offers six courses, of which the first and third are required of all students.

Course 1.—Elements of psychology, two periods each week. James's Briefer Course is used as a text-book; but the class is led to base conclusions upon the Baconian system of observation and experiment rather than upon the use of books.

Course 2.—Devoted to advanced psychology and pedagogy, two periods each week. The aim of this course is to enable students to deal with children as individuals, by the application of psychologic principles, and by simple experiments in attention, association, imagination, and discrimination.

Course 3.—Two periods each week for half a year. Studies the principles of education in the light of their development. The text-book is Quick's Educational Reformers, but references are made to works on the history of education, systematic pedagogy, general history, and periodical literature.

Course 4.—One period each week. Takes up the principles of education on the basis of Rosenkranz's Philosophy of Education and Rosmini's Method in Education, with discussions of special topics in pedagogy and psychology.

Course 5.—Two periods each week. Is occupied with the history of educational institutions, theories, methods, and individual educational leaders, with critical reading of educational classics.

Course 6.—Gives a briefer course of elements of psychology. This is a Saturday class, and gives an opportunity to teachers who are engaged in the active duties of their profession during the week to renew and extend their theoretical studies in educational psychology. In this connection opportunity is afforded to advanced students to meet for one hour each week the professors of the department, members of the faculty, instructors and resident alumni for reviews of current literature and discussion of educational topics. The subjects discussed during the year 1891-92 related to the moral development and training of children.

II. In the department of the science and art of teaching there are eight courses, which, however, are not mutually exclusive. The first and third are required of all students; the second and fourth of all who are candidates for a diploma. The work of this department is closely related to that of the preceding, inasmuch as it makes a practical application of the philosophical principles therein formulated, and shows the connection between theory and practice. Observation and practice at every step in the work of the college accompany theoretical instruction. School organization, gradation and classification, courses of school study, and the preparation of programmes belong to this department.

Course 1.—Two periods each week. Methods of teaching language, number, and geography; elementary course.

Course 2.—Two periods each week. Methods of teaching literature, geometry, and history; advanced course.

Course 3.—One period each week. Principles of teaching with special reference to the application of the psychology of the feelings and the will to school organization and discipline.

Course 4.—Five periods each week. Practice teaching.

Course 5.—A Saturday class. Methods of teaching; briefer course.

Course 6.—A Saturday class, for half the school year. Methods of teaching literature in secondary schools; study of typical authors, with discussions of methods, devices, and values.

Course 7.—A Saturday class, for half a year. Methods of teaching history in secondary schools; discussion of civil government, practical economics, and the concrete study of social problems in their relation to the work of the schools.

Course 8.—A Saturday class. Methods of teaching Latin; critical reading of typical passages from Latin authors; the essentials of etymology and syntax; prose composition and Latin rhetoric; methods in elementary work.

III. In the department of natural science the major course aims to prepare students to become—

(1) Teachers of science in State and city normal schools.

(2) Teachers of science in high schools and academies.

(3) Supervisors of elementary science instruction in all grades of public schools. Candidates for admission must show an ability to comprehend, without instruction from the college, the elements of chemistry, physics, physiology, zoology, botany, and geology, so far as they can properly be taught in the common schools. Mere text-book knowledge is not sufficient. Some reputable laboratory work showing an ability to acquire knowledge at first hand is necessary to admission.

Some of the practical problems on which students labor in this department are these: How shall science be taught in public schools where the appropriation for equipment is insufficient; how to manage where there is no laboratory and everything has to be done in the ordinary class room; how pupils in large city schools may be brought into contact with nature; how to manage the details of a laboratory; how to make experiments educative and not simply a diversion; how to reconcile an inflexible prescribed course of study with gratuitous information and illustrative experiments.

The head of the department and his assistants give the entire instruction in science in the school of observation and practice in the presence of the college students. Major students in this department observe this teaching at least nine periods a week during the year, making a selection, after consultation with the head of the department, from the following programme:

Chemistry, twice a week, each lesson eighty minutes.

Physics, twice a week, each lesson eighty-five minutes.

Zoology and physiology, twice a week, each lesson eighty-five minutes.

Botany and geology, twice a week, each lesson eighty-five minutes.

Nature lessons, in lower grades, once a week, each lesson thirty-five minutes.

A lecture on methods of teaching science is given once a week. Special instruction in the art of experimenting and in the construction of home-made apparatus is given once a week, and two periods a week in individual laboratory practice are required from every student in this course. A major course in science thus includes fourteen periods a week for one year, and a few weeks of practice teaching in the second year.

A minor course in science is arranged for students who desire a side light for courses in other departments of the college, or who seek preparation to teach some one science or to give object lessons in connection with the work of elementary schools. It consists of selections from the work offered in the major course.

On Saturdays, from October to Easter, a lecture on methods of teaching natural science is given to teachers of New York City and the vicinity.

IV. The department of mechanic arts offers seven courses:

Course 1.—Four periods a week of eighty-five minutes each. A course in mechanical drawing designed for students who desire a practical knowledge of drawing and for those who intend to teach drawing in grammar and high schools.

Course 2.—Two periods a week. Mechanical drawing; in advanced courses.

Course 3.—Four to ten periods a week. In woodworking; (a) a course in mechanical drawing and woodworking for elementary schools which can be performed in the ordinary schoolroom at any school desk; and (b) a course of joinery and elementary wood carving suitable for grammar and high schools.

Course 4.—Four to eight periods a week. An advanced course involving joinery, carving, turning, and pattern making.

Course 5.—A Saturday class for teachers who can not attend the regular classes; an abridgment of course 3.

Course 6.—Two periods a week. Given to the construction of simple apparatus for scientific experiments.

Course 7.—Four periods a week. Wood carving; a study in wood of some typical ancient and modern relief designs.

A conference of instructors and students in this department is held once a week to discuss important questions relating to drawing and manual training.

V. In the department of vocal music the tonic sol-fa system is employed as a means of training and developing the musical powers of the student, and also as the best medium for leading to an intelligent understanding of the staff notation. Two periods a week for one year are devoted to this study.

VI. The department of form study and drawing comprises a systematic course of study in the models and type forms given to children in the three years of the primary school, modeling in clay, elementary decoration in the arrangement of simple geometric figures, cutting these figures from colored paper and pasting them, studies belonging to the kindergarten and primary schools especially, but useful as a foundation for more advanced teaching. Students who desire to become special teachers of form should be able on entering the college to pass an examination in free-hand drawing and light and shade.

The advanced course in this department embraces constructive drawing, patterns of typical solids, decorative drawing; conventional plant forms, drawing in charcoal, examples of ornaments in water colors, study of the schools of historic ornament, and principles of design. Throughout the course it is steadily kept in view that the purpose is not to make artists, but to train students to become teachers of drawing. The time devoted to this work is four periods a week for one year.

VIII. The department of domestic economy is maintained as a part of the manual-training system of the college. The major course covers two years, the first year being devoted to psychology and methods of teaching (six periods a week), and chemistry and physiology with laboratory work (twelve periods a week). The second year gives four periods a week to physics and household hygiene, and fifteen periods a week to cooking, sewing, and practice teaching.

It will be noticed that the same professional training is given in this department as in other departments of the college. After attending lectures on psychology and methods of teaching, the student in the second year teaches classes in the model school, under the supervision of the professor of science and art of teaching, before teaching classes in cooking and sewing. By the study of physics and chemistry in connection with domestic economy the student acquires habits of close observation and careful experimenting and learns how to apply scientific methods to kitchen work. The course of six periods a week for one year includes practice in all branches of cookery; but more attention is given to economical and wholesome cooking than to the preparation of elaborate dishes. Students learn to operate with coal, gasoline, and kerosene, as well as with gas. In all the processes the aim is to study the conditions and learn to control them until uniform results are obtained.

Two periods a week are given to sewing—instructions in plain hand sewing, making patterns, study of textile fabrics and their manufacture, observation of sewing lessons given by an expert teacher, and practice teaching.

An elementary course in cooking or sewing may be elected by regular students who desire to equip themselves as broadly as possible for general school work.

IX. The Horace Mann School is related to the New York College for the Training of Teachers as its school of observation and practice. In this department every stage in the school life of a child, from the kindergarten through the high school, is represented, and the complete curriculum may be studied as one organic whole. The proper adaptation and adjustment of the school of theory to the school of practice has long been felt to be the crucial task in the arrangement of the normal-school curriculum. So difficult has been this problem that some schools have never attempted the solution; some have made the attempt and have abandoned it; some have accomplished the feat—on paper; some have established a school of practice without observation, and some a school of observation without practice; while some are still conscientiously struggling with the experiment, and realizing that the "school of observation and practice" is like a loose tooth, more noticed for the pain it creates than for the service it renders. The New York College seems to have succeeded in solving the difficult problem. It has reversed the usual conditions, and in place of instruction with incidental training, it gives training with incidental instruction. In many normal schools, though the number is growing smaller, the students consider every hour not given to class recitations as so much time lost; but in schools like the New York College the time given to observation and practical teaching is felt to be all gain.

Students receive their practical training in the several grades of the Horace Mann School—the kindergarten, the intermediate school, the grammar school, and the high school. None are admitted to the kindergarten except such as present a high-school certificate, or its equivalent, or pass the entrance examination to the college. The course covers two years, and includes the theory of Froebel's system, psychology, kindergarten gifts and occupations, songs and games, vocal music by the tonic sol-fa method, form study and drawing, clay modeling and color, physical culture, and practice teaching.

Degrees.—It was formerly intended that the full course of the college should lead up to the degree of bachelor of pedagogy, but this degree has never been given by the college, and, under the conditions on which Columbia takes charge of it, probably never will be. The college diploma is conferred upon such students as have completed a course of study covering two years, as follows:

Required:	Periods.
Department of history and institutes of education	8
Department of science and art of teaching	11
Department of kindergarten, Course I	2
Department of form study and drawing, Course I	1
Department of physical training	4

Elective:

A major course or minor courses.

The college certificate is conferred upon such qualified candidates as have completed a course of study covering one year, as follows :

Required:	Periods.
Department of history and institutes of education.....	4
Department of science and art of teaching.....	2
Department of physical culture.....	2
Elective:	
In any department a major course together with such minor courses as will suffice to make up the required amount of work.....	14
Total	22

In the session of 1891-92 there were in attendance 119 regular students and 96 special, with 264 pupils in the school of observation and practice. For their instruction and government there were 11 professors, 2 lecturers, and 21 instructors and other officers.¹

The New York College for the Training of Teachers (says the New York Evening Post, in April, 1892) is not to be considered as an individual institution whose chief influence is confined to its own students and to the schools that these students enter as teachers, although it has already drawn its students from 18 States, and numbers among them both experienced teachers and graduates of colleges. This college is to be regarded as a type, an object lesson, and an experiment station. There are not lacking evidences that by its aggressive work it has helped to elevate standards in many quarters and to stimulate and guide the progress of educational reform.

Applying the principle of extension, the college has organized classes for the study of the kindergarten system in New York and in neighboring cities and towns and has sent specialists in manual training to numerous schools in the vicinity, so that more than 2,000 pupils are now under this instruction in 17 places within 50 miles of this city. By this means and through correspondence and independent investigation, the principles and methods of the college are being diffused over the country. The interest and approbation with which its development is watched by eminent educators are signified by the strongest testimony from the highest sources.²

IX.

PRIVATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1888-89, page 961, contains the statistics of 46 private normal schools, distributed as follows:

Arkansas, California, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, West Virginia, each 1.....	11
Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Nebraska, North Carolina, Wisconsin, each 2.....	12
Mississippi, South Carolina, each 3.....	6
Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, each 4.....	12
Iowa.....	5
Total	46

Several of these have already been noticed in these pages under the caption of "Colored Normal Schools."

The number of normal students, "pupils in the science and art of teaching," is given in the report as 4,487, and it is to be noted that about half of these are found in two schools, one in Indiana and the other in Iowa.

Of the 46 schools, 20 report no graduates for the year 1888-89; the remaining 26 report 315 graduates. The number of graduates for that year is, therefore, 7 per

¹ New York College for the Training of Teachers, Circular of Information, 1892-93. Personal observation.

² New York Tribune, April 17, 1892.

cent of the whole number of students in attendance, or, rather, the whole number enrolled.

One of these schools was opened in 1833; 5 between 1865 and 1869 (both inclusive); 16 between 1870 and 1879, and 24 between 1880 and 1888.

The most prominent must be regarded simply as business enterprises, and not as normal schools properly so called. They propose to fill a known want; they are conducted on business principles, and should be judged by business standards. They receive all who apply for admission, and base their claims to public patronage on the ground that they give good value for the money received. A fair idea of their business methods may be obtained from a perusal of their catalogues and circulars. A few specimens are given, the names being withheld for obvious reasons:

A. "Our courses of study are the best arranged and best carried out of any private normal in this country." "They are especially adapted to the preparation of men and women for entering the study of law, medicine, the ministry, and editorial life." "No more desirable location for a school can be found anywhere." "There are many cultivated people who are prejudiced against private normals. This is very natural when we consider the number and character of many schools of this kind." "In making your decision examine courses of study and decide at once against any school that promises to do thirty weeks' work in ten weeks." "The men who have been in the institution since the present management took hold of it are teachers thoroughly prepared for their work in point of scholarship. In no sense were they place hunters. All were successful teachers." "The school is unexcelled in its mathematical, language, philosophical, chemical, and pedagogical departments, as compared with similar institutions. Our students who have attended elsewhere are foremost in their praise of this institution." "If you complete our course you will be well fitted for any position in life." "We have better buildings, better laboratory, and better location than our competitors. Our courses are more thoroughly carried out. We advertise nothing extravagantly. We claim that no normal school in the United States has a stronger course than ours, and that no school can offer as good advantages at so low a price. Students are allowed to enter any of the courses at any place, with the understanding that they are liable to be put back if the faculty decides they are not qualified to go on. We say come, and if, after you have given us a trial, you don't like the school, you shall have your money."

This school has 13 teachers in addition to the president, and advertises a preparatory course, a teachers' course, one year; a scientific course, two years; a classical course, three years; with a musical department, a commercial department, a fine-art department, and a phonographic department. The number of students is between 400 and 500.

B. "The location is one of the best in the United States." "No place could be found anywhere better suited for being the seat of a flourishing school than 'B.'" "It is noted for its remarkably healthy climate. During all the history of the school there have been but two deaths among the students. Many who come here weak and sickly go away strong and well." "The building is not surpassed by any normal school in the West." "An education can be secured here in three years which will better fit a student for success in life than is generally received from colleges in six years." "The teachers' course as presented in this school is one of the most complete courses of study offered by any school." "Not only does this course prepare teachers for their great work, but it gives all who take it such thorough and practical training in the various branches, such honesty, genuineness, and individuality in his [sic] work, such strength and force of character, and such mental discipline as will enable him to take up any line and pursue it successfully." "Those completing this course in a satisfactory manner will be awarded a handsome diploma." "The faculty are all specially qualified for their distinctive lines of work. They are known to be ladies and gentlemen of the highest moral character." "Pupils are

admitted to the school without examination and take any classes that they feel able to take." "Its name and influence is always a great aid to its students for securing good paying positions."

This school offers a preparatory course, a teachers' course, a scientific course, a classical course, a business course, and a shorthand and typewriting course. There are 9 teachers, with an enrollment of about 250 students. The school has changed proprietors five times in ten years.

C is a stupendous institution and counts its annual enrollment by the thousand. "It is practical and meets the demands of the times." "It is the best established, most widely known independent normal school in the West." "Its reputation is sufficient to secure ready employment for its graduates, and more students of 'C' are filling responsible positions than from any other." "The expenses at this school are less than at most schools." "We do as good work in every way as schools that charge twice and thrice as much, and incomparably more than most schools whose expenses are about the same." "Our graduates have made from \$4,000 to \$12,000 in the length of time that would have elapsed after they had completed the work here and before they had completed the same work in other colleges that do their work more slowly, but not more thoroughly than ours."

"No examinations are required for admission to any course or department in the college." "You can come at any time and find just such classes as you desire."

"We have the following well-equipped departments with an excellent faculty for each department: Classical, scientific, normal, common school, teachers' professional, review, elocutionary, civil engineering, business, pen art, phonographic, telegraphic, musical (piano, voice, organ, including pipe organ, guitar, violin, band, and orchestra), art, physical training. The members of the faculty are specialists in their respective departments."

"You can make no mistake by attending 'C.' If not as represented in this announcement, money will be refunded." "Don't pay extravagant school bills, but come to the cheapest, best school in the country." "Our students almost invariably leave school in better health than when they enter."

D. "'D' is the best place to obtain an education. Every year it grows better. Its methods are the best; its instructors are experienced, cultured, and successful; its expenses are as low as is consistent with proper living and instruction." "Now is the accepted time. The 'D' school offers a rare chance to obtain an excellent education. The time and money will be well spent, and we guarantee that you can not find elsewhere better inducements." "Only teachers of ability and successful experience are employed. We confidently assert that no similar institution can furnish instruction superior to that afforded by 'D.' We know that our methods are the best, the most conformable to the fundamental laws of education, and hence the most successful that can be employed."

"We advertise nothing that we do not have." [The italics are in the original.]

"D' invites all classes of pupils. Teachers, pupils from the common schools, young men and women preparing for business pursuits, or wishing to acquire a musical education, high-school graduates—all classes attend the normal at 'D,' and find work suited to their needs. No young man or woman, however backward in his studies, need feel any hesitation in enrolling among its pupils, as it adapts its work in the common branches largely to that class of students."

"No examinations are required to enter, 'D.' Students upon entering will be assigned rank in the course they wish to pursue, according to previous preparation. Our work is so arranged that those entering in the middle of a term can find just such classes as they desire."

'D' has five teachers besides the principal. In the "literary department" it presents three courses—preparatory, teachers' advanced, and scientific. The following is the curriculum of the teachers' advanced course:

First term.—Natural philosophy, algebra, didactics, zoology, rhetoric, elocution.

Second term.—Natural philosophy, algebra, history of education, general history, elocution, rhetoric, and composition.

Third term.—General history, algebra, mental philosophy, plane geometry, vocal music.

Fourth term.—Botany, algebra, English and American literature, didactics, oration.

Ten weeks constitute a term.

E. "Our facilities are the very best, and our rates defy competition." "In any case where pupils hesitate about coming to us on the ground that they are not sufficiently well advanced, we would like to say that such persons will be more highly benefited than others. The majority of our young people are of moderate scholarship. All pupils of whatever grade can be accommodated." "The school employs only the best men and women as teachers in every department." "The classes are so arranged that students who may not be able to complete a full course in any department may enter at any time, study what is most desirable, and get full credit for what they accomplish." "Pupils can enter at any time with the assurance of finding classes suited to their needs."

"The managers of teachers' agencies tell us repeatedly that they can locate our graduates and undergraduates with much less difficulty than pupils from other sections." "Our graduates and undergraduates have passed the severest tests and always with the highest credit. They have met in closest competition the representatives of the best schools for positions in all walks of life, and have invariably sustained themselves. So true is this that the fact has become widely known, and the demand upon us for trained teachers is much greater than we can meet. Our best pupils are everywhere commanding higher salaries than others for the same grade of work."

"The young people trained in 'E' secure their positions more readily and give much better satisfaction than those trained in other sections."

"Teachers' course."—Ten weeks, arithmetic, geography, English grammar, theory and practice, spelling; ten weeks, physiology, mental science, history, theory and practice, penmanship."

The number of students registered in this course (catalogue of 1887) is 152.

The other courses and departments advertised are preparatory, engineering, commercial, music, scientific, elocution, and classic. The number of teachers is 12.

F is a "County normal school;" that is, an educational enterprise on business principles, having close relations with the school administration of the county. It was opened in 1870, and in 1892 had 318 pupils, of whom 248 were "normal," 56 in the high school, and 14 preparatory. The normal course extends through two years. The high school covers four. The normal studies of the first year are arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, reading, spelling, and physiology; art of school management, algebra, civil government, bookkeeping, Latin (elective), Shakespeare. The additional studies in the second year are geometry, literature, rhetoric, natural philosophy, botany, and mental philosophy.

"Before the establishment of this school many parents who wished to educate their children and who were not able to send them to college or State normal schools were compelled to keep them at home and confine their education to the narrow limits the district school then afforded. But this institution now offers them the same advantages as the State normal schools, with only half the expense. The teachers who have gone forth from this school have rendered universal satisfaction, and they have won for themselves and for the school at which they received their training a flattering reputation. Our teachers are in demand and are commanding the best positions and highest salaries paid in the county. The school boards in a number of townships have paid the school the high compliment of refusing to hire any teachers but those it has prepared. During the past year [1892] every township

was represented, in the school, and more than three-fourths of the whole number of teachers in the county were in attendance. This class [class in theory and practice of teaching] is under the supervision of the county superintendent, who is careful to make his instruction so effectual that the number of failures in our common schools may be brought down to the lowest number possible. Connected with the normal school is a model school of 50 pupils. Students are required to teach and criticise in this department until they are perfectly familiar with the best methods of teaching primary schools."

F is one of the youngest of the "independent normals." It is a "normal university." It presents a full assortment of courses, schools, and colleges, some in present, some in futuro—a preparatory school, a school of elocution, a school of fine arts, a school of music, a school of phonography and typewriting, a school of telegraphy, a college of teachers, a college of science, a college of literature or modern languages, a college of philosophy, a college of liberal arts, a college of business, a college of engineering and surveying, and colleges of law and medicine. The object of the college of teachers is to prepare young men and women thoroughly and speedily to teach a country school and all classes of a graded school up to the high school, and to pass the requisite county examinations for a certificate. The time required for this preparation is "two or three terms of eight weeks each." We learn from the catalogue (1890) that "F" "is authorized by law to issue diplomas and confer degrees usually conferred by educational institutions;" that it does not "depend on examinations, quarterly or annual, as giving any desirable or healthy stimulus to vigorous effort; that "here there is nothing to attract the attention from his work, and [he] has no less than twelve hours a day to devote to study," and that "all the teachers employed are of recognized ability."

The following gives the courses of study in probably the largest independent normal school in the United States. It will be noticed that the normal course proper occupies but one year of forty-eight weeks: