

IMPRESSIONS OF
AMERICAN EDUCATION
IN 1908

SARA A. BURSTALL

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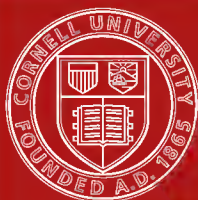
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IMPRESSIONS OF AMERICAN
EDUCATION IN 1908

BY THE SAME AUTHOR

**ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOLS
FOR GIRLS**

THEIR AIMS, ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT

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IMPRESSIONS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION IN 1908

BY

SARA A. BURSTALL, M.A.

HEAD MISTRESS, MANCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS
AND LECTURER IN EDUCATION IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER
MEMBER OF THE MANCHESTER CITY COUNCIL EDUCATION COMMITTEE
SOMETIME SCHOLAR OF GIRTON COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE
AUTHOR OF "ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS"

"Methinks I see in my mind a noble and puissant nation . . .
entering the glorious ways of truth . . ."

Areopagitica.

LONGMANS, GREEN AND CO.
39 PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON
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TO

MISS MARGARET GASKELL

AND

SIR EDWARD DONNER

FOUNDERS AND GOVERNORS OF THE MANCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL

SINCE ITS BEGINNING IN 1873

P R E F A C E.

THESE personal impressions are not put forth without some diffidence, even some fear: they must needs be so inadequate to their subject. But they have at least the merit of sincerity, of affectionate respect and admiration for the great nation whose achievements and whose power England regards with that pride of family which makes the actions of all English-speaking peoples matter of high moment to ourselves. We must needs understand their ways; if we cannot solve our problems alone, we turn to their solutions as for us the most suggestive.

For the opportunity of making these studies I would thank most heartily the Governors of the Manchester High School who gave me last winter a term's leave of absence; I am also very grateful to Sir William Mather, LL.D., and to Dr. Parkin of the Rhodes Trust, for their valuable advice and help in arranging my tour. To Professor Michael E. Sadler of our own Manchester University I owe more than I can well express for the guidance and opportunities he has given me throughout the whole

work, in direction, in letters of introduction, and in the planning of the chapters following. I have to thank Mr. Thiselton Mark, also of our University, for suggestive criticism.

Most of all am I grateful to those many teachers in America itself who showed me so much, and whose unfailing sympathy, co-operation, and hospitality alone made it possible for me to learn what little I have gathered. There is indeed a brotherhood in our profession, like the time-honoured brotherhood of arms. I cannot name individually all to whom I am indebted, but to some of the distinguished leaders of American education who gave me of their precious time and thought I would pay an individual tribute to President Van Hise and other officials of the University of Wisconsin; Dr. Woodward of St. Louis; Commissioner E. E. Brown of the Bureau of Education, Washington; Dr. James Macalister, Philadelphia; President Eliot of Harvard; Mr. James P. Munroe of the Mass. Institute of Technology, Boston; and to President Nicholas Murray Butler, and his colleagues in Teachers' College, of Columbia University, New York. If there be any truth in the conclusions I seek to express in the following pages, it is in great measure due to what I learnt from such as these.

MANCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL,
26th November, 1908.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

Education is the key of the future.—CHAS. W. ELIOT.

THERE is no country in the world so helpful to a student or worker in English education as is America ; no country where, for most of us English teachers, a period of observation and of investigation may so profitably and pleasantly be spent, as in that wonderful, brilliant, wealthy and welcoming land across the Atlantic whose ways and whose history are so like, and yet so unlike, our own. The common language is as a veil that, while it reveals much resembling our own system, obscures profound differences of plan and principle, of form and feeling. The common origin of laws and institutions, of social custom and scholastic tradition, has not entailed a likeness in educational development ; nay, rather has the course of their educational evolution been extraordinarily different from ours, influenced by the ideas and the methods of alien countries, as well as by the needs of a different social order. Furthermore, the state of things to-day, while it presents, in school or college, superficial resemblances in phraseology and phenomena, is yet deeply separated in its aims and its methods, its dangers and its excellencies from ours.

Yet in America the same problems are to be found as those with which we have to grapple here in England, whether as teachers or administrators ; these problems, however, assume other forms, and are called by other names. Again, though the American man and the American woman, not to say the American boy and the American

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girl, are quite unlike the corresponding English varieties, yet there is a certain common element—be it racial or not—which to a sympathetic English observer makes their educational systems and devices abound in illuminating and pregnant suggestion.

Thus is it that American education is to a teacher the most fascinating and difficult of professional studies; inspiring and provocative by its confidence, its stimulus, and its apparent ease; evasive and elusive when one seeks to come to grips with it; full of ideas, warnings, experiments; brilliant yet disappointing; practical yet academic; fitted to worldly needs, yet indwelt by a living faith in learning; elaborate and organised, yet uniform and simple where English education is most varied and complex; related to national life, expressive of national ideas as all education must be, yet with its officers and exponents set apart like a priestly caste, so that what is true of them is not true of Americans generally; presenting paradoxes and enigmas at every turn: it becomes more and more difficult to understand and elucidate the more it is studied and explored.

Nevertheless the student is impelled to formulate the impressions which his experiences have left on the mind; to develop the mental photographic record that the passing days and hours have printed on the sensitive psychic surface unrolled daily and hourly in visits and interviews, in discussion and observation. Such pictures must be incomplete and partial, perhaps even distorted and confused. The lens of no man's mind is achromatic; to few is given the dry light that Bacon desired; to still fewer the power to develop and fix correctly and accurately the images and records the past has made. The memoranda the traveller's kodak has retained are a poor substitute for the majesty of Niagara or the splendour of the Hudson Valley at sunset; but we take them, and we keep

them, poor though they be, if only as a memory and an indication of distant beauty and joy.

One might think that the difficulty of this problem, the study of American education, would be largely increased through the enormous size of the country, its contrasts of climate, settlers, social conditions, even of laws and beliefs. Here is a vast population of eighty millions, heterogeneous in race and origin, spread over sixty degrees of longitude from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and occupying regions varying in climate and productions through a wide range of types, from the tropical luxuriance of New Orleans to the northern pine forests of Maine or Oregon. But this physical amplitude and geographic variety in man and his environment do not add as much as one might expect to the difficulties of the educational student. First, it must be said that many districts, though, considering their conditions they do much for their schools and even for their colleges, do not present to the English observer material for study and inquiry of a very valuable or inspiring kind. Americans themselves would admit that the more typical and helpful areas to the student are the Eastern States from Massachusetts to Maryland, the great Middle West from the Alleghanies to the Missouri, which centres commercially in Chicago, and the Californian slope. In these areas a student may learn all that is most significant, true and admirable in the American educational system. Some would even say that Massachusetts, New York, Philadelphia, with some study of the Ohio region, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, the Chicago sphere of influence, and St. Louis would suffice. The Middle West is said to be the real America of the future ; there it is that the State university, the public co-educational high school, the accrediting system, and, socially, homogeneity of classes and ideals are the characteristic phenomena. There, too, the European influences which affect the Eastern cities do not penetrate.

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The East, however, still preserves its intellectual leadership; the influence of New England, so deep and far-reaching in the education of the past, still continues, while New York City challenges Boston's claim to be the intellectual focus of national life, especially since the recent development of Columbia University, and the concentration of much of the first literary and artistic ability in America in this her greatest centre of population.

It was once said that the United States had no capital, such as London or Paris. But under modern conditions New York is assuming something of the characteristics of both these European centres; but with a mien and air, a repellent fascination, a vivid yet devouring splendour that are all her own. There is no city in the world like her; there is perhaps none where the ways of wisdom and of death run so closely side by side. Uptown, the great university, rising in the heights above the river, is a symbol of thought and devotion, of scholarship and of service, of whatsoever things are honest, pure, just and lovely; but, like some strange sea creature risen from the ocean at her gates, the city has a double nature, and ends in vulgar horror and degradation.

Chicago, again, challenges the leadership of New York in commerce, art and education; while in some senses not an American city at all, she is in others typical of the new social movements in the Middle West.

Both cities are intense foci of sociological thought and action, generated there to meet the intensity of their social dangers. It is profoundly significant that the Western city should also be the seat of a great university—a university not yet twenty years old, but already ranking beside Columbia and Jena as a centre of educational initiative and power.

But whatever cities or states the English teacher may study he cannot fail to be impressed by the extraordinary

uniformity which is so marked and astonishing a feature in American life—a uniformity which much simplifies his work. There is, for example, more uniformity in the high school history course of study, over an area from Minneapolis to Boston, and from Washington to St. Louis (which takes two days and nights to cross by train), than in the half-dozen secondary schools in the one city of Manchester. This is not a matter of law; it is a matter of common consent, of the voluntary adoption of a history course drawn up by a voluntary representative committee of teachers of history. We in England are much more independent and self-assertive than our American colleagues. We each like our own way of doing things; as English ladies like to dress each in her own style, from our queens downward. The uniformity of the dress of American women and girls, charming and dainty as they are, becomes oppressive after a time to an Englishwoman—as does the uniformity of their school equipment. All the best schools have the same things, which are, it is presumed, the best at that particular time, as is the prevailing hat, or shirt waist, or set of furs.

The causes of this uniformity in education as in other aspects of American life are carefully set forth in Mr. Bryce's great book;¹ they are connected with the central fact, democracy, to which Henry James refers as the *causa causans* of so many phenomena in *The American Scene*. If American education presented anything like the variety and complexity, not to say the confusion and entanglement, of the English system, the study of it would be hopeless—as hopeless as the study of English education has seemed to some competent American observers.

It has been the good fortune of the present writer to spend two periods of educational study in America: one in 1893 as a Gilchrist travelling scholar, half a generation

¹ *The American Commonwealth*, chap. cxii.

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ago, which gave some preliminary outline of the system and some acquaintance with the principles and organisation of American schools and colleges, especially those for girls; the second, in the winter of 1907-8, undertaken as an attempt to discover solutions to English problems of administration and teaching, which have arisen from ten years' experience in Manchester—a democratic and industrial urban community, the seat of a great modern university, and of vigorous and rapidly growing secondary schools.

To any such student special subjects would have an individual interest, according to the subjects with which his own personal work was connected; furthermore, the enormous range of the material for study in the United States makes it impossible for any one individual even to attempt to grapple with all sides of the question. A choice must be made, and this choice is dependent naturally on two considerations, the subjective, dependent on the character of the observer, and the objective, dependent on the condition of American education at the time. The questions dealt with in the following chapters were of special interest and value to a college woman, who was also the head of a large girls' high school, a teacher of history, and a member of a City Council education authority. No study whatever was made of rural education; only cities were visited, and the problems of city organisation, of the relation of schools and colleges, and of the technical education of women and girls were those most vividly present to the observer's mind.

On the other hand, in a country so palpitating with life, among a people so active, daring,¹ and open-minded, there

¹ "There that wonderful and virile democracy, imbued with the courage and tenacity of its forefathers, but fired with an eager and passionate exultation, sprung into being." "From this tempestuous cauldron of human passion and privation a new character, earnest, restless, exuberant, self-confident, emerged" (Lord Curzon on Frontiers, 1908).

must at any given time be certain questions agitating public opinion, arousing keen public interest and discussion in any province of thought for which the nation really cares. Education is of all others such a province for Americans, and year by year there is always some special area in it receiving general public attention. In England newspapers, magazines, editors and publishers know well that to the ordinary Englishman education is a dull subject; he will not read about or talk about it except as a matter of duty or of business. In America it is otherwise, and any student will find certain questions assuming prominence, and becoming thus worthy of particular study at the time of his visit, whenever it be. In the following pages an attempt is made to condense and reflect some of the illumination thrown at present on certain parts of the educational field in the United States.

So it arises both from the character of the observer and of the field that certain chapters here are devoted to particular sections of the subject, which may appeal to others having similar interests. In the present introduction and in the concluding summary an attempt is made at an appreciation of general tendencies and principles in American education, and at an indication of the lessons which England may perhaps do well to learn from the American system. One warning and deprecation must, however, be clearly uttered.

It results from the American custom of periodic concentration on different educational problems, and from the national adaptability and readiness to try new ways and new machinery, that American education is constantly growing and altering; what was true of it a year or so ago is not true to-day. It is not a fixed mould of inorganic matter. It is a living organism, a great world tree, like the Igdrasil of our forefathers, and the Norns of national confidence, universal interest, and public opinion constantly

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water its roots with fresh supplies of ideas and material, so that ever it puts forth new branches and leaves.

No observer, however careful and thorough, could describe American education adequately and completely. By the time he had finished even the outline of his stupendous task, it would have altered so much that the description would be full of errors and out of date. One can only give impressions, and impressions of a specific period after all.

The most vivid and permanent impression stamped on every English student is the extraordinary strength and magnitude of the American belief in education. This is obvious at once to the most careless observer, and it is so strong and so pervasive that the farther one goes in the study of the subject the more important it is seen to be. The Mosely Commission Report of 1903 emphasises this in nearly every article: it is the great lesson England has to learn from the United States. Fifteen years ago it was as fixed as it is to-day; much has changed in the interval, but belief in education is more active than ever. Its action is materialised in the magnificent and stately buildings devoted to schools and colleges of every kind, in their elaborate and costly equipment; it is the cause of the confidence and courage of all educators, and the striking position education occupies in the public regard. There is only one element of our national life with which it can be in any way compared, religion, and its outward expression in organised religious institutions. Education has as good a place in American life as the Churches have in English life; wealth, social prestige, public zeal, intensity of feeling, the self-sacrifice of officers and the loyalty and respect of the rank and file—all these characteristics shown by the one power here, there belong to the other.¹

¹“The school . . . so colossally has its presence still to loom for us—that presence which profits so for predominance in America by the failure

It is this which makes a visit to America so inspiring and strengthening an experience to an English educator. Here we are struggling, against ignorance, prejudice and folly, for what we believe to be a source of national health and well-being too long disregarded. There the princess has come to her own; our lady is honoured and beloved, and, while we learn better how to serve her, we return thence with new confidence and courage to the painful joys, the victorious failures of our own campaign.

of concurrent and competitive presences, the failure of any others living at all on the same scale save that of business, those in particular of a visible Church, a visible State, a visible Society, a visible Past" (Henry James, *The American Scene*, p. 134).

I.

It may be well in the first instance to give some outline of the American educational system for those readers who may not be familiar with the technical terms in use on the other side of the Atlantic. As we have said, these are often used with an entirely different meaning from that they bear here, and the system itself is altogether different from ours, though fortunately simpler, if once the difference is understood between the Federal or United States part of the Government, and the part which belongs to each individual State of the Union. This distinction is always difficult to English people, inasmuch as they have no experience of anything of the kind, and also because in America the sphere of individual State law and State action is very much larger than that covered by the Federal Government, which deals only with departments such as the Army, Navy, Foreign Affairs, Post Office, and any other powers definitely reserved to it by the Constitution. All other affairs rest with the particular States, and among these is education. The United States Government has nothing whatever to do with education, and has no control over it; there is thus nothing corresponding to the English Board of Education at Whitehall, to the system of national inspection by his Majesty's Inspectors, grants from the National Exchequer, or the codes and regulations from the central government, with which English teachers and administrators are now so familiar. The National Bureau of Education at Washington, important and useful as it is, is a mere office for

collecting statistics, and making these known to the public. Each State has its own school laws ; its own plan of School Boards ; its own divisions for administrative purposes, etc. The school law is as a rule not detailed ; it leaves considerable freedom to localities, except that in many States the teaching of hygiene and temperance is compulsory.

Broadly speaking, the uniformity which is characteristic of American life prevails also in education, and the system of one State differs very little, except in detail, from that of another. The schools are managed locally ; each city has its own Board, generally elected *ad hoc*. Rural areas in New England preserve the old town meeting organisation of early English times for local government, and the town meeting is the local authority for education. In some States the county is the unit, but the details of these differences really matter very little. As a rule there is a State Board of Education, which often gives grants to necessitous districts especially for secondary education, and which sometimes provides and governs normal colleges, as in Massachusetts. State universities in the West form part of the public system, but are governed by Regents appointed *ad hoc*. Women tax-payers vote in School Board elections, and as a rule women are eligible to sit on School Boards, but the number of such women is very small and seems to be diminishing. There is no provision as in the English Act of 1902 that the local authority must include women. The really important part of the administrative system in State, county or city is the Superintendent, or Director of Education as we should call him ; a paid executive officer, the servant and agent of the School Board, who organises the system locally, regularly inspects the work of the schools, in some places even appoints the teachers, in all cases meets and instructs them, and is "the living pulse of the machine". This one-man power in a city is very remarkable, and not at all what

English people like, but it may be paralleled by the American Railway President, or other head of a great business corporation. The system has indeed been evolved to meet the educational and political needs and dangers of American administration. The corruption of municipal life in America has in some cases even affected the schools,¹ but there is a very strong and not ineffective public opinion "that the schools must be kept out of politics," and the administrative machinery is often changed to endeavour to secure this end. Recently in Boston the whole system has been remodelled, a Board of five persons has replaced the large one, the idea being that a small body is likely to be composed of more distinguished people, less open to undesirable influences. At the same time the power of the superintendent has been increased; the teachers are appointed on what is called Civil Service Rules, that is according to an examination list, candidates being arranged in order of merit, and vacancies being filled by rotation. It is said that in smaller areas the machinery of local government works much better; the teachers are properly appointed and have a reasonable security of tenure, but the position of a teacher in a public school is nothing like as secure as it is in England under a local authority.

The distinction between public and private educational institutions is entirely different in England and America; there they find it extremely difficult to understand our use of the term public school for one which is managed by its own body of governors and which charges fees. Such an institution is private in America, and its governing body would be spoken of as a private corporation. In this sense even Harvard and Yale are private, not public, institutions. The public school in America is one that belongs to the community, and is supported out of local taxation like an

¹ See Lucy M. Salmon, *Patronage in the Public Schools*. Boston, 1908.

English municipal secondary or a provided elementary school, and which has no fees. It is also necessarily secular, in the sense that no religious instruction is given in it, though in some States religious observances of a very simple kind still persist. Here, again, the American system is uniform and simple; there are no non-provided elementary schools receiving public money, as in England, no public or proprietary secondary schools eligible for State or municipal grants but governed by independent corporations, like our ancient grammar schools or the modern girls' high schools, or schools of a definite denominational character. Everything there that is not under the local authority is private, and has to be supported from private resources, endowments, gifts or fees. English people naturally think this way of drawing the line unwise; it tends to a mechanical uniformity, and confuses the real issues, for such institutions as Harvard and Columbia are essentially public and national.

The American public education system is not at all difficult to grasp; it has grown up all in one piece, so to speak, and each part is related to the next. It originated with what we should call the public elementary school, which is emphatically free; indeed the Americans find it hard to understand how a public school can be anything but a free school. Since such an institution is common, free, and public, it takes both boys and girls and has been used by all classes. For the masses of the population the years from six to fourteen are covered by the school course; in cities the schools are graded into eight grades, corresponding with the years of school life. The first four, from six to ten, are called the "primary grades," the next four are called the "grammar grades". A pupil who has successfully completed such a course of study graduates from the grammar school between fourteen and fifteen years of age; such pupils may proceed to the high school. The next stage, which has a four years' course, covers from fourteen

to eighteen years of age, and is of course a secondary school; it also is free, and, in general, co-educational. As a rule algebra and geometry, formal science, and languages other than English are reserved for the high school curriculum.

From the high school the pupil may go on to college for another four years, from eighteen to twenty-two; here he receives a general liberal education, including Latin and mathematics, English and history, and something of science and modern languages; on this course the A.B. degree is given. After the college comes the university, which under German influence is now considered in America to be an institution giving advanced instruction, post-graduate work in philosophy, and professional instruction in law, medicine, theology, etc.¹ Ideally, therefore, the

¹ "What are the distinctive ideals of the college and of the university? There is a general agreement that the college exists for the purpose of training men, under a wider or narrower conception of freedom, in those studies which lead, not to a particular calling, but to a general view of the world and a comprehension of our duty to it. Its ideals are those of character and of service, but it seeks to establish these ideals mainly by teaching the process of right thinking. A college education intended simply to widen our sympathies without strengthening our vision would be a failure. A man's efficiency in the social order is equal to his moral purpose multiplied into his ability to think straight. The college claims to turn into the world citizens whose ability to think straight on moral, social and political questions is, on the whole, higher than that of the man who lacks this training. For such an institution there should be sought a professor who is pre-eminently a teacher, a man capable of intellectual and social leadership. If the college has justified its existence it is to be commended to all youth whatever vocations in life they may have in view, and out of this great number only a few will become scholars.

"Whether one considers the university from the standpoint of its historic development or from its present rôle in the civilised world, its function is in sharp contrast to that of the college in its purposes and its methods. These are:—

"1. Professional training based upon high educational standards.

"2. Scholarly research.

"Its ideals are high professional efficiency and productive scholarship. The teachers whom it draws to its service must be first of all experts, investigators, leaders of their professions" (Carnegie Foundation Report, 1907).

American youth who is to be a doctor, or the American girl who is to teach classics in a first-rate secondary school, and who must therefore have taken post-graduate work, will have been under instruction from six to twenty-five years of age. This ideal system does not of course obtain everywhere, but it is remarkable to notice how often it holds. That Americans go through so long a process of education is a forceful testimony both as to their belief in education, and to the cost, in time and money, they are willing to incur for what is to them one of the greatest of advantages. Naturally there are objections to this very lengthy preparation, which is a demand of comparatively modern origin. Many authorities think that the period must be shortened; they point out that twenty-five is too late for a young man to begin his professional work, that the age of marriage is thus postponed to an extent undesirable in the interests of the community, and that an unnecessarily heavy burden is placed on parents. Such reformers consider that at least two years and possibly longer could be saved in two places, the grammar school and the college. These are at present the storm centres of American education; they present problems of very great difficulty, and undoubtedly some modification in the system must take place at these years. Judging by the experience of other nations the high school course begins too late; twelve, not fourteen, is the proper age for secondary education to begin. The higher age arose in America historically, because the high school grew out of the ordinary public elementary school just as the Higher Grade Board Schools did in England. In Boston, and some other advanced educational communities, efforts have been made to begin secondary education at twelve; Latin and algebra have been put into the grammar grades, and the course of study in the high school is in some cases lengthened (*e.g.*, Girls' Latin School, Boston). The difficulty is of course

to distinguish at twelve years of age between those children who will leave early to go to work, and those who will go on through the high school, possibly to college. We have this difficulty in England, but the whole trend of democratic feeling in America is against settling at an early age what a child's future is going to be; it is natural there to keep the children together as long as possible, and it is only the pressure of modern conditions which will induce an alteration of the time-honoured system of beginning secondary education at fourteen years of age. The first-rate private schools like the Horace Mann School of Columbia University, New York, solve the problem easily by taking their pupils at thirteen for a high school course of study five years in length.

The primary grades, six to ten years of age, present no problems; indeed it is generally acknowledged that these are among the most excellent features of the American educational system. They have no infant schools, as we have; American opinion would entirely disapprove of formal teaching for babies of three years of age. The more enlightened cities like St. Louis have public kindergartens for children below six years of age, but these are what the name implies, and no formal teaching of the three R's is given in them; this is reserved for the first grade of the primary school, and is generally very well done. The work in the seventh and eighth grammar grades on the other hand is often too easy for the boys, and is said to be too abstract to arouse interest among the pupils. Many leave from these grades before fourteen, and it is said that a greater amount of practical work, bearing more definitely on future occupations in life, would interest the boys and girls, and induce larger numbers to remain to the end of the course. A large number of those who do remain go on for a year to the high school, begin the course of study there, and never finish it, leaving at the end of the first

year, either because they have to go to work, or because they find the studies uninteresting and make little progress. These difficulties point to the need of a new type of school course in America covering three years, from twelve to fifteen or thereabouts, for young people who will earn their living early, and whose curriculum should be largely of a practical character.¹ This would correspond of course with the higher elementary school of England, and the *École primaire supérieure* of France. American opinion to-day is much agitated on this question, and it is striking to notice how modern industrial conditions are forcing on them the same type of school that Europe requires.

The high school also presents its problems, but these are not so much questions of organisation as of curriculum, and they have been largely solved during recent years by the adoption of the elective system, and by the establishment of new high schools of different types, some commercial, some for manual training, while others, like the Latin schools of Boston, are reserved for the old classical course. It is the college which presents the most difficult problems to-day. The old American colleges gave, as we have said, a general liberal education in days when the secondary schools were not so good as they are now, and when the modern professions of engineering, architecture, etc., had not developed. The idea of the college is still very powerful. It has a social life and prestige of its own which are highly valued, but under modern conditions there is hardly room for the four years of liberal studies as well as a professional course. Thus there is a strong tendency to be satisfied with the amount of liberal culture given in the high school, and to send the boys, especially, to a Technical College or to the technical side of a university. The strongest institu-

¹ See William H. Maxwell, City Superintendent, New York, on "Present Problems of the School," St. Louis Congress, 1904. (Boston, Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)

tions, however, demand the A.B. degree as a pre-requisite of technical study, and every one admits that this is the ideal. It is pointed out, however, that the standard of entrance to college has risen, and that the high schools do much work which fifty years ago was done in the old-fashioned college. Some of the more progressive bodies have adopted a compromise; they demand two years of general liberal education in college before technical study may begin. This is the rule at Columbia, where, in his third year in college, a youth, say twenty years of age, may begin his professional course in medicine, architecture, teaching, etc. Clearly this plan saves two years, and thus in Columbia and similarly organised universities the liberal course and the professional course need only take five years, and the youth can begin to earn at twenty-three. The saving of a year in the grammar grades might still further shorten educational life. "I believe that the first step is to extend the work of the public high school, and thus to pave the way for the ultimate dropping out of the college."¹

So far nothing has been said about the normal college or normal school. This is an important part of the educational system; it prepares teachers for the public schools and corresponds roughly with our training colleges which do not give a degree. The normal school has a two years' course, and is attended almost entirely by young women (the word teacher in America always implies the use of feminine pronouns, she, her, etc.); the requisite for admission is the completion of a high school course of four years. There is nothing in America corresponding with the Pupil Teachers' Centre or the Day Training Department of an English university; some universities, however, give professional training to teachers, there being no definite line between those who teach in primary and those who teach in secondary schools.

¹ Balliet, *New Aspects of Educational Thought*, 1899.

II.

There are certain fundamental contrasts between the American and the English systems of education which do not perhaps appear at first sight, but which, when once they are discerned, seem to go very deep down; they depend on fundamental differences of principle, and are not merely varieties of nomenclature or organisation. Every thoughtful observer would doubtless form his own list of these contrasts, and give his own reasons for them, according to his particular way of thinking and his educational experience in England. The present writer has observed five such differences of principle, which appear to her to explain many of the differences in the phenomena of schools, and which may themselves be explained by the historic conditions of American life; these contrasts may perhaps be enunciated as follows:—

First, they educate the mass of the people, while we have always educated the leaders. Even to-day, when England, like America, is a democracy, we still seek to educate the leaders, the persons above the average, though we are ready to take them from any class of society. This is no new phenomenon, dating from the invention of Junior County Scholarships. As long as we have had higher education, since the days of Bede at Jarrow and Theodore at Canterbury, English boys of ability, gentle and simple alike, have been picked out and trained for the service of the nation, in Church or State, even when the great mass of the population did not go to school at all. People

talk sometimes as if, till after 1870, there was no chance for the poor boy of parts; but this is a superficial view. The English idea of education has always included two ends—the technical training of the average child for his or her business in life, as ploughman or carpenter, knight or earl, goodwife or chatelaine; and the selection and teaching of the exceptional individual for public service, as the bidding prayer of the universities declares:—

For a due supply of persons qualified to serve God in Church and State, let us implore His special blessing on all schools.

The records of our universities bear witness to the reality and fulfilment of this purpose.

American education, on the other hand, has aimed at a general liberal education for all in the common school, providing also in its colleges for the continuance of the English tradition of training leaders:—

That learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers. . . . It is therefore ordered that every township . . . shall forthwith appoint one within their towne to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and reade. . . . And it is further ordered that where any towne shall increase to the number of 100 families they shall set up a grammar schoole, the Master thereof being able to instruct youth so farr as they may be fitted for the University (Massachusetts Ordinance, 1647).

Education being free, the scholarship system has not developed in America, and thus the schools have never formed the habit of looking out for brilliant pupils and bringing them up to a high standard in special subjects. The feeling there is that the first-rate student will always be able to get along for himself. What the nation needs is training and opportunity for the average boy or girl, who ranks at 40 per cent. to 75 per cent. in school grading. The great majority of the population is found in this group.

The exceptional people above or below this range are not provided for; if very weak, they are not worth troubling about and drop out of school; if very strong, they can work on alone.

Secondly, teachers and students there have an entirely different aim from ours. We teachers in England are conscious that there is a certain body of knowledge which the pupils must master; it is authoritative, and half-unconsciously perhaps we feel that the important thing is for us to make them acquire it and possess it. The test for our classes is very largely by a written examination, thus thoroughness and care and accuracy are emphasised. The pupils feel this too; they realise they have to get hold of a subject so that they *know* their Latin, algebra, history, physics, etc.¹ The American pupils, and therefore the American teacher, are seeking not knowledge but power, facility of mind. The schoolboy there learns to use a text-book and a library, to get hold of a subject and to talk about it in class clearly and thoughtfully. Six months afterwards he may not be able to pass a written examination on it, but that does not matter, he could get it up again if it were worth while.²

It is this difference of aim which makes the unsympathetic English observer call American education superficial, and say that it lacks thoroughness and accuracy. These phrases the present writer will never use; she believes them unjust and inappropriate; but there is a real difference in the kind of work done in the schools which is thus described at first sight. The American observer here is perhaps too

¹ "Unfortunately, this quantitative ideal of education, with its resultant processes, is still widely influential and it tempts us to seek the evidences of an education in the number of languages learned, in the variety of sciences studied, and generally in the quantity of facts held in the memory reserve" (N. M. Butler, *Educational Review*, November, 1901).

² In New York where the schools are tested by examinations, the aim is more like that of an English secondary school.

polite, and too sympathetic with the charm of the old country, to comment on the density of mind, the want of initiative and quickness which *he* would notice in going round an English school. Their phraseology of the classroom illustrates the difference of aim; they "go through" or "study" a subject, we "learn lessons"; these last two words, so characteristic of English schools, are never heard on the other side. The "lesson" is a "recitation" where the pupils stand up and recite what they have studied in their text-books or in works of reference in a library; the recitation includes also questioning and discussion by other members of the class, and by the teacher. Opinions are freely offered, and pupils are trained to use their judgment on the material, and to give their opinions in a recitation; but in it problems are sometimes put and never solved; the teacher is satisfied if the intelligence of the pupils has been at work, or is likely to be at work afterwards thinking over the subject. An English teacher would feel that she was superficial unless she saw that every member of the class was provided with the accurate solution of the problem once it had been raised, and had learnt carefully that solution.

It is extremely difficult to compare the standards of work, but it is highly probable that the American pupil at eighteen does not possess so much actual knowledge as a member of one of our good Upper V. or VI. Forms; we may illustrate this from the college requirements in English literature; they have to read six to ten books where we require two to five. The result of study in the two cases must necessarily be different. What the American has gained from school training is general intellectual experience over a wide area, the power of self-directed work, a readiness for emergencies, the power of rapid acquisition, adaptability and quickness. Our abler pupils probably get more training in reasoning power, as for example in difficult Latin prose, but the average pupil with them is

constantly exercised in forming judgments and conducting arguments in class.

Connected with this difference in aim is the different emphasis and method of estimating standards; with them, as the lawyers say, "Time is of the essence of the contract," that is, all the standards are reckoned according to the time given in the school, and not so much by the amount or quality of work done, a much more difficult matter to estimate. We are just becoming familiar in England with the idea of the four years' course of the Board of Education, but we do not estimate our standards by the number of lessons per week and the number of weeks in the school year given to a particular subject. This they do in America. For graduation from the high school (what we should call a leaving certificate), or for admission to the university (what we call matriculation), a certain number of units, generally fifteen, must be offered. A unit, like the Board of Trade unit by which one buys electricity in England, needs a careful technical definition, as follows: the study of a subject one lesson-period a day, with home-work, five days a week for thirty weeks of a school session, *i.e.*, 150 hours of class-work, is a unit. In general three units of English, three units of mathematics, and at least three units of language study are required; the remainder up to fifteen, more or less, is made up of optional subjects. The degree qualification at college is estimated much in the same way by units or points. Clearly this system tends to an emphasis on quantity not on quality, and some institutions in the front rank, like Columbia, are developing a method of saving time by allowing students to offer work of a higher quality which will count for more and thus save time. The application of a time unit is so fundamental in American education that we shall return to it again and again in the following pages.

It is a commonplace that the education of a country should arise out of the needs and conditions of that country, which is another reason for the injustice of the phrase "superficial" so often applied here to American education. They aim at what they want ; the real test is, do they secure it? Of this they are the best judges, not we. It is clear that in a new country where various occupations may be taken up by any one person, and where general adaptability and facility of mind are the most important qualities for practical success, the intellectual powers fostered by the American system are those the community needs. When their civilisation is so mature, elaborate, and fixed that a boy's career will be settled for him at an early age, then the work of their schools may approximate much more to those of an older country, but before this happens the American principle of democracy will have been profoundly modified also.

The third difference is in the comparative absence of sanction and stimulus in the American school compared with that of England ; speaking generally, there are no prizes and no punishments. One might even say there is no compulsion in an American school : boys and girls are there to work, and they do work. The American teacher will say "this is a free country," and as a matter of fact the young people, as if already citizens of the United States, are at school of their own free-will, and are not in our sense of the word under authority. Nothing is more remarkable or more puzzling to an English teacher than the good discipline and the absence of any elaborate system of rules and penalties in an American school. We spend so much of our time and energy in maintaining order, in seeing that every pupil does the proper amount of work, at least to a reasonable standard, and in dealing generally with the thousand and one matters that come under the head of discipline, that we cannot understand how an

American school is so easily run. Americans say that it is the very rules and penalties themselves that are the cause of trouble, and that if we took them all away and trusted to freedom we should find our task as easy as theirs. One would like to make the experiment, and undoubtedly much more might be done, much more is being done, in the direction of giving greater freedom in our schools. But at present we lack in England what is the real sanction and stimulus in the American school—the force of public opinion. It is because America believes in education, while England fundamentally does not, that the American boy and girl need no prizes and no punishments; and ours might idle and riot without such sanctions. However, this may not be the only cause. There is possibly a real difference in character, though it would need a wiser observer and far deeper study to be at all certain on the point. Is there not in the English boy, and to some extent in the English girl, a certain wild element, a certain defiance, something of the primitive barbarian which needs the stronger control, the more rigid system of the English school? Adult Americans are extraordinarily patient and submissive when things go wrong, when trains are late, and tram-cars crowded, and roads badly paved, and postal and telegraph services inefficient, though they can be forceful and stern enough when they are really roused, as the Civil War proved. Their boys and girls in school certainly seem quieter, steadier, and more self-reliant and hard-working than the corresponding types in England.

One has an impression also that, just as stern and formal discipline is not required, so first-rate teaching and very good methods of explaining difficulties do not seem so much in demand as with us; one feels that teaching which is accepted and approved in good American schools would not be found to secure the attention and interest of pupils, or the approval of inspectors in England, nor would it

suffice to get English boys and girls through their examinations. It would not be stimulating enough, nor helpful enough to the pupil. Probably we teachers do too much in England, especially in girls' schools, but in our heavier, duller atmosphere, and our depressing climate, our young people need waking up, guiding, and driving more than boys and girls in the invigorating air of New England and the West.

Undoubtedly co-education has had an influence in improving discipline, and making the tone of the schools intellectually more stimulating. As has often been said, the natural modesty of each sex induces both girls and boys to behave better in one another's presence than they would apart; intellectually, too, the task of school work is made easier by co-education. The boys' greater initiative and independence add to the intellectual vigour of the class, while the steady industry and greater conscientiousness of girls automatically help to keep up the standard, with much less effort on the part of the teacher than is needed here.

Still, even when allowance is made for this important element in the question, the main influence that keeps the machine going is the public respect for schools, the belief in education, which affects the young people profoundly, both through the direct pressure of the necessary practical preparation for life, and the indirect, all-pervading power of public opinion.

There are other contrasts that are of a more obvious and definite character, which have been mentioned, or are to be mentioned, elsewhere, and which, therefore, do not need detailed treatment in this place. Such are the different methods in teaching, to which Chapter IV. is devoted, the different plan in raising the taxation for school purposes and the differences in curricula. But two points may well be emphasised, though they are clear enough to need no explanation.

The first is the contrast that arises through the fact that the public elementary school there is historically the common school, used by all sections of the people, common to all; and not, as historically with us, a school originally founded by benevolent persons and societies for the children of the poor. This state of things is of course passing in England, and the public elementary school is now attended by many children of the comfortable classes, especially when the buildings and equipment are good, and the teaching modern. We are moving in the direction of the American custom, but there is still a marked contrast difficult to describe and analyse, but felt at once. The American school is like the Scotch or Swiss school; it is for every one, it is national and not sectional. This difference may be indicated by the following quotations from President Eliot's book, *Educational Reform*. One cannot imagine our most distinguished university leader—though we have indeed none occupying such a place as does the President of Harvard—speaking thus of an English Board School: "The fundamental object of democratic education is to lift the whole population to a higher plane of intelligence, conduct and happiness". "The schools should be a vehicle of daily enjoyment, and the teacher should be to the child a minister of joy." "Reading, writing and arithmetic are not the goal of popular education."

The other difference is in the absence of religious instruction, in many cases even of religious observance, in American public schools. This has arisen historically also. When America had to deal with the problems we are now facing in England as to religious instruction in State-supported schools they took the easiest way out, the secular solution as we call it. Dr. N. Murray Butler thus sketches what occurred:—

When the State-supported school came into existence, this state of religious diversity found expression in dissatisfaction

with the teaching, under State auspices, of any one form of religious belief. The first step toward the removal of this dissatisfaction was to reduce religious teaching to the lowest possible terms ; and these were found in the reading of the Bible, the recitation of the Lord's Prayer, and the singing of a devotional hymn at the opening of the daily school exercise. But even this gave rise to complaint. Discussions arose as to whether a single version of the Bible must be used in these readings, or whether any version chosen by the reader might be read. A still more extreme view insisted that the Bible itself was a sectarian book, and that the non-Christian portion of the community, no matter how small numerically, were subjected to violation of their liberties and their rights, when any portion of the public funds was used to present Christian doctrine to school children, even in this merely incidental way. The view that the State-supported schools must refrain absolutely from exerting any religious influence, however small, is one which has found wide favour among the American people (*Educational Review*, 1899, p. 428).

III.

In the previous section we have endeavoured to contrast English and American education without entering into the question of the respective merits of the two systems. There are, however, certain qualities in the American system which should be described, certain points in which American education is distinctly in advance of ours, even allowing for national differences of need, history, and social organisation. The first of these may be termed catholicity. No one is shut out from the advantages of education, through poverty, sex, or race.¹ This merit is of course generally recognised; it is one reason for the pride Americans have in the free common school.² With justice they consider that in this respect their education is superior

¹ "Another point that always seems to fall outside the comprehension of a genuine product of the old-world school system is the fundamental proposition of democracy that by granting equal opportunities in and through education to all the children of the people, society shall be able to organise itself into a self-controlled, coherent, self-perpetuating body; and also the unavoidable corollary, that on the basis of the ability and disposition to make righteous use of such opportunities, all places in the democracy shall be open to all the children of all the people. This proposition rests upon the theory that only out of such natural adjustments of people, made under increasing enlightenment, can mankind ever hope to enjoy a stable and well-balanced, though not fixed, but sensitive and self-compensating social condition" (Wilbur S. Jackman, *Educational Review*, June, 1900).

² "The national high schools of America do, as a matter of fact, prepare pupils just as efficiently for the university as do the English institutions, while the great system of common schools secures for the mass of the people a much better education than is given in England to the same classes" (*The Twentieth Century American*, p. 176).

even to that of Germany; and their superiority to England they somewhat exaggerate, since the recent development and extension of education in England are not generally known. Americans not unnaturally over-emphasise the influence of social class and aristocratic distinctions in England, and they often know little of democratic industrial areas like S.E. Lancashire and the West Riding of Yorkshire, where such influences are at a minimum. But, even allowing for modern reforms, the number of scholarships from elementary schools to places of higher education, the reality of the education ladder to the university, the opening of degrees to women, and the recent extension of secondary education since the Act of 1902, America is still in advance of England in the universality of her educational provision. With us the scholarship child must show ability at twelve years of age, and must be able to pass examinations; there is no chance for those who develop late, for the boy of slow growth and limited means who is distanced in the Junior Scholarship competition by the quick, docile child, that by sixteen years of age has gone off, and who at eighteen is seen to be quite unworthy of higher education.

The American system of free secondary schools, and, in the West, of State universities, makes it possible for every type of student to receive higher education. In the case of women and girls also, there is more opportunity than with us, not so much because there is more provision for them, though this is of course true, since America has many large, wealthy and flourishing separate women's colleges, as well as the opportunities in co-educational institutions; it is rather that public opinion, and the general tone of society, consider it natural and right for girls to be highly educated. This difference is due to historical causes and to the greater respect and attention paid to women in the United States. Furthermore, the universal

spirit of democracy, together with the universal belief in education, renders impossible the view that any one can possibly be educated above his or her station in life. Such an idea would hardly be expressed in America, even if people believed it; it would be too shocking to public sentiment. Although there is a certain social discrimination against persons of colour, they share to the full all the advantages of public education. One of the difficulties which the advocates of trade schools and industrial education have to face, is that the idea of specialised instruction for people in a particular rank is contrary to American sentiment.

There results further from this universality of education in a democratic community an extraordinarily high level of general intelligence and self-respect, which is one of the pleasantest features of American life to an Englishwoman. We are accustomed to see everywhere in public places dirty, ragged, and ill-mannered women and children, to expect, as a matter of course, that the majority of our fellow-citizens will not know how to speak the king's English, and that a large number of people in many parts of the country will show by their manner and bearing how conscious they are of their own social inferiority. American life is, by contrast, full of joy,¹ the joy of being among equals. This general, diffused well-being, shown especially in the appearance and behaviour of women and children, is, of course, not only due to education, but to the material wealth of the country and the industry of the people. There are many work-people, however, in our industrial districts at home who can earn good wages, and seem to prefer to be rough and dirty. But in America the personal self-respect, the confidence of manner, the dainty neatness

¹ Bryce, *American Commonwealth*, p. 692, says: "Life in America is in most ways pleasanter, easier, simpler than in Europe; it floats in a sense of happiness like that of a radiant summer morning".

of feminine dress, and the absence of vulgar errors in speech, all these are surely the product of a universal system of education.¹ Where in England there has been an educational system of reasonable efficiency since 1870, similar improvement, though not alas! to so great an extent, is observed, as for instance among the London working-class people on summer Sundays and public holidays.

Another excellence has also already been mentioned, the zeal and the enthusiasm of the American people for education; here it is enough to indicate some of the superiorities which arise through its action. We have already alluded to the greater ease of discipline in schools, to the spirit of self-reliant work on the part of the pupils; this is true for elementary schools, as well as for secondary. That the wage-earner should dislike and disapprove of the school, should look upon the school authorities as enemies, is unintelligible to the American; he can hardly believe it. The foreign immigrant as well as the native American believes in sending his child to school, and the common school is an object of respect and a centre of unity to the citizens generally. This of course makes the hard task of the teacher very much easier and more effective than it is as yet in our public elementary schools, though among the more intelligent of our working-men there is growing up a belief in and a demand for education.

The extraordinary excellence of the building and equipment of schools, one of the most marked superiorities of

¹ "The great difference with the American show being that in the United States every one is, for the lubrication of the general machinery, practically in everything, whereas in Europe mostly it is only certain people who are in anything" (Henry James, *The American Scene*, p. 103).

"The vast category of those ubiquitous children of the public schools who occupy everywhere in the United States so much of the forefront of the stage, and at the sight of whose so remarkably clad and shod condition the brooding analyst could clap in private the most reactionary hands" (*ibid.*, p. 179).

America to England, may perhaps best be mentioned under this heading, but nothing can give adequately the impression that an actual visit does. When one knows from bitter experience the mean, wretched, too often insanitary buildings of some public elementary schools in our great cities, and the starving of the secondary schools in apparatus, decoration, maps, books and equipment, because of the scanty resources available even in the better schools, one is ashamed of one's country. In America the school is often the best building in the place; no expense is spared, not only in such essentials as space, light, heating and ventilation, desks and blackboards, but in beautiful woodwork, pictures and statues, roomy halls and wide staircases. The new McKinley High School at St. Louis, the new group, of which the Girls' Latin School is the most important part, in Boston, the Southern Manual Training High School for boys at Philadelphia, all paid for out of the rates, and last, but not least, the all-but-perfect buildings of the Horace Mann Schools on 120th Street, in Broadway, New York, the gifts of private individuals—these are models of what a school building ought to be, and are testimonies, known and read of all men, to what Americans think of education.

Another result of this general zeal, acting for so long a time, is the very close relation between primary and secondary schools, the unity of education and of the teaching profession. The deplorable gulf which exists in England, has never formed itself there, though there is a break between the public high school and the college. The numbers in secondary schools are, as is very well known, much greater in proportion to the population than they are with us, even to-day. In some New England communities there are over 20 per 1,000 receiving instruction in the public high schools. The way in which small Western towns establish high schools is also very remarkable; a

town of 2,000 people in Wisconsin, which we should call a village, has recently put up a costly building for this purpose. The large sums of money given by wealthy persons for the foundation and support of colleges, and other institutions of higher education, form another illustration of American enthusiasm. Most striking of all perhaps is the devotion and self-sacrifice, the industry and courage of the young people who work their way through school and college, a thing unknown and perhaps impossible in England. At any college one comes across young men students who, *e.g.*, act as stokers morning and evening for the steam-heating apparatus that warms every American house, and who, thus earning enough for their maintenance, manage to attend fifteen lectures a week and get through their private reading. Girl students in the women's hostels wait at table on their fellows, and add to their earnings by similar work in the summer at hotels. Wages are of course higher, while simple food is little dearer than with us. It is the air and the climate, as well as their wonderful courage and resolution, which enable the young people to endure the strain.

Our fourth point, the self-reliance of students, may well be treated at this stage; to a teacher it is one of the marked superiorities of American schools.¹ It is much to be wished that we could make our pupils self-reliant, could induce them to use libraries more, and to get up their work for themselves. Boys, of course, when they are willing to work, do show self-reliance, but the English girls' schools have been forced into giving pupils far too much help. There are at least two causes for this, the influence of the examination system, and the danger of over-pressure, and

¹“They have no standard for measuring, that remarkable attribute of the American character, which is the greatest of the national assets, the combination of self-reliance and resourceful ingenuity which seems to make the individual American equal to almost any fortune” (*The Twentieth Century American*, p. 67).

injury to health, if girls are left to work up a subject alone. In America a great deal more home-work is done than with us, though not so much written work is expected; home study is taken as a matter of course, and one does not hear the objections either from medical men, or from the homes, which are so familiar in England. One reason for this is perhaps the very self-reliance of the American child, who neither worries other people nor himself, but gets through his work in a steady, sensible way, and who does not inevitably get into trouble if he happens to leave it.¹ One cannot but wish that English teachers could take the American attitude, and let the children be freer, and therefore more self-reliant over work that they do by themselves.

The preceding points are fairly obvious at a very early stage in the study of American education; the two which remain still to be described do not *sautent aux yeux* so easily, and they are not so easily described or apprehended. Let us endeavour at least to suggest them. Americans believe in a *liberal* education; their school tradition is to study subjects as humanising influences, as part of the right of a human being as such. Even among very primitive communities with them the ideal of education has been the training of the man or woman, not of the future farmer, clerk, or seamstress. Probably the religious influences under which the American colonies were founded had a good deal to do with this attitude of mind; it may be seen also in Scotland, where Latin, the humanistic subject, has long been studied for its own sake by ploughboys and quarrymen. A clear indication of the American attitude is seen in the absence of sewing from the curriculum

¹ "That collective alertness of bright-eyed, slight-limbed, clear-voiced youth, without a doubt in the world and without a conviction; . . . the confidence and the innocence, are those of children whose world has ever been a safe one" (Henry James, *The American Scene*, p. 170).

of the common school as compared with the insistence of this subject for girls in the public elementary schools in England. One knows how our elementary education for girls began in the eighteenth century with the charity and dame schools, where they were taught above all to sew, and where reading was only thought necessary because of the importance of the reading of Holy Scripture. In America, as soon as girls began to have an education at all, it was, though very limited, the general liberal education their brothers had in the common school. Today Latin is a popular subject with all classes of the population.

The last excellence of American education which we should wish to indicate is, we fear, almost impossible to describe; it is a certain difference in the *spirit* of teachers and educators generally. One feels this without knowing exactly in what it consists, and perhaps, like the delicate aroma of real China tea, this impression cannot survive the ocean passage, and be brought across to England. It is, however, evident in American literature when one has learnt to know it in the country itself. One part of it can be definitely enunciated; the teachers there have the professional confidence that clergy and naval men have in England; they are a service. Individuals among us have as much power and influence as individual American teachers, and certainly more authority, and the legal security of the American teacher is not so great as that of an English one. But they belong to a profession which is respected and considered as a means of national defence, like the Navy here. Like other Americans, they are full of hope and faith;¹ they know that the rising tide of public con-

¹ "The particular look of the clear course and large opportunity ahead, which, when taken in conjunction with all the will to live, all the money to spend, all the knowledge to acquire and apply, seems to marshal the material possibilities in glittering, illimitable ranks" (*The American Scene*, p. 247).

fidence is with them. The very fact that they are paid much less than other Americans, less probably in proportion than teachers here, helps to make them a service in a country otherwise given up to money-making. This difference of spirit is nowhere so fully evident, in the writer's experience, as in Teachers' College, Columbia University; our English departments of education must needs in this day of small things bear themselves very differently.

It will be observed that in all these five points England is advancing in the direction indicated by American excellence; these superiorities are in part due to the fact that their system is older than ours; that they are at a further stage of evolution. It is interesting to read in older works on American education that years ago they went through some of the difficulties with which we have to-day to struggle. It is the task of England in this generation to retain the good she has in her system, and to develop and increase the growing efforts made by some sections of the community to overtake the countries that are at present in advance of her.

IV.

In the preceding section we have endeavoured to sketch the qualities in which American schools appear stronger than English; it is now only fair to attempt to give the other side, and suggest, with all sympathy and respect for America, where some weak points of their system are to be found, and where they could learn from us. The first of these concerns what is in the opinion of all authorities the paramount merit of English education, its success in the training of character and the development of public spirit and corporate life. We have made this our chief aim, and have sacrificed much to it. But our results have been worth the sacrifice. It is above all, as every one knows, in our great public schools for boys that this quality is most marked; but in the modern city day schools the spirit of Arnold has spread, and the new municipal secondary schools are following in the same road. The girls' schools, too, the creation of the last fifty years, have formed for themselves a similar tradition, and count intellectual success a poor thing compared with moral power. Now the American school, since it is efficiently worked by earnest and honourable teachers, is of course an agency for the training of character, and the personal influence of the teacher necessarily counts there, as here.¹ But as one goes in and out of the schools and talks with American colleagues,

¹ Probably a stranger underrates, in these pages, the amount of moral training given in American schools indirectly; the statement here is only an impression, and may be inaccurate.

and reads records, one cannot but feel that there is nothing like as much done in the direction of what we call "looking after" and "getting at" the boys and girls as with us. It is not part of the ideal; the very fact that the words master and mistress are not used, are, indeed, considered somewhat extraordinary and unsuitable, speaks volumes for the different attitude of (say) the *teacher* in the department of mathematics in the *faculty* of an American high school, and the *form master* or *mistress* on the *staff* in England. The former is there in the first instance to conduct recitations in geometry and algebra, the latter is there to make Tom Brown or Mary Smith go in the right road, mathematics, among other things, being an instrument for the purpose. We take upon ourselves a personal responsibility, we exercise a personal authority which in America would be inconsistent with the freedom of the individual, and the social and legal equality of all. Corporate life, too, is nothing like as strong in an American high school as it is even in the corresponding day school in England; there is practically nothing of the system of monitors and prefects which is so important a part of character training with us.¹ Americans say that their young people would not stand it, and the prefects would grudge the extra time and effort, which would have to be taken away either from their studies or their pleasures. One cannot help thinking that if there were more corporate life in the American school, American citizens would feel a greater responsibility in taking their share in the government of the nation. Our people learn politics in the VI. Form and on the playing field.

There is of late some development of games and of school societies in American public high schools, but nothing like to the same extent as with us, and, as every

¹ Their systems of school self-government are quite different in character.

one knows, American interest in school and college athletics tends to concentrate itself on the winning of games by the champion team in conflicts with other schools, rather than on the playing of games more or less by everybody. The need for social life, which is, of course, natural to young people, is expressing itself in some Western cities at present by an attempt to introduce secret Greek-letter fraternities into the school, on the model of those which have long played such an important part in the life of American colleges. They are obviously unsuited to school conditions and have been in many cases forbidden. But as American principals of schools recognise, it is of no use forbidding them without putting something better in their place; the social intercourse outside the classroom of teachers and pupils together which we in England know so well.

In the Horace Mann University School, in New York, a very great deal is done in this direction;¹ here also are to be perceived the beginnings of what we should call a Form system, a teacher being responsible for a certain number of boys and girls who belong to a particular room. In other private schools, such as the Mary Institute, in St. Louis, a similar system often is found, but in the public school if it appears at all in germ, the number of pupils in charge of a particular teacher is far too great for any of the real personal influence, as we know it, that a form master or mistress has to be exercised.

How far our English ways in training character at school could be adapted to American needs and conditions is a matter on which a stranger cannot possibly judge; certainly some of them would be resented by the American pupil and the American parent, and possibly by the American teacher, but we would suggest they are worthy of study by the American observer in England.

The next point of weakness is not merely a deficiency,

¹ See *Teachers' College Record*.

a place where more ought to be done than is actually being done, but it is a definite evil which the writer cannot but think is causing serious injury to American education. It is the excess of system in the public organisation, schemes, and rules, as drawn up and worked by local education authorities and their officials. There is very little trouble taken to provide for the individual, all the pupils have to advance in a regular line. Americans themselves recognise this fault. Mr. W. A. Baldwin, State Normal School, Hyannis, Mass., writes recently:—

It has seemed to us as though the very marked modern tendency to combination, organisation and systematisation—the so-called factory system—has been getting a firmer and firmer grip upon our graded schools. All of the individuality and life is being systematised out of our children, and they are becoming mere automatons, sitting, for the most part, quietly at their desks, and moving, when they do move, together at the tap of the bell. Now we desire to change all this. Our motto, as has been said, is “A live boy in a live school”.

In our immense graded schools there is no mercy for the weakly, it is a forced march, and those who cannot keep up must fall out (*Educational Review*, September, 1903, p. 185).

It is not only the children, however, who suffer, the teachers do also; very little initiative is left to them in the public school organisation; curricula, text-books, even methods of teaching are settled by the committee and the superintendent. Officials are supreme, and the teacher is often little better than a cog in a machine. All this must have the effect of driving the best men out of the profession; even a very small personal experience brought before one instances where first-rate men had been driven out, or had found the bondage too hard to bear and had gone into private schools. Certainly no English head of a public high school would think the corresponding Ameri-

can post worth having, when there is neither freedom of experiment, of initiative, or of organisation, nor a tradition of personal influence in the development of character. One would have much more scope outside in a private school.

It may be, of course, that this excessive system, this rigidity and bondage may be inseparable from an educational system fully organised and controlled by the State ; if so, we may pray never to have such a system in England. Let us hope, however, that we, with our English instinct for a *via media*, may find some compromise between anarchy and despotism in our schools, as we have found it in our Government.

A third weakness in American education, as we think it, is the natural outcome of democratic feeling, and is not in American eyes necessarily a weakness at all.

It results from their principle, to which reference is made on page 19, of providing higher education for the mass, and not merely for the exceptionally able pupils. Nothing is done to select these at an early age, when they show promise on particular lines, to develop them and train them thus to high scholarship. If Americans chose to do this they would probably get work of very much higher standard (in the English sense) at the top of their schools. Such pupils would go on to college ready to do good work in one or two subjects. This, however, is not contemplated by the American college system, which, as we have said, is one of broad, general education. They would consider our plan premature specialisation, as of course it is sometimes ; but what we do at our best is to give the exceptional boy or girl a chance to get on faster than others, and so develop special powers. There is no provision whatever for this in an ordinary American public school ; if a hundred pupils begin Latin in September in (say) three divisions, they are all kept at the same rate through the year. We should reclassify them at Christ-

mas, if not earlier, and have a fast pack, a middle average division, and a slow tail, who would need special care. Thus the first set might do twice as much Latin as the third.

This result, which we think excellent, would to many Americans be quite improper, that the one boy should learn at public cost twice as much Latin as another in a year. We came across at least one case where a headmaster, familiar with the English system, endeavoured to introduce some of this reclassification, and it was stopped by authority as contrary to American democratic principles.

The same rule obtains at college; fundamental with us is the difference between the pass man and the honours man, and those who have been to an English university know how very real and important this distinction is, and how essential to some of the best work that the university does. It is essential because it corresponds to a natural difference.

That the complete elective system at Harvard can be made to work in this direction is not the least of its many merits; it is deeply significant of the authority and grasp of Harvard's president in educational thought, that it should have worked out a system of a specialised honours course to meet the need of special cultivation for the ablest intelligences.

European writers on America have often noticed the comparative scarcity of the highest type of creative intellectual power among so large and intelligent a population, selected and mixed by immigration and possessing for so long the advantages of widely diffused education. Bryce (*American Commonwealth*, chaps. cv., cvi., cvii.) gives various reasons for this phenomenon, which will, he thinks, not appear later, when Americans are less absorbed in the material conquest and development of their enormous and wealthy land. But one feels that below the surface the

author is thinking of the subtle effect of democracy and social and political equality in reducing all to a common level. It may be that no educational system would make any difference to the genius: Shakespeare and Dante, Descartes and Darwin, would have come to the front anyhow. So perhaps the absence in America of special cultivation for the very best intellects from the earliest stages may have nothing to do with the comparative scarcity of the highest creative genius there. But when one notices the ways of the schools one cannot but wonder whether there is not some connection between the two phenomena. If they sifted out their ablest youths and pushed them on fast to the most advanced university work, as we have been doing more or less for so many years, would they not provide a milieu in which an intenser heat of intellectual activity might generate genius to a greater degree? They have inherited all that is best in the culture and civilisation of the Old World; they are a chosen people, sprung from the most vigorous adventurers of the strongest European races. The period of discovery and settlement is over; they ought to produce thinkers, artists, poets, philosophers, creative powers in every intellectual sphere. Can it be the fault of their education that as yet they do not? Or is it that man cannot at will produce the genius? That is for "the wind that bloweth where it listeth".

The American college in general ignores the difference between one grade of ability and another; all the men go along together, and what we call the honours man has to take post-graduate work later on. The present writer would venture to suggest that many of the difficulties in the present organisation of higher education in American colleges would be simplified, if not altogether cleared away, by adopting the English principle of an honours course, which will give the really able people a chance of cultivating their powers.

To one who loves America and is deeply grateful for much kindness received there, these criticisms have not been easy to make. They would not have been ventured, but that many thoughtful Americans themselves make or acknowledge them, and thus there cannot, it is hoped, be either personal prejudice or discourtesy involved. These impressions of shortcomings are, however, very strong, and must in truth be mentioned. One, the excess of system, is a warning to ourselves; for the other two, while perhaps we may feel not unjustifiable pride in the way our schools have trained character and developed scholarship, we may be the more glad that our education should have at least some merits which are worthy of the study of those from whom we ourselves can learn so much.¹

¹ "England stands half-way, as it were, between the American and the German ideals. She seeks to combine freedom and authority; experiment and tradition; modern studies and classical; interest and discipline; supervision from above and a large measure of local variety and self-government. She finds much to admire both in German education and in American. In the former, its extraordinary precision of aim, its high intellectual standards, its wide diffusion and convenience of access; in the latter, its verve, its belief in its own future, its intense vitality, its incessant experimenting, its courage and its readiness to take stock of itself and to adjust itself to new needs. They, on the other hand, find much to admire in our best educational tradition—in its fairness of mind; in its personal devotion to the welfare of the boys or girls committed to its charge; in its strong ethical tradition; in its conviction that, unless ballasted by a strong moral character, intellectual brilliancy is a mischievous thing; and, not least, in its belief that the highest kind of scholarship is that which translates into wise action and unselfishly embodies itself in the corporate life of some great institution" (M. E. Sadler, *American Ideals in Education*, Special Reports, vol. ii., pt. 2, p. 462).

CHAPTER I.

AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS.

Exiger de l'enseignement secondaire qu'il maintienne dans l'ordre spéculatif, l'excellence du génie national.—COUBYA.

IF the Americans use the same word as a technical term in education they often mean something quite different from our use; so the phrase "high school" must be defined for English people. It describes the public secondary school, whether for boys or girls, or more generally for both, provided by the local authority, supported entirely from public local taxation, and free; books often being found as well as instruction. In other words, what a county or municipal secondary school is in England, so far as its free scholars are concerned, the public high school in America is for all. It is in organic relation with the grammar school, and pupils come on straight from the one to the other, generally at fourteen years of age, an entrance examination as a rule being only required from those who do not enter from a public elementary school, but who are, of course, required to reach the same standard as the majority of the pupils coming direct. The four years' course to eighteen years of age is unfortunately not completed by the majority. In some cases only 10 per cent. "graduate" as it is called.

Originally the public high school was not intended to fit pupils for college. It was to be a conclusion of general education, and to give some preparation for practical life, but of late years, especially, an increasingly large proportion

of boys and girls go on to college, under systems which will be explained in the next chapter.

Historically the high school stands for the third stage in the evolution of American secondary education. In the colonial period necessarily the emigrants followed the ways of home, and established institutions resembling the old English grammar schools, which were distinctly intended to prepare for college boys of the professional and governing classes. The oldest of these still survives—the Boston Latin School, which was established in 1635 by the town meeting, five years after the settlement of Boston. Some of the islands in Boston Harbour were set apart for the maintenance of this free school. It prepared boys for admission to Harvard College. The curriculum of these colonial grammar schools was very narrow, classics being the staple, but there was some teaching of arithmetic and writing either in the annexe or by the grammar master himself.¹ The second stage is marked by the evolution of a new type: the American Academy, which constitutionally is like the English “Public School” an independent institution. An academy was generally a secondary school, incorporated by the State, but managed by a self-perpetuating board of trustees. Sometimes it was under the immediate patronage of a religious sect, but more commonly it was non-sectarian. It was a school sometimes for boys, sometimes for girls, and sometimes co-educational. Often, but not always, it was a boarding-school. Many of these were established just after the Revolution and in the early nineteenth century, and they continued to prosper, the older grammar schools being generally transformed into institutions of the newer type. The academies

¹ These statements are drawn from *The Making of our Middle Schools* by Elmer Ellsworth Brown, now United States Commissioner for Education; a most valuable book, which should be read by all who wish to understand American secondary education. (Longmans, Green, & Co., 1905.)

sometimes received donations of land or money from the State Governments. They prepared for college, and taught also modern subjects—mathematics, English history, science and even book-keeping. Dr. Brown says of them: "The academies cultivated a vigorous nationalism through instruction in American history, and raised up an intelligent constituency for the makers of our earlier literature. They gave instruction to many who afterwards became teachers in the elementary schools, and so prepared the way for the 'Educational Revival' in the second quarter of the nineteenth century. They were forerunners of the normal schools. They offered a field for early experiment in co-education and in an advanced grade of separate education for women. In them was developed an early form of non-sectarian instruction, and in this, as well as in various other ways, they bridged the passage to the modern secular public high school." Just as in England at present and for some years past there has been a struggle between the two types of secondary school, the older endowed or proprietary institution, and the new higher grade or municipal secondary schools belonging to the local authority—a struggle which is likely to go on for some time yet—so in America in the third stage the public high school grew up, because the academies, often charging what were thought to be high fees, could not cover the whole ground. The movement began in Boston as a reaction against the exclusively classical type of the education given in the ancient Latin School. In 1821 the English Classical School, now the English High School, in Boston, was established by the public authority to provide a finishing course of studies for boys intended for commercial or industrial life. The name, it is thought, was borrowed originally from the Edinburgh High School, so familiar to students of literature from the life of Sir Walter Scott. Other Massachusetts towns followed Boston's

example. Philadelphia established her great High School in 1838. The movement spread over the country generally. "The academies had begun to feel keenly the competition of the new institutions before the outbreak of the Civil War, and in the forty years that have elapsed since that struggle the high schools have come more and more to be the dominant feature of our secondary education."

As co-education was already familiar in the common school, and in many of the academies, it naturally was adopted in the new public high school, especially in smaller places. In Boston a separate Girls' High School was opened in 1826, then closed and reopened in 1852 as a training school for teachers. It is the Girls' High School of to-day; a large proportion of its 1,000 pupils intend to become teachers. The Girls' Latin School of Boston was not opened till 1875, and represents a further stage in development, when girls were going regularly to college.

As with us, the problem of the curriculum in the secondary school has been one of long-standing difficulty. We have seen historically that separate schools for the classical and modern sides were established in Boston. During the last forty or fifty years the new subjects—science, manual training, commercial instruction, not to say English and history—have all pressed in and crowded the curriculum. America has gone through the conflict of studies, and the questions are on the whole fairly well settled; the Report of the Committee of Ten, 1903, marking a distinct stage in the solution. Different courses of study are laid down by the authorities, and the parents and pupils select. There is, however, a question still unsettled, and that is whether there should be separate schools for the separate courses, as in Germany with its *Gymnasia*, *Real-schulen*, etc., or whether as in England there should be different sides in the same school. Much

depends of course on the size of the city. The tendency seems to be in America towards separate schools wherever the population is large enough. The chief reason given for this applies especially to the new Manual Training High Schools; these have arisen through the enthusiasm and vigour of individuals who believed in manual training, and it is said that the plan would not have had a fair chance unless it had been tried in a separate school, with a principal who firmly believed in the new doctrine. There are still traces of conflict between the ideal of the general academic course of instruction and of the new, more practical courses. This matter, as regards girls, will be more fully treated in Chapter VII. Undoubtedly in a school which has either separate courses of study or a certain amount of choice between different subjects, "electives" as Americans call them, there is a tendency for girls to choose a rather different curriculum from boys; they take more culture studies, and less mathematics and science.

The organisation of particular cities may perhaps be quoted. Boston has fourteen public secondary schools: the two Latin Schools, one for boys and one for girls, already mentioned; the English High School founded in 1821, for boys only, and two others—the Mechanic Arts High School, and the new Commercial High School, also reserved for boys. The girls have their own English High School, called simply the Girls' High School, which includes a large commercial department, and their own Manual Arts High School for cookery and other domestic arts and sciences—a quite new institution only just organised. There are further seven co-educational High Schools in suburban areas. There is also a Normal School, with a two years' course from eighteen to twenty years for young women who become teachers in the common schools. The full total of pupils on 30th June, 1906, the latest report available, is 7,305; the average number of pupils to a

teacher being 34'6, and the average cost per pupil being nearly \$100 = £20.

The New York system is comparatively modern and may be said to represent the last word for an organisation in a great city.¹ The official list (General Circular No. 13) contains the names of nineteen schools: five for boys only, three for girls only, and eleven, mainly in the suburbs, co-educational. All, except three, present the general course with some electives in commercial and manual training subjects. Manhattan Island and Brooklyn each have a Commercial High School for Boys, and the Stuyvesant for boys only specialises in manual training. Some of the other schools also have manual training courses and technical domestic courses for girls, especially the great Brooklyn Manual Training High School with its 3,000 pupils.

In Philadelphia there is a very large and successful High School for Girls (see Appendix), a Commercial High School for Girls, as well as a famous Central High School for Boys and three Manual Training High Schools for Boys.

Washington, which is especially interesting, because the High Schools are attended there by a class of pupils who in New York or Philadelphia would go to private schools, has a very complete system: four General, one being for coloured pupils: one Business High School: one Manual High Training School for white pupils, and another for coloured. Washington is so far South as to have a very large coloured population. All the schools are co-educational. One, the Western, is remarkable as having a woman head.

In St. Louis, a great centre of population in the Mississippi Valley, whose public school system has long been

¹ The writer much regrets that owing to illness in New York she was unable to study as fully as it deserves this elaborate and exhaustive scheme.

managed by enlightened officials, the system of separate courses of study is preferred rather than separate schools. "The district high school should be complete in itself and should contain all the units of secondary education for the entire course." This phrase occurs in a paper, "The Scope and Content of the District High School," by Gilbert B. Morrison, Principal of the McKinley High School, St. Louis, Mo., a typically fine institution where one can study the Western High School at its best. Its nine courses of study are: a general and a scientific, giving a choice between Latin and Modern Languages; a classical and a college classical, requiring Latin, Greek and a Modern Language; a college scientific, requiring Latin and a Modern Language; a commercial; a manual training; a Preparatory (for intending teachers); and an Art Course.

The strongest argument for having all these courses in one school would not perhaps have occurred to English people; the plan is democratic; caste and class distinctions are involved in having separate schools, and the American view is that all classes should meet together in the public school. This separation of the pupils whose parents from long inheritance and custom would choose for their children the humanities, from the pupils whose parents from lack of education and opportunities would choose the so-called "vocational studies," is a step towards a reversion to the old class idea. Undoubtedly the study of Latin means a certain social discrimination. It is understood in Boston that on the whole the pupils who attend the Latin Schools come from better homes and more cultivated families than those attending the English High Schools, though both sets are quite free. Vocational studies which will help a pupil to earn a living immediately on leaving school naturally appeal more to the poorer homes. On the other hand, classical studies are a preparation for college, which, as we shall see in Chapter III., is a social discrimination in the United

States. Manual training especially has had to struggle against the idea that socially it would not be quite so good. We may quote again from Mr. Morrison of St. Louis :—

This tendency toward the elimination of the class feeling, which the intermingling of all pupils in subjects which they have in common is accomplishing, is the most important work when broadly considered that the schools are doing to-day. Boys and girls from all courses, classical, commercial, literary, scientific and manual training, reciting together in the same classes in English, language, history or mathematics, become known to one another, and this association is breaking down those social barriers and artificial distinctions which have caused so much sorrow and injustice in the world.

He thinks that the literary boy and the manual training boy each do the other a great deal of good ; it is certainly the experience of some English heads of schools that the poor scholar from the public elementary school and the well-to-do daughter of a cultivated home may each bring a valuable element to the life of their form and their school. In this connection there might be mentioned what undoubtedly induces many parents of the poorest class in America to make heroic efforts and sacrifices to let their children, especially their girls, go through a high school course ; it does give a certain social advantage. We were told of girls whose parents were teamsters, and washerwomen, and porters in warehouses, and office cleaners. Such people might expect that at fourteen their girls would be beginning to earn, and yet somehow these parents managed to support their children, and let the girls come to the high school with the same neat attire, good shoes, and fresh white blouses, as other girls. In certain large works and many business houses no boy is taken unless he has graduated at a high school, that is, is nearly eighteen years of age. All this higher education, penetrating to classes which in England

are only just beginning to believe in education at all, must make a great difference to the industrial efficiency and standard of civilisation in America.¹ Indeed when one watched these thousands of young people in one city after another, receiving such a good average of general education, when at home there are so many in every class who are badly educated, one felt it was indeed time for England "to wake up" as the Prince of Wales said in his memorable Guildhall speech in 1903.

The internal organisation of an American high school is not a very difficult matter. As we have seen, there is none of that elaborate subdivision and classification which makes the organisation of an English secondary school so complicated, nor is there the inequality of the pupils coming in with which we are so familiar. In America they have all gone through the grammar school at fourteen or fifteen, or have passed an equivalent examination, and they enter at the one time in September, though there must of course be occasional changes due to removal of families, sickness, etc. Still there such cases have to take care of themselves. The unit of organisation is the Year; in the time-table one notices I., II., III., IV., meaning the different years of the course, though each in a large high school will have to be divided into sections. If we suppose, say, 200 enter they may be worked in five sections. In the next year the number may be 150 and the sections will be smaller. In the third year the number may come down

¹"America is in the hands of young men. Nowhere else is there such a resolute and vigorous body of young men, determined at all costs to make their country the chief commercial and industrial nation in the world. Education has helped them to be practical, but it is they who have insisted on having a practical education. The character of a nation makes its schools. A vigorous people uses its schools as a sharp instrument; a sleepy or stupid nation allows its schools to jog along in the old routine" (M. E. Sadler, *American Ideals in Education*, Special Reports, vol. ii., pt. 2).

to 100 and the number of sections will be less. Fifty (two sections) may remain throughout the fourth year and graduate. This will be 10 per cent. of the 500 in the school, and is perhaps an extreme case. Where a good many are prepared for college as in the Brookline High School, Mass., or where a good many girls are going on to the normal college, a much greater number will naturally remain to finish the course. Professor Thorndike of Teachers' College, Columbia, says that 100 girls enter the City High School for every 75 boys, but that the boys are eliminated more rapidly, and there are 60 per cent. more girls in the last year. It is very strange not to have any Form system, and to find in some cases that a girl has no place she can call her own except the lock-up cupboard in the passage where she keeps her books. In some of the very large high schools a girl may go each day to a different dressing-room, the one adjoining the recitation-room where the last lesson of the day is given. When there are 3,000 in a school such a plan is obviously very sensible. As in college the Year keeps together for social life and self-government if there is any. It is called a Class, and that which entered last September will leave in 1911, and is therefore called the Class of 1911. One Class, *e.g.*, may give a dramatic entertainment and invite their parents or teachers or another Class.

The buildings are always fine, sometimes magnificent. The type is neither the central hall nor the corridor; the latter, indeed, in so extreme a climate would be unsuitable. A solid block of buildings, square or with a square block in the middle and two larger wings also nearly square, is a type much better suited for extreme heat or extreme cold. Externally one notices rows of windows in each elevation, a handsome entrance, and some architectural ornament marking the different floors. The Stars and Stripes flying from the roof during the school session is

guide enough to the visitor, even if school buildings were not conspicuous by their size, height and character. Play-grounds are not important—there may be some open space or there may not. If the latter, pupils may, in quieter neighbourhoods, walk up and down in the street at the luncheon hour. Internally the staircases and vestibules are always large and well planned, as they need be for the numbers. Lifts are now usual, and the rule seems to be that the girls are allowed to use the lifts and the boys have to keep to the stairs. The decoration is simple but often very effective—burlap, a rough canvas, painted, is much used. In the new building of the Girls' Latin High School in Boston there is much oak panelling with cream burlap above. There all the cupboards, desks, etc., are of this fine dark oak, and the classrooms are cream coloured above the wooden panelling or wall blackboards. Pictures abound and often statuary as well. The assembly hall generally stands in a corner, perhaps at the top of the building, or it may occupy one side of the middle block. As a rule it will not hold more than 1,000, sometimes less, so that in the very large schools all the scholars never meet at once. These halls do not seem very beautiful to any one who knows some of the fine English examples, as at the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, or the Frances Mary Buss School in London, to say nothing of the halls and chapels of the great boys' public schools. They are very much like a public concert hall, having large galleries and a big platform. The laboratories, a comparatively new feature in American education, do not seem on the whole as good as ours, but the gymnasias are very much better and almost always include shower-baths.

The equipment for technical teaching we shall describe in Chapters VI. and VII. The heating and ventilation in all the modern buildings are exceedingly good. In that climate the mechanical systems, which do not work

in England, work very well, and if one dresses accordingly the warmth in winter is very welcome, even if it be over 70°. In visiting a number of good high schools in the larger cities stuffiness and the peculiarly unpleasant experience of a badly ventilated classroom were never noticed. If one inspects the beautiful machinery in the basements of these splendid buildings, with its own staff of men to run it, one cannot be surprised at the excellent results.

The new modern district high school contains besides the usual number of classrooms and a large auditorium, art drawing-rooms, drafting-rooms, five large shops for the mechanic arts, domestic science laboratory, domestic art-rooms; rooms for commercial branches—stenography, typewriting and book-keeping, with a counting-room for office routine; laboratories for studying physics, chemistry, physiography and biology; a library; a lunch department including a large dining-room, kitchen, check office and refrigerator-room; and two gymnasiums, one for boys and one for girls (Morrison, *The District High School*).

As has been stated above, the problem of the curriculum, which we in England are now struggling with, is all but settled in regard to liberal studies for the high schools of the United States, after a long period of conflict and discussion. English has become the compulsory subject, with, as a rule, a certain amount of mathematics. The tendency is for English to be taken throughout the course, a lesson a day; this lesson is mainly given to literature, a large number of books being read somewhat as in the four years' course suggested by the Board of Education. Speeches by Burke and great American orators are generally read in the last year. Algebra is a year's work with a lesson every day, geometry the same, revision of the subject generally takes place later, and there may be a fourth year of trigonometry, solid geometry, etc. The details for history

are given in Chapter V. Latin is often found in the first year of the course, again with a lesson every day. One of the greatest merits of the American curriculum is that very few subjects are studied at one time; a pupil generally carries, as the phrase goes, four or five, not counting drawing or gymnastics. The following plan illustrates the first year's work, the number meaning lesson periods a week:—

English 5.
 Algebra 5.
 Latin 5.
 History 4.
 Biology 4.

Since many pupils leave the high school after the first year the statistics of the studies show a preponderance of first-year subjects, algebra, *e.g.*, having a larger number of entries than any other subject, the next being Latin. Any statement as to the popularity of Latin in the American high school should be read with this warning. Modern languages are nothing like as important as with us; German is, however, often studied and might be begun in the third year, two years, at five lessons a week being enough to give a fair reading knowledge; conversation is as a rule not aimed at. French is a much less popular subject.

In the later years considerable freedom of election is generally offered; all the necessary mathematics may have been finished, and if the college entrance examination has to be passed the mathematical part can be done at the end of the third year. The last year of study for a typical pupil going to college would be—

English 5.
 Physics 5.
 Latin 5.
 German or Greek 4 or 5.
 History 3 or 4.

It might even be that the pupil had passed the history requirements also at the end of the third year. The way the pupils work by themselves would, we think, only be possible when they are learning a few subjects at a time.

One is tempted, of course, to compare the work of the American high school with that of the English secondary school; in history, as is fully shown in Chapter V., the American school is very much better. In French, on the other hand, their work must we think be held inferior to that at all events of the girls' school; German, on the other hand, seemed to be well taught. One may hear excellent lessons in German composition, the blackboard being largely used for writing by the pupils, and something like the direct method being employed. The writer is not competent to give an opinion in Latin and Greek; her impression was, however, that the classical work is not as good as with us. In mathematics it is extremely difficult to make any comparison, especially in geometry, where the methods are different. We do not think that English girls would have been able to follow and understand their geometry from the recitations which were clearly followed and understood by American girls. Algebra seemed to be about the same as with us; they use the wall blackboard, fifteen pupils working at once while the other fifteen pupils remain in their seats and criticise. Thus there is no writing home-work to be taken in and collected by the teacher. Indeed, we may say that there seems to be very little written home-work or correction of written home-work by the teachers. Those who set essays and give frequent short written examinations to their classes obviously feel they are doing something out of the common, and have as some compensation for the extra toil of correction the consciousness of doing more than is normally required in the profession; a very different attitude from that of the English high school mistress who apologises if she does

not give written home-work. She would say, however, that with five lessons a week in a subject instead of two she need never give any.

Laboratories for science teaching are of course general, though in excellence of equipment the schools vary a good deal, the quite modern buildings being of course the best. Many schools have something of the nature of a biological laboratory. A year of practical physics is generally required for entrance to college, and certified notebooks have to be sent up. Girls seem to enjoy their physics lessons to a greater degree than is usual in England; a good deal of the teaching was done by men. It should be stated that geography is not a high school subject at all in America. Work of the kind Messrs. Mackinder and Herbertson advocate, and which is done for the matriculation examinations of the Northern universities, is unknown there, though a recent article in the *Educational Review* brings in a powerful plea for the subject, which, now America is becoming a world power, will be more important to them, just as it is to us. Manual training for girls can best be treated in the chapter on Home Economics.

Let us try to imagine a typical day in an American high school and contrast it with what is so familiar to some of us in England. There is no assembly of the whole school, first thing in the morning every day, for prayers. The school law of many places does not allow of any religious observance, and as we have seen it would not always be possible to get the whole school into the hall or auditorium; but the principle of an assembly at least once a week for different parts of the school is, so far as we know, universal; some have it twice a week. In the McKinley High School, at St. Louis, numbering 1,500, they assemble first thing on Friday morning for one hour, and music is performed by visitors and pupils; speakers

from the city or the university or visitors may deliver addresses, or lantern lectures may be given. In Philadelphia and New York the old custom of the reading of a passage from the Bible by the headmaster continues. A hymn of a simple character, such as one of Whittier's, is sung by the pupils, and at Philadelphia the Lord's Prayer is repeated. This represents, we think, the maximum of religious observance allowed anywhere in the public high school. The writer had the privilege of addressing several assemblies. The order and attention were perfect, and the marching out to music at the close is as fine as anything she had ever seen in England. The way in which the thousands of girls in the Philadelphia High School and the Wadleigh High School, in New York, marched out in under two minutes was wonderful. It was a triumph of discipline and organisation. The wide passages and skilful arrangement of seats make possible what would need much more care and time in the average English school hall.

The hours are from 8.30 to 1.30, or 9 to 2, or 9 to 2.30; roughly, a five hours' session with six or seven periods of forty, forty-five or fifty minutes each and a recess or break of twenty minutes to half an hour, rarely longer, for food and rest. One sees pupils hurrying the first thing in the morning in the familiar way, but they do not wear a school cap or a school-hat ribbon. This is quite contrary to American sentiment and would be resented. The girls do not change their shoes, but they wear rubbers in bad weather, which are slipped off quickly with the other outdoor garments, and the girls proceed at once to the room where they have the first recitation of the day. Here one comes at once upon a difference; the teacher keeps the room and the pupils move about. This has the advantage that the room is arranged for mathematics, for history, for classics, but it is of course impossible to combine this with

the Form system. After three-quarters of an hour electric bells ring and the recitation or lesson ends. The pupils gather up their books and go on somewhere else, just as they please. We did not see any general marching about; everything is done quite freely, but quickly, neatly and in perfect order, and though conversation is allowed at the change of lessons, without any loitering and noise; and this we must remember with 1,500 to 2,000 young people from fourteen to eighteen years of age and no teachers or prefects on duty up and down the stairs and on the corridors. One could only wonder how it is done, and wish all our young people were as quiet and orderly.¹ There will generally be four lesson periods before recess. One may be spent in the gymnasium and one may be a study period, when a pupil is free to go to the library or to a large study hall and work alone. A teacher was always to be found seated on duty in these rooms, which would contain from 40 to 100 or more students—boys and girls. If a pupil has his or her own desk it will be in a study hall. The recitation-rooms often have chairs with a flap to rest a notebook, if they are used for literary subjects. Silence is, of course, observed in periods of private study. There seem to be in some cases the beginnings of a Form system—when a master or a mistress is specially responsible for pupils belonging to one study hall.

An experienced teacher cannot, of course, help noticing boys and girls and formulating opinions about them. The American schoolgirl is very much neater and carries herself much better than the average English one. She wears, in winter, a short, well-made woollen skirt and a white shirt waist or blouse, often daintily trimmed with

¹“Order is not an external form, but an inner habit—the habit of going in a purposeful way, with due regard to the purposes and rights of others, about some definite thing, even though the lines cross and recross” (N. M. Butler, *Educational Review*, October, 1899, p. 291).

embroidery. She is, of course, exquisitely shod. Short sleeves were in fashion in the winter of 1907-8, and the arms and hands were obviously very well cared for. A good deal of jewellery is worn, and apparently it would not be possible to make a rule against it, as is the custom in some schools in England. We are speaking, it is understood, of a public high school, attended by all sections of the community, not only by the well-to-do. A private school might forbid jewellery as do some. The hair is always beautifully dressed, and girls seem to put it up at the earliest possible age; the flowing tresses which often have to be tied back according to rule in England do not appear in general. The girls in the first year, at fourteen or fifteen, wear large ribbon-bows and plaits somewhat after the French style. Obviously the ensemble is very different from that one sees in England, where there is a very much greater variety of appearance, unless it should happen that all our girls are wearing gymnastic costume with coloured ribbons.

One is not entitled to form an opinion on the boys; but they are much less noisy; one understands, too, why some Americans buy their clothes from English tailors. But when American boys are in uniform, as in the cadet corps in the Washington High Schools, they look exceedingly well; the dark blue and gold, with the brown leather belts, is most effective. The type of countenance is quite different; paler, more intellectual, often more resolute than our youths.

At recess the whole school is free. The time is too short to go home, but very often pupils are allowed to go outside and get food, especially of course ice-cream, at little shops in the neighbourhood. At the McKinley High School, at St. Louis, only a few are allowed out by special leave. The lunch arrangements are excellent, though the accommodation is often very limited for such large numbers; nothing

but perfect organisation would make it work at all. There is no school dinner, but an *à la carte* menu is put up daily; the articles are 5 cents, 10 cents, the meat dishes sometimes 15 cents. (Five cents is the price one pays for a tram-fare, and for various small articles. It almost corresponds to a penny in England.) The boys and girls, mixing freely together at recess, pass through a wicket, and take up what dishes they want, with the spoons and forks required, as they pass along the counter; then they go through another wicket, where the lady in charge looks at the tray of food and sees that the right amount of money is put down. The pupil then finds a seat where he or she pleases, and enjoys the well-cooked, daintily served lunch. The writer again and again enjoyed school lunch also; soup with biscuits is a cheap and popular dish, so are cheese and other sandwiches and salad with mayonaise; there are, of course, sweet things, cocoa or coffee, milk or stewed fruit, etc., and always two meat dishes, chopped beef and potatoes or rissoles and the like. Ice-cream is charged 10 cents, which is more than it costs. The other dishes are at cost price or less. The whole thing is run generally by one of the trained domestic science teachers or specialists now turned out by the technical colleges, with, of course, a staff under her. Ladies of this type also manage the institutional housekeeping as in college hostels, and they do it infinitely better than we. It must be understood that Americans eat a very substantial breakfast of cereals, eggs, etc., and that on the whole they eat less meat than we do. These boys and girls will have a substantial meal later on in the day when they get home, but they do not have afternoon tea. Where, as often in England a hurried and meagre breakfast is taken, and a midday dinner is the custom for young people, the American lunch plan might not be effective.

After lunch work goes on again, two more recitations, or possibly three, filling up the time till 1.30 P.M. or 2 P.M.

or later. Then the girls and boys go home. There is no "seeing out" by teachers in any formal way. In a very large school one staircase will be used for ascending and one for descending. Organised games in the afternoon are rare; more study out of school is done than with us, and in the afternoon one sees pupils (students they are called) of the high schools working in public libraries. Teachers complain of the distractions of parties, theatres, bazaars, and amusements generally, which exhaust the strength of the girls in particular and take the energy and time that ought to be given to school work. The boys are affected also.

The good discipline of American schools is always noticed by English observers; the most remarkable thing about it is that it seems to come of itself. It is not maintained by artificial sanctions. Corporal punishment, the inalienable right of the English public school boy, is all but obsolete. There appear to be no small penalties, bad marks, impositions or the like. Detention is rare, and, if it does happen, seems to be unsystematised. As far as one could understand, their school discipline depends on two natural sanctions, the spirit of the nation¹ and the

¹ "From the first the teacher is instructed to make the child feel that obedience is due not to the teacher's arbitrary power, but to a third something to which teacher as well as child is subject—'to the end' as our Massachusetts Bill of Rights has it, 'that this may be a government of laws, and not a government of men' . . .

". . . Ours, it must be remembered, is not a military civilisation. America is not aiming at the production of the soldiers, whose one virtue shall be implicit obedience to the will of a military ruler, but citizens—men and women, that is to say, who are not subjects of the sovereign power, but parts of it—not to be kept in order by superior physical force, but true citizens in whom the State, its laws, its ideals, its purposes, dwell and are safe, from whom these indeed carnate, whose will is that the Commonwealth shall receive no harm, and who do not so much obey as support its laws, so that where two or three Americans are gathered together there shall America spring up and live, and her laws and institutions grow and flourish" (Joseph Lee, *Educational Review*, Sept., 1900, quoted in *Special Reports*, vol. ii., pt. 2, p. 455, by M. E. Sadler).

teacher's personal force. When teachers do not possess this, even in good schools the discipline goes to pieces. With members of the other sex present, girls or boys, there is not the same positive disorder in the classroom we should get in such a case, but there is considerable slackness and inattention. A teacher who has not this personal force has before long to leave. There is, however, with difficult pupils, reference to the headmaster, or principal. Boys and girls are sent for, and talked to, and, if the worst comes to the worst, expelled. The personal force of the principal counts for a great deal, as with us, in the maintenance of discipline. While in some ways the work of a teacher is easier in America than here, in others it is more difficult. We have a traditional authority and, in a public school, a reasonable security of tenure and some dignity of status. A weak teacher can get along better here with the strong framework of customary order to help him or her. Apparently in America it would never do for a teacher to assume the official superiority of status, which our young people take as in the natural order of things, and to act as a master or mistress. The very words are unknown in their school terminology.

Social life in an American public high school among the pupils themselves takes forms somewhat different from ours. There is a good deal more of the "party" element, acting, dances, "socials," etc., managed by the boys and girls themselves. They have debating and literary societies, and school magazines managed by committees; glee and mandoline clubs are also very popular. The pupils of a particular year or "class" choose and wear a class pin. Philanthropic school societies for charitable work seem less common than with us. Games exist; in some schools the authorities say they are too popular and cause too much excitement. Girls are prohibited in some cases from playing matches with other schools; they would be so keen on

winning that they would do no work. There is much less regular playing of games as a matter of course just as one eats or bathes; a Rhodes scholar says that in England brainworkers *must* play games to keep in health (what we say of India), but that in America it is not necessary. One difference in the American public high school is obvious: that teachers are not so much *in* things, games and societies as with us; the pupils run their societies themselves. A curious example of this separation is the existence of secret fraternities and sororities, imitated from the Greek-letter secret fraternities that are so important, so influential, and, it is said, so valuable an element in American college life. The National Education Association made an inquiry into the question in 1904. Nearly all the headmasters and others consulted condemned these societies as undemocratic, snobbish, detrimental to good school work and to the student's own character, and subversive of discipline. In Chicago this winter the question was a burning one, the City Superintendent having forbidden fraternities in the city high schools. In Kansas City, where the same action was taken, parents took the case into the courts, denying the right of the high school principal to penalise students who belonged to fraternities. The courts supported the school.

Associations of old pupils (alumni, *alumnæ*) are very important. In the case of many of the more important high schools of long standing, these associations are strong, and full of public spirit. Their purpose is largely social, but they often present gifts to the school, and they take great interest in its doings. That of the Girls' Latin School, Boston, came forward publicly this January to protest against the transfer of a teacher to another high school.

As regards what it is to us, by far the most important element in the life of a school, its effect on character, a stranger cannot presume to give an opinion. In the *Edu-*

cational Review of April, 1908, there is an article entitled "The High Schools' Cure of Souls," which suggests that a good deal more might be done in this critical and determinate period from fourteen to eighteen years of age, which gives to the teacher such a supreme opportunity for character building. What one felt going round, sitting in class listening to recitations, watching the young people in hall and corridor, and occasionally addressing them in assemblies, was that they were very different from our boys and girls. They did not answer to the same appeal, whether of humour or sentiment. Their machinery works differently. Pleasant, polite, self-confident girls; diffident, intellectual, half-attentive boys—they were always reserved and apart, dwelling each in his or her own world, islands of personality. One's deepest impression remains that of their real selves and what school does for them one knows nothing.

CHAPTER II.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

ἄνδρες οὐ τείχη πόλις: teachers, not buildings, make a school.

IN the previous chapter we have traced the rise of public high schools and shown their importance and value; a very remarkable and suggestive feature of American secondary education is the place taken by the private schools, including, as we have seen, both those we should call private, owned by individuals, and those we should call endowed, or proprietary, that is governed by what Americans call a private corporation. Though many of the old academies perished with the era of public high schools, a certain number still survive, and some of these are more important and flourishing than ever. There have, of course, always been what we should call private schools, and of late years there have been a number of new foundations of one kind and another, by groups of persons interested in particular educational developments, or by institutions who wish to establish secondary schools for some special reason, *e.g.*, by a university in connection with its Education Department.

There have always been also denominational schools, particularly those belonging to the Roman Catholic Church, which supports not only secondary schools where fees are paid, but elementary schools. These are called parochial schools, and are like non-provided schools in England, but they cannot, of course, in America receive any grants of

public money; they, therefore, are included among private schools.

In all these various ways there have come to exist a number of institutions giving secondary education. The last United States Bureau of Education Report gives 182,449 pupils in attendance at private secondary schools, as against 741,940 in public high schools. However, the relative importance of the two types is not to be measured altogether by statistics.

The fees charged, of course, vary, but in a good city day school £40 to £50 per annum is not unusual or remarkable. Boarding fees are, of course, higher, anything from £130 to £200 or more. If we exclude denominational or convent schools where the fees are very often lower, since the schools are in part supported from other sources, it will be clear that the private secondary schools of which we have to speak are attended by children of the well-to-do classes only. There is still a certain feeling that it is un-American not to send one's child to the public school, and some parents will take up a tone of apology and give some special reason why they do not send their son or daughter to the common school.

There appear to be several causes for the growth and development, success and prosperity of these various schools. The first is undoubtedly the greater degree of social complexity which has come about in America through the increase of wealth. There have, of course, always been different classes, as Oliver Wendell Holmes points out in speaking of the Brahmin caste of New England, but to-day the differences are wider, and class feeling stronger and more important than ever. In certain cities foreign immigration has altered the character of many of the public schools; parents mention this again and again, and one may notice that even in the Eastern cities in the middle-class districts, where there is no foreign immigrant

population, the public schools are still used by the better-off and more cultivated classes. In Washington, too, where there is a very small foreign element, and where separate coloured schools are supplied for the needs of what is on the whole the poorer part of the community, the public high school is also still the school for all, including the children of the many Government officials.

Many persons of strong democratic feeling say that the wish to send one's child to a private school is mere snobbishness; undoubtedly the desire to make "nice friends" has something to do with the willingness of the parents to pay the fees—often very large—necessary in institutions not supported by public money.

But there are other and deeper causes than mere class feeling. In many cases the private school is undoubtedly the better; especially so is this the case for wealthy families or even families of moderate means living in cities. An apartment or flat, seven or perhaps even fifteen storeys high, in a New York building, is not the proper place in which to bring up children; nor is a luxurious mansion in Commonwealth Avenue, Boston. Country life, with its health, its simplicity and its opportunities for practical training in country duties and pleasures, is, of course, the ideal. We may quote from the prospectus of a fine proprietary school near New York: "The city boy needs to be taken back to the soil and to participate in those fundamental industries which constituted the best part of the education of our fathers, and which have made us a nation strong and efficient". And thus many parents are sending their children away from the big cities to the country boarding-schools, where they have the additional advantage of being removed from the social distractions that interfere so much with the progress of pupils in city day schools.

The most forcible reason of all for the way so many American parents, who can afford to do so, send their

children to private schools, is that these care for the individual and the public high school does not; it is over-organised, its system is rigid, its classes are large, and there is no tradition that the teachers should take trouble over individual pupils, though, of course, many of them undoubtedly do so.

Again and again the writer was told that this was the reason for the private schools. They are able to give so much individual attention that in some cases at least a year can be saved out of a school course, and in a really good one the same amount of work is done in eight or nine years which in a public high school would take ten or twelve. It is noteworthy that in order to save time, and to care for individuals, many private secondary schools have done what is the custom in England, and have taken younger children in the preparatory department; like the Mary Institute, St. Louis, where one may see, as in England, children of six and young women of eighteen or nineteen in the same school.

Although the private schools are generally only for girls or for boys, it does not appear that their popularity has anything to do with any feeling against co-education on the part of the parents; indeed some of the very best private day schools, like the Horace Mann, New York, are co-educational.

There is, however, another difference to which more weight should be attached; the private schools give religious instruction, whereas the public high school is secular. How far parents are affected by this difference it is difficult to say; undoubtedly many of the teachers in private schools attach the greatest importance to religious instruction. We may quote from conversation: "Our young people want the religious element more and more". "There is a growing sense of the importance of making the schools ethical and even religious in tone." "All

subjects must be used as a humanising influence." It is very touching to see in these schools the simple Biblical instruction with which we are so familiar in England, and which is given in almost every type of English public secondary school from Eton and Harrow down to the newest and smallest of our new county secondary schools, but which is no longer allowed in the American public school. So marked is the movement in private schools that American publishers are bringing out a series of books to meet the demand for this kind of instruction, and some of the universities are giving courses of lectures to train teachers.

It may now be well to sketch briefly the different types of American private schools so far as one can. Simplest to understand are the private schools for girls, many of them finishing schools. Some are doubtless frivolous and fashionable, but many are giving a very valuable education in culture, manners and character to girls whose homes may have lacked these qualities. There are pupils also, one knows personally, where a cultivated and high-minded home makes an effort to send a girl away for a time, to be under the influence of some fine woman teacher and to enjoy a type of pleasant school life.

In some ways the military academies for boys correspond with these schools for girls. They are numerous and popular, and are said to be efficient; some belong to individuals, some to governing bodies, but the writer knows nothing of them personally.

There also exist for boys schools modelled on the English public schools, like Groton, Mass., on the line between New York and Boston, and St. Paul at Concord; some of the old academies like Phillips Exeter which have revived may be placed in this class. The *Educational Review* of May, 1908, declares that the pressing need to-day is the improvement and endowment of schools of this type.

"It is precisely in this kind of school that the highest educational ideals can be carried out in the most untrammelled and successful way, that a corporate life can be formed and that inspiring traditions can accumulate.

"Rather than endow much further the great universities in America it were wise for public-spirited men to place upon an enduring basis such great academies as Phillips Exeter and Mercersburg and many others that could be named, or to establish new ones. These schools have the possibilities of becoming the best nurseries for the manhood of the nation. From them may go forth influences that will mould the life of the day schools of the secondary grade, as is the case in England now, and enable these to impart a culture and an inspiration that now in most cases they cannot give."

Undoubtedly Americans are much impressed by the excellence of English public schools; and naturally, since the problem of education for what Nicholas Murray Butler calls the neglected children of the rich is now one of the most pressing. He states that to-day this is the class which needs the most thought and care over its education under modern conditions. The best way to educate sons of very wealthy men for service to the community has not yet been discovered in America. Interesting experiments in this direction are, however, being made in another type of school, which is a combination of the farm and the cultivated home. It will be remembered that Kipling placed Harvey Cheyne, the son of a multimillionaire, on a Newfoundland fishing schooner, for the moral and practical education he needed.¹ The principle of the new farm school is the same, but in addition it performs the work of fitting Harvey Cheyne for college; Latin, Greek, mathematics, etc., being worked at very carefully in the mornings, while the afternoons are devoted to open-air work and games. The life is simple

¹*Captains Courageous*. London: Macmillan, 1897.

but refined; good plain food in abundance is supplied, and the boys are expected to dress for the evening meal, if only in respect to the house-mother or other ladies on the staff.

In such schools, of course, the numbers must be small, and consequently the fees high. The headmaster must be a personality and the place must be right in the country, away from the injurious influences of urban life.

The writer was fortunate enough to spend some days in such a school, which is only at present just beginning, but which shows the characteristic features of the type. One would be very glad for one's brothers to be brought up there.

The time-table is as follows :—

7 A.M.	Rise.
7.30	Breakfast.
8.30	Assembly. (Prayers and gymnastics.)
9-11.30	Four recitations. (Lessons.)
	Then recess, for fruit and gymnastics.
	Then two more recitations.
1.15	Dinner.
2.15	Open-air work and games.
(3.15	Demerits, if any, to be worked off.)
4.30-6	Study.
6.30	Supper.
7-8.30	Study.
	Then recreation, often music and indoor games.
9.15	Bed.
9.30	Lights out.

Demerits mean that penalties have been incurred for breaking school rules or for bad work, and that they have to be worked off by fatigue-duty, such as chopping wood for the house. This is the system relied on for the maintenance of discipline.

The school began in 1905 with ten pupils and has now twenty-five. The boys built their own gymnasium, working out the drawing and arithmetic necessary. They look after animals and do real farm work. Each is allowed to keep a horse, but he has to feed and groom it himself, and to some of these rich men's sons the game is not worth the candle. The headmaster states that the capacity of boys for practical work is very marked, and that it is a means of training them to be self-reliant and responsible in manhood. No more time is required to fit for college than in the public high school, since greater individual attention is obtained, and yet all the farm work, carpentry, games, etc., are got into the day, and no time is wasted. The teaching is of a high order, given by specialists to small groups; it is considered essential to have women on the staff.

The privately owned school for girls, both day and boarding, plays a very important part in the education of young women of the wealthy and highly cultivated classes. These do not in the Eastern cities attend the public high school, generally speaking. In the West, and in smaller places everywhere, they may attend the public school when they are little, and afterwards are sent to boarding-school, especially to Washington, to the regions round New York and Philadelphia, or to New England. It is said that a teacher who has a good college qualification and is a gentlewoman can quite easily set up a private school on borrowed money, and that if she is an administrator and a personality the school will speedily be successful, and very valuable as a piece of property. There is thus a tendency for the very best women teachers to go out of the public schools, where, as we shall see in Chapter IX., there is very little opportunity of advancement for them, and to start for themselves. Many of these girls' private schools have a very high reputation and do really good work, preparing

for college. The fees are, of course, large; but poorer parents of the cultivated classes often make great efforts to send their daughters to such schools for the sake of the moral influence and the social training given there. The *nouveau riche* of the West, the Far West especially, also sends his girls to such schools to receive the education in culture and manners which the pioneer conditions of the frontier make difficult at home, and which fits the American heiress to take her proper place in Eastern and in European society. The life of such a school is very pleasant, the surroundings refined and luxurious, the teaching staff large in proportion to the numbers, and well qualified both socially and intellectually. The session is short, October to the end of May. Accomplishments and modern languages are carefully taught. A boarding fee of £200 (\$1,000) without extras for music and art is quite moderate, the day fee for tuition in the case of day scholars being at least £50. Washington is full of such schools, the climate and location of the city, the national museums, libraries and art collections, and the social prestige of the federal capital being much in its favour. Boston, too, with its intellectual and artistic reputation is another centre for these schools. The history of art appears to be very well taught in them, and their equipment includes much fine illustrative material.¹

The public interest in the problem of cities and the movement towards philanthropy among wealthy American women has brought sociology into the curriculum too. We quote from a prospectus of a Washington seminary:—

¹ "At no other time in the life of a young girl is she so susceptible to the refining influences of a beautiful and harmonious environment as during those plastic years which she spends at boarding-school. A deep consciousness of this fact has been the guiding principle in all the furnishing and adorning of the school home" (*Prospectus*).

SOCIOLOGY.

This subject, which is claiming a prominent place in the curriculum of colleges and higher schools, is being made a serious feature of the work. The course is elective, and is carried on by means of semi-weekly lectures. While no one text-book is used for class-work, a good sociological library, selected under the direction of Hon. Carroll D. Wright, U.S. Commissioner of Labour, is in the reading-room at the service of the students. The subjects treated are : Immigration, Population, Capital and Labour, Profit-Sharing, Arbitration, Child Labour, Sweat Shops, Improved Housing Conditions, Tramps, Prison Reformation, Juvenile Courts, Settlements and other allied topics. Class-work is supplemented by outside reading, by lectures from practical workers, and by correspondence with some of the foremost leaders in the sociological field.

Simple religious instruction takes in general a very important place, and attendance at devotional exercises is often compulsory—a marked contrast to the public school. In Canada the writer found American girls in denominational schools and in convents, who appear to have been sent there to profit by the definite moral and religious influences of these institutions.

It is clear from the regulations laid down in the prospectuses of these expensive private schools that the authorities have to struggle for simplicity of dress,¹ and regularity of attendance against the distractions of society and of wealth. The time-table and the official statement of curriculum of one of these schools will further illustrate their character.

¹ "It will be required in the case of every pupil entering the school that the entire outfit be in perfect harmony with the demands of a refined good sense, and with the necessities of healthful physical development. Hence, the dress of pupils must be simple and inexpensive. An elaborate wardrobe is unnecessary and out of keeping with the conditions of school life. *If unsuitable clothing and costly jewellery are brought by pupils, the principals will return these articles to parents at their risk.*"

DAILY SCHEDULE.

Rising Bell	7.00 A.M.
Breakfast	7.30 A.M.
School Hours	9 A.M. to 1.30 P.M.
Luncheon	1.30 P.M.
Afternoon Walk	2.30 P.M.
Study Period	3.45 to 5.45 P.M.
Dinner	6.00 P.M.
Prayers	7.30 P.M.
Evening Study Period	7.45 to 9.20 P.M.
"Abend Brot"	9.20 P.M.
Lights out	10.00 P.M.

The school endeavours to meet a demand known to be imperative by all acquainted with the problem of the education of girls—the demand for a school more systematic, thorough and modern than the typical boarding-school, yet less severe and arduous than our women's colleges. The Preparatory Course gives pupils the choice of fitting for admission to college or to our own Collegiate Course. This collegiate work consists of selections from the college curriculum adapted to the needs of those young women who desire a thorough training in selected branches, but who desire also to avoid the strain of a full college course.

Special emphasis is given to the following subjects; English Language, Literature and Composition; Modern Languages; History of Art; General History; American Political History; Music, both Vocal and Instrumental; Domestic Science.

The course of study of an excellent private school in Boston is as follows, from ten to eighteen years of age, with eight classes or years like an English high school for girls:—

English	8 years.
History	7 years.
Latin	3 years or 6 years.
Mathematics	6 years.
Drawing	3 years.

One modern language and one science each year. Within these limits freedom of choice is allowed; summer reading and study are required during the long vacation. There are definite entrance requirements, including French, history and geography, at ten years of age. The fees are £40 to £60 day tuition, and there is a long list of pupils waiting for admission. The history course is interesting; United States first, then in successive years Greek, Roman, English, French; then in the sixth year mediæval and modern, and in the seventh United States again, or Greek and Roman. With this may be compared the course of a boys' private school of the farm type; this course is six years; French or German is begun in the first, Latin in the second, algebra in the third, geometry in the fourth, Greek in the fifth, and physics in the sixth. The history course is Stories I., America II., Eastern nations and Greece III., Rome and Modern Europe IV., England V., United States VI. This school prepares for college and has a fee of £150 boarding and £40 day. It has property through gifts and is not conducted for private profit.

Some of the girls' private schools, too, are passing into the proprietary or endowed stage, so strong is their hold on public confidence and support. As may be imagined, many of them are doing excellent work, largely owing to their freedom and their means. The amount per pupil spent in the free public high school out of the rates is often not large enough to cover the cost of a first-rate secondary education; in the private school the fee is large enough.

It is most interesting to one who has known the recent development of girls' secondary education in England to see some of these first-rate American private schools developing into what we should call public institutions, just as the Frances Mary Buss School, in North London, did between 1860 and 1880. There has existed in Cambridge,

Mass., since 1866 a private school, now called after its founder the Gilman School, which has become in 1907 a private corporation with a governing body of six directors, four being Harvard professors, and a board of lady visitors, wives of university dignitaries and others. It is thus a permanent institution now, and will doubtless receive gifts, and possibly endowments as time goes on. It has a very pretty and well-arranged building, and a separate residence for boarders, the fees being £200, the day fee £20 to £40 according to age. It prepares for college and for home life. The teachers are largely Radcliffe graduates; there is no fixed course of study, the headmistress's judgment being final. Clearly it is developing into a type very similar to that of a very good English girls' high school in a university town. One wonders whether some of the Boston private schools will not follow the same line of growth.

HISTORY OF THE SCHOOL.

The Gilman School was opened twenty-two years ago by Mr. Arthur Gilman, who laid the foundation of what is now Radcliffe College. When the school outgrew its earlier quarters, Mr. Gilman planned and built the admirable schoolhouse now in use, No. 36 Concord Avenue, near Craigie Street. He also erected, near by, at No. 21 Chauncy Street, the residence for pupils, called Margaret Winthrop Hall. In the desire to perpetuate an excellent school, from which impaired health compelled its founder to retire, some of the friends of Mr. Gilman joined in incorporating, under the name of the Gilman School, what he had originally called the Cambridge School for Girls. The school is now incorporated as a *permanent institution*.

The Corporation is managed by six directors. Two-thirds of this board are professors in Harvard University, who also instruct in Radcliffe College. The administration of the school has been put in charge of this board, in order to secure for the Gilman School a high standard of scholarship under skilled supervision.

ORGANISATION.

The school is organised into four departments adapted for pupils of all ages :—

- I. The Primary, for little girls.
- II. The Intermediate, for girls between the ages of eight and twelve.
- III. The Academic, for older girls who do not contemplate a subsequent college course.
- IV. The College Preparatory, for girls who intend to go to college.

The Gilman School has for many years prepared students for the several colleges for girls, and will continue to do so. But it has long been considered a preparatory school for Radcliffe.

The Board of Visitors consists of ladies, many of whom are members of the governing boards of Radcliffe College ; they visit the school for purposes of observation and give valuable suggestions and advice.

The Mary Institute, in St. Louis, is another example of what we should call a girls' public school. It is owned by the Washington University, through a special board of governors. Its fine building stands in the best residential district, and is attended, we understand, by the highest social class. Except for the not unimportant difference that the head is a man, it is very like one of the G.P.D.S. Trust schools. The organisation is interesting, something like Miss Beale's plan for the Ladies' College, Cheltenham. There are three sections, each with its own study hall, in the charge of a senior mistress ; the junior, six to ten ; the middle, eleven to fifteen ; and the upper, for the older girls, almost young women. These are taught in classrooms, and return to the hall to study ; the mistress in charge is responsible for their moral training. The numbers are about 500.

The school most resembling a girls' high school in England of any the writer knows in America is, however,

the seminary of the Milwaukee Downer College, in Milwaukee, on Lake Michigan, which has a woman head as in England. We should call it public, for it has a board of trustees, is established by State law, and is largely endowed, both by private benefactions and by the gifts of associations, including its own alumnae. As the name implies it gives degrees, being formed from two of the smaller colleges chartered in the early days of Wisconsin, Milwaukee 1851, and Downer 1855, at Fox Lake. By legislative enactment the two were united; a fine new site of twenty-one acres to the North outside Milwaukee, near the shores of the lake, was bought by the trustees, and the large and costly buildings have gradually grown up during the last ten years, the Home Economics building in December, 1907, being still in the contractor's hands. The group with its red brick and central tower reminds one very strongly of Girton. Many of the students board, and the life of the place is essentially that of a residential institution, but there are many day girls from the beautiful houses of the Milwaukee suburbs, the numbers being about 500 in all. The fee is £20, and the boarding fee £60 to £70 inclusive. This is, of course, low, owing to the endowment and the provision of buildings. The college department and the seminary are separately organised; few stay in the college department to the degree stage, as they go on to larger colleges or universities for the concluding years, gaining credit for the time and the studies they have taken at Milwaukee Downer. We quote from the prospectus:—

The seminary is a secondary school. To enter its regular classes the student must have completed the work represented by the Eighth grade in standard grammar schools. Very few are sufficiently developed and well-informed to be able to carry on the full work under the age of fourteen.

The plan of study in this department covers four years and

includes four courses: the Ancient Classical, the Modern Classical, the English, and the Literary. A diploma may be issued to a student who completes any one of these courses. The Classical and English courses fit for corresponding courses in any of the best colleges. The Literary course is offered to meet the needs of those who wish to give their principal attention to the studies of Languages, History and Science. This course does not prepare for college, as it does not require mathematics.

The seminary is accredited for admission without examination by the University of Wisconsin, Beloit College, the University of Chicago, the University of Michigan, Wellesley, Smith Mount Holyoke and Vassar Colleges. Its work corresponds with that of the best fitting schools for Eastern colleges. Much attention is paid to the languages. On account of the general requirement of Eastern colleges for women, for which a number of students are preparing, three years of work in the modern languages are offered in the college preparatory courses. The growing demand for modern languages has also led to the offer of four years of French and German in the English and Literary courses.

Let us suppose that a clever girl enters the seminary at fourteen and goes through its four years' course; she then passes on to the college department for two years. The work here, like much of the work in the smaller American colleges, corresponds roughly with what is done in a good VI. Form in England. Such a girl will have had a career corresponding very closely with the six years' course in an English high school from the Lower III. to the Upper VI. Forms. The Milwaukee girl will go on to the University of Wisconsin or elsewhere for a shortened course of three years, and she will have done in America very much what the high school girl who goes to college does in England. A girl's life, too, at Milwaukee Downer is very much like what she would have in a high school in London

or Manchester. She will have begun the day with school prayers, have taken the same courses of study, played games (though not quite so much), gone to meetings of school societies with her comrades, and most important of all, have been under the strong personal influence of women teachers directed by a woman head. The tone is just what we know at home, the difficulties and problems and methods of government much the same. The very words of the official calendar might be a summary of our purpose in England:—

The aim of the college is to offer an opportunity for a thorough and liberal training, and to make a Christian institution for the higher education of girls and women, not in the interest of any sect, but distinctly recognising the value of religion as an essential element in a rightly developed character.

The course of instruction in the seminary department is very much like that in an ordinary American public high school. There are three regular classes preparing for college, including Latin, Greek, mathematics, English, ancient history and physics; the modern class with modern languages in place of Greek, the English with options in languages, and a greater amount of history and science. There has also been developed a supplementary course for more backward and duller girls, with a good deal of English and history, easy science, one foreign language and no mathematics. Music, art and home economics may be taken in this course, which, of course, does not prepare for college but for home life. Obviously this course of study resembles that being developed at present in some of the English high schools. Attendance at Bible lessons once a week throughout the courses is compulsory.

Milwaukee Downer College has done a good deal in the study of home economics; not only is it an elective for the ordinary girl whether in the seminary or the college de-

partment, but there has been established a two years' training course for teachers, 1902. This requires the completion of a good high school course including physics. A good deal of science is studied during the training course itself; further details will be given in Chapter VI.

Very different from the separate girls' schools described above are the two university co-educational schools that have done such pioneer work in education, the Chicago University High and Elementary School, and the Horace Mann High and Elementary School attached to Columbia, New York. Each has an interesting and suggestive history, and is destined doubtless to be even more interesting and suggestive. The writer was able to see but little of the Chicago School, which also at the time of her visit was in a transition state owing to the lamented death of its Dean, Wilbur S. Jackman, a most brilliant and original educator, whose place cannot easily be filled.

The school has arisen from a combination of privately founded institutions, taken over by the university as part of its education department.

The Chicago Institute, founded by Mrs. Emmons McCormick Blaine and presided over by the late Colonel Francis W. Parker; the Laboratory School of the Department of Education in the University, the founder and director of which was Professor John Dewey, Head of the Department of Education; the South Side Academy, the Dean of which was Associate Professor William B. Owen, of the University; and the Chicago Manual Training School, whose head for many years has been Dr. Henry H. Belfield. There is, therefore, gathered in one group of buildings a complete school system—kindergarten, elementary, high school and college—with opportunities for training teachers under the most favourable educational surroundings, and with all the privileges of a great university. The fundamental element in the significance of this School of Education is the desire and resolute purpose to promote the cause of education, not only

here, but everywhere, through inspiring teachers with more vital and adequate conceptions of the nature of their work, and through furnishing them with the intellectual equipments necessary to make them effective and apt in carrying out such broadened and deep ideals (Official Announcement).

The buildings are magnificent and have ample and well-planted grounds, including one and a quarter acres of school garden. The equipment for manual training is exceedingly fine, as is also the educational museum. Preparation for college has become part of the work of the high school, which offers four courses: Classical, Modern Language, Scientific, and Technological, English history, science and mathematics being common to all. It is interesting to notice that the school is now sending on to the university pupils who from the beginning have been trained according to the reform methods, first practised by Professor Dewey in the elementary school attached; it will be interesting to see how these pupils do; they are said to show a marked degree of intelligence. The elementary school at present numbers 500 pupils, the high school 600; the fee being \$150 (£30). Work begins at 8.45, lunch is 1 to 1.30; the lunch-room arrangements are extraordinarily good. A few classes meet after lunch.

In the elementary school is to be seen completely carried out the new methods of the Dewey Reform. Every teacher is a specialist of high general culture, who is thus able to use with intention all the handwork characteristic of the Dewey Reform, and to lead the children therefore to gain from what they are doing the maximum of power and actual knowledge. The main lesson gathered from a somewhat hurried visit was that with such teachers the system would work, and the children actually did acquire a fair amount of ordinary elementary knowledge, composition, geography, arithmetic, etc.; however, it appeared

that the ordinary teacher of young children in England at present, who is rarely a college graduate, and not always the possessor of broad liberal culture and marked ability, would probably not be able to apply the Dewey methods so as to secure the intellectual results desired. The children would be taught mechanically, and the special purpose would not be carried out; in other words, one gathered that the new system could only satisfactorily be applied by first-rate people, such as undoubtedly they have in the university school, and as we possibly could have in England if we had a fee of £30 or even £20 for the teaching of a child from seven to ten years of age. After all, in education as in war, the flow of the stream of gold makes all the difference.

The Horace Mann Schools belonging to Columbia University have been referred to in these pages again and again in various relations, and not unnaturally, since they form together one of the finest educational institutions the writer has ever known. They have, of course, extraordinary and unusual advantages: the large fee, from £15 in the kindergarten to £50 in the high school, which means that cost need hardly be considered; magnificent buildings, the gift of friends of education in New York; the influence and support of the members of Columbia University, under whose auspices they work, and the fact that results from this relation—that they embody the ideas and schemes of some of the finest teachers and educational experts in America. The administration is also entirely independent, whether of political influences, the clamour of parents, or the demand of external government officials like the Board of Education. They have all the strength of Columbia back of them, and that is enough. It is perhaps not to be wondered at that these schools are what they are; probably we in England could do as well if we had the same resources.

Originally the Horace Mann School was established (in 1887) as a practising school for Teachers' College ; it was intended especially to promote manual training, and to demonstrate the part that manual training should play in both elementary and secondary schools. Even now, a good deal of handwork is prescribed in the elementary school, and manual training is elective in the high school. Though land at Morningside Heights is exceedingly valuable, it has a school garden adjoining the building, which, with a greenhouse, provides excellent opportunities for Nature Study. As the school grew it was found that pupils had to be prepared for college, since the class of New Yorkers who attend go on to college almost as a matter of course ; the headmaster says that 90 per cent. of the pupils intend to do this, and at least 80 per cent. of those who finish the course as a matter of fact actually do go to college. Thus the curriculum now is of a more ordinary type than at first, and it has been found impossible to allow the students in training to do their practising work there, a difficulty which is easily realised by those in England who have had such students teaching in schools which prepare for examinations, or are otherwise obliged to waste no time. The Horace Mann School is now used as a model of good teaching where the students in training observe ; another school, the Speyer, which is free, has been established close by to serve for experimental and practising work.

As we have said, the school is co-educational ; its 1,000 pupils seem to be about equally divided, boys and girls. It is practically full, and applicants have to wait for admission. One of its marked characteristics is the short time given ; in the elementary as well as the high school there is only the morning session ; there is, of course, no Saturday work ; and the holidays are very long, since the climate in New York makes a long summer vacation a necessity, and the social position of the parents is such that

they take their children into the country or to Europe for a long period in the summer. This year term ends 29th May, the session having begun on 18th September, a fortnight at Christmas and ten days at Easter as well as odd holidays being given. The authorities of the school justly boast that they get the same work done as schools which have a much longer time; this gives a very interesting example of the value of intensity in school work, and of the avoidance of the waste and slackness often seen in schools which have long hours and long sessions. In the afternoons there are games, gymnastics, and meetings of school societies just as there are in England. There is also a distinct beginning of the Form system, each teacher, man or woman, being responsible for a certain number of boys and girls who belong to his or her room, and who have an opportunity of seeing their form teacher both before and after school. It was indeed quite like home to see there what one noticed hardly anywhere else, the teacher hunt up some individual pupil over some detail of work or conduct, and the pupil wait about to get help or advice from the teacher. It appears, too, that the teachers are expected to take an interest in games and school societies just as in England.

Physical education is given, too, under all but ideal conditions. The Thompson Memorial Building, opened in 1904, was given to provide everything necessary for the care of health and for physical training under day school conditions, including admirably equipped dressing-rooms fitted up with marble slabs and other perfect arrangements, with hot-air drying-rooms, lockers, etc. "It adjoins the main building on the West, and contains, in addition to the offices, examination, conference laboratory, and lecture-rooms of the Department of Physical Education, a large gymnasium and smaller exercise-rooms, hand-ball courts, bowling alleys, bath-rooms, and a swimming pool for the

women of the college and the pupils of the Horace Mann School." It was delightful to see children, girls, and youths enjoying all these facilities in the intervals of class lessons and private study in the library and elsewhere. All these buildings, including Teachers' College, form, it should be understood, one continuous whole, and stand on 121st Street opposite the university. Official documents of the school state that the pupils, living in a great city where sleep even is often disturbed, and where late hours are too common, are below the average in endurance, muscular strength and nervous control. They thus especially need suitable physical exercises, manual training, play, and, wherever possible, simplicity. Many are only children, who need the social influence that comes from working with others, and the development of the social spirit in the schoolroom. They are extraordinarily independent and able to take care of themselves; one cannot easily forget seeing a half form, about twelve children, of seven years of age, little boys and little girls, going along the corridor by themselves, entering the lift of course, without a teacher, and going up to the top of the building to their manual training class in perfect order. Most English teachers of young children would not dare to let their seven-year-olds do all this alone, and if they did, and there were an accident, the law would probably consider there had been culpable negligence on the part of the school.

The curriculum of the elementary school is arranged in seven grades from six to thirteen years of age; the high school course is of five years, from thirteen to eighteen. This obviously resembles the English plan rather than the American, and since the two schools are continuous the great objection to the American plan—that it begins secondary education too late—is completely overcome. A full account of the curriculum of the elementary school, reprinted from *Teachers' College Record*, is published by the univer-

sity, 1908. It is one of the most valuable books on methods of teaching young children yet in existence; it should be in every teacher's library at school or in training college. The actual subjects are very much what they are in a good English school for children from five to thirteen, but there is much more emphasis on handwork, art, and history. The time and attention given to music is unusual in America, though not with us. One was able to compare carefully the work of children of the same age; the reading in the earlier stages was better than some of ours, and the degree of intelligence shown in class very marked, though how far this was due to the social class of the children, and to the brightness of America, it is difficult to say. The composition at thirteen years of age was not as good as with us, in spite of the general excellence of the school and the very careful attention given to English. This seems to point to a very real handicap for American teachers; conditions in some way are against them; foreign immigration and the absence of the habit of reading good literature in the families, are, we understand, obvious difficulties. It is hard to compare the arithmetic, since the complication of our money needs so much time, but they do more difficult problems at thirteen, though the work is nothing like so neat, nor the style as good as we should expect. The intelligence and interest shown in history, geography and literature lessons is, however, what one gets in England only occasionally; possibly the presence of boys has a good deal to do with the greater brightness and intelligence of class-work. A foreign language, German or French, is begun in the seventh grade, that is at twelve to thirteen, and is continued in the high school. The other language, French, German, or Greek, may be begun in the third year of the high school, so that the pupil will have by the end six years of one language and three years of the other. Latin is begun as an elective study in the first year of the

high school and is continued throughout five periods a week. Languages are elective so far as the school is concerned, but the needs of the college make them compulsory for most of the students.

The arrangement of required studies during the five years in the high school programme is exceedingly interesting. English and physical training are compulsory throughout, in the first year mathematics and physiology, in the second year history being required. It is important to notice that pressure is saved by dropping out science completely in the second year and history in the first year; in the third, fourth and fifth years all subjects except English and physical training are elective. Girls can take domestic science (cookery, etc.), and domestic art (needlework, etc.), and many do, though not as a rule those girls who are preparing for college. We subjoin in the Appendix the details of the curriculum taken from the current prospectus, but since all the ability of the professors of Teachers' College is focussed on improving the plans for the Horace Mann School, doubtless every year sees a change and an improvement. It is no unimportant characteristic of these schools that the personality of the teacher has free play to develop, improve, and vary the work from time to time; there is no iron hand of the city superintendent to crush initiative.

Since the Horace Mann is a private school in American eyes, the prohibition of religious observances does not obtain, and the day is begun as in England with a quarter of an hour of chapel exercises in the beautiful auditorium or assembly hall. The one adverse criticism which occurs to an Englishwoman, of this magnificent and inspiring institution, is that there is no one woman in authority, responsible for the discipline and moral training of the girls. Naturally, we suppose, in a co-educational school, the head must be a man, at all events when at least half are youths

up to eighteen or nineteen years of age, but there might surely be, as in an English co-educational school, a woman vice-principal who would do for the girls what the head-mistress does in a separate girls' school. There must be in America women who could fill such a post, and surely, independent as she is, the American girl would profit by guidance wisely and tactfully given. In conclusion, we can only say that it is well worth the fortnight on the ocean to and from New York to spend a week in the Horace Mann Schools if one saw nothing else. It is not often given to teachers in England to see education carried out under such happy conditions.

The university welcomes and welcomes heartily this splendid addition to the equipment with which these mighty institutions are pressing forward in pursuit of a common educational ideal. We are glad to have here on Morningside Heights one more impressive monument of the wisdom and generosity of those New Yorkers who believe in education. . . . It is not an idle boast, nor is it merely to call attention to a haphazard coincidence, to point out that here on this site, for the first time in the history of education, a child may enter the Kindergarten and go forward under the influence of one tendency and ideal, in unbroken course, until he passes out into the world with the highest honours of a modern university (Nicholas Murray Butler at the dedication of the building).

CHAPTER III.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Howbeit I believed not the words, until I came and mine eyes had seen it : and behold, the half was not told me.—QUEEN OF SHEBA.

To give a complete account of these institutions in the United States would need a book, not a chapter ; nor, indeed, has the present writer the experience and the knowledge that qualify for such a task. But no student of secondary education can help studying also the university stage to which his work leads, and from which it derives, and the relations of schools and colleges are vital in secondary education everywhere. Not less is this true of America, where the college is of enormous importance.

All the professions called learned or scientific are fed by these institutions ; the whole school system depends upon them and could not be maintained in efficiency without them ; they gather in and preserve the intellectual capital of the race, and are the storehouses of the acquired knowledge on which invention and progress depend ; they enlarge the boundaries of knowledge ; they maintain the standards of honour, public duty and public spirit, and diffuse the refinement, culture and spirituality without which added wealth would only be added grossness and corruption (Charles W. Eliot, *American Contributions to Civilisation*, p. 304, London, 1897).

English people often do not realise this importance ; they are confused by the multiplicity and variety of degree-giving institutions in America—over 450 in number,¹ many

¹ The Carnegie Foundation says there are 950 in English-speaking America.

obscure, insignificant and poor, some even fraudulent—and, unless they have some knowledge of what the standards of work of the real American universities are, they are apt to despise them all. This is a most unfortunate and unjust way of thinking, and must seem ridiculous in its ineptitude to those who have visited the Cambridge of the New World, or have tried to obtain the degree of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, or sought research fellowships at Bryn Mawr after going through Girton or Somerville.

The fact is that the thirty-five or so true American colleges and universities are on the same plane as those of the Old World. Oxford, Paris, and Harvard; Berlin, London, and Columbia; Cambridge, Göttingen, Yale; Strasburg, Manchester, Chicago; Heidelberg and Princeton; Aberdeen and Wisconsin—they are sisters, varying in excellences and beauty, but sisters all.

The anomalous condition of things in the United States has arisen, like other difficulties there, from the weakness of the central government. It has not the authority to give charters, as the sovereign has with us. Each petty State could grant the privilege, and in early days, among the struggles and in the simplicity of pioneer times, far too many small and weak institutions received charters. This was due in part to good motives—the desire to encourage higher education, the belief in colleges—as well as to the excessive strength of local feeling and the zeal, not always according to knowledge, of ecclesiastical denominations, each anxious to have its own little seminary for the right training of the flower of its youth. The State of Ohio is especially remarkable for a multitude of small degree-giving institutions. After all, we must remember that Harvard (1636), Yale (1701) and Princeton (1746) all began with a day of small things, and that Oberlin and Mount Holyoke, which did so much for women in the

early nineteenth century, were even then not among the great colleges.

Americans have sought with but little success to discriminate between the different grades, and to put in their right place the so-called universities which are in fact secondary schools, sometimes not even good secondary schools. The Association of Collegiate Alumnae, described in Chapter IX., has done something in this direction for women's colleges, separate and co-educational. Quite lately, however, the new Carnegie Foundation has at last found a method, which is sketched at the end of this chapter. The Foundation was established to give pensions to professors, but men say that this work of discrimination will be even more valuable to higher education.

To consider now only the true types: we perceive at once the difference between those modelled on England, the Colonial Colleges of the East, founded before the Revolution and still independent of Government, and the State Universities of the West, due perhaps to French, but certainly to republican and democratic, influences, established and financed by the States. A third type must perhaps be added, the separate women's colleges, modern comparatively, Vassar 1865, Smith and Wellesley 1875, Bryn Mawr 1885. These are not governmental, but are endowed private institutions. Barnard (1889) and Radcliffe (1879) are annexes of Columbia and Harvard. The foundation of independent colleges and universities has continued since the Revolution to quite modern days, Johns Hopkins at Baltimore and the University of Chicago being the most striking modern instances.

We may in this connection again quote Dr. N. M. Butler, *Educational Review* :—

In other words, the so-called public education of the United States, that which is tax-supported and under the direct control

of a governmental agency, is not the entire national educational system. To get at what the people of the United States are doing for education and to measure the full length and breadth of the nation's educational system, we must add to public or tax-supported education all activities of similar kind that are carried on by private corporations, by voluntary associations, and by individuals. The nation is represented partly by each of these undertakings, wholly by no one of them. The terms national and governmental are happily not convertible in the United States, whether it be of universities, of morals, or of efficiency that we are speaking.

In the United States there are three different types of educational institution, all resting upon the power of the State. One of the three depends wholly and one partly upon the Government. The third type is without any governmental relationship whatever. The three types are these :—

1. Those institutions which the Government establishes and maintains, such as the public schools, the public libraries, and the State universities.

2. Those institutions which the Government authorises, such as school, college and university corporations, private or semi-public in character, which gain their powers and privileges by a charter granted by the proper governmental authority, and which are often given aid by the Government in the form of partial or entire exemption from taxation.

3. Those institutions which the State permits, because it has conferred on the Government no power to forbid or to restrict them, such as private-venture (unincorporated) educational undertakings of various kinds.

Our American educational system is made up of all these, and whether a given school, college or university is national or not—does not in the least depend upon the fact that it is or is not governmental.

We have elsewhere alluded to the characteristic general course of liberal studies in American colleges, leading to

the A.B. degree and to the struggle and conflict as to optional or elective, against compulsory or prescribed, subjects, which has been going on for more than forty years; Harvard leading the radical party, and Yale standing for the older and sterner doctrine of a prescribed course of study.

This was the original plan, the classics and mathematics being the staple, and English, modern languages, history and science being added in varying proportions in different colleges later. When the prescribed course still obtains in its strict form it is limited to the first and second year, and the work for the third and fourth is largely optional or elective, though not as a rule entirely so; Vassar among women's colleges is a type of this group, and Princeton among men's.

The elective system means freedom of choice among subjects; Harvard has only one compulsory study, English. No other great university allows such complete freedom. However, Harvard may boast that her example has influenced all the other colleges and made them allow much more freedom.

A third system has been evolved at Johns Hopkins, Baltimore, and at Bryn Mawr: the group system. Its advocates think it is the only satisfactory solution, combining scholarly thoroughness and breadth with adaptation to special ability and tastes. It is very like the English system for honours courses at some of our new universities, where a student can take honours in one subject, but must group with it, at least as far as the Intermediate standard, allied subjects, *e.g.*, Latin and modern languages for history honours, mathematics and physics for chemistry honours, chemistry and physics for botany and zoology honours and the like. It means a great deal of work.

The Bryn Mawr calendar tabulates the studies required for a degree as follows:—

REQUIRED COURSES (FIVE HOURS A WEEK FOR ONE YEAR EACH).

1 and 2. English. [Two Courses.]	3. Philosophy.	4. Science, Physics, or Chemistry, or Geology, or Biology.	5. Science, or History, or Economics and Politics, or Law, or Mathematics.	6. Matriculation French, or Matriculation German, or Matriculation Greek (or Minor Latin).
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TWO MAJOR COURSES (FIVE HOURS A WEEK FOR TWO YEARS EACH).

Constituting any one of the following thirty-nine groups:—

I.—XX. Any Language with any Language (Twenty Groups).	XXI. History with Economics and Politics.	XXII. History with Law.	XXIII. Economics and Politics with Law.
XXIV. Economics and Politics with Philosophy.	XXV. Philosophy with Greek.	XXVI. Philosophy with English.	XXVII. Philosophy with Mathematics.
XXVIII. Philosophy with Physics.	XXIX. Mathematics with Greek.	XXX. Mathematics with Latin.	XXXI. Mathematics with Physics.
XXXII. Mathematics with Chemistry.	XXXIII. Mathematics with Geology.	XXXIV.-XXXIX. Any Science with any Science (Six Groups).	

Ten hours a week for one year in any subject, or subjects, the student may elect.

No limit of time is prescribed for this very severe course of study; a candidate may take more than four years if necessary, and a very brilliant student by doing particularly well in matriculation may be excused some work in college.

Fifteen hours of lectures is, however, taken as a normal amount. It may be well to quote also from the calendar how this system works for three typical subjects.

Classics. *As Required Studies* [Matriculation French, *or* Matriculation German, *or* Matriculation Greek], English, Philosophy, Science (Physics, *or* Chemistry, *or* Geology, *or* Biology), another Science (*or* Mediæval, *or* Oriental History, *or* Minor Economics and Politics, *or* Minor Law, *or* Minor Mathematics). *As a Group*, Greek and Latin. *As Free Electives*, Post-major Greek and Latin, *or* Classical Art and Archæology, ten hours a week for one year.

Mathematics (with Physics). *As Required Studies* [Matriculation French, *or* Matriculation German, *or* Matriculation Greek, *or* Minor Latin], English, Philosophy, Chemistry, another Science (Geology, *or* Biology), *or* Post-major Mathematics. *As a Group*, Mathematics and Physics. *As Free Electives*, Trigonometry, Post-major Mathematics, and Post-major Physics, ten hours a week for one year.

History. *As Required Studies* [Matriculation French *or* Matriculation German, *or* Matriculation Greek, *or* Minor Latin], English, Philosophy, any Science, another Science (*or* Oriental History, *or* Post-major History, *or* Economics and Politics, *or* Law, *or* Mathematics). *As a Group*, History and Economics and Politics, *or* History and Law. *As Free Electives*, Post-major History and Economics and Politics, ten hours a week for one year.

Some conservative authorities do not give the A.B. degree for any but a prescribed course of study; a degree in Letters, Philosophy, or a B.Sc. like ours is given for modern courses, without Latin and the old culture subjects. The more liberal institutions think this a great mistake. Such degrees are felt by the public to mean an inferior order of attainment, and if the college thinks these modern courses should be followed, they ought to have the same

stamp as the other older humanistic course. So Columbia gives the A.B. degree for all literary courses.

The small college has no analogy in England, and its value needs emphasising to-day when the great centres of learning fill the public eye. In many of the less famous, youths have received the first impulse to a life of scholarship and professional usefulness. Personal influence of the faculty has counted for much in them; the denominational connection has often meant a tone of simple religious earnestness, and the social life of a resident college has brought all the joys of youth and friendship. Professor Wendell, in his *France of To-day*,¹ speaking of French students, says they are—

. . . Without that happy interval between the drudgery of school and the strife of responsible existence. An American boy who has passed three to four years at college will find himself as a human being the better for life in consequence, the more sympathetic, the richer in human quality, which is really why our American reverence for our colleges is so wholesome.

The four years, Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, keep apart, and the man goes with his year or "Class". The set that graduates in 1908 will be called the Class of 1908, and will keep up the college tie by meeting once a year at their Alma Mater; they will hold a special festival there at the tenth and again at the twenty-fifth anniversary, when the Class will subscribe and present the college with some gift—often a building, should fortune favour them in later days.

Girls, too, are happy at college; indeed after a generation it has become fashionable for girls to go to college and have a good time. One of the senior professors at Vassar, Miss Abby Leech, speaking in Boston last November, said:—

¹ Archibald Constable, London, 1908.

Recreation is coming to be regarded not for the sake of work, but unhappily as an end in itself, and work is looked upon as something to be endured for the sake of the college life. Women's colleges have now to reckon with the influx of large numbers of girls, attractive, with social advantages and plenty of money, but from homes where . . . delight in learning and in books is almost inconceivable.

But there is still the very serious "reading" element, the men (and the girls) who work their way through college, even at Harvard, *the* college for rich men's sons. It is still true what President Eliot said in 1869:—

No good student need ever stay away from Cambridge or leave college simply because he is poor.

The university commons there are so arranged that the necessaries for three simple meals a day (without eggs, fish or meat) can be had for less than three dollars a week, and thus the poor man is able to live with his fellow-students who can spend easily five times that amount. One of the recent gifts to Harvard is a magnificent clubhouse, the Union, intended to help the students who could not afford to join expensive and exclusive private clubs.

There is a very real social prestige in America attached to being a college man—or even a college woman. Fashionable girls will toil terribly to pass the very hard Matriculation Examination at Bryn Mawr, and parents will make sacrifices like those of the Scotch peasantry to send their children to college. The dull boy of a wealthy family has sometime or other to be coached up for entrance at Princeton or elsewhere. Americans of the cultivated class are amazed at the way wealthy Englishmen with boys at Harrow or Rugby never think of sending them on to the 'Varsity, but take them right into business or other work. The fact is explained of course by knowing that the Public

School life does for our boys something of what College does for the American youth.

It appears that there are on the books at Harvard 560 family stocks that, generation after generation, send sons to graduate. These families, says President Eliot, are of the real aristocracy of America.

The college thus fills in America a relatively much larger field than with us.¹ This is obvious in the highly characteristic American advertisements that are so clever and so effective. The college man's tailoring is the pattern, the college youth is the type of manhood, on the posters. Newspapers are full of university intelligence; not the meagre formal announcements of scholarships and degrees and appointments we have in ours, but regular articles, like our London Letter, or Paris Day by Day. Right up the scale of national life goes this interest and zeal, till we find an Ex-President, Grover Cleveland, devoting himself to Princeton,² while rumour whispers that the proper destiny for the President himself when he leaves public affairs is the future Presidency of another great university.

All this public confidence and zeal is embodied in the magnificent buildings and grounds of American universities—by far the most splendid and inspiring sights the country has to show. One would need the prose of a Ruskin and the poetry of a Matthew Arnold to do justice to Princeton with its cedars, its ivy, its lawns and gates, its superb and stately halls and hostels, its gymnasium, and its sundial, or to Wellesley so lovely by Lake Waban with its forty or more buildings scattered among trees of the forest primeval. This outer beauty and wealth is but a symbol of the inner spirit.

¹ "A new and higher price in American conditions is attaching to the cloister . . . the place to perambulate, the place to think apart from the crowd" (*The American Scene*, p. 57).

² Grover Cleveland died at Princeton, June, 1908, and is buried there.

The greater of these democratic institutions has cost the life work of thousands of devoted men. . . . At the sacrifice of other aspirations, and under heavy discouragements and disappointments, but with faith and hope, these teachers and trustees have built up institutions which, however imperfect, have cherished scientific enthusiasm, fostered piety, literature, art and public duty, and steadily kept in view the ethical ideas which democracy cherishes.

Harvard is the creation of thousands of persons, living and dead, rich and poor, learned and simple, who have voluntarily given it their time, thought or money, and lavished upon it their affection (Charles W. Eliot, *American Contributions to Civilisation*, pp. 83-84).

What, then, is a true university, and what is its function? Let two university presidents answer:—

An institution where students, adequately trained by previous study of the liberal arts and sciences, are led into special fields of learning and research by teachers of high excellence and originality; and where, by the agencies of museums, laboratories and publications, knowledge is conserved, advanced and disseminated (N. M. Butler).

Universities exist to advance science, to keep alive philosophy and poetry, and to draw out and cultivate the higher power of the human mind (Charles W. Eliot).

But all this is equally true here of our universities. Why, then, is there for them this intense belief, this zeal, this honour, this lavishing of wealth, this devotion of personal thought and effort by all classes in America? A wise man has answered: "The soul of America is in her universities". That is the reason; if they were taken away, she would die and become corrupt. It is not so here; if Oxford and Cambridge and their younger sisters were torn out of England, she would suffer, but she would live;

the Churches, the Houses of Parliament, the Services, the public schools, the great professional institutes, the families of her gentlefolk, the trades unions and the friendly societies, even perhaps the press (though not what it was), are all organs of her deeper mind in one way or another, and would keep her soul alive; in America without the universities all that is spiritual would perish, so strong is the power of material things in that new and wonderful world, so weak the other powers that make for righteousness.

To-day, in the opening century, the university proudly asserts itself in every civilised land, not least in our own, as the bearer of a tradition and the servant of an ideal without which life would be barren, and the two remaining principles (the State and religion) which underlie civilisation robbed of half their power. To destroy the university would be to turn back the hands upon the dial of history for centuries; to cripple it is to put shackles upon every forward movement that we prize—research, industry, commerce, the liberal and practical arts and sciences. To support and enhance it is to set free new and vitalising energy in every field of human endeavour. Scholarship has shown the world that knowledge is convertible into comfort, prosperity and success, as well as into new and higher types of social order and of spirituality. "Take fast hold of instruction," said the Wise Man; "let her not go, keep her; for she is thy life" (N. M. Butler, *Scholarship and Service*, June, 1902).

. . . The general kind of presence for which the noisy air over the land feels insensibly an inward ache—the presence that corresponds there, no matter how loosely, to that of the housing and harbouring European Church in the ages of great disorder. The universities and the greater libraries . . . repeat in their manner to the imagination, East and West, the note of the old thick-walled convents and quiet cloisters; they are large and charitable, they are stately, often proud and often rich, and

they have the incalculable value that they present the only intermission to inordinate rapacious traffic that the scene offers to view. With this suggestion of sacred ground . . . they create and consecrate all their relations (Henry James, *The American Scene*, p. 380).

ACCREDITING AND ENTRANCE TO COLLEGE.

In an ideal system of education the secondary school stands in the closest possible relation to the university, which is, indeed, the source of its inspiration. This influence may be exercised in various ways, direct and indirect; the teachers who make the school are themselves made at the university, and the standards and requirements of the school are profoundly affected by the requirements of the university for entrance, even if the majority of the pupils do not necessarily proceed thither. Indeed one of the most critical points in any system of education is the method of admission from school to college, and the relation of the two institutions turns more largely on this hinge than on any other.

The obvious and original method for admission, which still obtains in England, is for the college to examine the students when they come up, and see whether their earlier education has prepared them to profit by the advantages of the higher institution. This method still obtains in Eastern colleges in America, especially in the older or more august, Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, as well as in some newer colleges of special dignity, such as Bryn Mawr (for women), and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Originally each college conducted its own examinations, and this plan is still continued, but during the last ten years a system of unification and co-ordination has arisen. The varying requirements for entrance of different colleges have laid a terrible burden on the schools, especially when

a large number of different set books had to be read by candidates. This evil still persists, but is much less than it was, through the efforts that have been made for co-operation and co-ordination. Chief of these efforts has been the establishment of the College Entrance Examination Board, which was organised in 1900, at a meeting held at Columbia University, New York. Its work has become more and more important and its system has been gradually perfected until its examinations are now recognised for entrance by all the great Eastern colleges including Harvard; in 1907 over three thousand candidates were examined. Its system presents features of peculiar merit worthy of careful study in England: a detailed account will be found below. Its most essential features are that it is a voluntary organisation of college representatives and teachers, and that in all its work *acting* teachers are closely associated.

The examination system for admission to college, however carefully conducted, involves, in America, the same evils as those with which we are so familiar here—over-pressure amongst students, restraint in using the best methods among teachers, distortion of curriculum, and in general an emphasis on facts and knowledge rather than on thought and power. The standard for admission into the best Eastern colleges is, so far as we can judge, at least as high as the ordinary matriculation standard in England, and in some cases much higher than the Cambridge "Little Go," or the Oxford Responsions. The pressure on schools preparing for Eastern colleges in America is thus even worse than it is here. The majority of students proceeding to colleges like Harvard attend private schools, where they receive elaborate and careful preparation for entrance, such institutions being often called preparatory or fitting schools.

On the other hand, the examination system does,

it is said, keep up the standard, and is consequently strongly supported by the authorities of the Eastern colleges. It is also highly stimulating, probably much too stimulating, to the pupils in the schools; one notices, for instance, coming from the Western schools, an entirely different atmosphere in the New York and Philadelphia High Schools for Girls, where large numbers are preparing for these or equivalent examinations. One could only describe this atmosphere as one of greater intensity, of higher voltage—much more like the speed and intensity of an English school, which to-day is far from being a place of leisure.

American inventiveness exercises itself not only in the sphere of mechanics; it has elaborated devices in education to meet difficulties and deficiencies, as it has elaborated labour-saving machinery to overcome the disadvantage of a scarcity of labour. One of the best of these inventions is the Western system of admission to college which is termed "Accrediting". It sets aside the examination system with its evils, and while, like the sewing-machine and the typewriter, it brings in new difficulties of its own, it has simplified toil, relieved strain, and increased output.

Essentially the accrediting system is the sending up of pupils from certain inspected high schools to enter the university without any entrance examination. The school is made responsible, and all schools which are considered worthy of such responsibility are after inspection granted the privilege of accrediting pupils.

The theory of the accredited school stated as briefly as possible is this: The secondary school proves to the satisfaction of the university or college that it is able to give its pupils an adequate preparation for the advantageous pursuit of collegiate work; the judgment of the school as to the competence of the pupil to do so is accepted as final; the pupil is

in consequence not subjected to a test by the college authorities (E. H. Mensel, *The School Review*, May, 1904).

The system is essentially Western, and was invented to make a clear, smooth road to the State university from the public high school. Both these institutions are parts of one public system of organisation. It was felt that there ought to be no block or barrier to prevent pupils passing from the one to the other; if the high schools were doing their work properly, good students who had passed through the four years' course satisfactorily should be able to proceed to college. It was also felt that the old-fashioned entrance examination was not really satisfactory: students were crammed, not taught, immature and unsuitable pupils managed to creep through the barrier, and good boys and girls who were well fitted for higher work were unable to pass. The evils of the examination system as injuring really good teaching were also arguments for the evolution of another method. Historically the scheme began in the University of Michigan in 1871; we may quote from Professor Whitney:—

It sprang from two apparently antagonistic causes: first, from an earnest desire on the part of the president and members of the faculty to co-operate with superintendents and principals of high schools, with a view to consolidating, strengthening and elevating the entire system of the State; and secondly, from urgent solicitations of superintendents and principals of the leading high schools of the State for closer articulation with the university as an organic part of the educational system, to the end that each institution might react upon and stimulate the other for the benefit of each and the good of the whole.

Although at first severely criticised as an innovation, the system was so successful that it spread throughout the West, and is now universal from the Alleghanies to Cali-

ifornia. All the State universities have adopted it, though the methods of working the system vary slightly. The new University of Chicago, under the influence of the late President Harper, adopted it under a somewhat different form, the schools being termed co-operating schools, and the relations between them and the university being made close by the establishment of periodic conferences and meetings. Certain of the smaller Eastern colleges and the colleges for women in New England have elaborated a similar system of entrance on certificate, which will be described later.

The accrediting system includes four processes: the first is the inspection of the school desiring the privilege; this work was done originally in a somewhat informal way by members of the university staff. With the increase of numbers of schools applying, it has become impossible, with the professors alone, to inspect, and there is being developed slowly an organisation of special officers for the inspection, appointed and paid either by the university or the State. It must be remembered that there is no Board of Education in America, and no corps of inspectors as with us. When a school has been inspected, and its returns of curriculum, text-books, staff, etc., considered by the university committee dealing with the subject, the school is accredited for a specified period, generally three years. This is the second step. The third concerns the particular pupil, who, instead of passing the Matriculation Examination as in England, sends to the university a report of his course of study, showing the school record of work, the percentages obtained year by year, the books read, etc.; this is signed by the headmaster, and sometimes by the senior teachers in each subject. On this report the pupil, after paying the matriculation fee, is admitted to the college. The fourth feature is as essential as any of the others though it does not appear in every case. It is the

judgment of the college during the first year on the work of the students thus admitted. A report of this judgment is often sent to the school, and if there is conspicuous weakness in any one subject among the pupils of a school, the headmaster is warned, and unless improvement takes place the school may lose its privilege of accrediting. Freshmen are also sent down during the first half of the year if they are found to be insufficiently prepared. In the University of Wisconsin 10 to 15 per cent. are sent down between November and Christmas on the half-term Thanksgiving Examination of the University. Most of these appear to return to school for another year to study, but undoubtedly a certain number never come back.

It is the universal testimony of all who have tried this system that it works well, and there is no desire whatever to abandon it and go back to the old examination bondage. The criticism that would occur at once to an English teacher, that standards of scholarship are lowered, is definitely denied; certain Michigan statistics prepared after ten years of the system are quoted in this connection. The records of 1,000 students were carefully tabulated, and it was found that the percentage of scholarship for those admitted on certificate was 88.9, of those on examination 87, a slight balance in favour of the new system. Headmasters are found to declare: "I have in every case of two boys working side by side been able to secure better work from the one who expected to be admitted by certificate". The colleges state that they are better satisfied with pupils who have gone through *e.g.* four years of Latin in a good school than with those who have managed to cram up in a hurry enough Latin to pass an entrance examination. It is admitted, of course, that a certain number of unsuitable candidates are admitted on certificate, but defenders of the system state that the examination method is no better.

The system has, however, two weaknesses in practice,

which are freely acknowledged in conversation by those who work it and believe in it. They are: (1) The incompleteness of the inspection. (2) The lack of sufficient independence on the part of headmasters of schools, who find it difficult to resist local pressure to certify a particular candidate who is not really ready for college. It is interesting to note that neither of these weaknesses would at present obtain in England if a system of accrediting were adopted here. We have a complete and careful system of inspection, and it would be quite easy for the universities to establish bodies of inspectors, men and women, if the sums now spent on examinations were diverted to such a purpose. The headmasters and headmistresses in England are by tradition accustomed to take responsibility; they have a more independent position, are not as yet so dependent on local elective committees as are the principals of American High Schools. Professional feeling is so strong that they would probably not hesitate to refuse to certify unsuitable candidates for college, and public opinion would support them in any agitation which might result. It is probably because the heads of schools are not independent enough in America that the university has to send down so many freshmen who are found to be badly prepared in the first year.

The difficulty of incomplete inspection is generally admitted, and is emphasised by Eastern authorities like President Eliot of Harvard, who thinks that college professors cannot properly inspect any secondary schools without neglecting their own work, and that inspection needs skilled men giving their whole time to the business. The magnitude of distances in the West also adds to the difficulty of inspection by university teachers. In Minnesota the State High School Board does the inspection through special officials, in Michigan the university has appointed a special committee. The University of Wisconsin has

some officers entirely devoted to the work, but some of the members of the faculties also take part. They consider there that the value of inspection in stimulus to the school, and increased knowledge to the professor, of the local conditions and of the needs of the schools, is well worth the comparatively slight disturbance in the professors' ordinary work.

The writer endeavoured to obtain personal opinions during her visit to the University of Wisconsin, at Madison, from those who were working the system, and who were thoroughly familiar with its merits and difficulties. One of the most distinguished professors of the University emphasises the value of accrediting in bringing up all the schools to a better standard, and in preventing the University from getting out of touch with the needs of the population. "We must get in touch with the system," he says. Accrediting makes the schools better for all pupils, not only for those going to college—since the improvement and the enrichment of the curriculum and of the work generally through the influence of the University is a benefit to all. In the State of Wisconsin the size of classes has been reduced, the overwork of teachers checked, and the professional qualifications of teachers raised; and a much larger percentage of graduates now find work in the schools through the accrediting system. The same professor was familiar with the examination system in the East, but is perfectly satisfied with the principles of the Western system, though he thinks the details might be improved. In his opinion the East is coming round to see the merits of accrediting, though the influence of the great conservative institutions like Harvard and Yale is still opposed to reform.

The Professor of Education at this University lays stress naturally on the injuries to the best educational methods caused by external examinations. "A system of papers

from a central office eliminates the spirit and content of education, but these can be *observed*;" in other words, he favours inspection as a test of good teaching. Another authority in the same University emphasises the importance of having the doors open for pupils to proceed to college. "Public opinion demands that they should come on from the public high school to the State university."

Dean Burge, who has been in the University for many years, stated: "There was an examination in earlier days; the change to accrediting has made no difference in the standard. Preparatory work was cram. The examination kept out large numbers of students, and let in many we did not want; the net result, therefore, was no better."

The only unfavourable opinion heard in the University of Wisconsin was from Canadians, who prefer the examination system not only as securing thoroughness, but as giving power of work and of overcoming difficulties. It is worth noticing that men who were familiar with English conditions and who were engaged in working the accrediting system in America, considered it would work even better in England than it does with them.

Some Eastern teachers, while feeling very keenly the burden and evil of the Eastern examination system, which interferes with the spontaneity of schools, do not hope for an improvement, for they say: "Since in the East the smaller and the weaker colleges, and the colleges for women took the lead in adopting the accrediting system, Harvard and Yale despise it".

The accrediting system is so far worthy of study by English people that it may be well to enter into the method of working it in detail at the University of Wisconsin. Here, as we have seen, the system is so elaborate as to require a special committee and officers, and to have an important official in charge of its working.

The conditions under which schools are admitted to the accredited list are as follows:—

Any high school or academy whose course of instruction covers the branches requisite for admission to the University may be admitted to its accredited list of preparatory schools after a satisfactory examination by a committee of the Faculty. Application for such an examination may be made by an officer of the school to the President of the University, on the basis of which a committee of the Faculty will examine the course of study and the methods of instruction in the school, and on their favourable recommendation and the concurrence of the Faculty it will be entered upon the accredited list of the University. No school will be placed upon the list whose course of study is not fully equal to the four-year course of high schools recommended by the State Superintendent. The graduates of such an approved school will be received by the University without examination, on the presentation of a certificate showing the satisfactory completion of the fourteen required units, and containing the recommendation of the principal. Forms for such certificates, prepared by the University, must be used, and may be obtained from the Registrar. These certificates should be sent to the University before 1st August (Prospectus).

The blank form for the report of the inspection of a school is arranged as follows: General condition of school; teachers; course of study; laboratories and apparatus; one blank space for general remarks, including physical conditions; final recommendation on the inspection and the record of the action of the committee and of the faculty. Furthermore, each year the accredited school sends to the University a report of its own work, giving for each study and for each portion of a year or of a subject the number of students enrolled and lessons per week, the text-book and the name of the teacher. It also supplies a careful list of the teachers with their qualifications, and fills in the subjoined table:—

Total enrolment in high school.....	
Total enrolment in first year.....	
Total enrolment in second year.....	
Total enrolment in third year.....	
Total enrolment in fourth year.....	
Number of recitations per day for each pupil.....	
Length of recitation period.....	
Number of daily recitations for each teacher.....	
Number of units required for graduation.....	
Hours per week of laboratory work required in physics.....	
Is a special room set apart for physical laboratory?.....	
Approximate value of physical apparatus, \$.....	
Hours per week of laboratory work required in botany.....	
Number of dissecting microscopes owned by school.....	
Number of compound microscopes owned by school.....	
Is a special room set apart in laboratory for botany or biology?.....	
Number of volumes in school library (exclusive of public documents).....	
Number of general reference books (dictionaries, atlases, encyclopædias, etc.).....	
Number of reference books in history.....	
Number of reference books for foreign language study.....	
Number of reference books in English.....	
Number of reference books in science.....	
Money expended for books and apparatus last year.....	
Has the town a free public library?.....	
Number of volumes in the public library.....	
Time of session.....A. M.....P. M.....	

The University issues to the schools full lists of books recommended for the high school library ; the list of titles for history runs to twenty-two pages, and for Latin to eight ; these lists are, of course, compiled by the University faculties. The head of an accredited school also receives yearly a report on the students as follows from the University :—

DEAR SIR,

Believing that you will be glad to learn the result of the first semester's work of the students entering the University from your school this year, we send you a statement showing the

studies pursued and the grades attained in each subject. This statement is sent as a *confidential* communication.

This is followed by a list of names and subjects and results. It will be obvious from all this that the relation between the universities and the schools is indeed close and beneficial. The list of accredited schools numbers 363; there are 100 high schools in the State not accredited. The growth of the high schools since this system has started is said to be very marked, especially of late.

For the Minnesota system we are fortunate enough to have an account from the State Inspector of High Schools, Mr. George B. Aiton, Minneapolis:—

Our system of accrediting schools is very simple. The authorities of the State University accredit all State high schools. Students desiring to enter the University present a certificate from the principal of the high school or superintendent of the high school, certifying that the applicant is a graduate of the school, and giving also a list of his standings in the various subjects pursued by him in the school.

The applicant is admitted to such a department of the University and to such studies as his entrance credits apparently fit him for. Our State normal schools are likewise accredited by our State University. There are also a few private or denominational academies which are accredited. The latter are visited by a committee of the University professors. The high school visitation is done by the State Inspector. It should be said, however, that many of the University professors have a wide acquaintanceship throughout the State, and a personal knowledge of whether in general the inspector is doing his work properly. The inspector, however, is responsible to a State High School Board, not to the University faculty.

We think that our system has the merit of simplicity. Our inspection and system of State aid is free to proceed along whatever lines seem best, without undue cramming from its University side. We have a system of State examinations,

entirely optional, in forty subjects. The certificates are accepted for entrance credits by all institutions. A candidate for admission may, therefore, present these certificates without a diploma. In this way many villages are practically accredited. Even a teacher in a rural school may prepare students for the State University. In this respect our system in a way resembles the old Scottish parish schools.

Besides the organisation of each university, there has been formed a North Central Association of Colleges and Schools for Mutual Accrediting over the immense area of the Middle West; its standards of admission are very high: the association only accredits for one year, rejects schools with an abnormal number of pupils per teacher, thirty being the maximum, requires a staff of at least four teachers in each school, approved buildings, sanitation, laboratory and library facilities, etc., and requires a standard of fifteen units for graduation, that is for the leaving certificate. The list of approved schools contained is large—the report form is reproduced in the Appendix.

The system of the University of Chicago is remarkable in three ways: first, because the University is not a State University, but in American eyes a private institution; second, its accrediting is by subject so that the certificates can be presented from a given school for some subjects, and not for others; and third, because of the system of conferences with the head teachers, and of meetings for pupils from the affiliated schools. The University gives scholarships on contests, when hundreds of pupils come up to the University and are hospitably received and entertained.

The inspection by the University officials of a high school, which has asked to be put on the accrediting list for any of these universities, closely resembles a university inspection with us, but it is somewhat more genial and social in character. The inspector begins by meeting the

whole school and endeavouring to get into happy relations with the pupils, so that they will not be nervous when he visits the classes.¹ Equally important is a kind of public meeting in the town where the inspector has an opportunity of appealing to the local pride in the high school, and of making suggestions to parents and to the local education authority, and of appealing in general to public opinion. One can imagine what a difference this would make in some little Western town, and what stimulus and guidance the university inspector can give.

ADMISSION ON CERTIFICATE.

Although the accrediting system is characteristic of the West, there are a good many Eastern colleges which admit on certificate, that is, there are certain schools whose certificate that a student has passed through a specified course of study is accepted by the college as an equivalent for the entrance examination. This plan has obvious weaknesses; the college does not inspect the school; the schools and college do not form part of a State system, and there is no doubt that a struggling college will be so anxious to secure students as to accept certificates from good and bad alike. President Eliot, writing in 1890, calls the system "the feeblest of methods," and states that it has no safeguards whatever.²

Of late years, however, a voluntary association of New England colleges using this system has been established, and it may be assumed that such a body has taken away some of the reproaches levelled at the method. When the Board was organised there were 534 schools on the ap-

¹ One is reminded of an incident in an English inspection, when a class of eleven-year-olds, having seen the university inspector on the platform at prayers standing beside the headmistress, asked of their teacher next day: "When is Miss B.'s nice friend coming to see us?"

² *Educational Reform*, p. 213.

proved lists, and the list of the Fifth Annual Report contains only 247. The society is called the "New England College Entrance Certificate Board," and the address of the secretary is 159 Brown Street, Providence, R.I. Thirteen colleges of repute are now represented, including Amherst, Brown and Bowdoin, for men, and Smith and Wellesley, for women. It appears from the reports that no school is considered which does not regularly send students to one or more colleges represented on the Board. The application of a school for approval may be refused for one or more of the following reasons: First, because the records of pupils sent to colleges represented on the Board are unsatisfactory, and second, because the curriculum of the school, the number and preparation of the teachers and the equipment may be unsatisfactory. Schools are rejected or dropped from the list because of the poor record of their students who have been admitted to college on certificate; the real test on which the Board depends is the report from the colleges of what the students admitted on certificate do during the first year, and the annual reports of the Board contain careful statistics on this point. The Third Annual Report states that up to that time sixty-eight schools had been rejected because the records of the pupils, sent on certificate during the previous three years to the colleges represented on the Board, were not satisfactory. No school is approved for more than three years; the list is interesting; it includes, of course, a good many high schools and a certain number of private schools. In the case of some of the women's colleges, notably Wellesley, there is a close relation between some of the preparatory schools and the college, since *alumnæ* are heads, and teachers in school are keeping in touch with the college.

Vassar, in the State of New York, takes special precautions of its own to safeguard the certification system: a school has to fill up a detailed form giving an elaborate

description of the course of study, of the prospectus of the school, and the qualifications of the staff. Its application for the certificate privilege is submitted to all the heads of departments in the college successively, and on their criticisms the school is admitted or not. The individual pupil presents a certificate giving full details of her work, and a signed statement by the principal of the school that "She has pursued the following studies and has passed satisfactory examinations therein". Even with all these precautions, however, some of the Vassar faculty much regret the absence of any personal inspection of the school by officials from the college.

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS.

We have stated in the introduction that the admission requirements of an American college are reckoned in units, the unit being a course of five lesson periods weekly through the academic year at the preparatory school. This method of reckoning is used both in examinations and in the accrediting system, though it is obviously more important in the latter. It may be of interest to give the requirements of some of the leading colleges in detail: all require English, which always involves the reading of a certain number of standard books, as well as composition; mathematics is also compulsory. Latin no longer preserves its place as a compulsory subject, but many colleges still require it; physics is compulsory with some, and modern languages are often required.

In the West, as might be expected, the requirements are often less rigid; in some cases neither Latin nor any other foreign language is compulsory; the question as to whether manual training can be offered as an optional subject is a burning one at present, but some universities allow it. In Minnesota fifteen units are required, four in English, two

and a half in mathematics, and eight and a half in others; at the University of Wisconsin fourteen are required, two in English, two in mathematics, and two in a language; the other eight may be made up by doing more in the subjects already offered, or by doing history and other languages, science and manual training. At the University of Chicago fifteen units are required, the prescribed list being English three, mathematics two and a half, foreign language three, the remaining six and a half to be selected freely.

In the East the requirements are as a rule more exacting, Latin or good science being often compulsory, and more set books are required in English and languages. History is not commonly required, but is generally offered, and French and German are increasingly offered as options. Columbia requires fifteen points, three in English, three in elementary mathematics, and from candidates for a degree in arts, four in Latin; science candidates may present chemistry and physics and some other subjects instead of Latin. The Columbia optional list includes intermediate and advanced papers for which further credit may be obtained.

At Bryn Mawr the conditions of admittance are extraordinarily hard; we know no English university which demands anything like as much. Stated shortly, their rule implies a matriculation with six subjects, mathematics, English and history, Latin, two other languages and science, while the standard in any one of these subjects is never low, and in some cases rather high. Reckoning in units, twenty are required, but if fifteen can be obtained in the examination the failures can be made up at college by extra work, as, for instance, the three units of the third language. The official calendar gives the following details; the standard of work in English is perhaps better worth quoting than that in any other subject, since its interest is

more general, and since the strenuous demand in English is a peculiarity of American entrance examinations.

TABULAR STATEMENTS.

In order to obtain a certificate of admission to Bryn Mawr College the candidate must be examined in *all* of the following subjects, counted as equivalent to twenty sections, must take the examination in not more than two divisions, and must pass not fewer than four sections in the fourth division and not fewer than fifteen sections in the two divisions. No candidate will be admitted to Bryn Mawr College if conditioned in more than five sections.

<i>Subjects.</i>	<i>Sections.</i>
Algebra	2
Plane Geometry	2
Latin Grammar and Prose Composition	1
Latin Prose Authors	2
Latin Poetry	1
English Grammar	1
English Composition	3
History	1
Science	1
Greek Grammar and Prose Com- position	1
Greek Prose Authors	1
Greek Poetry	1
German Grammar and Transla- tion	3
French Grammar and Translation	3

} Two of these three languages 6

The number of sections allotted to each subject indicates approximately the time which should be devoted to preparation for that subject. Thus if, for example, the candidate studies five subjects in each year during the last four years of preparation for college, then Mathematics, Latin and English should be studied for all four years, since each counts as four sections of the examination; History and Science should be studied for one year, since each counts as one section; and the two languages (Greek and German, or Greek and French, or German and French) should each be studied for three years, since each counts as three sections, or three-twentieths of the examination.

ENGLISH.

(1) English Grammar. (2), (3) and (4) English Composition. The examinations in grammar and composition may be divided and may be taken in either division of the entrance examination. Although in and after the spring examinations of 1906 the examination in English will count as four points it will not be increased in difficulty; it will consist of a critical composition, such as has hitherto been required, and in addition, in order that the three sections of the examination may not depend solely on this critical paper, of one or two paragraphs in which the candidate will be asked to give in descriptive or narrative form the substance of important parts of the required reading.

In 1908 candidates must be familiar with Chaucer's *Prologue* and *Knight's Tale*; Shakespeare's *Richard II.*, *Henry IV.* (expurgated), *Henry V.*, *Julius Cæsar*, and *The Merchant of Venice*; Milton's *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, *Lycidas* and *Paradise Lost*, Books I. and II.; the *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers* in the *Spectator*; Matthew Arnold's *Essay on Gray*; Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*; Burke's *Speech on Conciliation with America*; Wordsworth's *Michael*, *Intimations of Immortality*, "Three years she grew in sun and shower," *The Solitary Reaper*, "O Nightingale! thou surely art," "The world is too much with us," "Earth has not anything to show more fair," "It is not to be thought of that the flood"; Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner* and *Christabel*; Shelley's *Adonais*, *Sensitive Plant*, *To a Skylark*, and *Ode to the West Wind*; Keats's *Eve of St. Agnes*, *Ode to Autumn*, and *Ode to a Nightingale*; Tennyson's *Passing of Arthur*; Scott's *Ivanhoe*; Hawthorne's *House of the Seven Gables*; Stevenson's *Kidnapped*.

As is well known the Harvard standard for admission is exceedingly high, and nothing but an examination will do. The University holds its own examinations all over the United States, and in London, Bonn, and Honolulu. It does, however, as we have said, recognise the corresponding papers of the College Entrance Examinations Board. It is not easy to reckon in units the Harvard requirements as given in the official register; the points mentioned, however, are not quite the same apparently as the regular

unit. It is obvious, nevertheless, that the standard is higher than the ordinary English matriculation; more subjects are required, and at least two advanced papers must be taken. For the A.B. degree an ancient language (Greek or Latin) is compulsory, for the science degree modern languages are sufficient. Failure in some subjects may therefore be made up after entering college. We subjoin from the register:—

DETAILED STATEMENT FOR CANDIDATES FOR THE DEGREE OF A.B.

The studies which may be presented in satisfaction of the requirements for admission by candidates for the Degree of A.B. are named together in the following lists. The figure attached to each study indicates the relative weight which will be given to that study in determining the question of the candidate's fitness for admission:—

<i>Elementary.</i>		<i>Advanced.</i>	
English (4)			
Greek (4)		Greek (2)	
Latin (4)		Latin (2)	
German (2)		German (2)	
French (2)		French (2)	
History (2)	<i>One of the following two:</i> { Greek and Roman { English and American	History (2)	<i>One of the following five:</i> { Ancient { English and American { English { American { of Europe
Harmony (2)		Counterpoint (2)	
Algebra (2)	Algebra (1)		
Geometry (3), <i>or</i> Plane Geometry (2)	Logarithms and Trigonometry (1)		
Physics (2)	Solid Geometry (1)		
Chemistry (2)	Astronomy (1)		
Geography (1), <i>or</i> Physiography (1)	Meteorology (1)		
Anatomy, etc. (1)			

A candidate for admission must offer from this list studies amounting to twenty-six points, of which points at least four must be in advanced studies. The studies offered must include:—

English	4
One ancient language (Elem. Latin or Elem. Greek)	4

One modern foreign language (Elem. German or Elem. French)	2
Elementary History	2
Algebra	2
Geometry or Plane Geometry	3 or 2
Studies amounting to two points from the following sciences (Elem. Physics, Chemistry, Geography or Physiology, Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene)	2
	<hr/>
	19 or 18

The Harvard elementary papers in some subjects do not appear as hard as an English matriculation, the algebra and geometry are certainly easier, but if a candidate were good in other subjects and had to take advanced mathematics he would need much more than in English, imaginary quantities, determinants, solid geometry and spherical trigonometry. The elementary history seems easy, and the advanced not very difficult; the advanced language papers are like those set as higher alternatives in the Northern Universities. We subjoin¹ the compulsory English paper of June, 1907 [there being a much harder English paper, which, if omitted, may be made up after admission to college], and some advanced history papers. The Elementary Latin, according to the opinion of an experienced teacher of classics, requires a greater quantity of work, especially of the reading of classical authors, than an ordinary English pass matriculation. The grammar and composition are about the same.

After careful study of the Harvard requirements and examination papers themselves, one cannot be surprised that very careful teaching has to be given in the preparatory schools, or that the public high school with its large classes and lack of individual attention sends only a quarter of the students, 75 per cent. being prepared in academies and private schools. It is a proof of the Ameri-

¹ See Appendix.

can zeal for education, the professional skill of teachers and the earnestness and ability of American boys, that there should be thousands of them in Cambridge at one time who have passed such difficult examinations. Great indeed must be the attraction of the Harvard "crimson" to have induced the dull or idle son of a rich man to have climbed so high a barrier. How many undergraduates would there be at Oxford if the Harvard standard of entrance had been applied there?

It is a fascinating but futile task to endeavour to equate the examinations of the College Entrance Examinations Board and the American entrance requirements generally with the English standards for matriculation. If one tries to reckon in units, the English matriculation comes out as at least at sixteen units; the calculation is, however, difficult, because we do not take our subjects in school year by year, a lesson a day, but keep them all running simultaneously with a fewer number of lessons a week. Matriculation Latin takes at least three years for girls, four lessons a week, and we do more in a lesson than the American schools do; taking this as a guide one might estimate the Joint Matriculation of the Northern Universities as follows (for arts students):—

English and history, three and a half units, or more.

Mathematics, algebra, geometry, arithmetic, four units or more.

Latin, three units or more.

French, three units.

Greek or German, two units.

Total, fifteen and a half units, or more, say sixteen.

It is, however, very difficult to be sure of this calculation, since most of the subjects have been studied for at least five years; all one can be certain of is the Greek or German, which does take two years to do, working at the American

rate of 150 lessons a year. Taking science, the scheme would work out roughly :—

English, history, and mathematics, seven and a half units.

French, three units.

Chemistry, three units.

Natural history, three units.

Total, sixteen and a half units.

It would appear, therefore, that the English requirements are in general a little above the American ; the requirements for the Massachusetts Institute of Technology are French, German, and physics, as well as English, history, and rather difficult mathematics, so that its examination is probably harder than matriculation, though the standard in English and languages is lower. On the other hand, the Harvard entrance seems on paper much harder than our Northern Universities Matriculation, and yet the Carnegie Foundation estimates it as under sixteen units in value.

THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION.

The whole question of units and entrance requirements is assuming extraordinary importance at present in the United States, since it has been fixed by the authorities of the Carnegie Pension Fund as a means of discriminating between institutions which are of sufficiently high standing to participate in the benefits of the endowment, and those which, while they bear the name of a college or university, are doing work that is really only of school standard.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, as it is properly called, is every year taking up a more prominent and useful position in relation to the whole subject of standards, organisation, and finance of the colleges and universities of the United States. It is thus doing

a most useful educational work, which probably could be done in no other way. Any one who wishes to understand American higher education should obtain its reports from the office, 542 5th Avenue, New York City. In April, 1905, Mr. Andrew Carnegie established the Foundation, endowing it with bonds to the value of ten millions of dollars (two million sterling), the revenue from which was "to provide retiring pensions for the teachers of university colleges and technical schools in our country, Canada, and Newfoundland". No distinction of race, creed, sex or colour was to be made, but sectarian institutions were definitely excluded. At first, State universities were also excluded. On 31st March of this year, 1908, Mr. Carnegie added five million dollars to the endowment of the Foundation, in order that State universities might be admitted to its privileges.

The first Board of Trustees selected to administer the fund were Charles W. Eliot, Nicholas Murray Butler, William Peterson of McGill, Montreal, the Presidents of Yale, Princeton, Chicago, and other distinguished persons. The institution was incorporated as the Carnegie Foundation by the State of New York. Its purpose is described in the first annual report as follows:—

It had for a long time prior to the establishment of this Foundation been evident that the time was approaching when, for the sake of education no less than of the teacher, the remuneration of the teacher's calling must be increased. The teacher carries into his profession a large measure of devotion and finds his chief recompense in the work itself; but, in the long run, it is clear that strong men will be attracted in diminishing numbers to this profession unless with the moral and intellectual reward there can be coupled at least stability of employment and protection against old age. Interested in this situation, and desiring to help in a large way the whole body of American teachers, Mr. Andrew Carnegie decided to found an

agency for providing in the higher institutions of learning in America a system of retiring allowances; and in doing this he had in mind not only the betterment of the teacher, the relief of men who find themselves helpless after long years of honourable work, the dignifying of the teacher's calling, but also the freshening of the work of the colleges themselves, by enabling them to put new men into the places of those whom old age or disability has rendered unfit for service.

This reform in the teaching profession is necessary everywhere, but it is particularly important to the United States, where professors are paid very badly compared with Germany or England, allowing for the extra cost of living. Almost the first business of the institution was to determine which, out of 950 institutions in English-speaking North America calling themselves colleges and universities, really deserved the dignity of such a rank. The following definition was adopted:—

An institution to be ranked as a college must have at least six (6) professors giving their entire time to college and university work, a course of four full years in liberal arts and sciences, and should require for admission not less than the usual four years of academic or high school preparation, or its equivalent, in addition to the pre-academic or grammar school studies.

Fifty institutions in the United States, and two in Canada—McGill, Montreal, and Dalhousie, Halifax—were accepted in the first year; eleven of these are in Massachusetts, and eleven in New York, which shows at once the place these two States take in higher education. As we have said, the standard of entrance measured in the ordinary unit explained above has been taken as a characteristic on which the recognition depends.

The better high schools require pupils to recite on the average four studies daily, five times a week. Assuming a study pur-

sued for one year with recitations five times weekly as a unit, the ordinary high school course would therefore furnish in four years sixteen such units, and some of the American colleges require as much work as this for admission. Taking into consideration the need for reviews, for possibility of changes of study and other conditions likely to arise, fourteen such units seem a fair measure of the work of the high school, and this is the standard which the Board of Trustees of this Foundation has adopted in its definition of a college. If a college requires fourteen such units for admission, it is maintaining the proper distinction, according to the educational practice of the present day, between the work of the college and the work of the high school.

Harvard is stated to require 15·7 units, Columbia 14·5, and Vassar the same. Institutions not yet admitted are raising their entrance requirements, and those recognised in the second year, which had been slightly below the standard, adjusted their requirements to fourteen units. The Foundation is also undertaking an inquiry into the various methods of the legal connection of colleges and universities with religious organisations, and the second report gives an interesting account of the denominational control on colleges. Such connections and control are defended on the following grounds:—

First, a belief that such institutions are more likely to be conducted by strictly religious men than other colleges; second, the financial assistance obtained from the denomination; third, and perhaps most influential of all, a desire for a constituency to which to appeal for students.

The Report for 1907 also contains authoritative essays on the place of the college in American education, the evolution of the American type of university, and the distinction between the two. The Board is now investigating the relation of efficiency to cost in colleges and universities,

including the number of pupils per professor. Clearly, then, the Foundation is doing a most important work, quite apart from the pensions and their effect in strengthening university faculties. Its own proud claim is already substantiated.

Here for the first time is created an agency which is conscientiously seeking to consider the problems of institutions from the larger view of the welfare of the teachers in all colleges and universities, and to take into account the interests not alone of a community or of a section, but of a continent.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS BOARD.

However one may wish that England would abandon the examination system, it is not likely to do so for some time to come; it is therefore desirable for English people to study the American methods of minimising the evils of examinations when the principle of examination is itself adopted or even welcomed. A most valuable organisation for this purpose is the College Entrance Examinations Board.¹ It is a case of that voluntary co-operation among educators which has done so much to secure uniformity in America; it witnesses also to the desirability of the reciprocal interchange of Matriculation Examinations at different universities. This movement has begun in England and has made some progress, but we still await one of the most important steps—the equalisation of the London and the Northern Universities Matriculation.

In the United States the colleges began the movement eight years ago, May, 1900. A meeting was held at Columbia, the then President being chairman, and Dr. N. M. Butler, the President to-day, being secretary. At first only colleges of the Middle States and Maryland belonged,

¹Post Office Sub-Station 84, New York, N.Y. The examination papers can be procured from Ginn & Co.

but others gradually joined, Harvard in 1904, until to-day the Board consists of twenty-six colleges and universities (each sending one member, generally the President or Dean), and eight representatives of the secondary schools. These latter are partly appointed by associations of teachers and partly by the Board itself. There is no woman among these schools' representatives and never has been, though on the other sections women are very fairly represented by university women, Presidents and Deans of certain women's colleges.

The Board has regulations for the admission of colleges to its federation: one rule being that there must be at least fifty students in the regular entering classes. Each college holding membership pays a subscription of \$100 (= £20); the other expenses come from the fees of matriculation students, \$5 (= £1). We may quote, from the Report of 1902, the official statement of its main principle, the co-operation of the secondary schools:—

The chief aim of the College Entrance Examinations Board is to secure, by means of a co-operation between all those vitally interested, *that uniformity of standards which is essential for the general systematic improvement of the conditions of secondary education.* In this co-operation representatives both of colleges and of secondary schools must have part. The Board recognises that it would be quite as inappropriate for a body composed solely of college professors to decide by a vote questions affecting in an important way the curriculum of the secondary schools as it would be for a body of school teachers independently to determine questions affecting the college curriculum. In every important problem that affects the relations between the college and the secondary school, the judgment of those who have achieved for themselves eminence in the world of secondary education is at least of equal importance with the judgment of those who have attained similar distinction in the college world. In recognition of these facts secondary school teachers

have been associated with the work of the Board at every stage. They are members of the Board itself, they serve upon the committees of examiners and upon the committees of readers. Their criticisms and suggestions are invited in regard to every part of the work, and receive consideration equally with the suggestions and criticisms that come from the representatives of the colleges.

It will be seen that here the Board surpasses any existing English examining body. They face, of course, the objection that the pupils of the representative teachers might have an unfair advantage in the examinations. Dr. Butler answers this in the 1901 Report:—

But, more seriously, it may be said that the secondary school representatives, chosen for this purpose year by year, must be men and women whose character and reputation protect them from any suspicion of using the knowledge which their positions as examiners bring them. In the second place, this Board has demonstrated in its year of existence that there are no such embarrassments as have been suggested.

He points out further that for college admission the test should not be a struggle between the colleges and schools over a kind of examination match.

It follows, therefore, that it is not only wise, but important and highly desirable, that representatives of the secondary schools, who have taught and are teaching the pupils, should confer with representatives of the colleges, who are to teach them, in arranging and enforcing a test the sole purpose of which is to determine whether the pupil is ready to go forward with advantage from the one teacher or institution to the other.

The rule as to examiners is that for each subject there shall be three, two professors in colleges and universities, and one an acting teacher in a secondary school. Women are always found among the examiners, though compara-

tively few in number, and women school teachers are very rarely included. For 1908 the names of two women occurred out of the forty-five, one a professor of botany and the other of English, in women's colleges.

The regulations of the examination are based on the recommendation of different voluntary associations and committees, like the Committee of Seven for History; papers are set in fifteen subjects and there is a varying number of papers for each subject, for different standards, different set books, etc. (thirteen Latin papers, seven Greek, nine Mathematics). From the results the particular college selects the returns it requires, and accepts or refuses the student accordingly.

Each institution will determine, after inspection of the certificate, for what subjects the candidate shall receive credit,¹ and whether or not the candidate can be admitted. The Board examines for college, but does not admit to college.

(FORM OF CERTIFICATE.)

College Entrance Examinations Board.

This is to certify that at an examination held at.....
, on....., 19.....,
 M.....,
 age.....years, a pupil of the.....school,
 of.....,
 appeared for examination in the following subjects, and has
 received the ratings entered below.

A selection from the statistics may be interesting. In the first year, 1901, there were nearly 1,000 applications, in 1907, 3,048 candidates entered. There are local centres all over the United States, and examinations are generally

¹ Every college and scientific school will determine for itself the "passing mark" in each of the subjects that it requires for admission.

held in London, Paris, Geneva and some German centre (Frankfurt or Dresden). A touch familiar to England appears in the award of competitive scholarships on the results. The ages of the candidates ranged from thirteen to forty-five, but the maximum number were between sixteen and nineteen years of age. The candidates were intending to enter a large number of institutions. The following were those having over a hundred on the lists :—

Columbia University	737
Cornell University	365
Harvard University	243
Massachusetts Institute of Technology	130
Mount Holyoke College	150
Princeton University	105
Smith College	230
Vassar College	150
Wellesley College	188
Williams College	139
Yale University	117

A list of schools sending up candidates shows that important public high schools prepare students, especially those in New York, the De Witt Clinton High School for Boys sending ninety-seven, the Wadleigh High School for Girls sending sixty-one, and the Horace Mann School sending sixty-seven; records which we in England should think very good for an examination which is at least of matriculation standard and in some subjects is higher. The character of the schools will be thus shown :—

	Number of Schools.	Number of Candidates.
Public high schools	331	1,174
Academies and endowed schools	103	508
Private schools	278	1,240

It should be remembered that, though a good many of the colleges belonging to the Board have done away with

their own separate examinations, some still preserve these; Harvard thus in 1907 examined 1,651, and Yale 1,567 candidates.

The Board may with justice boast that the advantages they hoped for in 1907 have worked out practically—

That they represent a co-operative effort on the part of a group of colleges, no one of which thereby surrenders its individuality.

That they represent the co-operation of colleges and secondary schools in respect to a matter of vital importance to both.

That by reason of their uniformity they will greatly aid the work of the secondary schools.

They have always set their questions to recognise the best methods of secondary school teaching; in Dr. Butler's words: "To control the examination system in the interests of education". Its effect has been to fix and elevate standards of scholarship, and the success of its work has undoubtedly led some American thinkers to recognise the good in examinations.

It was Mr. Gladstone's opinion that the power to concentrate one's knowledge, in so precise and definite a form that could be reproduced under examination conditions, was a quality worth having and training. The President of Columbia to-day owns himself of the same opinion.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

There is perhaps no university in the United States so worthy of study by English people of to-day as the State University of Wisconsin, at Madison. We have nothing like it, but many of us think we ought to have. It is truly a democratic University, and at the same time it is doing first-rate work in certain departments, and good sound work in others. Since the University is the creation of the State and is supported by it out of State taxation, the

tuition even being free to residents in the State, it could not exist unless it were what the people of Wisconsin want.

This State is chiefly agricultural. It has mining and lumbering industries, with possibilities of manufacture through its water power. The population, two and a half millions, may be very well compared with that of Lancashire or the West Riding of Yorkshire. Racially the inhabitants come from some of the best stocks that have peopled the United States; not only those of New and Old England and Scotland, but Scandinavians and the German Refugees of 1848, who brought with them a belief in liberty and in education, as well as the German skill in brewing beer that has made Milwaukee famous all over the Union. The scenery is unusually varied and beautiful. The State is sometimes called the Switzerland of America, though it has no high mountains and its snow comes in winter only. Its air, however, at least at Thanksgiving time, is finer than that of Switzerland.

Agriculture being the main industry, the University has a strong Agricultural Department, which, as the professors there say, carries the whole of the rest of the University on its back. What they mean is, that the farmers of the State, a folk as a rule not given to liberal taxation for educational purposes, recognise so fully what the University does for them, that they are willing to pay the £125,000 a year which the University costs.¹ It is a small sum considering that there is a body of over 300 professors, lecturers and instructors, and 3,700 students, of whom over 800 are women. The salaries list appears in the Official Report, and, considering the cost of living in America, it would appear that the Scots phrase, "We cultivate learning on a little oatmeal," must be true for a good many of the dons, as it is undoubtedly for many of the students.

Madison, it should be said, is the State capital (nearly

¹ See Appendix, p. 329.

30,000 inhabitants), a most beautiful town among hills and trees, between two lovely lakes with names as lovely as themselves, Mendota and Monona. The brilliant skies, the sunshine, even in November, the pretty wooden houses, the stately coloured brick or white marble buildings of the University form a whole whose charm is, in its own way, as great as that of Oxford. After the usual American fashion the University buildings stand in an open park-like space or Campus, called the Hill, and look across a mile of grass and trees to the dome of the State Capitol, the centre of the Government. To the left, the blue waters of Mendota sparkle through the brown foliage of the oak-trees, and the eye passes from the white marble library to the red battlements of the gymnasium, and round from building to building till in the far distance rise the barns of the University Farm, where, it may be said, is an excellent creamery, producing butter of a quality not often met with in America, and run at a profit to the department by the Professor of Agriculture. The whole scene is radiant with that joy of young life which is the true note of a university, whether on the Cam, the Isis, the Charles, or the shores of Mendota.

In that invigorating atmosphere everybody works hard. One could not do it at Cambridge, England. Summer sessions are regularly held and special winter courses for farmers themselves. There is one head of a department who in twenty-five years had only four summer vacations and seven weeks of odd holidays. Lectures begin at eight in the morning and go on all day. There are no games or Trumpington Grind in the afternoon, except on Saturdays. The writer will not soon forget, on her first weekday afternoon there, in exquisite autumn weather, going out as naturally as if on the Huntingdon Road for a walk, and expecting to see a good deal of student life on the way; but no, they were all shut up in the libraries, labora-

tories, or recitation-rooms, except a few fortunate men in the engineering course, who were doing surveying out-of-doors. But, in spite of the hard work, there are still cakes and ale, or rather cakes and ice-cream, in Madison; indeed the wonderful things to eat, the produce of the fertile Mississippi Valley and of the trained skill of the American housewife that were hospitably offered there, can only be paralleled from the kitchens of Trinity at Cambridge, though, of course, they were quite different in kind. Among the faculty the pleasant social life of the University went on just as it does at home, and when the curtains were drawn and the tea-table (a concession to English visitors) set, and the talk ran on the familiar 'Varsity themes, one could hardly believe that so many thousand miles of stormy ocean and wide-stretching plain lay between Madison and Manchester.

Oddly enough, both began their work in the same year, 1851, when Owens College opened its doors, the first of the new local colleges, and Wisconsin began with its first Class in North Hall. It was somewhat disorganised at the time of the war, but the close brought a new inspiration and growth to it. It was reorganised in 1886, when co-education was provided for, though the work of the women was, in the first instance, kept quite separate. It has grown steadily and fast during the last twenty-five years. The table below, which is taken from the Report of the Regents for 1906-7, shows the different departments of the University. The graduate school is, of course, a later growth, organised in 1895. It now is well attended and has a good standing. Research is done in it, not only in languages and science, but in history, political economy, and sociology.

Agricultural work is so important that a few notes on it may be useful. There are some graduate students; nearly 200 undergraduates for the regular four years' course, men,

and one or two women, who intend to be teachers or specialists; short courses for young farmers and for dairying, roughly three months, these being attended by about

THE ATTENDANCE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

1. *Number of Students During the Past Ten Years.*

College of	96-97	97-98	98-99	99-00	00-01	01-02	02-03	03-04	04-05	05-06
Letters and Science	872	947	995	1,096	1,137	1,176	1,234	1,312	1,476	1,579
Mechanics and Engineering	218	227	242	327	411	513	585	744	804	768
Agriculture	215	277	326	381	440	448	461	525	526	628
Law	216	182	214	231	266	260	226	201	183	154
Course in Pharmacy	64	61	55	51	44	35	35	36	33	32
School of Music	145	141	155	199	191	169	126	172	153	209
Summer Session	—	—	—	341	323	322	350	330	300	420
Summer School for Artisans and Apprentices	—	—	—	—	—	45	60	70	87	92
Summer Dairy Course	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16	16
Summer School	127	117	197	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Library School	25	16	24	36	40	37	44	30	59	51
Less twice enumerated	80	68	64	204	193	191	205	239	236	378
Totals	1,650	1,767	1,923	2,422	2,619	2,777	2,870	3,151	3,342	3,571

The Summer Session of 1904 had a registration of 395, and the Library School of the same summer was attended by 59 persons.

2. *Number of the Instructional Force.*

	96-97	97-98	98-99	99-00	00-01	01-02	02-03	03-04	04-05	05-06
Professors	49	49	52	52	55	58	59	71	69	78
Associate Professors	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	8	9
Assistant Professors	23	24	27	29	37	33	35	40	38	45
Instructors	23	26	28	31	37	46	58	65	96	113
Assistants	12	14	17	23	32	29	30	43	44	47
University Fellows	10	10	10	10	14	13	13	13	13	14
Totals	119	125	135	147	176	180	197	233	255	292

500; and lastly, meetings of about a fortnight during the winter, for practical farmers, who must be over twenty-five years of age, and their wives. Some hundreds attend, several being over sixty years of age. They learn to know something of the University, they attend lectures on technical subjects and practical demonstrations on the judging

of animals. For the women a housekeeper's conference is provided, with lectures and demonstrations on food, gardening, cooking, house-furnishing, etc. There is no fee for residents in the State; the farmers and their wives only have to pay their board and lodging, which costs about £1 a week.

Another side of the department's work are the investigations, conducted by the professors, into problems concerned with the improvement of produce. Work has been done on potatoes, strawberries, cranberries, tobacco, and the sugar-beet. The results have been distributed throughout the State to farmers, by the sending round of thousands of bulletins. It is admitted that the increased value of produce, through the application of these researches by the farmers to the practical improvement of their crops, has saved the State many times over the cost of the University. The Sociology Department is also seeking to do work for the State.

It is believed that here is a great field where the University can do immeasurable good. Says H. H. Jacobs, at the head of the Settlement at Milwaukee: "What the Agricultural Department does for the farmers, the Engineering Department for manufacture, mining and transportation, the school of commerce for business, the departments of economics and sociology should do for the great human interests involved in such questions as factory conditions, child labour, tuberculosis in its social aspects, juvenile offenders, home manufactures, housing conditions," etc. (Regent's Report.)

A summer session for artisans is also held, when the whole equipment of the College of Engineering, under the charge of members of the regular college faculty, is devoted to improving artisans in the principles and practice of their business.

There is provision for physical exercise, especially through the gymnasium and the boating.

The armoury and men's gymnasium is situated on the lower campus, on the shores of Lake Mendota. The first floor contains the locker-rooms, bath-rooms, gun-room and a natatorium, 20 by 80 feet. On the main floor there is an unobstructed hall, 165 by 98 feet. The third floor contains the base-ball cage, six hand-ball courts, two running tracks, and two rifle ranges. The equipment of the gymnasium is ample. In size, it compares with any in the West. Full opportunities for boating, swimming, etc., are afforded, as the lake is within a stone's-throw of the building. The University Boat House Association has a large boat-house near the gymnasium.

The women's gymnasium is located in Chadbourne Hall. It is two stories high, has a floor space of 71 by 40 feet, and is well provided with the necessary apparatus, dressing-rooms and lockers. The dressing-rooms connect with shower-baths, supplied with hot and cold water.

There is, of course, a football team. They play Minnesota, the neighbouring State University, on the Saturday before Thanksgiving, in the fierce and dangerous game which America has developed. In 1907 the intense excitement and enthusiasm, which had brought thousands of visitors to see and cheer the teams, were damped down, since the result was a draw; and the returning crowds after the match were as sad as if some terrible accident had happened.

Social life is very vigorous, especially in connection with the fraternities and sororities. Some students live in fraternity houses, which are, we are told, very pleasant. The Official Report on the women students states:—

To those who can afford to belong, and are fortunate enough to be invited to do so, the sororities furnish delightful homes. If adequately chaperoned, this grouping of congenial girls, in-

terested in making and adorning a home ; in letting that home radiate its hospitality to others, and in the mutual watchfulness, helpfulness and responsibility thus engendered, is admirable.

But it seems to your committee that the rules of the sororities and the chaperon selected should be subject to the approval of the faculty.

We understand, however, that there is considerable difference of opinion on the faculty as to the influence of fraternities, and just at present it is said the attention social life receives is tending to divert students from their work, and the following rule has been made:—

Section 10. No parties shall be held on other days than Fridays, Saturdays and legal holidays, except as authorised by the Faculty Social Committee ; all parties shall close on or before midnight except by special permission of that committee.

HOUSE RULES OF A FRATERNITY.

1. There shall be no drinking of intoxicating liquors in the house.
2. There shall be no gambling in the house.
3. The hours from 2 to 5 on all days except Friday, Saturday and Sunday, and from 7.30 on all days except Friday and Saturday, shall be study hours, and no loud noises such as playing the piano, etc., shall be allowed during these hours.
4. There shall be no card-playing on Sunday.

HOUSE RULES OF A SORORITY.

1. The house shall be quiet from 8-12 A.M., 2-5 P.M., 7.30-9.30, and after 10 P.M.
2. Calling hours shall be Saturday afternoon ; also Wednesday, Friday, Saturday and Sunday nights until 10 o'clock.
3. The girls shall not be out after 10 o'clock P.M. without special permission from the chaperon.
4. The girls must not be out driving after 9 P.M.

5. The hour for returning from parties shall be 12 o'clock, except such parties as are specially permitted by the faculty to continue until a later hour.

We have explained in the previous pages the Accrediting System under which students pass freely from the free high schools of the State to the free State University; when they come to college they have a two years' course duly prescribed, in which English receives special attention, a necessary duty, when so many of Scandinavian or other foreign extraction attend. In the third and fourth years a certain amount of specialisation takes place. Some of the professional courses are naturally longer than five years. There is no complete medical course. Students take what we should call the preliminary scientific part of the work, and go on to Chicago. As the institution is governmental, there is a department of military science, and all able-bodied male students in the first and second years have to take military drill. There is a University Battalion of Cadets.

Though no one of our new English Universities resembles the University of Wisconsin, one cannot but feel that its work and history is full of suggestion to those who believe in this new development of higher education in England.

Can these universities do more than they are already doing for local industries? Can they strike even deeper roots down into the life of their cities, till all classes understand and believe in them, as the farmers believe in and pay for the University of Wisconsin? Above all, can we make working-men feel that the city university is for them and their sons and daughters, that the road is open and that the industry and self-denial which in America take the young Scandinavian from a little Western town through the high school and the college will, being applied here, bring our mill-hands and our clerks into the kingdom of learning?

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK.

If we take Wisconsin as a type of the State University, Columbia may stand as a type of the other class—the colleges of colonial foundation, modelled on those of England, and still independent of the State as are our English Universities. Harvard, Yale, and Princeton are well known in England, if only through their achievements in athletics and the part their students play in American fiction. Columbia is more suited for special description here for three reasons: (1) It has developed in the most remarkable way during the last fifteen or twenty years under the influence of Presidents Low and Butler; it has added to the dignity of age the energy, the material wealth, and the intellectual distinction of its faculty which make it a fitting University for what is the real capital of the United States. The change is symbolised by its removal up town to Morningside Heights, where it has entered upon a new life. (2) It is in a sense co-educational. Women are admitted to its degrees and to its professional schools, and attend Teachers' Colleges in large numbers. Undergraduate women belong to Barnard College, one of the departments of the University, originally a separate institution, now taken over. (3) Columbia is a type of the great urban University—possibly in some respects the finest example in the English-speaking world. There is in England no exact analogue; London University is the natural parallel, but this is for England new, while Columbia is for America old, and London as yet, owing to its peculiar federal constitution, its two classes of students—internal and external—and the scattering of its constituent colleges over an area from Staines to Woolwich, cannot have the unity which Columbia, one in herself, possesses. Then, too, she holds a much larger place relatively in New York life

than the University can in London. In this the English analogues are rather found in the urban Universities of Manchester, Birmingham, and Liverpool; in some ways, indeed, Liverpool, though young and still small, is more like Columbia than anything we have. She is less conservative than some of her older English sisters; she has, like Columbia, the support and enthusiasm of the rich citizens in this generation, and she unites all sections of the population in the movement to make her worthy of the wealthy city whose motto is "Deus nobis hæc otia fecit".

But though we may compare and contrast we shall find no true analogy; Columbia is after all herself; her symbol the golden statue, on the steps of the great Library, that, stately, inspiring and beautiful, looks down over the city at her feet far away out to sea.

The buildings, indeed, are characteristically urban, and while they cannot have the charm of Madison or Oxford they have a massive dignity, an enduring and costly strength worthy of the organism that dwells there. The University occupies thirty-five buildings; among others a building for Domestic Science and Art is being added; the grounds cover 34 acres, in itself no mean endowment, in one of the best residential quarters of Manhattan Island. This area occupies five blocks, between 116th Street and 121st Street, northwards, and from Amsterdam Avenue to Broadway, east and west. There are open spaces for games, grassy lawns, and fine trees. The Library is the centre of the group of buildings, and contains also in the President's Office the heart and brain of the whole organism. This building is appropriately classic in style; it has a huge dome and a great portico with Ionic columns at the head of long flights of stairs. Its material, of course, is white marble, and the whole effect is stately and splendid in the highest degree. It is a modern Acropolis and Propy-

lea. The buildings around are each allotted to some department. They include dormitories (hostels) for men and for women, and a large Chapel—a memorial gift. Barnard stands west on Broadway, the Teachers' College and the Horace Mann University School at the north side, on 120th Street, so that the pupils at the midday recess pour out and walk up and down in what is, though a public thoroughfare, almost a University avenue.

For the history of Columbia we may quote from the official announcement:—

Columbia University is the result of an organic development from within, and of successive additions from without, extending over a period of more than 150 years. The oldest part of the University, and in a sense the mother of all the rest, is Columbia College, which was established, by charter of King George II. of England, dated 31st October, 1754, on the model of colleges already existing in England and the North American Colonies, and was opened for the instruction of students in the same year. The institution was named King's College. The Revolutionary War interrupted its active work; but in 1784 it was reopened under the name of Columbia College.

The organisation is worth giving indeed in some detail, at all events in part, since Columbia has reached what may prove to be a permanent solution of the problem of the American College (see above, p. 18). Its entrance requirements, as we have said, are the usual fifteen units, called points there, and drawn from a list, which may also be quoted:—

Columbia University recognises the following examination subjects, which may be offered for admission to one or more of the colleges and schools included in the University, each subject counting for a specific number of points as indicated below:—

English	3	Musical Appreciation	1
Elementary French	2	Musical Performance	2
" German	2	Physiography	1
" Greek	3	Shopwork	1
" History	2	Zoology	1
" Italian	2	Intermediate French	1
" Latin	4	" German	1
" Mathematics	3	Advanced English	1
" Physics	1	" Greek	1
" Spanish	2	" History	1
Botany	1	" Latin	1
Chemistry	1	" Mathematics	1
Drawing	1	" Physics	1
Harmony	1		

For a statement as to the combinations of subjects which may be offered by candidates for admission to the several colleges and schools, see pages 15-21 *Official Calendar*.

As at Harvard the word "College" is applied to that department which gives a general liberal education, but, as will be seen, Columbia allows this to melt into the professional departments and so to shorten the years of study.

"The aim and purpose of Columbia College, as a College within a University and the lineal descendant of King's College, is to give to its students an education which shall be liberal in the highest sense, and thus of the greatest value to those whose period of study ends with the attainment of the bachelor's degree, and which furthermore, even if the curriculum be not completed, shall form the best possible preparation for the study of a profession. The make-up of the Faculty of the College will be found on page 2. Instruction is given to students of the College by the departments represented in the faculty, also by members of the departments of Civil Engineering, Engineering Drafting, Geography, Music, Physiology and Public Law; and, as explained below (pp. 16-17) in greater detail, certain courses in the Schools of Applied Science, Law and Medicine, in Teachers' College, and under the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy, Pure Science, and Fine Arts

are open to students of Columbia College and may be offered in fulfilment of the requirements for its degrees.

“The College is thus independent, and yet closely articulated with the other parts of the University. A student, during his residence at the College as a candidate for the baccalaureate degree, while still securing an education fully entitled to be called liberal, may begin to prepare himself for the specialisation which is to follow his graduation. After the completion of a certain amount of work in the College he may, without ceasing to be a student of the College, elect some of the courses offered in the professional schools, and these may be offered toward both a collegiate and a professional degree, so that he may thus complete his collegiate and his professional studies in six years.”

“Briefly stated, the principle of the present Programme of Studies is this:—

“The unit of reckoning is the point, representing one hour a week for one half-year. For either degree 124 points must be made. All students must make ten points in English, twelve in French or German, six in History, six in Mathematics, six in Philosophy, four in Physical Education, and fourteen in Natural Science; in all sixty-four. Candidates for the Degree of A.B. must make also at least six points in Latin or Greek, and candidates for the Degree of B.S. at least six additional points in Natural Science. The passing of examinations at entrance in some of these subjects will exempt the student from taking them in College. The remaining points necessary for the degree are to be made by election.

“(1) Besides the Degree of Bachelor of Arts, that of Bachelor of Science is given, the latter for the completion of a course including a larger proportion of Natural Science, but no Latin.

" (2) While the acquisition of either degree depends, as hitherto, upon the completion of a certain number of ' points ' of work, partly prescribed and partly elective, much greater flexibility and adaptability to the needs of the individual student are gained by the abandonment of the four years' period as the normal time of study, and by making the half-year, instead of the year, the unit of measurement, so that students may enter in February as well as in September and be graduated at the end of either half-year.

" (3) The period of study may be shortened by the winning of high rank in several courses at once."

The tuition fee is \$150 = £30; the average total cost, including residence, is \$700 = £140, but £110 will serve with economy. New York, it must be remembered, is perhaps the most expensive city in the world for living. Over twenty competitive scholarships are given, and a number of general scholarships are awarded on fitness and need. There is a Committee on Employment for Students which helps them to find work, "for their partial or complete support, or, if possible, to extend assistance to them in other ways. Some of the openings available are: private tutoring, translating, addressing, copying of various sorts, teaching in evening schools, stenography and typewriting. During the year 1905-6 the student earnings reported to the Committee amounted to \$104,240.39. Communications should be addressed to the Committee."

A medical visitor who charges fixed fees is appointed by the University—a boon to poor students away from home. University Commons at fixed rates are also available.

Columbia preserves the English tradition of chapel service. Service, at which attendance is voluntary, is held every week-day except Saturday, at noon, the period from 12 to 12.20 being set apart by the University for religious exercises; and on Sunday afternoons at 4 P.M. There are also frequent organ recitals in the Chapel.

To this is added the American tradition of a building which shall serve as a home of the religious, philanthropic and social organisations and interests of students. It is open freely all day from 8.30 A.M. to 10 P.M.

The building may not be used for distinctly dogmatic or denominational religious teaching. All organisations, the object of which is to promote the religious and philanthropic life of their student members and of the student body at large, have the privilege of holding their meetings in this building. While the social purposes of the hall are necessarily subordinated to the other uses of the building, the secretary desires to promote the same type of informal personal and social intercourse that prevails in a good club.

Provision for the regular meetings of student organisations is made, on a day-and-hour schedule, without exclusive use of any of the rooms, in the following order: societies the purpose of which is (1) primarily religious; (2) primarily philanthropic; (3) primarily literary; and (4) miscellaneous student organisations.

There seems to be, for an urban University, a good deal of social life and an unusual amount, for a city, of athletics among the students generally. The various activities of undergraduate life, the educative force of constant association with one's fellows, are present in full measure at Columbia; and the existence of residence halls for students ensures the fuller development and wider extension of these helpful influences. In the session 1906-7 the number of officers of instruction was 562 and of students 4,611. The University, however, does not limit itself to regular formal work in the ordinary terms. It has a large Extension Department, which affords to the persons who cannot become regular students—especially to teachers—opportunities of instruction and study which count towards a diploma or degree on the American system of units.

Many of the collegiate courses are repeated at hours when persons earning their living can attend: the late afternoons, the evenings and Saturday mornings. This Extension Session lasts for thirty weeks during the winter. The amount of work done may be seen from the fact that the time-table for Wednesday contains thirty-six courses and for Saturday fifty-two. Besides ordinary academic studies there appear lectures and classes on Biblical Literature, methods of Sunday-school teaching, and manual arts of various kinds. This system is worthy of study by those who wish the University of Manchester to establish a system of evening classes leading to degrees.

A Summer Session is also held for six weeks in July and August. It is intended for three classes of students: (1) Those who wish to prepare for matriculation. (2) Matriculated students who wish to shorten their years at College by doing extra work or who have to make up deficiencies. (3) Teachers and others engaged in education who seek further liberal or professional education. Advanced instruction and opportunities for research are afforded. There are also many classes in Physical Education, Manual Training and Domestic Science and Art.

All this organisation, however, is not mere mechanical routine, but is the expression of vigorous life. Columbia to-day is a great leader in American education, and her voice is a signal and a rallying cry in all movements for reform; she is the arbiter of standards, and her approval is warrant enough. Would that in this generation we in England could strengthen and enrich our urban Universities, so that they might achieve for our cities and for the Empire what Columbia does not only for New York but for the whole United States! As Nicholas Murray Butler, her president and her soul, said in his inaugural address, of the ideal university:—

It keeps step with the march of progress, widens its sympathies with growing knowledge, and among a democratic people seeks only to instruct, to uplift and to serve, in order that the cause of religion and learning, and of human freedom and opportunity, may be continually advanced from century to century and from age to age.

CHAPTER IV.

METHOD.

There are nine and sixty ways of constructing tribal lays,
And every single one of them is right.—KIPLING.

Ama, et fac quid vis.—AUGUSTINE.

NO impression of American education remains more vivid to the English acting teacher than that of the difference of method; a difference embodied in the phrase "recitation" used where we say lesson. Class-work is an entirely different thing in America, and this difference makes one think, question one's own method, and at the same time question the value of the time-honoured recitation method of America. In Switzerland, France, or Germany there is no such marked difference; indeed the standard English system of exposition by the teacher, questioning the pupil, and building up new knowledge in class first, is called in America the German oral method.

Recitation is indeed an accurate description of what one hears, sitting in an American classroom; the pupil stands up and recites what he has learnt, whether from the standard text-book or from other sources. The teacher may question some statement in order to make sure that the pupil understands what he has said, other pupils will also question it. A girl will put up her hand and (the teacher giving permission by looking in her direction) will say, "But I thought that I read in ——" and will proceed to give some other view of the subject. A general discussion will follow which the teacher will *not* authoritatively close

by giving her correct opinion ; she will pass on to another part of the subject and ask another pupil to recite what he or she has learnt about it. If the reciter makes an error the teacher will call upon another pupil to correct it ; very rarely does the teacher make a correction herself, and still more rarely does she express her opinion. We were not struck by the good English or excellence of oral composition which we heard. The American boys and girls did not do any better in this respect than the English girls we know. One can hardly expect fluent, elegant oral descriptions and accounts except from practised speakers. With a class of thirty or forty and a lesson period of forty-five minutes obviously not all in the class recite ; quite half may take no share except as listeners. The presumption is that they have learnt up their work, that they are interested in listening to what others say about it ; their turn will come next day, and in any case it is to their interest to follow carefully what goes on.

Three criticisms must occur to even a sympathetic English teacher : first, the possibility of what in England would be a probable waste of time to the listeners. Americans say that these, though they often look indifferent and inattentive, are really attending ; they are used to the method and they play the game, so to speak, by listening attentively as well as by reciting readily when their turn comes. Second, the whole thing is very dull and slow ; each pupil speaks very slowly, with very little grace of delivery or beauty of language, such as might be expected from the teacher, and nothing like the same amount of ground is covered as is the case in a lesson on the oral method. With the recitation method in England we should not arouse sufficient interest to get the best out of our pupils ; we could not get through the work we have to do in the time, nor would English boys and girls be sufficiently quick and clever to understand the difficulties in geometry,

for example, or in Latin or French grammar, unless they had clear and skilful explanations from the teacher, who presumably understands the art of making things clear. Americans would probably say that their students are quick enough and earnest enough to make progress without this careful exposition and without this atmosphere of interest and intellectual stimulus, and there is probably some truth in the reply. Our pupils too often do not want to work, and their minds do move more slowly. We have been obliged to find ways of making class-work attractive, either by intellectual stimulus and interest, or by rewards and punishments, since we have not that strong outside belief in education which makes the task of the American teacher much more easy. It is also true that the examination demand has forced us to explain clearly to the duller pupils in the class difficulties which the cleverer ones could see through for themselves. Probably here Americans are right and we are wrong; we make the work too easy by, as it were, peptonising the lesson material, before giving it to the hungry sheep who look up to us to be fed. Our aim has been to help them to assimilate the knowledge required, not to develop in them the power to grapple with new material. This power the American recitation system undoubtedly develops, and this is one of its great merits.

Our third criticism is that the teacher appears to do too little; her share in the lesson is at a minimum; the new ideas do not come from her, her influence is indirect. Here, again, the American would say, so much the better. The democratic ideal is undoubtedly one cause for the existence and the popularity of the recitation method. The teacher and the pupils are very much on a level. She is not teaching them; she acts rather as chairman of a meeting, the object of which is to ascertain whether they have studied for themselves in a text-book, and what

they think about the material they have been studying. Clearly, then, the master is the text-book, and here we strike on a vital peculiarity of American education. Its aim has been intellectually the mastery of books; with us education has always been very much more, always and everywhere, a personal relation. The children learn from the master or mistress with or without the aid of a book.

In a good school in England we should say that the teacher knew or ought to know more than the text-book. In any case we feel, rather than judge, that the child can learn more from the living voice of the teacher than from any book. The German oral method also considers that the teacher should be the centre and source through which more knowledge is won. The difference can perhaps best be stated by saying that in the one case new material is grappled with first in class by the teacher and pupil together, which is on the whole we think the English and German ideal; in the other the pupil, out of school, studies the new material first in the text-book and goes over it in class afterwards with the teacher. The great merit of the American method is clearly that the pupil works for himself and does not depend on the teacher. This need not be absent from the English method—in all our best teaching it is a cardinal feature—but the chief advantage of the English method at its best is that the child is led along according to a *plan*, which it is the teacher's work to see accomplished. She may consciously and definitely use the Herbartian steps in making her plan, whether for a single lesson or a section of several lessons, or she may only instinctively prepare and present and generalise and apply. But the plan is there, as it is indeed in all first-rate teaching.

There is, however, another great merit in American eyes of the recitation method which has been stated very definitely by Dr. W. T. Harris; it is that of the co-operation

of pupils "to bring out the details of the lesson in a variety of different aspects, each pupil giving the result of his own study, and learning from the others their results". In his opinion the teacher must call out from other members of the class what is needed to correct the one-sided character of the recitation of the first pupil; thus ideas not even in the teacher's mind will be brought out. Dr. Harris also thinks that the pupil can understand better the statement of an idea in a fellow-pupil's own words than in the teacher's words; he can understand better, *e.g.*, a pupil's explanation of a difficulty in geometry than he can the teacher's. There is undoubtedly much in this view. At the same time all really good English oral teaching attains both ends. It is considered in America that the recitation stimulates the pupil to study the new material better; he has been shown what others have found in the text-book, and he is roused to see what he can do for the next day. "Self-activity, power for independent research, acute, critical insight—how can these be obtained apart from contact with one's fellow-men striving toward the same goal?"¹ The ideal, then, of the American recitation is the combination of the work of all the members of the class under the guidance of the teacher, who should do as little as possible except question and guide; the result will be "a vigorous training and critical alertness," and also—which will not have occurred to an English teacher—a uniformity of view.

Dr. Harris thinks that a merit of the recitation is that the pupil has learnt most from his fellow-pupils. We should hardly think this a merit without more qualification of a practical kind than it receives at the hands of American teachers. If a boy is not to have his own view, or has no view of his own, he ought at least to know the

¹ Paper read before the American Institute of Instruction, 12th July, 1906.

teacher's view. It is, excepting in the case of the very cleverest of children, more than they can manage, to get the various spontaneous contributions of members of the class into form, and so to obtain a sort of composite photograph of the average of the class. We should probably say that the teacher's view, arrived at after the free interchange of opinion for which good oral method leaves ample scope, should be expressed. It may and should fit the case better, and so convey a view which is actually more correct than can be got from the text-book, taking circumstances into account. The rise of the method can be explained from historical causes; in the old ungraded rural school of America, meeting perhaps only for a few months in the year, taught, it may be, by a woman in the summer, and a man in the winter, there could be no classification or organisation. Each pupil worked through an authorised text-book, much as in the old Scottish rural school, when a ploughman might come back for a couple of months to rub up his arithmetic or English in the book he did not finish before leaving school. The teacher went round and helped individual pupils over difficulties, or heard them "recite" the lesson they had each learnt, while the others went on with their own tasks. Then when the schools came to be graded, a number of pupils at about the same stage could recite together out of the book, and so the recitation method developed, evolved by the American genius for invention to fit the necessities of the position. Among these conditions was the absence of a body of experienced and skilled teachers; much of the work was done by all sorts of people, many with very scanty qualifications, who would "teach school" for a few months to earn enough to go on with some other occupation. Such people could not be in the true sense of the word teachers; they could "conduct recitations" and engage in the friendly questioning and discussion as an

equal, which the American method implies. When first-rate, highly qualified, skilled teachers come to play on this instrument they bring forth from it a wonderful result.

The writer was fortunate enough to see some very fine work by a woman teacher, brilliant, systematised, full of interest and fire, the pupils really taking part and bringing their material which the teacher skilfully percussed so that it kindled. Indeed the recitation method at its best and our own oral method are almost identical in effect; and far excel as educational instruments anything that can be attained by lectures. But how rarely is it seen at its best! At its worst, of course, it becomes mere memoriter repetition out of the text-book with very little intelligence anywhere; any teacher would do for this who could keep order.

American teachers are required by this method where it is not mere memoriter work to do a great deal of preparation; they must be familiar not only with the subject, as we are, but with what all the leading text-books say about it. Some have to spend hours in the public library looking up every possible reference that a pupil might make in class.

Whatever we may feel to be its drawbacks many of us have much to learn from the recitation method; after all, the pupil ought to do the work and be self-dependent, and learn to use books and speak out and to maintain his or her own view in the class. The use of the library to supplement the text-book is also a great merit in the recitation method, but here we cannot do much except incidentally unless we can reduce the number of subjects studied at one time. If our pupils carried, as they say, only four or five subjects at once, with a lesson every day, or nearly every day, in each, we could use the school library, encourage investigation by the pupils, and reduce our written work, following some of the best characteristics

of the American method. In all the various reform movements in American education, which is so marked to-day, there is, so far as we know, none in the direction of the lecture method; reform is desired, but it has not taken this shape.

For some years past the laboratory method has been pursued, not only in science, where it is the only possible one, but in history. It resembles the recitation method in depending on individual work, where each pupil trusts his own results, and where the collective work of the class is in the end gathered up together. In American high schools science was at first learnt out of books, and to some extent this is still done, especially in zoology, physiology and physical geography, but in more advanced regions the text-book has been abandoned. In science teaching its place is taken by a syllabus of experiments; the pupils follow these under direction, and make very careful notes, the note-books being required by many colleges which demand science for admission. The method is seen at its best in the physics for college entrance which is very often the characteristic study of the last year of the high school course; the pupils work through the experiments with diligence and interest; the teacher may discuss some difficulty with a small group, but very rarely himself demonstrates. The note-books are certified for college by the teacher's signature. Their use of the blackboard is also a device we well might follow; the classroom is often lined with blackboards on three sides where fifteen or twenty pupils can work. Half of the class will write their home-work algebra (or part of it) here, while the other half work in their books, or look on and criticise. A lesson period will thus be filled up, the teacher doing little except asking an occasional question or answering one from a pupil, perhaps adding a comment or reference from another section of the subject. The American, so

far as one saw, does not cover himself with chalk and his blackboard with formulæ as some of our mathematical teachers do! We do not think that the women on the staff there complain that nothing but grey tweed will stand school wear, nor would a headmistress need to put on a different dress the day she had to teach algebra. German composition, Latin grammar and geometry are also written out on the board, and this makes possible correction and discussion of difficulties on the blackboard in class, and lessens the teacher's burden of corrections at home.

Manual training necessarily is even more a matter for the laboratory method than science or mathematics. A sheet of directions and a drawing or a blue print for the shop work gives the guidance needed. In the boys' manual training high schools the writer was very much impressed by the difference between the work in the classroom—Latin, English, history, etc.—where the recitation method is followed, and the work at the bench, vice, or forge in the manual training shop. In the one the boys seemed slack, slow, and indifferent; had one been officially inspecting in England it would certainly have been condemned. One must remember, however, that this side of the curriculum seems much less important to the boys. In the workshop, on the other hand, the intensity of application thrilled one with the sense of the fervour, the interest, the enthusiasm these boys flung into their manual training work; the rate was about three times as fast, and what one can only call the voltage or intensity of application was considerably higher. The boys evidently believed in what they were doing, in the one case, and worked each for himself; they had accepted their literary class-work as something that had to be gone through decently because it was in the programme. After such an experience one cannot wonder that reforming Americans press for handwork or manual training of one kind or another in the schools.

There is a further reform movement which is described in a new and revolutionary book by Preston W. Search, a teacher and superintendent of many years' experience who has been studying at Clark University under Stanley Hall.¹ The author is a leader of individualism in the sub-collegiate grades, as Dr. Stanley Hall calls him ; he says : " We must reconstruct our educational system, must depart from uniform requirement ". " Too much time is lost while others are reciting. " " The ordinary form of recitation is too expensive. " " The teacher is too much a hearer of lessons. " Mr. Search advocates something like a return to the individual work in former times ; in Latin, say, one and a half hours per day is spent in the Latin laboratory, each pupil working steadily along at Cæsar, grammar, composition, etc.

The method was individual, so that each pupil had practically the value of the entire period, there being no interruption of the general class while one individual was qualifying to his teacher.

The teacher had only twenty pupils, and was thus able to supervise and direct the work of all ; its great merit is that one is able to cover, say, 110 chapters, another 140, while the average of the class did from 60 to 90 and a few weak pupils 40 and 45. The details of an experiment of this kind in a Colorado School are given on pages 28 and 30. Mr. Search considers that this method would allow for individual variations, conditions of health, growth, delicacy, loss of time through illness, and would give the able pupil the opportunity of going ahead. He states that the dull pupil " is soon crowded out, and is not counted in the number belonging " under existing conditions. As in the laboratory, a small group from time to

¹ *An Ideal School : or, Looking Forward.* Appleton & Co., New York, 1907.

time who are at the same stage may be able to work together. In mathematics such a method is, one knows from experience, particularly valuable.

The beauty of individual work is that no two teachers conduct it alike. Sometimes the teacher proceeds very much as one would in a drawing lesson, passing from pupil to pupil, vitalising each one by personal inspiration, suggestion and kindly criticism while sitting by the pupil's side, and occasionally illustrating some common principle by class explanation (p. 211).

The plan of this ideal school implies that all the work should be departmental, a teacher teaching her own subject only, as in the high school; young children, five to ten, are to be taught in a play school or an "elementary school". Mr. Search clearly disapproves of the recitation method as ordinarily employed; he speaks of a pupil "wasting thirty-five minutes passively waiting while the others are reciting".¹ Answering the objection that his method means one teacher to twenty pupils, he points out that under the ordinary system half the time is wasted in "dormancy and dreaming". He also asks:—

Is every child in the class normally interested? Is there free opportunity for each one to live up to the best that is in him, whatever the degree may be? Is there not always an honoured head to the class, and also a discouraging tail? Are the pupils of the class equally occupied during the moments of the recitation? Admittedly some are getting great value from their recitation; but are all so benefited at every point of procedure? Are not some of the pupils carefully calculating their chances of being called on, with every encouragement to take a rest as soon as their turns have passed? Are not many learning skill in looking the teacher squarely in the eye, without

¹Some American teachers visiting English schools seem to appreciate the fact that our methods save time.

hearing a word that is being said? Is there not encouragement to the shrewd practices of certain pupils, who know how to successfully get a chance to recite on the easy passages and to throw the more difficult ones to their classmates; or to call out the talkative teacher who can almost always be induced to kill time until the recitation closes? What are the ethical values of this kind of work? Or suppose the work is all honestly done; how much of the work does each pupil recite on? What fraction of the recitation period is he actually reciting? (pp. 292 and 293).

A passing visitor would not dare to make these criticisms, but when one finds them made by American authorities one cannot but think that the method may have something to do with what are generally admitted to be weaknesses in the American system: the greater number of years which have to be given there to education, and the lower standard reached by American boys of eighteen compared with those of France, Germany, or the better schools of England.

Another reform in method is now being advocated in Boston by the same company of leaders who formed the Social Education Congress of 1906. It is called self-organised group work. Dr. Colin Scott of the Boston Normal School is considered the best authority on the subject. It is based on the social idea that the pupils should learn to be of service to one another. America is the most individualistic of countries; there is much in her commercial life to encourage the idea of each man for himself, with the cynical Scots addendum as to the fate of the hindmost. The schools should counteract this selfish and materialistic notion. They have, especially in America, gone the other way. In the *Social Education Quarterly* for March, 1907, Wilbur S. Jackman said, speaking of an inquiry made into the school life of a number of university students:—

There is not a single instance noted when there was any attempt made to establish relations of helpfulness among the pupils themselves. There is, however, considerable mention of various means employed by the teacher to keep the pupils in a state of isolation from each other. As a matter of fact some of the most elaborate and artistically stupid parts of the school machinery have been especially devised for the purpose of keeping pupils from mutual assistance; whereas, the thing above all else demanded in society at large is that its members shall help each other to the utmost. The only places where mutual helpfulness is not recognised as being in every way worthy is in school and in prison; in this particular the teacher behind the desk and the guard mounted on the walls have something in common. It is most unfortunate that this tendency toward mutual assistance is treated as though it were an iniquity—as an especial brand of original sin; while, in fact, it is the latest dawning and most lovable, civilising trait in human character.

The proposition to transform the school into a well-organised social institution is not merely a matter of abstract theory or pure science. It is a definite expression of a movement to make the schools, in common with other agencies, a positive force in bettering the conditions of life.

This proposition rests upon the foundation-stone in human character that up to date has been rejected by the educational builders; namely, the natural tendency of children toward helpfulness. The spirit of consideration and helpfulness is what we most need in human life, and the schools must cherish it in the children and train directly for it. The kindergarten, here as ever, is the best type of what we want in school life clear through the university. Go into any good kindergarten and note how gladly the children participate in the many opportunities for co-operation in living their simple and beautiful life.

Group-work is intended to socialise the child, which means briefly, as applied to the school, "helping children to educate themselves by letting them co-operate with kindred souls in pursuit of wisdom and power".

The class is formed into self-directive groups; the children determine what they shall study and how. Very interesting experiments in working out this method have been successfully undertaken; one in history by Miss Lotta Clark at the High School, Charlestown, Boston, has lasted two years. The work was divided up among members of the class, and a "Sidelights Club" was organised to work at collecting pictures and other illustrations. Miss Clark says (*Social Education Quarterly*):—

And what was the teacher's part in this new order of things? She was learning the truth of the statement that "no teacher is equal to the dynamic force of the class before her". Her energy was taxed to the utmost to utilise all that the pupils produced, to help to get material for them, to find and suggest books to be consulted, and to give them credit for work done.

Our history work was completed two weeks before the school closed, and the extra time was spent in debates, reporting items of interest, and in making the note-books which they were to take home as rich and attractive as possible. As the year closed, I felt that I had never done such a satisfactory year's work, and in all the classes the pupils asked if they might not be allowed to continue their work next year in the same way.

At the Hyannis Normal School Principal Baldwin has experimented under elementary conditions. He says:—

Such work is, I believe, growing in favour among our most thoughtful teachers. It points the way to a reorganisation of our schools on the basis of sympathetic co-operation and intelligent citizenship.

In some grammar schools (elementary) group-work has been taken once a week, the children choosing their subjects. Great interest is raised and excellent progress made. Undoubtedly, so far, it is clear that this method saves time and effort, because the pupils *really know and remember what they have worked up*. Dr. Colin Scott has proved

this himself at the Boston Normal School in psychology, a difficult subject for girls eighteen years of age. This class covers the official syllabus in half the time, and passes good examinations. The mental stimulus is extraordinarily strong. But the teacher must not assert authority: it is an example of the contrast between the kingdom of law and the kingdom of grace. The writer was fortunate enough to hear Dr. Colin Scott's class at work on psychology. It was wholly self-organised; this was typified by the arrangement of the room. A circle of chairs was formed as for conversation; the girls, the visitor, and the teacher all sat round together. Three girls had charge of the subject for the day—visual images; they had chosen one girl as spokesman, who gave her account of what they had found out. The others took notes and asked questions. The teacher interposed only on occasion to clear up by skilful questioning any obscurity. There was a discussion, when all the students were thinking, and concentrated earnest effort was being made. Then another group took up the running, and a girl said: "I will continue my topic, perception and idea". At the end the teacher made clear three difficult points. No syllabus is laid down beforehand. The pupils suggest what they would like to work at. The same method is followed in biology.

This self-organised group-work on social lines is related to the Dewey movement and to industrial education. It is well worth investigation by English inquirers. We also have checked too much in school the instinct for pupils to work together. They can often help one another in a perfectly fair way, just as grown-up people do when they work together. The syndicate for lessons in No. 5 study of *Stalky & Co.* was not only human but sensible, and the wiser masters at Westward Ho recognised its pedagogic merit in their private discussions. What we want to do is to recognise syndicates in the classroom.

Mr. Jackman's words may form a fitting conclusion to this sketch of what may prove to be a real advance in method. He was a true prophet of education, "who being dead, yet speaketh".

To sum up, therefore, the resources of the school which the teacher may utilise in the development of a social organism we have on the part of the pupils (1) a natural spirit of helpfulness; (2) an inborn love of work; (3) a desire to take the initiative; (4) an ambition for creative work; and (5) an alertness of mind toward public needs. Upon these foundation-stones the social structure must be reared.

That these qualities of character may be normally developed, the curriculum must provide an abundance of suitable material; the class exercises must keep to the forefront matters of public interest and the entire organisation must offer a maximum of freedom to the individual who thinks and works in the interest of the common welfare. Every one recognises these elements of character as being those which give us the highest type of citizenship in the community at large.

CHAPTER V.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

Vous enseignez la science mère.—GAMBETTA.

IT would, of course, be impossible for any one teacher to study and to understand the methods of teaching every subject in the schools and colleges of another country, and thus it is usual for an observer to select those particular subjects which he teaches at home. We may quote as examples the Report of the High Master of the Manchester Grammar School on the teaching of Latin in Germany, and some of the Mosely Commission Reports on Engineering, Legal, and Medical Education in the United States.

The present writer has been a teacher of history for twenty-six years, and has had occasion through the new Historical Association in England, and in other ways, to give particular attention to the organisation and methods of teaching the subject. She therefore made a special study of it in America, and whenever possible went to recitations in history. But though the grounds of action were personal, the choice was worth making for its own sake.

There is perhaps no subject in education better worth studying in America than history; it is taught universally, and throughout the whole range, in primary and secondary schools, in colleges, universities and technological institutes, even in the new trades schools of Manhattan and Boston. English is the only subject more pervasive, since arithmetic ceases after the elementary school stage, and foreign

languages and formal sciences do not begin till the secondary school is reached. Every one believes in history as a necessary part of education, and, so far as curriculum is concerned, the place it takes in America may be considered as a norm towards which the members of the Historical Association might well work in endeavouring to promote the further extension in England of the subject. It is compulsory to a far greater degree there than with us; the work in the public elementary school, where the great mass of the citizens are trained, has been further developed and studied than as yet has been the case here. Although the school law of every State of the Union may vary from that of every other, the teaching of history in the public schools is general throughout—of United States history that is—and it is taught well in the more progressive areas. Good text-books have been written and good methods worked out; especially is this true of the later years of the course, the grammar grades as they are called, the seventh and eighth years. The need for the definite teaching of patriotism in a country which has to absorb yearly an enormous number of foreign immigrants is responsible in part for the importance attached to national history, this being a manifestation, too, of that proud national self-consciousness which is so remarkable to the silent, shy Englishman.

In the private institutions giving elementary education, such as the wonderful Horace Mann Elementary School at Columbia University, New York, some European and ancient history is taught to the younger children. This school, like the famous Dewey Experimental School in the University of Chicago, builds its curriculum year by year on a historic basis. "The child in his school life should live over the industrial life of the race." Most fascinating work on these lines is to be seen in the classes of these schools. Professor Dewey's principles may be most con-

veniently gathered by the English student from *The School and the Child*, edited by Professor J. J. Findlay, who is experimenting in the Demonstration School attached to the Department of Education in the University of Manchester, in the adaptation of these principles to English conditions. Here we are concerned not so much with the teaching of the three R's along Professor Dewey's lines (a subject itself worthy of a whole book), as with the place history has in his curriculum. The children of the first grade, six years of age, study the life of primitive man, the Indian and the Eskimo. At the Horace Mann School they are particularly fortunate in having a splendid anthropological collection close at hand in the Metropolitan Museum, New York; but Indian life is, of course, much nearer to American children than anything we can have, in a much older country. The second grade study the pastoral and agricultural grade of human history, animals, the farm, etc. Here, of course, in England, Biblical stories could be correlated, as they are in the Horace Mann and the Chicago University Schools. In the third grade the beginnings of trade and discovery are applied to local conditions; in Chicago the life of the early explorers and the geography connected with the development of Chicago are studied, and these are continued into the fourth grade. In the Horace Mann School, Henry Hudson, New Amsterdam, the Dutch settlers are, of course, more suitable, and in the fourth grade, ten to eleven years of age, the lives of typical men of action connected with the development of the nation, like John Smith, William Penn, Washington, Boone, and Lincoln, the makers of the nation, are the subjects. The writer visited the Chicago Elementary School just before Thanksgiving, the great national and family festival of the United States. The fifth-grade children there had been studying the history of the Pilgrim Fathers, and they were just preparing for a party at which

they were to receive their parents, when everything as far as possible would be a reproduction of seventeenth century colonial life. The children had made costumes for their simple acting, and were to cook baked beans, brown bread and cranberry sauce, characteristic dishes of the Pilgrim Fathers, to offer to their guests. The interest excited by this very practical study of social history will easily be imagined.

The fifth-grade work in the Horace Mann Elementary School consists of the outlines of Greek and Roman history; a lesson on the Athens of Themistocles was heard, and the keenness of the children taking part, and the excellence and soundness of the method, were remarkable. In the sixth grade the Middle Ages and chivalry are taken; and at the Horace Mann School it is found that the boys in their games adopt feudal phrases, such as vassal and seigneur. In the seventh grade, the highest grade with these schools, American history is studied in the more formal fashion possible at thirteen years of age. Throughout, the geography and literature are correlated with the history in these schools. The details may be found in the *Elementary School Teacher*, June, 1907, vol. vii., No. 10,¹ and *Columbia University Teachers' College Record* ("The Curriculum of the Elementary School");² the latter gives a complete account of the principles in connection with the different parts of the system, and should be found in every teacher's library.

The epoch-making work in elementary education carried on by these two schools is, of course, not without its effect on the ordinary public school, and already in the more progressive areas the primary grades may be found studying primitive man, and the early grammar grades having

¹ The University of Chicago Press, Chicago and New York.

² Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1908.

stories from early European and ancient history.¹ The Pierce School, at Brookline, Massachusetts, has an extremely interesting curriculum, where literature rather than history is the centre, but literature with a distinct historical flavour. The work done in the highest grammar grade at fourteen years of age on chivalry and the Arthurian legends is very remarkable and well worth study. It is made more effective by visits to the wonderful series of pictures by Abbey in the Boston Public Library on the "Holy Grail".

It is easy to see how history in the English elementary schools could be developed on the lines of the Chicago and Columbia experiments, when London, *e.g.*, possesses such a continuous history as Sir Walter Besant's books show. In most city centres, as in Manchester, something can be made in the third and fourth years of the early development of the place since Domesday Book, of the lines of trade, local government, the part the place has played in the Middle Ages and the Civil War, and so forth. For the last year of the elementary course the study of the British Empire is, alike on psychological and national grounds, the appropriate subject corresponding with the study of United States history in the American common school.

In high schools history is universally taught; it is found in one form or another in every course of study, and is in

¹ The official course of study for the elementary schools of Boston does not give any time to history as such, in the first five grades, but provision is made for myths and folk tales. The formal history begins in the sixth grade, stories from American history and visits to and descriptions of historical places are prescribed; the syllabus covers the mound builders and the Northmen, and the Indians, discoverers and explorers, the colonial settlements to the revolutionary wars. The seventh grade gives the same time, reviews the work of the sixth, and finishes the United States history to the present day. In the eighth grade 180 minutes a week are given to civil government, local history, and a review of United States history including related events in Europe. See also the syllabus of work for Stockton, California; Rosa Winterburn, *Methods in Teaching*. Macmillan Co., New York, 1907.

general required for graduation from the high school or for entrance to college. Ancient history had always been studied in schools fitting for college because of its connection with Greek and Latin. Universal history was also taught as a "polite" subject, and civics or the history of the United States as a preparation for citizenship. "There was no recognised consensus of opinion in the country at large, not one generally accepted judgment, not even one well-known point of agreement, which would serve as a beginning for a consideration of the place of history in the high school curriculum." About twenty-five years ago, however, a movement for reform set in, the results of which may be best described in the words of the New York State Syllabus for Secondary Schools:—

The growth of co-operative spirit among history teachers may be traced in the formation of the Committee of Ten which met at the University of Wisconsin in 1892, in the Columbia Conference of 1896, in the appointment of the Committee of Seven, and its Report in 1899 and in the formation of history teachers' associations in New England, in the North Central States, in Nebraska, California and Indiana and in the Middle States and Maryland.

The results of these various efforts are as follows: a uniform course of history for secondary schools has been planned and widely adopted; uniform requirements for admission to college supplemented by uniform entrance examinations have been provided; a movement to articulate the courses of college history with those of the high school has been started; a wisely adapted course of history for elementary schools is now under consideration; tendencies to overemphasise the use of local history and sources in secondary schools have been checked; better methods of history teaching are gaining ground in both high school and college; the demand for specially trained history teachers is growing; better text-books in all the fields of history have been abundantly provided.

One of the most important results of these co-operative efforts has recently appeared in the publication of a *History Syllabus for Secondary Schools* prepared by a special Committee of the New England History Teachers' Association. This Committee was instructed "to prepare . . . a report on practical methods of teaching history, with such topical outlines, references and bibliographies as shall help teachers to put into operation such suggestions for reform in history teaching as may be applicable to the conditions in secondary schools".

The whole story is told in the Report of the Committee of Seven entitled *The Study of History in Schools*.¹ The process is a most interesting illustration of how uniformity grows in America out of voluntary co-operation. The Committee which was appointed by the Historical Association sent out several hundred circulars, asking for information, to all parts of the United States; three of the members went to Germany, France and England to study the system there. The course they framed was the result of combining all this material with the Committee's own knowledge, experience and judgment; they were guided largely by the principle of continuity, and so successfully was their work done that it has been universally received. The plan is clearly shown in the following extract from the New York State Syllabus:—

Courses.—The following courses of history in the order given and with the prescribed time allotments are either required or recommended:—

¹ It is somewhat humiliating to read in the Report: "The situation in England does not offer many valuable lessons to American teachers. The most noticeable features are a lack of historical instruction, a common failure to recognise the value of history, and a certain incoherence and general confusion." We think, however, that if the member of the Committee who visited England in 1897 had not limited himself to the great public schools for boys he would have formed a more favourable opinion. The girls' high schools have always paid considerable attention to history, and in at least half a dozen of these in London at the date of his visit he could have seen good work.

	Minimum recitation time.	Maximum recitation time.	Allotted year of the secondary course.
<i>a.</i> Ancient history . {	3 periods a week	5 periods a week	} First or second.
<i>b.</i> European history {	3 periods a week	5 periods a week	
<i>c.</i> English history . {	3 periods a week	5 periods a week	} Third or second.
<i>d.</i> American history {	5 periods a week	} —	
			Fourth or third.

If two years only are given to history, *c* and *d* are recommended.

Owing to the pressure of other subjects some schools are obliged to leave out history from one year of the course; if they do they either shorten the time of English history in the third year, and take the first half of that for their European history, or they teach European in connection with English history. The rationale of the course speaks for itself: "No one of these fields can be omitted without leaving serious lacunæ in the pupil's knowledge of history." "Furthermore, English history until 1776 is our history; Edward I. and Pym, Hampden and William Pitt, belong to our past and helped to make us what we are. Any argument in favour of American history, therefore, holds almost equally true for the study of English history." "Four years should be devoted to the study of the world's history, giving the pupil some knowledge of the progress of the race, enabling him to survey a broad field and to see the main acts in the historical drama."¹ It will be noticed that chronological

¹ Report of the Committee of Seven.

sequence is preserved, and that what used to be called civics, the development and work of American institutions and of governmental problems, to-day is studied when the pupil is most mature, can read more difficult books, and use more advanced methods. During the year of ancient history a short introductory survey of the ancient Oriental kingdoms is given, then the usual course in Greek and Roman history, the latter not only including the Empire to 476, but being continued up to the age of Charlemagne. "Hence from motives of clearness alone there is a gain in carrying the pupil on to an age of comparative order and simplicity, such as one finds in the time of Charlemagne." The Committee faced the special difficulties of mediæval history which is, as we have seen, omitted if anything is omitted; it is sometimes centred round the history of France.

The very careful attention given to English history is comparatively new in American schools. "The study may be doubly useful if the work is so conducted that it serves in some measure as a review of continental history and as a preparation of American history." The fact illustrates the different attitude of Americans to-day since America has become a world power. In regard to the fourth year of work in American history we will again quote the New York State Syllabus:—

The creation of a new school of American historians whose work has been to show that the American Constitution was not "struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man," but that the history of America, like that of every other country, has been an outgrowth from previous conditions—that America has never occupied an isolated position, but that it has been influenced throughout its development by other nations and that it has in its turn influenced them; that we cannot understand present conditions in our own country without studying how these conditions have come to be; that patriotism no longer

means adhesion to the statement, "My country, right or wrong, My country," but a united effort on the part of all its citizens to make the country right.

This new point of view of the historian has been reflected in the text-book written for the schools. This no longer presents in flamboyant style the traditional spectacular events that collectively have been called "the history of the United States," but it treats the history of the country as a natural development. It is no longer a heterogeneous collection of miscellaneous facts chronologically arranged—but it is an orderly presentation of related events. It is not based on rumour, traditions, theories and previously conceived ideas, but on careful investigation of the authorities used. It does not assume that "advanced work in history consists in reading larger books and more of them," but it adapts both matter and method to the capacities of those who are to use it. The text-book for the elementary and grammar grades presents the picturesque and imaginative side of history in order that the child may have a vivid picture of the conspicuous events of the past. The text-book for the secondary school places emphasis on underlying causes and on the development of great movements in order that the boy may appreciate the unity of history.

The new teacher of American history is both a cause and a result of the new text-book. He appreciates the importance of treating American history as a continuous development from European history—not as a disconnected series of special creations. He understands that all society is organic in character and that therefore history cannot be taught as a description of inorganic matter.

The teacher of to-day who teaches American history appreciates Professor Maitland's apostrophe of the map of England—"that most wonderful of all palimpsests!" He sees in the map of America another most wonderful palimpsest whereon have been written the hopes and aspirations and discouragements, the failures and successes of Spaniard and Frenchman, Swede and Hollander and Englishman, of monk and friar, of

fur-trader and lumberman, of frontiersman and immigrant, of political refugee and religious enthusiast (New York State Syllabus, American History).

It may well be understood that to see all these schemes, as laid down in the Report of the Committee of Seven, actually working in the schools is a most interesting experience ; theory and practice go hand in hand. In regard to the method it is, of course, unnecessary to repeat the general account given in the previous chapter. The lecture system, which many English teachers would advocate for history even if they disapproved of it for other subjects, is considered in America to be quite wrong here also. Recitation from the text-book is the basis of their work ; occasional written essays occur, and short written examination tests. "By preparing in different books, or by using more than one book on a lesson, pupils will acquire the habit of comparison, and the no less important habit of doubting whether any one book covers the ground." "The library should be the centre and soul of all study in history and literature ; no vital work can be carried on without books to which pupils have ready and constant access." The school libraries are accessible, the books are freely used, and a librarian who gives her full time to the work is often in attendance. Pupils are taught to use catalogues and indexes as well as atlases and encyclopædias. There has been a strong current in favour of what has been called the source method, *i.e.*, that pupils got their facts and ideas from reproductions of original material, such as Magna Charta, and not from text-books, but the practical difficulties of work of this kind with young pupils has led to the method being somewhat less popular at present than it has been formerly. Obviously it can only be successful when the teacher is an expert, and has used original material herself.

A greater amount of home-work is expected than would be possible in an English school, where the pupils are learning a good many subjects, and nowhere does the advantage of the American system of learning a few subjects at a time come out more clearly than in the study of history. The lesson a day, with at least an hour or two hours' private study and preparation, means that the whole standard is very much higher, and the pupil in school will keep working from a library almost like a college student with us. In class pupils take notes of what is said by their fellows in recitation, and they freely question or supplement what is said; the teacher does very little apparently, but is, of course, guiding the work the whole time, and for success must know everything in all the available books. The American method at its best demands perhaps more from the teacher than our English method, though at its worst it may, of course, mean mechanical repetition of the words of the text-book by the pupil. Great importance is attached to the use of a syllabus. At the Horace Mann School, where recitation of the most admirable kind was heard, the teacher stated that she spent the first three weeks of the session in teaching the class how to work, what the headings of the syllabus meant, how they were to be connected with the text-books, and how notes were to be taken. "If they study their own way they are wasting time, they must learn what to forget and what to remember." "They get at the method through imitation." "I correct for *form*." Obviously the teacher must follow the syllabus carefully topic by topic, but, as one heard, she is quite ready to take up problems and comparisons with modern days naturally arising out of a lesson. The work done by the pupils in these recitations is extraordinarily brilliant, sound and thoughtful. In some schools, however, there is too much seeking for facts, the ethical side is almost

avoided; the writer was informed that there has been a distinct reaction against emphasising the emotional and moral side of history; certainly American pupils show much more interest in rather dull facts, whether of the Athenian Constitution, the explorations of Champlain, or the reforms of Colbert, than English girls would in a like case.

As we have said in Chapter II., examinations have not to be reckoned with to any great extent in American schools, but when they have they exercise an injurious influence, as with us, on the teaching of history. However, the questions set by the College Entrance Examinations Board and for the Massachusetts Institute of Technology are very sensible and thoughtful.¹

For entrance to college, whether by examination or otherwise, two units in general are required, but more may be offered; there is a tendency for these units to be in ancient history and United States history.

The work of the commercial high schools deserves special mention; here history is always compulsory. Considered a most important agent in training, it is, of course, specialised to lead on to economics. In the High School of Commerce, New York, which has a five years' course, history begins in the second year, with a general outline, three lessons a week, from the Beginning of Nations to 1750, with special reference to economic history and geography. In the third year English and Colonial history from 1620 to 1750, and England and the Continent from 1750 to the present day, are studied with special reference to the materials of commerce (three periods a week). In the fourth year the history of the United States with special reference to the industrial and constitutional aspects (four periods a week) concludes the compulsory work.

¹ See Appendix.

In the fifth year, among the electives, is included a course of nineteenth century history (four periods a week).

The new Commercial High School for Boys in Boston pays particular attention to history, and has an admirable course controlled and worked by experts. The writer twice visited this school, and was much interested, though again somewhat humiliated to learn that the authorities, who had studied in Europe before the opening of the school, considered that England had very little to teach them compared with Germany. The course begins there with a survey of world history, taking a year and a half, with special reference to commerce and industry. A lesson on the first Punic War in this course was full of life, and touched by a far deeper moral purpose than had been noticed in other history lessons. The second half of the second year is devoted to commercial geography, the boys bringing questions of their own. As the teacher says: "They are just brimming over (that's the word) with ideas". In the third year economics is studied with a cursory review of ancient commerce, of the mediæval guild, the Hansa, the effect of feudalism, etc. The teacher gets as soon as possible to England, and to the Industrial Revolution, finishing, of course, with economic history in the United States. The fourth year is given to economics. The boys each have a text-book, and there is a small departmental library as well as some general library facilities. The aim is to give a liberal education in touch with local conditions. The boys easily find posts at eighteen in business houses, and a few go on to college, where we feel sure some of them will have been induced to specialise in history through the influence they have been under at school.

In colleges and universities history occupies relatively an even more important place, compared with England, than it does in the high school, and this whether the college

concerned be one given to electives or one where the courses of study are largely prescribed. The type of the first is, of course, the oldest and most august—Harvard. The writer had no opportunity of studying the teaching of history there, but it was clear from the formal documents in the University office that the division of history and political science is one of the most important. It appears that no subject is so largely studied, including, as it does, not only history proper, but government and economics. The section of the official register dealing with these departments is worth careful study.

In that dated June, 1907, appeared the names of fifteen instructors in history and government, and nine in economics, many of them men of the highest distinction; there are also eleven assistants. The list of courses alone covers four pages of the pamphlet. "The instruction offered by the Department is, for the sake of clearness, arranged under two headings: History and Government. In each case the more general courses are designated as 'Primarily for Undergraduates,' those requiring somewhat more training and information as 'For Undergraduates and Graduates,' those requiring rather special interest on the part of the students as 'Primarily for Graduates,' and those in which the element of research is most prominent as 'Courses of Research'."¹ The most elementary provide for beginners in mediæval and modern history, and in constitutional history. It is possible at Harvard to specialise as one does at Cambridge for a tripos. "Students who aim at real achievement in historical study must be content to direct their efforts in the first two or three years mainly towards gaining a broad and comprehensive knowledge of general fields of history. They will then be in a position to take up the study of limited topics, with intelligent appreciation of the

¹ Official pamphlet.

results they obtain." The Degree of A.B. with distinction may be gained by students who specialise and present a thesis; in other words, one can take honours in history at Harvard as one can at Oxford. It should be remembered in this connection that there is provided for women at Radcliffe a "second table" where those Harvard professors who have the time and inclination repeat their course for the benefit of women students.

The University of Wisconsin may be taken as a type of one where courses are prescribed to such an extent that the degree of specialisation allowed at Harvard or in England is impossible. What can be done at Wisconsin is expressed arithmetically as 43 out of 120; with a four years' course, each year containing two semesters, and a student taking fifteen lectures a week, the total number of units for graduation may be considered as 120 ($15 \times 8 = 120$). Of these no more than forty-three may be offered in history. As this University is distinguished for its facilities in the subject, having a large and brilliant faculty, and the most magnificent historical library west of the Alleghanies, the writer was somewhat surprised to find that the undergraduate could not give more than a third of his time to history; she was told that it would be quite impossible for a student to do the reading and home-work for a greater amount of history than forty-three units, apart from the question that such premature specialisation is not considered desirable. Such work should be done by the graduate student, of which class there is a large number in attendance at Madison.

History is not among the required studies, these being English and a certain amount of language work, but history or science must be taken, and as a matter of fact a very large number of students do take history. Twenty-six classes appear on the time-table, several of these having the character of a seminar; there are also thirty-six in

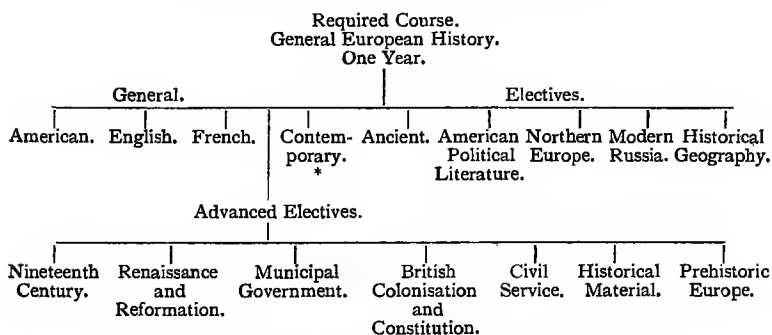
political economy and nineteen in political science. There are nine professors, and lecturers, besides Professor Vinodograff, who acts as special lecturer. The elementary courses are mediæval and modern European history, history of the United States, two courses on English history in successive years, and one on ancient history; these occur generally three periods a week. More special courses are given for undergraduates and graduates; there are forty of these in the calendar, and there are twenty for graduates only of a very advanced character, such as bibliography, palæography and diplomatics, history of Europe and the Far East, etc. The courses in political economy are also numerous and complete, and are closely connected with the conditions of to-day, *e.g.*, commercial economics, manufacturing industries, charities and corrections, etc. Graduate work will more properly be discussed later when treating of American university work in history.

The writer was fortunate enough to hear lectures in the History Department of the University of Wisconsin; these, like the recitations in the Horace Mann School, were models of method in teaching. The writer cannot presume to give an opinion as to their scholarship; the very ease with which the professors talked, as if drawing on a boundless store of knowledge, was, to say the least, powerful and impressive, though the lectures, being given to undergraduates, were necessarily somewhat of an elementary character. What struck a teacher about them was the way material was arranged; each piece of knowledge fitted into the next, there was nothing superfluous, and yet a sufficient amount of detail was given to excite interest, and to make the story of bygone times real. Extracts from original authorities were given, and appropriate and masterly sketches in a few words added interest to the lecture. The numbers in attendance sometimes amounted to 200; such large groups are split up for quizzes or examinations, both oral

and written, the instructors helping. Some classes were equally divided between men and women; in some the women predominated.

Vassar may stand as a type of the women's college where courses of study are prescribed; here history is required of all students, both for entrance and the first or second year. Unfortunately, as it must appear to an Englishwoman, the regulations at Vassar do not allow a student even in the third and fourth years to specialise completely in history. Only six hours a week out of fifteen may be taken; this seems a pity—if a stranger may venture so far as to criticise so famous an institution—inasmuch as the Department of History there is peculiarly strong, and the library extraordinarily rich in material. There are six professors and instructors in the department, five ladies and one man, and the head of it, Miss Lucy Salmon, is one of the leading authorities in America on the teaching of history, the only woman who was on the Committee of Seven. The course at Vassar is explained by the subjoined diagram:—

TABLE OF HISTORY COURSES AT VASSAR COLLEGE.



Each course means three class periods a week, except that marked *.

One of the most remarkable features of the Vassar work is the stress laid on teaching the students how to deal with material. The aim we may quote from Miss Salmon's pamphlet of suggestions :—

*What the Student should Gain from the Required Course in
History at Vassar College.*

From the subject studied :—

- A bird's-eye view of Western Europe.
- An appreciation of historical developments.
- An understanding of the unity of history.
- Historical perspective.
- A background for work in other subjects.

From the study of the subject :—

- To use books.
- To analyse material.
- To vivify history.
- To understand the difference between reading history and studying history.
- To appreciate the difference between history and historical record.
- To understand what the historian does in writing history.
- To connect the present with the past and the past with the present.

The students have weekly conferences with the professor, each getting her own ten minutes of private conference; she learns to make her own bibliography, to make abstracts and summaries and to take notes; essays are not required. In Miss Salmon's words, "They learn how to collect material, collate material, and interpret material". This includes, of course, the scientific criticism and analysis of historical material. The library which is so large as to have five librarians, all fully qualified graduates of library schools, is naturally essential for work of this kind. Even on a Saturday afternoon when the lake was alive with skaters, and the exquisite beauty of the grounds at sunset tempted one to walk or bicycle, the library contained many students,

of whom some doubtless were among the 500 in the Department of History. Of these there are fifty seniors taking the double course; that is the maximum amount of work the regulations will allow, and these may read widely in connection with their lectures, and go to a summer school for a six weeks' course of advanced work.

At Wellesley College history is required for entrance, but is not prescribed for the degree, except in the form of Biblical history. It is, however, largely studied, and students are able to specialise to some considerable amount. There are two professors and two instructors on the staff.

As we have stated more than once the specialist in America is expected to do graduate work. We may quote from a good authority writing on the ordinary degree course in a women's college:—

It is not possible for a student to get more than a good preparation for teaching history. She cannot get an excellent one. On the other hand, she can get much more than is demanded for teaching history in the secondary schools. Boards of Education do not as yet demand specialists for teaching history in the schools. In the small high schools history has to be combined with some other subject, and its teaching is often attempted by those who have had comparatively little preparation. We need a more enlightened public opinion to demand high preparation in the secondary schools, but it is coming. All through New England and in New York State a college degree is required. This is an advance over conditions that prevailed twenty years ago.

The technological institutes must not be wholly left out of mind. In the best of these provision is made for giving a good liberal education as well as a professional one, for training men and not engineers. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, as perhaps the most important, should be noted in detail. There history is compulsory

during the first and second years of the course for all students; history is required in the entrance examination, a term of United States history in the second half of the first year at college, and in the second year course, in the first half of the session, in European history. In the architectural course, architectural history and the history of European civilisation and art are compulsory in the third and fourth years. The aim of the required work for the regular students is to acquaint them with contemporary history and political institutions; to stimulate and broaden interest in the world of to-day, and to lay the foundations of good citizenship. The European countries generally studied are England, a central monarchy, France, a republic; Switzerland, a federal republic; and Germany, a federal monarchy. In the third and fourth years in the Institute of Technology some culture studies must be taken, and among these history is offered, a course on the history of science being particularly appropriate. That these studies should appear at all in a professional course is a remarkable testimony to the American belief in education. The President states in his 1907 Report that the result has not been all that might be hoped for. "The student tends to place a light value on all studies that do not lead to visible results." The ideal would, of course, be that the professional course of study should come after the general. See *supra*, page 18.

In a book like the present it would be impertinent to say much about post-graduate work in history in great American Universities, such as Harvard, Yale, and Johns Hopkins. This leads to the Degree of M.A. and Ph.D.; it is required of teachers in the best schools, and still more, of course, of teachers in colleges, and takes from one to three years. It is only possible in institutions possessing great libraries like the University of Wisconsin; there a good deal of research is being done, especially on the

history of Western exploration. The beautiful white marble building there containing the University Library also houses that of the State Historical Society, which is remarkably rich in MSS. and other material for the study of the history of the Mississippi Valley. It was a thrilling experience actually to handle the original journals of early explorers, and the oldest written document dealing with the history of Wisconsin, a commission of a French officer in the reign of Louis XIV. The power of research must needs grow in such an atmosphere. The writer was also present at one of the graduate seminars in the Economics Department studying cities; the meeting was in the evening—7.30-9.30. Professors Richard Ely and Ross and other members of the faculty were present, and about twenty students. Original papers prepared by students on statistics of population were read and discussed.

This section of the subject may appropriately be concluded by reference to an illuminating statement made in an interview by the President of the University of Wisconsin, Dr. van Hise: "These subjects—history, economics, sociology—are the modern humanities, they appeal to the practical people of the West far more than science. These studies are in the closest living relation with the life of the community, they are therefore the most vital subjects, and receive the greatest amount of attention and thought." A definite illustration of this truth is afforded by the value of the services rendered to the State by the Professors in History and Economics, who advise the State Government (which, like the University, is seated at Madison) on taxation and other economic questions.

Every student of the subject dealt with in this chapter should read the Report of the Committee of Seven already referred to, Henry E. Bourne's *The Teaching of History and Civics*, and what is for the philosophy of the subject the most useful of all, *Some Principles in the Teaching of*

History by Lucy M. Salmon. As the last is in pamphlet form and cannot so easily be obtained in England, we venture to quote from it passages throwing great light on the subject, and valuable not only in reference to the study of history in America, but full of help and stimulus to the English teacher.

Moreover, it must be borne in mind that history, like many other subjects, is in the curriculum for a double object—for the direct information that it gives and for its help in mental training.

To state the question in detail, the object of the study of history on its educational side is to train the imagination, to use the phrase in its commonly accepted meaning, during the period that corresponds roughly to the primary grade ; it is, second, to cultivate enthusiasms during the period that corresponds to the grammar grade ; it is, third, to secure integration of facts and ideas during the high school period ; it is, fourth, to train the judgment during the college course ; it is, fifth, to foster and minister to the creative spirit during the university and subsequent periods.

The historian who intelligently and critically makes use of every source of information at his command, and then tells the truth as he sees it, is the forerunner of the intelligent teacher who bases his work on a good text-book and supplements it by constant use of illustrative material drawn from literary and monumental sources.

In his relations with his class, it is rather the function of the teacher to act as a "middleman" between the historian and the pupil.

A third period [nowadays] in the teaching of history has apparently been entered on. It is one characterised by three controlling ideas—that the text-book is indispensable in the teaching of history when used as a servant and not as a master ; that history cannot be reconstructed in the classroom through the use of the sources by immature students or even by expert teachers ; that an intelligent, well-trained teacher with a knowledge of history, with an enthusiastic love for it, with the truly historic mind which Frederic Harrison says "is the mind of pro-

found sympathy with the great deeds and passionate hopes of men in the past . . . is infinitely more potent than any method".¹

It is hoped that this imperfect sketch may at least afford some idea of what is to be seen in the United States by a teacher of history, and of what we can learn from them. Probably there is more to be learnt in this subject by English students of American education than in any other, and the study is the more interesting and profitable since the evolution of the present condition of history teaching there is so recent. The present writer can only say that she has heard finer history teaching in more than one American institution than she ever heard in England, though her experiences here have been fortunate, and that such teaching has set for her an ideal standard of professional skill in our difficult art. England might learn, too, from the life and vigour of the subject in the common schools, the breadth and thoughtfulness and the self-reliance in the history classes of secondary schools, and the volume and power of the historical work in the colleges and technological institutes.

The equipment is well worth our imitation if only we could get the money for it. Every good high school has a room or rooms for the history lessons; cases of maps to be drawn down when required—a product of the American skill in mechanical appliances—are universal, and an average high school has a better supply of these maps than some of our colleges. Pictures of every sort abound.²

¹ Lucy M. Salmon, *The First Year Book of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education*. University of Chicago Press, 1902.

² "There should be a few of the world's great faces, Lincoln, Gladstone, Bismarck, Webster, Pitt, Washington, Cromwell, Queen Elizabeth, not selected from the heroes of one nation or one period, but those which will lead back the mind over the long road of human achievement. And there should be pictures of several historic structures, the Parthenon, the Forum, Notre Dame, the Walls of Nuremberg, Westminster Abbey, Independence Hall, and Faneuil Hall."

The teachers, many of whom have been in Europe, seem often to possess private collections of photographs; the optical lantern is, of course, available for illustrations. Best of all is the equipment in books—as necessary for the study of history as a laboratory for chemistry or physics. High school libraries are universal; the history section is generally the best fitted, as it ought to be; it includes books on method and bibliography, for the teacher (largely American publications, for very few are of English origin), and the standard books of reference. The requirements of the University of Wisconsin for accredited schools demand a minimum in ancient history of thirty-four books, in English history of thirty, and the “advised lists” are, of course, much larger. It is expected that the *American Historical Review* will be taken for the benefit of teachers, and the abundant reprints of original documents issued by American societies, like the Department of History in the University of Pennsylvania, the old South Church Association of Boston, and others, are available for the pupils. We have, however, one advantage in England for the study of history which we do not generally realise, since we take it as a matter of course; it was brought home one day by the pathetic observation of an American teacher, when admiration was expressed for the richness of their equipment: “You have no idea how difficult it is to get our children to understand what is meant by kings and queens, by castles and cathedrals”. These, which are, of course, phenomena well within the experience of many English children, and familiar by conversation and newspaper pictures to all, are remote indeed from the life of the American child. It is possible that the devotion of America to the study of history arises from an innate longing for a historical background in thought and imagination, since it is absent in reality. Biology is teaching us more and more in this age how we are the product of

the past, and how instinctive and necessary to man is that reverence for what has come down to him from his forefathers, which is the true principle of conservatism. A new and progressive country ever looking forward, and abandoning the tools and the methods which served it yesterday, must restore the balance somehow, must seek to dwell on the past history of the nation, on the deeds of its heroes, must fulfil the saying of our English Founders' Day Lesson, "Let us now praise famous men and our fathers who begat us".

It may be asked what is the result of all this study in the teaching of history on American life; it is too soon as yet for even a native to answer this question adequately, but there are some observations which may be offered in reply. A very real advance is being made in research, new material is being acquired and catalogued, and much history is being rewritten. The American Historical Association is carrying on a wonderful work in this direction, in which women are taking a considerable share; public archives are being preserved and classified, public opinion is also being influenced, and civic improvement encouraged. It is the opinion of one of the leading American authorities on the teaching of history, herself a distinguished teacher, that there is a very real increase of intellectual interest; some of it may be superficial, but it is at least widespread. A nidus has been formed and there is a real advance in the subject.

In England we have, as things are, the tradition of public service and the inner instinct of patriotism; formal teaching of civic duty is not so much needed among the wealthier and more cultivated classes, though more ought to be done than is done in the public elementary schools, and in some of the new secondary schools. In America this sociological teaching given in connection with history is the one thing they have to train citizens for citizenship;

religious instruction has been excluded from their school system, personal influence and corporate life play but little part compared with the powerful one they play here. There is no universal military service as in Germany and France to teach by hard experience the duty and the need of patriotism; the tradition of unpaid public work so strong in England is not known in the United States. The teaching of history and of patriotism through history is the one force which America has in her schools and colleges to stimulate and train the sense of civic duty. One cannot but conclude that to a half-conscious conviction of this truth is due the system, the earnestness, the concentration, and the excellence that America achieves in the teaching of history throughout every grade of her education.

CHAPTER VI.

HOME ECONOMICS.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE AND ART FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS IN AMERICAN COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS.

Lanam fecit, domi mansit.—(Epitaph on a Roman matron.)

THERE is no question in women's education in England to-day which is so living and so important as that of home economics, direct preparation at school and college of women and girls for household duties in the broadest sense of the term. In America the movement is as remarkable, though, since it is older, it is not now quite so prominent in the field. Much of the work of rousing public opinion (on which English reformers are now engaged) and of moving conservative educational institutions has there been achieved during the last eight or ten years, since the Lake Placid Club at Morningside, New York State, held its first conference in 1899. Indeed the principle that American education is at a farther stage of evolution than ours, and therefore presents us with examples and warnings, is nowhere more true than in home economics. They have passed the stage where we are, and the work they are doing, particularly in some departments, is that which we are about to do.

However, it must be explained that the movement has developed quite differently in the two countries. If we take each section of education, primary, secondary, university, and technical, we find that in England the move-

ment has affected the first and last ; in America, while these sections have also been influenced, nothing like as much has been done as in England, relatively. It is in the second and third sections, the high schools and colleges, that they are so much in advance of us, and where we can learn so very much from them. In progressive American cities the teaching of the domestic arts to girls in the high schools is much more fully organised than here. In the college and university stage they have gone far, even to research degrees ; we have done nothing yet, though King's College, London, begins this year the first college course for women in England. The older and more conservative women's colleges still ignore the subject, or even look down on it as not of true academic value. Vassar, Wellesley, and Bryn Mawr are there in the same stage as Girton, Newnham, and Somerville, without the reason that would forbid our older women's colleges to move, [even did they so desire,] their dependence on the regulations of a man's university, Cambridge or Oxford. The American separate independent women's college giving its own degrees has always been intended for liberal education only, like Princeton for men, and has no professional schools, law, medicine, architecture, like Harvard or Columbia or Yale. Naturally, therefore, they do not follow the new movement to develop what is essentially a professional school for women, corresponding to the engineering schools for men. It is rather the co-educational universities with professional schools, like Columbia, Chicago, and Wisconsin, that have led in this reform, which is still disliked and suspected by some conservative authorities in women's education, who fear that liberal studies will be injured by the competition of technical departments.

It is the work in domestic economy in the colleges and universities which is most worthy of study and imitation by English education, and we shall therefore begin by con-

sidering it. Before going into details, it may be well to spend a few lines in discussing the terminology, which throws, as names often do, a searching light on the meaning and purpose of the thing. The English expression, the Domestic Arts, cannot be safely used in America for two reasons: first, that the essential characteristic of their new movement is the relation of domestic subjects to the underlying scientific principles, all the university courses consisting largely of science, physics, chemistry, bacteriology, etc.; secondly, the phrase domestic arts is there used, in a more limited sense, not merely for the teaching of sewing but of all the forms of needlecraft, simple weaving, basket-work, etc.; this is done in close connection with drawing, brush-work, design, and the principles of art proper to the manual occupations belonging to the home. The teaching of sewing in an American school is closely correlated with the work of the studio, as the teaching of cooking with the work of the laboratory. This correlation is one of the most important lessons they have to teach us.

Domestic Science, on the other hand, is the proper term in America for the study of the household arts which depend on science, that is, cookery, laundry, cleaning, and household management. When the emphasis is placed more fully on the sociological side of the home, on management, sanitation, economics, as well as on the preparation of food, the phrase household administration is employed; this is the custom of the University of Chicago, the officers in the department there being leaders in the whole movement.

Home Economics is, perhaps on the whole, the most popular expression, and the most accurate, since it is the most inclusive; we have forgotten the original meaning of the word *economy*, which in Greek is the exact word for the subject. Since the idea of the home is essential, the phrase home economics will probably give to the man in

the street the most accurate idea of what is meant. Columbia University favours, we understand, the expression household technology, as the West Riding authorities in England the simplest phrase of all—housecraft. Time alone will select the fitting word.

It appears that college women have had a good deal to do with the genesis of this movement for the study of home economics. About twenty-five years ago some of these ladies, noticing how girls were going into factory life, and how difficult already the problems of housekeeping under American conditions had become for women of all classes, began to move; to ask for classes in the chemistry of cooking, in such places as the great Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and to attack scientific experimental work. Text-books were written on sanitary science and similar subjects; the author of one of these, Mrs. Ellen Richards, now a professor in the Massachusetts Institute, has been, and still is, one of the pioneers of this work, which, beginning from the side of applied physics and chemistry, has considered practical housekeeping from the scientific point of view. The Association of Collegiate Alumnae took up the cause at a very early stage; especially in Boston. In 1887 a wealthy Boston lady, Mrs. Hemingway, founded the Boston School of Cookery, which has trained many of the teachers. The whole movement in America, indeed, began at the top, and is only of late penetrating widely into the common schools. Nine years ago the movement received a marked impetus through the beginning of the Lake Placid Conference in 1899, attended by the leaders of the movement, including some eminent men. The Conference for 1901 issued a Report giving syllabuses for elementary and secondary schools. The Conference was attended by Miss Alice Ravenhill, who, it will be remembered, was sent out by the Board of Education in 1901 to study the teaching of domestic economy in

America ; whose well-known and valuable Report is found in the Special Reports of the Board of Education, vol. xv. The Lake Placid phrase—"the scientific and sociological study of the home"—might be considered a motto for the work. It is perhaps this relation with sociology and economics, as characteristic university studies in the United States, that has made the development of home economics possible in American universities.

As we have said, the University of Chicago entitles this department that of household administration. The Dean of Women there, Miss Marion Talbot, has long been known as a leader in the movement, and as a teacher of methods of administration. There are associated with her a number of other distinguished teachers who offer seventeen courses of instruction of university standard to graduate students, to undergraduates in their fourth, and, in some cases, in their third, year. These courses can be taken as part of the work qualifying for a degree. The official circular states:—

The courses in this department are planned to give students (1) a general view of the place of the household in society as a means of liberal culture; (2) training in the rational and scientific administration of the home as a social unit; (3) preparation to serve as teachers of Home Economics, Domestic Science and Household Arts, or as social workers in institutions whose activity is largely expressed through household administration. The regular courses of the department are supplemented by courses offered by instructors in other departments. Special attention is called to the courses of the Departments of Sociology, Chemistry, Zoology, Physiology and Bacteriology, and to the announcements of the School of Education.

Opportunities are afforded for gaining practical experience in housekeeping, lunch-room management, marketing, household accounting and teaching. There are frequent occasions for active participation in such philanthropic work as supplements

to the instruction of the class-room. One fellowship is assigned to the department for 1907-8.

Appropriately in a university, and in such a centre of sociological problems as is Chicago, great stress is laid in the courses of instruction on the problems of markets, the legal and economic position of women, food supply, and even social reform. The department issues a most interesting little handbook for Chicago housekeepers on the laws affecting the household, physical safety, the protection of health, food supply, etc.

Housekeeping has become a public function. So intimate is the relationship between the housekeeper who administers the affairs of her family and the city officer who administers the affairs of the larger city group, that it has seemed advisable to collect for her information the laws of the city which provide for control to be exercised over her or for assistance to be given to her.

It would be very helpful if similar handbooks could be compiled for housekeepers in England. One of the instructors in the University department is a lawyer, the only American woman, we understand, who is qualified to be a judge.

The Western State Universities, whose original intention was largely the improvement of agriculture and other practical industries, have naturally taken up the woman's side of those essential activities on which a pioneer community must depend. They have thus established departments for home economics, and issue bulletins on food questions, and give extension teaching on cookery and other household arts to the farmers' wives and daughters at Farmers' Institutes. The University of Illinois, at Urbana, has, we understand, one of the most successful of these departments, and the Southern Universities are setting them up also. The teachers are taken in part from

first-rate technical institutes like the Platt Institute in Brooklyn, but naturally they prefer graduates, if they can find them, who possess a thorough practical knowledge. Teachers' College in Columbia University has established a very complete system for the training of these teachers, providing even post-graduate work, for which the resources of this great University and the practical economics of New York City itself offer great opportunities. As in Chicago, students in the fourth and senior year of the ordinary college course can take part of their work for a degree in the special courses in domestic art or domestic science at Teachers' College. The official announcement gives full details, which are too elaborate for quotation, as to the particular courses of instruction and the amount of related subjects required. Its purpose is officially described as follows:—

Heretofore, while economy has not been forgotten, as the subject has been developed for teaching, stress has been laid on the application of science in nutrition and sanitation, and on the improvement of the household arts. Nothing, however, will fulfil the purpose, but a formulation inclusive of all aspects of household management, making prominent the cost of living, cost of food and clothing, division of income, methods of purchase and household accountancy. In such a scheme science would be applied to economic ends, and nutrition and sanitation regarded as forms of economy. The Department of Domestic Science in Teachers' College aims so to develop the subject that sound economy is the key-note; and also to study the difficult problems of its teaching.

The circular states that there is a strong demand for teachers, who must, however, have had a thoroughly good general education. These women, if not candidates for a degree, are prepared for a diploma after a two years', in some cases a one year's, course.

The subject is still in its pioneer stage, and its growth and permanency in education depend largely upon the power and training of the women engaged in teaching it. Women of broad education and thorough special training are in demand; and the subject is of such importance that it should engage the attention of strong college graduates, seeking for a field of usefulness.

The department also provides a special curriculum in hospital economics at the request of the American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses. This is either a one or two years' course. These are to prepare trained nurses to teach in other schools for nurses, and to manage hospitals—another instance of how closely Columbia is in touch with the practical needs of the community.

English people can perhaps understand the connection of a great university with the training of nurses and of teachers of household chemistry and administration more easily than its connection with the teaching of sewing; nevertheless Columbia does not disdain to offer training for teachers of domestic art. This, of course, is part of the work of Teachers' College. The Head of the Department, Mrs. Mary Woolman, is one of the best known American authorities on the subject. She has formed for the department a most interesting museum showing every stage of textile work and needlecraft, from the rude products of primitive man to the most beautiful embroidery and lace of civilised communities. The history of the subject and its value as a moral influence are also studied, so that the whole subject is made liberal and educative, not treated as a mere technical craft.

The scope of the work in domestic art is large. It considers the place of the household arts in the development of society by a study of their primitive condition, their evolution, and by their

present relation to liberal culture and to advanced civilisation, and also considers the use which may be made of these arts in the work of elementary, secondary and normal schools, settlements and reformatories where they have been introduced.

In the last ten years there has been a rapid increase in the employment of the household arts in education. Their undoubted practical value first placed them in the curriculum, but the realisation has steadily grown that they have also, on their cultural and sociological sides, a service to perform in connecting the home with the school and in illustrating and intensifying the effect of the purely academic studies.

The curriculum includes technical courses, principles of education, art work, and certain correlated studies such as manual training, history, and mathematics.

Technical courses, dealing with the primitive household industries, such as braiding, netting, basketry, weaving and sewing, with the attendant dyeing and cleansing of textiles, and such later domestic industries as the foregoing, together with drafting, pattern-modelling, dressmaking, millinery and embroidery. The development of household manufactures, such as textiles, with their cultural and economic effects; and household art, economics, organisation and management.

The girls in the Horace Mann High School take domestic science and domestic art as electives; the lessons are given in Teachers' College by the professors and instructors of the department and are observed by the students. They are characterised, as might be expected, by the very close connection between science and practice; for example, the girls will have a series of experiments with starch using the iodine test, the microscope, studying the structure of the starch grain, etc., and then they have some lessons on the cooking of rice, potatoes, and other starchy foods. The syllabus of the whole year is carefully organised in this way,

theory and practice going together. The new building will accommodate some 400 students of domestic economy. The demand for teachers is shown by the Report of the Appointment Committee; seventy-eight teachers of domestic art were demanded, twenty-six supplied. For teachers of domestic science the demand was 120; fifty-one were supplied by Teachers' College. In addition twenty hospital posts were filled. It is possible for women to take at Columbia work of the highest university standard, leading to the M.A. and Ph.D. degrees in Domestic Science, including advanced work in the chemistry of foods, dietetics, and the like, and research work on some of the many problems awaiting investigation.

The separate women's college, as we have said, has not established courses in home economics; to compensate, Simmons College, in Boston, has been recently established, being, as its officials say, the first real *women's* college. The money was left by the founder for an institution which should train educated women to earn a living; it has received a charter giving power to confer the B.Sc. degree, and appointing as its governors distinguished educational leaders in Boston. They are seeking to solve the problem, "What kind of college do women need to prepare them for their special duties?" Naturally, a course in home economics has been established; it includes, as we see, a great deal of science.

FOUR-YEAR PROGRAMMES FOR DEGREE: TWO TYPES.

First Year.

Chemistry.
English.
History.
Household Management.
Accounts.
Physics.

First Year.

Chemistry.
English.
History.
Household Management.
Accounts.
Physics.

Second Year.

Biology.
 Biology.
 Chemistry.
 Chemistry.
 Cooking.
 English.
 Housebuilding.

Third Year.

Biology.
 Biology.
 Chemistry.
 Cooking.
 Economics.
 Psychology.

Fourth Year.

Biology.
 Dietaries.
 Foods.
 Ethics.
 Social Science.
 Electives.

Second Year.

Biology.
 Biology.
 Chemistry.
 Cooking.
 Housebuilding.
 Sewing and Design.

Third Year.

Biology.
 Cooking.
 Economics.
 English.
 Sewing.
 Psychology.

Fourth Year.

Biology.
 Dietaries.
 Foods.
 Ethics.
 Social Science.
 Electives.

The admission requirements are those for the ordinary matriculation, including a certain amount of school science work, which is continued at college, where the standards in physics and chemistry appear to be really high. English history and economics are also compulsory in the course, so that the women students receive the humanistic training which is necessary for woman's work in the home, and for her influence on the nation. The college, however, does not limit itself to degree students; there are courses for nurses, housekeepers and others, consisting chiefly of technical subjects. There is also very careful instruction in domestic art, the equipment including apparatus for weaving and for the study of textiles.

Simmons College is a magnificent new building in the Fenway, Boston, and its staff has been very carefully

chosen from experienced and brilliant teachers ; so far as one could judge the intellectual standards are those of what we should call college work, and the atmosphere and life of the place, including two delightful hostels for resident students, give it the additional attraction of what we in England generally mean by college life. An English girl from a good high school, who had reached the matriculation standard, might well be recommended to go to Simmons College, as young English engineers go to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology ; we have, as yet, nothing like it in this country.

As stated in Chapter I., the teaching of practical arts was not originally included in the scheme of high school work ; the girls, as in England, were supposed to learn these arts at home from their mothers, but, as in England, it has been found that under modern conditions the home does not always give this instruction. Furthermore, the movement for manual training for boys, which began in St. Louis a good many years ago, and which led to the foundation of Manual Training High Schools, brought about, where co-education prevailed, the inclusion of domestic science and domestic arts for girls in the High School course, corresponding with the carpentry, metal work, forging and fitting that boys do. As a matter of course, whenever in the time-table these subjects and the mechanical drawing correlated with them occur (generally for one and a half hours, a double period), one finds that the girls go off to sewing, dress-cutting and dressmaking (the use of the sewing-machine being allowed), cookery and hygiene ; laundry is rarely met with in the high school. Millinery, on the other hand, is a common, and naturally a very popular, subject. It must be understood that not every high school gives this instruction ; a manual training high school does, and in St. Louis, New York, and elsewhere, departments for these subjects are found in the ordinary high schools ;

but as a rule schools that prepare largely for college, like the Philadelphia Girls' High School and the Wadleigh High School in New York, have no domestic art or domestic science. Indeed, there is no time for it, if college entrance requirements have to be fulfilled; so far, manual training subjects are not acknowledged for college entrance except in a very small degree in some Western Universities.

The equipment is, of course, good; the cookery-room is arranged on a plan now becoming known in England, and carried out, we believe, in the Leeds Girls' Grammar School, where each student has her own gas-ring and her own cooking pots and pans, much as in a chemical laboratory. "Agate" hollow-ware of American manufacture was generally considered best. The blue and white enamelled hollow-ware we use was considered bad, and ordinary iron saucepans quite ridiculous. The places are arranged round three sides of a square at a counter about two feet wide, covered with some clean, heat-resisting material, glass, marble, various cement compositions and the like, with the gas-stoves and their pipes arranged along the inside edge of the counter. The space underneath each student's place is cunningly fitted with cupboards and racks for her apparatus; the teacher demonstrates at her blackboard and table, which fill up the fourth side of the square, while the students sit and look on from their places where they work. While they are working, the teacher walks round *inside* the square, and thus can easily control and supervise twenty-four pupils, possibly even twenty-seven. All this is clearly a much better plan than the English one of a gallery at one end for demonstration, and ordinary kitchen tables at the other end where the pupils stand, and two or three big gas-stoves or ranges. The American cooking-room has, however, proper kitchen stoves with ovens, excellent cupboards

and other fittings, and a full allowance of sinks. A laundry for teaching is planned in the same way, the tubs being arranged round three sides of a square; these are of the white or creamy composition or earthenware of which the modern bath-tubs are made, and have each their own taps for hot and cold water, and, of course, each its own waste-pipe; the pipes being on the inside of the square.

It is considered essential in a domestic science course that the girls or students should prepare and serve actual meals, and next to the cookery-room there is always a small dining parlour as in an ordinary house, with proper furniture, glass, china and other requirements, where the girls periodically serve dinners they have designed and prepared. Members of the staff and friends are invited, and the students take it in turns to act hostess, cook, and parlour-maid. Everything is carried out in the exquisite, artistic, and dainty fashion American ladies follow in their own houses.

In the needlework a visitor sees clearly the importance of the correlation of the teaching with art. We were shown again and again in all sorts of schools and institutions most beautiful underwear in delicate materials, designed and embroidered as well as made by the girls themselves. The American girl shows her taste in dress and her high standard of self-respect over her school needlework as well as her school attire and deportment.

In St. Louis the allotment of time to home economics is worth noticing; the girls give ten double periods a fortnight, that is an average of ten lessons a week. In the first and second years they take sewing and dressmaking, in the third year domestic science (cookery), and in the fourth year home economics and laundry. We were told that 40 per cent. of the girls in the school take this manual training course.

One of the best places to study the relation of art to home economics is the Brookline High School, where embroidery, original design, and arts and crafts generally, have received considerable attention; here, as elsewhere, wood-block stamping, and stencil designs for curtains and other draperies, are studied and carried out by the girls themselves. One is not surprised at the artistic arrangement of American homes of a modest type when one sees in school after school the way that the application of art to the home is taught; America, indeed, is rapidly becoming, so far as her women are concerned, an artistic nation. The course in home economics in the Brookline High School occupies four periods a week throughout. In the first year elementary heat, the chemistry of cooking and easy cookery is taken; in the second year more difficult chemistry, and cooking and cleaning, food and dietaries; in the third year house sanitation, drawing and art, all correlated with physics; in the fourth year bacteriology, simple nursing and economics. Characteristic of the methods of study are the use of text-books, some of which have been written by the Association of Collegiate Alumnae and by Mrs. Richards and other Boston ladies, and the development by pupils of topics such as the Brookline water supply, the system of plumbing in the Brookline High School, child labour, and the like.

The elementary school has been the last to feel the influence of these new methods, and even yet it is only in the more progressive places that sewing and cookery are included in the common school course. "While there is a growing appreciation of such work in the schools, as evidenced by its introduction in many new places, there is also a sceptical attitude in the minds of many as to its value, a tendency to class it among fads, to regard it as one more of the new subjects that are overcrowding the curriculum." At the date of the first Lake Placid Conference, 1899,

it was stated that only in fifty cities (Anglicé towns) were sewing and cookery included; Boston, of course, is among these, Philadelphia has special sewing teachers, and nearly twenty cookery teachers. The rule of the Boston School Committee is as follows: "Pupils of twelve years of age or older may be admitted to classes in woodworking, cookery and sewing with the approval of the assistant superintendent in charge". One of the most advanced districts in education has long been the town of Brookline, Mass., a suburb of Boston, where some years ago, under the influence of the then superintendent, Mr. Samuel Dutton, and the then Principal of the High School, Mr. D. Sanford, many reforms, including manual training and fine art work, were introduced into the public schools. In the Brookline grammar grades the home economics course is as follows: VI. Grade, over eleven years of age: house work one hour a week, including dish-washing, easy laundry work and cleaning, and preparation of vegetables and fruits. VII. Grade, over twelve years of age: cooking two hours a week for a half-year, temperature, stewing of dried fruit, study of milk, fat, albumen (cooking of eggs), starch (cooking of starch foods), bread-making. VIII. Grade, over thirteen years of age: cooking two hours per week, meat and fish, soup, bread, rolls, puddings, etc. IX. Grade, over fourteen years of age: cookery one hour per week for half a year, pastry and fancy dishes, invalid cookery.

In the new education, as we have said, the Dewey ideas that the child should follow the life of the race imply that very primitive cooking should be part of the curriculum, even in the first and second grades, ages six to seven, and that weaving and sewing, and more elaborate cookery, should come in in the later years. In the University Elementary School at Chicago we saw children of six and seven making cocoa in the cookery-room, very carefully and happily. The importance of this work in developing

arithmetical ideas is considerable; weights and measures, and the idea of ratio and proportion, on which so much depends later, are taught practically, or rather are discovered by the child itself, and the foundation of arithmetic, thus practically laid, remains sound. There is, indeed, a very close connection between the new education and the teaching of home economics in school; it carries out for girls one aspect of the principle that school is life, not merely a preparation for life.

The work of the various technical institutes, which are private, not public, in the American sense, is of three kinds: teaching for home life, and for girls and women who have left school and are, *e.g.*, learning to make their own clothes and trim their own hats; trade work, that for intending dressmakers, cooks and even housekeepers; and training teachers. This latter is less regular and systematised than with us; we understand that some English authorities, familiar with the work of our technical colleges and polytechnics recognised by the Board of Education, consider American institutions nothing like as good as the English ones. Their courses are certainly shorter, one or two years, instead of two or three, and, as more time is given to correlated art and science, it is possible that such very high technical skill may not always be secured; of this the writer cannot judge. Whatever the experts may think, it is clear to the ordinary observer that a great deal of sound work with thought and intelligence and zeal is given, and that the results are excellent. The teachers do know their business, and the objects produced, whether clothing or food, are good of their kind. The technical institutes also provide for younger students who do not intend to be teachers.

The Drexel Institute, in Philadelphia, does a great deal of excellent work in this way. Some of the classes, of course, in such institutes are intended definitely for trade

purposes, and in some cases it was not at all clear whether a girl was learning millinery, for example, to please herself or to take it up as a trade. In Philadelphia there is no manual training high school for girls; the Drexel Institute has, however, developed a very fine junior course for young girls who might otherwise be in the High School. The time taken is two years and the pupils are from fifteen to seventeen years of age. "The junior course is a non-professional course of prescribed studies for girls, and is designed (1) to supply that training for the duties and responsibilities of home life which the ordinary academic education fails to give; (2) to lay a broad and solid foundation for the technical work involved in the direct preparation for a profession or a skilled occupation. The course of instruction covers two years." The girls learn English, mathematics and history, as well as cookery, elementary household management, sewing, drawing and dressmaking.

The normal course in domestic science at the Drexel Institute is also for two years, and is limited to students over twenty; it includes physiology, sanitation and domestic architecture, and there are also, as usual, courses for nurses and housekeepers. So popular is the work that the buildings are crowded, and the pupils have had to overflow into an annexe. Philadelphia needs a special building, like that which has just been given to Teachers' College in New York, entirely devoted to the teaching of the domestic arts. The Drexel has 304 women and girls attending in the department.

The Pratt Institute, in Brooklyn, New York, is known all over the United States, and teachers trained there are welcome everywhere. "It was established in 1887 after many years of investigation on the subject of technical education on the part of its founder, Mr. Charles Pratt, of Brooklyn. Its object is to promote manual and industrial education, as well as to instruct in science and art, to in-

culcate habits of industry and thrift, and to foster all that makes for right living and good citizenship. The Institute has a liberal endowment which enables it to secure the best talent and facilities for the accomplishment of its aims. Receipts from tuition and all other sources are used to further and advance the work." It has many full-time courses for trade use, and many evening classes; the Department of Domestic Arts contains 570 women. An English lady has recently been made head of this department. Its characteristic is the close relation of art with needlework, helped by the beautiful museum the Institute possesses. "The emphasis in this department is on the art side of technical work. To this end, design in constructive work is made equal in importance to excellence of technique." The Department of Domestic Science contains 334 women. "The courses of the department are designed to train women to be instructors in domestic science and elementary domestic art, or to be dietitians, matrons, professional housekeepers, probationary trained nurses, practical housekeepers or home-makers." The course for teachers lasts two years; candidates must be at least eighteen years of age, and have completed a four years' course in a high school, including elementary physiology, physics and chemistry, as well as algebra and geometry; some practical facility in cooking, cleaning and sewing is also required. The course of study is as follows:—

COURSE OF STUDY.

First Year.

Fall Term.	Winter Term.	Spring Term.
Psychology	Psychology	Psychology
Chemistry	Chemistry	Chemistry
Physiology	Physiology	Physiology
Cookery	Cookery	Cookery
Drawing	Drawing	Design
Handwork	Handwork	Sewing
Nature Study	Sewing	Nature Study
Physical training	Physical training	Physical training

Second Year.

Fall Term.	Winter Term.	Spring Term.
History of Education	History of Education	History of Education
Science of Education	Science of Education	Science of Education
Methods	Methods	Methods
Practice-teaching	Practice-teaching	Practice-teaching
Chemistry	Chemistry	Chemistry
Bacteriology	Heat	Heat
Hygiene	Sanitation	Household Economics
Cookery	Cookery	Cookery
Marketing and Accounts	Dietetics and Serving	Laundry-work
Construction	Sewing	Handwork
Physical training	Physical training	Physical training

All subjects indicated are not invariably pursued simultaneously.

In conclusion, it should be noted that there is one feature of this teaching which is specially worthy of imitation by English colleges and technical institutions—the very careful training of institutional housekeepers, women of good general education, at least twenty-five years of age, and having some practical knowledge, for posts as managers, organisers, housekeepers in college hostels, nurses' homes, boarding-schools, and other public institutions. In England too often food arrangements in such co-operative housekeeping are, to say the least of it, unsatisfactory; sometimes authorities in England seem to consider as a matter of course that housekeeping on a large scale cannot be as economical, as comfortable, and as dainty as that of the home. In America, as we have seen, college women have been obliged to direct their trained intelligence and their scientific knowledge to the problems of efficient, well-directed, thrifty house management, whether on a small or a large scale. It was difficult to find skilled domestic help; cultivated women had to do their own housework, and they found specialised training necessary. We were informed, too, that the needs of preserving the health of girls at college had obliged the institutions to

maintain a very high standard of economic yet attractive housekeeping. ("If the food were not well-cooked and *varied*, the girls wouldn't eat it.") English people who have met only the rich and luxurious idlers of hotels think sometimes that American ladies cannot keep house. This is a great mistake; they possess a traditional skill and interest in the subject, whether in the old New England homes, the plantations and mansions of Southern families, or under the pioneer conditions of the West. To this they have added, to meet American needs, this very careful study of the scientific basis of housekeeping, of food values, home architecture, and household administration.

The proof of the pudding is the eating; extraordinary is the success of institutional housekeepers in college hostels, women's clubs, or in modest private houses, where women trained under the new conditions are in command, or where they may even do much of the work with their own hands. As one passed from school to school, college to college, and entered the homes of those teachers who extended to a professional sister from beyond the seas their graceful and gracious hospitality, one admired more and more the result of a combination of native capacity, traditional skill and modern scientific study in that most necessary and ancient of women's occupations—keeping house.

CHAPTER VII.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION—MORE PARTICULARLY FOR GIRLS.

Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man.—BACON.

THE public educational system of America has not hitherto inclined as much to the technical side as has ours. When the history of the development of our system comes to be written it will attach great importance to the influence of such movements as those that led to the Science and Art Departments at South Kensington, the Technical Instruction Acts, the Technical Education Committees of our County and City Councils, the foundation of Polytechnics and the like, which have left their trace in the existence of a separate Technical Department in the Board of Education at Whitehall. There has been nothing like this technical movement in America; their education began by being liberal and general, and only of late years has become conspicuously technical so far as the public system is concerned. Perhaps the most striking phenomenon in American education at this moment, however, is the demand for the industrial training of young people between fourteen and seventeen, a movement deriving much of its strength from Massachusetts, the leading manufacturing State of the Union.

Commercial education is a much older thing. It appears to have begun before 1850 by private persons who, as a matter of business, taught young men how to be clerks in the quickest way; in the 'fifties there were about a dozen

of these private commercial schools in the large cities, the entire instruction often being given by one man. The history of the subject is obscure; in the Monograph on Commercial Education (No. 13 in the Paris Exposition Series, 1900) by Edmund James, Professor of the University of Chicago, a full account is there given so far as is known.¹

These schools were originally intended only for men, but since women have been increasingly employed in America as clerks, book-keepers, amanuenses, they naturally availed themselves of the advantages offered. The place and work of these schools may be summarised as follows from Professor James's Monograph:—

The annual tuition fee varies in the better schools from \$50 (£10) to \$150 (£30) and even \$200 (£40) for a school year of ten months. The payment of such fees by men and women who have to earn their own living at comparatively low salaries testifies eloquently to the value which they themselves set upon the instruction which they receive.

It is perfectly safe to say that in the quality of the work which they do, and in the equipment for this particular work, the American commercial colleges have no rivals. They are as much superior to anything of the sort to be found elsewhere in the world as are the American schools of dentistry to their counterparts—and for very much the same reason, *viz.*, that they are engaged largely, one may say chiefly, in the mechanical work in which Americans excel the rest of the world. They are not educational institutions in any broad sense of the term at

¹ "The department of such instruction which has made the most pronounced progress is that of the so-called commercial college, *i.e.*, the elementary technical school intended to prepare pupils for clerical work. It is not known, as will be seen later, exactly when such work was begun in the United States or by whom or where, and the facts about the subsequent development are difficult to ascertain; indeed, one may say it would be impossible for any one person to collect the facts necessary to enable one to treat the subject historically in a thoroughly satisfactory way."

all. They are trade schools pure and simple, and that in a very narrow sense. They train for facilities. Of course all training has intellectual results, even that of the prize-fighter. But the commercial college aims not to train the best book-keepers or stenographers, for, to such, a high degree of education is necessary, but to take the boy or man as he is, with or without education, stupid or bright, and make as good a book-keeper or stenographer out of him as is possible, by simply superadding a brief technical training.

The writer did not study or visit any of these institutions, since her own problems were not those of the trade school; but for some years she has been responsible for the initiation in an English high school of a Secretarial or Commercial Department, combining general and technical education between fifteen and eighteen years of age. The Commercial Public High School of America, therefore, was to her the institution particularly worthy of study; during the last ten or twelve years it has developed in a remarkable and interesting way, and has become a serious rival of the "Business College". The movement began in the Public Schools system some fifteen or twenty years ago by the introduction of a commercial course, differing little from other courses except by the introduction of some shorthand, book-keeping and typewriting. The course was often only two or three years in length, was distinctly inferior to other courses, and was, indeed, a kind of imitation of the private business school, or a compromise between it and the regular high school course. In 1893 it was interesting to notice the place that these courses held. The principals of high schools then seemed, in some cases, half ashamed of them; they were clearly looked upon as a sop to Cerberus. To-day the whole situation is very different from what it was fifteen years ago; the men who have grown up to headship since then proudly explain to inquiring visitors their organisation and methods of commercial education.

During this period the earlier courses have been remodelled, extended, and enriched, so as to give them distinct educational value, comparable with that of the older classical or scientific courses, though still, as they must needs be, largely technical, and so to conservative thinkers inferior.

Where there is real enthusiasm for this new development, separate business or commercial high schools have been founded, like the Manual Training High Schools, clearly differentiated from the other high schools of the city, housed in buildings specially designed and equipped, and officered by a separate body of teachers zealous to show that their subjects could be made as educational and valuable as the older curricula. The provision of this commercial education, whether in courses or in separate schools, has been warmly welcomed by parents, and pupils have attended in large numbers; *e.g.*, nearly half the girls in the Girls' High School of Boston are in the Commercial Department Course. A statistical reference from the current Report of the United States Bureau of Education will show the extent of the work of both types of institutions, as well as the numbers in the Commercial Departments of universities and colleges. These need no special explanation, since they resemble those we are familiar with in our own newer universities where, as in Birmingham and Manchester, the Degree of B.Com. has for some years been regularly conferred. "Reports to this Bureau from 4,925 different institutions show that for the scholastic year 1905-6 there were enrolled 253,318 students in business or commercial studies." This was an apparent decrease of 9,480 from the preceding year. The regular business schools had an enrolment of 130,085, the public high schools had 95,000 in business studies, the private high schools and academies had 13,868, the normal schools 2,497, and the universities and colleges 11,868.

On this point it is necessary to distinguish between two types of instruction, corresponding to two functions in business, one being performed practically by men only, and the other much more largely, though not exclusively, by women and girls. The former is business properly so called, the actual control and management and initiation of enterprises, financial, manufacturing, or trading. The other is clerk work, the assistance given as book-keeper, secretary, correspondent, etc., to a principal, and requiring the arts of shorthand and typewriting. For this, women have proved themselves especially fitted; indeed they are often, when they have had a proper training, preferred to men, and not only because their labour is cheaper. As is commonly known, the employment of women in this way is much more general in America than with us; not only is there at least one woman secretary in every business man's office, but every headmaster in a high school, and most of the more important authorities in a university and college, are provided by their institutions with the same kind of help. The headmaster's secretary is indeed the lady whom one first meets on visiting a school, and the college professor who has not at least a share in a secretary thinks himself very hardly treated. It is in the Commercial Departments of public high schools, and in various special technical institutions, that these ladies receive the training which fits them to discharge, so admirably as they do, functions which are often much more responsible and valuable than they at first sight appear. The well-educated girl at nineteen or twenty years of age, who has had her technical training, is very far from being the mere mechanical clerk which the English business college produces after six months' instruction of a Seventh Standard child of fourteen or fifteen.

The directing, originating work, the training of the principal, should be, of course, different from that of the

clerk or secretary, and since boys in America all hope to be principals. it would appear that their training should be given in a separate commercial high school, should be of a more general character, with greater emphasis on science, commercial law, economics, and such subjects, while the acquisition of the arts of shorthand and typewriting can be omitted altogether. This truth has been recognised in such very progressive communities as Boston and New York, where there are separate commercial high schools for boys. That of Boston is particularly interesting since it carries out the theory most carefully.¹

The co-educational commercial school, like those of St. Louis and Washington, provides, as we shall see, a curriculum suited mainly for the future clerk or secretary; in these schools there is about one boy to two girls. Properly speaking, of course, the principal should receive his business education in a college or university, in such departments as in the Wharton School in the University of Pennsylvania, or the specialised courses in the Universities of Wisconsin, Chicago, California, or in Columbia, where a four years' course, recommended by the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York, has been established. These university courses do not concern women, but quite recently there has been established a degree course for their special secretarial work in the new Simmons College at Boston. This college was founded definitely to train women to earn a living, and it could not, therefore, ignore one of the most important avenues for the educated girl. It has established a Bachelor of Science Degree, given after a four

¹ "A mere substitution of a few business studies in the usual English course does not make for commercial training, and such action is not only an inadequate provision for present needs, but is destructive of future possibilities. Properly planned, a course of instruction may bear the stamp of its purpose in every part, and at the same time not lose a whit, but on the contrary, by unity and close connection, gain decidedly in general educative value" (Professor James's Monograph).

years' course, and requiring previous education in a good high school up to what we should call the leaving certificate standard. This course in secretarial studies corresponds with that for librarians, which has already been in existence for women in America for some time. Liberal studies are, of course, required, the value of English, history and languages being emphasised, as the subjoined table of requirements will show.

SCHOOL OF SECRETARIAL STUDIES.

The Four-Year Programme.

Four years are required for the completion of the regular programme; but a student who finds it necessary to withdraw at the end of the school or third year may, with the consent of the Director of the School, be allowed an opportunity to complete the work in Shorthand, Typewriting, Accounts, Commerce, and Commercial Law. In such cases a special condensed programme is arranged, to be followed during the last year of the student's residence.

FOUR-YEAR PROGRAMME.

<i>First Year.</i>	<i>Second Year.</i>
Cataloguing.	Shorthand.
Reference.	Typewriting.
Classification.	English.
Typewriting.	German.
English.	French.
German.	Physics.
French.	
History.	
Hygiene.	
<i>Third Year.</i>	<i>Fourth Year.</i>
Shorthand.	Shorthand.
Typewriting.	Typewriting.
English.	Accounts.
History.	Business Methods.
Economics.	English.
Elective.	Commercial Law.
	Ethics.
	Social Science.
	Elective.

Simmons also offers a one year course to graduates of other colleges, when the time is given, as in a post-graduate course for teachers in England, entirely to the technical subjects. Women graduates from Smith, Wellesley and elsewhere, after special technical instruction, obtain, it can be imagined, excellent posts.¹ Technical teaching at Simmons College is particularly valuable for study by visitors; the authorities in the department have the newest equipment, and are familiar with all the text-books. The head of the department is a man. No shorthand is taught in the first year of the four years' degree course, but typewriting is begun. It would be better, some say, to wait till the second year, and go on for three years, five periods a week, the first year (nineteen years of age) being devoted entirely to liberal education, including arithmetic, since the subject in America is not taught in the high school. The study of accounts is reserved for the fourth or Senior year, five periods a week. The students in the Secretarial Department keep a bank for the cash of all the students, and assist with the college accounts, and with the accounts of the dormitory (or hostel for residence). It will thus be seen that the training is of a most practical kind, while it preserves the New England tradition of academic culture.

There is a third type of institution giving commercial education so important in the history of the movement that it must receive special attention—the privately endowed institution. The Drexel Institute of Philadelphia is the most important of these, and no study of the subject would be complete without visiting its magnificent

¹ *The One-Year Programme.*—A one-year programme of secretarial subjects has been arranged for graduates of other colleges, the purpose of which is to provide technical instruction for students who have already completed the equivalent of the academic subjects prescribed in the four-year programme. *Programme for College Graduates.*—Shorthand, Typewriting, Accounts, Business Methods, English, Commercial Law, Cataloguing, or Commerce, Experience in Professional Work.

building, and devoting time and thought to understanding the fine work it does. Professor James says :—

I think it is not too much to say that the two years' course offered in the Drexel Institute forms in its way a model, and furnishes the basis for the elaboration of a curriculum which will compare favourably with the best of the European commercial schools of the same grade.

The present writer found its text-books and method followed elsewhere very largely; it has been a pioneer in the movement in the true educational sense. It has not been established for private profit, like the so-called commercial college, nor has it been open to the political influences which have affected the public high schools. It has been in the true sense independent, free to experiment and to maintain its ideal irrespective of the popular demand of the moment. Its aim is thus described in the Institute Year Book :—

The Drexel Institute was founded in 1891 by Anthony J. Drexel, for the promotion of education in art, science and industry, he being largely influenced by his friend Geo. W. Childs. The chief object of the Institute is the extension and improvement of industrial education as a means of opening wider and better avenues of employment to young men and young women. The founder's gifts to the institution as a whole amount to three million dollars. Of this sum one million was expended upon the original building with its equipments and appliances, and two millions were set apart for the permanent endowment. Total amount of the endowment and of the property belonging to the Institute is four million dollars. The endowment fund of two million dollars is applied in maintaining the instruction. This enables the institution to offer the instruction at extremely moderate and in some of the evening classes at almost nominal rates. A limited number of free scholarships are granted to deserving students. The Institute is open to both sexes on equal terms.

The building is very centrally situated on Chestnut Street; it is a stately pile, with a most beautiful central court with three tiers of open arches, and a magnificent staircase on which stands a monument of the founder. The lecture-rooms are arranged on corridors on to which the arches open, the museum and library being on the ground floor. The words Art, Science and Industry occurring in the title show the importance of art in the mind of the founder. The Principal, Dr. James MacAlister, is a well-known authority on education, and was for some years Superintendent of Public Schools in Philadelphia. In England such an institution devoted to technical education would probably have grants from the Government and from the Local Authority. The State of Pennsylvania does not give such grants, and we were informed that if the city of Philadelphia gave a grant to the Drexel Institute it would expect to be consulted in the appointments of the staff. It is noteworthy that the leading technical institutions in America are generally independent bodies founded and endowed by very wealthy persons. Local education authorities in America so far have not taken up technical education, whereas, as we know, in England this was the first educational work our City and County Councils had to do. In the Drexel Institute the Department of Commerce and Finance is organised in five sections :—

- I. School of Commerce and Accounts.
- II. Commercial Course for Teachers.
- III. Special Business Courses.
- IV. Office Courses.
- V. Evening Courses.

Applicants for admission to the School of Commerce and Accounts must have completed the work of the Grammar Schools of Philadelphia, or of other schools of equal rank.

Upon presentation of certificate indicating this degree of preparation applicants will be admitted without examination.

For admission to the Special Business Course applicants should have graduated from a high school, or spent at least two years in a high school or other school of equal rank. Each applicant's qualifications will be specially considered by the director of the department. If satisfactory school or other credentials cannot be submitted by the applicant, he will be examined in the subjects specified for the Office Courses in the paragraph below.

For admission to any one of the Office Courses applicants must be at least sixteen years of age, and must pass an examination in English grammar and composition, geography, arithmetic and United States history.

The diploma of high schools of approved standing is accepted for all courses in place of an examination. The first, though open to young women, is not so important for them; it is rather a business course proper, and therefore suited for men who are "trained to do business". It lasts for two years.

JUNIOR YEAR.

Subject.	No. of hours per week.
English Language	2
Commercial and Industrial Arithmetic	4
Business Customs	1
Book-keeping	5
Penmanship	2
Typewriting	4
Correspondence	1
Commercial Geography	2
Public Speaking	1
Physical Training	2
Total	24

SENIOR YEAR.

Subject.	No. of hours per week.	
	1st Term.	2nd Term.
English Language	2	2
Book-keeping	3	3
Banking and Finance	1	1
Commercial Arithmetic	3	3
Commercial Geography	2	2
History of Commerce	2	—
Mechanism of Commerce	—	2
Civics	2	2
Commercial Law	2	—
Business Printing and Advertising	—	1 ¹
Stenography	5	5
Public Speaking	1	1
Physical Training	2	2
Total	25	24

The Teachers' Course, which lasts one year, requires graduation from a college or State normal school.

The third section is for three occupations, real estate and conveyancing, advertising and insurance, and are offered to young men. It is in the Office Courses that women find most advantage, especially in the Secretarial Course. Thirty-five young women, eighteen to twenty-two years of age, were following this course of study, some being college graduates, who have been found, says the head of the department, to advance much faster than the other students. It will be noticed that the girls must have had a good general education up to eighteen years of age.

This course has been organised to respond to applications that are made to the Institute for clerks fitted to do work of a more general character and of a higher grade than that required in a purely business office. Applicants for admission must show by

¹ Part of the term.

diploma or by examination that they possess an education of high-school grade.

The course occupies one year, divided into two terms, and includes the following subjects :—

Subject.	No. of hours per week.
Stenography	9
Typewriting	5
English Language	2
Accounts, Business Forms and Customs	1
Correspondence	1
Penmanship	1
Business Printing	1 ¹
Physical Training	2
Total	22

The Book-keeping and Stenography Courses are of a more ordinary character ; applicants for these must be at least sixteen years of age, and have passed an examination in English, geography, arithmetic and United States history. The fees at the Drexel Institute are \$50 (£12) per annum ; the Teachers' Course costs £14 per annum.

However important and excellent technical institutes may be, the public commercial high school is undoubtedly, nevertheless, the most important for a student, and from it a very great deal may be learnt. Its four years' course, from fourteen to eighteen years of age, has been carefully thought out, and is intended to give a liberal education. English is the centre of the curriculum, being taught, in general, five periods a week throughout the four years. Good literature is read, much attention is given to composition, and as a matter of fact it is found necessary to-day to devote to spelling some time at least during the

¹ Part of second term.

first year. Mathematics is also compulsory, algebra during the first year, and geometry during the second. Indeed the first year's course is almost entirely general, penmanship and commercial arithmetic being for the most part the only technical subjects taken. In the second year, shorthand, or as it is termed in America stenography, is begun.¹ Some schools, notably the Brookline High School, Mass., begin typing in the second year; many, however, reserve this subject for the third year, when some progress has been made in shorthand, and when the two subjects can go on together. English opinion would probably agree with this view. Since mathematics disappear from the third year there is more time then for technical subjects. Many pupils leave at the end of the third year, as they must then begin to earn a living. In the fourth year shorthand and typing are continued to a higher degree of efficiency, and short Courses of Commercial Law and Economics are given.

With us, languages would be considered for educated girls almost as important as the technical side, but it is not so in America, where in general, indeed, modern languages are not felt to be so necessary, or valued as highly, as in the Old World. There is a marked differ-

¹“Phonography, or shorthand, is, to my mind, a study entitled to prominent recognition, not only because of its utility, but also because of the mental discipline which it gives in cultivating and strengthening the powers of attention, observation and discrimination. I suggest its introduction into the course of study in the second year, and at the end of that year I believe the pupil should have acquired a complete mastery of the principles and the word-signs of the system, and be ready to apply them without hesitation. He should be able to take from dictation easy new matter quite readily. The distinction between a mere writer of shorthand and a competent stenographer should be kept from the pupil, and those who intend to begin their business career as stenographers should be constantly reminded of the need for acquiring general culture as well as the ability to perform the mechanical work of the amanuensis” (William E. Doggett, National Education Association Address, 1900).

ence here between the Handelsclassen in the Zürich Girls' High School and the Commercial Department in the McKinley High School at St. Louis, or even the Business High School in Washington. In Boston, however, perhaps because it is in more senses than one nearer to Europe, the value of modern languages is emphasised, and recently French or German has been made compulsory throughout the course, with a possibility of studying a second language in the later years. We do not, however, find anything like the experience in the Secretarial Department of the Manchester High School, where the better girls are able to take French, German and Spanish. On the other hand, science is considered valuable and important in the Commercial Department, especially at St. Louis, though here we suspect the needs of boys are more considered than those of girls: The schools vary in the amount of compulsory science, and in the particular sciences studied, as they do in the place given to history, drawing, and music, though some history is almost always required. Commercial geography also appears, and something like the Waarenkunde (knowledge of goods) of the Zürich School. The fact that there are elective courses allows for some differentiation between boys and girls; the man, who will be the organising head of a business, taking more science, law, economics, etc., and the woman, who will be a dependent and an assistant, giving more time to the technical arts.

The equipment is everywhere very fine, as might well be expected in the land which is the home of the typewriter, where systems of card catalogues, filing, and indexing have been elaborated to the highest degree. The rooms are fitted with separate desks and tables, more than twice the size of an ordinary school desk, each with several drawers; in the typewriting-room these desks have a disappearing typewriter which can be lowered at will into the well of the

desk ; about thirty-six to forty such desks and typewriters will be found in one room. Very large schools have two rooms, that is eighty machines, but most manage by using the thirty-six or forty machines for different sets of pupils, each pupil having one of the drawers at a particular desk for her own papers. The machines are of the five or six standard well-known makes ; it is rare for an institution to have only two varieties. Filing cabinets of various kinds abound, and in the most distinguished institutions the pupils' home-work is returned to them through these. One end of the room is fitted up like an American bank, with the peculiar enclosure—a metal grating in real banks—above the counter, leaving a narrow space for the hand of cashier or customer, which seems very odd to English people accustomed to our broad open counter. Within this fitment the pupils, in turn, play at banking, as we should say, proper books being kept, and the ordinary forms being employed. At Simmons College are shown various duplicating machines, some of a very elaborate and costly kind, and also calculating machines. It appears that it is extremely difficult now to get clerks who can add accurately, and so in the Department Stores and large drapery establishments, etc., the addition of successive sums of money is done by a machine which cannot err. Several types of these are part of the equipment at Simmons College ; there is also a wonderful machine on which a Trial Balance can be made. The head of the department there does not consider that the phonograph is of much importance as an aid to correspondence ; he uses it, however, to give extra practice to backward students in shorthand. We have much to learn in England from the equipment of the American commercial school ; in very good evening schools here there is not even a collection of model ledgers and specimen documents such as charter parties ; typewriters have, of course, to be

bought everywhere, but other machinery is rarely seen in England.

METHOD.

It may be well to add a few notes as to methods of teaching technical subjects in America. Since this has been going on for over fifty years considerable progress has been made, and excellent methods of organising and arranging the subjects, and of overcoming the difficulties thoroughly in the shortest possible time have been discovered. Speaking generally, they are in method distinctly ahead of us; this is especially the case with typing, as might be expected, since the machine itself originated in America. Their method is that of Touch Typing; the operator must not look at the keys. This method takes much longer at the beginning, like sound piano technique, but it is right in the end. English opinion is moving in this direction, more especially for the teaching of older pupils; the girl of fourteen has not enough self-control and sense to make herself keep to the "Touch System," but adults, or even girls of seventeen to nineteen, are ready to follow the right way. At least American girls are; it is found in practice that some English girls feel it hard to learn the Touch method. It is certainly very dull at the beginning, the text-books containing elaborate five-finger exercises of a very formal and uninteresting character. Undoubtedly, however, in the end the American girls are better typists; the English girl too often would rather write than type.

The book-keeping, too, is very well taught. Their text-books and materials, business forms, etc., are admirable; there is nothing like them to be had in England. The English text-books are too often not up to date or are unpractical; these faults are avoided in America. In short-

hand their superiority is not quite so marked, and they appear to find the same difficulties that teachers find here; the Benn-Pitman system is used, and the text-books seem to be about as good as ours. The American want of differentiation among pupils appears here as in Latin or mathematics; there is no attempt to get the quicker, better pupil into another division and drive her along faster; during the year all are kept at the same pace. The standard attained at the end of a given number of lessons seems to be about the same as with us, though, of course, pupils make better progress when they have a lesson every day. This merit of the American system is, however, counterbalanced by the uniformity and lack of opportunity of the better pupils to advance more quickly. Pupils, it is found, differ markedly in their capacity for shorthand, and some can get on at twice or even three times the rate of others. In the Boston High School we saw an interesting method of the repetition of the same piece at increasing rates of speed; this was done, the teacher said, to secure the instantaneous correlation of ear and hand on which speed shorthand depends. The work is really of the character of gymnastics. The controversy with respect to the repetition of dictated matter so familiar here is not unknown in America. The exercises in their text-books are very carefully elaborated, the arrangement of the subject is highly organised, the maximum amount of work done in the minimum amount of time, but a practical teacher wonders whether the work done is not too academic in character; it seems lacking in reality. It may be, however, that this objection, which would obtain with English pupils, is not so serious with the more docile American girls.

In correspondence the work in the text-books appears rather easy; it may be that the weakness in English composition which is so conspicuous in American high schools

affects also the standard of the work in commercial correspondence. No précis writing is found in the ordinary manuals; for this part of the work they are not by any means superior to those we have in England. In handwriting it is the style taught here fifty or sixty years ago that they use; probably in this subject American teachers could learn from us in England, where actual penmanship is relatively more necessary, and where, as is well known, many people still object to the use of the typewriter for business and official documents. In America it does not much matter if clerks and secretaries do not write what we should call a good hand; they have reduced the necessity to a minimum; in this as in so many other places in the national life the proud American saying is only too true: "Men are cheaper in England; machinery is cheaper here".

SOME PARTICULAR SCHOOLS.

It was the writer's good fortune to visit and study more particularly five excellent commercial high schools. The first was a department of the McKinley High School, at St. Louis, containing 35 per cent. of the whole school, that is, over 500 pupils, in the proportion of five girls to four boys. Here the value of chemistry is emphasised, since St. Louis is a manufacturing town, and the pupils will go into offices where scientific terms will be used. The head of the department does not believe much in language work. The equipment is exceedingly good, though they manage with only twenty-four typewriters. Shorthand is taken, as will be seen, in the third and fourth years, and the pupils easily acquire a speed of 60 words a minute after one year's study, and 100 to 125 words a minute at the end of the course. The subjoined tables show the arrangement of studies and the number of periods a week given to

each; in some cases these may vary with the half-year, two periods the first half, and three the second, and *vice versa*.

COMMERCIAL COURSE.

First Year.	Second Year.
English. One of the following studies : Latin, German, French, Spanish, Drawing. Botany (first half-year). Physiology (second half-year). Algebra. Arithmetic and Penmanship.	English. One of the following studies : Latin, German, French, Spanish, Drawing. Physics. Geometry. Book-keeping.

Third Year.	Fourth Year.
English. One of the following languages : Latin, German, French, Spanish. Book-keeping (first half-year). Commercial Law (second half-year). History. Stenography and Typewriting.	English and Shakespeare. One of the following languages : Latin, German, French, Spanish. Chemistry or Psychology (first half-year) and Ethics (second half-year). Civics (first half-year). Economics (second half-year). History (first half-year). Commercial Geography (second half-year). Stenography and Typewriting.

No. of Periods per week.	25	25	30	30
Year.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
English	5	5	5	3
Shakespeare	—	—	—	2
History	—	—	5	5-
Algebra	5	—	—	—
Geometry	—	5	—	—
Algebra and Geometry	—	—	—	—
Trigonometry	—	—	—	—
Biology	5	—	—	—
Physics	—	5	—	—
Chemistry	—	—	—	5*
Physiography	—	—	—	—
Psychology	—	—	—	5*
Ethics	—	—	—	5*
Greek	—	—	—	—
Latin	—	—	—	—
German	5°	5°	5°	5°
French	5°	5°	5°	5°
Spanish	5°	5°	5°	5°
Drawing	5°	5°	—	—
Manual Training	—	—	—	—
Penmanship	2-3	—	—	—
Commercial Arithmetic	3-2	—	—	—
Book-keeping	—	5	5-	—
Commercial Law	—	—	5	—
Civics	—	—	—	5-
Economics	—	—	—	5-
Commercial Geography	—	—	—	5-
Stenography	—	—	5	3-2
Typewriting	—	—	5	2-3

Studies marked with a circle (°) or star (*) are alternative. Music and Physical Exercise are required of all pupils each year.

The pupils here are taught actual office work, and go straight out of school into posts. We were informed that the demand for them exceeds the supply.

The special interest of the Washington Business High School is, first, that it is a separate school, and, second, that a large number of its pupils, both boys and girls, are prepared to enter Government offices, or to become private secretaries to members of Congress and other official

persons. Some of the boys are preparing to enter the Civil Service in the Philippine Islands, America's new possession, which she finds so troublesome to govern. There are 800 pupils, in the proportion of two girls to one boy. Science is especially important for posts in such departments as agriculture; languages are also needed. Originally, the Washington system was that of a two years' course in an ordinary high school. This, of course, produced a mere clerk; it is still retained in the Business High School, since this type of employment is still necessary. The course is as follows:—

TWO-YEAR COURSE.

First Year.

Elementary Book-keeping and Business Practice	5
Business Arithmetic	4
English	4
Shorthand	4
Physical Geography	3
Penmanship	1
Drawing, Freehand or Commercial	1
Typewriting	1
	<hr/>
	23

Second Year.

Advanced Book-keeping or Shorthand	6
Applied and Interpretative Arithmetic	3
English	4
Commercial Law	3
Commercial Geography	3
Typewriting	4
	<hr/>
	23

Now, however, a four years' course has been established; the total entry of new pupils last September was 500; 100 of these are taking a four years' course as against 400 taking a short course.

The arrangement of subjects is as follows:—

FOUR-YEAR COURSE.

First Year.

Elementary Book-keeping and Business Practice	5
Business Arithmetic	4
English	4
French, German <i>or</i> Spanish <i>or</i>	5
Physical Geography	3
Penmanship	1
Drawing, Freehand <i>or</i> Commercial	1
	<hr/>
	23

Second Year.

Advanced Book-keeping	6
Biology and Commercial Products	5
Applied and Interpretative Arithmetic	3
English <i>or</i> French, German <i>or</i> Spanish	4
Commercial Geography	3
Penmanship	1
	<hr/>
	22

Third Year.

Algebra and Inventional Geometry	4
Accounting, Auditing and Finance <i>or</i> Shorthand (Beginners')	4
English	3
French, German <i>or</i> Spanish	4
Elementary and Industrial Physics	4
Commercial and Industrial History	3
	<hr/>
	22
Shorthand (Elective, Continuation class for Shorthand pupils transferring from two-year course)	2

Fourth Year.

Business Organisation and Management	4
English	3
French, German <i>or</i> Spanish	3
Government and Industrial Problems	2
Commercial Law	3
Typewriting	4
Advanced Shorthand and Office Training <i>or</i> Geometry <i>or</i> Elementary and Industrial Chemistry	5
	<hr/>
	24

Pupils may transfer from the two-year course to the four-year course at the end of the first year, without condition.

Pupils transferring to the four-year course, on completion of the second year of the short course, must take extra work in language or Science in place of Beginners' shorthand, law (fourth year), and possibly some type-writing.

While the total of recitations per week is heavy, it should be remembered that a portion of the work requires no home preparation.

"In the first and second years an additional hour per week will be given to oral reading and spelling. A foreign language begun first or second year must be continued for at least three years."

The pupils in this school are not young; their average age on entry is sixteen and a half; many transfer from the other high schools in Washington. The equipment is excellent; the school has eighty typewriters. The principal made two significant remarks: "Pupils have narrow ideals, these are to be changed". "I would not turn them out to-day without science." Interesting work was being done in commercial drawing and the preparation of notices and advertisements; a third-year class was studying finance, and a fourth year political economy and business organisation. As to teachers, the view here is: "We prefer college women who have added shorthand and typewriting to their liberal education". The principal himself is a college graduate who has acquired the technical arts by vacation study.

The Philadelphia Commercial High School for Girls has the unique interest of being a wholly feminine institution; all the forty-six teachers are women, and, wonderful to relate, there is a woman principal [of whose kindness the writer would wish to make special acknowledgment]. Here there are over 900 girls in attendance; we were informed that the years are divided as follows: 350 in the first year, 260 in the second year, 180 in the third year, and 140 in the fourth year. Here, also, science is held to

be of great importance; the equipment presents no unusual features, and the building is old and unsuitable, a very rare occurrence in the larger and better American schools.

In the Boston Girls' High School, as we have said, nearly half the pupils are in the Commercial Department; the course is for four years, but many leave at the end of the third year. The chief characteristics of the curriculum are: the insistence of a language throughout and the beginning of book-keeping as well as penmanship in the first year; history is optional, it alternates throughout with drawing and science. Shorthand and typing are begun in the second year, commercial geography and commercial law occupy three periods a week in the fourth year. Some interesting statements were made by the headmaster and the head of the department; they emphasised the popularity of French, the need of building up English, and of working at spelling and arithmetic, and uttered a warning against using too much printed material in book-keeping, which subject it appears is not popular with girls. The use of the phonograph is not approved, the danger of memory work and routine in shorthand was noted, the value of what one might call translation and retranslation between shorthand and longhand was also emphasised. The building is not modern, and the equipment poor compared with St. Louis, but one perhaps may be allowed to say that the excellencies of method, and the earnestness of tone showed how much more important for efficiency is the teacher than the building. "Men, not walls, make a city."

Boston Commercial High School is a new institution of entirely different purpose; its object is to prepare *boys* for business in general. A number of leading Boston business men have interested themselves in its foundation and organisation, and the authorities of the school are in close

touch with the Permanent Committee of these leaders of commerce in Boston. The head was sent to Europe to study more especially the German system of commercial education; he said he saw very little in England that was helpful. The German language is compulsory, since the Germans are the most serious rivals, in his opinion, that America has to face. The school aims at giving a liberal education in touch with local conditions; it contains at present 340 boys, but it is only just at the beginning of its work. History has an important part in the curriculum, as we have explained in Chapter V.; the traditions of the place, young as it is, have a university atmosphere, and some of the boys go on straight to college. Out of the twenty graduates this year, one-third will do this. The influence of Harvard, where there is a graduate school of commerce, seems to count for much. This school, perhaps because it was for boys only, and because many of the teachers were college men, reminded one of a good English boys' school; there was a strength of discipline in handling some awkward material, an influence of form masters on their boys, a strenuous air, a certain roughness and vitality which do not appear in the ordinary American high school. The place and the experiment, one would say, are well worth studying by English masters.

I do not believe that it is the function of the public secondary school to teach the philosophy of business management, nor do I believe it is within its power to do so. The course of study of a public commercial high school must be exceedingly strong in those subjects which the 99 per cent. of those who attend will require (the essentials), and, if possible, strong in those branches which will be wanted by the 1 per cent. who are expected to become bank presidents, railroad managers, consuls, promoters of vast enterprises and the like.

The studies of the course may be grouped as follows: English; mathematics; science; languages; history and civics;

commercial subjects taught separately as such, including writing, book-keeping, arithmetic, commercial law, stenography and typewriting.

The study to which I assign the first place in the commercial high school course is English, by which I mean the "art of expression in conversation and writing, and on one's feet in public" (William E. Doggett, National Education Association Address, 1900, quoted in Special Reports, vol. ii., part 2, Board of Education [Cd. 1156]).

CONCLUSION.

While there is much to learn as to methods of teaching, organisation of courses, and equipment in American commercial education, the most valuable lesson for English people certainly is that this teaching is best given to those who have a good general education. In England too many people think that mere technical skill in shorthand and typing is enough; they do not realise that if this is preceded by a liberal education the product is altogether different, and very much more valuable. The American commercial schools turn out products suited to the different needs of different kinds of people, including the responsible principal who can multiply his own power, and save his own time, by the employment of an educated secretary. It is absurd—were it not so pathetic—to find men in England, who are earning over £1,500 a year, writing their letters with their own hands. No American is guilty of such a waste of his own valuable time and energy. Naturally, the cheap, half-educated young clerk, boy or girl, cannot help such a principal. Our mistake in England all through is that young people are expected to go out into the world too early. We cannot believe that time is needed for the ripening of intelligence, as for the ripening of fruit and the maturing of whisky. Nature will not be hurried; really good intellectual work can

only be done by maturer minds, and it is to those only that more advanced training can profitably be given.

It is already being recognised on the clerical and literary side of the various forms of business and professional activity, that in the routine of the office, or the laboratory or the library, whether it is the case of a factory, an administration, a bank, a lawyer, a physician, a college professor, there are duties that can be discharged not only successfully but perhaps more efficiently by women than by men, and in the proper reorganisation of every business system this will not be lost from sight if the trained woman is available. But apart from these clerical and literary activities there are in almost every line of business and at almost every grade certain portions of the work that call for the kind of skill that a properly trained woman can furnish if she can bring to the task something more than the untrained labour of her hands (the President of Simmons College, *Social Education Quarterly*, March, 1907).

Philadelphia has opened a new High School for Girls, the "William Penn," to be inaugurated September, 1909. It will take the place of the Commercial High School mentioned above, and will contain five departments :—

- I. Academic.
- II. Domestic.
- III. Professional (for Dressmaking, Millinery, etc.).
- IV. Commercial.
- V. Library Economy.

The Principal Elect is the Director of the School of Commerce in the Boys' Central High School, and is now studying in Europe with reference to the equipment of the magnificent new building which the school is to have. (November, 1908.)

CHAPTER VIII.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION—ESPECIALLY FOR GIRLS.

But rather let him labour, working with his hands the thing that is good.—PAUL.

THE present movement for industrial education in the United States is the most outstanding feature to-day of educational life there; one meets it at every turn. It began definitely in Massachusetts some years ago, it has also extended to New York State, and this year is spreading all over the country, a great meeting having been held at Chicago in January.

This movement has two aspects; that in the forefront, which is simple and intelligible: a demand for the training of young people between fourteen and sixteen years of age for trades and industries, *e.g.*, the teaching of trade dress-making and millinery to girls. The other is a deeper impulse which rolls the movement forward; dissatisfaction with education as it is to-day for the masses of the people who will enter industrial life, and a desire to reshape the whole system of the public elementary school and to add to it continuation work in the closest relation to industrial needs. Professor Sadler in his new book¹ gives an account of the movement (Chapter XXIII.), calling it "The Trend Towards Industrial Education".

The whole question undoubtedly means a new development in education. The work of Horace Mann sixty years

¹ *Continuation Schools in England and Elsewhere.* Manchester University Press, 1908.

ago in Massachusetts produced an extraordinary forward movement in American education ; from it have come the normal schools, the system of elementary education characteristic of America, and much else. This wave seems now to have spent its force ; Massachusetts leaders of to-day think that the country is suffering because its education system is not flexible enough to adapt itself to modern conditions. Ways of living have changed completely in the last sixty years ; the education system must be changed accordingly.

No visitor to America at present, whatever her own educational interests, could fail to be impressed by the strength of this modern movement for industrial education. Every one in Boston is working at it, or thinking about it, and the new institutions that have been established as pioneers, though as yet struggling private foundations, are the schools one must go and see. For the women's industries the Boston Trade School for Girls, 674 Massachusetts Avenue, and the Manhattan Trade School for Girls, 209-213 East Twenty-third Street, New York City, are discovering what can be done, and they are already passing out of the stage of initial experiment to that of definite knowledge of what is wanted by the industries, and are therefore on the way to assured success.

The State of Massachusetts, which throughout the history of the republic has been the leader in educational progress of every type, is taking the lead officially in industrial education. New England is to-day the leading manufacturing area of the United States ; the Governor of Massachusetts in 1905 appointed a commission on industrial and technical education which has conducted an elaborate investigation, and issued reports ; the next step doubtless will be the provision by public money of trade and technical schools after a fashion not yet attempted in America.

The causes of this new movement are of very great interest to the students of sociology. The first is, the scarcity of good workmen. "We are facing a time when a really skilful craftsman will be a rarity." "Nowhere can you see a blacksmith making a shoe or a nail to-day." The apprenticeship system is dead, and where manufacturing is conducted almost entirely by machinery it is all but impossible for a youth to learn his trade in the shops; he can only learn to work one machine. Manufacturers are feeling the competition of the trained industrial workers of France and Germany (England seems to be considered as a far less serious competitor). It is the demand of the American employer for skilled workmen which gives the movement its practical driving power; there is, of course, as here, opposition from the labour unions, but this does not seem to be considered very serious; with the optimism of America, people think it will be easily overcome.

A second cause which has much to do with the deeper side, the demand for a reformed education, is the drift of the population into towns. In the old days the boy and girl under rural conditions received an excellent form of industrial education, through helping in the activities of the home. "The best that the school system can do is to restore in part the rich industrial inheritance of fifty years ago." This change has injured girls particularly, as we know in England; they do not help in the home as they did, and they go out to work in the factories. One need not labour this subject, which is so familiar at home, especially as the cause of the high infant mortality which disgraces our industrial districts.

The third cause is not found in England: the fact that boys and girls are not wanted in American industries till sixteen or eighteen years of age. This is very clearly shown by the investigations of the Massachusetts Commission; employers state that they will not take young

people until at least sixteen, and they prefer them at eighteen. The legal age when a youth may leave school is fourteen, and, in spite of the provision of free education in grammar and high schools, enormous numbers of children drop out as soon as the legal age is reached. This is not due mainly to poverty and the need to work; it is due to the child, who wishes to leave school and begin to work at something. "It is age which brings the child desire to begin to do something; at fourteen he is physically ready, and mentally and morally anxious to cease imitating and to become creative." What does the child do, it may be asked, at fourteen if the regular industries will not take him, or her? They engage in unskilled labour of all sorts, badly paid, irregular, uneducative, and, so the authorities say, very often demoralising; so that at sixteen, after drifting about from one unskilled occupation to another, the boy or girl is a much less efficient worker than on leaving school at fourteen. The "wasted years" is the phrase used for this aspect of the question, which also has great influence on public opinion, and on the driving power of the movement. All these facts were definitely proved in an investigation conducted for the Massachusetts Commission by Susan M. Kingsbury, Ph.D. She found that in the little State of Massachusetts 25,000 children between fourteen and sixteen were either at work or idle; her report which is a model of this kind of work is to be found in the 1906 Report of the Commission; it includes a description upon what the value of the years from fourteen to sixteen might be to girls, by the Director of the Boston Trade School, Miss Marshall. Further testimony to this need for trade education is given by the extraordinary extent of the correspondence schools established for private profit, advertising largely in the American magazines, and undertaking by correspondence to train people for all sorts of positions in the world of industry; they have grown to

enormous dimensions, and draw in very large revenues from working-people, who take these correspondence courses, hoping thus to improve their economic position.

As to the remedy, it is obvious that the years from fourteen to sixteen might very well be filled up by attendance at trade schools; it has been proved already that pupils can learn their trade under these conditions, and that their wages are even doubled after a year's course. It might be thought that manual training, particularly in the manual training high schools, might have done much for industrial education, but this has not happened; it was not expected; manual training was definitely intended *not* to teach a trade, but to be a part of general education. It is found in practice that youths who have gone through a manual training high school rarely become craftsmen; they are much more likely to become managers of engineering works.

Trade schools must, of course, depend on the conditions of the district, but for girls they will probably include the needle trades in some form or another, and training in domestic duties, since girls of this type ultimately marry and have homes of their own. The Manhattan Trade School in New York City, directed by Mrs. Mary S. Woolman, Professor of Domestic Art at Teachers' College, Columbia, has now reached an established position after five years' work. It is, be it understood, an institution established by private persons who believe in the thing, and are willing to find money to run it; most of the leaders of education in New York are connected with it. Its aim is not only to teach girls, but also "to teach the community at large how best to accomplish such training and to stand as a model school, whose advice and help can facilitate the founding of the best kind of school for the lowest rank of women workers". It has discovered that one of the best things to do is to train girls to operate

machines driven by electric power, not only for making clothing, but for doing embroidery, and making the elaborate trimmings which are so much used to-day for ladies' dresses. Dressmaking of every type is very carefully taught, and the practical character of the work is insured by the school making garments for customers, wholesale and retail; millinery and straw-hat making are also taught. For those girls who have no taste whatever in the clothing trades the use of paste or glue in making fancy articles, boxes, etc., is taught; this in New York is a trade where good wages can be earned. Every girl receives instruction in art, in business arithmetic, English, and in civics, and physical training. The instruction, of course, is quite free; in many cases the girls need some maintenance money; the families are often exceedingly poor, and the appearance of the girls, though neat and clean, shows that they are of a less intellectual type. Very few have gone through the grammar grades in the elementary school, graduated that is; they are often undersized and badly fed, and naturally in New York are largely foreign born. Girls of this type generally have to stay in the school for two years, but with the business depression the school is now drawing on girls of a higher type who are out of work, and go ahead rapidly during one year. Perfect silence is maintained in the workrooms, a fact impressive to a visitor; it was stated that since this was the rule in the industries, and that employers would not take girls who were accustomed to talk while working, the school had established the custom, and certainly seemed to find no difficulty in enforcing it. Some 470 girls were admitted in 1907; the cost for the year ending 1907 is \$67,000 (£13,000); pioneer work is always expensive. Employers are in close relation with the Manhattan Trade School, and thus they have no trouble in placing their girls.

The Boston Trade School is considered to have different

characteristics, and certainly the Boston conditions are not the same; the trades available for girls are not the same as those in New York. Dressmaking seems relatively more important, and straw-hat making; the operating of power machines is not so advantageous a trade as in New York; it is, however, very difficult for a stranger to judge. The school is free to all girls between fourteen and seventeen. "It aims to prepare girls to earn a better living than is possible for the cash girl, the candy-factory girl, the errand girl, and girls who enter similar unskilled employments. It teaches dressmaking, millinery, straw machine operating, clothing machine operating, design, domestic science, physical education." The hours are from 8.30 to 5 every day except Saturday; in the new building it can take 150 girls; much emphasis is laid on domestic teaching, the girls taking it in turns to help with the daily lunch, planning and cooking cheap hot dishes for the other girls to supplement the cold food brought from home. Great attention is paid to art work and design. This school, too, finds no difficulty in placing pupils.

The value of the training which girls are receiving in these schools is apparent even to the casual visitor. The effect of the work in domestic science upon the school luncheon, where everything is orderly and attractive, the earnestness with which the work in millinery and dressmaking is carried on, and the application of the principles of design and colour to the decoration of the schoolrooms, show clearly that these schools are helping to develop domestic and womanly traits of the character (Commission Report).

It is easy to understand what these pioneer schools are doing, and how valuable might be the establishment of trade schools of various kinds for young people between fourteen and sixteen who otherwise would waste their time in idleness or unskilled occupations. The great question of a reform in education to meet the changes in social

life is a much more difficult thing to understand and to discuss; one cannot think, however, that it is a mere fad. The schools do *not* train workmen. We find the New York State Commissioner of Education, Dr. Andrew S. Draper, in his Annual Report for 1908,¹ saying:—

From the bottom to the top of the school system the eye is on the school above, and the school above leads to a professional or a managing employment rather than a trade vocation.

Good citizenship, he says, is dependent on workmen. Professor McMurry of Teachers' College, Columbia, feels the lack of practical work of the existing elementary school curriculum, and the excessively theoretical character of high school and college courses. The Massachusetts Commission recommend:—

That cities and towns so modify the work in the elementary schools as to include for boys and girls instruction and practice in the elements of productive industry, including agriculture and the mechanical and domestic arts, and that this instruction be of such a character as to secure from it the highest culture as well as the highest industrial value; and that the work in the high schools be modified so that the instruction in mathematics, the sciences and drawing shall show the application and use of these subjects in industrial life, with especial reference to local industries, so that the students may see that these subjects are not designed primarily and solely for academic purposes, but that they may be utilised for the purposes of practical life. That is, algebra and geometry should be so taught in the public schools as to show their relation to construction; botany to horticulture, and agricultural chemistry to agriculture, manufactures and domestic sciences; and drawing to every form of industry.

From another side a modification of the school course is demanded to give much greater moral and social value;

¹ "Our Children, our Schools and our Industries." Albany, N.Y., 1908.

Mr. James P. Munroe, a leading Boston manufacturer and merchant, in the *Educational Review* says:—

These, it seems to me, are main truths in education: (1) that we must educate individuals not masses; (2) that we must train the child as a part of a family and a neighbourhood, not as an isolated unit; (3) that we must develop a child by sympathy and interest, not instruct him by compulsion; (4) that we must reckon with and enlist all the social forces (the school being but one) which are moulding the child's life; (5) that we must strive for a steady and harmonious development of all three sides of the child: his body, his mind, and his soul; and (6) that we must ever keep in view as the true goal of education, not book learning for the individual, but social and moral life for the community.

Professor Thorndike of Columbia says:—

One main cause of elimination is (*i.e.* of pupils from school) incapacity for and lack of interest in the sort of intellectual work demanded by the present courses of study.

President Roosevelt himself has stated the same view:—

If boys and girls are trained merely in literary accomplishments to the total exclusion of industrial, manual, and technical training, the tendency is to unfit them for industrial work and to make them reluctant to go into it, or unfitted to do well if they do go into it.

Educators as well as public men and manufacturers in America are moving for reform; the group work described in Chapter IV. means training for social life. The Dewey curriculum mentioned on pages 87 and 174 is an attempt to make the school practical, the foundation of Simmons College (Chapter VI.), all these, and many other facts which more extended study would find, point in the one direction. It is profoundly significant that the leading official of the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial Education should be Paul H. Hanus, Professor of Education at Harvard;

Americans seem to feel that on the solution of this problem of industrial education depends the economic future of their industries, the chances of their success in the international competition which every year makes more severe and yet more inevitable. They spare no pains and no money in preparing their young people of the future; they cannot afford to waste the youth of the nation.

What have we to learn? It is said that an American visitor to some English works was shown machinery for that utilisation of waste products which has brought fortunes to so many English manufacturers. "Yes," said the American, "what you waste are *men*." We are careful enough of their lives, with our coroner's inquest, and Board of Trade investigations, far more careful than America, but we have wasted the true wealth of a nation—men—by our neglect in the past. This has left on our hands a mass of incapables, an enormous population below the poverty line, a dead-weight of human inefficiency which hinders and harms at every turn national prosperity and growth, as well as national health and morals. If we are to hold our own with Germany, America, and Japan in the great international struggle, we must deal with this inefficient horde in such a way as to turn them and (if this be impossible) their children into useful members of the social organism. No one reform alone will do this, but one way out is to be found in industrial education.

[A recent article in the *Educational Review*, October, 1908, by Henry C. Morrison, State Superintendent, New Hampshire, strongly opposes industrial education. He thinks *general* education should be improved, and dreads the stratification of society which the training of workmen as such would produce.]

CHAPTER IX.

THE PLACE OF WOMEN IN AMERICAN EDUCATION.

A perfect woman, nobly planned,
To warn, to comfort and command,—WORDSWORTH.

IT is generally considered that American women have greater advantages in education than their English sisters, and this is largely true. For many years they have had full opportunities in every type of institution, even post-graduate work being opened to them at conservative institutions like Yale, when once it was shown that women were ready to profit by this instruction. It is also customary for girls to receive more education than boys; they stay longer in school, since the attraction of practical life is not so strong for them. In families which send their children to college, not only are the girls sent as a matter of course like the boys, but the girls will go when the boys may not. Women of the wealthier classes are the only people in America who have leisure, and they continue their education by study, lectures, and meetings well into adult life. Public opinion thinks it right for both families and the community to spend a greater amount on girls' education than is the case in England; just as property in America is held more largely by women than with us.

Equality of opportunity in learning has largely come about through the custom of co-education. Girls went to the common school with their brothers when in the eighteenth century it began to be considered desirable for girls to have an education at all; in the academies girls were also

allowed to attend, though in the early nineteenth century many separate schools for girls, female seminaries as they were called, were founded. Women's college education has followed two streams: one begins with Oberlin, Ohio, which opened its doors to women in 1833, and became a college in 1850, and with the opening of the University of Michigan in 1871; it flows to this day with increased volume and importance. The other, the system of separate institutions, rises with the foundation of Vassar College in 1865; and this also still continues to spread. When the era of the public high schools opened, the idea of girls receiving an education had already been generally accepted, and thus these are almost entirely co-educational, except in the South, and in some Eastern cities, chiefly Philadelphia, Boston, and New York. In Boston the separate public high schools for girls were founded only because the boys' schools had been in existence for so long; it was simpler in Boston to have a separate girls' Latin school (founded 1875). In the suburbs of Boston, and in New England generally, the public high school is co-educational.

This method is to Americans so natural, simple, and convenient that it is taken as a matter of course; there is, so far as the present writer could ascertain, no reaction against it in the schools. The eminent authority of Dr. Stanley Hall is, of course, recognised, though his views are strongly controverted by many, but so far no impression seems to have been made on a method so fortified by tradition. In conversation both men and women teachers admit the danger of physical overstrain to girls, who are working side by side with boys during the years of growth and development, but there is no other difficulty to be ascertained. Men who have been through co-educational high schools say that the age at which attraction takes place between the sexes is, in general, after school life is over; that boys and girls take very little notice of one another in

school (which is indeed what one observes), and that any exceptional case can be very easily dealt with. Intellectually, as we have said (p. 26), and in discipline, the schools profit by co-education ; it would probably not be possible to get such discussions in a history lesson, for example, were girls only present, as those the writer heard in the Horace Mann High School mixed classes.

The physical difficulty seems to be met to some extent by the very great care and detailed supervision of the girls' health given by the gymnasium mistress, who often enters into close personal relations with the girls, gives them advice on personal hygiene, allows for occasional absence, and looks after any girl who may be taken ill in school, and without whose help the system would probably be much more injurious to the girls' physique than it is.

There are, however, certain features in American life which should be carefully considered by those who would draw from American experience arguments for co-education in English secondary schools. The first is the universal respect for women, who are treated as a distinctly superior order of beings. This comes out in all sorts of ways, and is especially noticeable by a woman travelling alone through America. The courtesy, kindness, and consideration, shown by absolute strangers to such a one just because she is a woman, are most striking, and seem very different from what the travelling Englishman appears to receive. The tone of the school naturally follows the tone of the community, and this makes the position of the girls in a co-educational school very much easier and pleasanter. Then, again, the standard of work for the boys is, according to English teachers (see Mosely Commission Report), not as high as with us, and the boys therefore do not work as hard. If they did, the work would be too hard for the girls, and where in America the standards are highest this difficulty is actually found. The absence of

examination strain and the prevalence of the free elective system also make work for the girls easier than it would otherwise be, for they choose the subjects that suit them. Most important of all for the case of a co-educational system is the fact that, as we have said, the American public high school does not attempt to train character as we do, and therefore the particular personal influence of the man on the growing youth, and of the woman on the growing girl, which acts more effectively and thoroughly in a separate school, does not enter into the question. In the private schools, where this influence and training are definitely part of the aim, separation, as in England, is general; the boys are either in military academies, or in schools modelled on Eton and Rugby, or in the new farm schools, and the girls are in private boarding-schools under the strong personal influence of women of high culture. It does not appear, however, that the parents who do not send their children to the public school are at all influenced by any theoretic objection to co-education; as we have seen in Chapter II., their reasons have nothing to do with this.

The reaction against co-education in America shows itself not in schools but in colleges. It appears to arise, in the first instance, among the men undergraduates who object to the presence of women in large numbers in the classes. One comes across this in conversation with instructors, younger members of college faculties who are naturally still in touch with undergraduate life, but presidents and other senior officials state the fact quite openly. A very full treatment of the difficulties is given by President Van Hise of Wisconsin in his address to the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ in October last on their twenty-fifth anniversary; the address is given in full in the *Educational Review*, December, 1907. He begins by pointing out that State universities became co-educational owing to their public

character, and the demand of women for higher education, and that the moral and intellectual difficulties feared in advance by opponents of co-education have not resulted. Two unforeseen difficulties have, however, arisen, both owing to the very large numbers of women now attending; difficulties which did not appear during the earlier years when a small number of very earnest and thoughtful women availed themselves of these new opportunities. The first is concerned with social life; we quote President Van Hise's own words:—

The presence in the same institution of a certain percentage of men and women, both with no very serious purpose, has undoubtedly led to a co-educational problem, that of social affairs, upon which this association has been seriously at work for some years past and which is yet far from a satisfactory solution. In the State universities a number of steps have been taken during the past few years toward the regulation of social affairs, and it is my expectation that we shall go farther before the conditions are reasonably satisfactory.

In reference to this problem I shall mention merely one difficulty which seems to me to have been frequently overlooked and which must be fully considered in working out a solution. In women's colleges the women set their own standards. That woman is successful who takes a leading part in scholastic work—in the literary society, in dramatics, in athletics, and other forms of college life. The young woman to be a success in a women's college must win her success by exactly the same qualities of leadership and of service in the college to the college community required by the young man to win a prominent position. In the co-educational institution there is a tendency for the men to fix the standards not only for themselves but for the women. With the increase in numbers of men and women in co-educational institutions with no very serious purpose, there is undoubtedly a tendency among the women to regard as successful the one who is attractive to the young men—in other

words, social availability rather than intellectual leadership is regarded by at least a considerable number of the young women as the basis of a successful college career. While this view may seem absurd, a little reflection will convince one that the tendency is perfectly natural—indeed, is as deep-seated as many of the most firmly established traditions in reference to the relations between the sexes. So far as I can see, this obstacle will always be a real one in co-educational institutions.

At Wisconsin steps have been taken to limit the number of parties, and to check the excessive amount of social diversion which seems to have had a tendency to injure the more important purposes of university life.

The other difficulty is that certain courses of study, especially the literary and humanistic, have become so popular with women that they in such work greatly outnumber the men.¹ When this happens the men will not elect these courses; this danger is even more serious at

¹The educational opportunities of the stronger universities of the West have been eagerly seized by the young women, and, according to reports furnished for 1906-7, the numbers of women and men in the college of liberal arts, or literature, arts, and sciences, of several State universities, were as follows :—

University.	No. of women.	No. of men.
California	987	582
Illinois	420	475
Indiana	654	912
Iowa	497	473
Kansas	393	382
Michigan	699	992
Minnesota	879	465
Missouri	396	404
Nebraska	725	314
Ohio	292	324
Texas	448	369
Washington	487	209
Wisconsin	838	1,008

See also "The Intellectual Reactions of Co-education" (*Educational Review*, May, 1908). Address delivered before the Social Education Conference, Boston, March, 1908, by Dr. Julius Sachs of Teachers' College.

some other universities than at Wisconsin, which means that the men in them are deserting liberal studies altogether. Conversely, women do not elect such courses as political economy, taken by a large number of men, and they do not attend the Departments of Engineering, Law, Commerce, Agriculture, except very rarely; even medicine is followed by few. President Van Hise calls this natural segregation, and he recognises it as inevitable. He suggests that, as the numbers in the State universities are large, and the lectures must be repeated to different sections, the men and women should be segregated for history, literature, Latin, etc.

In subjects such as language, literature, political economy, history and mathematics in a large institution, there are many divisions. There is no reason whatever why a course already given in a number of sections should not provide divisions primarily for the men and others primarily for the women. If the actual opportunities of women will be enlarged by offering courses in political economy for them, perhaps adapted to their special interests when they otherwise would not pursue this subject because of the number of men, why should not this be done? If the opportunities of the men will be enlarged by offering courses in literature for them, when otherwise they would not take such course because of the large number of women, what valid objection can be urged to the proposal? Why should there not be given a course in ethics for men alone?

At the University of Washington, President Kane says that in some of the subjects in which there are a large number of students the sections are so scheduled that women only are in certain sections and men only in others. He goes on to say in effect: "I am strongly in favour, also, of a division of the sexes into separate classes in the departments in which our freshmen and sophomores work. There are in many departments a half-dozen or more sections doing the same work, so that

a division can be made with very little difficulty and without added expenditure for the instructional force. In these departments I shall favour, unless our experience goes contrary to my conjecture, the definite plan of separate sections for the men and women."

This plan would meet the problem of separation, and undoubtedly some professors find that they need to lecture differently to men and to women.

In the University of Chicago the difficulties have been met by segregating the men and women for the first and second years of the college course; at the Leland Stanford Universities in California, and the Wesleyan University in Connecticut, the number of women admitted has been limited. The separate women's colleges and the separate men's colleges are increasing in numbers, and there is, it is said, a tendency for men to prefer to go to separate colleges. This reaction against co-education in college, whilst there is no objection to it in school, seems very extraordinary to an English observer; in England the general opinion perhaps would reverse these positions. It is stated by some Americans that there are two non-intellectual considerations that cause these difficulties to be felt at college. The first is that the young people are away from home and are living under artificial conditions. While attending the day school, living the ordinary family life, and under home influences, young people behave in a simple natural fashion; when they go to college they have to take care of themselves. It must be remembered in this connection that the elaborate tutorial and disciplinary system in our English colleges does not exist in a great American State university; even in a separate college much greater freedom is allowed than in England. The other influence is psychological; Americans say that the mutual attraction between young men and young women is much stronger at the college age, and

that it does not appear in school life, except possibly in the last year. If these authorities are right, the difficulty of too much social life referred to by President Van Hise is easily explained.

There is another objection against co-education in the university which seems very extraordinary to an English-woman, and that is in reference to graduate work, which, it will be remembered, is special work of a high quality similar to that done by students for a tripos at Cambridge. There seems to be a feeling, which the chivalry of American men allows only to be expressed quietly and with great reserve, that the admission of women to graduate departments lowers the standard of work, and that the men would very much rather not have them there. We will again quote President Van Hise:—

The president of one large State University says that the presence of women does tend to lower the standard of graduate work, for the simple reason that women do not incline to research. While I should hesitate to assent to this statement, it does appear to be a fact that the percentage of women who are willing to work at the same subject six hours a day for three hundred days in the year is much smaller than among the men. But this quality is essential for success in research. Thus while the intellectual success of the women in undergraduate work is unquestioned, there is still question on the part of some as to the rank they are to take in the graduate school and in creative work.

The experience in the English colleges for women at Oxford and Cambridge, and of the Honours Schools at co-educational universities like London and Manchester, would not, we think, confirm the American view, though it is probably a fact that the presence of women students is not popular with undergraduates at Oxford and Cambridge.

It is interesting to notice that the movement for women's education in England has proceeded on the lines of separ-

ate schools for girls, and of urgent demand for admission to the universities on equal terms with men. The separate women's college, like Vassar or Bryn Mawr, giving its own degrees, never has been demanded in England.

Having noted the position of women as learners we may now consider them as teachers ; as every one knows, they are in a large majority in the common schools. It is said in New England that over 90 per cent. of the teachers in the public schools are women, and that many boys go right through their education up to fourteen years of age, and pass out into life without ever having been under the influence of a man at school. The Mosely Commissioners speak again and again about this, and Americans admit that it is an unfortunate state of affairs. A discussion is going on at present in the *Educational Review* as to why teaching repels men. It was stated that in the ten years ending 1906 the number of men teachers decreased 24 per cent. The financial question is undoubtedly the fundamental reason ; salaries are not high, and a better quality of teacher can be got at the same rate if women are taken.

The Mosely Commissioners did not emphasise the fact that the small minority of men in the common school are found in the position of principal teachers and senior assistants. This would probably appear natural to them, being men themselves. From this small minority come the superintendents and directing officials, the heads of normal colleges and schools, who, speaking generally, seem to be men of ability and skilled teachers ; many possess real power, grasp and insight. The writer asked an American authority, "How is it that so many able men, enough to fill the head posts, are produced out of so small a percentage of men teachers?" The answer was that a good many men will take up teaching as a stop-gap for a short time ; that those who have a natural gift remain in the profession and rapidly rise, while those who have no

vation for it withdraw after a very short experience. The large majority of women teachers furnish very, very few leaders, although legally a woman is eligible to the post of principal or superintendent. Kindergarten and primary work is, of course, in their hands, and there is very often in a large city a woman assistant superintendent or supervisor of kindergarten or primary education. There seem also to be a fair number of women principals of grammar schools, that is schools for the grades from eleven to fourteen, what we should call in England senior mixed departments;¹ in such cases the staff often consists of women.

An interesting sidelight is thrown on this predominance of women teachers in the public elementary schools of America by some remarks by the State Superintendent of Maine, in a pamphlet on child study. He had conducted a careful inquiry, and in conclusion writes as follows:—

No one can study these figures without noticing that the girls lead the boys in desirable qualities and that the boys more largely rank the girls in particulars which reflect discredit upon school children. The almost unanimous testimony of teachers on these items makes pertinent the following queries:—

First: Do the figures fairly represent the facts?

Second: Are boys less interested in school work than girls because they are in so few instances taught by men?

Third: Do women judge boys fairly?

Fourth: Do boys develop more slowly than girls and are they less willing to work?

Fifth: Are our courses of study better adapted to the needs of girls than to the necessities of boys?

Sixth: Are girls more industrious than boys because they are told so frequently they are not as brainy as boys?

¹ One of the greatest objections to women as the sole teachers of youth in our public schools is the fact that they care so little for public affairs (McMurry, *Teachers' College Record*).

Seventh: Have athletics had anything to do with lessening the interest of boys in school work?

Eighth: Is the instruction more attractive to girls than to boys?

Ninth: Should not parents, school officials and teachers make a careful study of these figures for the purpose of determining what changes are needed in school administration, teaching force, subjects of study and methods of instruction?

In the high school, that is in secondary education, there is much more equality of the sexes on the staff; the head is, of course, almost always a man, in the case of great city schools universally so. The staff of such schools seems often to be about equally divided. The importance of girls being taught by men teachers is deeply felt in America; they consider it a great fault in our English girls' high schools if the staff is exclusively feminine, and this for two reasons. First, they consider that a man exercises an intellectual influence different from that of a woman, an influence extremely important to the girls' intellectual development. This is probably quite true, and may be illustrated by the cases in which distinguished Englishwomen have been taught as girls by their fathers. If the girls' schools in England had more money they would do well to have men teachers on their staffs, as they did in the early days, and as some few still do. The other reason seems less forcible; it is that the school should furnish to a girl some notion of what a gentleman really is, just as the women teachers should so far as possible be models for her own conduct and character. Americans say that a girl's standard of true manhood ought to be influenced by what she learns in school from men teachers. It is difficult to give an opinion on this; perhaps with our fixity of social classes in England, we would say that a girl's own father and the friends she meets in her own home should give her this standard.

The importance of the effect of women teachers on boys is equally emphasised by Americans. They consider that if a boy is taught in the high school by a woman whose intellectual standards and power are as high as those of her men colleagues, he learns to respect a woman in a way that an English boy never does. Indeed some Americans give as the reason for the universal respect and consideration for women in America the fact that all the men folk have been taught by women in their youth. It would certainly make a very great difference to the average boy in an English city grammar school, not to say in one of our great public schools, if he were taught history, or English, or modern languages, by some of our first-rate university women teachers. In the present scarcity of assistant masters, governing bodies of boys' schools might consider whether they could not experiment by the appointment of two or three first-rate women teachers, especially for the literary subjects that women teach so well.

So much for the staff of a high school: the headship according to American opinion must, if the school is large and important, be held by a man, even when the schools, like some of those in Boston and New York, are for girls only. It was perhaps one of the most remarkable personal experiences of the writer to meet continually these headmasters at the head of girls' schools, both public and private, and to feel that this was natural and proper to Americans. The reasons we shall endeavour to discuss later. In secondary education as well as elementary, men of ability and natural gifts come to the front by a kind of survival of the fittest. The writer could not but notice, however, the difference in the attitude of women teachers, due to the fact that they could not look forward to becoming heads of schools later, as can the more able members of the staff of a girls' school in England. With us this hope for promotion stimulates and develops the senior

mistresses of our schools, and makes them do work of a finer type as assistants. In America the only hope for promotion of a woman teacher in a high school is to become a lecturer in one of the women's colleges.

The normal colleges for training girls who will become teachers in the public elementary schools also have men principals, often very able men. Indeed women do not seem to take as large a part in the training of teachers in America, though the movement is much wider and older there, as they do already with us. We may refer in illustration to the number of women engaged in the education departments of our universities, and to the new rule of the Board of Education that the heads of elementary training colleges for young women must in all new appointments be women themselves.

We now come to colleges; here the position of women (whether as students or instructors) is better than it is in England, owing to the larger numbers of women's colleges. We have nothing like Vassar, with its 1,000 students and its 61 women on the faculty, or Bryn Mawr with nearly 500 students doing work of a high grade, many of them graduates working for the Ph.D., to say nothing of Smith with nearly 1,500, and Wellesley with over 1,000 students, and many smaller and less important institutions besides. Clearly, even allowing that the population of the United States is about twice that of England, a very much larger proportion of American women go to college than is as yet the case with us. These colleges afford opportunities of employment to a large number of women professors and lecturers, many of them women of distinction. It is invidious to particularise, but the writer may say that the most brilliant mathematician Girton has produced is on the staff at Bryn Mawr, and that in Vassar women have done and are doing astronomical work of the highest standard. The existence of these large opportunities for

remunerative intellectual work is undoubtedly a great stimulus to the American woman of marked intellectual ability. We have nothing like it here; the English college woman who has taken a good honours degree (or equivalent) can hardly hope for university work unless she is exceptionally distinguished, or exceptionally fortunate. She therefore comes into the schools, which benefit, it need hardly be said, by having plenty of the best material out of which to shape the future heads of schools or training colleges.

It must not be supposed, however, that the women's colleges are essentially taught by women; there are always some men in the faculty. Bryn Mawr is indeed remarkable for attracting brilliant young men to teach there for a few years, and go on to posts of greater dignity.

As regards supreme control one may notice again in several important instances the remarkable American custom that a woman's institution should have a man head. Wellesley tradition has always been different; the founder, Henry Durant, from the very beginning appointed a woman president, and as far as possible desired to have only women on the staff. The second president there was Alice Freeman Palmer, one of the finest women American education has known. Bryn Mawr at first had a man president, but now has a woman. Where there is a women's college attached as it were to a men's university, there is generally a woman dean at the head, as at Barnard, Radcliffe and Chicago, where, as we have seen, the women are to a certain extent separated. Such women correspond roughly with the mistress or principal of an Oxford or Cambridge college for women. At Barnard, however, a man head has been talked of, and men have held posts as acting deans during an interregnum. One cannot imagine this happening at Bedford College, London, or at the Royal Holloway College; their position in regard to

London University is analogous to that of Barnard to Columbia. Even the new Simmons College in Boston, founded within the last ten years, has a man president with a woman dean acting under him.

In co-educational universities like Wisconsin, which are paralleled by the new English universities, there does not appear to be as good a chance for women to go on the faculties as there is already in England. We cannot afford to boast, for there is as yet no woman professor, though there have already been women, like the late Mary Bateson, fitted for the highest work. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology has a woman professor teaching classes almost entirely of men. But in the University of London, in the various institutions and colleges for higher education federated to it, women are found among the recognised teachers to a degree which cannot be paralleled in any American co-educational university. In the University of Manchester, too, women lecturers are appointed regularly when women of sufficient distinction can be found; so far as we know there seems in England no difficulty in even younger women lecturing to and controlling undergraduates. Apparently in America the opportunities for women to become members of faculties in large co-educational universities are not quite so good as they were, and the brilliant college woman, we are informed, would do better to limit herself to seeking work in a separate women's college. There is, however, one department to which we have nothing analogous in England—the woman head of a women's gymnasium in a mixed university like Wisconsin. She often has the medical qualification, and has full charge of the health of the women undergraduates; she may be in a marked sense their guide, philosopher, and friend, and to the work of such women is no doubt due the fact that the health and appearance of American girls improve during their college

life. There could be no better use for the gifts of some wealthy Englishwoman than to establish in our new universities a separate gymnasium for the women students, with a qualified woman in charge, a lady, and a graduate who would take her place beside the women tutors and lecturers and have the same standing. The work of the medical women on the staff at Vassar is peculiarly valuable. They give lectures on personal hygiene to every student, and do much to prepare women for their special duties in the home.

To conclude this review of the position of women in each type of the educational work of America, we must touch upon administration whether public or private. Here the position of women is conspicuously inferior to what it is in England; they are eligible for School Boards, but comparatively few seem to be elected or nominated. There is no law, as in England, compelling the appointment of at least two women on every Education Committee. The Board of Regents of a State university contains a woman or two here and there; the analogous bodies, courts, councils or senates, of the newer English universities, show that women take a much more prominent part in government, though, of course, as might be expected, they are in the minority. Private corporations owning and controlling schools, which correspond to our governing bodies, seem to contain a larger number of women than do the Public School Boards, but in the few cases of girls' institutions studied, it did not appear that the women members were as important relatively as the women members on a governing body in England. Voluntary committees of teachers' associations do not seem to include women in the same way as they would in England. A committee of this kind has just reported on the professional preparation of high school teachers to the National Education Association which nominated it; there are seventeen

members, professors of education, principals of high schools and officials; not one is a woman. Such a committee with us would certainly have included some of the heads of women's training colleges, and representatives of the Headmistresses' and Assistant Mistresses' Associations.

The subordinate position of women in educational institutions in America shows itself more and more clearly the more one studies; the higher up the scale one goes from the kindergarten to the university the worse is the position of women. Organisation, initiative, administration, government, are in the hands of men. This was symbolised on the occasion of an assembly in a most important and efficient co-educational school where, in the hall, were seated 500 boys and girls on separate sides, and on the platform four men in authority, principals and vice-principals, and not a single woman except the accompanist at the piano. This condition of things, in a country where women occupy a far better position generally than anywhere in the world, and where they are given the precedence in all kinds of ways, is very remarkable. We do not remember to have seen it noticed by students of American education. Americans themselves take their own system as natural and proper, and they are in general not acquainted with the work of Englishwomen in education. It is perhaps only a woman concerned in administration in England who would feel the difference, but as the writer progressed from place to place it was more deeply impressed upon her, especially the difference in matters of government. It was discussed with Americans, and from conversation the view gradually emerged that Americans do not consider administration as the natural and proper work for women. They feel it to be essentially men's work, though they admit that the exceptional woman may and does do it well. It is curious to contrast with this view expressed by chivalrous and liberal Americans, the trend of opinion

of conservative English town councillors in approving the recent bill for making women eligible for this kind of work. "Englishwomen had shown they could be useful, there was more work to do on town councils than men could do properly, and men would be very glad to have a woman on the council for the most practical reasons."

What can be the causes of this very remarkable difference? The writer has given such attention to the subject as was possible, and has questioned leading American women and even one or two American men on the matter; she would with diffidence suggest the following:—

The first reason is undoubtedly custom; institutions have always had men heads, and they thus command public confidence. It was said, indeed, that a man would be less likely to send his girls to a women's college with a woman at the head; other things being equal, he would feel more confidence if the supreme control were in the hands of a man. College presidents were, of course, men at the beginning. When the presidents were originally clergy they were responsible in a special way for the spiritual and moral development of the students, and it is only in this generation that laymen are found in certain great universities occupying these very important positions. The origin of the tradition for women's colleges is therefore easy to understand.

The historic evolution of women's education in England has been quite different; the struggle was begun by women like Miss Buss and Miss Clough. Separate girls' schools and colleges for women attached to men's universities was the form the movement took, and these women from the first became heads of the new institutions. When Miss Emily Davies had led the struggle at Cambridge she naturally became the head of Girton College; the tradition once formed was, of course, continued.

Another reason which may be offered for the American system is the existence of co-education, but we do not

think this enough to explain this difference. It explains why there are not 250 headmistresses of public secondary schools in America as there are in England; it does not explain why so many men are found at the heads of separate institutions for girls in America.

A third reason was given to the writer by Americans; it is not one she would herself suggest, and she cannot estimate its value. It is that women are not suited for administrative work, not American women that is; the politeness of the speakers forbade them, even if they thought so, to suggest that Englishwomen were not suited either. Four particulars of unsuitability were given by different witnesses. The first was health; women generally are not strong enough to stand the strain of administrative responsibility. Possibly this is true in America, where even men, under the conditions of the country, do not seem to have the endurance of Englishmen. The second is inclination; women do not like administrative work. On this point, of course, the information of Americans themselves cannot be controverted, but it should be noticed that this opinion came from men, not from women. The third consideration was that women had not the natural gifts required for administrators; we think it is generally agreed that French and English women have a fair share of administrative ability, and from what the writer saw of women's work in America, it would not appear that American women have any less natural power in this direction. The fourth point was that women teachers and educators have not the financial and business training which would fit them to become heads of great institutions; this is probably quite correct. The work is somewhat differently organised in England, and we do not emphasise the business side quite as much as the American.

Undoubtedly there are differences in social life which do alter the conditions. For one thing there are not as many

superfluous women in the educated and directing classes as there are in England. The American college woman is more likely to marry or to have independent means, and the life of society perhaps is a greater attraction to her. If a woman marries with us she is often able to go on with her administrative work, as her household duties can be more easily delegated than in America. One cannot but feel that the absence of women from many positions of high administrative responsibility is due to the fact that for one reason or another the women are not there to fill them. When a woman of first-rate ability, with inclination and leisure, is ready to do administrative work, the opportunities are given to her; this is clearly shown in the life of Alice Freeman Palmer, who was President of Wellesley at twenty-six, a trustee of Wellesley after her marriage, a member of the Massachusetts Board of Education from 1889 to her death, and Dean of women at Chicago in 1892; her far-reaching influence cannot be estimated, even by the enumeration of the definite public duties she fulfilled. No Englishwoman has done more.¹

Social prejudice was also mentioned as a reason why many American women of the highest classes do not engage in administrative work as they do in England. An American lady, who was in a position to know, stated that among the real aristocracy [which exists in the United States, as it must in every civilised and wealthy country] "it was not the thing" for women to come forward and do public work as they do in England. She pointed out how women in the highest social position had been and were still associated with the direction of women's colleges at Oxford and Cambridge. The few American women of the highest class who are engaged in educational work are considered to be doing something quite exceptional.

¹ See *Life of Alice Freeman Palmer*, by G. H. Palmer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1908.

This valuable opinion suggests what is probably the fundamental cause for the difference of the relation of women to public work, educational or otherwise, in the two countries. We in England have inherited a tradition from feudal and mediæval times that women should share in administration. The lady who looked after the primitive old English household, when her lord went off in the summer on a piratical expedition, or accompanied the king to war, was, like the virtuous woman of the Book of Proverbs, a very capable administrator. The abbess of a mediæval convent, the seventeenth-century Bess of Hardwick, the wife of the village squire at a later period, were from their position administrators. When new conditions arose, the daughter of a wealthy manufacturing house became naturally a helper in the management of the schools established near the mills for the workpeople's children, and so women whose families were enriched by the Industrial Revolution have carried out the principle of public work, as well as ladies of the country gentry. The women of our governing classes have always felt it their duty to help with what may be called the feminine side of public responsibility, if only to look after the old women and children in the cottages. There has, of course, been nothing of this tradition in America except in the old slaveholding South; furthermore, it is probably true that Puritanism has discouraged and diminished the share of women in public work; historically it will be found that the periods when Puritanism was strong in England were the times when her women did least outside the home, and the influence of the Oxford Movement in England, which brought back mediæval ideas of philanthropic independent work for women, has undoubtedly done much to help on the women's cause to-day.

Another side of this same difference is seen in the relation of women to politics. In America it is considered

that women have no business with politics at all; with us the women of our aristocracy at least have always of necessity been in politics, and even the most frivolous of them have known it to be their duty to help their men folk at election times. We may indeed take this question of women and administration up to the very highest constitutional position, the headship of the State. One was told more than once in America that a woman head for an educational institution would be impossible, since men could not serve under her nor obey her instructions without doing violence to their masculine sentiment of honour. The obvious reply for an Englishwoman was that men in England obeyed a woman for more than sixty years. We owe more than we often realise, we women, who have profited by the new opportunities of the nineteenth century, to the indirect but all-powerful influence of our beloved and venerated Queen.

It may be perhaps that the preceding pages have been a little unfair to the real power of American women. In education, as in other spheres of national life, it is not always those who appear to do the work and take the responsibility with whom real power rests. We may be proudly conscious of our opportunities of public work in England; our American sisters may quietly smile and be satisfied with the all-powerful position they occupy as sources of influence. They can get what they want, and they do; do not American men themselves say they live under a gynocracy? Why should American ladies seek to sit for long and weary hours on dull and quarrelsome committees, to go through the dust and turmoil, the rough and tumble of elections, to bear the burden of administrative responsibility? We in England have to go through all this because it is the only way to get the work done, and there is so much to do, in education above all.

American women seem to have more personal individual influence.¹

When they wish to act publicly they do so through women's clubs and leagues of various kinds, which have done and are doing a great deal for all sorts of social improvement, health, temperance, charities and the like. Here we may give a brief description of one of the most important of these societies in educational work, the Association of Collegiate Alumnae.

The Association of Collegiate Alumnae is unlike any society we have as yet in England. As its name implies it consists of university women; it is worked in local branches; the women in the district, such as Washington, D.C., belonging to that branch whatever their college. Its purpose is not by any means wholly social. Rather is it to do "practical educational work". It was organised in January, 1882, in Boston, the seventeen women who began the movement representing eight colleges: Oberlin, Vassar, Michigan, Cornell, Wisconsin, Boston, Smith, Wellesley. It soon enrolled over 200 members, and has now over 3,000, and 35 branches. But numbers do not measure its influence; it has always had a very high standard of entrance, that is, it would only recognise colleges that truly were such. Even now, only twenty-four institutions are recognised; to the original eight have been added Barnard, Bryn Mawr, Chicago, Leland Stanford Junior (California), the Massachusetts Institute, North-Western, Radcliffe, Syracuse, Wesleyan, and Western Reserve, and the State

¹ In some ways, as has been noticed by a recent keen observer, Miss Alice Woods, American women are more feminine than the modern type of English woman. They are always, in all but the poorest classes, beautifully dressed; they do not play games so much or tramp about the country as we do; very few care about the suffrage; and they certainly would never think of serving on town councils even if the law allowed it. Miss Woods attributes their great femininity to co-education; possibly climate and material prosperity are causes too.

Universities of California, Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska. One can easily imagine the effect of such a list, and the very careful confidential work that has been done by the committee on corporate membership, in discriminating between colleges. One of their rules is "that in co-educational institutions (1) there shall be a dean or adviser of women, above the rank of instructor, giving instruction and counted a regular member of the faculty; (2) there shall be special provision through halls of residence or in other buildings for the social life of the women students, and that no institution shall be considered for membership which does not fulfil these conditions".

The A.C.A. (as it is familiarly called) has done much general educational and philanthropic work during its twenty-five years of life; the branches specially concern themselves with what may be needed in their own district, such as enforcement of public health regulations, food supplies, care of children, provision of open spaces, etc. Almost the first subject taken up by the general body was "the study of sanitary science in its direct relation to the home". From this, as is stated in Chapter VI., the movement for home economics has arisen. A work which English university women might well take up is the establishment (begun in 1889) of fellowships for women for advanced study—European fellowships. In the Twenty-fifth Annual Report is a most interesting account of the work of the ladies who have held these.¹ A special fellowship in memory of Alice Freeman Palmer, one of the founders, is now added to the original set. The A.C.A. at present is attacking the problem of opportunities for

¹ "Your fellows have trod the path of the pioneer: the first woman admitted to the laboratory of the U.S. Fish Commission; the first woman to receive the Ph.D. degree from Yale University; the first woman admitted to Göttingen University; the first woman permitted to work in the biological laboratory at Strasburg University."

women on the faculties of co-educational universities, and of a living wage for college women.¹

The addresses and papers read at the Quarter-Centennial Meeting in Boston last November by many of the most prominent American authorities in women's education give a most valuable summary² of the condition of this to-day, and of the various principles and opinions on which leaders are acting. Some hold the conservative position that the higher education of women should be what it has been for twenty-five years: general and liberal, academic, scholarly, modelled on the traditional course for men. Others, like Mr. James P. Munroe and President Eliot, are reformers, and wish to see something new, better fitted to women as such, "which shall face the true needs of social development".

The *via media* is perhaps best expressed in the words of welcome on this occasion from the President of Wellesley College, Miss Caroline Hazard, who may stand as representing the type of American woman fitted for high administrative responsibility:—

It is learning which must be applied to life, to make the best of the life which is before us and around us, which we must seek with all our hearts. We must realise what an enormous power the power of womankind is in the world. In America perhaps it is a greater power than in any other country, and we must use the power wisely and well. This is the great aim which this Association has before it—to show women who have undergone long years of discipline how they can best bring their culture to the service of the community.

¹ In Manchester a Federation of University Women has recently been founded; if it becomes national, not local, it will correspond to the A. C. A.

² Magazine of the A.C.A., February, 1908. Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Elizabeth Lawrence Clark, Williamstown, Mass.

CONCLUSION.

The first purpose of a nation ought to be to concentrate its energies on its moral and intellectual development.—HALDANE.

WE are all aware to-day that England at present is in a mood of self-criticism. The Boer War, the increasing commercial competition of Germany and America, the rise of Japan, the problems of the Empire, and the social difficulties of the nation, have broken down our insular satisfaction, have made us consider how we can best amend our ways. America, too, is in a mood of self-criticism. For almost the first time in her history she has begun to wonder whether all will be well with her; even her brave and happy optimism is shaken by winds blowing from Pacific Islands, East Side tenement houses, and Standard Oil sheds. Some of the causes that have affected us have affected her, but there are others peculiar to herself. In the twentieth century she has finished the great work of entering into possession of new lands, which has occupied her ever since Daniel Boone crossed the Alleghanies, just after the Revolutionary War. There is no more good land free to be taken up by those who find no room in ordinary employment; thus social pressure is becoming more intense, and economic problems more pressing. The difficulties resulting from the Trusts are also generally known; through their influence the average American is beginning to feel his possibilities of becoming rich considerably lessened. Most important of all, perhaps, is the fact that since the war with Spain America has become a world power; she is no longer isolated, and she

has realised that there are other great countries as well as herself. Americans are even questioning whether their education system is as perfect as they had thought ; they are beginning to feel it inadequate to modern conditions, and to seek how it may be improved.

Probably there is a deeper cause than any of these reasons for this self-criticism, particularly for this dissatisfaction with the current education system felt both in England and America. Is it not that modern conditions are placing a very great strain on human beings? a strain greater than can be borne by the normal individual who has been sufficient for the demands of earlier days? Mechanical inventions, the improvements in transport, the shortening of distances, the bringing of all the world as it were close together, the immense developments of science, the breaking down of old sanctions, the general penetration among the masses of new philosophical ideas, all this is making life very much more difficult, is requiring a higher type of human being than was produced on the average up to the nineteenth century. We have not yet evolved the type of man and woman suited to these new conditions, which produce stresses in the social fabric never before known. We feel this, and we turn to education to do the work for us, to fit the new generation for the new conditions. To do this requires a new education; but we cannot in it be independent of the past. The adults of to-day must provide and shape the education that makes the adults of to-morrow; the children themselves are what their inheritance has made them. It is highly probable therefore that we cannot in one generation produce the new type of human being that the conditions of the twentieth century demand; all we can do is to modify our system, preserving in it all that is best from the past, and taking up from the reform movements the best they also have to give. The stresses may be too great for

certain portions of the social organism; already indeed, we see the old structure of family life giving way, we see English social classes deforming and colliding and upheaving, American traditions snapping and parting; we hear the fabric of society groaning like a great ship in a storm at sea. Education may be able to strengthen and prepare the coming generation to hold out, to adapt itself, to cast off the effete, and assimilate the new material, as a living organism does, and not to break under strain like an engine-shaft or a bridge. What we have to do in England, as we reform our education, is not only to slough off the worn-out skins that served a smaller creature, and take up from without new ideas and new methods; we must learn to know and keep the good we have, the good that we take for granted till we see what a difference its absence makes. There are precious things in our education whose value we do not fully realise till we miss them elsewhere; just as we thus learn to value the green fields of our misty English winter, and the uprightness and honour of the governance of England.

It is not easy to dogmatise positively about American education; the more one studies the less one seems to know. But even a superficial study of it helps one to understand home better, to see what is best in English education, what must at all costs be preserved.

Chief of these good things is that simple religious education which is given in all types of English public schools, in one form or another, which satisfies a deep instinct of the nation, and to which so far we have held firm, in spite of the difficulties and anomalies it has entailed in a free and heterogeneous modern community.

America, faced with our difficulties, sought, as we have seen, the easy way out, the secular solution which some parties among us advocate here. To-day many of her wisest educators would give much to go back and stand where we

are. It is impossible now. Statute law in some States forbids in State schools even the study of the Bible. In 1890 the Supreme Court of Wisconsin decided that even the reading from the Bible in the public schools, unaccompanied by any comment on the part of the teacher, is "instruction," "sectarian instruction," and consequently falls within the prohibition of the Constitution and the statutes of Wisconsin. This decision has had a far-reaching influence. The view of the Court is undoubtedly that held by the large majority of American citizens.

Even those Americans who feel most deeply the danger to the State of allowing the youth of the people to grow up without any religious education, acknowledge that now the public schools cannot be altered. "In this country the State school does not and cannot include religious training in its programme." They know and they confess, at the same time, that neither the family, the Churches nor the Sunday-school are, under modern conditions, sufficient for the work. The position seems a hopeless one. It cannot be said as yet that there is any strong public opinion on the matter, though a Religious Education Association has been founded. But the leaders and captains, whose duty is to look out for dangers, are anxious about the future. Some, like Nicholas Murray Butler, have given public expression to their anxiety; others will speak strongly enough in private conversation, but as yet have not come out against the prevalent view (a very difficult thing to do in America). Whitelaw Reid expresses this in the *Educational Review* for September, 1903, speaking of the ordinary citizen. "He may outwardly deny the decay of faith, but he inwardly feels it." The article speaks of the "loosening and drifting" of the modern youth, his opinion, "what does it matter anyway," and the absence of moral stability and solidity that this means. Others, while admitting the force of such arguments as those of the Pre-

sident of Columbia, consider that all will be well, that the Churches and the Sunday-schools will be adequate, and that in an informal quiet way there is a good deal of the religious spirit even in the public schools, through the indirect influence of spiritually minded teachers. Commissioner Elmer E. Brown represents this view in his book on the *Making of our Middle Schools* (p. 427):—

It is well that free play is allowed under our system for the satisfaction of a wide range of tastes and convictions in this matter. A governmental monopoly is not desirable in any stage of our educational system; perhaps least of all at the secondary stage. The public schools must be non-sectarian for generations to come—probably as long as religious denominations shall exist. And we make no mistake when we regard such schools as constituting one of the crowning glories of our national life, and a strong support of much that is best in our American civilisation. But private and denominational schools should be welcomed too, and recognised as having a work of their own to do.

The view of the teacher as such is expressed by the late Wilbur S. Jackman. Writing in the *Elementary School Teacher*, April, 1906, he advocates emphatically for school children lessons on the Life and Character of Christ. The demand for religious education in the schools has received impetus from philosophy, from the study of the history of mankind, and of the nature of the child, which proves that religion is natural to man, and is a necessary part of child life, especially during adolescence. Of this philosophic side Nicholas Murray Butler has become the exponent. The simplest way of religious education for English-speaking people is, as we know, the study of the Bible in school; England has felt this, and with her instinctive grasp of the essential compromise in a difficult situation has maintained it. American opinion feels deeply the loss of this study in their schools.

I contend that we are not only impoverishing life and literature by the neglect of the English Bible, but that we have already impoverished life and literature.

Knowledge of the English Bible is passing out of the life of the rising generation, and with this knowledge of the Bible there is fast disappearing any acquaintance with the religious element which has shaped our civilisation from the beginning.¹

The *Proceedings* of the Congress of Arts and Sciences at the St. Louis Exposition, 1904, also bear on this question (see vol. viii., recently published: Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1907).

No one can study this literature, and talk to leading Americans about their problem of religious education, without feeling how great is our advantage in retaining in our ordinary State schools the religious education which has always formed a chief part of our ideal. America warns us how terrible is the loss, how great the danger to the stability and moral health of the nation, if we abandon this essential element in the life and growth of humanity and of the individual.

Another great merit of our system so far has been its freedom and variety: we have sacrificed much in uniformity and simplicity of organisation, in ease and perfection of working to this end. Now we are at last making, later than any other civilised nation, a complete public education system. According to law and to our immemorial custom we are not clearing the ground of existing institutions, but are rather endeavouring to incorporate them into the system, which must be sufficiently flexible to admit of a great variety of public schools. We have preserved the denominational, non-provided public elementary school as part of the system, and somehow or other we shall probably continue to do so. We are assisting

¹ N. M. Butler, National Education Association, 1902.

with public money and helpful public control, helpful because partial, various types of public secondary schools. The Board of Education itself has set a fine example in its newer codes and regulations, and carries out these regulations in a broad and liberal spirit. All this is what we need: no other way will meet our variety of social conditions, and our instinct for freedom. But if we needed a warning, we should find one strong and impressive enough in the rigidity and uniformity of the American public school system and the consequent faults in their public schools. Such are the attempt to standardise individuals as if they were pieces of a watch or a locomotive, and the despotism of the official, so that the teacher has no freedom of initiative, and the best men tend to go out of teaching:¹ these faults are not unknown here, but our variety of schools so far has made a way of escape. Much of the present agitation in America for reform in the public

¹In short, there is a tendency in certain quarters to insist that the teachers of the country shall have nothing to say or do about the organisation of our educational system. The advocates of this policy insist that "it is the business of the teacher to teach"; such a statement is mere play upon words and ignores the fact that teaching cannot be isolated from administration, and the tendency is to deify the machinery of organisation and to forget the human element, to organise and run a complex system beautiful in its completeness, smooth in its workings, but smooth because it is impelled by a force from outside that crushes and overthrows internal, spontaneous influences which, although they may not work so smoothly, would give a more human, beautiful and lifelike movement to the system. Put in plain English, the tendency of this view is to relegate the teacher to a position of subordinate importance in the educational system; and it raises the question: Which is the most important thing in education—administration or teaching? Are the teachers of the country or a community, taken as a whole, incapable of giving good advice regarding educational policy? Should they be cut off altogether in the matter of giving advice from access to Boards of Directors, Boards of Trustees and superintendents, and the whole determination of the educational policy in a community be left to a single officer, like a superintendent or a president or a small board? Are the teachers of the country worthy of confidence? (*The Elementary School Teacher*. University of Chicago Press, April, 1906).

schools system (see Chapter VIII.) is due to its excessive uniformity, to having one type only of public elementary school. They need, and so do we, half a dozen types, for the needs of different types of the population. The tyranny of the official, the superintendent with them, is due to two causes, neither of which obtains here: the corrupt state of municipal politics, and their general custom of having an autocratic President in business and other concerns, railways, universities, joint-stock companies. It has meant, with a first-rate superintendent who is really an educator, progress and efficiency. But we can secure these advantages in other ways. What we want is to strengthen or create committees of managers for each public elementary school, bringing in the parents to help; we must not standardise all the schools over a large area. Education is not to be run like a factory: it deals with living things, not raw material. Let us take warning here from America's error.

A third merit of our system we indeed do not realise till we go out of England, and study American education carefully: the better position our women hold in administration, whether as professional heads of institutions, or as unpaid workers on boards, committees, and councils. This has been discussed in Chapter IX. It has not been noticed hitherto in any books on American education known to the writer, but it has been observed by other women visitors familiar with the position in England. There is reason to believe that the position in America is worse than it was, just as the suffrage movement there is much less powerful. Will there be retrogression here? So far there are no signs of such a change; if people do their work well, English opinion supports them, and it is generally recognised that women in England have been useful as administrators. It rests with women themselves to go on proving that they can do the work, by steady,

quiet, undemonstrative service on local councils and committees of all kinds.

So much for warnings we may receive from the present condition of education in America. What is there positive that we may learn? Much indeed, which may be considered under two heads: first, certain definite ways of action, and second, certain excellencies of spirit, which are not by any means easy to borrow.

An American authority gives, as one reason for their commercial success, their excellent business organisation, including the various labour-saving devices which their inventive genius has developed. The same gifts have been applied in education, and there are many practical devices which we might well borrow from them. The smooth-surfaced school chalk has been generally adopted in England, like the typewriter and the fountain-pen. It might be well to enumerate some other useful American devices for school work. One has been already mentioned, the employment of secretaries, one at least to every principal of a high school, to save the time and energy of the more costly worker. Other office devices might be imitated too, especially the use of card catalogues, a card for each pupil, where we use report books and registers, a much more awkward and clumsy and extravagant method, both in time and space. Some of the new American school buildings, notably the Boston Girls' Latin School, have a telephone system to every classroom from the headmaster's room, so that a message can be sent at once; this would be a great convenience, though perhaps in England hardly worth its cost. The installation of a system of bells rung all over a building simultaneously by a central clock is becoming usual in England; but there are still schools that would save time and friction by this device.

In school furniture we have much to learn from America; blackboards round the classroom for the use of the pupils

are being fixed in some of our newer schools, but we still have nothing like enough blackboard space, nor do our teachers, especially in secondary schools, use the board and make their pupils use it as they should. In supplementary rooms or lecture theatres, where little writing is done except note-taking, the provision of desks is unnecessary, if the American system is followed. There one finds comfortable chairs with arms, and a movable flap to hold the note-book fixed to the right arm; this is far more convenient and comfortable than the fixed seats and narrow desk in front found in an ordinary college lecture theatre, and is, we imagine, much cheaper. Rooms for the teaching of history, literature and geography have fixed map cases high up on the wall above the teacher's desk; the teacher pulls a string, and down comes the map required for reference, like a spring blind. When done with, the string is again pulled and the map goes back to its place. In the best schools the fittings of the dressing-rooms and their adjuncts are much better than with us; marble and enamelled slate are used for partitions, apparatus is nickel-plated, and excellent shower-baths are often found adjoining gymnasia. The health building of the Horace Mann School and the new Southern Manual Training High School for Boys in Philadelphia are most beautifully fitted on the sanitary side. The use of common cups at school drinking fountains is disapproved; in the new schools there are real ever-flowing fountains on each corridor. The water bubbles up like a natural spring, and the child stoops and drinks from it.

They have taken more trouble altogether over health questions in education than we have, till the last year or two. Now we are doing as much for the masses as they—probably more, indeed, since our Board of Education regulations secure a uniform standard of sanitation and medical inspection everywhere, and our Local Government

Board acts in the same direction. But in the colleges for women they do much more than we yet have accomplished. We ought to copy and adapt their gymnasium system, especially in our new universities. Each of these ought to have as in America a properly equipped women's gymnasium under the charge of a woman expert, who should examine and advise the women students on personal hygiene, and prescribe exercises for them. This system is required in America by the Association of Collegiate Alumnae as a condition for recognition by it of the women graduates of a college or university. What would they think of some of our urban universities where the only provision consists of certain gymnasium classes conducted by a drill-sergeant, and where the only woman who can notice a girl's health is the tutor (or dean) who has all the other responsibilities of supervision? The system of the University of Wisconsin might be a model for our co-educational universities; the system at Vassar, where lectures given by a medical woman on the hygiene of a woman's life are compulsory, might well be imitated by our separate women's colleges.

The result of all this care is that the health of American women students undoubtedly improves at college. We have done nothing, perhaps because our girls are thought strong enough to go along on their own responsibility.

School libraries are not more beautiful than ours, often not as beautiful as some in our better schools. But the Americans understand how to make a library useful far better than we do; they train their librarians carefully; a good college library will have five trained women on the library staff, a good school will, if possible, have one woman who does nothing else. The superiority in ways of using a library extends, we believe, everywhere; the American idea is that the books shall be *used*, and that every facility shall be given to induce readers to avail

themselves of the opportunities, even if books are occasionally lost or injured.

The superiority of their school text-books is due to financial causes; the average English parent could not, and would not, pay for the elaborate, illustrated, and costly text-books American schools use; there these are often furnished free to pupils, but when this is not the rule, the parent, if there is no fee to pay, grudges less the expense of books. Thoughtful Americans seem to consider that the child ought to have his or her own text-books, however, as a nucleus of a useful working library. Indeed the system when text-books belong to the school leads to all sorts of difficulties, and is certainly not worthy of our imitation.

The American inventive genius, which has given us useful school furniture and office machinery, has evolved a system of substitutes for examination—the accrediting system—which we might do well to follow in England. Just as our peculiar examination system, not known in any other country, tends to destroy much that is best in our education, so the one piece of school external organisation which we could with advantage borrow from America is their Western method of escape from the examination incubus. As we have endeavoured to show in Chapter III., it would work better with us than it does with them, and it would harmonise with our instinctive English feeling that the secondary school should look to the university. It can co-exist also with a very considerable variety of types of schools, public and private, denominational, unsectarian and secular, classical and modern, endowed and municipal, since the university influence and inspection concerns only the educational part of the work. Our examination system was invented in part to allow freedom and variety in school organisation, as contrasted with State organisation and control. The accrediting method does

not injure these necessary features of any satisfactory system in England.

The one marked superiority of the American secondary school internal organisation over the English is the stratification of subjects in the curriculum. Four or five only are studied in one year, a lesson every day. If we could do this we should spare our pupils overpressure and waste of time and effort, and we should be able to teach on better methods, as we earnestly desire. Many English secondary teachers are obliged to use methods they know are only second best because they have examination work to do, and have, say, only two lessons a week for it, because so many subjects must be learnt at once. If we could have five lessons a week for a subject, we could make our pupils work more for themselves, and use in class the oral method, which, as we have seen, incorporates the best elements of the American recitation method. We should pursue, in fact, intensive culture for shorter periods of time. With the accrediting system, particularly for English, history and science, this simplification would be possible; the school would certify, *e.g.*, that the pupil had taken two years' history or chemistry, and that would be enough. In another year the pupil would drop these subjects. Even if examinations could be divided into two blocks, something could be done to simplify the curriculum. Then, as in America, a boy could take algebra, one language and history at the end of the penultimate high school year, and geometry, the other language, English, and science at the end of the last year. We ought also to allow a pupil who has failed in one subject only to take that up by itself at a later examination, and not require a whole year to be wasted, when a pupil is ripe to go to college, or wants to specialise in higher work during a last year at school. There are known cases in our English Matriculation examinations where a steady, hard-working, well-prepared

pupil from a good school has gone up time after time and failed at a different subject each time. Such a pupil may be quite ready for college, but is injured and discouraged by the artificial barriers placed in the way. They do these things better in America.

It is in these two ways, one believes, that English secondary education could profit by following American customs.

It is indeed easy to suggest devices whether of furniture or organisation that we might adopt in England; it is much more difficult to indicate characteristic excellencies of spirit in which we might learn from America. We need to liberalise and enfranchise our elementary education as they have done during the last generation. They have learnt to deformalise what is too often regarded as formal study, and to make it living, so that the children can assimilate the lesson material to themselves, and not merely learn it up mechanically. Those who have seen the teaching of English literature in the public elementary school of America will understand what is meant. There children read the English classics freely and happily, enjoy them, think about them with intelligence and sympathy, and then write about them with taste. There are, of course, elementary schools in England where this is done, but the whole spirit of our system has been against it; even yet much of the teaching of English in our schools for the people is formal, dull, and lifeless.¹ The teaching of geography and United States history in an American elementary school is often, too, full of life and vigour; these subjects have long been included in the curriculum and have not been considered unnecessary luxuries for the masses of the nation. In what they call the grammar grades, especially

¹ Some of the American teachers visiting England in the autumn of 1908 notice this; rarely do they seem impressed by the excellencies of our public elementary education.

from twelve to fifteen years of age, our schools, in the more enlightened areas, are better, but in what Americans call the primary grades, from five to nine, we have a very great deal to learn from them. The principles of Pestalozzi and Froebel have penetrated this work very deeply; even the teaching of writing to young children has been made full of interest and life. We need more freedom of spirit in our public elementary schools; the Board of Education now gives freedom so far as the Code is concerned; but the old mechanical methods are still often required locally, and teachers and, above all, local inspectors still bear the marks of their former fetters.

We are approximating to America in raising the educational standard of our primary teachers. The recent regulations of the Board of Education, requiring, as they do, a good secondary education to eighteen years of age, are attracting educated girls into the profession, and the status and remuneration for the teachers have improved, though much still remains to be done to attract and retain the best type of men teachers—a matter, however, worse there than here. What is to be desired is that our public elementary schools should become more fully what they are becoming already in some places, the schools for all; what America proudly calls the common school. A great deal of our difficulty has been due to the public elementary school being essentially a class institution, paid for by one set of people to do good to the children of another set of people. If we could improve our elementary education, as for instance is being done in the West Riding of Yorkshire, in the way the most enlightened American cities have done, our schools, too, would be used by the middle classes as they are in Washington, in the West, and in the suburban areas and smaller towns of New England. This effect is beginning in England, especially Industrial England; parents see that they cannot afford to pay for a private

school which will give as good an education as the free public elementary school they pay for through the rates and taxes. The freedom and liberalisation of our elementary school class-work and discipline would be a way to this common use of the school by all classes, and a result of it. It has been achieved here and there already; we can learn from places like Brookline, in Massachusetts, from Indiana and from California, and from Teachers' College at Columbia University how to achieve much more.

The liberalisation of our technical education is also a matter where we might profit by American example. We specialise too much; we do not value, because we do not realise, the effect of a liberal education in helping people to do their ordinary work in the world. The class distinction, the social prejudice which has been the curse of English education, and which has prevented Americans from seeing the merits that after all it does possess,¹ has affected us here. What is the good (we say) of teaching literature and history to a boy who is to be a working engineer? What is the good of a girl clerk learning mathematics or science? What do working-people want with education except in the craft they get their living by? This has been the normal English opinion for all except the upper classes. The gentleman was to have a liberal education in the humanities, Latin and Greek; technical training in the narrow sense was all that was needed for the rest of the community. This view has affected, and still affects, our technical education, good as that is. We do not demand firmly enough—we should hardly get it at present if we did—a good general education as a condition before technical training begins. How many of our technical schools

¹ "We have only to look at England to see how, with her high ideals, great opportunities, and large expenditures for education, the people find themselves hampered at every turn in striving to effect reforms, by social and economic conditions" (N. M. Butler, *Educational Review*, October, 1899, p. 290).

could hold up the entrance standard of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and get anything like the same number of youths to pass it? How far beyond English present conditions is the amount of general liberal education given to intending clerks in an American Commercial High School? How absurd as yet, to many cultivated people here, is the idea of a university degree in domestic arts, including as it does in America science, literature, and history? The American trade school teaches work-girls civics; the young American engineer at college is made to take some humanistic subjects; the teacher of needlework is required to study art, design, the history of costume and of textiles. We give all the time to the requirement of specialised skill, and we get a higher degree of that special capacity. This is in accordance with our instinct for selection and cultivation of special powers. But we could surely learn from America as she from us; she needs more specialist instruction, we need in our technical education a higher standard of that general liberal culture which makes the human being more intelligent and more adaptable.

In university education there is also a difference of spirit, of intention, of the deep instinctive purpose which makes nations act, that is much to the advantage of America. In Chapter III. an attempt is made to explain this difference. Under modern conditions we need to learn from America how to strengthen and elevate our universities; and to bring them into closer, deeper relation with every side of our national life, so that they can furnish for us the illumination, the intelligence, the virtue she gains from hers. Mr. Haldane in his recent address on the Dedicated Life,¹ and Lord Morley in his Inaugural Speech as Chancellor of the University of Manchester,² have given us the principles of action. We can see these carried out into effect in

¹ Army Reform and other Addresses, Macmillan, 1908.

² 9th July, 1908.

America. Men like President Eliot have made their influence felt over the whole field of education, elementary and secondary, as well as higher. Harvard is national not sectional, is for the poor man as well as for the rich. Both old and new universities there have sought to meet the needs of their community, while maintaining standards of scholarship and adding by research to the sum of knowledge. They have their reward in the support and affection of the people. We must have this too.

It is coming, especially in our new urban universities, that thrill responsive to the life around them. To stand in the magnificent hall of the University of Birmingham, at Bournbrook, which equals if it does not surpass in splendour of architecture and nobility of execution even American university buildings, is to realise that here are the courage and the faith we need in the mission of learning to twentieth-century England; if she can only be worthy of her beautiful home, the University of Birmingham ought to achieve as much as Chicago, Cornell, or Johns Hopkins in Baltimore. We must go on in this road: the birth and infant vigour of the University of Sheffield, the movement for providing Bristol and the West with another university, the growing pride of Newcastle in its Science College, the hold of the University of Wales on the Principality, the practical work already accomplished in Leeds, the extraordinary success, the local support that Liverpool has secured in so short a period, the mature scholarship and extended growth of the University of Manchester, the complex development and advancing achievement of the University of London—all these show that we are on the right way. They have the intellectual standards; they are doing at least as much in research as the older universities. They need the means of a fuller social life for their students, and since they have not "the glorious inherited associations of the two ancient seats of learning," they must have the

strength that comes from the support of the people, from the confidence that they, too, have their place in and their duty for England. They can help the workers, can, as Lord Morley said in Manchester, "extend to that great host, so ingenious and so industrious, and who make so many sacrifices in their hard lives—we should extend to them such measure as we can, some knowledge of the kind that makes life rich for us". If our universities do their best they may hope to obtain, like American colleges and universities, trust, affection, and practical help from every section of the community.

We return at the close to what meets us at the beginning of any study of American schools—the intensity and force of their belief in education. This is their great superiority; if only we could learn to do likewise, all our educational problems would be solved, all our difficulties would melt before such a heat of national conviction. But this conviction we do not possess. We have very fine educational machinery, better in some ways than that of America; but we have neither the steam nor the current to drive it: we have to turn the cranks by hand, we educators, to generate the force, such as it is, ourselves. What can be done to make English people believe in education as America does, as Switzerland does, as Scotland has done for centuries? Will it take a Jena, a Sedan? and if such national disaster came to us also, should we, like Germany or like France, reconstruct the schools and the colleges and look to them for salvation? That is not our fashion of doing things.

There is some hope: our wealthier middle classes are affected by the industrial and commercial competition of the educated nations, Germany and America; and they are realising the need of a better education for the new generation under the new conditions, when life is more difficult, the outlook wider, and trained intelligence more essential than forty or fifty years ago. Our poorer middle

class are seizing eagerly the new opportunities for education open since 1902; they already believe in what they know is the one hope for their children. Our workingmen and women are beginning to believe in education, though they do not always understand what is the best kind. That the superior artisan—one of the finest types we have, the man of whom our ablest Labour leaders are made—that he should care for, and believe in, education as he does to-day is one of the most hopeful features of the whole position. The education policy of the Labour Party may be wrong for the moment—their demand for a purely secular system, though intelligible, is hugely wrong—but that they should have a policy, should seek after and struggle for education as if they were Americans, is a great fact. The English institutions for higher education, universities, colleges, secondary schools must make themselves understood by the masses of the people. Too long have we allowed class prejudice, on both sides, to obscure the real unity of our system. Let us learn from America: not methods and devices, tricks of organisation, details of machinery, standards of scholarship, principles of teaching—we have perhaps something to show her here; but let us learn the spirit of true democracy, the spirit that seeks to make of divers folk one nation, by offering to all the treasures of knowledge, by giving to each, man and woman, high and low, rich and poor, that best and most enduring possession, the spiritual inheritance of the race, which can be assured to them only by education.

APPENDIX.

I. FOR CHAPTER I.

McKINLEY HIGH SCHOOL,
ST. LOUIS, MO., *7th September, 1907.*

DEAR SIR,

Preliminary to the making of a programme for the Secondary Department of the National Education Association for the Cleveland Meeting, it is the desire of the Committee to secure in brief the best thought of the best men on the most important subjects deserving our attention. We, therefore, respectfully ask that you give the following questions your careful attention, and that you answer those which interest you with as much fulness as your time will permit. A full reply is especially desired to those questions on which you have decided opinions or positive convictions.

The Secondary School, on account of its position in our educational system, its intimate relation and contact with the elementary school on one side, and the college on the other, and on account of the demands put upon it as a fitting school for life, has become an arena of diverse opinions and ideas. These ideas embody social, pedagogical and economic conditions which make the high school curriculum the main centre for departure and differentiation. For these reasons the function of the Secondary Department of N. E. A. has grown to such importance that its councils should be representative

of the best thought of our time. No apology, therefore, is needed in asking for your co-operation, and we hope to receive your answers at your very earliest convenience.

QUESTIONS.

1. Assuming that field athletics are wholesome and necessary, (a) Should they be confined to the home field? or does the experience of the past justify the further encouragement of inter-school contests? (b) Considering the small number of boys engaged in inter-scholastic contests, the unpleasant feeling often engendered between schools, the semi-professional methods employed, the associations with the idle, sporting classes, the notoriety given to relatively unworthy students, has the time arrived when a correction of these evils should be sought in a more rational management of athletics on the home field? If so, have you a plan of organisation and management?

2. Have you ever felt that our high school pupils are missing those experiences which belong to early youth, and that the aping of college ways through fraternities and sororities, athletic teams, "proms" and balls are arresting their normal development? If so, what is the remedy?

3. (a) Are our graduation exercises too elaborate and expensive? And do they work a hardship on all but the wealthy? (b) Is the ambition of a child to appear at graduation on the stage of the largest and most expensive opera house in town a wholesome one? (c) Outside of it being "an event in their lives," is it fundamentally good education?

4. (a) Do you believe that the method of class recitation generally in vogue in our high schools neglects the individual needs of pupils and is in any way responsible for the many failures to pass in their studies? (b) Are pupils usually assisted WHEN and ONLY when they NEED it? (c) If not, what is the remedy?

5. (a) In the outward extension of the course of study in response to demands for so-called vocational studies, has the time come to modify the honoured doctrine that culture can come only through certain formal studies? (b) And may a training which leads to economic efficiency in those who elect it take the place of a certain amount of foreign language, mathematics and literature? If so, would such an admission solve the problem of overcrowded courses?

6. (a) Would the downward extension of the high school course so as to include what are now the 7th and 8th grades add to the efficiency of our schools? (b) If so, in what way?

7. (a) Assuming that singing in some form is a good thing in the high school, in what way should it be handled? (b) Which is better, compulsory routine chorus singing, or an elective course of systematic instruction in singing for which pupils electing it might receive credit?

8. Should the curricula of our high schools be cosmopolitan, comprising all branches, academic, commercial and mechanical, which have proved their right to a place in the secondary school? Or should there be separate schools for special work?—in other words, should the differentiation be between departments or between schools?

9. Should the courses of study and the manual training in the high school be so modified and differentiated as to meet the growing demand for "industrial" education? or should this movement be toward the building of separate schools?

10. In classifying our schools how far should we aim at sex segregation in the class room?

11. Will you please suggest any other questions which you consider important and timely?

Thanking you in advance for your answer, I remain,

Yours sincerely,

GILBERT B. MORRISON.

2. FOR CHAPTER I.

COURSE OF STUDY—PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

SPRING GARDEN AND SEVENTEENTH STREETS.

	GENERAL COURSE.	COLLEGE PREPARATORY COURSES.	
First Year.	5 English. 5 Algebra. 5 History. 4 German or French. 2 Physical Geography. 1 Music. 2 Physical Training. 1 Drawing.	5 English. 5 Algebra. 5 Botany. 5 Latin. 2 Drawing. 1 Music. 2 Physical Training.	
Second Year.	4 English. 5 Mathematics. 4 History. 4 German or French (continued). 4 Botany. 2 Drawing. 1 Music. 1 Physical Training.	CLASSICAL. 4 English. 5 Plane Geometry. 5 French } Students elect 5 German } two foreign 5 Greek } languages. 6 Latin. Physical Training (optional).	LATIN SCIENTIFIC. 4 English. 5 Plane Geometry. 4 History. 4 German or French. 6 Latin. 1 Drawing. 1 Physical Training.
Third Year.	5 English. 4 History. 4 German or French (continued). 1 ⁵ Latin, French or German. 4 Zoology. 1 Drawing. 1 Music. 1 Physical Training.	4 English. 6 Latin. 4 French } Electives of 4 German } the second 4 Greek } year continued 5 Mathematical Review. 2 Physical Geography. Physical Training (optional).	4 English. 6 Latin. 5 German or French. 4 History. 4 Zoology. 1 Drawing. Physical Training (optional).
Fourth Year.	4 English. 4 Mathematics. 4 Latin, French or German (continued). 4 Chemistry. 4 Physics. 2 Physiology. 1 Drawing. 1 Music. 1 Physical Training.	5 English. 5 German } Electives 5 French } continued. 5 Greek } 5 History of Greece and Rome. 5 Latin. Physical Training (optional).	4 English. 4 German or French. 5 Mathematical Review. 3 History. 5 Latin. 4 Physics. Physical Training (optional).

¹ Pupils having had two years of German or French take up a second foreign language, completing three years of one language and two years of a second language before graduation.

[Continued on next page.]

Each candidate for admission will elect one of the above courses of study.

Graduates from either of these courses may enter the Philadelphia Normal School.

By proper elections in the College Preparatory Courses, students may be prepared for any American college which admits women.

The Principal may be found in his office during school hours, and will be pleased to advise with candidates or with their parents regarding courses of study.

April, 1907.

WM. W. BIRDSALL, Principal.

3. FOR CHAPTER II.

TIME TABLES OF THE HORACE MANN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, NEAR YORK.

GRADE VII.—AGE 13.

Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
9-9.15—Chapel Exercises.				
History, 9.15.	History, 9.15.	History, 9.15.	History, 9.15.	Grammar, 9.15.
Geography, 9.45.	Geography, 9.45.	Manual Training, 9.45-11.	Geography, 9.45.	Geography, 9.45.
Composition, 10.20.	Spelling and Literature, 10.20.		Spelling and Grammar, 10.20.	Art, 10.20.
11-11.15—Recess.				
Chorus, 11.15.	Arithmetic, 11.15.	Arithmetic, 11.15.	Arithmetic, 11.15.	Arithmetic, 11.15.
Grammar and Spelling, 11.45.	French and German, 12.	French and German, 12.	French and German, 12.	French and German, 12.
Free, 12.30.	Gymnasium, 12.30.	Gymnasium, 12.30.	Gymnasium, 12.30.	Literature, 12.30.

GRADE IV.—AGE 10.

Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
9-9.15—Chapel Exercises.				
Arithmetic, 9.15.	Arithmetic, 9.15.	Arithmetic, 9.15.	Arithmetic, 9.15.	Arithmetic, 9.15.
Penmanship, 9.45.	Penmanship, 9.45.	Penmanship, 9.45.	Penmanship, 9.45.	Penmanship, 9.45.
Manual Train- ing, 10-10.40.	Gymnasium, 10.	Gymnasium, 10.	Gymnasium, 10.	Gymnasium, 10.
	Language and Spelling, 10.20.	Language and Spelling, 10.20.	Language and Spelling, 10.20.	Language and Spelling, 10.20.
10.40-10.55—Recess.				
Geography, History or Nature, 10.55.	Geography, History or Nature, 10.55.	Geography, History or Nature, 10.55.	Geography, History or Nature, 10.55.	Geography, History or Nature, 10.55.
Free, 11.25.	Free, 11.25.	Free, 11.25.	Free, 11.25.	Music, 11.25.
Spelling, 11.55.	Reading and Literature, 11.55.	Reading and Literature, 11.55.	Reading and Literature, 11.55.	Free, 11.45.
Music, 12.15.	Art, 12.25.	Chorus, 12.10.	Manual Train- ing, 12.15.	Reading and Literature, 12.15.
Reading and Literature, 12.35.		Art, 12.35.		

GRADE II.—AGE 7.

Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
9-9.15—Chapel Exercises.				
Nature Study, 9.15.	Nature Study, 9.15.	Nature Study, 9.15.	Nature Study, 9.15.	Reading "B," 9.15.
Reading "B," 9.35.	Reading "B," 9.35.	Reading "B," 9.35.	Chorus, 9.35.	Penmanship, 9.40.
Arithmetic, 9.55.	Arithmetic, 10.5.	Arithmetic, 10.5.	Arithmetic, 9.50.	Arithmetic, 9.55.
Language, 10.20.	Music, 10.25.	Language, 10.25.	Reading "B," 10.15.	Language, 10.20.
10.40-10.55—Recess.				
Reading "A," 11.	Gymnasium, 11.	Gymnasium, 11.	Gymnasium, 11.	Gymnasium, 11.
Gymnasium, 11.25.	Reading "A," 11.20.	Reading "A," 11.20.	Reading "A," 11.20.	Reading "A," 11.20.
Art, 11.45.	Languages, 11.50.	Penmanship, 11.50.	Spelling, 11.50.	Spelling, 11.50.
Spelling, 12.20.	Spelling, 12.10.	Manual Training, 12.20.	Penmanship, 12.	Phonics, 12.
Free, 12.30.	Manual Training, 12.20.	Music, 12.35.	Art, 12.20.	Manual Training, 12.10.
	Free, 12.45.			Free, 12.45.

4. FOR CHAPTER III.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND
SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

REPORT OF INSPECTION of the.....High School.

Date of Inspection.....

Inspector.....

Name of Teachers.	Preparation.	Subjects Taught.	Number Recitations Daily.	Efficiency.
Superintendent.				
Principal of High School.				

General character of work done in

English and Literature	
Classical Literature	
Modern Languages	
Mathematics	
History and Civics	
Biological Sciences	
Experimental Sciences	

General character and care of library :

Reference	
Literature	
History and Civics	
Biography	
Science	
Miscellaneous	
Documentary Reports	

General character and care of laboratories, apparatus, etc. :

Physics	
Chemistry	
Botany	
Zoology	
Physical Geography	
.....	

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High School Building—Separate?.....Structure.....

LightingHeatingVentilation

CapacityCare

General organisation :

Course of study

Management

Discipline

Intellectual and moral tone

School sentiment in community :

College or University sentiment in school and community :

Needs of the school :

Recommendations :

To the school

To the University

5. FOR CHAPTER III.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND
SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

ANNUAL REPORT of the.....High School
for the school year beginning..... 190.....

GENERAL STATISTICS :

1. Population of city.....
 2. Number of children of school age.....
 3. Total enrolment in public school this year to date.....
 4. Total enrolment in high school this year to date.....
 5. Number of teachers in the high school.....
 6. Number of teachers below the high school.....
 7. Number of weeks in school year.....
 8. Number of daily recitations for each teacher in the high school
-
9. Average length of recitation period..... minutes.
 10. Number of units of work required for graduation. (For the definition of a *unit* see the *Proceedings* of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for 1902, Report of the Commission on Accredited Schools).....
 11. How many graduates of your high school are *now* attending higher institutions of learning ?.....
 12. What higher institutions are most of them attending ?.....
 13. How many of your high school teachers have had special training, either in normal school or in college, undergraduate or graduate, in the subjects they are now teaching in the high school ? (For example, have your teachers of English or mathematics made special preparation in that subject ?).....
 14. How many have had pedagogical training either in college or normal school equivalent to one hour daily throughout one year ?.....
 15. How many who are not college graduates have a scholastic preparation which, in your judgment, is equivalent to that required for graduation from a college of good standing ?.....
 16. In the selection of new teachers is it the policy of your school board to employ none but college graduates ?.....

LIBRARY FACILITIES: Is there a city library easily accessible to your high school pupils?..... How many volumes does it contain?

..... Number of volumes in the high school library—
 Reference books (dictionaries, encyclopædias, etc.).....Literature.....
 History and Civics.....Biography.....
 Science..... Mathematics.....
 Documentary Reports..... Miscellaneous.....
 Total.....

LABORATORY FACILITIES. Estimated value of laboratory apparatus and supplies:

	\$.....	Remarks.....
Physics . . .	\$.....
Chemistry . . .	\$.....	”
Botany . . .	\$.....	”
Zoology . . .	\$.....	”
Physical Geography \$.....	\$.....	”
.....
.....

TEXT BOOKS.

Latin Grammar.....	General History.....
Latin Reader (1st yr.).....	Grecian History.....
Cæsar	Roman History
Cicero	English History.....
Virgil	U.S. History
Latin Prose Comp.....	Civil Government
Greek Grammar.....	Physical Geography
Greek Reader.....	Physics.....
Anabasis	Chemistry.....
Algebra.....	Botany
Geometry	Zoology
English Composition	Physiology
English Literature.....	German Grammar.....
American Literature	German Reader (1st yr.).....
Rhetoric.....
English Grammar
Mediæval and Modern History

.....*Superintendent.*

.....*Principal.*

Date.....

6. FOR CHAPTER V.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD.

[*Two papers are taken in general.*]

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION IN HISTORY.

ELEMENTARY.

Note.—Time: Two hours. Candidates will answer the first two questions and four others. The principal dates are to be given in all cases.

Ancient History.

1. Explain the following terms: Decarchy, Exarch, Tribune, Papyrus, Peloponnesian League.

2. Mark on the outline map the position of the following places, and associate each with an historical event: Amphipolis, Melos, Milan, Jerusalem. Draw the boundary of the Roman Empire as it was in the time of the Gracchi.

3. Give an account of the Persians from the earliest times to the battle of Marathon. Why did they make war upon the Greeks?

4. Describe the government of Athens under Pericles with reference chiefly to (a) council and assembly, (b) law courts, (c) magistrates, (d) general character.

5. Give an account of the principate of the Antonines. What was the condition of the Empire in their time?

6. Give an account of the invasion and settlement of the Lombards. What were the effects of their occupation of Italy?

7. What did the Romans learn from the Greeks? What contributions did the Romans make to the progress of the world?

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION IN HISTORY.

ELEMENTARY.—SEPTEMBER, 1907.

Note.—Time: Two hours. Candidates will answer the first two questions and four others. The principal dates are to be given in all cases.

Mediæval and Modern History.

1. Why are the following men famous in history : Petrarch, Gregory VII., Voltaire, Savonarola, Metternich ?
2. Mark on the outline map the position of the following places, and associate each with an historical event : Trent, Alsace-Lorraine, Avignon, Prague, Worms, Silesia.
3. Explain the following terms: Holy Alliance, interdict, Koran, feudal aids, Concordat.
4. What were the leading principles of the Catholic Church which Martin Luther attacked ?
5. What were the substantial results of the French Revolution ?
6. Explain why Latin was the language of scholars throughout the Middle Ages.
7. Give the chief steps in the formation of German unity.

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION IN HISTORY.

ELEMENTARY.—SEPTEMBER, 1907.

Note.—Time : Two hours. Candidates will answer the first two questions and four others. The principal dates are to be given in all cases.

English History.

1. Explain the following terms : Domesday Book, Dis-establishment, Star Chamber, Danegeld, New Model.
2. Mark on the outline map the position of the following places, and associate each with an historical event : Lewes, The Pale, Canterbury, Runnymede, Marston Moor.
3. Why are the following men famous in English history : Duke of Marlborough, Anselm, Lord John Russell, Earl of Chatham, Thomas Cromwell, Wellington ?
4. Under what circumstances did Wales and Scotland respectively become united with England ?

5. Outline the growth of England's maritime and colonial power from 1700 to 1763.

6. Name some political reforms in England during the nineteenth century which resulted from the discontent of working-men.

7. In what respects did the Revolution of 1688 differ from the Puritan Revolution?

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION IN HISTORY.

ELEMENTARY.—SEPTEMBER, 1907.

Note.—Time: Two hours. Candidates will answer the first two questions and four others. The principal dates are to be given in all cases.

American History.

1. Explain the following terms: Alien and Sedition Laws, Civil Service Reform, Wilmot Proviso, Ku-Klux Klan, Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions.

2. Mark on the outline map the position of the following, and associate each with an historical event: Fort Duquesne, Shenandoah Valley, Florida Purchase, Jamestown, Mason and Dixon's Line.

3. Describe the colonisation of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland.

4. What was the importance of Henry Clay's services to the Union?

5. In what ways did the form of our national government in 1790 differ from that in 1782?

6. State the causes of the Civil War, and name the seceding States.

7. Under what circumstances have additions to territory been made by the United States since 1860?

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.
ENTRANCE EXAMINATION.

SEPTEMBER, 1906.

UNITED STATES HISTORY.

Note.—Time: One hour and a half. Answer any SIX questions, and answer them FULLY.

1. Give the principal facts connected with the settlement and colonial history of Rhode Island.

2. State the advantages of the Navigation Acts for England and their disadvantages for the colonies.

3. What were the causes of the War of 1812? Were they sufficient to justify war? What did the United States gain from the war?

4. How did climatic, agricultural and industrial conditions affect the slavery question, both in the colonial period and subsequently until 1860?

5. Trace carefully the steps leading up to the annexation of Texas, and consider the questions arising from the annexation.

6. Give an account of the exceptional features of the presidential elections of 1800 and 1860.

7. Explain the method of nominating and electing members of the United States House of Representatives; give the qualifications of voters and of candidates, and state how these are determined.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

Note.—Time: One hour and a half. Answer any FIVE questions, and answer them FULLY.

1. Tell what you can of (a) the Athenian Assembly in the time of Pericles, and (b) the Comitia Tributa of Rome.

2. Relate very briefly *two* of the following myths, telling further anything that you can regarding the probable origin and the

historical value of the story: (*a*) myth of the Trojan ancestry of the Romans; (*b*) myth of the Sabine women; (*c*) myth of Servius Tullius.

3. Outline the origin, development and downfall of the maritime Empire of Athens.

4. Enumerate and briefly explain the principal measures (*a*) of Tiberius Gracchus and (*b*) of Gaius Gracchus.

5. Tell all that you can of the reign and policy of Hadrian.

6. Locate eight of the following and mention some historical fact regarding each: Mian; Antioch; Nicæa; Lesbos; Aegina; Philippi; Veii; Thessaly; Numidia; Cilicia.

ELEMENTARY.

ENGLISH.

Note.—Time: Two hours. Write carefully: the quality of your English is even more important than your knowledge of the books. Plan your answers before you write them, and look them over carefully after you have written them. Omit *either 3 or 4*.

1. (Forty minutes.) Tell in the first person, as simply and as vividly as you can, the story of *The Ancient Mariner*.

2. (One hour.) Explain as fully as you can the differences between the life of knights and ladies at the time of King Arthur or of Ivanhoe, and the life of people in London in the eighteenth century—the time of Sir Roger de Coverley, of Goldsmith, and of Dr. Johnson.

3. (Twenty minutes.) What does Macaulay mean when he says that Johnson “came up to London precisely at the time when the condition of a man of letters was most miserable and degraded”?

4. (Twenty minutes.) Write a letter, addressed to a person with whom you are not acquainted, applying for a position and setting forth your qualifications for it.

HISTORY.

GREECE AND ROME.

Note.—Time: Two hours. Note-books with a teacher's certificate must be handed in at the time of the examination. Give dates as far as possible. The University provides outline maps.

1. Indicate on the outline map the places important in Greek history during the fourth century B.C., and recount the principal events connected with any *two* of them.

2. Trace with the aid of the outline map the history of the Roman conquest of Gaul.

GREECE. (*Answer two questions.*)

3. Discuss the influence of the Orient upon the development of Greek civilisation.

4. Compare the Athenian and the Roman jury courts.

5. Give an account of the art of war among the Greeks.

6. Write a description of comedy at Athens.

ROME. (*Answer two questions.*)

7. Describe the part taken by the equestrian order in Roman finance and Roman politics.

8. Give an account of the Greeks and the Romans in the lands east of the Euphrates.

9. In what ways are the writings of Cicero useful to the student of Roman history?

10. Write a short essay on Greek philosophy at Rome.

HISTORY.

AMERICAN AND ENGLISH.

Note.—Time: Two hours. Note-books with a teacher's certificate must be handed in at the time of the examination. Give dates as far as possible. The University provides outline maps.

1. Indicate on the outline map: (1) the route of De Soto; (2) annexations of territory to the United States during the

period 1800-1860; (3) the routes of the Pacific railroads; (4) the position of *three* places at which battles were fought during the Hundred Years' War; (5) the position of *two* places at which treaties or peaces were made during this war; (6) the position of *two* battlefields in Ireland.

2. Write briefly on the following topics: Antinomian Controversy; North-West Ordinance; Thirteenth Amendment; Enclosures; Trimmer; Triennial Act.

AMERICA. (*Answer two questions.*)

3. Describe the private and business life of the colonists in the seventeenth century.

4. Discuss the Compromise of 1850.

5. What have been the results of immigration into the United States since 1800?

ENGLAND. (*Answer two questions.*)

6. What were the salient features of the constitution of Anglo-Saxon England?

7. Give an account of the political career and the writings of Clarendon.

8. Describe the achievements of England and France in India in the eighteenth century.

7. SOME STATISTICS.

These are chiefly taken from Boston, a city about the size of Manchester, and long known as an intellectual centre. Its population is 607,000. Its school tax is 3.06 cents on the dollar, *i.e.*, on the property valuation of the citizens. Probably one-third of the city revenue is spent on education, apart from capital expenditure for buildings. The number of day school pupils is over 100,000, the High Schools containing nearly 7,500, of whom some 1,800 graduate.

FROM THE OFFICIAL SUPERINTENDENT'S REPORT FOR 1906.
SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The public school system of Boston comprises one Normal School, two Latin Schools (one for boys and one for girls),

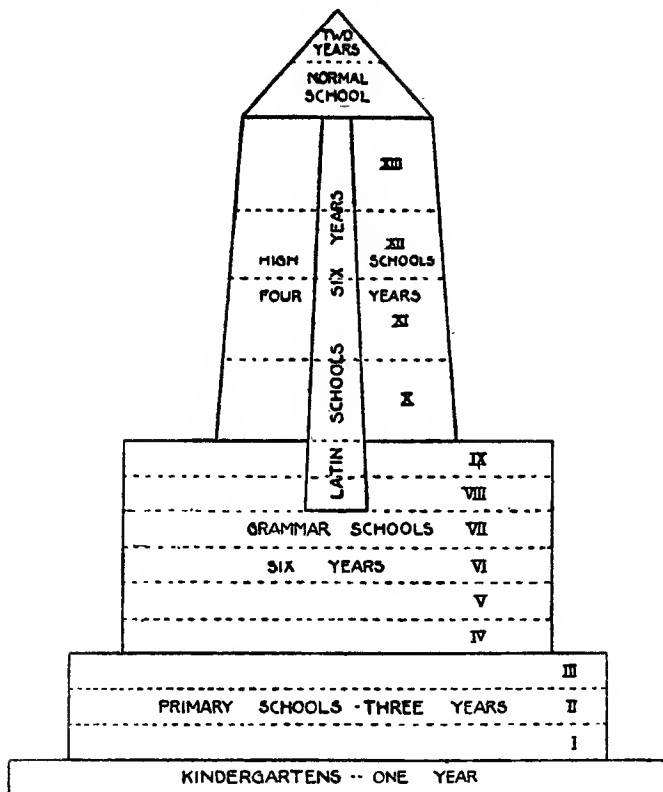


DIAGRAM OF BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.

(This is not absolutely correct now: the system is being modified.)

nine High Schools, the Mechanic Arts High School (for boys), sixty-four Grammar Schools, seven hundred and nineteen Primary Classes, seven Special Classes one hundred and seven

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Kindergartens, one School for the Deaf, five Evening High Schools, thirteen Evening Elementary Schools, six Evening Drawing Schools, a special school on Spectacle Island, fifty Manual Training Schools and forty Schools of Cookery.

REGISTRATION—1906.

Pupils registered in the public schools during the year ending 30th June, 1906.

	Boys.	Girls.	Totals.
DAY SCHOOLS.			
Normal, Latin and High	3,655	4,800	8,455
Grammar	26,301	25,395	51,696
Primary	19,576	17,858	37,434
Kindergartens	3,716	3,563	7,279
Special Schools and Special Classes	139	126	265
Totals—Day Schools	53,387	51,742	105,129
EVENING SCHOOLS.			
High	5,442	4,859	10,301
Elementary	7,856	4,324	12,180
Drawing	1,000	195	1,195
Totals—Evening Schools	14,298	9,378	23,676
Grand Totals	67,685	61,120	128,805

NUMBER OF PUPILS TO A TEACHER.

Kindergartens	25
Grade I.	42
Grades II.-IX.	50
Ungraded Classes	35
Special Classes	15
High Schools	35
Mechanic Arts High School	24
Latin School (for boys) (three upper classes 30)	35
Latin School (for girls)	30

NORMAL, LATIN AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

SEMI-ANNUAL RETURNS TO 30TH JUNE, 1906.

Schools.	Average Number of Pupils Belonging.		Average Attendance.			Absence.	Per cent. of Attendance.	Headmasters.	Masters.*	Junior Masters.	Assistant Principals.	Assistants.	Instructors.	Assistant Instructors.	Special Instructors.
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.										
Normal	8	303	311	7	292	299	96	1	3	—	—	13	—	—	—
Public Latin	567	—	567	546	—	546	96	1	12	8	—	—	—	—	—
Girls' Latin	—	376	376	—	354	354	94	—	1	—	—	11	—	—	—
Brighton High	78	203	281	73	189	262	93	—	—	1	1	7	—	—	—
Charlestown High	76	172	248	69	160	229	92	1	1	—	—	7	—	—	—
Dorchester High	338	729	1,067	319	676	995	93	1	1	6	1	20	—	—	—
East Boston High	131	256	387	124	234	358	93	1	1	2	—	9	—	—	—
English High	880	—	880	803	—	803	91	1	16	11	—	—	—	—	—
Girls' High	—	1,044	1,044	—	968	968	93	1	1	1	1	25	—	—	—
Mechanic Arts High	683	—	683	653	—	653	96	1	4	8	—	—	5	4	2
Roxbury High	118	463	581	109	428	537	92	1	2	3	1	13	—	—	—
South Boston High	167	341	508	154	322	476	94	1	—	3	1	11	—	—	—
W. Roxbury High	98	274	372	92	252	344	92	1	1	1	—	10	—	—	—
Totals . . .	3,144	4,161	7,305	2,949	3,875	6,824	481	12	43	44	5	126	5	4	2

* Women teachers are included here.

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DISTRIBUTION AS TO AGE AND TO GRADE, 30TH JUNE, 1906.

Grades.			11 Years.	12 Years.	13 Years.	14 Years.	15 Years.	16 Years.	17 Years.	18 Years.	19 Years and over.	Totals.
Latin Schools.	All Grades	Boys.	2	17	71	73	109	110	83	62	18	545
		Girls.	1	15	34	55	71	71	59	42	18	366
	Totals	—	3	32	105	128	180	181	142	104	36	911
High Schools.	Advanced Class	Boys.	—	—	—	—	1	11	31	63	64	170
		Girls.	—	—	—	—	1	16	88	111	94	310
	Third-year Class	Boys.	—	—	—	—	17	86	173	185	113	574
		Girls.	—	—	—	—	21	149	278	176	66	690
	Second-year Class	Boys.	—	—	1	40	115	220	182	83	45	686
		Girls.	—	—	3	31	178	322	219	100	45	898
First-year Class	Boys.	—	1	29	167	330	274	132	26	8	967	
	Girls.	—	2	48	263	529	398	147	36	3	1,426	
Totals		—	3	81	501	1,192	1,476	1,250	780	438	5,721	

The following gives the expenditures for the various grades of schools :—

NORMAL, LATIN AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

Expenditures made by the School Committee and the School-house Department for the High Schools during the financial year 1905-6 :—

Salaries of instructors	\$523,466 87
Expenditures for text-books, maps, globes, drawing materials, stationery, etc.	29,217 69
Salaries of janitors	33,826 60
Fuel and light	22,129 58
	\$608,640 74
Rent, furniture, repairs, etc.	44,560 86
	\$653,201 60

The total school expenditure for 1905-6 is over £900,000. The official diagram shows for the latest year (1903) per capita of population an expenditure of over \$5.50, and of \$3 for \$1,000 of valuation. It is difficult to turn this into the English rate of pence in the £ rental, but reckoning by the value of a Manchester dwelling, and the rent thereof, it corresponds to a rate of nearly 11d. in the £.

STATE OF WISCONSIN.

(Population about two millions.)

The official directory names 254 high schools with complete four-year courses; 4 of these have women principals.

There are 64 city superintendents, 1 being a woman, 171 county superintendents, 10 being women. One of these Wisconsin High Schools is in a rural area with a population of 1,800; it has 175 pupils, and 27 former pupils at the State University, 13 having come up for the session 1908-9.

The total expenditure at the University of Wisconsin for the fiscal year closing 30th June, 1908, was \$1,091,135.37, of which \$514,221.95 was spent for instruction, \$343,432.02 for other current expenses, and \$233,466.40 for permanent improvements, including apparatus and books. (Note, page 139.)

UNITED STATES.

HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS, 1905-6.

722,693 in public schools.

101,755 in private schools.

824,447 total, nearly 1 per cent. of the population.

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