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NORMAL SCHOOLS,

AND OTHER

INSTITUTIONS, AGENCIES, AND MEANS

DESIGNED FOR THE

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.

BY HENRY BARNARD,

SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS OF CONNECTICUT.

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CIRCULAR.

THE following pages constitute the second of the series of Essays which the undersigned was authorized by the Legislature in 1850 to prepare for general circulation in Connecticut, on topics connected with the condition and improvement of our Common Schools. The necessity and importance of specific preparation for the business of teaching are recognized by the State in its recent legislation for the establishment of an institution to be devoted exclusively to this object. The gradual development of this idea from its first formal presentation by Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet, in 1825, to its partial realization in the State Normal School at New Britain, in 1850, is traced in the documents which are here embodied.

While Connecticut was discussing the subject, or slumbering over it, 'with the half patriarchal, half poetical dream,' which is apt to come over us when we think of our "venerable common school system," Massachusetts was acting not only in this but in other departments of educational improvement, with a vigor and liberality which has placed her public schools over at least one half of her territory, at least a half century in advance of our own in towns of the same wealth and population. New-York, too, whose school system as originally drafted by a native of Connecticut, was copied in its essential features from our own, under the lead of De Witt Clinton in 1826, commenced a series of improvements which resulted in Teachers Departments, District Libraries, Union Schools, County Inspection Teachers' Institutes, and a Normal School, which have done more, and are doing more now to develop the resources of the State than her gigantic system of railroads and canals.

The city of Philadelphia, whose system of public schools, made free by taxation on property, went into operation only two years before Connecticut passed a law exempting the people from the *obligation* of raising a tax on property for a portion of the expense of supporting common schools—(*the most disastrous law ever placed on her statute book*)—has now a system of public instruction from the Primary School for children four years of age, to the Normal School in which the female teachers of all her schools can be trained, maintained with a liberality, and embracing opportunities of an extended English, classical, and business education, which is free to all and practically enjoyed by the children of the rich and poor—of which we have no approach in any city of our State.

The State of Michigan, which has been admitted into the Union since the idea of a Normal School was first presented in Connecticut, has set

apart, not the bonus of a bank as a temporary experiment, but a permanent fund for the endowment of an institution devoted exclusively to the professional education of teachers.

The province of Upper Canada, stimulated by the example of the neighboring State of New-York, has within ten years organized a system of common schools more complete in its plan, more efficient in its administration, and embracing more of the agencies of educational progress, than the system of any one of the United States. At the head of these agencies of progress stands the Provincial Normal School, for which, besides a standing appropriation of \$10,000 a year for the current expenses, the sum of \$55,000 has just been almost unanimously voted by the Legislature, to provide a suitable building and apparatus for the accommodation of the school.

Some notice of these institutions will be given in the following pages, together with the republication of a number of documents and addresses setting forth the origin, nature, and advantages of Normal Schools, and their institutions, agencies, and means, for the professional education and improvement of teachers, in the United States.

This Essay will be followed by a volume on the same great topic, in which an account will be given of the organization and course of instruction of several of the best Normal Seminaries in Europe, together with an outline of the system of Public Schools in the countries where these Seminaries have been longest in operation. Although not prepared exclusively or originally for this series of publications, copies will be furnished to all orders from any part of the State, on the same terms with the Principles of School Architecture, viz : at half the cost of publication.

HENRY BARNARD,

SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

HARTFORD, January 6th, 1851.

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

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INTRODUCTION.

IN the winter of 1825, there appeared, almost simultaneously,* but without any knowledge of each other's views, and even without any personal knowledge of each other, in the Connecticut Observer, printed in Hartford, over the signature of a "Father," and in the Patriot, printed in Boston, over the signature of "Franklin," a series of articles in which the claims of Education as a science, and Teaching as an art, were ably discussed, and an Institution was proposed in each series, having the same general features, for the special training of teachers for their profession. These articles were collected and published by their respective authors, in pamphlet form, the first with the title of "*Plan of a Seminary for the Education of Instructors of Youth, by Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet. Boston, 1825,*"—and the last, with the title "*Essays on Popular Education, containing a particular examination of the Schools of Massachusetts, and an Outline of an Institution for the Education of Teachers, by James G. Carter. Boston, 1826.*"

In the same year, 1825, Walter R. Johnson, then residing in Germantown, Penn., without any knowledge of the views of Mr. Carter or Mr. Gallaudet, in a pamphlet, entitled "*Observations on the Improvement of Seminaries of Learning,*" set forth the necessity and advantages of schools for the special training of teachers.

In the same year, in which appeared the earliest publication on the subject in Connecticut, Governor Clinton commended to the consideration of the Legislature of New York, "the education of competent teachers;" and in 1826, "the establishment of a seminary" for this purpose. From this time, the importance of the professional education of teachers, and of institutions specially devoted to this object, began to attract the attention of statesmen and educators, until, at the close of a quarter of a century, the idea is practically realized in each of the four states in which the enterprise was first proposed. The history of the efforts made by the friends of educational improvement to establish Normal Schools in these states is full of instruction and encouragement to those who are laboring in the same field, and for the same object, in other states.

* The article by Mr. Gallaudet, containing the statement of his plan of a Seminary, was published on the 4th of January, 1825, and those of Mr. Carter, devoted to his Outline of an Institution, appeared the 10th and 15th of February, 1825.

The Normal Schools already established in this country are, it is believed, doing much good, and realizing the promises of those who have been active in getting them up; but as compared with European Institutions of the same kind, and the demands for professional training in all our schools, they labor under many disadvantages.

1. Pupils are admitted without adequate preparatory attainments, and without sufficient test of their "aptness to teach."

2. A majority of the pupils do not remain a sufficient length of time, to acquire that knowledge of subjects and methods, and especially that intellectual power and enlightenment, which are essential to the highest success in the profession.

3. There are no endowments to reduce the expense of a prolonged residence to a class of poor but promising pupils.

4. They are not provided with a sufficient number of teachers for the number of pupils admitted.

5. From the want of a well-defined and limited purpose in each institution, they are aiming to accomplish too much—more for every class of pupils,—those with, and those without previous experience,—the young, and the more advanced,—those intended for country and unclassified schools, and those intended for the highest grade of city and town schools,—than can be well done for either class of pupils.

Further experience will make these deficiencies more apparent, not to those who have the immediate charge of these institutions, for they are already painfully conscious of them, but to the people, legislatures, and liberally-disposed men, who must apply the remedies by increased appropriations to existing, and the establishment of additional schools.

The following is a list of the Normal Schools already established, with the location and date of the establishment of each school.

TABLE
OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN AMERICA.

State and Location.	Number.	Date when first Established.
MASSACHUSETTS,	3	
West Newton,	1839
Bridgewater,	1839
Westfield,	1839
NEW YORK,	1	
Albany,	1845
PENNSYLVANIA,	1	
Philadelphia,	1848
CONNECTICUT,	1	
New Britain,	1849
MICHIGAN,	1	
Upsilanti,	1850
BRITISH PROVINCES,	2	
Toronto, for Upper Canada,	1846
St. John's, for New Brunswick,	1848

CONNECTICUT.

THE earliest mention of the establishment of a Seminary for Teachers in Connecticut, was made by Mr. William Russell,* in August 1823, in a pamphlet, entitled *Suggestions on Education*:

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

In the first number of the Connecticut Observer, published in Hartford, Conn., January 4, 1825, Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudett, then Principal of the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, commenced a series of Essays, with the signature of “A Father,” on a *Plan of a Seminary for the Education of Instructors of Youth*. These essays attracted much attention in Connecticut, and other parts of New England, and were collected and published in a pamphlet of 40 pages, in Boston, in the same year. Selections from the same were re-published in the newspapers, and the plan was presented and discussed in the educational conventions which assembled in Hartford, in 1828 and in 1830. The following is the substance of the plan:

“Suppose, Mr. Editor, an Institution, call it by what name you please, should be established somewhere in New England, for the training up of young men for the profession of instructors of youth in the common branches of English education. Suppose such an institution should be so well endowed, by the liberality of the public, or of individuals, as to have two or three professors, men of talents and habits adapted to the pursuit, who should devote their lives to the object of the ‘Theory and Practice of the Education of Youth,’ and who should prepare and deliver, and print, if you and they please, a course of lectures on the subject.

* Mr. Russell was at that date a teacher in the New Township Academy, New Haven. He afterward removed to Boston, where he engaged earnestly in the work of educational improvement. In 1826 he became editor of the *Journal of Education*, the first periodical devoted exclusively to the subject, published in the English language. Mr. Russell is now Principal of the Normal Institute at Merrimack, New Hampshire.

Let the Institution be furnished with a *library*, which should contain all the works, theoretical and practical, in all languages, which can be obtained on the subject of education, and also with all the apparatus that modern ingenuity has devised for this purpose; such as maps, charts, globes, orreries, &c. &c.

Let there be connected with the Institution a school, smaller or larger, as circumstances might dictate, of indigent children and youth, and *especially of foreign youth whom we are rearing for future benevolent efforts*, in which the theories of the professors might be reduced to practice, and from which daily experience would derive a thousand useful instructions.

To such an Institution let young men resort, of piety, of talents, of industry, and of adaptedness to the business of the instructors of youth, and who would expect to *devote their lives* to so important an occupation. Let them attend a regular course of lectures on the subject of education; read the best works; take their turns in the instruction of the *experimental school*, and after thus becoming qualified for their office, leave the Institution with a suitable certificate or diploma, recommending them to the confidence of the public."

In 1838, an "Act to provide for the better supervision of Common Schools," creating a Board of Commissioners, with a Secretary, who was "to devote his whole time to ascertain the condition, increase the interest, and promote the usefulness of common schools," was passed by the Legislature. In a speech made by the chairman of the Committee that reported the bill, in the House of Representatives, (Henry Barnard, of Hartford,) the following remarks were made in reference to this particular subject:

"This measure, if adopted and sustained by the Legislature and the people for ten years, must result in making some legislative provision for the better education, and special training of teachers for their delicate and difficult labors. Every man who received his early education in the district schools of Connecticut, must be conscious, and most of us must exhibit in our own mental habits, and in the transactions of ordinary business, the evidence of the defective instruction to which we were subjected in these schools. And no one can spend a half hour in the best common school in his neighborhood, without seeing, both in the arrangements, instruction, and discipline of the teacher, the want, not only of knowledge on his part, but particularly of a practical ability to make what he does know available. He has never studied and practiced his art, the almost creative art of teaching, under an experienced master, and probably has never seen, much less spent any considerable portion of time in visiting, any better schools than the one in which he was imperfectly taught—in which he *said his lessons*, as the business is significantly described in a phrase in common use.

The first step will be to get at the fact, and if it is as I suppose, that our teachers are not qualified, and that there is now no adequate provision made in our Academies and higher seminaries for the right qualification of teachers of district schools, then let the fact be made known to the Legislature and the people, by reports, by the press, and by popular addresses,—the only ways in which the Board can act, on either the Legislature or the schools;—and in time, sooner or later, we shall have the seminaries, and the teachers, unless the laws which have heretofore governed the progress of society, and of education in particular, shall cease to operate. It is idle to expect good schools until we have good teachers, and the people will rest satisfied with such teachers as they have, until their attention is directed to the subject, and until we can demonstrate the necessity of employing better, and show how they can be made better, by proper training in classes or seminaries established for this specific purpose. With better teachers will come better compensation and more permanent employment. The people pay now quite enough for the article they get. It is dear at even the miserably low price at which so much of it can be purchased. Let us have light on the whole subject of teachers,—their qualifications, preparation, compensation and supervision, for on these points there is a strange degree of indifference, not to say ignorance, on the part both of individuals, and of the public generally."

During the year following the establishment of the Board, the Secretary, (Mr. Barnard,) published in the Connecticut Common School Journal a number of articles, original and selected, in which the professional education of teachers was discussed, and the history of Normal Schools in Prussia, Holland, and France presented. In the course of the four years in which the Journal was published, the Essays of Mr. Gallaudet, the Report of Prof. Stowe on Normal Schools and Teachers' Seminaries, all that portion of Prof. Bachès Report on Education in Europe, devoted to an account of particular institutions for the education of teachers, and many other documents and articles on the same subject, were spread before the people of this state. Of several numbers of the Journal devoted to these publications, more than ten thousand copies were circulated.

In the First Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, submitted to the General Assembly, in May, 1839, the establishment "of at least one seminary for teachers," is urged in the following manner :

"As there are some who still regard it as an experiment, it can be at first for the training of female teachers for the common schools. Such an institution, with a suitable principal and assistants, and especially a model school connected with it, in which theory could be carried into practice, and an example given of what a district school ought to be, would, by actual results, give an impulse to the cause of popular education, and the procuring of good teachers, that could be given in no other way. The time of continuance at such an institution could be longer or shorter according to circumstances. Even a short continuance at it would often be of vast benefit. It would furnish an illustration of better methods of instruction and government than "the district school as it is" can give, which is the only model a large majority of our teachers are now familiar with. The expense to those attending, need not be great, if such a seminary were moderately endowed from the public treasury, and the contributions of towns and public spirited individuals. To secure this most desirable co-operation, the state appropriation might be made on condition that an equal or greater amount be raised from other sources. Once established, it would speedily draw to it numbers of our young women, to improve the qualifications they already possess for teaching, and give the experience and skill which are necessary. If wisely managed, it would give credentials to none but the best of teachers.

They will command good wages. Those employing them would expect to give such wages. For the object in applying to this source would be to get teachers of superior qualifications at an enhanced price. The supply would create a demand. The demand would in turn secure a greater supply of well-educated teachers for the primary schools. Through them, better methods of teaching, by which an increased amount of instruction, and that of a more practical character, would be disseminated through a large number of districts. The good done would thus not be confined to the comparatively few who should pursue the studies of the seminary, or acquire skill and experience in the model school. Each would carry out the same methods. Enterprising teachers, too, who had not enjoyed the same opportunity for improvement, would strive to excel those who had; and thus a wholesome spirit of emulation would be provoked among teachers.

One such seminary, with the model school annexed, or rather forming an essential part of the institution, where the best methods of school government, and all the numerous and complicated processes of teaching, developing, and guiding the human mind, and cultivating the moral nature, could be taught and illustrated, would be the safest and least expensive way of testing the practicability of introducing others, both for males and females, into every county of the state, as a part of our common school system."

This document was referred to a "Joint Select Committee on Common Schools," of the two Houses of the General Assembly, to whom the following "*Report and Resolution respecting the Education of Teachers*," was submitted, May, 1839:

"The Joint Select Committee on Common Schools, to whom was referred the Report of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, together with the Report of their Secretary, have had the same under consideration, and beg leave to report in part, that in their estimation, the main deficiency in the common schools of the State, is an inadequate supply of well-qualified teachers, and that to supply this deficiency, and thereby improve the quality, and increase the amount of instruction communicated in these schools, which must forever remain the principal reliance of a vast majority of parents for the education of their children, the experience of other states and countries demonstrates the necessity of making some legislative provision for the education of teachers. With this view, and to secure the co-operation of counties, towns and individuals who may be more directly benefited by this appropriation, or who may choose to unite with the State in elevating the character of the common schools in the mode attempted, the Committee recommend the passage of the accompanying resolution. All of which is respectfully submitted,

By order of the Committee,

JOHN A. ROCKWELL, *Chairman*.

Resolved, That the Comptroller of public accounts is hereby authorized to draw an order on the Treasurer, in favor of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, for the sum of \$5000, or such portions thereof as they may request, to be paid out of any money not otherwise appropriated; provided said Board shall certify that an amount equal to that applied for, has been placed at their disposal; both sums to be expended under the direction of said Board in promoting and securing the qualifications in teachers for the common schools of Connecticut."

The resolution called forth a full expression of opinion in the House of Representatives, and was finally passed in that body without a dissenting voice.

The Secretary of the Board, who was a member from Hartford, in the course of discussion, made the following remarks in the House of Representatives:

"The report of the Committee, brief as it is, embodies the substance of all I should have to say, if I should review in detail the condition of our common schools, with a view of proposing a series of measures for their improvement. The great want of these schools is that of better teachers. Good teachers will make better schools, and schools made better by the labors of good teachers, is the best argument which can be addressed to the community in favor of improved school-houses, a judicious selection of a uniform series of text books in the schools of the same society, of vigilant and intelligent supervision, and liberal appropriations for school purposes. Give me good teachers, and in five years I will work not a change, but a revolution in the education of the children of this State. I will not only improve the results, but the machinery, the entire details of the system by which these results are produced. Every good teacher will himself become a pioneer, and a missionary in the cause of educational improvement. The necessity of giving such a teacher every facility of a well-located, well-ventilated, and well-seated school-house, of giving the teacher a timely supply of the best text books and apparatus, and of keeping him employed through the year, and from year to year, with just such pupils and studies as he can teach to the best advantage—these things will be seen and felt by parents, and by districts. And the public, as represented in the Legislature, will see to it that much of our defective legislation is supplied by that which will create and sustain a popular interest in the subject, lead to the appointment of faithful officers, assign to each class of officers appropriate duties, subject all appropriations of school money to severe scrutiny, provide for the

training and adequate compensation of good teachers, and the employment of such teachers in schools of different grades. The idea of employing a graduate of a college to teach the alphabet to young children, will be given up, not only as poor economy, but as leading to the neglect of accomplished female teachers, who can do not only that work, but the whole work of education in primary and in small district schools, much better than the best male teachers. But let us not deceive ourselves. Five thousand dollars will not make adequate provision for the training of teachers. The entire sum will not properly endow a Normal School. Small as the sum is, it is the largest sum I dare propose at this time, and so advised the Committee. But as one of those who may be intrusted with its expenditure, I should not advise its appropriation at this time, to the establishment of a Normal School. This sum should be so expended as to reach, if practicable, every teacher in the state. The teachers should be induced to come together for a week, or a month, and attend a course of instruction on the best methods of school teaching and government. They should profit by the lectures and practical hints of experienced teachers. They should have access to, and be induced to purchase and read good books on the theory and practice of teaching. They should be induced to form associations for mutual improvement, the advancement of their common profession, and the general improvement of education, and the schools of the state. They are the natural guardians of this great interest—at least they are the co-operators with parents in this work of educating the rising generation, to take the place of that which is passing off the stage. They are the chosen priesthood of education—they must bear the ark on their shoulders. The appropriation thus applied, so as to improve the teachers now in the school, and create in them a thirst for something higher and better than can be given in any temporary course of instruction, will lead to the establishment of an institution for the professional education and training of teachers, the great agency by which the cause of education is to be carried upward and onward in this state. Though the prospect is dark enough, I think I can see the dawning of a better day, on the mountain tops, and the youngest members of this house, if they live to reach the age of the oldest, will see a change pass over the public mind, and over public action, not only in respect to the professional education of teachers, but the whole subject of common schools. Old, dilapidated, inconvenient school-houses will give place to new, attractive, and commodious structures. Young children will be placed universally under the care of accomplished female teachers; female teachers will be employed in every grade of schools as assistants, and in most of our country districts, as sole principals: a school of a 'higher order' than the district school will receive the older boys and girls, not only of a district, but of a society, and the common school will no longer be regarded as *common*, because it is cheap, inferior, and patronized only by the poor, and those who are indifferent to the education of their children, but common as the light and the air, because its blessings are open to all, and enjoyed by all. The passage of this resolution will hasten on that day; but whether the resolution is passed or not, that day will assuredly come, and it will bring along a train of rich blessings which will be felt in the field and the workshop, and convert many a home into a circle of unfading smiles. For one, I mean to enjoy the satisfaction of the labor, let who will enter into the harvest."

In the Senate it was referred to the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, to report to the next General Assembly a specific plan of expenditure.

What the Legislature thus refused to do, the Secretary undertook to do at his own expense, in order "to show the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of common school teachers, by giving them an opportunity to revise and extend their knowledge of the studies usually pursued in district schools, and of the best methods of school arrangements, instruction and government, under the recitations and lectures of experienced and well-known teachers and educators."

A class was formed from such teachers of Hartford county as were dis-

posed to come together on public notice, and placed under the general charge of Mr. Wright, the Principal of the Grammar School. Mr. Wright gave instruction in Grammar and in methods of school keeping, Mr. Post, a teacher in the Grammar School, reviewed the whole subject of Mental and Practical Arithmetic, with full explanations of the difficult points in Fractions, Roots, &c. Professor Davies explained the different parts of the higher Mathematics, so far as they were ever taught in district schools, or would help to explain elementary Arithmetic. Rev. Mr. Barton, formerly connected with the Teachers' Seminary at Andover, gave lessons in Reading. Rev. T. H. Gallaudet explained how Composition could be taught even to the younger classes in schools, and gave several familiar lectures on school government, and the instruction of very young children by means of the slate. Mr. Brace, Principal of Hartford Female Seminary, explained the first principles of Mathematical and Astronomical Geography, the use of Globes, &c. Mr. Snow, Principal of the Center District School, gave several practical lessons in methods of teaching, with classes in his own school. Mr. Barnard delivered several lectures explanatory of the relations of the teacher to the school system, to parents and their pupils; also on the laws of health to be practically observed by pupils and teachers in the school-room; and on the best modes of conducting Teachers' Associations, and interesting parents. A portion of each day was also devoted to oral discussions and written essays on subjects connected with teaching, and to visiting the best schools in Hartford. Before separating, the members of the Teachers' Class published a "Card," expressing "their most cordial thanks, for the very excellent course of instruction which they have been permitted to enjoy during a few weeks past. They also beg leave to present their sincere thanks to those gentlemen who have so kindly instructed them, for the very familiar, lucid and interesting manner in which the different subjects have been presented."

On the success of this experiment, the Secretary of the Board, in the Connecticut Common School Journal, for November, 1839, says,

"We have no hesitation in saying that a judicious application of one-fifth of the sum appropriated unanimously by the House of Representatives, to promote the education of teachers for common schools, in different sections of the State, would have accomplished more for the usefulness of the coming winter schools and the ultimate prosperity of the school system, than the expenditure of half the avails of the School Fund in the present way. One thousand at least of the eighteen hundred teachers, would have enjoyed an opportunity of critically revising the studies which they will be called upon to teach, with a full explanation of all the principles involved, and with reference to the connection which one branch of knowledge bears to another, and also to the best methods of communicating each, and the adaptation of different methods to different minds. They would have become familiar with the views and methods of experienced teachers, as they are carried out in better conducted schools than those with which they had been familiar. They would have entered upon their schools with a rich fund of practical knowledge, gathered from observation, conversation and lectures; and with many of their own defective, erroneous, and perhaps mischievous views, corrected and improved. Who can tell how many minds will be perverted, how many tempers ruined, how much injury done to the heart, the morals, and the manners of children, in consequence of the injudi-

scious methods of inexperienced and incompetent teachers, the coming winter? The heart, the manners, the morals, the minds of the children are, or should be in the eye of the state, too precious materials for a teacher to experiment upon, with a view to qualify himself for his profession; and yet the teacher is compelled to do so under the present order of things. He has no opportunity afforded him, as every mechanic has, to learn his trade; and if he had, there is but little inducement held out for him to do this. No man is so insane as to employ a workman to construct any valuable or delicate piece of mechanism, who is to learn how to do it for the first time on that very article. No one employs any other than an experienced artist to repair a watch. No parent intrusts the management of a lawsuit, involving his property or his reputation, to an attorney who has not studied his profession and given evidence of his ability. No one sends for a physician to administer to his health, who has not studied the human constitution and the nature and uses of medicine. No one sends a shoe to be mended, or a horse to be shod, or a plough to be repaired, except to an experienced workman; and yet parents will employ teachers, who are to educate their children for two worlds—who are to mould and fashion and develop that most delicate, complicated, and wonderful piece of mechanism, the human being, the most delicate and wonderful of all God's creations—to fit them for usefulness in life, to become upright and intelligent witnesses, jurors, electors, legislators, and rulers, safe in their power to resist the manifold temptations to vice and crime which will beset their future path, strong and happy in the 'godlike union of right feelings with correct principles.'

From the proceedings of the Board of Commissioners, it appears that the subject received their attention, and they thus refer to it in their Report of 1840:

"Wherever Normal Schools have been established and ably sustained, the experiment has uniformly resulted in supplying teachers of a superior order. As in every other art whose principles are reduced to rule, and matured into a system, the learner is not limited to the slow and scanty results of his single, unaided experience, but is at once enriched with the accumulated treasures of all who have labored in the same mine before him. Without such an opportunity, he may be compared to the medical practitioner, who commences his labors without the knowledge of any settled principles of his art, but expects to acquire his knowledge of his profession in the course of his practice. If it is plain that the physician needs, at the commencement of his career, that knowledge of the healing art, which contains the embodied experience of those who have gone before him, and carried his profession to the highest degree of excellence, no less does the instructor of a school need the wisdom of his predecessors to guide him, at his first setting out; nor can he any better afford to wait for the slow returns of his own experience. Indeed, there is in the case of the young teacher, a peculiar need of this wisdom in advance, since the employment is not usually a business for life, but only of a few years at farthest,—a period in itself too short to gain much of the wisdom of experience, and terminated almost as soon as such wisdom begins to be acquired.

In the opinion of the Board, we can not make an adequate provision for the supply of the requisite number of teachers, who shall be at once capable of teaching, in the best manner, all that the pupils of our common schools are capable of learning, and of conducting the order and government of their institutions, according to the most approved methods, without the establishment of NORMAL SCHOOLS, devoted exclusively to the education of teachers in the principles and practice of their profession, and guided by men eminent for their talents and practical wisdom. But if it is thought that we are not prepared to erect and sustain seminaries of this independent and elevated description, the Board would suggest the expediency of commencing the work of educating teachers on a limited scale, by connecting a department for this purpose, with some of the existing academies in different sections of the state. A small amount of funds, judiciously expended in the modes indicated by the Secretary in his Report, would, in the opinion of the Board, accomplish a great, immediate good in improving the qualifications of our common school teachers.

The resolution appropriating five thousand dollars from the Treasury, to be expended by the Board, in promoting and securing the requisite qualifica-

tion of teachers for the common schools of the state, provided, that an amount equal to that applied for should be placed at their disposal from other sources, for the same object, which passed the House of Representatives, at the last session of the Legislature, and was afterward, by a joint vote of both Houses, referred to the Board for some specific plans of expenditure, has received the consideration of a Committee of their number, and of the Board at its last meeting. In their opinion, the sum is too small, even with such local and individual subscriptions, as could now be raised, to authorize the establishment of a thoroughly organized Normal School. If this sum, therefore, had been placed at their disposal, they would have expended it in the different counties of the state, under such circumstances as would have called forth as widely extended co-operation and contributions from towns and individuals as possible, and have diffused its agency over a period of three years."

The Secretary, in his Report to the Board, in 1840, discusses the whole subject in the following manner :

"The most efficient instrumentality, however, on which we can rely for the permanent and almost indefinite improvement of education in our common schools, is the employment of teachers properly qualified for their duties. The want of such teachers is widely felt, and the absence of all arrangements for securing the necessary supply, is the principal defect in our system.

What can be done to remove this defect? Upon the practical solution of this problem depends the immediate and permanent prosperity of our schools.

1. The first and necessarily imperfect method of securing well-qualified teachers, would be to raise the standard of qualification now required by law, and to create a county or senatorial district board for the examination of teachers. This would operate to induce candidates to prepare themselves more extensively and thoroughly in the studies which they are to teach, and on which they are to be examined, and would exclude in a great measure the operation of local, family, and personal influences, in granting or withholding the necessary certificates. There is, however, no sure test of ability and skill in instruction and government, but actual demonstration in the school-room. To secure this practical knowledge, other means than those of examination, however strict and impartial, such as now exist in the State, must be provided.

2. A second method would be to improve the present sources relied on for supporting teachers. These sources are the common schools, and the higher seminaries of education. Both might be made far more efficient than they now are in this respect, by engrafting upon them a class or department for the education of teachers.

From the older and more advanced scholars of either sex of the district schools, or the high school if it exists, such as have distinguished themselves by their scholarship and good conduct, and manifest the requisite talents, as well as desire to become teachers, might be selected to receive, in the evening and at such other times as might be found convenient, specific instruction in the theory and practice of teaching. These might be allowed to assist in their respective schools under the direction of the teacher, with great profit to themselves, and to the younger classes especially. They would thus have an opportunity of applying their instructions to practice, they would not be educated above their business, and would acquire the habits and methods of teaching in the very class of schools which they would afterward be called upon to instruct. If school societies understood their own interest, they would establish a common school of a higher order, if for no other purpose than to provide a home supply of better teachers for their respective districts. In Holland this method was formerly the sole resort for the training of teachers, but in perfecting her system of primary instruction, regularly organized Normal Schools have been lately established. In the public schools of the city of New York, this plan is thoroughly organized and carried out. In Boston and Philadelphia, a model school is connected with it.

Academies and similar institutions can become more useful than they now are in supplying good teachers—

First, by instituting a 'teachers' class' in the winter and spring, for young ladies, and in the summer and autumn for young men, who have been teachers, or expect to become such soon. Here they should have an opportunity to

revise the studies of the district school, and receive such knowledge of the best methods and familiar practical illustrations as the principal and other friends of education can give during the period allotted to the course. An experiment of this kind was tried at Hartford, in the Grammar School, with a class of twenty-six young men, and in the Female Seminary with a class of sixteen young ladies, with the most gratifying results.

Second, by organizing a department for the more liberal and thorough education of teachers. Such a department should include a professor, who should devote his whole time to the theory and practice of education, a course of instruction embracing all the studies of the common schools, with the best methods of communicating them to others, and a model school. The model school might be a primary department of the academy, under an appropriate assistant, or the neighboring district school, in which, under the supervision of the professor, the best methods should be pursued. The students of the department should have an opportunity, not only of witnessing frequently and familiarly the exercises and management of this school, but should receive explanations and lectures there, as to the modes pursued, be allowed to conduct the recitations, and on return to the class-room, be required to give their views, in writing and orally, on what they had seen or heard.

In giving the above outline of a properly organized 'Teachers' Department,' I have in reality incorporated the Normal School with the Academy. The advantages of this arrangement are the saving of much additional expense for buildings, apparatus, and assistants, and the liberalizing influence of association in the recitation-room, and out of it, with persons destined to other pursuits, on the mind and manners of those who are to become teachers. The disadvantages are, in the present comparatively low social and literary position, accorded to the profession, in public estimation, lest the department and those connected with it, should be regarded as only an appendage to the Academy; and those destined for a longer or shorter time to become teachers, lose that enthusiasm to the proposed calling, which is essential to eminent success, and acquire, what under the most favorable circumstances is likely to come soon enough, a partiality for those pursuits, which they see command a higher social rank, more honorable fame, and a richer pecuniary return. What is now wanted in this State, and in the country, are institutions in which the exclusive attention of men of the first talents and experience in education, should be devoted to the distinct object of giving the greatest practical elevation and efficiency to the profession of common school teacher, and where all the arrangements, to the minutest detail, should be shaped to establish this great end. This want can be in no way so effectually supplied as by the establishment of, at least, one thoroughly organized Normal School."

The Board, in the Third Annual Report for 1841, again recommend:

That some provision be made for the establishment of Normal Schools, or Seminaries for the training of teachers, where a practical knowledge of the best methods of arranging the classes and studies, and conducting the government and instruction of district schools, can be communicated and illustrated. One such school, under an experienced principal and assistant, with a model school connected with it, where theory can be carried into practice, and an example given of what a district school ought to be, would draw to it numbers of our young men, and young women, to improve the qualifications they already possess for teaching, and gain the experience and skill which are necessary.

An appropriation for this object will supply a radical defect in our system, and give an impulse of the most powerful and salutary character to the cause of school improvement."

Again, in his Third Annual Report, the Secretary of the Board returns to the subject, dwelling more particularly on the establishment of one Normal School:

"But the most effectual way of improving the qualifications of teachers, of creating in them, and in the community, a proper estimate of the true dignity and usefulness of the office, of carrying out into practice the soundest views of education, is to establish at least one institution for their specific training.

Such an institution, in the outset at least, had better be confined to the pre-

paration of female teachers. The course of instruction should have special reference to common schools in the country. The model school should, as far as practicable, bear a close resemblance in its elements to an ordinary district school. The pupils should be such as are willing to meet a portion of the expense of residence at the institution, by the assistance they would render at such times as would not interfere with the studies and exercises of the place.

The whole spirit of the institution should be such as to invite those only to come, who have a natural fondness for the office of teaching, and are animated in their preparatory work, by higher motives than the hope of pecuniary returns they are likely to receive.

The establishment of one or more schools of this description, is recommended in nearly every communication from school visitors. They have been objected to, in four instances, for the following reasons. 'They are of foreign origin.' They need not necessarily be modeled, and indeed ought not to be, after foreign institutions. They should be adapted to meet our own wants, to raise up Connecticut teachers for Connecticut schools. The objection is as valid against institutions for the deaf and dumb, or the blind, or the insane, or colleges, or even the common school, which is only an improvement on the parochial schools of Germany.

'They are unnecessary: our colleges, academies and private schools, can furnish teachers for the higher order of common schools, and these last for the district school.' It is possible that much might be done in this way, but at present, there are no adequate means provided in any of the institutions for the specific training, or the apprenticeship required. We have good teachers, but they have become such, by improving their native tact by experience in the school-room: but who knows how many minds and hearts have been ruined or injured by the experiments of beginners? The best teachers universally, acknowledge the value and necessity of such schools.

'Those who are educated there, will not become teachers for life, or teachers in common schools.' They will, however, be more likely to make teaching a profession, than any other class. It would answer a good purpose, even if they taught for a few years. To provide against the last result, the institution should be confined to females, and those who receive its benefits, should come under obligations to teach two or three years in common schools; but above all, they should be such only as are actuated by the highest devotional feelings.

'The teachers thus educated, will be few compared with the number of schools.' But a beginning must be made, and in the present state of the public mind, and of the public schools, a single demonstration of what can be done, and of the best manner of doing it, is needed. The good which a few teachers properly trained, would do, would not be confined to the districts in which they labored. Their schools would become model schools for other districts, and the awakening influence of their example and precept would be felt all around them. Teachers who have not enjoyed the advantages of such training, would strive to excel those who had, and thus a wholesome spirit of emulation would be provoked among teachers.

'Districts will not pay wages sufficient to employ teachers who are thus prepared.' There are districts which pay liberally, and who look long and far to find good teachers. Such districts would go directly to such an institution for their teachers. Besides, an improvement in the qualifications of teachers, would to some extent increase the demand for them, and the demand would increase the compensation.

'The time required for this preparation is more than most teachers can give.' Although it would be desirable to extend the course of instruction to two years at least, still much can be accomplished in a brief period. Six months' residence in such an institution, with daily practice or observation in the model school, or even a shorter period, would be of incalculable service.

'The expense of such an institution will be great.' Like other good institutions, it will cost something, but the cost will depend somewhat on the scale with which it is commenced. An appropriation of \$10,000 on the part of the State, united with what could be raised by individual subscriptions, would be sufficient to make a fair trial."

In 1844, a Committee of eight members, one from each county, was appointed by the General Assembly, to take into consideration the state

of Common Schools in Connecticut, and report on the subject to the next session, with plans and suggestions for their improvement. This Committee, in their Report of May, 1845, which was printed and widely circulated, remark, that true economy, as well as the higher inducement of the best interests of the State, in the improved education of its children, would be promoted by the establishment of a Normal School.

"There is one other improvement which your Committee deem of great importance, but which they do not think the present state of the public mind would justify, viz—the establishment of a Normal School or Teachers' Seminary.

Teaching is an *art*, subject to certain rules and principles like any other art. It is true, that individuals may attain some degree of skill in teaching, without having had regular and systematic instruction in the art; as some men do in the arts of the painter, the carpenter, or the smith, without having served a regular apprenticeship. It is true, too, that every one gets *some* idea of teaching while he is himself obtaining the rudiments of knowledge. But who would intrust an important work in building, machinery, or painting, or send a son to serve an apprenticeship, with an artisan who had not been regularly taught his profession, unless indeed he were satisfied that by long study and experience, he had fully made up for the deficiency in his early education.

How much more, then, should we hesitate to commit the education of our children to unskillful hands—to those who have barely sufficient attainments to entitle them to the certificate required by law, without having had the slightest instruction, or experience, in the art of teaching, and who even acquired the rudiments of knowledge from those who were themselves exceedingly deficient both in art and learning.

By far the greater part of our teachers, when they begin to instruct, are of this character. Many never teach but a single season. Others, who continue in the profession, change their school, season after season, giving no satisfaction to their employers, and deriving none themselves from their pursuit. A few only become successful teachers, and these soon find their way, as has before been said, into such common schools as duly appreciate their talents, or are employed in private schools and academies.

It is said by experienced teachers, that every child in the State might obtain, at twelve years of age, under proper instruction in the common schools, a good practical knowledge in all the branches required by law to be taught in those schools. How different is the fact now!

Your Committee are of the opinion that *true economy*, as well as the higher inducement of the best interests of the state, in the improved education of its children, would be promoted by the establishment of a Normal School. The annual expense of a school adapted to this state, would probably be about \$4,000, or 5 cents a year for each child in the state. The public, however, have at present but little information on the subject. There can be no doubt, that sooner or later, these institutions will be deemed an indispensable part of every common school system."

In 1846, the General Assembly, by a concurrent vote, approved "in the main," of a plan, submitted by the Joint Standing Committee on Education, for the improvement of the school system, which embraced among other features, the establishment of a Normal School. This plan, with the Report of the Committee, was ordered to be printed, and two thousand copies circulated with the laws relating to common schools. The attention of the school visitors in every school society, was specially called to the subject by the Superintendent, with a request that they would communicate their views to this department on its various features. In almost every instance the Normal School feature of the plan was approved, and most heartily in those societies where the schools were in the best condition, and the subject had received the most attention. In his

Report to the General Assembly in May, 1847, the Superintendent submitted the results of his reflections on the subject as follows :

"The most important improvement recommended by the Committee, is the establishment of a *Normal School, or Seminary for the instruction of teachers*, or the training of the young men and young women of the state, who have the requisite qualifications of talent, tact, and character, to a practical knowledge of the best methods of school instruction and government. This subject has long been before the people of this state. The first distinct presentation of its claims, and one of the ablest ever made, was given by the Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, of Hartford, in a series of articles in the *Connecticut Observer*, commenced in January, 1825, and afterward published in a pamphlet. This pamphlet has been republished entire, or in copious extracts, in most of the educational periodicals of the country, and has undoubtedly aided in preparing the public mind for the action which has already followed in several states, and which is likely to take place still more generally. From the communications received from school visitors on this point, both for this and the last year, it will be seen that the friends of school improvement, from every section of the state, are calling for some legislative action on this subject.

The plan of a Normal School or Teachers' Seminary, embraces a thorough course of instruction in the studies pursued in common schools under competent teachers, with reference to teaching the same things to others. This last includes the art of teaching, or a knowledge of human nature and of the human mind, and of the order in which its several faculties should be called into exercise; of the best motives by which good habits of study can be cultivated in the young; of the arrangement and classification of scholars, and of the best means and appliances for securing obedience and order, and for keeping alive an interest in the daily exercises of the school. To accomplish these things thoroughly, there must be all the necessary apparatus for illustration and experiment in reference to the studies pursued, and a model school where the future teacher may, as it were, serve an apprenticeship in the workshop of education. The Normal School should do for the teacher what the directions of the master-workman, and the usual term and duties of the apprenticeship do for the future mechanic; and the law school, or the medical school, or the theological seminary, does for the professions of law, medicine or theology. It should give a thorough knowledge of what is to be done, and the practical skill how to do it. We have teachers who have acquired this knowledge and skill, but in too many instances they have acquired the same by temperance and experiments in the school-room, at the expense of time lost, tempers ruined, and minds distorted, of the children of the state. The Normal School affords an opportunity to such persons as have the requisite natural qualifications, of acquiring the knowledge and experience necessary for the highest success, without subjecting the schools to the ruinous waste of time and mind to which they are now exposed.

This subject has already attracted the attention of the Legislatures of other states, and it will not probably be long before a large number of our sister states will enjoy the benefits of these institutions. Surely Connecticut, which was the first seriously to agitate the subject, ought not to be the last to avail herself of the wise suggestions of her own citizens, and the experience of two such states as New York and Massachusetts. If the Legislature would pledge the means to sustain the annual expense of one such school, on an economical scale, for a period long enough to give the institution a fair trial, it is believed that there are towns in which it should be located, and individuals, ready to provide the necessary buildings, furniture and apparatus."

This document was referred to the Joint Standing Committee on Education, who in their remarks on "the establishment of schools, where teaching as an art shall be taught," say, "From these returns, your Committee have been led to suppose that the time has come for the State to do something for the establishment of such seminaries."

The Committee deemed it best for the Legislature to proceed with caution in the matter, and therefore, after recommending provision for

temporary Normal Schools, or Teachers' Institutes, proposed the appointment of a Committee, "to make due examination, and report to the next Legislature a definite plan for the support, location, and internal arrangement of one or more schools for teachers." This Committee was accordingly appointed, and after visiting the Normal Schools in New York and Massachusetts, submitted a Report to the Legislature, in which they in 1848, recommend an appropriation of \$2,500 a year for four years, toward the support of a Normal School, to be located by a Board of Trustees, consisting of eight members, one for each county, to be chosen by the General Assembly. The Committee state that liberal offers were received from several towns, which guarantee that the State shall be at no expense for buildings, &c. The plan of the Committee was embodied in a Bill which passed the House of Representatives by a large majority, and was lost in the Senate by one vote. The Committee in their Report remark:

"That in the course of their examination, whatever doubts any of them had previously entertained with regard to the utility of such schools, and the expediency of establishing them, those doubts have been entirely removed;—such schools are no longer to be regarded as a doubtful experiment."

The Superintendent, in his Report for 1849, after enumerating the various instances in which the establishment of Normal Schools has been presented to the Legislature, adds:

"Such is a brief history of the manner in which the special training of teachers for their work, has been brought before the Legislature and the people of the state. To this it may be added, that many essays on the subject have been published in the public prints and in pamphlet form, and that in the course of the last six years it has been distinctly presented in the written reports of the school visitors of more than half of the school societies of the state. It would be an insult to the common intelligence of the people of the state to suppose that the subject was not understood. And as no considerable opposition has been manifested, it may fairly be presumed that they are prepared for some action on the subject."

And such was the opinion of the General Assembly in 1849, as will appear by the documents which follow. To the Report of the Superintendent for 1849, was appended a Plan of a Teachers' Seminary by Rev. Merrill Richardson, of Terryville, who in an address delivered before the School Society of Plymouth, in 1842, and in the Connecticut School Manual, from 1846 to 1848, and in addresses delivered before the Teachers' Institutes, and in other ways by lip and pen, proved himself an earnest and efficient advocate before the people, of a Normal School or Teachers' Seminary. To this gentleman, to the Hon. Seth P. Beers, to John P. Norton, Esq., of Farmington, to Hon. Lorin P. Waldo, of Tolland, and particularly to James M. Bunce, Esq., of Hartford, are the friends of school improvement indebted for the establishment of a Normal School in Connecticut, in just ten years after the subject was first officially brought before the Legislature.

LEGISLATION OF CONNECTICUT

RESPECTING NORMAL SCHOOLS.

AN ACT for the establishment of a State Normal School.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in General Assembly convened,* There shall be established, as hereinafter provided, one Normal School, or seminary for the training of teachers in the art of instructing and governing the common schools of this state; the object of which Normal School, or seminary, shall be, not to educate teachers in the studies now required by law, but to receive such as are found competent in these studies, in the manner hereinafter provided, and train them in the best methods of teaching and conducting common schools.

SEC. 2. There shall be appointed, by the Legislature, eight trustees of said Normal School, one from each county in the state; two of whom shall, in the first instance, hold their office for one year, two for two years, two for three years, and two for four years, the term of office to be by them determined, by lot or otherwise; the vacancies to be filled by appointment by the Legislature, for the residue of the term which shall so become vacant; and the Superintendent of Common Schools, ex-officio, shall also be a member of said board.

SEC. 3. The expenses necessarily incurred by said trustees, in the discharge of their duties, shall be defrayed out of the funds herein appropriated for the support of said school; and they shall receive no compensation for their services.

SEC. 4. To said board of trustees shall be committed the location of said school; the application of the funds for the support thereof; the appointment of teachers, and power of removing the same; the power to prescribe the studies and exercises of the school, rules for its management, and granting diplomas; and they shall report annually to the Legislature their own doings, and the progress and condition of the school, and the said trustees are hereby authorized to change the location of said Normal School, from time to time, as they deem best for the interest of said school, and for the accommodation of the pupils in the different parts of the state, provided suitable buildings and fixtures are furnished without expense to the state.

SEC. 5. The number of pupils shall not exceed two hundred and twenty; and the visitors of each school society in the state shall be requested to forward to the Superintendent of Common Schools, annually, the names of four persons, two of each sex, applicants for admission to said school, whom the said visitors shall certify they have examined and approved as possessed of the qualifications required of teachers of common schools in this state; which applicants shall have given to said visitors a written declaration, signed with their own hands, that their object in seeking admission to the school is to qualify themselves for the employment of common school teachers; and that it is their intention to engage in that employment in this state, which applicants the said visitors shall recommend to the trustees as suitable persons, by their age, character, talents and attainments, to be received as pupils in the Normal School. The trustees shall select by lot, from the whole number of applicants from each county, the proportion of pupils to which such county is entitled by its population, of male and female, each an equal number: *Provi-*

ded, that not more than one shall be admitted from any school society, till each society, from which an application is made, shall have a pupil in the school. The trustees shall forward to each pupil, so appointed, a certificate of his appointment, returning also to the principal a list of pupils appointed to the school. If there shall not be a sufficient number of applicants from any county, to fill the number of appointments allowed to such county, the trustees shall fill the vacancy by lot from among the whole number of remaining applicants. To all pupils so admitted to the school, the tuition and all the privileges of the school shall be gratuitous.

SEC. 6. The said trustees are authorized to make provisions for a *Model Primary School*, under a permanent teacher approved by them, in which the pupils of the Normal School shall have opportunity to practice the modes of instruction and discipline inculcated in the Normal School.

SEC. 7. For the support of said Normal School, there is hereby appropriated the bonus derived from the "State Bank," and the interest which may accrue thereon; from which the sum of twenty-five hundred dollars, annually, for the term of four years, shall be paid to said trustees, with said interest, by order of the Comptroller, on the Treasurer of the State; no part of which sum shall be expended in any building or fixtures for said school.

Approved, June 22d, 1849.

Public Acts, May session, 1849.

EXTRACT from Section 1st of an Act incorporating the State Bank at Hartford.

"*Provided*, That the President and Directors of said bank shall pay into the treasury of this state the sum of ten thousand dollars, as a bonus, which sum shall be appropriated to the support of a Normal School in this state, in such ways and at such place as shall be provided by the Legislature."

Resolutions and Private Acts, May session, 1849.

EXTRACT from Section 12th of an Act incorporating the Deep River Bank.

"*Provided*, That before said bank shall commence discounting notes, the Directors of said bank shall pay to the treasurer of this state the sum of one thousand dollars for the purpose of sustaining a Normal School in this state."

Resolutions and Private Acts, May session, 1849.

"*Resolved*, That the Comptroller of Public Accounts be, and he hereby is directed to draw an order on the Treasurer of the State, payable to the trustees of the State Normal School, for the sum of one thousand dollars, heretofore deposited with said Treasurer, by the Deep River Bank, for the use of said School."

Resolutions and Private Acts, May session, 1850.

AN ACT in alteration of "An Act concerning Education."

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in General Assembly convened*, The Principal of the State Normal School.

shall be, ex-officio, Superintendent of Common Schools, whose duty it shall be to exercise a general supervision over the common schools of the state, to collect information from school visitors in the manner provided in the twenty-fifth section of the Act concerning Education, and from other sources, to prepare and submit an annual report to the General Assembly, containing a statement of the condition of the common schools of the state, plans and suggestions for the improvement and better organization of the common school system, and all such matters relating to his office and to the interests of education as he shall deem expedient to communicate.

SEC. 2. That the Superintendent appointed by virtue hereof be, and he is hereby authorized and directed to hold at one convenient place in each county of the state, in the months of September, October or November annually, schools or conventions of teachers, for the purpose of instructing in the best modes of governing and teaching our common schools, and to employ one suitable person to assist him at each of said schools.

SEC. 3. That the compensation of the Superintendent shall be three dollars per day, in full for his services while actually employed in performing the duties required of him by law, and shall be allowed his necessary disbursements for traveling expenses, stationery, printing and clerk-hire, in the business of said office. And the person or persons by him employed in assisting at said school, shall be allowed not exceeding three dollars per day for the time occupied in traveling to and from, and attending said school conventions; which compensation and disbursements shall be paid from the civil list funds of the state, after being taxed and allowed by the Comptroller, who shall draw an order on the State Treasurer therefor.

SEC. 4. That the Superintendent of Common Schools be, and he is hereby directed to give seasonable notice to each school society of the times and places of holding said schools or conventions, and such other notice to the teachers as he may deem expedient.

SEC. 5. That so much of the tenth section of the Act concerning Education as constitutes the Commissioner of the School Fund, ex-officio, Superintendent of Common Schools, and the resolve, passed in 1848, providing for employing persons to hold schools of teachers, and for holding the same, be, and the same are hereby repealed. *Provided*, that the Commissioner of the School Fund shall, ex-officio, remain Superintendent of Common Schools, exercising all the powers heretofore conferred on him, until the Principal of the State Normal School shall be appointed, and enter on the duties of said appointment.

Approved, June 22d, 1849.

Public Acts, May session, 1849.

FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE TRUSTEES OF THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL OF CONNECTICUT.

SUBMITTED MAY 15TH, 1850.

To the General Assembly of the State of Connecticut:

THE Board of Trustees of the State Normal School, in conformity to a requisition of the act for the establishment of the same, respectfully present their first Annual Report.

The Board, at its first meeting, on the 7th of August, after duly organizing, resolved to issue a public notice, inviting proposals for the location of the school, either permanent, or otherwise, as the act provides. To this invitation but one town made a prompt response, and for a time the projected institution seemed in danger of prospective defeat, from public apathy and indifference. After the lapse of some two or three months, the cause of this alarming silence was understood to proceed from the general impression which had gone abroad, that the institution was to be of a migratory nature, and pass from place to place, without remaining long enough anywhere, to gain a residence, and make its acquisition desirable. No adequate inducement was offered to the people of any locality in the state, to make the necessary outlay, and offer the proposals solicited.

To obviate this embarrassment, and induce the requisite proposals, the Board, at a subsequent meeting, in the exercise of the discretionary power vested in it, resolved, that, wherever located, the institution should be permanently established during four years, at least, the period contemplated by the act. Soon after it was understood that such action had been taken by the Board, the cloud of uncertainty which had hung over the fate of the projected institution, disappeared, and liberal offers were made by several towns in the central part of the state, which will be further noticed in the sequel of this report.

Another question of great moment, deeply involving the welfare of the institution, claimed and received the early attention of the Board, viz. who shall be its Principal? On the decision of this question, the Board felt that very much of the character and usefulness of the institution was depending; and it received that careful attention and anxious deliberation, which its importance seemed to demand. After consultation with the friends of the enterprise, in different parts of the state, and thoroughly canvassing the merits of several candidates, whose names had been presented, the Board came, unanimously, to the choice of the Hon. Henry Barnard, a gentleman well known in this state, by his former labors in the cause of popular education, as Secretary of the late Board of Education, and more recently Commissioner of Common Schools in the state of Rhode Island. His distinguished ability and zeal in the cause, coupled with his entire self-consecration, and large experience, constitute the surest guaranty of the successful discharge of the duties of the appointment, and that no effort will be lacking on his part, to give to the institution efficiency and utility. From the time when this appointment was conferred on Mr. Barnard, he has co-operated with the Board of which he is, ex officio, a member, in the preparatory labors of locating the school, and putting it in operation.

Up to the time of the meeting of the Board on the 15th of January, proposals for the location of the school had been received from the city of

Middletown, and from the villages of Farmington, New Britain, and Southington. A Committee on Location was, thereupon, appointed, to visit each of these localities, and ascertain, from personal observation and inquiry, their comparative advantages. A full hearing was, subsequently, given to the several applicants, in vindication of their respective claims to the location of the institution, and the spirit of competition elicited on the occasion was truly gratifying, inasmuch as it evinced a proper appreciation of the institution, on the part of those, at least, who were so laudably zealous for its acquisition. Of all the several offers thus made to the state, it may justly be said, that they were liberal, and highly creditable to the parties by whom they were presented. No one of them was so clearly superior to the others, as to preclude all doubt relative to their comparative eligibility. But lest, after all, there should be some misunderstanding between the parties and the Board, the following propositions were adopted by the latter, as the conditions on which the school should be established :

“The Trustees will expect a building, or buildings, to be provided, sufficiently large to accommodate 220 pupils, with suitable rooms for recitations and lectures, furnished with the necessary fixtures, and on a site acceptable to the Trustees. The plans and specifications thereof shall be furnished by the Principal of the School, and the building or buildings shall be acceptable to the Trustees. They will also expect such an apparatus to be furnished, as will be needed by the school, to the value of not less than one thousand dollars : and a library of books, chiefly on education, to the value of not less than five hundred dollars. They will also require one school to be placed at their disposal, as a Model School, the teacher of which shall be approved by the Trustees, but paid by the District. And, finally, while the Trustees will do all in their power to make the institution of such a character as shall reflect honor on the state, and be calculated to insure its perpetuity, yet, they wish it to be distinctly understood, that they can not, in any way, bind the state to continue the school for a longer period than four years, from April 1st, 1850 ; and they can not accept of any proposals which shall imply, directly, or indirectly, any obligation, on the part of the state, to make any reimbursement, at the end of four years, if the school should be discontinued at that time.

To the conditions thus set forth, the people of New Britain promptly and fully acceded, and raised, by private subscription, the sum of sixteen thousand dollars ; four thousand of which they propose to expend on their own schools of practice, to be connected with the Normal School, and the residue of twelve thousand dollars, they offer to the state for the purposes above specified. On the subsequent organization of the subscribers into a Joint Stock Company, they fixed the amount of their stock at twenty thousand dollars.”

While the Normal School edifice is in process of building, the present season, the Company have furnished and fitted up, for the temporary accommodation of the state, a spacious and commodious room in a public building, located near the center of the village, in which the Board is pleased to be able to announce the opening of the State Normal School, this day, (May 15th,) with thirty pupils in attendance, under the immediate supervision and instruction of Mr. T. D. P. Stone, as Associate Principal, a native citizen of this state, but for many years a highly successful teacher in the states of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, and for the last year the teacher of the Massachusetts State Reform School, located at Westborough. It may be proper to add, that Mr. Stone presented to the Board the most satisfactory credentials of excellence of character, and accomplishments as a teacher ; and no doubt is entertained, but that he will magnify the office thus confidently conferred upon him, and so far, at least,

as he is concerned, enable the friends of the institution to realize the fulfilment of their most sanguine hopes.

Superadded to the commendable liberality thus exhibited by the people of New Britain, the Board was particularly gratified by the spirit of unanimity and cordiality which accompanied and crowned their donation; and there can be no doubt, from the interest and enthusiasm already manifested on their part, that they will continue to foster and encourage an institution which they so highly and so justly appreciate, and which is so closely identified with the prosperity and reputation of their goodly village. The nascent germ, which they have so sedulously procured, and generously planted in their midst, will long receive their fostering care, and loving kindness, and, rising in growth and grandeur, is destined to become, not only the crowning ornament of the beautiful village in which it flourishes, but the ornament of the entire state.

The Board take this occasion to inform the Legislature, that the bonus of the Deep River Bank, which, by the condition of its charter, was to be applied for the benefit of the State Normal School, has been appropriated and deposited for this object; but no authority having been given to the Trustees, by the last Legislature, to receive the same, they would suggest that this inadvertency be remedied, by the passage of a resolution, authorizing the Board to receive the deposit, that it may be applied to its legitimate object.

The Trustees would moreover inform the General Assembly of the occurrence of four vacancies in their Board, two of which arise from the expiration of the shortest term of service prescribed by the act instituting the same; one for Fairfield, and the other for New London County; the third, owing to the decease, in the early part of the year, of our lamented associate, Francis Bacon, Esq., occurs for Litchfield County; and the fourth has been made by the resignation of the Rev. J. D. Baldwin, he having removed from the county of Windham, for which he was appointed; all of which the Legislature will please to fill by the appointment of men who, in addition to their other qualifications, shall be especially pre-eminent for that high degree of patriotism, and devotion to the Republic, which shall secure their services to the state, *without compensation*, agreeably to Section 3d of the act, which so plentifully provides, that the Trustees of the State Normal School "shall receive no compensation for their services."

In conclusion, the Board would take occasion to express the sincere gratification which they derive from the auspicious indications which attend the infancy of the institution committed to their charge; and with the harmonious and zealous co-operation of all concerned in its prosperity, they confidently anticipate for it a career of great usefulness and beneficence, in imparting increased efficiency to our system of public instruction, and in multiplying, augmenting, and diffusing the blessings of popular education.

In behalf of the Board,

FRANCIS GILLETTE, *Chairman.*

New Britain, May 15th, 1850.

EXTRACT

FROM THE

Fifth Annual Report of the Superintendent (Henry Barnard) of the Common Schools of Connecticut to the General Assembly, May session, 1850.

AFTER the lapse of a quarter of a century since the attention of the people of Connecticut was first called to the importance of providing for the special preparation of teachers of common schools for their arduous and responsible labors, the Legislature in 1849 appropriated the sum of ten thousand dollars, paid by the State Bank, and of one thousand dollars paid by the Deep River Bank, as a bonus for their respective charters, to meet the annual expenses of a State Normal School, or Teachers' Seminary, for a period of four years. Apart from my official connection with the institution, I felt it to be my duty as Superintendent of Common Schools, to do every thing in my power, not only to make its objects known, but to facilitate its early organization and opening, as the most important agency which could be employed by the state to increase the usefulness of the common schools, both as to the quality and amount of education given. So anxious were the trustees and officers of the institution to make a beginning of their enterprise, that without waiting for the complete outfit of buildings, apparatus and library, which the people of New Britain had pledged themselves to furnish on the location of the Normal School in that village, the school was opened on the 15th of the present month, (May,) under as favorable auspices, as to pupils and opportunities for imparting practical knowledge, as any of the seven Normal Schools which are now in successful operation on this continent. At the close of the first week, there were thirty-five Normal pupils in attendance, under the immediate instruction of Rev. T. D. P. Stone, the Associate Principal of the School, and upward of three hundred pupils from the village, in four Schools of Practice, under the charge of Mr. Stone, assisted by Prof. Guion, three female teachers and pupils of the Normal School. The four Schools of Practice are supported by the Central District of the New Britain School Society.

In the absence of any published rules of the Board of Trustees, regulating permanently the number of sessions in the year, and the length of each session, the subject and course of instruction, the period of attendance or degree of proficiency to entitle a pupil to the diploma of the institution, I will venture to set forth the general plans and aims of the officers who have been entrusted with the immediate care of the institution, for the purpose of making known its objects, and showing its probable influence on our common schools.

1. The officers of the Normal School believe that they could best promote the permanent improvement of the common schools of the state, by truly educating, and thoroughly training a few efficient teachers of the right stamp of character, physical, intellectual, esthetical and moral, and then securing their permanent employment at fair remunerating wages, at central points in different sections of the state, as Normal teachers in model school-houses; or, by being allowed to select every year out of such candidates as may be presented by the visitors for the several school societies, a small number of pupils who possess the health, gentleness of manners, fondness for children, purity of character, singleness of purpose and tact, that indicate a natural fitness for teaching, and then, retain them long enough to superadd such appropriate knowledge of the studies to be taught, and practical skill in arranging the classes and conducting the in-

struction and discipline of an elementary school, under the ordinary conditions of an agricultural district. But as either of these courses are impracticable under present circumstances, they will aim to benefit in such measure as they can, as many pupils as may apply for admission; to cooperate every year in such ways as shall be open to them, with as many teachers of the state as they can meet for professional improvement, whether the same shall be pupils of the school or not; to act by personal visits to the schools, and by public addresses, on as many societies and districts as their engagements at the Normal School will admit; and to prepare the public mind of the state generally, by precept and example, by voice and pen, as far and fast as they can, for more thorough and progressive steps of improvement in every department of the educational field.

2. The benefit of the Normal School to any pupil will be measured by the preparation each may bring in character, attainments and aptitude for the business, and the time and industry which may be devoted to the work. The officers of the school cannot encourage for a moment, the idea that a person who does not understand a subject thoroughly, can ever teach that subject well, or that a residence of a few weeks or months in the institution, however diligently and wisely employed, will be sufficient to gain a knowledge of the human mind, and of a child's mind in particular; of the studies which it is desirable to have well taught in our common schools, and of the best methods of teaching the same; of the motives which are to be appealed to to secure habits of study, order and obedience; and of all the technical and practical details of school keeping. They believe, however, that a person of quick observation, of some natural aptitude for the business, and a clear intellect of the average power and cultivation, can, with ordinary diligence and devotion, obtain much additional information, and some practical experience, correct many old errors and appropriate many valuable hints, and above all catch the true professional spirit, by even one term's residence at the school. A single visit to a good school; an hour's conversation with a good teacher; the reading of a single chapter in Emerson's "Schoolmaster," or Page's "Theory and Practice of Teaching," may be not only a help, but the starting point of a new life to the young teacher. The officers of the Normal School will, therefore, welcome any teacher or candidate for teaching, to the institution under their charge, for a visit of an hour or a residence of years.

3. By means of the regular classes in the Normal School and in the Schools of Practice, an opportunity will be offered to every member of the school to review thoroughly any one or all of the elementary studies required to be taught in the common schools of the state, and to extend his attainments in any of these studies, and such kindred branches as will facilitate his success as a teacher in any grade of common schools.

The reviews and recitations will be so conducted, as to methods and practical illustrations, as to make the studies far more interesting and profitable than they now are, whether regarded in the way of information, or as means of intellectual discipline, preparatory to those labors and duties of life which are most important and universal. A knowledge of the elements and structure of the English language, is justly deemed of paramount importance, and it is proposed so to teach it, as to give to every child who shall attend a common school with ordinary regularity and diligence, not only the ability to spell and read with accuracy and facility, but to converse and compose in it with a good degree of readiness and power, and at the same time acquire an earnest and discriminating taste for the choicest productions of American and English literature. Penmanship is now taught in every district school, and it is proposed to connect the exercises in this branch not only with constant practice in English composition, with book-keeping and other forms of business, but also

with the art of drawing, thus educating to a higher degree than mere writing can do, both the eye and the hand, rendering the one observant, and the other exact, and at the same time, training several important faculties of the mind, and imparting a power which can be turned to many useful purposes in every department of practical life.

In addition to the studies now generally taught in our schools, it is proposed to give some practical instruction in vocal music and physiology; and to those, whose previous training, or whose residence at the institution will be long enough to allow of this extension of the course without abridging the time and attention which are due to the elementary studies, a general view of the principles of agricultural chemistry and of domestic economy, will be presented.

4. Subjects will be taught in the Normal School rather than text books; and the manner in which the same subject is treated by several of the best authors, will be compared and discussed, in order that the graduates may be prepared to decide on the comparative merits of school books, whenever a change of text books is desirable in a school, and at the same time be able to teach the subjects properly, even if pupils of the same class should study the subject in different books.

5. The elementary studies will be thoroughly reviewed with constant practice on the blackboard, and by the aid of such maps, and cheap and simple apparatus as are now furnished in our best class of common schools, and are indispensable in all schools, not only that these studies may be more vividly apprehended, but that the teachers may be prepared to use means of practical and visible illustration whenever the same shall be furnished. For the want of knowledge of many useful applications of the blackboard in all of the elementary studies, even the blackboard is but little used at the present time by the teachers of our district schools.

6. In addition to familiar and practical suggestions on particular points in the organization, instruction and discipline of schools, as occasion may require, the same in the daily routine of the institution, lectures will be given on the history of education and schools; on the object and principles of public instruction in general, and of our own system in particular; on the art of teaching and its methods, and the application of these methods to each particular study; on the theory of discipline and its practice; on the peculiarities of a district school, as well as of other grades of schools; on the general principles of school architecture; on the legal position and relations of a teacher in our system of common schools; and a variety of other topics which need not be enumerated in this place. [*Topics for Discussion.*]

These topics will be examined by the pupils in the light of their own previous experience and observation, will be tested by contrast and comparison with the matter and manner of instruction and discipline in the institution, and its associated schools of practice, will be further investigated in the books on the history of education and schools, and the theory and practice of teaching in the library, and will be made the themes of oral discussion and written essays which will constitute a part of the regular routine of the Normal School.

7. The various principles which come under the general department of the theory and practice of teaching, will not only be exemplified as far as practicable in the management, instruction and discipline of the Normal Schools and the Schools of Practice, but an opportunity will be afforded to the pupils of the first, to apply the same in practice to such extent and in such manner as the previous education of each shall render expedient and desirable. To give the most thorough familiarity with the theory and practice of organizing and conducting common schools, and at the same time to enable a few at least of each class to continue their connection with the school, a certain number will be employed as assistant teach-

ers in the schools of the village, and, as far as practicable, of the neighboring districts. Opportunity will be given to such pupils to spend a portion of the vacations in visiting the best schools in different parts of the state, and in attending educational meetings of various kinds which may be appointed by the Superintendent of Common Schools. The pupils thus employed will embody in written reports the results of their observation and experience, which will be subject to the examination and criticism of the officers of the institution.

8. To cultivate a truly religious feeling, to lay the foundation and implant the motives for a truly religious life, to enable the teachers by precept and example rightly to develop the moral faculties, and to define and enforce the performance of all the great primary moral duties, in the schools which may be placed under their charge, will be one of the cardinal objects of the Normal School. Every suitable effort, consistent with perfect religious toleration, will be made, to give a deep moral and religious tone to all the exercises, and to the whole character of the institution, from a deep conviction that a sense of responsibility to God, and of love to man, must form the main-spring of a teacher's activity, while it is the surest pledge of success.

9. Occasional lectures on important topics of education, or even courses of lectures on subjects of intrinsic value, and which reflect light on the studies, labors and duties of the teacher's calling, will be secured from time to time from persons who have given to these subjects special preparation. In this way it is anticipated that the pupils will have the benefit of the counsel, experience and study of many wise and distinguished teachers and educators from this and other states.

10. No efforts will be spared, by correspondence and personal application, to assist the Normal pupils in obtaining permanent situations as teachers, according to the qualifications of each, and to promote their advancement from a school of a lower grade and compensation, to one of a more desirable character in both respects. Any aid which can be given to the graduates of the school by advice and coöperation, in their several fields of labor, will be cheerfully extended. An opportunity will be afforded to such as may wish to return to the institution for a short period to perfect or practice themselves in particular departments of instruction, in which on trial they may find themselves deficient. An anniversary meeting, or reunion of all the members of the school, will be encouraged at least once in a year. The State Teachers' Association will be invited to hold at least one meeting every year within the walls of the institution, where every facility at the command of its officers will be extended to make the teachers of the state welcome, and their session profitable and interesting. Every thing will be done by the officers of the school, which a strong desire can suggest, and unwearied efforts accomplish, to make the school worthy of the kind feeling and prompt coöperation of all who are, and of all who propose to become teachers in any grade of public or private schools in the state, to grapple as with bands of steel, and yet only by the sympathy of a common pursuit and the sense of reciprocal benefit, the pupils to the school, and the teachers of the state to each other, and to unite all hearts and all hands in the great work of the more complete, practical and universal education of the children of Connecticut.

11. To make the objects of the Normal School generally known, to interest young persons of the right character and views in the business of teaching, and induce them to connect themselves with the institution for a sufficient length of time to obtain the full benefits of a methodical course of theoretical and practical instruction, to coöperate with such pupils as may go out from the Normal School to teach in different parts of the state, to visit schools of different grades in large and small, in village and country districts, for the purpose of ascertaining their condition, suggest-

ing improvements, and adapting the instruction of the Normal School to the real deficiencies of elementary education, to establish pleasant social and professional relations with teachers, school officers and parents, it is the intention of the officers of the institution to attend Institutes, Teachers' Associations, and common school meetings of every name, to which they may be invited, or where they have reason to suppose their presence and coöperation will prove acceptable. It is believed, that in the course of the four years for which the enterprise is now planned, every school society, and a large majority of the sixteen hundred and fifty districts, will be visited by one or more of the teachers of the Normal School.

This department of labor is as necessary to the success of the enterprise as the instructions which may be given within the walls of the Normal School.

Among the results which will follow from the successful management of the State Normal School for a period of four years, now provided for by law, may be specified the following.

1. It will make an institution or institutions of this character, in some form, an indispensable feature of our common school system. This has been the uniform result in every country and every state where the experiment has been tried under favorable auspices. There is not on record a single instance of the abandonment of this agency for providing good teachers for public schools, whenever it has been tried under liberal legislative or governmental patronage. There are more than two hundred such schools now in successful operation in this country and in Europe, and every year is adding to the number.

2. It will thus supply the want which has long been known to exist by those who have given most attention to the improvement of common schools, of a place where young men and young women of the requisite natural qualifications, can acquire the science and the art of teaching without a series of experiments which are annually made at the expense of the health, faculties, and affections of the children placed under their charge. It will do for the future teacher what the direction of the master workman and the usual term and duties of apprenticeship do for the future mechanic; what the law school, and clerkship in the office of an older practitioner at the bar, do for the young lawyer; what the medical school, the practice in the hospital, or dissecting room, or study in the office of the experienced physician, do for the medical student. It is applying to the business of teaching the same preparatory study and practice which the common judgment of the world demands of every other profession and art. In this case it is provided for by the state, because the state has found it to be a matter of interest and duty;—of right in its strongest and best sense;—to look after the education of children, and to contribute toward the wages of the teacher; and to protect her own appropriations she should see that the teachers are properly qualified.

3. It will help to make teaching a permanent employment. The more truly efficient a teacher becomes, the more thoroughly the habits of his mind and life are moulded to his occupation, the more deeply his soul is imbued with the spirit of his profession, the less likely he is, and the less capable he becomes of changing his career, and the more he is fortified against the temptations to forsake it; and the example and success of one such teacher will have a powerful influence in determining the choice of many others just starting in the profession.

4. It will help to verify the vocation of the pupils to the profession for which they are preparing. The Normal School will be a very uncomfortable place for any person whose heart is not in the work, and who looks upon teaching, not as a calling, a mission, but as a meaningless routine, a daily task, imposed by necessity, or taken up because nothing better offered, and to be thrown aside as soon as a more lucrative occupa-

tion shall turn up, or open. It will be soon ascertained who enters upon the prescribed round of observation and practice, of reading and discussion, of study and lectures, with the enthusiasm of persons in earnest and in love with their business; and only such will be encouraged to persevere, or will be recommended as teachers on leaving the school.

5. While it is probable that much the largest number of teachers who become connected with the school will not remain long enough to experience the full benefit of what is understood to be a course of Normal instruction and training, still it is believed a small number at least will, and the good which a few teachers properly trained will do, will not be confined to the districts in which they are employed. Their schools will become model schools for other districts, and the awakening influence of their example and labors will be felt all around them. Teachers who have not enjoyed the advantages of such training, will strive to excel those who have, and thus a wholesome spirit of emulation will spring up among the teachers of the same neighborhood.

6. Through the direct and necessary influence of even a few good schools scattered all over the state; of schools made good, and seen and felt and acknowledged to be made good, by teachers who have gone out from this institution with improved and improving views of the nature, objects and methods of teaching, and by the many other modes in which the officers and pupils of this school propose to act on the public mind, the standard of teachers' qualifications and wages will be gradually and permanently raised. Good teachers will be in demand, and their services will command good wages. The contrast between a good teacher, and a poor one, will be seen and felt; and then the great commercial law of demand and supply will begin to operate. The want of good teachers will be felt; and then will follow the corresponding demand. The demand will induce young men and young women so to qualify themselves as to meet this want. And with a demand for and supply of the better article, the poor one will remain a drug in the market. The other obstacles which now remain in the way of the employment of good teachers will gradually and forever disappear. Old, dilapidated, inconvenient, and unhealthy school-houses will give place to new, attractive and comfortable structures; for districts having the first will find it difficult to secure the services of a good teacher, who will understand well the relations which a good house bears to his own health and his success both in government and instruction. That relic of barbarism, the practice of "boarding round," of compelling the teacher to live homeless and without the ordinary facilities and seclusion for study, of being subjected to inconveniences to which the lawyer, or clergyman, or mechanic are not subjected by their employers, will no longer remain a hindrance to the formation of a permanent, well qualified body of professional teachers.

7. It will do much in connection with Teachers' Institutes, Conventions, and Associations, to inspire and strengthen a professional feeling among teachers. All the advantages felt by those who prepare in common for other professions, or act in concert,—friendships, mutual encouragement and assistance in studies, discussions and comparisons of view, and the social position and influence which follow the association of large numbers in the same pursuit,—will be experienced. There has been till within a few years but little of this professional spirit. Good teachers have grown up and remained isolated. Their experience has furnished them with excellent methods, a social position, and adequate pecuniary return. But their number has been small and their influence has been hardly felt beyond their own school-rooms, much less has it been made to give elevation, character and amelioration to the profession generally.

8. It will do something toward building up a professional literature which shall embody the experience, reflection, and discussions of our own

teachers on the science and art of education as applied and developed in our common schools. The practice of writing essays in the Normal School on educational topics; of discussing the same subjects in public meetings of teachers and parents; of making reports to the Principal on the state of the schools in which they may be engaged, or which they may visit, will lead to the establishment and support of an Educational Periodical for their own benefit. By means of such a periodical, an active spirit of inquiry will be awakened and kept alive; improvements in each district will be announced and made the common property of the profession; wrong ideas in education will be exposed and exploded; and the sound practice of good teachers will be embodied in words and reduced to the precision of scientific principles.

9. The officers of this institution expect to find in many of the members of the school a strong natural impulse to the study of education, and an enthusiastic attachment to their future profession, as the noblest, holiest department of human exertion. Upon that class, be the same large or small, as they appear, do they rely for giving an impulse of a most powerful kind to educational improvement, and especially in fields for which the laborers are at present few. Whoever else may doubt, or falter or fail, these will not. Though called upon to labor in obscurity, they will toil on and find their happiness in their work. New difficulties will only nerve their hearts for sterner encounters.

These anticipations of good to the teachers, the schools, and the state, may all be darkened, postponed and defeated. Public confidence, which must be the breath of life to this enterprise, may be withheld, or withdrawn through the influence of sectarian jealousy, sectional prejudice, or party spirit. All that the officers of the Normal School can do, to avoid studiously all just occasions of offense, and to deserve the entire confidence of the people, the Legislature, and the teachers of the state, will be done. All they ask is a fair field, a reasonable amount of coöperation from school teachers and school officers, the charitable judgments of their fellow citizens, good health, and the blessing of God upon their labors.

TOPICS

FOR

DISCUSSION AND COMPOSITION ON THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATION.

1. The daily preparation which the teacher should bring to the school-room.
2. The circumstances which make a teacher happy in school.
3. The requisites of success in teaching.
4. Causes of failure in teaching.
5. The course to be pursued in organizing a school.
6. The order of exercises or programme of recitations.
7. The policy of promulgating a code of rules for the government of a school.
8. The keeping of registers of attendance and progress.
9. The duties of the teacher to the parents of the children and to school-officers.
10. The opening and closing exercises of a school.
11. Moral and religious instruction and influence generally.
12. The best use of the Bible or Testament in school.
13. Modes of promoting a love of truth, honesty, benevolence, and other virtues among children.
14. Modes of promoting obedience to parents, respectful demeanor to elders, and general submission to authority.
15. Modes of securing cleanliness of person and neatness of dress, respect for the school-room, courtesy of tone and language to companions, and gentleness of manners.
16. Modes of preserving the school-house and appurtenances from injury and defacement.
17. Length and frequency of recess.
18. The games, and modes of exercise and recreation to be encouraged during the recess, and at intermission.
19. Modes of preventing tardiness, and securing the regular attendance of children at school.
20. Causes by which the health and constitution of children at school are impaired, and the best ways of counteracting the same.
21. The government of a school generally.
22. The use and abuse of corporal punishment.
23. The establishment of the teacher's authority in the school.
24. Manner of treating stubborn and refractory children, and the policy of dismissing the same from school.
25. Prizes and rewards.
26. The use and abuse of emulation.
27. Modes of interesting and bringing forward dull, or backward scholars.
28. Modes of preventing whispering, and communication between scholars in school.
29. Manner of conducting recitations generally; and how to prevent or detect imperfect lessons.
30. Methods of teaching, with illustrations of each, viz :
 - a. Monitorial.
 - b. Individual.
 - c. Simultaneous.
 - d. Mixed.
 - e. Interrogative.
 - f. Explanative.
 - g. Elliptical.
 - h. Synthetical.
 - i. Analytical.
31. Modes of having all the children of a school (composed as most District schools are, of children of all ages, and in a great variety of studies,) at all times something to do, and a motive for doing it.

32. Methods of teaching the several studies usually introduced into public schools—such as—

- a.* The use, and nature, and formation of numbers.
- b.* Mental Arithmetic.
- c.* Written Arithmetic.
- d.* Spelling.
- e.* Reading.
- f.* Grammar—including conversation, composition, analysis of sentences, parsing, &c.
- g.* Geography—including map-drawing, use of outline maps, atlas, globes, &c.
- h.* Drawing—with special reference to the employment of young children, and as preliminary to penmanship.
- i.* Penmanship.
- j.* Vocal music.
- k.* Physiology—so far at least as the health of children and teacher in the school-room is concerned.

33. The apparatus and means of visible illustration, necessary for the schools of different grades.

34. The development and cultivation of observation, attention, memory, association, conception, imagination, &c.

35. Modes of inspiring scholars with enthusiasm in study, and cultivating habits of self-reliance.

36. Modes of cultivating the power and habit of attention and study.

37. Anecdotes of occurrences in the school, brought forward with a view to form right principles of moral training and intellectual development.

38. Lessons, on real objects, and the practical pursuits of life.

39. Topics and times for introducing oral instruction, and the use of lectures generally.

40. Manner of imparting collateral and incidental knowledge.

41. The formation of museums and collections of plants, minerals, &c.

42. Exchange of specimens of penmanship, map and other drawings, minerals, plants, &c., between the different schools of a town, or of different towns.

43. School examinations generally.

44. How far committees should conduct the examination.

45. Mode of conducting an examination by written questions and answers.

46. School celebrations, and excursions of the school, or a portion of the scholars, to objects of interest in the neighborhood.

47. Length and frequency of vacations.

48. Books and periodicals on education, schools and school systems.

49. Principles to be regarded in the construction of a school-house for schools of different grades.

50. Principles on which text-books in the several elementary studies should be composed.

51. The use of printed questions in text-books.

52. The private studies of a teacher.

53. The visiting of each other's schools.

54. The peculiar difficulties and encouragements of each teacher, in respect to school-house, attendance, supply of books, apparatus, parental interest and co-operation, support by committees, &c., &c.

55. The practicability of organizing an association of the mothers and females generally of a district or town, to visit schools, or of their doing so without any special organization.

56. Plan for the organization, course of instruction, and management generally of a Teachers Institute.

57. Advantages of an Association or Conference of the Teachers of a Town or State, and the best plan of organizing and conducting the same.

58. Plan of a Normal School or Seminary, for the training of Teachers for Common or Public Schools.

REMARKS

ON SEMINARIES FOR TEACHERS,

BY REV. THOMAS H. GALLAUDET.

THE following remarks originally appeared in the Connecticut Observer, published in Hartford, Conn., in a series of articles, with the signature of "A Father." The first article was dated the 5th of January, 1825.

No important result can be attained with regard to the accomplishment of any object which affects the temporal or eternal well-being of our species, without enlisting an entire devotedness to it, of intelligence, zeal, fidelity, industry, integrity, and practical exertion. What is it, that has furnished us with able divines, lawyers, and physicians? The undivided consecration of the talents and efforts of intelligent and upright individuals to these professions. How have these talents been matured, and these efforts been trained, to their beneficial results? *By a diligent course of preparation, and a long discipline in the school of experience.* We have our theological, law, and medical institutions, in which our young men are fitted for the pursuit of these respective professions, by deriving benefit from the various sources of information which libraries, lectures, and experiments afford. Unaided by such auxiliaries, genius, however brilliant; invention, however prolific; observation, however acute; ingenuity, however ready; and perseverance, however indefatigable, have to grope their way, through a long and tiresome process, to the attainment of results which a little acquaintance with the labors of others in the same track of effort, would render a thousand times more easy, rapid, and delightful. *Experience is the storehouse of knowledge.* Now why should not this experience be resorted to as an auxiliary in the education of youth? Why not make this department of human exertion, a profession, as well as those of divinity, law, and medicine? Why not have an *Institution for the training up of Instructors* for their sphere of labor, as well as institutions to prepare young men for the duties of the divine, the lawyer, or the physician?

Can a subject of more interest present itself to the consideration of the public? Does not the future improvement of our species, to which the philanthropist and the Christian look forward with such delightful anticipation, depend on the plans which are adopted for the development and cultivation of the intellectual and moral powers of man? Must not these plans begin with infancy and childhood? Do not the attainments of the pupil depend upon the talents, the fidelity, and the integrity of those by whom he is taught? How will he learn to think, to speak, to read, and to write with accuracy, unless his instructors are able to teach him? Shall their ability depend upon their individual experience and attainments? Are you satisfied with a divine, a lawyer, or a physician, who has qualified himself, or pretended to do so, for his profession, by solitary, unaided, unadvised, untaught, inexperienced efforts? You do not do this. Why not, then, require in the instructors of youth, to whom you commit the training up of your offspring, an adequate preparation for their most important and responsible employment?

But this preparatory discipline is considered indispensable not merely for the learned professions, but for the ordinary occupations of life. A term of years is required to fulfil the duties of an apprenticeship to any of the mechanical trades. An artisan does not venture to solicit the patronage of the public, till he has undergone this apprenticeship. This training under the instruction of experienced masters, is deemed of still more importance in

what are termed the liberal arts, such as painting, sculpture, and engraving. To foster them, academies are formed; models are collected; lectures are delivered; and the young novice is willing to devote years of patient and assiduous labor, to fit himself for success in his profession. We hear, too, of what is termed a regularly-bred merchant; and the drilling of the counter and the counting-house is considered indispensable to prepare one for all the complicated transactions of trade and commerce. And if men are to be trained to arms, academies are established, at which experience, ingenuity, and science are put in requisition, to qualify the young and inexperienced for military exploits. In fact, there is scarce any pursuit connected with the business of life, but what men have endeavored to render successful, by a process predicated on well-known principles of human nature;—by making it, in the first place, a *distinct* profession or calling; then, by yielding to those who have long been engaged in it the deference which their *experience* justly demands; and finally, by compelling those who would wish to adopt it, to *devote* themselves to it, and to pass through all the *preparatory* steps which are necessary for the consummation of their acquaintance, both with its *theory and practice*. In this way *only* we hope to form good mechanics, painters, engravers, sculptors, farmers, merchants, physicians, and lawyers.

Perhaps some of my illustrations may be considered of too humble a kind. But my subject is a very practical one, and I intend to treat it in a practical way. Permit me, then, to inquire of my readers, when they wish to get a *shoe* made, to whom they apply? Do they not take considerable pains to find a *first-rate* workman; one who has learned his trade well, and who can execute his work in the best manner? And when our wives and daughters want a new *bonnet*, or a new *dress*, will they not make a great many inquiries, and take not a few steps, and consume no small portion of very valuable time, to ascertain the important fact, who is the most skillful and tasteful milliner and seamstress within their reach; and are they not willing to undergo many inconveniences, and to wait till their patience is almost exhausted, and their wants very clamorous, in order to obtain the precious satisfaction of having the work done by hands whose skill and ingenuity have been long tested, and on whose experience and judgment in adjusting colors, and qualities, and proportions, and symmetry, and shape, they can safely rely?

Is a *shoe*, or a *bonnet*, to be put in competition with an *immortal mind*?

In your very articles of dress, to clothe a frail, perishable body, that is soon to become the prey of corruption, will you be so scrupulous in the choice of those whom you employ to make them; and yet feel no solicitude in requiring of those to whom is intrusted the formation of the habits, and thoughts and feelings of a soul that is to live for ever, a *preparation* for their most responsible task; an *apprenticeship* to their important calling; a *devotedness* to a pursuit which involves all that can affect the tenderest sympathies of a kind parent,—the most ardent hopes of a true patriot,—the most expanded views of a sincere philanthropist,—the most benevolent wishes of a devout Christian?

I am told that the Patent-office at Washington is thronged with models of machines, intended to facilitate the various processes of mechanical labor; and I read in our public prints, of the deep interest which is felt in any of those happy discoveries that are made to provide for the wants, and comforts, and luxuries of man, at an easier and a cheaper rate; and I hear those eulogized as the benefactors of our race, whose genius invents, and whose patient application carries into effect any project for winning some sheaves of wheat a little quicker, or spinning some threads of cotton a little sooner, or propelling a boat a little faster, than has heretofore been done; and, all this while, how comparatively few improvements are made in the process of educating the youthful mind; and in training it for usefulness in this life, and for happiness in the life to come!

Is human ingenuity and skill to be on the alert in almost every other field of enterprise but this? How can we reconcile our apathy on this subject with the duties which we owe to our children, to our country, and to our God?

Let the same provision, then, be made for giving success to this depart-

ment of effort that is so liberally made for all others. Let an institution be established in every state, for the express purpose of training up young men for the profession of instructors of youth in the common branches of an English education. Let it be so well endowed, by the liberality of the public, or of individuals, as to have two or three professors, men of talents and habits adapted to the pursuit, who should devote their lives to the object of the "Theory and Practice of the Education of Youth," and who should prepare and deliver, and print, a course of lectures on the subject.

Let the institution be furnished with a *library*, which shall contain all the works, theoretical and practical, in all languages, that can be obtained on the subject of education, and also with all the apparatus that modern ingenuity has devised for this purpose; such as maps, charts, globes, orreries, &c.

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

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

I have scarcely room to allude to the advantages which would result from such a plan. It would direct the attention, and concentrate the efforts, and inspire the zeal, of many worthy and intelligent minds to *one important* object. They would excite each other in this new career of doing good. Every year would produce a valuable accession to the mass of experience that would be constantly accumulating at such a store-house of knowledge. The business of instructing youth would be reduced to a system, which would embrace the best and the readiest mode of conducting it. This system would be gradually diffused throughout the community. Our instructors would rank, as they ought to do, among the most respectable professions. We should know to whom we intrusted the care and education of our offspring. These instructors, corresponding, as they naturally would, with the Institution which they had left, and visiting it, at its annual, and my imagination already portrays, delightful festivals, would impart to it, and to each other, the discoveries and improvements which they might individually make, in their separate spheres of employment.

In addition to all this, what great advantages such an institution would afford, by the combined talents of its professors, its library, its experimental school, and perhaps by the endowment of two or three fellowships, for this very object, for the *formation of the best books to be employed in the early stages of education*; a desideratum, which none but some intelligent mothers, and a few others who have devoted themselves to so humble, yet important an object, can duly appreciate.

Such an Institution, too, would soon become the center of information on all topics connected with the education of youth; and thus, the combined results of those individuals in domestic life, whose attention has been directed to the subject, would be brought to a point, examined, weighed, matured, digested, systematized, promulgated, and carried into effect.

Such an Institution would also tend to elevate the tone of public sentiment, and to quicken the zeal of public effort with regard to the correct intellectual and moral education of the rising generation.

To accomplish any great object, the co-operation of numbers is necessary. This is emphatically true in our republican community. Individual influence, or wealth, is inadequate to the task. Monarchs, or nobles, may singly devise, and carry into effect, Herculean enterprises. But we have no *royal* institutions; ours must be of more gradual growth, and perhaps, too, may aspire to more generous and impartial beneficence, and attain to more settled and immovable stability. Now to concentrate the attention, and interest, and exertions of the public on any important object, it must assume a definite and palpable form. It must have "a local habitation and name." For instance,

you may, by statements of facts, and by eloquent appeals to the sympathies of others, excite a good deal of feeling with regard to the deaf and dumb, or to the insane. But so long as you fail to direct this good will in some particular channel of practical effort, you only play round the hearts of those whom you wish to enlist in the cause. They will think, and feel, and talk, and hope that something will be done; but that is all. But erect your Asylum for the deaf and dumb, and your Retreat for the insane. Bring these objects of your pity together. Let the public see them. Commence your plans of relief. Show that something can be done, and *how* and *where* it can be done, and you bring into action that sympathy and benevolence which would otherwise have been wasted in mere wishes, and hopes, and expectations. Just so with regard to improvements in education. Establish an Institution, such as I have ventured to recommend, in every state. The public attention will be directed to it. Its Professors will have their friends and correspondents in various parts of the country, to whom they will, from time to time, communicate the results of their speculations and efforts, and to whom they will impart a portion of the enthusiasm which they themselves feel. Such an Institution, too, would soon become an object of laudable curiosity. Thousands would visit it. Its experimental school, if properly conducted, would form a most delightful and interesting spectacle. Its library and various apparatus would be, I may say, a novelty in this department of the philosophy of the human mind. It would probably, also, have its public examinations, which would draw together an assembly of intelligent and literary individuals. Its students, as they dispersed through the community, would carry with them *the spirit of the Institution*, and thus, by these various processes of communication, the whole mass of public sentiment, and feeling, and effort, would be imbued with it.

Another advantage resulting from such an Institution, would be, that it would lead to the investigation and establishment of those *principles of discipline and government* most likely to promote the progress of children and youth in the acquisition of intellectual and moral excellence. How sadly vague and unsettled are most of the plans in this important part of education, now in operation in our common schools. What is the regular and well-defined system of praise and blame; of rewards and punishments; of exciting competition or appealing to better feelings; in short, of cultivating the moral and religious temper of the pupil, while his intellectual improvement is going on, which now pervades our schools? Even the gardener, whom you employ to deck your flower beds, and cultivate your vegetables, and rear your fruit trees, you expect to proceed upon some matured and well-understood plan of operation. On this subject I can hardly restrain my emotions. I am almost ready to exclaim, shame on those fathers and mothers, who inquire not at all, who almost seem to care not at all, with regard to the *moral discipline* that is pursued by instructors in cultivating the temper and disposition of their children. On this subject, every thing depends on the character and habits of the instructor; on the plans he lays down for himself; on the modes by which he carries these plans into effect. Here, as in every thing else, *system* is of the highest importance. Nothing should be left to whim and caprice. What is to be this system? *Who* shall devise it? Prudence, sagacity, affection, firmness, and above all, *experience*, should combine their skill and effort to produce it. At *such an Institution* as I have proposed, these requisites would be most likely to be found. Then might we hope to see the heart improved, while the mind expanded; and knowledge, human and divine, putting forth its fruits, not by the mere dint of arbitrary authority, but by the gentler persuasion of motives addressed to those moral principles of our nature, the cultivation of which reason and religion alike inculcate.

It is feared by some that it will be impossible ever to produce a sufficient degree of public interest in such a project to carry it into effect.

I am not so sanguine as to think, that the whole mass of the community can, at once, be electrified, as it were, by any appeals, however eloquent, or any efforts, however strenuous, into one deep and universal excitement on this or any other topic. Information must be gradually diffused; the feelings

of influential men in various sections of the country must be enlisted; able writers in our public prints and magazines must engage their hearts and their pens in the cause.

In addition to all this, suppose that some intelligent and respectable individual, after having made himself master of the subject in all its bearings, and consulted with the wise and judicious within his reach, who might feel an interest in it, should prepare a *course of lectures*, and spend a season or two in delivering them in our most populous towns and cities. The novelty of this, if no other cause, would attract a great many hearers. Such an individual, too, in his excursions, would have the best opportunity of conferring with well-informed and influential men; of gaining their views; of learning the extent and weight of *all the obstacles* which such a project would have to encounter, and the best modes of removing them; and, if it should indeed appear deserving of patronage, of enlisting public sentiment and feeling in its favor.

But after all, I do not deem it, at present, necessary for the commencement of the plan which I have proposed, that any thing like an universal public interest should be taken in it.

If the experiment could, at first, be made upon a *small scale*; if such an Institution could be moderately endowed with funds sufficient to support one or two professors, and procure even the elements of a library, afterward to be enlarged as public or private bounty might permit; if it could be established in some town large enough to furnish from its youthful population, pupils to form its *experimental school*; and if only a few young men, of talents and worth, could be induced to resort to it, with an intention of devoting themselves to the business of instruction *as a profession*,—it would not, I think, be long before its practical utility would be demonstrated. The instructors, although few in number, who would, at first, leave the Institution, would probably be located in some of our larger towns. Their modes of instruction would be witnessed by numbers of the influential and intelligent, and, if successful, would soon create a demand for other instructors of similar qualifications. And as soon as such a demand should be produced, other individuals would be found willing to prepare themselves to meet it. And thus we might hope that both private and public munificence, so bountifully bestowed, at the present day, on other useful objects, would eventually contribute a portion of its aid to an establishment designed to train up our youth more successfully to derive benefit from *all the other efforts of benevolence, or institutions of literature and religion*, which are so widely extending their influence through every part of our highly-favored country.

Another obstacle, in the prosecution of such a plan, is the difficulty of inducing young men of character and talents to embark in it, and to devote themselves to the business of instruction for life.

I can not but hope that the time is not far distant, when the education of youth will assume, in the minds of intelligent and pious individuals, its proper place among the various other benevolent exertions which are made, through the aids of private and public bounty, for meliorating the temporal and eternal condition of man. In the mean while, can not a few young men, of talents and piety, be led to feel that the thousands of our rising generation, the hope of the church and the state, have strong claims upon their benevolence; and that to concentrate their time and their efforts to such an enterprise, may be as much their duty as to engage in the missionary cause? Missionaries make great sacrifices, and practice much self-denial, and endure weighty labors, without any prospect of temporal emolument, in order to train up *heathen youth* for usefulness in this world, and for happiness in the next; and can not those be found who will undergo some sacrifices, and self-denial, and labor, to bring about so great a good as a reformation in the instruction of those youth who are *bone of our bone, and flesh of our flesh*? Only admit the importance of the object, (and who can deny it!) and it almost looks like an impeachment of their Christian sincerity, to suppose that among those hundreds of young men who are pressing forward into the ranks of charitable enterprise, none can be persuaded to enter upon a domestic field of labor, which promises so much for the advancement of the Redeemer's kingdom.

No, only let the project be begun, let the way of usefulness be opened, let the countenance and support of even a few pious and influential individuals be afforded, and I am persuaded that agents to carry on the work, at least to commence it, will not be wanting.

The difficulty is not in being unable to procure such agents : it lies deeper : it arises from the very little interest that has yet been taken in the subject ; from the strange neglect, among parents, and patriots, and Christians, of a well-digested and systematic plan for the education of children and youth ; from the sluggish contentment that is felt with the long established modes of instruction ; and from the apprehensions that all improvements are either unsafe or chimerical.

Once rouse this apathy into the putting forth of a little exertion, and invest the subject with its true dignity and importance, and let it be felt that the church is under the most solemn obligations to feed *the lambs of her flock*, and your young men will come at her bidding, to spend their strength and their days in this delightful service.

But these young men are poor and can not defray the expense of a preparatory education at such a Seminary as has been proposed.

Poor young men are taken by the hand of charity, and prepared for other spheres of benevolent exertion ; and shall this wide, and as yet almost uncultivated field of benevolence be quite neglected, for the want of a little pecuniary aid ? Who gave the first impulse to Foreign Missionary efforts ? Was nothing done until *the whole Christian public* was awakened to a sense of its duty ? Did this mighty enterprise begin in the collected councils of the grave and the venerable fathers of the church ? Was the whole plan of operation digested and matured in all its parts, and no steps taken until *all obstacles* were removed, and patronage, and influence, and means collected and concentrated to insure the successful prosecution of the vast design ? No ; long, long before all this complicated machinery was put in motion, the master-spring was at work, and a few pious and prayerful young men gave an impulse, at first to private zeal, and afterward to public co-operation, and the result fills us with gratitude and astonishment.

Let a MILLS and his associates arise to a hearty engagedness in the project of diffusing throughout our country a system for the best mode of conducting the education of youth ; let their faith be strong, and their perseverance unwavering ; and influence and wealth will soon contribute their share in the prosecution of the work ; and *poverty* on the part of those who are willing to endure *the heat and burden of the day*, will cease to be an obstacle in the way of accomplishing their benevolent designs. Providence can, in this, as in all the other departments of his dispensations, make even the selfish passions of our nature contribute to the promotion of good and charitable exertions.

Those who should devote themselves to the business of the instruction of youth *as a profession*, and who should prepare themselves for it by a course of study and discipline at such a Seminary as I have proposed, would not find it necessary, as our missionaries do, to depend on the charity of their countrymen for support. Their talents, their qualifications, and their recommendations, would inspire public confidence, and *command public patronage*. For experience would soon prove, if it can not be now seen in prospect, that to *save time* in the education of youth, and to have this education *complete* instead of being imperfect, and to prepare the youthful mind for *accurate thought, and correct feeling, and practical, energetic action, in all the business of life, is to save money* ; and even those who now expend a few dollars with so niggardly a hand, in the education of their dear, immortal offspring, would soon learn how to calculate on the closest principles of loss and gain, in the employment of instructors, and be willing to give *twice as much* to him who would do his work *twice as well and in half the time*, as they now give to him who has neither skill nor experience in his profession.

Am I extravagant in these speculations ? I think I am not ; and if my readers will exercise a little more patience, I hope to show, that in adopting the plan which I have proposed, there will be an actual *saving of money* to individuals and to the state in addition to those numerous advantages in a

social, political, and religious point of view, that would result from it, and which are, if I mistake not, so great, that if they could not be attained in any other way, a pecuniary sacrifice ought not for a moment to stand in competition with them.

My reasoning is founded on two positions which, I think, can not be controverted;—that the present modes of instructing youth are susceptible of vast improvement; and that if these improvements could be carried into operation, by having a more effectual system of education adopted, and by training up instructors of superior attainments and skill, there would be a great saving, both of time and labor, and of all the contingent expenses necessary to be incurred.

Suppose, for the sake of argument, though I believe it falls short of the truth, that eight years of pretty constant attendance at school, counting from the time that a child begins to learn his letters, is necessary to give him what is called a good English education. I do not fear to hazard the assertion, that under an approved system of education, with suitable books prepared for the purpose, and conducted by more intelligent and experienced instructors, as much would be acquired in *five years*, by our children and youth, as is now acquired in *eight*.

Now with regard to those parents who calculate on receiving benefit from the *labor of their children*, it will easily be seen that, by gaining three years out of eight in the course of their education, there will be an immense saving to the state. This saving alone would, I apprehend, if youth were usefully employed, more than defray the additional wages which would have to be given to instructors of skill and experience, and who should devote themselves to their employment as a profession for life. But if even the advantage to be derived from the labor of children is not taken into the account, it is evident that, for having the same object accomplished in five years that now consumes eight, you could at least afford to pay as much for five years of instruction as you now pay for eight. In addition to this, as it is the custom in many of our country towns for the instructor to board in the families of those who send children to school, there would be a saving also in this respect. There would be a saving, too, with regard to all the contingent expenses of the school, such as books, stationery, wood, &c.

In a community constituted like that of New England, where so great a proportion of its population is devoted to agricultural and mechanical pursuits, any system of education which could save the public three years out of eight of the time and labor of all its children and youth, would, it is manifest, add an immense sum to the pecuniary resources of the country, and recommend itself to every patriot and philanthropist, even on the most rigid principles of a calculating economy.

Besides, the grand objects of education—to prepare the rising generation for usefulness and respectability in life, and to train them up for a better and happier state of existence beyond the grave—would not only be accomplished in a shorter space of time, but they would be much more effectually accomplished. At present, with all the time, and labor, and expense bestowed upon it, *the work is only half done*; and the effects of our imperfect modes of instruction are to render youth far less competent to succeed in any pursuits in which they may engage, than if their education was conducted by intelligent instructors, on a well-digested plan, and made as thorough and complete as it might be.

How often has the individual of native vigor of intellect and force of enterprise to lament, through a long life of unremitting effort, his many disappointments in the prosecution of his plans of business, arising altogether from the defects of his early education! And if this early education were properly conducted, what an accession it would yield to the resources of the community, in the superior ingenuity and skill of our artists; in the more accurate and systematic transactions of our merchants; in the profounder studies and more successful labors of our professional men; in the wider experience and deeper sagacity of our statesmen and politicians; in the higher attainments and loftier productions of our sons of literature and sci-

ence ; and, permit me to add, in the nobler patriotism, the purer morals, and the more ardent piety of the whole mass of our citizens.

I know it is no easy task to convince some minds that all these advantages yield just so many dollars and cents to the private purse, or to the public treasury. But my appeal is to those who take a more comprehensive view of what constitutes the real wealth of any community, and who estimate objects not by what they will to-day fetch in the market, if exposed to sale, but by their effects upon the permanent well-being and prosperity of the state.

With such I leave the candid consideration of the remarks which I have offered in this and the preceding Essays ; in the mean while, cherishing the hope, that that Being who is now most wonderfully adjusting the various enterprises of benevolence, that distinguish the age in which we live from all others which have preceded it, to the consummation of His gracious designs for the universal happiness of man, on the principles which the gospel of Jesus Christ inculcates, and which it alone can produce, will, sooner or later, and in some way or other, rouse the attention, and direct the efforts of the Christian world to *that department of philanthropic exertion*, the neglect of which must retard, if not quite counteract, complete success in all others,—*the education of youth.*”

After the lapse of a quarter of a century, the author of the above remarks had the satisfaction of being present on the 15th of May, 1850, at New Britain, and of taking part in exercises appropriate to the opening of the “Normal School, or Seminary for the training of teachers in the art of instructing and governing the common schools of this state.” The members of the school, during the first term, formed an Association for mutual improvement, to which they have given the name of the “Gallaudet Society,” as an evidence of their appreciation of his early and long-continued labors to bring about the establishment of a Normal School in Connecticut.

FIRST ANNUAL CIRCULAR

OF THE

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT NEW BRITAIN.

THE State Normal School or "Seminary for the training of teachers in the art of teaching and governing the Common Schools" of Connecticut, was established by act of the Legislature, May session, 1849, and the sum of eleven thousand dollars was appropriated for its support for a period of at least four years.

The sum appropriated for the support of the school is derived not from the income of the School Fund, or any of the ordinary resources of the Treasury, but from a bonus of ten thousand dollars paid by the State Bank, at Hartford, and of \$1000 paid by the Deep River Bank, for their respective charters. No part of this sum can be expended in any building or fixtures for the school, or for the compensation of the trustees.

The entire management of the Institution, as to the application of the funds, the location of the school, the regulation of the studies and exercises, and the granting of diplomas, is committed to a Board of Trustees, consisting of the Superintendent of Common Schools, ex officio, and one member for each of the eight counties of the state, appointed by the Legislature, two in each year, and to hold their office for the term of four years, and serve without compensation. The Board must submit an annual report as to their own doings, and the progress and condition of the seminary.

The Normal School was located permanently in New Britain, on the 1st of February, 1850, after full consideration of the claims and offers of other towns, on account of the central position of the town in the state, and its accessibility from every section by railroad; and also in consideration of the liberal offer on the part of its citizens, to provide a suitable building, apparatus, and library, to the value of \$16,000, for the use of the Normal School, and to place all the schools of the village under the management of the Principal of the Normal School, as Schools of Practice.

The building provided for the accommodation of the Normal School, and the Schools of Practice, when completed, will contain three large study-halls, with nine class-rooms attached, a hall for lectures and exhibitions, a laboratory for chemical and philosophical experiments, an office for the Principal and trustees, a room for the library, and suitable accommodations for apparatus, clothes, furnaces, fuel, &c. The entire building will be fitted up and furnished in the most substantial manner, and with special reference to the health, comfort and successful labor of pupils and teachers. In addition to the Normal School building, there are three houses located in different parts of the village, for the accommodation of the primary schools belonging to the Schools of Practice.

The immediate charge of the Normal School, and Schools of Practice, is committed to Rev. T. D. P. Stone, Associate Principal, to whom all communications relating to the schools, can be addressed.

The school was opened for the reception of pupils, on Wednesday, the 15th of May, 1850, and the first term closed on Tuesday, October 1st. The number of pupils in attendance during the term, was sixty-seven; thirty males, and thirty-seven females.

The second term will commence on Wednesday, the 4th of December,

1850, and continue till the third Wednesday in April, 1851, divided into two sessions as given below.

TERMS AND VACATIONS.—The year is divided into two terms, Summer and Winter, each term consisting of two sessions.

The first session of the winter term commences on the first Wednesday of December, and continues fourteen weeks. The second session of the winter term commences on the third Wednesday of March, and continues six weeks.

The first session of the summer term commences on the third Wednesday of May, and continues twelve weeks. The second session of the summer term commences on the third Wednesday of August, and continues six weeks.

To accommodate pupils already engaged in teaching, the short session of each term will, as far as shall be found practicable, be devoted to a review of the studies pursued in the district schools in the season of the year immediately following, and to a course of familiar lectures on the classification, instruction and discipline of such schools.

ADMISSION OF PUPILS.—The highest number of pupils which can be received in any one term, is two hundred and twenty.

Each school society is entitled to have one pupil in the school; and no society can have more than one in any term, so long as there are applicants from any society, at the time unrepresented. Until the whole number of pupils in actual attendance shall reach the highest number fixed by law, the Principal is authorized to receive all applicants who may present themselves, duly recommended by the visitors of any school society.

Any person, either male or female, may apply to the school visitors of any school society for admission to the school, who will make a written declaration, that their object in so applying is to qualify himself (or herself) for the employment of a common school teacher, and that it is his (or her) intention to engage in that employment, in this state.

The school visitors are authorized to forward to the Superintendent of Common Schools, in any year, the names of four persons, two of each sex, who shall have applied as above, for admission to the school, and who shall have been found on examination by them, "possessed of the qualifications required of teachers of common schools in this state," and whom they "shall recommend to the trustees as suitable persons, by their age, character, talents, and attainments, to be received as pupils in the Normal School."

Applicants duly recommended by the school visitors, can forward their certificate directly to the Associate Principal of the Normal School at New Britain, who will inform them of the time when they must report themselves to be admitted to any vacant places in the school.

Persons duly recommended, and informed of their admission, must report themselves within the first week of the term for which they are admitted, or their places will be considered as vacated.

Any persons, once regularly admitted to the Normal School, can remain connected with the same, for three years, and will not lose their places, by temporary absence in teaching common schools in the state—such experience, in connection with the instruction of the Institution, being considered a desirable part of a teacher's training.

STUDIES.—The course of instruction will embrace:—1. A thorough review of the studies pursued in the lowest grade of common schools. 2. An acquaintance with such studies as are embraced in the highest grade of common schools, authorized by law, and which will render the teaching of the elementary branch more thorough and interesting. 3. The art of teaching and its methods, including the history and progress

of education, the philosophy of teaching and discipline, as drawn from the nature of the juvenile mind, and the application of those principles under the ordinary conditions of our common schools.

The members of the school will be arranged in three classes—Junior, Middle and Senior. All pupils, on being admitted to the school, will be ranked in the *Junior Class*, until their familiarity with the studies of the lowest grade of common schools have been satisfactorily tested. The *Middle Class* will embrace those who are pursuing the branches usually taught in Public High Schools. The *Senior Class* will comprise those who are familiar with the studies of the Junior and Middle Classes, or who are possessed of an amount of experience in active and successful teaching, which can be regarded as a practical equivalent. All the studies of the school will be conducted in reference to their being taught again in common schools.

PRACTICE IN THE ART OF TEACHING AND GOVERNING SCHOOLS.—The several schools of the First School District, comprising the village of New Britain, are placed by a vote of the District, under the instruction and discipline of the Associate Principal, as Model Schools, and Schools of Practice, for the Normal School. These schools embrace about four hundred children, and are classified into three Primary, one Intermediate, and one High School. The course of instruction embraces all the studies pursued in any grade of common schools in Connecticut. The instruction of these schools will be given by pupils of the Normal School, under the constant oversight of the Associate Principal and Professors.

TEXT BOOKS.—A Library of the best text books, in the various studies pursued in the schools, is commenced, and already numbers upward of four thousand volumes. Pupils are supplied with text books in such studies as they may be engaged, at a charge, barely sufficient to keep the books in good condition, and supply such as may be injured or lost. Arrangements have also been made to furnish teachers who wish to own a set of text books at the publishers' lowest wholesale price.

APPARATUS.—The sum of one thousand dollars is appropriated for the purchase of apparatus, which will be procured from time to time, as the wants of the school may require. As far as practicable, such articles of apparatus will be used in the class-rooms of the Normal School, as can be readily made by teachers themselves, or conveniently procured at low prices, and be made useful in the instruction of District Schools.

LIBRARY.—The school is already furnished with the best works on the Theory and Practice of Education, which the Normal pupils are expected to read, and on several of which they are examined. The library will be supplied with Encyclopedias, Dictionaries, and other books of reference, to which free access will be given to members of the school.

BOARD.—Normal pupils must board and lodge in such families, and under such regulations, as are approved by the Associate Principal.

The price of board, including room, fuel, lights and washing, in private families, ranges from \$2.00 to \$2.50 per week. Persons, expecting to join the school, should signify their intention to the Associate Principal, as early as practicable, before the commencement of a term, that there may be no disappointment in the place and price of board.

DISCIPLINE.—The discipline of the institution is committed to the Associate Principal, who is authorized to secure the highest point of order and behavior by all suitable means, even to a temporary suspension of a pupil from the schools. The age of the pupils, the objects which bring them to a Normal School, and the spirit of the institution itself, will, it is

believed, dispense with the necessity of a code of rules. The members are expected to exemplify in their own conduct, the order, punctuality, and neatness of good scholars, and exhibit in all their relations, Christian courtesy, kindness and fidelity.

EXAMINATION AND INSPECTION.—The school will be visited each term by a committee of the trustees, who will report the results of their examination to the Board.

There will be an examination at the close of each term, before the whole Board, and at the close of the summer term, the examination will be public, and will be followed by an exhibition.

The school is at all times open to inspection, and school visitors, teachers, and the friends of education generally in the state, are cordially invited to visit it at their convenience.

DIPLOMA.—The time required to complete the course of instruction and practice, which shall be deemed by the trustees a suitable preparation for the business of teaching, and entitle any applicant to a Diploma of the Normal School, will depend on the age, attainments, mental discipline, moral character, and evidence of practical tact in instruction and government of each applicant.

No diploma will be given to any person who does not rank in the Senior Class, and has not given evidence of possessing some practical talent as a teacher in the Schools of Practice, or in the District Schools of the state.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

A portion of the vacation in the spring and autumn, will be devoted by the Officers of the Normal School, to Teachers' Institutes, or Conventions, in different parts of the state.

At least two of these Institutes will be held in the spring, for the special benefit of teachers who may be engaged, or expect to teach district schools in the summer following.

COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Principal, or one of the Professors of the Normal School, will attend, on invitation and due notice, at every regular meeting of any County Teachers' Association, which shall continue in session through two evenings and one day, and assist in the lectures, discussions and other exercises of the occasion.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The State Teachers' Association has voted to hold an annual meeting at New Britain during the examination at the close of the summer term of the Normal School, and a special meeting at the dedicatory exercises at the completion of the Normal School in the spring. Arrangements will be made to entertain all members of the Association, during the meeting.

*Adopted at a meeting of the Board of Trustees, held at New Britain,
Oct. 1, 1850.*

FRANCIS GILLETTE, *President.*

HINTS TO SCHOOL VISITORS

RESPECTING

APPLICANTS FOR ADMISSION TO THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

By the First Annual Circular of the Trustees of the State Normal School, the undersigned are directed, for the present, to receive as pupils, all persons whom the visitors of any School Society shall recommend as suitable persons, by their age, character, and attainments, for this purpose. Upon your recommendation will depend, in no small degree, the character and usefulness of this institution.

We beg of you, therefore, as far as you can, to send us candidates for admission to the Normal School, who possess

1. Purity and strength of moral and religious character,—an exemplary life, and the habit of self-government, and of subjecting their own actions to the test of moral and religious principle.

2. Good health,—a vigorous and buoyant constitution, and a fund of lively, cheerful spirits. The business of teaching demands liveliness and activity both of mind and body.

3. Good manners,—and by this, we mean those manners which are dictated by the spirit of our Saviour's Golden Rule, of doing unto others as we would that others should do unto us,—in *manner* as well as in *matter*.

4. A love of, and sympathy with, children.

5. A competent share of talent and information,—such as the law (Section 22) demands of every teacher, and which you are required by the Act establishing this School, to ascertain by actual examination. The proposed course of instruction in the Normal School can not create, it can only improve, the talent and information of its pupil-teachers.

6. A native tact and talent for teaching and governing others. No amount of instruction and practice can supply a deficiency in these respects.

7. A love for the occupations of the school-room, and a desire to engage in the business of teaching for life.

8. The Common School spirit—if need be, a martyr spirit, to live and die, for the more thorough, complete and practical education of all the children of the State in the Common Schools—to be made, by their exertions, in co-operation with parents and school officers, good enough for the best, and cheap enough for the poorest.

9. Some experience as teachers. Even a short experience will serve to develop, if they possess them, the germs of the above qualities and qualifications, and will make even a brief course of instruction in the Normal School highly profitable.

HENRY BARNARD, *Principal of State Normal School.*
T. D. P. STONE, *Associate Principal.*

EXTRACT FROM SECTION 22, CHAPTER II., OF THE STATUTES OF CONNECTICUT.

“The Board of Visitors shall themselves, or by a Committee by them appointed for that purpose, examine all candidates for teachers in the Common Schools of [each] society, and shall give to those persons with whose moral character, literary attainments, and ability to teach, they are satisfied, a certificate, setting forth the branches he or she is found capable of teaching: provided that no certificate shall be given to any person, not found qualified to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar thoroughly, and the rudiments of geography and history.”

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

THE earliest of the class of meetings now known as Teachers' Institutes in Connecticut, was held at Hartford in 1839, and continued in session four weeks. A similar meeting for the benefit of female teachers was held in the spring of 1840. In 1846 a convention of two hundred and fifty teachers assembled in Hartford, and continued in session five days. In 1847 the Legislature made provision for holding two meetings of this kind, of one week each, in each county of the State; and by the act of 1849, it is made the duty of the Superintendent "to hold at one convenient place in each county of the State, in the months of September, October, or November annually, schools or conventions of teachers, for the purpose of instructing in the best modes of governing and teaching our common schools, and to employ one suitable person to assist him at each of said schools."

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS.

The State makes no provision for the publication of an educational paper. In 1838, the Connecticut Common School Journal was commenced by the Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, and continued by him till the abolition of the Board in 1842. In 1846, the Connecticut School Manual was commenced by Rev. Merrill Richardson, and continued for two years, when it was suspended for the want of patronage. In 1850, the Superintendent, in pursuance of a plan set forth in his report to the Legislature of that year, was authorized to prepare and issue a series of publications of the most important topics connected with the condition and improvement of common schools. The series will embrace, 1. Legislation of Connecticut respecting Common Schools. 2. Condition of the Common Schools in each town and district. 3. School houses. 4. Normal Schools and other agencies for the professional education of teachers. 5. Attendance and classification of children at school. 6. System of organization for common schools in cities and large districts. 7. Means of popular education in manufacturing villages. 8. Course of instruction in a small country district school. 9. Text Book and Apparatus. 10. School Inspection. 11. Means and mode of supporting schools. 12. Parental and public interest in common schools. 13. Public schools in other states and countries.

PUBLIC ADDRESSES AND SCHOOL INSPECTION.

The Legislature in 1850 authorized the Superintendent to secure the delivery of at least one address in a public meeting of parents, school officers, and teachers in each School Society, on topics connected with the improvement of the common schools in respect to organization, administration, instruction, and discipline. Under this power, the superintendent is aiming to illustrate some of the advantages of a system of county inspection and reports.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

The first association of teachers in Connecticut, and as far as we have any knowledge, in the United States, was formed at Middletown, in 1798, under the name of the "School Association for Middlesex County." Its objects, as set forth in a printed circular in 1799, were "to promote a systematic course of instruction, and elevate the character and qualifications of teachers."

A State Teachers' Association was formed in 1847, and County Associations of teachers exist in the counties of Fairfield, Windham, New-Haven, New-London, and Litchfield. The State does not make any appropriation in aid of the objects of these associations, and the attendance of teachers is not encouraged by local school officers.

MASSACHUSETTS

To James G. Carter, of Lancaster, belongs the credit of having first called public attention in Massachusetts, to the necessity and advantages of an institution devoted exclusively to the professional training of teachers, in a series of articles in the *Boston Patriot*, with the signature of "Franklin," in the winter of 1824-5. After fifteen years of constant appeals to the people and the Legislature, by himself and others, through the press and in every form of public address, report, and memorial, he had the satisfaction of seeing his plan realized by two brief Resolves of the Legislature, passed on the 19th of April, 1838. For this action of the Legislature, the gratitude of the friends of education in Massachusetts, and in the whole country, are specially due to the munificence of the late Edmund Dwight, of Boston, as set forth in the Report and Resolves on the following page.

We intended to preface this account of the Massachusetts State Normal Schools, with a sketch, mainly documentary, of the efforts put forth by many individuals,—in public stations and in private life—in the Legislature and out of it—in conventions and associations of teachers and school officers—through the periodical press, from the country newspaper to the quarterly review—and in every form of public address and report, whether prepared for the district school meeting or for halls of legislation,—for the professional improvement of teachers in all departments. With much diligence, and by an extensive correspondence, we have collected the writings and notices of the labors of Carter, Lincoln, Russell, Woodbridge, Alcott, Burnside, Baily, Emerson, Brooks, Morton Everett, Rantoul, Channing, Mann, Stowe, Humphrey, and others; with an account of the experiment of the Teachers' Seminary at Andover, of the proceedings of the American Institute of Instruction, the Essex County Teachers' Association, and the State Teachers' Association, the Board of Education, the *Journal and Annals of Education*, the *Common School Journal*, the *Massachusetts Teacher*, the Annual Reports of Town School Committees, and other institutions and agencies by which the public mind of Massachusetts has been enlightened on the necessity and means of common school improvement, beyond any other state. But ill health, and other causes, forbid the completion of my original plan at this time.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The following brief account of the history and organization of the State Normal Schools, in Massachusetts, is copied from the "Tenth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education."

"In a communication made by the Secretary of the Board of Education to the Legislature, dated March 12, 1838, it was stated that private munificence had placed at his disposal the sum of ten thousand dollars, to be expended, under the direction of the Board of Education, for qualifying teachers for our Common Schools, on condition that the Legislature would place in the hands of the Board an equal sum, to be expended for the same purpose.

On the 19th of April, of the same year, resolves were passed, accepting the proposition, and authorizing the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Council, to draw his warrant upon the treasurer for the sum of ten thousand dollars, to be placed at the disposal of the Board for the purpose specified in the original communication."

The following is a copy of the Resolve and of the Report of the Committee on the subject :

"The Joint Committee, to whom was referred the communication of the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, relative to a fund for the promotion of the cause of popular education in this Commonwealth, and also the memorial of the Nantucket County Association for the promotion of education, and the improvement of schools, and also the petition and memorial of the inhabitants of the town of Nantucket, on the same subject, having duly considered the matter therein embraced, respectfully report,

That the highest interest in Massachusetts is, and will always continue to be, the just and equal instruction of all her citizens, so far as the circumstances of each individual will permit to be imparted; that her chief glory, for two hundred years, has been the extent to which this instruction was diffused, the result of the provident legislation, to promote the common cause, and secure the perpetuity of the common interest; that for many years a well-grounded apprehension has been entertained, of the neglect of our common town schools by large portions of our community, and of the comparative degradation to which these institutions might fall from such neglect; that the friends of universal education have long looked to the Legislature for the establishment of one or more seminaries devoted to the purpose of supplying qualified teachers, for the town and district schools, by whose action alone other judicious provisions of the law could be carried into full effect; that at various times, the deliberation of both branches of the General Court has been bestowed upon this, among other subjects, most intimately relating to the benefit of the rising generation and of all generations to come, particularly when the provision for instruction of school teachers was specially urged on their consideration, in 1827, by the message of the Governor, and a report thereupon, accompanied by a bill, was submitted by the chairman, now a member of the Congress of the United States, following out to their fair conclusions, the suggestion of the Executive, and the forcible essays of a distinguished advocate of this institution at great length, published and widely promulgated; that although much has been done within two or three years, for the encouragement of our town schools by positive enactment, and more by the liberal spirit, newly awakened in our several communities, yet the number of competent teachers is found, by universal experience, so far inadequate to supply the demand for them, as to be the principal obstacle to improvement, and the greatest deficiency of our republic; that we can hardly expect, as in the memorials from Nantucket is suggested, to remove this deficiency even in a partial degree, much less to realize the completion of the felicitous system of our free schools, without adopting means for

more uniform modes of tuition and government in them, without better observing the rules of prudence in the selection of our common books, the unlimited diversity of which is complained of throughout the State, and that these benefits may reasonably be expected to follow from no other course than a well-devised scheme in full operation, for the education of teachers; that the announcement, in the communication recently received from the Secretary of the Board of Education, of that private munificence, which offers \$10,000 to this Commonwealth, for removal of this general want, at least in the adoption of initiatory measures of remedy, is received by us with peculiar pleasure, and, in order that the General Court may consummate this good, by carrying forward the benevolent object of the unknown benefactor, the committee conclude, with recommending the passage of the subjoined resolutions.

All which is respectfully submitted,

JAMES SAVAGE, per order.

RESOLVES

RELATIVE TO QUALIFYING TEACHERS FOR COMMON SCHOOLS.

Whereas, by letter from the Honorable Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, addressed, on the 12th March current, to the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives, it appears, that private munificence has placed at his disposal the sum of ten thousand dollars, to promote the cause of popular education in Massachusetts, on condition that the Commonwealth will contribute from unappropriated funds, the same amount in aid of the same cause, the two sums to be drawn upon equally from time to time, as needed, and to be disbursed under the direction of the Board of Education in qualifying teachers for our Common Schools; therefore,

Resolved, That his Excellency, the Governor, be, and he is hereby authorized and requested, by and with the advice and consent of the Council, to draw his warrant upon the Treasurer of the Commonwealth in favor of the Board of Education, for the sum of \$10,000, in such installments and at such times, as said Board may request: *provided*, said Board, in their request, shall certify, that the Secretary of said Board has placed at their disposal an amount equal to that for which such application may by them be made; both sums to be expended, under the direction of said Board, in qualifying teachers for the Common Schools in Massachusetts.

Resolved, That the Board of Education shall render an annual account of the manner in which said moneys have been by them expended."

"The Board, after mature deliberation, decided to establish three Normal Schools; one for the north-eastern, one for the south-eastern, and one for the western part of the State. Accordingly, one was opened at Lexington, in the county of Middlesex, on the 3d day of July, 1839. This school, having outgrown its accommodations at Lexington, was removed to West Newton, in the same county, in Sept., 1844, where it now occupies a commodious building.

The second Normal School was opened at Barre, in the county of Worcester, on the 4th day of September, 1839. This school has since been removed to Westfield, in the county of Hampden, both on account of the insufficiency of the accommodations at Barre, and because the latter place is situated east of the centre of population of the western counties.

The third school was opened at Bridgewater, on the 9th day of Sept., 1840, and is permanently located at that place.

For the two last-named schools, there had been, from the beginning, very inadequate school-room accommodations. In the winter of 1845, a memorial, on behalf of certain friends of education in the city of Boston and its vicinity, was presented to the Legislature, offering the sum of five thousand dollars, to be obtained by private subscriptions, on condition that the Legislature would give an equal sum, for the purpose of erecting two Normal School-houses; one for the school at Westfield and one for that at Bridgewater. By resolves of March 20, 1845, the proposition of

the memorialists was accepted and the grant made; and by the same resolves it was ordered, 'that the schools heretofore known as Normal Schools, shall be hereafter designated as State Normal Schools.'

The school at West Newton is appropriated exclusively to females; those at Bridgewater and Westfield admit both sexes.

Among the standing regulations adopted by the Board, for the government of the State Normal Schools, are the following—most of which were adopted in the beginning, and have been constantly in force; only a few modifications, and those very slight ones, having since been introduced:

ADMISSION. As a prerequisite to admission, candidates must declare it to be their intention to qualify themselves to become school teachers. If they belong to the State, or have an intention and a reasonable expectation of keeping school in the State, tuition is gratuitous. Otherwise, a tuition-fee is charged, which is intended to be about the same as is usually charged at good academies in the same neighborhood. If pupils, after having completed a course of study at the State Normal Schools, immediately engage in school keeping, but leave the State, or enter a private school or an academy, they are considered as having waived the privilege growing out of their declared intention to keep a Common School in Massachusetts, and are held bound in honor to pay a tuition-fee for their instruction.

If males, pupils must have attained the age of seventeen years complete, and of sixteen, if females; and they must be free from any disease or infirmity, which would unfit them for the office of school teachers.

They must undergo an examination, and prove themselves to be well versed in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic.

They must furnish satisfactory evidence of good intellectual capacity and of high moral character and principles.

Examinations for admission take place at the commencement of each term, of which there are three in a year.

TERM OF STUDY. At West Newton and Bridgewater, the minimum of the term of study is one year, and this must be in consecutive terms of the schools. In regard to the school at Westfield, owing to the unwillingness of the pupils in that section of the State to remain at the school, even for so short a time as one year, the rule requiring a year's residence has been from time to time suspended. It is found to be universally true, that those applicants whose qualifications are best, are desirous to remain at the school the longest.

COURSE OF STUDY. The studies first to be attended to in the State Normal Schools, are those which the law requires to be taught in the district schools, namely, orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic. When these are mastered, those of a higher order will be progressively taken.

For those who wish to remain at the school more than one year, and for all belonging to the school, so far as their previous attainments will permit, the following course is arranged:

1. Orthography, reading, grammar, composition, rhetoric and logic.
2. Writing and drawing.
3. Arithmetic, mental and written, algebra, geometry, book-keeping, navigation, surveying.
4. Geography, ancient and modern, with chronology, statistics and general history.
5. Human Physiology, and hygiene or the Laws of Health.
6. Mental Philosophy.
7. Music.

8. Constitution and History of Massachusetts and of the United States.

9. Natural Philosophy and Astronomy.

10. Natural History.

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

12. THE SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING WITH REFERENCE TO ALL THE ABOVE NAMED STUDIES.

RELIGIOUS EXERCISES. A portion of the Scriptures shall be read daily, in every State Normal School.

VISITERS. Each Normal School is under the immediate inspection of a Board of Visitors, who are in all cases to be members of the Board of Education, except that the Secretary of the Board may be appointed as one of the visitors of each school.

The Board appoints one Principal Instructor for each school, who is responsible for its government and instruction, subject to the rules of the Board, and the supervision of the Visitors. The Visitors of the respective schools appoint the assistant instructors thereof.

To each Normal School, an Experimental or Model School is attached. This School is under the control of the Principal of the Normal School. The pupils of the Normal School assist in teaching it. Here, the knowledge which they acquire in the science of teaching, is practically applied. The art is made to grow out of the science, instead of being empirical. The Principal of the Normal School inspects the Model School more or less, daily. He observes the manner in which his own pupils exemplify, in practice, the principles he has taught them. Sometimes, all the pupils of the Normal School, together with the Principal, visit the Model School in a body, to observe the manner in which the teachers of the latter, for the time being, conduct the recitations or exercises. Then, returning to their own school-room, in company with the assistant teachers themselves, who have been the objects of inspection, each one is called upon to deliver his views, whether commendatory or otherwise, respecting the manner in which the work has been performed. At this amicable exposition of merits and defects, the Principal of the Normal School presides. After all others have presented their views, he delivers his own; and thus his pupils, at the threshold of their practice, have an opportunity to acquire confidence in a good cause, of which they might otherwise entertain doubts, and to rectify errors which otherwise would fossilize into habit.

The salaries of the teachers of the State Normal Schools are paid by the State."

The following Rules were adopted for the regulation of the Normal Schools, at a meeting of the Board of Education, held in December, 1849.

1. No new applicants for admission to the Normal Schools shall be received, except at the commencement of the term.

2. It shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Board and of one of the visitors to be present on the first day of the term, for the examination of the candidates for admission.

3. There shall be two periods for the admission of new members, the time to be fixed by the visitors of each school.

4. Candidates for admission at the West Newton Normal School must promise to remain four consecutive terms; and at the other Normal Schools, three consecutive terms. An exception may be made in the case of persons of more than ordinary experience and attainments.

5. It shall be the duty of the principals of the several Normal Schools to make a report, at the end of each term, to the visitors, and if, in their judgment, any do not promise to be useful as teachers, they shall be dismissed.

6. The course of study in each of the Normal Schools shall begin with a re-

view of the studies pursued in the common schools, viz: reading, writing, orthography, English grammar, mental and written arithmetic, geography, and physiology.

7. The attention of pupils, in the Normal Schools, shall be directed, 1. To a thorough review of elementary studies; 2. To those branches of knowledge which may be considered as an expansion of the above-named elementary studies, or collateral to them; 3. To the art of teaching and its modes.

8. The advanced studies shall be equally proportioned, according to the following distribution, into three departments, viz.: 1. The mathematical, including algebra through quadratic equations; geometry, to an amount equal to three books in Euclid; book-keeping; and surveying. 2. The philosophical, including natural philosophy, astronomy, moral and intellectual philosophy, natural history, particularly that of our own country, and so much of chemistry as relates to the atmosphere, the waters, and the growth of plants and animals. 3. The literary, including the critical study of the English language, both in its structure and history, with an outline of the history of English literature; the history of the United States, with such a survey of general history as may be a suitable preparation for it; and historical geography, ancient and mediæval, so far as is necessary to understand general history, from the earliest times to the period of the French Revolution.

9. "The art of teaching and its modes" shall include instruction on the philosophy of teaching and discipline, as drawn from the nature and condition of the juvenile mind; the history of the progress of the art, and the application of it to our system of education; and as much exercise in teaching under constant supervision, toward the close of the course, as the circumstances and interests of the model schools will allow.

10. Members of the Normal Schools may, with the consent of the respective boards of visitors, remain as much longer than the period required, as they may desire.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

AT

WEST NEWTON.

THE State Normal Schools, of which there are three in Massachusetts, are designed for those *only* who purpose to teach, and especially for those who purpose to teach in the common schools. The school at West Newton is for females.

It was opened at Lexington, July 3d, 1839, with the examination of three pupils, who were all that presented themselves as candidates. At the close of the first term it numbered twelve pupils.

The school continued at Lexington five years. In May, 1844, having by far outgrown its accommodations, it was removed to West Newton, where the liberality of the Hon. Josiah Quincy, Jr., of Boston, had provided for it by the purchase of a building, formerly used as a private academy, which he generously gave to the Institution.

The whole number of graduates is 423, nearly all of whom have engaged in teaching, the most of them in the public schools of this state.

CONDITIONS OF ENTRANCE.—1. The applicant must be at least sixteen years old.

2. She must make an *explicit declaration of her intention to become a TEACHER.*

3. She must produce a certificate of good PHYSICAL, INTELLECTUAL and MORAL CHARACTER, from some responsible person. It is exceedingly desirable that this condition be strictly complied with on the part of those who present candidates.

4. She must pass a satisfactory examination in the common branches, viz:—Reading, spelling and defining, arithmetic, grammar, writing and geography.

5. She must give a pledge to remain in the school at least *four consecutive terms*, and to observe faithfully all the regulations of the Institution, as long as she is a member of it.

6. All candidates for admission must be at the school-room on the morning of the day which precedes that on which the term commences, at half-past eight o'clock. None will be admitted after the *day of examination.*

7. Each pupil, at entrance, must be supplied with slate and pencil, blank book, Bible, Worcester's Comprehensive Dictionary, and Morse's Geography. Many of the other books used will be furnished from the library of the school.

STUDIES.—The course of study in each of the State Normal Schools begins with a review of the studies pursued in the Common Schools, viz:—Reading, writing, orthography, English grammar, mental and written arithmetic, geography and physiology.

The attention of pupils is directed, 1st, to a thorough review of elementary studies; 2d, to those branches of knowledge which may be considered as an expansion of the above-named elementary studies, or collateral to them; to the art of teaching and its modes.

The advanced studies are equally proportioned, according to the following distribution, into three departments, viz:—1. The mathematical, including algebra through quadratic equations; geometry, to an amount equal to three books in Euclid; book-keeping and surveying. 2. The philosophical, including natural philosophy, astronomy, moral and intellectual philosophy, natural history, particularly that of our own country, and so much of chemistry as relates to the atmosphere, the waters, and the growth of plants and animals. 3. The literary, including the critical study of the English language, both in its structure and history, with an outline of the history of English literature; the history of the United States, with such a survey of general history as may be a suitable preparative for it; and historical geography, ancient and mediæval, so far as is necessary to understand general history, from the earliest time to the period of the French Revolution.

"The art of teaching and its modes," includes instruction as to the philosophy of teaching and discipline, as drawn from the nature and condition of the juvenile mind; the history of the progress of the art, and the application of it to our system of education; and as much exercise in teaching under constant supervision, toward the close of the course, as the circumstances and interests of the Model schools may allow.

Members of the higher classes give teaching exercises before the whole school, several each week. Members of the senior class spend three weeks, each, in the public grammar school of District No. 7, which is connected with the institution as its Model department.

Pupils who have had considerable experience in teaching, and are otherwise qualified for it, will be allowed to enter existing classes.

Pupils who may desire to study the Latin and French languages, and to prepare themselves to instruct in those branches usually taught in High Schools, can have an opportunity to do so, by giving a pledge to remain in the school for a term of three years, provided the number is sufficient to warrant the forming of a class.

EXAMINATIONS.—The school is visited and examined by the Visiting Committee of the Board of Education, at the close of each term; and a public examination is held whenever a class graduates. The school is open to visitors at all times.

LIBRARY AND APPARATUS.—A well-selected Library, consisting mostly of works on education, belongs to the school, and also a well-assorted Apparatus, for the illustration of principles in natural philosophy, chemistry, mathematics, &c. &c.

TUITION.—For those who purpose to teach in the public schools of the state, tuition is free; for such as intend to teach elsewhere, it is \$10 per term, payable at entrance, and such can not be admitted to the exclusion of those first mentioned. At the beginning of each term, each pupil pays to the Principal \$1,50, to meet incidental expenses.

BOARD.—Board may be had in good families at from \$2 to \$2,50 per week, including washing and fuel. Some of the pupils take rooms and board themselves at a lower rate. The whole annual expense is about \$100.

TERMS AND VACATIONS.—There are three terms in the year. The winter term commences on the second Wednesday in December, and continues fifteen weeks. The summer term commences on the second Wednesday in April, and continues fifteen weeks. The autumn term commences on the first Wednesday in September, and continues twelve weeks. Between the summer and autumn terms, there is a vacation of six weeks; between the other terms a vacation of two weeks. No session is held on the week of the anniversaries in Boston.

Pupils who reside in the vicinity, and whose friends request it, have leave to go home on Saturday morning and stay until Monday morning, provided this can be done without interference with school duties.

Pupils are not permitted to board at such a distance from the institution, as to render it impracticable for them to be present during all regular exercises.

STUDY HOURS, &c.—It is expected, as a matter of course, that the young ladies will conform to the general order and usage of the families in which they reside. Where it can be done conveniently, it is desirable that they should breakfast about one hour after rising, dine at a quarter past two o'clock, and sup from six to six and a half o'clock.

The hours for rising, studying, &c., will vary somewhat with the season of the year. For the winter and autumn terms, the pupils will rise at six o'clock, and study one hour, either *before* or *after* breakfast, as may suit the custom of the family. In the summer term, they will rise at five o'clock, and study two hours. In the afternoon, they will study from four till five and a half o'clock. Evening study hours for the winter and autumn terms commence at seven o'clock, and continue two hours, with a short recess; for the summer term, evening study hours commence at eight o'clock, and continue one hour.

All study hours are to be spent in *perfect quietness*. At all seasons of the year pupils are to retire at *ten* o'clock. Every light must be extinguished at half-past ten, *at the utmost*.

It is expected that the pupils will attend public worship on the Sabbath, health, weather, and walking permitting; preserve order and quiet in their rooms, and throughout the house; and refrain from every thing like a desecration of the day.

ORDER, PUNCTUALITY and NEATNESS, *in their persons and in their rooms*, and a kind and respectful demeanor, are expected of all.

It is expected that the young ladies will avoid all ground of complaint, and endeavor to make themselves agreeable in their family intercourse, thus securing honor to themselves and the institution.

The Principal requests that any marked and continued disregard of these regulations may be reported to him.

The school sessions commence at eight and a half o'clock, A. M., and close at two o'clock, P. M. On Saturday no session is held.

Pupils who desire to leave town for home, or for other places, are expected to confer with the Principal.

The following letter from Mr. Peirce, the first Principal of the West Newton State Normal School, will exhibit the views with which this eminent teacher and educator conducted the first institution of the kind opened on this continent:

"DEAR SIR:—You ask me 'what I aimed to accomplish, and would aim to accomplish now, with my past experience before me, in a Normal School.'

I answer briefly, that it was my aim, and it would be my aim again, to make better teachers, and especially, better teachers for our common schools; so that those primary seminaries, on which so many depend for their education, might answer, in a higher degree, the end of their institution. Yes, to make better teachers; teachers who would understand, and do their business better; teachers, who should know more of the nature of children, of youthful developments, more of the subjects to be taught, and more of the true methods of teaching; who would teach more philosophically, more in harmony with the natural development of the young mind, with a truer regard to the order and connection in which the different branches of knowledge should be presented to it, and, of course, more successfully. Again, I felt that there was a call for a truer government, a higher training and discipline, in our schools; that the appeal to the rod, to a sense of shame and fear of bodily pain, so prevalent in them, had a tendency to make children mean, secretive, and vengeful, instead of high-minded, truthful, and generous; and I wished to see them in the hands of teachers, who could understand the higher and purer motives of action, as gratitude, generous affection, sense of duty, by which children should be influenced, and under which their whole character should be formed. In short, I was desirous of putting our schools into the hands of those who would make them places in which children could learn, not only to read, and write, and spell, and cipher, but gain information on various other topics, (as accounts, civil institutions, natural history, physiology, political economy, &c.) which would be useful to them in after life, and have all their faculties, (physical, intellectual and moral,) trained in such harmony and proportion, as would result in the highest formation of character. This is what I supposed the object of Normal Schools to be. Such was my object.

But in accepting the charge of the first American Institution of this kind, I did not act in the belief that there were no good teachers, or good schools among us; or that I was more wise, more fit to teach, than all my fellows. On the contrary, I knew that there were, both within and without Massachusetts, excellent schools, and not a few of them, and teachers wiser than myself; yet my conviction was strong, that the ratio of such schools to the whole number of schools were small; and that the teachers in them, for the most part, had grown up to be what they were, from long observation, and through the discipline of an experience painful to themselves, and more painful to their pupils.

It was my impression also, that a majority of those engaged in school-keeping, taught few branches, and those imperfectly, that they possessed little fitness for their business, did not understand well, either the nature of children or the subjects they professed to teach, and had little skill in the art of teaching or governing schools. I could not think it possible for them, therefore, to make

their instructions very intelligible, interesting, or profitable to their pupils, or present to them the motives best adapted to secure good lessons and good conduct, or, in a word, adopt such a course of training as would result in a sound development of the faculties, and the sure formation of a good character. I admitted that a skill and power to do all this might be acquired by trial, if teachers continued in their business long enough; but while teachers were thus learning, I was sure that pupils must be suffering. In the process of time, a man may find out by experiment, (trial,) how to tan hides and convert them into leather. But most likely the time would be long, and he would spoil many before he got through. It would be far better for him, we know, to get some knowledge of Chemistry, and spend a little time in his neighbor's tannery, before he sets up for himself. In the same way, the farmer may learn what trees, and fruits, and seeds, are best suited to particular soils, and climates, and modes of culture, but it must be by a needless outlay of time and labor, and the incurring of much loss. If wise, he would first learn the principles and facts which agricultural experiments have already established, and then commence operations. So the more I considered the subject, the more the conviction grew upon my mind, that by a judicious course of study, and of discipline, teachers may be prepared to enter on their work, not only with the hope, but almost with the assurance of success. I did not then, I do not now, (at least in the fullest extent of it,) assent to the doctrine so often expressed in one form or another, that there are no general principles to be recognized in education; no general methods to be followed in the art of teaching; that all depends upon the individual teacher; that every principle, motive and method, must owe its power to the skill with which it is applied; that what is true, and good, and useful in the hands of one, may be quite the reverse in the hands of another; and of course, that every man must invent his own methods of teaching and governing, it being impossible successfully to adopt those of another. To me it seemed that education had claims to be regarded as a science, being based on immutable principles, of which the practical teacher, though he may modify them to meet the change of ever-varying circumstances, can never lose sight.

That the educator should watch the operations of nature, the development of the mind, discipline those faculties whose activities first appear, and teach that knowledge first, which the child can most easily comprehend, viz., that which comes in through the senses, rather than through reason and the imagination; that true education demands, or rather implies the training, strengthening, and perfecting of all the faculties by means of the especial exercise of each; that in teaching, we must begin with what is simple and known, and go on by easy steps to what is complex and unknown; that for true progress and lasting results, it were better for the attention to be concentrated on a few studies, and for a considerable time, than to be divided among many, changing from one to another at short intervals; that in training children we must concede a special recognition to the principle of curiosity, a love of knowledge, and so present truth as to keep this principle in proper action; that the pleasure of acquiring, and the advantage of possessing knowledge, may be made, and should be made, a sufficient stimulus to sustain wholesome exertion without resorting to emulation, or medals, or any rewards other than those which are the natural fruits of industry and attainment; that for securing order and obedience, there are better ways than to depend solely or chiefly upon the rod, or appeals to fear; that much may be done by way of prevention of evil; that gentle means should always first be tried; that undue attention is given to intellectual training in our schools, to the neglect of physical and moral; that the training of the faculties is more important than the communication of knowledge; that the discipline, the instruction of the school-room, should better subserve the interests of real life, than it now does;—these are some of the principles, truths, facts, in education, susceptible, I think, of the clearest demonstration, and pretty generally admitted now, by all enlightened educators.

The old method of teaching Arithmetic, for instance, by taking up some printed treatise and solving abstract questions consisting of large numbers, working blindly by what must appear to the pupil arbitrary rules, would now be regarded as less philosophical, less in conformity to mental development, than the more modern way of beginning with mental Arithmetic, using practical questions, which involve small numbers, and explaining the reason of every step as you go along.

So in the study of Grammar, no Normal teacher, whether a graduate or not, of a Normal School, would require his pupils to commit the whole text-book to memory, before looking at the nature of words, and their application in the structure of sentences. Almost all have found out that memorizing the Grammar-book, and the exercise of parsing, do very little toward giving one a knowledge of the English language.

Neither is it learning Geography, to read over and commit to memory, statistics of the length and breadth of countries, their boundaries, latitude and longitude, &c., &c., without map or globe, or any visible illustration, as was once the practice. Nor does the somewhat modern addition of maps and globes much help the process, unless the scholar, by a previous acquaintance with objects in the outer world, has been prepared to use them. The shading for mountains, and black lines for rivers on maps, will be of little use to a child who has not already some idea of a mountain and a river.

And the teacher who should attempt to teach reading by requiring a child to repeat from day to day, and from month to month, the whole alphabet, until he is familiar with all the letters, as was the fashion in former days, would deserve to lose his place and be sent himself to school. Could any thing be more injudicious? Is it not more in harmony with Nature's work, to begin with simple, significant words, or rather sentences, taking care always to select such as are easy and intelligible, as well as short? Or, if letters be taken first, should they not be formed into small groups, on some principle of association, and be combined with some visible object?

Surely, the different methods of teaching the branches above-mentioned, are not all equally good. Teaching is based on immutable principles, and may be regarded as an art.

Nearly thirty years' experience in the business of teaching, I thought, had given me some acquaintance with its true principles and processes, and I deemed it no presumption to believe that I could teach them to others. This I attempted to do in the Normal School at Lexington; 1st. didactically, *i. e.* by precept, in the form of familiar conversations and lectures; 2d. by giving every day, and continually, in my own manner of teaching, an exemplification of my theory; 3d. by requiring my pupils to teach each other, in my presence, the things which I had taught them; and 4th. by means of the Model School, where, under my general supervision, the Normal pupils had an opportunity, both to prove and to improve their skill in teaching and managing schools. At all our recitations, (the modes of which were very various,) and in other connections, there was allowed the greatest freedom of inquiry and remark, and principles, modes, processes, every thing indeed relating to school-keeping, was discussed. The thoughts and opinions of each one were thus made the property of the whole, and there was infused into all hearts a deeper and deeper interest in the teachers' calling. In this way the Normal School became a kind of standing Teachers' Institute.

But for a particular account of my manner and processes at the Normal School, allow me to refer you to a letter which I had the honor, at your request, to address to you from Lexington, Jan. 1, 1841, and which was published in the Common School Journal, both of Connecticut and Massachusetts, (vol. 3.)

What success attended my labors, I must leave to others to say. I acknowledge, it was far from being satisfactory to myself. Still the experiment convinced me that Normal Schools may be made a powerful auxiliary to the cause of education. A thorough training in them, I am persuaded, will do much toward supplying the want of experience. It will make the teachers' work easier, surer, better. I have reason to believe that Normal pupils are much indebted for whatever of fitness they possess for teaching, to the Normal School. They uniformly profess so to feel. I have, moreover, made diligent inquiry in regard to their success, and it is no exaggeration to say, that it has been manifestly great. Strong testimonials to the success of many of the early graduates of the Lexington (now W. Newton) Normal School, were published with the 5th Report of the late Secretary of the Board of Education, and may be found in the 7th vol. of the Massachusetts Common School Journal.

But it is sometimes asked, (and the inquiry deserves an answer,) Allowing that teaching is an art, and that teachers may be trained for their business, have we not High Schools and Academies, in which the various school branches are well taught? May not teachers in them be prepared for their work?

Where is the need then of a distinct order of Seminaries for training teachers? I admit we have Academies, High Schools, and other schools, furnished with competent teachers, in which is excellent teaching; but at the time of the establishment of the Normal Schools in Massachusetts, there was not, to my knowledge, any first-rate institution exclusively devoted to training teachers for our common schools; neither do I think there is now any, except the Normal Schools. And teachers can not be prepared for their work anywhere else, so well as in seminaries exclusively devoted to this object. The art of teaching must be made the great, the paramount, the only concern. It must not come in as subservient to, or merely collateral with any thing else whatever. And again, a Teachers' Seminary should have annexed to it, or rather as an integral part of it, a model, or experimental school for practice.

Were I to be placed in a Normal School again, the only difference in my aim would be to give more attention to the development of the faculties, to the spirit and motives by which a teacher should be moved, to physical and moral education, to the inculcation of good principles and good manners.

In conclusion, allow me to recapitulate. It was my aim, and it would be my aim again, in a Normal School, to raise up for our common schools especially, a better class of teachers,—teachers who would not only teach more and better than those already in the field, but who would govern better; teachers, who would teach in harmony with the laws of juvenile development, who would secure diligent study and good lessons and sure progress, without a resort to emulation and premiums, and good order from higher motives than the fear of the rod or bodily pain; teachers, who could not only instruct well in the common branches, as reading, writing, arithmetic, &c., but give valuable information on a variety of topics, such as accounts, history, civil institutions, political economy, and physiology; bring into action the various powers of children, and prepare them for the duties of practical life; teachers, whose whole influence on their pupils, direct and indirect, should be good, tending to make them, not only good readers, geographers, grammarians, arithmeticians, &c., but good scholars, good children, obedient, kind, respectful, mannerly, truthful; and in due time, virtuous, useful citizens, kind neighbors, high-minded, noble, pious men and women. And this I attempted to do by inculcating the truth in the art of teaching and governing,—the truth in all things; and by giving them a living example of it in my own practice."

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

AT

BRIDGEWATER.

THE Normal School at Bridgewater, as well as that at Westfield, receives both male and female pupils. The regulations respecting the admission of pupils, course of study, number and length of each session, are set forth in the Regulations of the Board. The following communications from Mr. N. Tillinghast, who has been the Principal of this Institution from its first establishment, and has now the longest experience of any Normal School teacher in this country, gives the general results of his experience, and the experience of this Institution in the work of educating teachers.

“The main facts about this school you are already acquainted with. It went into operation September 9th, 1840, with 28 pupils. There have entered the school in all, 657 pupils; 365 females, 292 males. Up to August, 1846, pupils were received for two terms, which were not necessarily successive. Since that time they have been required to remain three successive terms, of 14 weeks each. The average number at present is between 60 and 70. The whole number of pupils since August, 1846, is 252; of these, 32, from various causes, have left the school after one or two terms. Of the 220, two have not been, and apparently, do not intend to be, teachers.

It seems to me that these schools are doing good. My own scholars have, I think, succeeded as well as I could reasonably expect. Many have failed; indeed many from whom I looked for success; others have continued to keep schools, but doing no better, for aught that I know, than they would have done without staying a year here; but still I can not feel disappointed.

There are, it seems to me, grave defects in the constitution of my school. Four years would, in my judgment, be profitably given to the subjects which we touch on in one. If pupils must be *taught* subjects in these schools, as I think they must for a time under the best organization, the course ought to extend over three years at least. I think it would be a better plan than the present, to receive pupils for, say twenty-one weeks, and to give that time to reading, spelling, arithmetic, and geography; and in another twenty-one weeks, to take up reading, spelling, physiology, grammar; so that only a few studies should be in the school at a time, and teachers might go for a term without interfering with their teaching school. The great evil now, in my school, is the attempt to take up so many studies, most persons inverting the truth, and supposing the amount acquired the important thing, and the *study* unimportant. But I should be content if I could bring pupils into such a state of desire that they would pursue truth, and into such a state of knowledge that they could recognize her when overtaken. A very few studies, and long dwelling on them—this is my theory. I have no especial belief in teaching others *methods* of teaching: I do not mean, that the subject should be entirely passed by; but that pupils should not be *trained* into, or directed into particular processes; it seems to me that each well-instructed mind will arrive at a method of imparting, better for *it* than any other method. I therefore have tried to bring my pupils to get at results for themselves, and to show them how they may feel confident of the truth of their results. I have *sought* criticism from my scholars on all my methods, processes, and results; aimed to have them, kindly of course, but freely criticise each other; and they are encouraged to ask questions, and propose doubts. I call on members of the classes to hear recitations, and on the others to make remarks, thus approving and disapproving one another; they are called upon to make

up general exercises, and to deliver them to their classes, sometimes on subjects and in styles fitted to those whom they address; sometimes they are bid to imagine themselves speaking to children. I find I am getting more into details than I intend, or you wish. My idea of a Normal School is, that it should have a term of four years; that those studies should be pursued that will lay a *foundation* on which to build an education. I mean, for example, that algebra should be *thoroughly* studied as the foundation for arithmetic; that geometry and trigonometry should be studied, by which, with algebra, to study natural philosophy, &c.; the number of studies should be comparatively small, but much time given to them. I, of course, do not intend to write a list of studies, and what I have said above is only for illustration: the teacher should be so trained as to be *above* his text books. Whatever has been done in teaching in all countries, different methods, the thoughts of the best minds on the *science* and the *art* of instruction, should be laid before the neophyte teachers. In a proper Normal School there should be departments, and the ablest men put over them, each in his own department. Who knows more than one branch *well*?

I send herewith a catalogue of my school, which will give you some idea of its osteology; what of life these bones have, others must judge. But when shall the whole vision of the Prophet be fulfilled in regard to the teachers of the land,—“And the breath came into them, and they *lived* and stood upon their feet, (not on those of any author) an exceeding great army.”

God prosper the work, and may your exertions in the cause be gratefully remembered.”

The Visitors of the Bridgewater Normal School, in their Report to the Board, in December, 1850, present the following statement:—

That at the first term of the normal year, seventeen pupils entered; and during that term the whole number was fifty-nine. At the second term, thirty-one entered; during which term the whole number was seventy-two. At the third term, ending November 12, twenty-five entered; and the whole number during that term was seventy-nine. The whole number received during the year was seventy-three. Fifteen graduated at the end of the year. Two of the graduating class left the school on account of ill health.

The young men of the graduating class are all engaged for the winter schools. Of the young ladies, some are teaching now, and all intend to take schools as they have opportunity.

The visitors have repeated their attendance upon the school, at different times during the year, with the highest satisfaction. They have witnessed, with great pleasure, the enlightened zeal and earnestness with which the principal and his assistants have done their work, and bear testimony to the evident thoroughness with which the training of the pupils has been conducted. They regard this school as an honor to the state, and as doing a most important service in regard to the great cause of education.”

CONDITION

OF THE

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS IN 1850.

THE following facts and suggestions respecting the condition and improvement of the State Normal Schools of Massachusetts at the close of the year 1850, are gathered from the "*Fourteenth Annual Report of the Board of Education*," dated Dec. 12, 1850. The whole document is highly creditable to the commonwealth of Massachusetts. The large amount voluntarily raised by the people of the several cities and towns, for the support of common schools, is without a parallel in the history of popular education. The appropriation of a portion of the avails of the school fund, for the general purposes of Teachers' Institutes, Normal Schools, State and County Associations of Teachers, Agents of the Board of Education for Inspection of Schools and Addresses to the People, does more for the prosperity of the school system, than a much larger sum expended directly on the schools, and which, in most cases, would only diminish to that extent the sum raised by the people of the towns.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

"Twelve different Teachers' Institutes have been held, and attended by the secretary, in as many different and distant parts of the state. By an improved organization, and by the use of somewhat permanent teachers for the more important branches in which instruction was given, these Institutes have been made to act with, it is believed, very beneficial effects, upon a larger number of teachers than have been reached in any former year. The Board continue to think very highly of the usefulness and efficiency of well-managed Teachers' Institutes, and would respectfully urge the continuance of the means necessary for their support. Not less than 1,750 individuals, nearly all of them actual teachers in the common schools, have, this year, been members of the Institutes; very much larger numbers have listened to the lectures and course of instruction given at them; and the testimony is abundant and uniform, as to the beneficial effects upon the schools of the influence thus exerted."

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

"But the most important organ for the advancement of the teachers, and with them of the schools in the commonwealth, and the most prolific of hopeful results, is the Normal Schools; and to these the Board have continued to give their especial attention.

The citizens of most of the towns in the state, have reason to look with pride and satisfaction upon what they have done in regard to the building, furnishing, warming, and ventilating of school-houses; and they have reason to rejoice that their example has been followed in many of the sister states. These improvements are valuable in themselves, and still more as evidence of the interest which the people take in their schools. But they are external. They do not directly touch the most

essential interests of the schools: *the education of the teachers is the important thing*. Nearly all the evils complained of in the present condition of the schools will diminish, and finally, almost disappear, under the influence of highly qualified teachers. The greatest of them, irregularity of attendance and truancy, can be removed in no other way. They may be lessened, but can not be prevented, by enactments. The remedy in each school is a good teacher; one who knows how to interest his pupils, and make them feel that absence from school is an absolute personal loss, and who knows how to win the affections, so as to make his pupils earnestly desire to do what he wishes.

The better education of teachers, then, in whatever may render them more able to teach, and more powerful to influence, is the object which, most of all, the Board desire to keep in view; and the most efficient agency for this object, with which they are acquainted, is the Normal School. They refer, with satisfaction, to the several reports which they herewith submit, upon the condition of the Normal Schools.

It was expected that the numbers in these schools would be somewhat diminished by the increase in the length of time required to be spent at them. In this expectation the Board have been agreeably disappointed, the attendance not having been less than in any former year.

Still, notwithstanding what has yet been done by these schools, and by the Teachers' Institutes, the supply of competent teachers is entirely inadequate to the wants of the schools; and there is danger lest, to meet this demand, persons superficially instructed shall be sent out as teachers from the Normal Schools. To guard against this danger, and, at the same time, to elevate the standard in the schools from which the pupils of the Normal Schools come, and in the Normal Schools themselves, the Board deem it advisable to make the requisitions for admission higher; and, to render the annual examinations for the classes within the Normal Schools more minute, more thorough and more extended than heretofore, they propose to have them conducted in such a way as to bring these schools into more intimate relations with the distinguished teachers in other institutions in the state, and to make their true character and condition better and more extensively known to the citizens. Such examinations would, they believe, operate as a healthful stimulus both to teachers and pupils, and, if made publicly, might lead to more thorough and effective examinations in the other schools in the state.

The house for the Normal School, at West Newton, is situated in such immediate proximity to the Worcester railroad, that the exercises of the school are, at all seasons, seriously interrupted by the noise; and, during the warmer months of the year, when the windows are required to be open, the inconvenience and loss of time are very considerable. The school, also, in consequence of its rapid increase, is now but poorly accommodated, although the house, when placed, not many years ago, at the disposal of the Board, was considered very ample. It is, therefore, much to be desired, that the Board should have the means of erecting a more commodious house, in a more retired and quiet situation. For the present building, the school was indebted to the munificence of a gentleman who is willing to consent to its being disposed of for some other use, provided the benefit he intended to confer upon the school may be still enjoyed by it. The lot on which it stands is well situated for the purposes of business, and likely to meet with a ready sale. Landholders in the neighborhood have expressed a generous and liberal disposition toward the school; and there is a probability that a desirable lot could be obtained on favorable terms. Remembering that this was the earliest Normal School in America, that, being near the seat of government and the center of population of the state, and on one of the great lines of communication with the interior and with the west, it is frequently

visited by strangers who come to examine the Massachusetts school system, we confidently hope that the Legislature will consent to make such an appropriation as will enable the Board to erect a building which shall be, in all respects, internally and externally, creditable to the state, and worthy of the purpose for which it is erected. We should be glad to point it out to the visitor as a building which, in structure, arrangement, furniture, and apparatus, might be regarded as a model, and placed in a situation, the choice of which should not seem to have been left to accident or necessity.

In their last Annual Report, the Board made known to the Legislature some regulations recently made in regard to the studies to be pursued at the Normal Schools. Among the advanced studies, they proposed to include "so much of chemistry as relates to the atmosphere, the waters, and the growth of plants and animals." So much instruction in chemistry as this, was thought desirable to be given, especially with reference to its application to agriculture, that the teachers educated at the expense of the state, may have some acquaintance with the principles of science, which lie at the foundation of the most essential and important of all the arts. To provide the means of giving instruction in this subject by lectures and experiments, it is desirable, in the view of the Board, that the annual appropriation for the support of the Normal Schools should be somewhat increased.

In their last Annual Report, the Board had the pleasure of acknowledging a munificent bequest from the late Henry Todd, Esq., of Boston, made for the purpose of aiding the Normal Schools. On the 7th of June, 1850, Thomas P. Cushing, Esq., executor of Mr. Todd, paid into the hands of the treasurer of the commonwealth, as the amount of that bequest, the sum of \$10,797 72. As it is known to have been the intention of the donor to have the whole interest of his bequest appropriated so as to be a clear addition to what would otherwise have been at the disposal of the Board for the Normal Schools, the Board propose to use the interest of Mr. Todd's bequest in providing for stated annual examinations of these schools, and in such other ways as may seem best for their advancement and immediate usefulness."

SCHOOL FUND

"On the first of December, 1850, the school fund amounted to	\$958,921 19
Having been increased, during the year, by the sum of	74,580 45
Of this fund, the sum of	218,559 73
consists of land notes not productive, leaving the sum of	740,361 46

productive, and so invested as to yield about \$40,000 for distribution among the towns for the support of schools.

The school fund, it thus appears, has very nearly reached the limit (\$1,000,000) fixed by the act of 1843, by which it was established.

The benefits which have been derived from the wise and economical use of this fund, are every where manifest in all the public schools of the commonwealth. As hitherto managed, the fund has been productive of unmixed good. The danger incident to a large fund for the benefit of schools is, that the people, relying upon this fund, shall neglect to take a personal interest in the support of the schools, in consequence of being relieved from the necessity of taxing themselves. But no evil of this kind has yet come near us. During the year 1850, 162 cities and towns

have raised more than twice the sum required by law to entitle them to their portion of the school fund. All the towns, except five, have raised more, and the greater part much more than the required sum; two only have raised just the required sum, and only two, out of 321 cities and towns, have fallen below that sum. A single town has made no return. The average of all the sums raised in the several towns and cities, for the instruction of the children between the ages of five and fifteen years, is nearly three times the sum required by law. Thrice the sum required by law would be \$4 50 for each child. The aggregate actually raised is \$4 42 for each. It thus appears that the effect of this bounty of the state has been most beneficent, and nothing but beneficent, so far as can be judged from the sums voluntarily raised for the support of schools. In view of the benefits thus accruing to the great interest of which they have charge, the Board can not but look with favor upon a proposition which promises to enhance and prolong these benefits, by widening the limit within which the school fund is now prospectively confined.

And this provision they deem the more important, as the time may come when the sale of the public lands, from a moiety of the proceeds of which appropriations for educational purposes are now drawn, shall cease to be productive.

The charges made upon these proceeds during the past year, have been:

The grant made to Amherst College,	\$5,000 00
For the Normal Schools,	7,500 00
For Teachers' Institutes,	3,050 00
The Massachusetts Teachers' Association,	150 00
County Teachers' Association,	550 00
School District Libraries,	320 00
Salary of the Secretary of the Board,	1,600 00
Salary of Clerk and Assistant Librarian,	1,266 67
Agents of the Board of Education,	1,008 33
Expenses of the Board of Education,	224 49
Incidental expenses of the Secretary,	157 30
Expenses of the office,	664 29
Expenses of the Annual Reports of the Board and Secretary,	3,930 73
Expenses of the Committee on Education,	246 80

\$25,668 61

WEST NEWTON NORMAL SCHOOL.

EXTRACT from the Report of the Committee of Visitors of the West Newton Normal School.

"The whole number of pupils connected with the school, during the year, is 132. The greatest number at any time, 102; the least, 70. The average age at entrance was 18 years. The number of towns represented is 45. Hampshire County sends one pupil; Worcester, two; Barnstable, two; Nantucket, two; Franklin, three; Plymouth, three; Essex, six; Norfolk, fifteen; Middlesex, thirty; and Suffolk, fifty-seven. Eleven pupils are from other states; from Rhode Island, one; Maine, three; Vermont, three; New Hampshire, four.

Of the parents of these pupils, 23 are farmers, 21 merchants, 8 carpenters, 4 ship-masters, 3 clergymen, 3 custom-house officers, 3 superintendents of railroads, 2 physicians, 2 editors; 29 are widows; 5 pupils are orphans; and the pursuits of the remainder are distributed among almost all the occupations known in our community.

Fifty-five young ladies have graduated, after having honorably completed the term prescribed for pupils at this institution.

Two classes have been received during the year. For the first, fifty-seven candidates presented themselves for examination, and forty-seven were received. The average age of this class, at entrance, was 18½ years. For the second class, forty-seven candidates presented themselves, and thirty-seven were admitted. The number of pupils who have remained at the school for a longer time than that required by the rules of the school, is 44. The number pledged to a three years' course is 12.

Besides the usual studies, the pupils have had the benefit of twenty-one lectures on educational and scientific subjects, which have been delivered gratuitously to the school, by gentlemen eminent in their various departments.

In regard to the model school connected with this institution, the committee beg leave to make an extract from the report of the principal, made at the close of the term, in December.

He says:—"By an agreement entered into between the District No. 7, of Newton, and the principal of this institution, on the 7th of December last, the grammar school of the district became connected with the State Normal School, as its model department. By the terms of the agreement, the district furnishes school-room, &c., and one permanent male teacher, approved by both parties, and allow such addition to their number, by pupils from abroad, on a small tuition, as circumstances justify. The State Normal School furnishes a portion of apparatus, &c., and two assistant teachers, each to observe one week previous to teaching, and to teach two weeks under constant supervision. The number of young ladies who have been thus employed, during the year, is 35; the whole number of pupils for the year, in the model school, is 125; the number from abroad, 50; the average age of the pupils, 14 years.

By an additional agreement between the same parties, the primary school of this village became also connected with the State Normal School, May 1, 1850. Since this time, the instruction and management of this school have mainly devolved upon pupils of this institution, under the direction of the permanent teacher of the grammar department. Teachers have been furnished on the same principle as to the other school. The number of teachers furnished to the primary school, is 22; the whole number of pupils is 75, and their average age, 7 years.

The model school has continued under its former permanent teacher, Mr. Allen, who has greatly distinguished himself as a successful educator, and who is worthy of great commendation for the earnestness and faithfulness with which he has devoted himself to the interest both of the district and of this institution. It is enough, perhaps, to say of the model school, that its efficiency has been continually increasing, and that, in the opinion of those competent to judge of it, it has already a rank considerably above the average of schools of the same grade elsewhere.

It was expected that the arrangement with the primary department would be a temporary one, each party reserving the right to give it up at any time. It is the opinion of the school committee of the town, and of the permanent teacher of the model school, as it is my own, that the experiment has proved eminently successful, and that the general character of the school has essentially improved. It is, however, our opinion, that a still better arrangement may now be properly made for it, by giving it one permanent female teacher, and an assistant from this school."

On another topic, the principal says in his report—"It is believed that, without a single exception, the 132 pupils at the school, this year, have had not only an honest and steady purpose to become teachers, but have a strong desire to do good in this most excellent way.

Of the fifty-five graduates, which includes those who leave us to-day, the greater portion are already engaged in the work; several have places secured, which they are expecting to occupy in a few days; several more continue yet longer here, and a small number only wait for an opportunity to teach."

The committee are gratified to be able to state, that notwithstanding the rule adopted by the Board at its last annual meeting, by which no pupil, "except those of more than ordinary experience and attainments, can be received into this school for a less period than four consecutive terms," and the further regulation restricting examinations for admission to the commencement of two instead of three terms in

the year, the number of pupils has not diminished ; a result which shows the public appreciation of the advantages afforded by the Normal Schools for the education of teachers.

Two examinations of this school have been made by the committee, during the year—one in April, and one in December—both of which, conducted in a manner which precluded the idea of special preparation for the occasion, were highly satisfactory.

The committee having ordered, for the use of the school-house, one of Mr. Chilson's furnaces, were informed, when they waited on him for the purpose of paying for it, that the bill was canceled ; Mr. Chilson desiring in this way to express the interest he felt in the Normal Schools. The committee desire gratefully to acknowledge this gratuity, coming as it does from a gentleman to whom the public are greatly indebted for improvements in warming and ventilating apparatus for private houses, churches, and schools."

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT WESTFIELD.

EXTRACT from the Report of the Visitors of th School.

"The number of pupils in this school has been somewhat diminished, by requiring those who enter to remain three terms instead of two. The whole number for the year ending November, 1850, was 119 ; the whole number for the year previous was 148. It was expected the number would be reduced, and in fact it seemed necessary it should be ; for the school-room had become crowded. By prolonging the time of continuance, those who go out from the school hereafter will be better qualified for their work.

The average age of the pupils, the last term, was 22 years. A large proportion of them had taught more or less. Two have attended, the last year, who have taught twenty terms each ; and a large number that have taught from five to ten terms.

The wages of teachers have very much increased within three years. Several young men are receiving \$40 per month, and board themselves, instead of \$25 and \$30 ; and several young ladies are receiving \$3.50 per week, and board, instead of \$2.

The pupils during the last year have been from the following counties :—From Berkshire, 18 ; from Hampden, 41 ; from Hampshire, 12 ; from Franklin, 15 ; from Worcester, 15 ; from Middlesex, 5 ; from Essex, 2 ; from Norfolk, 3 ; from Bristol, 1 ; from other states, 7.

Mr. D. S. Rowe, the principal, is assisted by Mr. E. G. Beckwith, a graduate of college, and Miss J. E. Avery. The instruction is thorough and accurate, and the discipline good.

The number of males in the school, the last year, has been 31, and the number of females, 88.

The pupils, with very few exceptions, have redeemed their pledge to teach in the schools of this Commonwealth ; and as great a proportion of them as could reasonably be expected, are excellent teachers."

The visitors of this school are Rev. E. Davis, D.D., of Westfield, and Rev. Mark Hopkins D.D., President of Williamstown College.

EXTRACT

FROM THE

Fourteenth Annual Report of the Secretary (Rev. Barnas Sears, D. D.) of the Board of Education.

The State Normal Schools are in a flourishing and prosperous condition. Notwithstanding the increased rigor exercised in the examination of candidates for admission, and the extension, in two of them, of the required period of study, the numbers in attendance are about as large as ever. The fears entertained by many, that the increase of expense, occasioned by a more protracted course of study, would materially diminish the attendance, are shown to be groundless. The sentiment in favor of a professional education for teachers is becoming so strong in the community, and the public mind is becoming so enlightened in respect to the character of the teachers required, and the policy to be pursued in the choice of them and in remunerating their services, that teachers are compelled either to go through a more thorough course of preparation, or abandon the occupation. In order to keep even pace with the progress of public opinion in regard to an improved system of education, the Normal Schools will need to be gradually elevated till they shall reach that point which is best adapted to teachers designed for the common district school. It will be a question worthy of mature deliberation, whether the higher position designed to be given to the Normal Schools, shall not be attained rather by raising the requisitions for entrance than by prolonging the term of study. I see no good reason why the state should be at the expense of giving, in the Normal Schools, so much of that kind of instruction for which ample provision is already made in the higher public schools. The Normal Schools, to answer their original design, must aim more at furnishing that peculiar training which teachers require, and which the public schools can not give. Then the necessity of their existence will be apparent to all, and no other schools or institutions will complain of being forced into competition with those which enjoy state patronage. A portion of the time which is now spent in teaching the elements of arithmetic, grammar, geography, reading and orthography, might be saved for those higher objects for which more particularly Normal Schools were established. Before many years more shall have passed away, three classes, each having a half year's course of study, might be formed in these schools. The first might be devoted to a critical review and thorough mastery of the studies to be taught in common schools, with such collateral branches as should be deemed necessary; the second, to a philosophical and systematic course of instruction in didactics, or the theory of teaching; the third, to the practice of teaching under the immediate and constant inspection of a superior. The arrangement here proposed would require that a greater degree of attention be paid to the model schools. But it would remove the embarrassment now caused by the interruption of the studies of the class, portions of which are called away to teach, and would render the time spent in teaching in the model school much more profitable both to teacher and pupil. The model school, which may just as well be one of the public schools as any other, should have its own full corps of teachers. The notion of employing pupils from the Normal School, in rotation, in place of an assistant teacher, merely because it is more economical, is unworthy of the liberal policy of the state. When a member of the Normal School enters the model school, the regular teacher or teachers of the latter should not be relieved at all from duty. On the contrary, such teacher should proceed as usual, and the learner should stand by and carefully observe the process, and afterward inquire for the reasons of it, if they should not be fully understood at the time. After a suitable period of observation, the learner should undertake to give a lesson, or some part of one, the principal teacher standing by, noticing the manner in which the instruction is given, and being ready at any moment to resume the exercise. Two important objects would be gained by such an arrangement. First, the school itself would not suffer in its interests from surrendering its classes to be experimented on by young teachers, but would rather be benefited by having all its exercises conducted with reference to illustrating the best methods of teaching. In the second place, the learner would occupy the place of an apprentice, working every moment under the observation and guidance of a master.

Provision has recently been made for advanced classes in the Normal Schools, and several persons have availed themselves of it during the past year. It is evident that the number of such will be constantly increasing, and will require more of the teacher's time than can be given them without abstracting it too much from the regular classes. If such an appendage is to be permanently attached to the Normal Schools, it will be necessary to enlarge the number of instructors to correspond with the additional amount of labor imposed. Perhaps no better course can be recommended for the present. A question of great importance, however, here presents itself for consideration, namely, whether it would not be expedient to make one of our Normal Schools,—that at Bridgewater, for example,—exclusively a school for males, designed to form a higher class of teachers for a corresponding grade of schools. Then each Normal School would have its distinctive character, that at West Newton being for females only, and that at Westfield for both sexes, and every person, who should wish to enjoy the advantages of a Normal School training, could find a school adapted to his particular wants. The difference between the common district school, and the central school of our more populous towns and grammar school of the cities, is becoming so great, that it is no longer possible to look to the same class of individuals for teachers in them all. Besides, the law requiring the establishing of high schools, is rapidly creating a demand for a description of teachers which none of our institutions furnish. The colleges do not educate men with reference to the business of teaching. A young graduate, without any experience in teaching, is but little better prepared to take charge of a high school than he is to practice at the bar. Nor do our Normal Schools give the amount of education requisite for teachers aspiring to a place in the high school. It is at this moment more difficult to procure suitable teachers for high schools than for any other class of schools. The choice ordinarily lies between experienced teachers of limited education, and men of liberal education, who either have had no experience and yet wish to become teachers, or, having had some practice in teaching while earning the money to pay their college bills, wish now to earn still more to enable them to study a profession. It is not safe for towns to open high schools under such auspices, and few committees are willing to expose themselves and their enterprise to these hazards.

If there were a Normal School of a higher order, persons, who had already received a good literary and scientific education elsewhere, might repair to it and attend exclusively to the theory and practice of teaching. Even graduates from the colleges, who propose to become teachers, would, in many instances, avail themselves of such opportunities for studying the art which they are to practice for life. An air exclusively professional would thus be given to the school, and a shorter period of attendance might suffice than would be necessary in the other Normal Schools.

OUTLINE

OF AN INSTITUTION FOR THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.

BY JAMES G. CARTER.

THE following *outline constitutes Essay VI. of Essays on Popular Education, published by Mr. Carter in the Boston Patriot, with the signature of Franklin, in the winter of 1824-25. The series was commenced on the 17th of December, 1824; and the essay containing the outline was published on the 10th and 15th of February, 1825.

It will do but little good for the Legislature of the State to make large appropriations directly for the support of schools, till a judicious expenditure of them can be insured. And in order to this, we must have skillful teachers at hand. It will do but little good to class the children till we have instructors properly prepared to take charge of the classes. It will do absolutely no good to constitute an independent tribunal to decide on the qualifications of teachers, while they have not had the opportunities necessary for coming up to the proper standard. And it will do no good to overlook and report upon their success, when we know beforehand that they have not the means of success. It would be beginning wrong, too, to build houses and to tell your young and inexperienced instructors to teach this or to teach that subject, however desirable a knowledge of such subjects might be, while it is obvious that they cannot know how, properly, to teach any subject. The *science of teaching*—for it must be made a science—is first, in the order of nature, to be inculcated. And it is to this point that the public attention must first be turned, to effect any essential improvement.

And here let me remark upon a distinction in the qualifications of teachers, which has never been practically made; though it seems astonishing that it has so long escaped notice. I allude to the distinction between the possession of knowledge, and the ability to communicate it to other minds. When we are looking for a teacher, we inquire how much he *knows*, not how much he can *communicate*; as if the latter qualification were of no consequence to us. Now it seems to me that parents and children, to say the least, are as much interested in the latter qualification of their instructor as in the former.

Though a teacher cannot communicate more knowledge than he possesses, yet he may possess much, and still be able to impart but little. And the knowledge of Sir Isaac Newton could be of but trifling use to a school, while it was locked up safely in the head of a country schoolmaster. So far as the object of a school or of instruction, therefore, is the acquisition of knowledge, novel as the opinion may seem, it does appear to me that both parents and pupils are even more interested in the part of their teacher's knowledge which they will be likely to get, than in the part which they certainly cannot get.

One great object in the education of teachers which it is so desirable on every account to attain, is to establish an intelligible language of communication between the instructor and his pupil, and enable the former to open his head and his heart, and infuse into the other some of the thoughts and feelings which lie hid there. *Instructors and pupils do not understand each other.* They do not speak the same language. They may use the same words; but this can hardly be called the same language, while they attach to them such very different meanings. We must either, by some magic or supernatural power, bring children at once to comprehend all our abstract and difficult terms, or our teachers must unlearn themselves, and come down to the comprehension of children. One of these alternatives is only difficult, while the other is impossible.

The direct, careful preparation of instructors for the profession of teaching, must surmount this difficulty; and I doubt if there be any other way in which

it can be surmounted. When instructors understand their profession, that is, in a word, when they understand the philosophy of the infant mind, what powers are earliest developed, and what studies are best adapted to their development, then it will be time to lay out and subdivide their work into an energetic system of public instruction. Till this step toward a reform, which is preliminary in its very nature, be taken, every other measure must be adopted in the dark; and, therefore, be liable to fail utterly of its intended result. Houses, and funds, and books are all, indeed, important; but they are only the means of enabling the minds of the teachers to act upon the minds of the pupils. And they must, inevitably, fail of their happiest effects, till the minds of the teachers have been prepared to act upon those of their pupils to the greatest advantage.

If, then, the first step toward a reform in our system of popular education be the scientific preparation of teachers for the free schools, our next inquiry becomes, How can we soonest and most perfectly achieve an object on every account so desirable? The ready and obvious answer is, establish an institution for the very purpose. To my mind, this seems to be the only measure which will insure to the public the attainment of the object. It will be called a new project. Be it so. The concession does not prove that the project is a bad one, or a visionary, or an impracticable one. Our ancestors ventured to do what the world had never done before, in so perfect a manner, when they established the free schools. Let us also do what they have never so well done yet, and establish an institution for the exclusive purpose of preparing instructors for them. This is only a second part, a development or consummation of the plan of our fathers. They foresaw the effect of universal intelligence upon national virtue and happiness; and they projected the means of securing to themselves and to us universal education. They wisely did a new thing under the sun. It has proved to be a good thing. We now enjoy the results of their labors, and we are sensible of the enjoyment. Their posterity have praised them, loudly praised them, for the wisdom of their efforts. Let us, then, with hints from them, project and accomplish another new thing, and confer as great a blessing on those who may come after us. Let us finish the work of our fathers, in regard to popular education, and give to it its full effect. Let us double, for we easily may, the happy influences of an institution which has already attracted so much notice from every part of our country, and drawn after it so many imitations, and send it, thus improved, down to posterity for their admiration.

If a seminary for the purpose of educating teachers scientifically be essential in order to give the greatest efficacy to our system of popular education, then, in the progress of the discussion, the three following questions arise in the order in which they are stated. By whom should the proposed institution be established? What would be its leading features? And what would be some of the peculiar advantages to the public which would result from it? To answer these several questions at length would require a book; while I have, at present, only leisure to prepare one or two newspaper essays. A few hints, therefore, upon the above three topics are all that I dare profess to give, and more than I fear I can give, either to my own satisfaction or that of those readers who may have become interested in the subject.

The institution, from its peculiar purpose, must necessarily be both literary and scientific in its character. And although, with its design constantly in view, we could not reasonably expect it to add, directly, much to the stock of what is now called literature, or to enlarge much the boundaries of what is now called science, yet, from the very nature of the subject to which it would be devoted, and upon which it would be employed, it must in its progress create a kind of literature of its own, and open a new science somewhat peculiar to itself—the science of the development of the infant mind, and the science of communicating knowledge from one mind to another while in a different stage of maturity. The tendency of the inquiries which must be carried on, and the discoveries which would be constantly made, in a seminary for this new purpose, would be to give efficacy to the pursuits of other literary and scientific institutions. Its influence, therefore, though indirect, would be not the less powerful upon the cause of literature and the sciences generally. These remarks may seem to anticipate another part of my subject; but they are introduced here to show that a seminary for the education of teachers would stand, at least, on as favorable a footing in

relation to the public, as other literary and scientific institutions. It seems now to be believed that the Legislature of the State are the rightful proprietors of all public institutions for the diffusion of knowledge. And if they are of any, they certainly ought to be of one for such a purpose. Because there are none in which the public would be more deeply interested. There are none which would tend so much to diffuse knowledge among the whole mass of the people. And this, as has been before remarked, is a solemn duty enjoined upon our government by the constitution under which they are organized, and from which they derive their authority. Besides, it is the first impulse of every government, operating as quickly and steadily as instinct, to provide for its own preservation. And it seems to be conceded on all hands, by the friends as well as the enemies of freedom, that a government like our own can only exist among a people generally enlightened; the only question as to the permanency of free institutions being, whether it be possible to make and to keep the whole population of a nation so well educated as the existence of such institutions supposes and requires.

Our government, therefore, are urged by every motive which the constitution can enjoin or self-preservation suggest, to see to it that knowledge is generally diffused among the people. Upon this subject of popular education, a *free* government must be *arbitrary*; for its existence depends upon it. The more ignorant and degraded people are, the less do they feel the want of instruction, and the less will they seek it. And these are the classes of a community which always increase the fastest up to the very point, where the means of subsistence fail. So that if any one class of men, however small, be suffered as a body to remain in ignorance, and to allow their families to grow up without instruction, they will increase in a greater ratio, compared with their numbers, than the more enlightened classes, till they have a preponderance of physical power. And when this preponderance becomes overwhelming, what hinders a revolution and an arbitrary government, by which the mind of a few can control the physical strength of the many?

If this reasoning be correct, a free government must look to it betimes, that popular ignorance does not gain upon them. If it do, there is a thistle in the vineyard of the republic, which will grow and spread itself in every direction, till it cannot be eradicated. The ignorant must be allured to learn by every motive which can be offered to them. And if they will not thus be allured, they must be taken by the strong arm of government and brought out, willing or unwilling, and made to learn, at least, enough to make them peaceable and good citizens. It would be well, indeed, if the possibility could be held out to all of successfully aspiring to responsible stations in society. A faint hope is better than despair. And though only one chance in a thousand be favorable, even that is worth something to stimulate the young to greater efforts, to become worthy of distinction. The few who, under all the disadvantages which adverse circumstances impose, can find their way by untired perseverance to places of trust and influence in the republic, serve to give identity of feeling, of purpose, and pursuit to the whole. They harmonize and bind together all those different and distant classes of the community, between which fretful jealousies naturally subsist.

These are hints, only, at an argument, perhaps unintelligible ones, to establish the principle, that free governments are the proprietors of all literary and scientific institutions, so far as they have the tendency to diffuse knowledge generally among the people. The free schools of Massachusetts, as the most efficient means of accomplishing that object, should therefore be the property and the peculiar care of government. An argument will, at once, be drawn from these principles why they should assume the direction of the schools, so far as to insure to the people over whom they are appointed to preside, competent teachers of them. And as this is the main purpose of the proposed institution, the reasoning seems to be conclusive why they should be its proprietor, or, at least, its patron and protector.

An institution for the education of teachers, as has been before intimated, would form a part, and a very important part, of the free-school system. It would be, moreover, precisely that portion of the system which should be under the direction of the State, whether the others are or not. Because we should

thus secure at once, a uniform, intelligent, and independent tribunal for decisions on the qualifications of teachers. Because we should thus relieve the clergy of an invidious task, and insure to the public competent teachers, if such could be found or prepared. An institution for this purpose would become, by its influence on society, and particularly on the young, an engine to sway the public sentiment, the public morals, and the public religion, more powerful than any other in the possession of government. It should, therefore, be responsible immediately to them. And they should carefully overlook it, and prevent its being perverted to other purposes, directly or indirectly, than those for which it is designed. It should be emphatically the State's institution. And its results would soon make it the State's favorite and pride, among other literary and scientific institutions. The Legislature of the State should, therefore, establish and build it up, without waiting for individuals, at great private sacrifices, to accomplish the work. Such would be the influence of an institution for the education of teachers; and such is the growing conviction of the strength of early associations and habits, that it cannot be long before the work will be begun in some form. If it be not undertaken by the public and for public purposes, it will be undertaken by individuals for private purposes.

The people of Massachusetts are able and willing, yea, more than willing, they are anxious to do something more for popular education, for the diffusion of knowledge generally. The only questions with them are how and where can means be applied to the purpose to the greatest advantage. It may safely be submitted, by the friends of the free schools, to a republican people and their republican government, which institutions on comparison most deserve the public bounty; those whose advantages can be enjoyed but by a few, or those which are open to the whole population; those which have for their main objects good that is remote, or those whose happy influences are felt at once, through the whole community. Which institutions deserve the first consideration, and the most anxious attention of a popular government, those which will place a few scholars and philologists upon a level with the Germans in a knowledge of Greek accents, or those which will put our whole people upon the level of enlightened men in their practical knowledge of common things? These objects may all be important to us. But the former will be provided for by individuals; the latter are the peculiar care of government.

The next question, mentioned above, as arising in the progress of this discussion, was, what would be the leading features of an institution for the education of teachers. If the institution were to be founded by the State, upon a large scale, the following parts would seem to be obviously essential. 1. An appropriate library, with a philosophical apparatus. 2. A principal and assistant professor in the different departments. 3. A school for children of different ages, embracing both those desiring a general education, and those designed particularly for teachers. 4. A Board of Commissioners, or an enlightened body of men representing the interests and the wishes of the public.

1. A library should of course be selected with particular reference to the objects of the institution. It would naturally and necessarily contain the approved authors on the science of education in its widest sense. It would embrace works of acknowledged merit in the various branches of literature and science intimately connected with education; such as anatomy and physiology, the philosophy of the human mind and heart, and the philosophy of language.

Physical education forms a very essential part of the subject, and should be thoroughly understood. This branch includes the development of all the organs of the body. And works upon the physiology of children should be added to the library. Books on gymnastics, containing directions for particular exercises adapted to the development of the several organs, belong to the library of the accomplished instructor, as well as to that of the surgeon. Indeed, if the former properly use them, they will enable him to give a firmness to the parts of the body which may, perhaps, supersede the necessity of the interference of the latter to set them right in manhood.

The philosophy of the infant mind must be understood by the instructor before much progress can be made in the science of education; for a principal branch of the science consists in forming the mind. And the skill of the teacher in this department is chiefly to be seen in his judicious adaptation of means to the de-

velopment of the intellectual faculties. Every book, therefore, which would aid in an analysis of the youthful mind, should be placed in the library of the proposed institution.

The human heart, the philosophy of its passions and its affections, must be studied by those who expect to influence those passions, and form those affections. This branch of the subject includes the government of children, especially in the earliest stages of their discipline. The success of the teacher here depends upon the good judgment with which he arranges and presents to his pupils the motives that will soonest move them, and most permanently influence their actions. The mistaken or wicked principles of parents and instructors, in this department of education, have, no doubt, perverted the dispositions of many hopeful children. If successful experience has been recorded, it should be brought to the assistance of those who must otherwise act without experience.

Lastly, the study of the philosophy of language would be essential to the scientific teacher. The term language is not here understood to mean a class of words called Greek, or another class of words called Latin, or even that class of words which we call English. It means something more general, and something which can hardly be defined. It embraces all the means we use to excite in the minds of others the ideas which we have already in our own minds. These, whatever they are, are included in the general definition of language. This is a great desideratum in our systems of education. We do not possess a language by which we can produce *precisely* the idea in a pupil which we have in our own mind, and which we wish to excite in his. And impatient and precipitate teachers quite often quarrel with their pupils, because they do not arrive at the same conclusions with themselves, when, if they could but look into their minds, they would find that the ideas with which they begin to reason, or which enter into their processes of reasoning, are altogether different. Every book or fact, therefore, which would do any thing to supply this desideratum, or enable the teacher better to understand precisely the idea which he excites in the mind of his pupils, should be collected in the instructor's library.

2. The institution should have its principal and its assistant professors. The government and instruction of a seminary for the education of teachers would be among the most responsible situations which could be assigned to men in literary or scientific pursuits. As many of the objects of the institution would be new, so the duties of its instructors would also be new. No commanding minds have gone before precisely in the proposed course, and struck out a path which others may easily follow. There are no *rules* laid down for the direction of those who will not think upon, or who cannot understand the subject. Men must, therefore, be brought to the task who have the ability to observe accurately and to discriminate nicely. They must also collect the results of what experience they can from books and from others, in order to enable themselves to form some general principles for the direction of their pupils, who will go abroad to carry their improvements to others. It is not supposed for a moment that all who may receive instruction at the proposed institution with the intention of becoming teachers, will necessarily be made thereby adepts in the science, any more than it is believed that all who happen to reside four years within the walls of a college are necessarily made expert in the mysteries of syllogisms and the calculus. But having seen correct general principles of education successfully reduced to practice, they may, at least, become *artists* in the profession, and be able to teach pretty well upon a system, the philosophy of which they cannot thoroughly comprehend.

3. A school of children and youth of different ages and pursuing different branches of study would form an essential part of the institution. In the early stages of the education of children, the discipline should consist almost wholly of such exercises as serve to develop the different faculties and strengthen all the powers of the mind. And in the subsequent education of youth, when the discipline comes to consist partly in the development of the mind, and partly in the communication of knowledge, the course of instruction would be the same, whether the pupil were destined to be a teacher or not. The objects of the institution do not, therefore, become peculiar till after the pupil has acquired a certain degree of freedom and strength of mind; nor till after he has made the acquisition of the requisite amount of knowledge for the profession of teacher.

Though a pupil would necessarily imbibe a good deal of clearness and method in his intellectual exercises by submitting the direction of them to a skillful instructor, the study of the science of teaching cannot properly begin till he changes relations with those about him; and, instead of following a course prescribed by another, and exhibiting the powers of his own mind without an effort to take cognizance of them, he assumes to look down upon humbler minds, to direct their movements, and to detect and classify the phenomena of their subtle workings.

After the young candidate for an instructor, therefore, has acquired sufficient knowledge for directing those exercises and teaching those branches which he wishes to profess, he must then begin his labors under the scrutinizing eyes of one who will note his mistakes of government and faults of instruction, and correct them. The experienced and skillful professor of the science will observe how the mind of the young teacher acts upon that of the learner. He will see how far and how perfectly they understand each other, and which is at fault if they do not understand each other at all. If the more inexperienced teacher should attempt to force upon the mind of a child an idea or a process of reasoning for which it was not in a proper state, he would be checked at once, and told of his fault; and thus, perhaps, the pupil would be spared a disgust for a particular study, or an aversion to all study. As our earliest experience would in this manner be under the direction of those wiser than ourselves, it would the more easily be classed under general principles for our direction afterward. This part of the necessary course in an institution for the education of teachers might be much aided by lectures. Children exhibit such and such intellectual phenomena; the scientific professor of education can explain those phenomena, and tell from what they arise. If they are favorable, he can direct how they are to be encouraged and turned to account in the development and formation of the mind. If they are unfavorable, he can explain by what means they are to be overcome or corrected. Seeing intellectual results, he can trace them, even through complicated circumstances, to their causes: or, knowing the causes and circumstances, he can predict the result that will follow them. Thus every day's experience would be carefully examined, and made to limit or extend the comprehension of the general principles of the science. Is there any other process or method than this to arrive at a philosophical system of education? If any occurs to other minds, it is to be hoped that the public may soon have the benefit of it.

4. The fourth branch, which I mentioned above as constituting an important part of an institution for the education of teachers, was a Board of Commissioners. Although they would, probably, have but little to do with the immediate government and instruction of the institution, they would be valuable to it by representing the wishes of the community, and by bringing it more perfectly in contact with the public interests. Besides, it must occur to every one, that in the general management of such an establishment, many of the transactions would require characters and talents very different from those that would, generally, be found in the principal or professors. Men might easily be found who would lecture to admiration, and yet be wholly incompetent to assume the general direction of the establishment. The professors, too, would always want assistance and authority in determining what acquisitions should be required for admission into the institution, and what proficiency should be deemed essential in the candidates before leaving it to assume the business of teaching. Upon what principles shall the school be collected? How shall the privilege of attending as new learners in the science of education be settled upon applications from different parts of the State or country? These and many similar questions would render a body of men, distinct from the professors, important to the institution. Many decisions, too, must necessarily be made, affecting individual and private interests. This would be an invidious duty, and the instructors should be relieved from it as far as possible. It is confidently believed that the peculiar advantages to be enjoyed at such an institution by children and youth generally, as well as by those designed for teachers, would command a price sufficient to defray nearly the whole expenses of the establishment. If not so, then might not each town send one or more young men to the institution to be properly educated for instructors, and require them in return to teach their public schools to liquidate the expense? All these means, however, are subjects for future consider-

ation, and are to be devised after the utility of the institution has been demonstrated.

The peculiar advantages of an institution for the education of teachers would be far too numerous and too important to be either embraced or enforced in the space which remains for this topic. A few, therefore, of the most obvious ones are all that can here be alluded to. One advantage, and a very certain one, would be to raise the character of teachers generally; and consequently, in the same degree, the character of the schools which they teach. Let us pause, for a moment, to consider to what an extent we are interested in every thing which affects our system of public instruction; and hence derive a motive, before we pass on, to enforce attention to every suggestion for improvement in it.

There were in the district of Massachusetts, according to the census of 1820, five hundred and twenty-three thousand one hundred and fifty-nine souls. Of this number, two hundred and forty-one thousand seven hundred and eleven were under the age of eighteen years. The numbers have since been much augmented. If the population has increased only as fast since the last census as it did between the census of 1810 and that of 1820, there are now, in round numbers, about two hundred and fifty thousand children and youth in Massachusetts under the age of eighteen years. This, it will be perceived, amounts to almost one-half of the whole number of souls. If we take from the older those between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one, and add them to the younger part of the population, we shall find at least half, and probably more than half of the whole, under twenty-one years.

These are all flexible subjects of education, in its most comprehensive sense; though they are not all within the influence of that part of it which can be easily controlled by legislation, or indeed by any means except by an enlightened public opinion. A few of this great number have left the schools and all direct means of education, and entered upon the active business of life. And a portion of the younger part of them are yet subjects only for domestic education. But after these deductions from the two extremes, it will not be extravagant to state, that one-third of the whole population are of a suitable age, have opportunity, and do actually attend school some portion of the year. In Massachusetts we have not the means of knowing accurately the numbers of children and youth who attend our schools; because we have no system of returns to any public authority, by which such facts can be ascertained. But I am confirmed in the belief that the above is not an extravagant estimate, by two circumstances. One of them is, several towns have been carefully examined, and this is about the proportion of the population found in their schools. And the other is, official documents and acknowledged authorities from the neighboring State of Connecticut informs us that one-third of the population attend their free schools a part of the year. And probably the same would be found to be true of New York, as well as of the remainder of the New England States.

These are statistical facts. Others may reason upon them and draw what conclusions they can, about immigration, the future prospects of New England, her comparative influence in the Union, and the facilities she affords for a *manufacturing district*. They have been introduced here because they suggest motives stronger than any others, to enforce attention to our means of popular education. One-third of our whole population are now at that period of life when their principles and characters are rapidly forming. Habits, both moral and intellectual, are taking their direction, and acquiring the strength of age. In all this, the schools must have a deep influence. Both the degree and the kind of influence are, to a certain extent, within our control, and consequently depend upon our efforts. In twenty years, and surely twenty years are not beyond the ken of a tolerably clear-sighted politician, this part of our population will succeed to most of the responsible places and relations of their fathers. They must receive all that we have to leave for them. They must take our names, and attach to them honor or infamy. They must possess our fortunes, to preserve or disperse them. And they must inherit our free institutions, to improve, pervert, or destroy them. Here, then, are the strongest political motives, as well as paternal affection, urging upon us attention to all the means of forming correctly the characters of those who are to receive from us our choicest blessings. And what means within our control can be devised more efficient for this purpose, than

those primary seminaries for instruction, where the mass of the people must receive several years of their education? Find, if they are to be found, or create, if they are not now to be found, a class of teachers *well skilled* in their profession, and put them into all our free schools. What an effect would soon be produced in their condition! And what a renovating influence these same schools would soon have upon the character of the whole people who have access to them!

But these are general advantages of a good class of teachers. I promised to speak of the peculiar advantages of the proposed institution to produce them. The library, collected with particular reference to the objects of the institution, would contain the *facts* of the science of education scattered along in the history of the world. Facts are the materials of philosophy. And we cannot philosophize, safely, till we have an extensive stock before us. The library would naturally collect, not only those phenomena relating to the subject which have already been observed, but also the records of those which must be daily passing before our eyes. Books connected with and collateral to the science will be as important to the purposes of the institution as those professedly written upon the subject. And frequently they will be found to be much more so. Because the former contain the facts and the phenomena, while the latter have only an author's reasoning and conclusions upon them. And the authors who have written upon education, with very few exceptions, have reasoned speciously, but from very limited and imperfect inductions. So that their conclusions, though they may be correct, as far as they had the necessary means of making them so, are liable to fail, totally, when reduced to practice under circumstances a little different from those from which the principles have been formed. We want more experience before we begin to reason at large and to draw sweeping conclusions on the subject. And our library would be chiefly valuable as containing that experience, or the results of it, accurately and authentically recorded.

But the conclusions of writers on the subject, though received and repeated by every body, are not binding and beyond question, till we know that the facts from which they reasoned are *all* which can affect the principles that they deduce from them. And to believe that the experience of two thousand years, embracing the present age, which is so full of phenomena of all kinds, has not added something to our means of a copious and safe induction to principles of education, requires a stretch of credulity with which my mind is not gifted. It will be safer, as a general rule, to assume that they teach us what to avoid, rather than what to imitate.

When we have collected the means of reasoning correctly, which books can afford, and added to them the living materials of philosophy, which will be constantly exhibited in the school which is to form a part of the institution, we are to place all these before instructors of discriminating minds, who are able and willing to *observe* as well as to reason. We are, then, to turn the public attention toward them in good earnest, and let them see that something is expected from them. There is a moral certainty, under such circumstances, that the expectation will be gratified. When the public attention is turned toward any subject, all the ardent and discriminating minds act in concert. And like the rays of the sun converged to a point by a lens, they act with an intensity which must produce an effect.

It would be a natural result of the proposed institution to organize the teachers into a more distinct profession, and to raise the general standard of their intellectual attainments. It would therefore concentrate and give energy and direction to exertions and inquiries, which are now comparatively wasted for want of such direction. No one, indeed, can now foresee, precisely, what effect would be produced upon our systems of education and principles of instruction by subjecting them to such an ordeal. To foretell the improvements that would be made, would be to make them, and supersede the necessity of an institution for the purpose. Though the necessity would still remain for some similar means to propagate them among the people. But if our principles of education, and particularly our principles of government and instruction, are not already perfect, we may confidently expect improvements, though we may not know, precisely, in what they will consist.

Many persons knew twenty years ago that steam was expansive. But who

foresaw the degree to which its expansion could be raised, or the purposes to which it could be applied? Public attention was turned to the subject in earnest, and we now see vessels moving in every direction by its power. It was known long since that light wood would float, and water run down hill. But who foresaw, twenty years ago, the present state of our internal improvement by means of canals? Public attention and powerful minds were directed to the subject, and we now see boats ascending and descending our mountains, and traversing our continent in every direction. Those who were before almost our antipodes, have now, by the facilities of communication, become our neighbors. The most intrepid prophet would hardly have dared, even ten years ago, to predict the present state of our manufactories. This has all been done, because it could be done, and many minds were turned to the subject, and resolved that it should be done. All these are in many respects analogous cases, and go to show that we do not always know how near to us important improvements are; and that it is only necessary to direct the public attention to a subject in order to insure some inventions in it.

A great variety of other peculiar advantages to the public, it occurs to me, must arise from an institution for the education of teachers. But I have confined myself to those only which seemed to be the most striking and important. All others will be found to be involved, in a great degree, or wholly, in those which I have stated. And although to enumerate them might add some new motives for attention to the subject, they could not strengthen much the argument in favor of an institution somewhat like that which has been above described. I must now take my leave of the subject for the present; my only regrets being that I have not had ability to do more justice to the several topics which I have discussed, nor time to do more justice to my own views of them.

Mr. Carter commenced his public labors in the cause of popular education by the publication of "*Letters to the Hon. William Prescott, LL.D., on the Free Schools of New England, with Remarks on the Principles of Instruction,*" in 1824. In the same year he commenced in the Boston Patriot, over the signature of "Franklin," a series of Essays on Popular Education, which were subsequently published, in a pamphlet form, in 1826. In this series of essays he first gave to the public his plan of a Teachers' Seminary. These essays, and particularly, his views on the principles of education as a science, and his outline of an institution for the education of teachers, attracted much attention. They were very ably and favorably reviewed in the United States Review, edited by Theophilus Parsons, and of which Journal Mr. Carter, on its being united with the Literary Gazette, became editor, and devoted a portion of the columns to an advocacy of educational improvements before the public. The essays were made the basis of an article in the North American Review, for 1827, by Prof. Ticknor, and through that article his plan was made known to the English public. Prof. Bryce, in his "*Sketch of a Plan for a System of National Education for Ireland,*" published in London, in 1828, speaks of the "outline," as the "first regular publication on the subject" of the professional education of teachers which he had heard of.

In 1827, Mr. Carter presented a memorial to the Legislature, praying for aid in the establishment of a seminary for the education of teachers with a model school attached. The memorial was favorably reported on by a committee, of which the Hon. William B. Calhoun, of Springfield, Mass., was chairman, and a bill, making an appropriation, was lost by one vote in the Senate. In that year, the town of Lancaster appropriated a

portion of land, and the use of an academy building, to aid him in carrying out his plan as a private enterprise. He purchased several dwelling-houses to accommodate his pupils and teachers with lodgings and board, hired assistants who were to be taught by himself on his plan, and opened his school. Within a few months after his school opened, the people of Lancaster, who did not comprehend the full and ultimate public benefits of the new institution, began to manifest opposition, and threw such obstacles in his way, that he was obliged to abandon his project, as a public enterprise, after having embarrassed himself by his pecuniary outlays for buildings and teachers. He, however, continued to give instruction for many years afterward to private pupils, many of whom are now successful teachers in different parts of the Union.

In 1830, Mr. Carter assisted in the establishment of the American Institute of Instruction, of which he was for many years an officer and an active member. At its first session he delivered a lecture on "the development of the intellectual faculties," in which he treats of education as a science; and in 1831, he gave another lecture on "the necessity and most practicable means of raising the qualifications of teachers."

In 1835, and for several years afterward, he was a member of the Legislature, and in that position, as chairman of the Committee of Education, drafted several able reports and bills, to promote the cause of educational improvement. During his first term, he secured the appropriation of three hundred dollars a year in aid of the objects of the American Institute of Instruction. In the same session he submitted an elaborate report in favor of "an Act to provide for the better instruction of youth, employed in manufacturing establishments,"—which the Hon. Rufus Choate characterized as "a measure of large wisdom and expanded benevolence, which makes it practicable and safe for Massachusetts to grow rich by manufacture and by art." In 1836, as chairman of the same committee, he reported a bill for the appointment of a Superintendent of Common Schools, and advocated the establishment of a seminary for the professional education of teachers.

In 1837, Mr. Carter made a vigorous effort in the House to secure the appropriation of one half of the United States Surplus Revenue, for the education of Common School teachers. His speech, on the second of February, for this object, is an able exposition of the claims of free schools for efficient and liberal legislation, and of the necessity of an institution devoted exclusively to the appropriate education of teachers for them. His amendment was lost; but he had the satisfaction, at a later period of the session, to draft the bill, establishing the Board of Education, which was adopted. Gov. Everett nominated Mr. Carter the first member of the Board.

MEMORIAL

OF THE

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION TO THE LEGISLATURE OF
MASSACHUSETTS ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

(Submitted January, 1837.)

TO THE HONORABLE THE LEGISLATURE
OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The Memorial of the Directors of the American Institute of Instruction, praying that provision may be made for the better preparation of the teachers of the schools of the Commonwealth, respectfully sheweth :

THAT there is, throughout the Commonwealth, a great want of well-qualified teachers :

That this is felt in all the schools, of all classes, but especially in the most important and numerous class, the district schools :

That wherever, in any town, exertion has been made to improve these schools, it has been met and baffled by the want of good teachers ; that they have been sought for in vain ; the highest salaries have been offered, to no purpose ; that they *are not to be found* in sufficient numbers to supply the demand :—

That their place is supplied by persons exceedingly incompetent, in *many* respects ; by young men, in the course of their studies, teaching from necessity, and often with a strong dislike for the pursuit ; by mechanics and others wanting present employment ; and by persons who, having failed in other callings, take to teaching as a last resort, with no qualifications for it, and no desire of continuing in it longer than they are obliged by an absolute necessity :—

That those among this number who have a natural fitness for the work, now gain the experience, without which no one, whatever his gifts, can become a good teacher, by the sacrifice, winter after winter, of the time and advancement of the children of the schools of the Commonwealth :

That every school is now liable to have a winter's session wasted by the unskillful attempts of an instructor, making his first experiments in teaching : By the close of the season, he may have gained some insight into the mystery, may have hit upon some tolerable method of discipline, may have grown somewhat familiar with the books used and with the character of the children ; and, if he could go on in the same school for successive years, might become a profitable teacher : but whatever he may have gained *himself*, from his experiments, he will have failed too entirely of meeting the just expectations of the district, to leave him any hope of being engaged for a second term : He accordingly looks elsewhere for the next season, and the district receives another master, to have the existing regulations set aside, and to undergo another series of experiments : We do not state the fact too strongly, when we say, that *the time, capacities, and opportunities of thousands of the children are now sacrificed, winter after winter, to the preparation of teachers, who, after this enormous sacrifice, are, notwithstanding, often very wretchedly prepared :*

That many times, no preparation is even aimed at : that such is the known demand for teachers of every kind, with or without qualifications, that candidates present themselves for the employment, and committees, in despair of finding better, employ them, who have no degree of fitness for the work : that committees are obliged to employ, to take charge of their children, men to whose incompetency they would reluctantly commit their farms or their workshops :

That the reaction of this deplorable incompetency of the teachers, upon the minds of the committees, is hardly less to be deplored, hardly less alarming, as it threatens to continue the evil and render it perpetual : Finding they cannot get suitable teachers at any price, they naturally apportion the salary to the value of the service rendered, and the consequence is, that, in many places, the wages of a teacher are below those given in the humblest of the mechanic arts ;

and instances are known, of persons of tolerable qualifications as teachers, declining to quit, for a season, some of the least gainful of the trades, on the ground of the lowness of the teachers' pay.

We merely state these facts, without enlarging upon them, as they have already too great and melancholy a notoriety. We but add our voice to the deep tone of grief and complaint which sounds from every part of the State.

We are not surprised at this condition of the teachers. We should be surprised if it were much otherwise.

Most of the winter schools are taught for about three months in the year; the summer not far beyond four. They are, therefore, of necessity, taught, and must continue to be taught, by persons who, for two-thirds or three-fourths of the year, have other pursuits, in qualifying themselves for which they have spent the usual period, and which, of course, they look upon as the main business of their lives. They cannot be expected to make great exertions and expensive preparation for the work of teaching, in which the standard is so low, and for which they are so poorly paid.

Whatever desire they might have, it would be almost in vain. There are now no places suited to give them the instruction they need.

For every other profession requiring a knowledge of the principles of science and the conclusions of experience, there are special schools and colleges, with learned and able professors, and ample apparatus. For the preparation of the teachers, there is almost none. In every other art ministering to the wants and conveniences of men, masters may be found ready to impart whatsoever of skill they have to the willing apprentice; and the usage of society justly requires that years should be spent under the eye of an adept, to gain the requisite ability. An apprentice to a schoolmaster is known only in tradition.

We respectfully maintain that it ought not so to be: so much of the intelligence and character, the welfare and immediate and future happiness of all the citizens, now and hereafter, depends on the condition of the common schools, that it is of necessity a matter of the dearest interest to all of the present generation; that the common education is to such a degree the palladium of our liberties, and the good condition of the common schools, in which that education is chiefly obtained, so vitally important to the *stability* of our State, to our very *existence* as a *free* State, that it is the most proper subject for legislation, and calls loudly for legislative provision and protection. The common schools ought to be raised to their proper place; and this can only be done by the better education of the teachers.

We maintain that provision ought to be made by the *State* for the education of teachers; *because*, while their education is so important to the State, their condition generally is such as to put a suitable education entirely beyond their reach; *because*, by no other means is it likely that a system shall be introduced, which shall prevent the immense annual loss of time to the schools, from a change of teachers; and *because*, the qualifications of a first-rate teacher are such as cannot be gained but by giving a considerable time wholly to the work of preparation.

In his calling, there is a peculiar difficulty in the fact, that whereas, in other callings and professions, duties and difficulties come on gradually, and one by one, giving ample time, in the intervals, for special preparation, in *his* they all come at once. On the first day on which he enters the school, his difficulties meet him with a single, unbroken, serried front, as numerous as they ever will; and they refuse to be separated. He cannot divide and overcome them singly, putting off the more formidable to wrestle with at a future time; he could only have met them with complete success, by long forecast, by months and years of preparation.

The qualifications requisite in a good teacher, of which many have so low and inadequate an idea, as to think them almost the instinctive attributes of every man and every woman, we maintain to be excellent qualities, rarely united in a high degree in the same individual, and to obtain which one *must* give, and may *well* give, much time and study.

We begin with the *lowest*. He must have a *thorough knowledge* of whatever he undertakes to teach. If it were not so common, how absurd would it seem, that one should undertake to communicate to another fluency and grace in the

beautiful accomplishment of reading, without having them himself; or to give skill in the processes of arithmetic, while he understood it so dimly himself as to be obliged to follow the rules, as blindly as the child he was teaching! And yet, are there not many teachers yearly employed by committees, from the impossibility of finding better, who, in reading and arithmetic, as in every thing else, are but one step before, if they do not fall behind, the foremost of their own pupils? Is it not so in geography, in English grammar, in every thing, in short, which is now required to be taught?

If the teacher understood thoroughly what is required in the usual, prescribed course, it would be *something*. But we maintain that the teachers of the public schools ought to be able to *do much more*. In every school occasions are daily occurring, on which, from a well-stored mind, could be imparted, upon the most interesting and important subjects, much that would be of the greatest value to the learner, at the impassible period of his pupilage. Ought not these occasions to be provided for? Besides, there are always at least a few forward pupils, full of talent, ready to make advances far beyond the common course. Such, if their teacher could conduct them, would rejoice, instead of circling again and again in the same dull round, to go *onward*, in other and higher studies, so manifestly valuable, that the usual studies of a school seem but as steps, intended to lead up to them.

In the second place, a teacher should so understand the *ordering and discipline* of a school, as to be able at once to introduce system, and to keep it constantly in force. Much precious time, as already stated, is lost in making, changing, abrogating, modeling and remodeling rules and regulations. And not only is the time *utterly lost*, but the changes are a source of *perplexity and vexation* to master and pupil. A judicious system of regulations not only takes up no time, but *saves* time for every thing else. We believe there are few persons to whom this knowledge of system comes without an effort, who are *born* with such an aptitude to order that they fall into it naturally and of course.

In the third place, a teacher should know *how* to teach. This, we believe, is the rarest and best of his qualifications. Without it, great knowledge, however pleasant to the possessor, will be of little use to his pupils; and with it, a small fund will be made to produce great effects. It cannot, with propriety, be considered a single faculty. It is rather a practical knowledge of the best methods of bringing the truths of the several subjects that are to be taught, to the comprehension of the learner. Not often does the same method apply to several studies. It must vary with the nature of the truths to be communicated, and with the age, capacity, and advancement of the pupil. To possess it fully, one must have ready command of elementary principles, a habit of seeing them in various points of view, and of promptly seizing the one best suited to the learner; a power of awakening his curiosity, and of adapting the lessons to the mind, so as to bring out its faculties naturally and without violence. It therefore supposes an acquaintance with the *minds* of children, the order in which their faculties expand, and by what discipline they may be nurtured, and their inequalities repaired.

This knowledge of the human mind and character may be stated as a fourth qualification of a teacher. Without it, he will be always groping his way darkly. He will disgust the forward and quick-witted, by making them linger along with the slow; and dishearten the slow, by expecting them to keep pæce with the swift. He will fail of the peculiar end of right education, the quickening to life and action those faculties which, without his fostering care, would have been left to lie dormant.

Whoever considers to how great a degree the successful action of the mind depends on the state of the feelings and affections, will be ready to admit that an instructor should know so much of the connection and subordination of the parts of the human character, as to be able to enlist them all in the same cause, to gain the *heart* to the side of advancement, and to make the *affections* the ministers of truth and wisdom.

We have spoken very briefly of some of the qualifications essential to a good teacher. It is hardly necessary to say, that there are still higher qualifications, which ought to belong to the persons who are to have such an influence upon the character and well-being of the future citizens of the Commonwealth; who, be-

sides parents, can do more than all others toward training the young to a clear perception of right and wrong, to the love of truth, to reverence for the laws of man and of God, to the performance of all the duties of good citizens and good men. The teacher ought to be a person of elevated character, able to win by his manners and instruct by his example, *without* as well as *within* the school.

Now it is known to your memorialists that a very large number of those, of both sexes, who now teach the summer and the winter schools, are, *to a mournful degree*, wanting in all these qualifications. Far from being able to avail themselves of opportunities of communicating knowledge on various subjects, they are grossly ignorant of what they are called on to teach. They are often without experience in managing a school; they have no skill in communicating. Instead of being able to stimulate and guide to all that is noble and excellent, they are, not seldom, persons of such doubtful respectability and refinement of character, that no one would think, for a moment, of holding them up as models to their pupils. In short, they know not *what* to teach, nor *how* to teach, nor in *what spirit* to teach, nor what is the nature of *those* they undertake to *lead*, nor what they are *themselves*, who stand forward to lead them.

Your memorialists believe that these are evils of *portentous moment* to the future welfare of the people of this Commonwealth, and that, while they bear heavily on all, they bear especially and with disproportioned weight upon the poorer districts in the scattered population of the country towns. The wealthy are less directly affected by them, as they can send their children from home to the better schools in other places. The large towns are not affected in the same degree, as their density of population enables them to employ teachers through the year, at salaries which command somewhat higher qualifications.

We believe that you have it in your power to adopt such measures as shall forthwith diminish these evils, and at last remove them; and that this can only be done by providing for the better preparation of teachers.

We therefore pray you to consider the expediency of instituting, for the special instruction of teachers, one or more seminaries, either standing independently, or in connection with institutions already existing; as you shall, in your wisdom, think best.

We also beg leave to state what we conceive to be essential to such a seminary.

1. There should be a professor or professors, of piety, of irreproachable character and good education, and of tried ability and skill in teaching.

2. A library, not necessarily large, but well chosen, of books on subjects to be taught, and on the art of teaching.

3. School-rooms, well situated, and arranged, heated, ventilated, and furnished, in the manner best approved by experienced teachers.

4. A select apparatus of globes, maps, and other instruments most useful for illustration.

5. A situation such that a school may be connected with the seminary, accessible by a sufficient number of children, to give the variety of an ordinary district school.

We beg leave also further to state the manner in which we conceive that such a seminary would be immediately useful to the schools within the sphere of its influence.

We do not believe that the majority of the district schools in the Commonwealth will soon, if ever, be taught by permanent teachers. We believe that they will continue to be taught, as they are now, by persons who, for the greater part of the year, will be engaged in some other pursuit: that, as in the early history of Rome, the generous husbandman left his plough to fight the battles of the state, so, in Massachusetts, the free and intelligent citizen will, for a time, quit his business, his workshop, or his farm, to fight, for the sake of his children and the state, a more vital battle against immorality and ignorance. And we rejoice to believe that it will be so. So shall the hearts of the fathers be in the schools of their children: so shall the teachers have that knowledge of the world, that acquaintance with men and things, so often wanting in the mere schoolmaster, and yet not among the least essential of his qualifications.

But we wish to see these citizens enjoy the means of obtaining the knowledge

and practical skill in the art of teaching, which shall enable them to perform the duties of their additional office worthily.

Establish a seminary wherever you please, and it will be immediately resorted to. We trust too confidently in that desire of excellence which seems to be an element in our New England character, to doubt that any young man, who, looking forward, sees that he shall have occasion to teach a school every winter for ten years, will avail himself of any means within his reach, of preparation for the work. Give him the opportunity, and he cannot fail to be essentially benefited by his attendance at the seminary, if it be but for a *single month*.

In the first place, he will see there an example of right ordering and management of a school; the spirit of which he may immediately imbibe, and can never after be at a loss, as to a *model* of management, or in doubt as to its *importance*.

In the second place, by listening to the teaching of another, he will be convinced of the necessity of preparation, as he will see that success depends on thorough knowledge and a direct action of the teacher's own mind. This alone would be a great point, as many a schoolmaster hears reading and spelling, and looks over writing and arithmetic, without ever attempting to give any instruction or explanation, or even thinking them necessary.

In the third place, he will see put in practice methods of teaching; and though he may, on reflection, conclude that none of them are exactly suited to his own mind, he will see the value of method, and will never after proceed as he would have done, if he had never seen methodical teaching at all.

In the next place, he will have new light thrown upon the whole work of education, by being made to perceive that its great end is not mechanically to communicate ability in certain operations, but to draw forth and exercise the whole powers of the physical, intellectual, and moral being.

He will, moreover, hardly fail to observe the importance of the *manners* of an instructor, and how far it depends on himself to give a tone of cheerfulness and alacrity to his school.

In the last place, if the right spirit prevail at the seminary, he will be prepared to enter upon his office with an exalted sense of its importance and responsibility—not as a poor drudge, performing a loathsome office for a miserable stipend, but as a delegate of the authority of *parents* and the *State*, to form men to the *high duties of citizens* and the *infinite destinies of immortality*, answerable to them, their country, and their God for the righteous discharge of his duties.

Now we believe that this single month's preparation would be of immense advantage to a young instructor.

Let him now enter the district school. He has a definite idea of what arrangements he is to make, what course he is to pursue, what he is to take hold of first. He knows that he is himself to teach, he knows *what* to teach, and, in some measure, *how he is to set about it*. He feels how much he has to do to prepare himself, and how much depends on his self-preparation. He has some conception of the duties and responsibilities of his office. At the end of a single season, he will, we venture to say, be a better teacher than he could have been after half a dozen, had he not availed himself of the experience of others. He will hardly fail to seek future occasions to draw more largely at the same fountain.

Let us not be understood as offering this statement of probable results as mere conjecture. They have been confirmed by all the experience, to the point, of a single institution in this State, and of many in a foreign country. What is thus, from experience and the reason of things, shown to be true in regard to a short preparation, will be still more strikingly so of a longer one.

To him, who shall make teaching the occupation of his life, the advantages of a Teachers' Seminary cannot easily be estimated. They can be faintly imagined by him only, who, lawyer, mechanic, or physician, can figure to himself what would have been his feelings, had he, on the first day of his apprenticeship, been called to perform, at once, the duties of his future profession, and, after being left to suffer for a time the agony of despair at the impossibility, had been told that two, three, seven years should be allowed him to prepare himself, with all the helps and appliances which are now so bountifully furnished to him,—which are furnished to *every one* except the teacher.

We have no doubt that teachers, prepared at such a seminary, would be in

such request as to command, at once, higher pay than is now given, since it would unquestionably be found good economy to employ them.

It raises no objection, in the minds of your memorialists, to the plan of a seminary at the State's expense, that many of the instructors there prepared would teach for only a portion of the year. It is *on that very ground* that they ought to be aided. For their daily callings they will take care to qualify themselves; they cannot, unaided, be expected to do the same in regard to the office of teacher, because it is a casual and temporary one; it is one which they will exercise, in the intervals of their stated business, for the good of their fellow-citizens. They ought, for that especial reason, to be assisted in preparing for it. The gain will be theirs, it is true; but it will be still more the gain of the community. It will be theirs, inasmuch as they will be able to command better salaries; but it will be only in consideration of the more valuable services they will render. The gain will be shared by other schools than those they teach. Seeing what can be done by *good* teachers, districts and committees will no longer rest satisfied with *poor*, and the standard will every where rise.

If it were only as enabling teachers throughout the State to teach, as they should, the branches now required to be taught, the seminaries would be worth more than their establishment can cost. But they would do much more. They would render the instruction given more worthy, in kind and degree, the enlightened citizens of a free State.

Without going too minutely into this part of the subject, we cannot fully show how the course of instruction might, in our judgment, be enlarged. We may be allowed to indicate a few particulars.

The study of geometry, that benignant nurse of inventive genius, is at present pursued partially, in a few of the town schools. We may safely assert that, under efficient teachers, the time now given to arithmetic would be amply sufficient, not only for that, but for geometry, and its most important applications in surveying and other useful arts. To a population so full of mechanical talent as ours, this is a lamentable omission.

We may also point to the case of drawing in right lines. It might, with a saving of time, be ingrafted on writing, if the instructors were qualified to teach it. This beautiful art, so valuable as a guide to the hand and eye of every one, especially of every handcraftsman, and deemed almost an essential in every school of France, and other countries of Europe, is, so far as we can learn from the Secretary's excellent report, entirely neglected in every public school in Massachusetts.

We might make similar observations in regard to book-keeping, now beginning to be introduced; natural philosophy, physiology, natural history, and other studies, which might come in, not to the exclusion, but to the manifest improvement, of the studies already pursued.

When we consider the many weeks in our long northern winters, during which, all through our borders, the arts of the husbandman and builder seem, like the processes of the vegetable world, to hold holiday, and the sound of many a trowel and many an ax and hammer ceases to be heard, and the hours, without any interruption of the busy labors of the year, might be given to learning by the youth of both sexes, almost up to the age of maturity, these *omissions*, the *unemployed intellect*, the golden days of early manhood *lost*, the acquisitions that *might* be made and *are not*, assume a vastness of importance which may well alarm us.

It may possibly be apprehended, that should superior teachers be prepared in the seminaries of Massachusetts, they would be invited to other States by higher salaries, and the advantage of their education be thus lost to the State. We know not that it ought to be considered an undesirable thing that natives of Massachusetts, who will certainly go, from time to time, to regions more favored by nature, should go with such characters and endowments as to render their chosen homes more worthy to be the residence of intelligent men. But we apprehend it to be an event much more likely to happen, that the successful example of Massachusetts should be imitated by her sister republics, emulous, as New York already shows herself, of surpassing us in what has hitherto been the chief glory of New England, a jealous care of the public schools.

For the elevation of the public schools to the high rank which they ought to

hold in a community, whose most precious patrimony is their liberty, and the intelligence, knowledge, and virtue on which alone it can rest, we urge our prayer. We speak boldly, for we seek no private end. We speak in the name and behalf of those who cannot appear before you to urge their own suit, the sons and daughters of the present race, and of all, of every race and class of coming generations in all future times.

For the directors of the American Institute of Instruction.

George B. Emerson; S. R. Hall; W. J. Adams; D. Kimball; E. A. Andrews; B. Greenleaf; N. Cleveland, *Committee*.

The above Memorial was prepared in pursuance of the following votes of the Institute.

At the Annual Meeting, in Boston, in August, 1836, the subject of the Professional Education of Teachers was ably discussed, and the following resolutions, offered by Mr. Frederic Emerson, of Boston, were adopted:—

Resolved, “That the business of teaching should be performed by those who have studied the subject of instruction as a profession. Therefore,

Resolved, That there ought to be at least one seminary in each state, devoted exclusively to the education of teachers; and that this seminary should be authorized to confer appropriate degrees.”

At a later period of the session, Mr. Morton, of Plymouth, proposed another resolution for the purpose of securing some action:—

Resolved, “That a committee be appointed to obtain funds by soliciting our State Legislature the next session, and by inviting individual donations for the purchase of land and the erection of the necessary buildings, and to put in operation a seminary to qualify teachers of youth for the most important occupation of mankind on the earth.”

After a long and ardent debate, the following was offered as an amendment, by Mr. F. Emerson, and was adopted:—

Ordered, “That the Board of Directors be instructed to memorialize the Legislature on the subject of establishing a seminary for the “*education of teachers*.”

A memorial was accordingly prepared by Mr. George B. Emerson, in behalf of a committee of the Directors, and submitted to the Legislature in January, 1837, by whose order it was printed and circulated with the other documents of the session. This paper is the ablest argument in behalf of a Normal School which had appeared up to that date; and will not suffer in comparison with any which the discussion of the subject has at any time called forth. It however did not lead to any legislative action during that session, but undoubtedly prepared the way. In the mean time, the Legislature, on the recommendation of the Governor, and of the Committee of Education, of which James G. Carter was chairman, and of a Memorial by the Directors of the Institute in 1836, which was drawn up by Mr. George B. Emerson, passed an Act instituting the Board of Education.

By the action of this Board, and the labors of its Secretary, and the well-timed liberality of Edmund Dwight, in 1838, the idea of a Normal School, so long advocated by the friends of school improvement, became a recognized fact in the legislation of Massachusetts. Previous to any action on the part of the Legislature, an experiment had been commenced as a private enterprise at Andover, in connection with one of the best conducted academies of the state.

TEACHERS' SEMINARY

AT

ANDOVER, MASSACHUSETTS.

"THE Teachers' Seminary at Andover was established in September, 1830, as a department of Phillips' Academy, one of the oldest literary institutions in New England. Its object, as set forth in a circular issued by the Trustees, was 'to afford the means of a thorough scientific and practical education, preparatory to the profession of teaching, and to the various departments of business.'

Though nominally a department of Phillips' Academy, it was from the first a separate institution, having its organization entirely distinct from that of the classical department.

The Trustees erected for the seminary a commodious and substantial school-edifice, and expended between two and three thousand dollars in the purchase of apparatus for illustrating the different branches of science. Liberal appropriations were made from time to time for the purpose of diminishing the expenses of the students. The institution was provided with a convenient boarding-house, and rooms for the accommodation of nearly a hundred pupils.

The seminary embraced a teachers' department, a general department, and a preparatory department or model school. The course of instruction in the teachers' department occupied a period of three years, and embraced most of the English branches pursued in our colleges, together with lectures and discussions on the theory and practice of teaching, and other kindred exercises. The course of instruction in the general department was shorter and more irregular. The members of this department were allowed to join any of the classes in the teachers' department, which they were prepared to enter.

In addition to the ordinary exercises of the general department, the study of civil engineering was introduced during the early history of the institution, and successfully prosecuted for several years, under the direction of the Rev. F. A. Barton. At a later period, special attention was given to the study of scientific and practical agriculture, under the instruction of the Rev. Alonzo Gray.

The preparatory department was an English school for boys, usually taught by a separate instructor, under the general superintendence of the Principal. Members of the teachers' classes were sometimes employed to conduct recitations in the preparatory department, but this department could not, at any time, be regarded as a school for practice.

The first Principal of the seminary was the Rev. S. R. Hall, who continued in office nearly seven years. In July, 1837, he was succeeded by the Rev. Lyman Coleman, who remained at the head of the institution till Nov. 1842, when the original object of the Trustees was abandoned, or the Teachers' Seminary was merged in Phillips' Academy.

The number of students in the teachers' classes was somewhat larger during the first six years than during the last six. The average number for the whole period was about fifty. The whole number of students that completed the prescribed course of study, during the existence of the seminary, was a little less than one hundred.

The immediate cause for uniting the Teachers' Seminary with the classical department of Phillips' Academy, in 1842, was the want of funds to sustain it as a separate institution. The limited number of students in the teachers' classes resulted in part from the same cause. In the classical department, the tuition of indigent students was remitted; but no such provision was made for the members of the teachers' classes.

The name of Samuel Farrar, Esq., of Andover, is identified with the history of this institution. If his generous and untiring efforts in its behalf had been seconded by those who had the means of giving it a liberal endowment, its usefulness would not have been brought to so abrupt a termination."

REMARKS

OF

DR. WILLIAM E. CHANNING ON EDUCATION AND TEACHERS.

IN 1833, Dr. Channing brought the aid of his personal influence and powerful pen, to the service of the teacher. In an article in the *Christian Examiner*, for November, 1833, written for the express purpose of commending the *Annals of Education*, and the great subject to which it was devoted, under the editorial charge of William C. Woodbridge, to the attention of the best class of minds in the community, the following views are presented as to the importance of institutions for the education of teachers, and the true nature and dignity of the office :

“ We are not aware that in this country a single school for teachers is supported at the public expense. How much would be gained, if every state should send one of its most distinguished citizens to examine the modes of teaching at home and in Europe, and should then place him at the head of a seminary for the formation of teachers.”

* * * * *

“ There is no office higher than that of a teacher of youth ; for there is nothing on earth so precious as the mind, soul, character of the child. No office should be regarded with greater respect. The first minds in the community should be encouraged to assume it. Parents should do all but impoverish themselves, to induce such to become the guardians and guides of their children. To this good, all their show and luxury should be sacrificed. Here they should be lavish, whilst they straiten themselves in every thing else. They should wear the cheapest clothes, live on the plainest food, if they can in no other way secure to their families the best instruction. They should have no anxiety to accumulate property for their children, provided they can place them under influences which will awaken their faculties, inspire them with pure and high principles, and fit them to bear a manly, useful, and honorable part in the world. No language can express the cruelty or folly of that economy, which, to leave a fortune to a child, starves his intellect, impoverishes his heart.”

* * * * *

“ We know not how society can be aided more than by the formation of a body of wise and efficient educators. We know not any class which would contribute so much to the stability of the state, and to domestic happiness. Much as we respect the ministry of the gospel, we believe that it must yield in importance to the office of training the young. In truth, the ministry now accomplishes little, for want of that early intellectual and moral discipline, by which alone a community can be prepared to distinguish truth from falsehood, to comprehend the instructions of the pulpit, to receive higher and broader views of duty, and to apply general principles to the diversified details of life. A body of cultivated men, devoted, with their whole hearts, to the improvement of education, and to the most effectual training of the young, would work a fundamental revolution in society. They would leaven the community with just principles.”

* * * * *

“ We maintain that higher ability is required for the office of an educator of the young, than for that of a statesman. The highest ability is that which penetrates farthest into human nature, comprehends the mind in all its capacities, traces out the laws of thought and moral action, understands the perfection of human nature, and how it may be approached, understands the springs, motives, applications, by

which the child is to be roused to the most vigorous and harmonious action of all its faculties, understands its perils, and knows how to blend and modify the influences which outward circumstances exert on the youthful mind. The speculations of statesmen are shallow, compared with these. It is the chief function of the statesman to watch over the outward interests of a people; that of the educator to quicken its soul. The statesman must study and manage the passions and prejudices of the community; the educator must study the essential, the deepest, the loftiest principles of human nature. The statesman works with coarse instruments for coarse ends; the educator is to work by the most refined influences on that delicate, ethereal essence—the immortal soul.”

* * * * *

“One great cause of the low estimation in which the teacher is now held, may be found in narrow views of education. The multitude think, that to educate a child, is to crowd into its mind a given amount of knowledge—to teach the mechanism of reading and writing—to load the memory with words—to prepare a boy for the routine of a trade. No wonder, then, that they think almost every body fit to teach. The true end of education, is to unfold and direct aright our whole nature. Its office is to call forth power of every kind—power of thought, affection, will, and outward action; power to observe, to reason, to judge, to contrive; power to adopt good ends firmly, and to pursue them efficiently; power to govern ourselves, and to influence others; power to gain and to spread happiness. Reading is but an instrument; education is to teach its best use. The intellect was created, not to receive passively a few words, dates, facts, but to be active for the acquisition of truth. Accordingly, education should labor to inspire a profound love of truth, and to teach the processes of investigation. A sound logic, by which we mean the science or art which instructs us in the laws of reasoning and evidence, in the true methods of inquiry, and in the sources of false judgments, is an essential part of a good education. And yet, how little is done to teach the right use of the intellect, in the common modes of training either rich or poor. As a general rule, the young are to be made, as far as possible, their own teachers—the discoverers of truth—the interpreters of nature—the framers of science. They are to be helped to help themselves. They should be taught to observe and study the world in which they live, to trace the connections of events, to rise from particular facts to general principles, and then to apply these in explaining new phenomena. Such is a rapid outline of the intellectual education, which, as far as possible, should be given to all human beings; and with this, moral education should go hand in hand. In proportion as the child gains knowledge, he should be taught how to use it well—how to turn it to the good of mankind. He should study the world as God’s world, and as the sphere in which he is to form interesting connections with his fellow-creatures. A spirit of humanity should be breathed into him from all his studies. In teaching geography, the physical and moral condition, the wants, advantages, and striking peculiarities of different nations, and the relations of climate, seas, rivers, mountains, to their characters and pursuits, should be pointed out, so as to awaken an interest in man wherever he dwells. History should be constantly used to exercise the moral judgment of the young, to call forth sympathy with the fortunes of the human race, and to expose to indignation and abhorrence that selfish ambition, that passion for dominion, which has so long deluged the earth with blood and woe. And not only should the excitement of just moral feeling be proposed in every study. The science of morals should form an important part of every child’s instruction. One branch of ethics should be particularly insisted on by the government. Every school, established by law, should be specially bound to teach the duties of the citizen to the state, to unfold the principles of free institutions, and to train the young to an enlightened patriotism. From these brief and imperfect views of the nature and ends of a wise education, we learn the dignity of the profession to which it is entrusted, and the importance of securing to it the best minds of the community.”

* * * * *

“We have said that it is the office of the teacher to call into vigorous action the mind of the child. He must do more. He must strive to create a thirst, an insatiable craving for knowledge, to give animation to study and make it a pleasure, and thus to communicate an impulse which will endure when the instructions of the

the school are closed. The mark of a good teacher is, not only that he produces great effort in his pupils, but that he dismisses them from his care, conscious of having only laid the foundation of knowledge, and anxious and resolved to improve themselves. One of the sure signs of the low state of instruction among us is, that the young, on leaving school, feel as if the work of intellectual culture were done, and give up steady, vigorous effort for higher truth and wider knowledge. Our daughters at sixteen, and our sons at eighteen or twenty, have *finished* their education. The true use of a school is, to enable and dispose the pupil to learn through life; and if so, who does not see that the office of teacher requires men of enlarged and liberal minds, and of winning manners—in other words, that it requires as cultivated men as can be found in society. If to drive and to drill were the chief duties of an instructor—if to force into the mind an amount of lifeless knowledge—to make the child a machine—to create a repugnance to books, to mental labor, to the acquisition of knowledge—were the great objects of the school-room, then the teacher might be chosen on the principles which now govern the school-committees in no small part of our country. Then the man who can read, write, cypher, and whip, and will exercise his gifts at the lowest price, deserves the precedence which he now too often enjoys. But if the human being be something more than a block or a brute—if he have powers which proclaim him a child of God, and which were given for noble action and perpetual progress, then a better order of things should begin among us, and truly enlightened men should be summoned to the work of education.”

In an address delivered at the Odeon, in Boston, on the 28th of Feb., 1837, he thus advocates the establishment of an institution for the professional training of teachers :

“ We need an institution for the formation of better teachers; and, until this step is taken, we can make no important progress. The most crying want in this commonwealth is the want of accomplished teachers. We boast of our schools; but our schools do comparatively little, for want of educated instructors. Without good teaching, a school is but a name. An institution for training men to train the young, would be a fountain of living waters, sending forth streams to refresh present and future ages. As yet, our legislators have denied to the poor and laboring classes this principal means of their elevation. We trust they will not always prove blind to the highest interest of the state.

We want better teachers, and more teachers, for all classes of society—for rich and poor, for children and adults. We want that the resources of the community should be directed to the procuring of better instructors, as its highest concern. One of the surest signs of the regeneration of society will be, the elevation of the art of teaching to the highest rank in the community. When a people shall learn that its greatest benefactors and most important members, are men devoted to the liberal instruction of all its classes—to the work of raising to life its buried intellect, it will have opened to itself the path of true glory. This truth is making its way. Socrates is now regarded as the greatest man in an age of great men. The name of *king* has grown dim before that of *apostle*. To teach, whether by word or action, is the highest function on earth.

Nothing is more needed, than that men of superior gifts, and of benevolent spirit, should devote themselves to the instruction of the less enlightened classes in the great end of life—in the dignity of their nature—in their rights and duties—in the history, laws, and institutions of their country—in the philosophy of their employments—in the laws, harmonies, and productions of outward nature, and, especially, in the art of bringing up children in health of body, and in vigor and purity of mind. We need a new profession or vocation, the object of which shall be to wake up the intellect in those spheres where it is now buried in habitual slumber.

We want a class of liberal-minded instructors, whose vocation it shall be, to place the views of the most enlightened minds within the reach of a more and more extensive portion of their fellow-creatures. The wealth of a community should flow out like water for the preparation and employment of such teachers—for enlisting powerful and generous minds in the work of giving impulse to their race.

Nor let it be said that men, able and disposed to carry on this work, must not be looked for in such a world as ours. Christianity, which has wrought so many miracles of beneficence—which has sent forth so many apostles and martyrs—so many Howards and Clarksons, can raise up laborers for this harvest also. Nothing is needed but a new pouring out of the spirit of Christian love—nothing but a new comprehension of the brotherhood of the human race, to call forth efforts which seem impossibilities in a self-seeking and self-indulging age.”

From the outset, Dr. Channing exhibited great interest in the establishment of the Board of Education, and the permanent organization of the Normal Schools. In a letter addressed to Mr. Mann, in August, 1837, congratulating him and the commonwealth on his acceptance of the office of Secretary of the Board, he says:

“ You could not find a nobler station. Government has no nobler one to give. You must allow me to labor under you according to my opportunities. If at any time I can aid you, you must let me know, and I shall be glad to converse with you always about your operations. When will the low, degrading party quarrels of the country cease, and the better minds come to think what can be done toward a substantial, generous improvement of the community? ‘ My ear is pained, my very soul is sick,’ with the monotonous, yet furious clamors about currency, banks, &c., when the spiritual interests of the community seem hardly to be recognized as having any reality.

If we can but turn the wonderful energy of this people into a right channel, what a new heaven and earth must be realized among us! And I do not despair. Your willingness to consecrate yourself to this work, is a happy omen. You do not stand alone, or form a rare exception to the times. There must be many to be touched by the same truths which are stirring you.”

A few months afterward, he attended, at Taunton, one of the series of county conventions, which Mr. Mann held, in pursuance of the plan of the Board, to attract attention to the improvement of common schools, and took part in the proceedings by submitting and advocating a resolution affirming the immediate and pressing necessity of public and legislative action in behalf of common education. We make a few extracts from a newspaper report:

“ We are told that this or that man should have an extensive education; but, that another, who occupies a lower place in society, needs only a narrow one: that the governor of a state requires a thorough education, while the humble mechanic has need only to study his last and his leather. But why should not the latter, though pursuing an humble occupation, be permitted to open his eyes on the lights of knowledge? Has he not a soul of as great capacity as the former? Is he not sustaining the same relations as a parent, a citizen, a neighbor, and as a subject of God’s moral government? To educate a child is, in fact, a greater work than to perform the duties of a governor. What is it? It is to take the direction of mind, to cultivate the powers of thought, and to teach the duties which we owe to God and to our neighbor. Can a parent teach his child these duties, unless he has learned them himself? Every one, no matter what is his occupation or place, needs an education, in order that he may have the proper use of his powers, and be enabled to improve them through life.

Some say, were these views of education to prevail, there would be little or no work done—manual labor would fail. But for the purpose of working effectually, one should be intelligent; he will bring the more to pass, because he labors for some known object, and is stimulated by motives which he understands and feels.

We want worthy laborers, who exalt themselves while they benefit others. The circumstances in which they are placed, are fitted to call forth their mental powers, to awaken thought, and to impress them with their responsibilities. They are

brought into intimate connection with their fellow-men, and, if qualified by education, may exert over them, even in the humble walks of life, a most salutary influence.

He said, that, on the same principle that he would educate one, he would educate all. The poor man, as to his natural capacity, does not differ from others. He is equally susceptible of improvement, and would receive as great advantages as others from a well-bestowed education.

Other views, he said, made him desire that education might be diffused among all classes. Our institutions demand this general diffusion. They are for the common mass of the people; and unless the people are educated, they both lose the benefit of these institutions and weaken their power. Liberty requires that every citizen, in order to its proper enjoyment, should have the means of elevation.

Again, all participate in the sovereignty of the country. Men, in other countries, have been fighting to be sovereigns. Here every man is one. Every citizen participates in legislating for the commonwealth, and in administering the government. Ought not every man who has such duties devolving on him, to receive as liberal a training as possible?

For the sake of union, this should be done; especially in our country, where there are no titled orders born to higher privileges than others. In other countries, the class in power have the principal means of knowledge, and, in order to keep the civil power in their hands, their object is to withhold from others the means of mental improvement. But, according to the genius of our government, education must bring all conditions and all classes together.

He said, in proportion as men are educated, they are more on an equality as to property. They communicate together—maintain a more agreeable intercourse—live in more harmony, and in greater love. Barriers are broken down; and society, by its general culture, is raised to a higher state of refinement and happiness.

He rejoiced that we had colleges liberally endowed; and he would not divert from them one stream of bounty. But he thought more of the mass than of the few; and wanted men educated for the community at large, and not for themselves alone. He rejoiced that we had academies, and that they were rising in importance; but he felt a deeper interest in the common schools. He desired the education of all the citizens, not as a politician, or as one seeking public favor; he was a candidate for no office; but he desired it as a man—a friend to his race.

He affirmed that the common schools have not kept pace with our wealth; that it is more essential to the prosperity of a school that it have a good teacher, than it is to the prosperity of a nation that it have wise and able rulers. We have, in many of our schools, teachers who do honor to the name: many, he regretted to say, were untaught and incompetent. They were not so much to blame, because they were not furnished with those means for qualifying themselves, which every other profession provides for those who would enter it. He most deeply regretted that our Legislature had not appropriated their surplus funds last winter, in establishing an institution for teachers. How much more good those large funds would have done! He hoped no more would come into their hands to be disposed of as these had been.

He could speak from experience. He was, for some time, in early life, a teacher, and he ever felt pain in remembering his deficiencies. Though he had no reason to suppose he was then behind others in the same employment, yet the remembrance of his lack of skill in discipline, and ignorance of the modes of access to the youthful mind, ever gave him deep regret. He had not, while filling the responsible station of teacher, learned how to make education a pleasure to a child.

But an institution for teachers is not all. There must be funds raised to pay them for their laborious services. How strange that the man who has the care of our children, should be thought to hold so low a place! But it must be seen and felt that his services are of vital importance, and deserve a generous recompense. In Prussia, where education has made great progress, teachers are obtained easily, and at a moderate expense, because other lucrative occupations are not open to them. In this country other occupations afford higher wages, and, therefore, that of a teacher has not risen to the honor of a profession. No good teacher can be obtained without ample compensation. Boston, though recently disgraced by its

mobs, is doing much in compensating its teachers—is giving as great a salary to one of its teachers as to its mayor.

How is Massachusetts, he asked, to sustain its high character and rank? Look on the map, and you perceive how diminutive it is in size, compared with many of the other states. What is to prevent this little state from falling behind others which have greater natural advantages, and losing its influence? Nothing but cultivating the minds of its citizens—cultivating them in learning and virtue. On this foundation its eminence and greatness will stand firm.”

In a discourse on self-culture, delivered in Boston, in 1838, in the course of Franklin Lectures, which were attended mainly by those who were occupied by manual labor, Dr. Channing holds the following language:

“They, whose childhood has been neglected, though they may make progress in future life, can hardly repair the loss of their first years; and I say this, that we may all be excited to save our children from this loss—that we may prepare them, to the extent of our power, for an effectual use of all the means of self-culture, which adult age may bring with it. With these views, I ask you to look with favor on the recent exertions of our Legislature, and of private citizens, in behalf of our public schools, the chief hope of our country. The Legislature has, of late, appointed a board of education, with a secretary, who is to devote his whole time to the improvement of public schools. An individual more fitted to this office than the gentleman who now fills it, (Horace Mann, Esq.,) can not, I believe, be found in our community; and if his labors shall be crowned with success, he will earn a title to the gratitude of the good people of this state, unsurpassed by that of any other living citizen. Let me also recall to your minds a munificent individual, (Edmund Dwight, Esq.,) who, by a generous donation, has encouraged the Legislature to resolve on the establishment of one or more institutions called Normal Schools, the object of which is, to prepare accomplished teachers of youth—a work, on which the progress of education depends more than on any other measure. The efficient friends of education are the true benefactors of their country, and their names deserve to be handed down to that posterity for whose highest wants they are so generously providing. * * * We need for our schools gifted men and women, worthy, by their intelligence and their moral power, to be intrusted with a nation’s youth; and, to gain these, we must pay them liberally, as well as afford other proofs of the consideration in which we hold them. In the present state of the country, when so many paths of wealth and promotion are opened, superior men can not be won to an office so responsible and laborious as that of teaching, without stronger inducements than are now offered, except in some of our large cities. The office of instructor ought to rank, and be recompensed, as one of the most honorable in society; and I see not how this is to be done, at least in our day, without appropriating to it the public domain. This is the people’s property, and the only part of their property which is likely to be soon devoted to the support of a high order of institutions for public education. This object, interesting to all classes of society, has peculiar claims on those whose means of improvement are restricted by narrow circumstances. The mass of the people should devote themselves to it as one man—should toil for it with one soul. Mechanics, farmers, laborers! let the country echo with your united cry, ‘The public lands for education.’ Send to the public council men who will plead this cause with power. No party triumphs, no trades-unions, no associations, can so contribute to elevate you as the measure now proposed. Nothing but a higher education can raise you in influence and true dignity. The resources of the public domain, wisely applied for successive generations to the culture of society and of the individual, would create a new people—would awaken through this community intellectual and moral energies, such as the record of no country display, and as would command the respect and emulation of the civilized world. In this grand object, the working-men of all parties, and in all divisions of the land, should join with an enthusiasm not to be withstood. They should separate it from all narrow and local strifes. They should not suffer it to be mixed up with the schemes of politicians. In it, they and

their children have an infinite stake. May they be true to themselves, to posterity, to their country, to freedom, to the cause of mankind."

In a letter written in 1841, in reply to a communication respecting the Normal School at Lexington, he refers to his own experience as a teacher, and to the attempt in the Legislature to break down the Normal Schools:

"I have felt, as you well know, a deep interest in their success, (Normal Schools,) though, perhaps, you do not know all the reasons of it. I began life as a teacher, and my own experience has made me feel the importance of training the teacher for his work. I was not more deficient than most young men who pass through college. Perhaps I may say, without presumption, that I was better fitted than most to take charge of a school; and yet I look back on no part of my life with so much pain as on that which I gave to school-keeping. The interval of forty years has not relieved me from the sorrow and self-reproach which the recollection of it calls forth. How little did I do for the youthful, tender minds intrusted to me! I was not only a poor teacher, but, what was worse, my inexperience in the art of wholesome discipline led to the infliction of useless and hurtful punishments. I was cruel through ignorance; and this is the main source of cruelty in schools. Force, brute force, is called in to supply the place of wisdom. I feel myself bound to make this confession as some expiation for my errors. I *know* the need of a Normal School. I speak not from speculation, but sad experience.

But, indeed, does it not stand to reason, that, where all other vocations need apprenticeship, the highest of all vocations—that of awakening, guiding, enlightening the human soul—must require serious preparation? That attempts should have been made in the Legislature to break down our Normal Schools, and almost with success, is one of the most discouraging symptoms of our times. It shows that the people will not give their thoughts to the dearest interests of society; for any serious thought would have led them to frown down such efforts in a moment. I rejoice that the friends of education are beginning to visit the Normal School at Lexington. I earnestly implore for it the blessing of Heaven."

L. of C.

NORMAL SCHOOLS
AND
TEACHERS' SEMINARIES.

BY CALVIN E. STOWE, D. D.

THE following remarks were originally prepared and delivered as an Address before the College of Professional Teachers in Cincinnati and Columbus, Ohio. They were first published in the American Biblical Repository for July, 1839, and in the same year republished in Boston by Marsh, Capen, Lyon and Webb, in a little volume, with the author's "*Report on Elementary Public Instruction in Europe, which was made to the General Assembly of Ohio, in December, 1837.*"

"Ich versprach Gott: Ich will jedes preussische Bauerkind für ein Wesen ansehen, das mich bei Gott verklagen kann, wenn ich ihm nicht die beste Menschen- und Christen-Bildung schaffe, die ich ihm zu schaffen vermag."

"I promised God, that I would look upon every Prussian peasant child as a being who could complain of me before God, if I did not provide for him the best education, as a man and a Christian, which it was possible for me to provide."—*Dinter's Letter to Baron Von Altenstein.*

WHEN the benevolent Franke turned his attention to the subject of popular education in the city of Hamburg, late in the seventeenth century, he soon found that children could not be well taught without good teachers, and that but few good teachers could be found unless they were regularly trained for the profession. Impressed with this conviction, he bent all his energies toward the establishment of a Teachers' Seminary, in which he finally succeeded, at Halle, in Prussia, about the year 1704;* and from this first institution of the kind in Europe, well qualified teachers were soon spread over all the north of Germany, who prepared the way for that great revolution in public instruction, which has since been so happily accomplished under the auspices of Frederick William III. and his praiseworthy coadjutors. Every enlightened man, who, since the time of Franke, has in earnest turned his attention to the same subject, has been brought to the same result; and the recent movements in France, in Scotland; in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Ohio, and other States in the American Union, all attest the very great difficulty, if not entire impossibility, of carrying out an efficient system of public instruction without seminaries expressly designed for the preparation of teachers.

Having devoted some attention to this subject, and having spent considerable time in examining institutions of the kind already established in Europe, I propose in this paper to exhibit the result of my investigations. In exhibiting this result, I have thought proper to draw out, somewhat in detail, what I suppose would be the best plan, on the whole, without expecting that all parts of the plan, in the present state of education in our country, will be carried into immediate execution. I propose what I think ought to be aimed at, and what, I doubt not, will ultimately be attained, if the spirit which is now awake on the subject be not suffered again to sleep.

The sum of what I propose is contained in the six following propositions, namely:

I. The interests of popular education in each State demand the establishment, at the seat of government, and under the patronage of the legislature, of a NORMAL SCHOOL, † that is, a *Teachers' Seminary and Model-school*, for the instruction and practice of teachers in the science of education and the art of teaching.

* See page 201.

† The French adjective *normal* is derived from the Latin noun *norma*, which signifies a carpenter's square, a rule, a pattern, a model; and the very general use of this term to designate institutions for the preparation of teachers, leads us at once to the idea of a *model-school for practice*, as an essential constituent part of a *Teachers' Seminary*.

II. Pupils should not be received into the Teachers' Seminary under sixteen years of age, nor until they are well versed in all the branches usually taught in common schools.

III. The model-school should comprise the various classes of children usually admitted to the common schools, and should be subject to the same general discipline and course of study.

IV. The course of instruction in the Teachers' Seminary should include three years, and the pupils be divided into three classes, accordingly.

V. The senior classes in the Teachers' Seminary should be employed, under the immediate instruction of their professors, as instructors in the model-school.

VI. The course of instruction in the Teachers' Seminary should comprise lectures and recitations on the following topics, together with such others as further observation and experience may show to be necessary:

1. A thorough, scientific, and demonstrative study of all the branches to be taught in the common schools, with directions at every step as to the best method of inculcating each lesson upon children of different dispositions and capacities, and various intellectual habits.

2. The philosophy of mind, particularly in reference to its susceptibility of receiving impressions from mind.

3. The peculiarities of intellectual and moral development in children, as modified by sex, parental character, wealth or poverty, city or country, family government, indulgent or severe, fickle or steady, &c., &c.

4. The science of education in general, and full illustrations of the difference between education and mere instruction.

5. The art of teaching.

6. The art of governing children, with special reference to imparting and keeping alive a feeling of love for children.

7. History of education, including an accurate outline of the educational systems of different ages and nations, the circumstances which gave rise to them, the principles on which they were founded, the ends which they aimed to accomplish, their successes and failures, their permanency and changes, how far they influenced individual and national character, how far any of them might have originated in premeditated plan on the part of their founders, whether they secured the intelligence, virtue, and happiness of the people, or otherwise, with the causes, &c.

8. The rules of health, and the laws of physical development.

9. Dignity and importance of the teacher's office.

10. Special religious obligations of teachers in respect to benevolent devotedness to the intellectual and moral welfare of society, habits of entire self-control, purity of mind, elevation of character, &c.

11. The influence which the school should exert on civilization and the progress of society.

12. The elements of Latin, together with the German, French, and Spanish languages.

On each of the topics above enumerated, I shall attempt to offer such remarks as may be necessary to their more full development and illustration; and then state the argument in favor of, and answer the objections which may be urged against, the establishment of such an institution as is here contemplated.

To begin with the first proposition.

I. The interests of popular education in each state demand the establishment, at the seat of government, and under the patronage of the legislature, of a Normal School, that is, a Teachers' Seminary and model-school, for the instruction and practice of teachers in the science of education and the art of teaching.

If there be necessity for such an institution, there can be little doubt that the legislature should patronize and sustain it; for, new as our country is, and numerous as are the objects to which individual capital must be applied, there can be no great hope, for many years to come, of seeing such institutions established and supported by private munificence. It is a very appropriate object of legislative patronage; for, as the advantages of such an institution are clearly open to all the citizens of the State, and equally necessary to all, it is right that each should sustain his proper share of the expense.

Reserving my general argument in favor of these establishments till after a

more full development of their object, organization, and course of study, I shall confine my remarks under this head to the subject of legislative patronage, and the influence which such an institution would exert, through the legislature and officers of government, on the people at large. And in order that the institution may exert the influence here contemplated, it will appear obviously necessary that it be placed at the seat of government.

Popular legislators ought to have some objects in view besides the irritating and often petty questions of party politics. Any observing man, who has watched the progress of popular legislation among us, cannot but have noticed the tendency of continued and uninterrupted party bickering to narrow the mind and sour the temper of political men, to make them selfish, unpatriotic, and unprincipled. It is highly necessary for their improvement as men, and as republican lawgivers, that the bitterness and bigotry of party strife should sometimes be checked by some great object of public utility, in which good men of all parties may unite, and the contemplation and discussion of which shall enlarge the views and elevate the affections. The legislatures of several states have already had experience of these benefits. The noble institutions for deaf mutes, for the blind, and for the insane, which have grown up under their care, and been sustained by their bounty, are not less beneficial by the moral influence they exert, every year, on the officers of government who witness their benevolent operations, than by the physical and intellectual blessings which they confer on the unfortunate classes of persons for whom they were more particularly designed. Who can witness the proficiency of the blind and the mute in that knowledge which constitutes the charm of life, as witnessed in the annual exhibitions of these institutions at Columbus, during the sessions of the legislature, without feeling the blessedness of benevolence, and inwardly resolving to be himself benevolent? Without some such objects in view, political character deteriorates, and the legislator sinks to the demagogue. When our American Congress has had noble objects in view; when it has been struggling for the rights of man, and the great principles which are the foundations of free institutions, it has been the nursery of patriotism and the theater of great thoughts and mighty deeds; but when its objects have been mean, and its aims selfish, how sad the reverse in respect to its moral character and national influence!

Colleges, and institutions for the higher branches of classical learning, have seldom flourished in this country under legislative patronage; because the people at large, not perceiving that these institutions are directly beneficial to them, allow their legislators to give them only a hesitating, reluctant, and insufficient support. No steady, well-digested plan of improvement is carried consistently through, but the measures are vacillating, contradictory, and often destructive, not from want of sagacity to perceive what is best, but simply from want of interest in the object, and a consequent determination to maintain it at the cheapest rate. But an institution of the kind here contemplated, the people at large will feel to be for their immediate benefit. It is to qualify teachers for the instruction of their own children; and among the people throughout most of the free States, there is an appreciation of the advantages and necessity of good common-school instruction, which makes them willing to incur heavy sacrifices for the sake of securing it. They will, therefore, cheerfully sustain their legislators in any measure which is seen to be essential to the improvement and perfection of the common-school system; and that the establishment of a Normal School is essential to this, I expect to prove in the course of this discussion.

Supposing the institution to be established at the seat of government, under proper auspices, the legislature would every year witness its beneficial results; they would attend the exhibitions of its pupils both in the seminary and in the model-school, as they now, in several States, attend the exhibitions of the blind and mute; their views would be enlarged, their affections moved, their ideas of what constitutes good education settled; they would return to their constituents full of zeal and confidence in the educational cause, and impart the same to them; they would learn how schools ought to be conducted, the respective duties of parents, teachers, and school officers; they would become the most efficient missionaries of public instruction; and, ere long, one of the most important errands from their constituents would be, to find for them, in the Teachers' Seminary, a suitable instructor for their district school. Such an influence will be to

the school system, what electricity is to the operations of nature, an influence unceasing, all-pervading, lightning-winged.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction, in every State, would be essentially aided by such an institution at the seat of government. He greatly needs it as a fulcrum to pry over, when he would move the legislature or the people. He cannot bring the legislature to the common schools, nor these to the legislature, to illustrate existing deficiencies or recommend improvements; but here is a model constructed under his own eye, which he can at any moment exhibit to the legislature, and by which he can give complete illustrations of all his views.

As the young men in the seminary grow up, he watches their progress, and ascertains the peculiar qualifications and essential characteristics of each individual; and, as he passes through the State, and learns the circumstances and wants of each community, he knows where to find the teacher best fitted to carry out his views, and give efficiency to the system in each particular location. Nothing is lost; the impression which he makes is immediately followed up and deepened by the teacher, before it has time to cool and disappear. A superintendent of schools without a Teachers' Seminary, is a general without soldiers, depending entirely on the services of such volunteers as he can pick up on his march, most of whom enlist but for the day, and go home to sleep at night.

Such is a brief view of the reasons for legislative patronage, and a location at the seat of government. I do not imagine that one institution will be enough to supply the wants of a whole state; but let THE ONE be established first, and whatever others are needful will speedily follow.*

We now proceed to our second general proposition.

II. Pupils should not be received into the Teachers' Seminary under sixteen years of age, nor until they are well versed in all the branches usually taught in the common schools.

The age at which the pupils leave the common school is the proper age for entering the Teachers' Seminary, and the latter should begin just where the former closes. This is young enough; for few persons have their judgments sufficiently matured, or their feelings under sufficient control, to engage in school-teaching by themselves, before they are twenty years old. It is not the design of the Teachers' Seminary to go through the common routine of the common-school course, but a thorough grounding in this is to be assumed as the foundation on which to erect the structure of the teacher's education.

III. The model-school should comprise the various classes of children usually admitted to the common schools, and should be subject to the same general discipline and course of study.

The model-school, as its name imports, is to be a model of what the common school ought to be; and it must be, therefore, composed of like materials, and subject to similar rules. The model-school, in fact, should be the common school of the place in which the Teachers' Seminary is situated; it should aim to keep in advance of every other school in the State, and every other school in the State should aim to keep up with that. It is a model for the constant inspection of the pupils in the teachers' department, a practical illustration of the lessons they receive from their professors; the proof-stone by which they are to test the utility of the abstract principles they imbibe, and on which they are to exercise and improve their gifts of teaching. Indeed, as School-counselor Dinter told a nobleman of East-Prussia, to set up a Teachers' Seminary without a model-school, is like setting up a shoemaker's shop without leather.

IV. The course of instruction in the Teachers' Seminary should include three years, and the pupils be divided into three classes, accordingly.

The course of study, as will be seen by inspecting it in the following pages, cannot well be completed in less time than this; this has been found short enough for professional study in the other professions, which is generally commenced at a maturer age, and after the pupil has had the advantage of an academical or collegiate course; and if it is allowed that five or seven years are not too much to be spent in acquiring the trade of a blacksmith, a carpenter, or any of the

* This article was written in its special reference to Ohio, and the new States of the West. In some of the older States, the expense of living at the seat of government might operate as an objection to the location of the Seminary there.

common indispensable handicrafts, surely three years will not be deemed too much for the difficult and most important art of teaching.

V. The senior class in the Teachers' Seminary should be employed, under the immediate inspection of their professors, as instructors in the model-school.

The model-school is intended to be not only an illustration of the principles inculcated theoretically in the seminary, but is calculated also as a school for practice, in which the seminary pupils may learn, by actual experiment, the practical bearing of the principles which they have studied. After two years of theoretical study, the pupils are well qualified to commence this practical course, under the immediate inspection of their professors; and the model-school being under the inspection of such teachers, it is obvious that its pupils can suffer no loss, but must be great gainers by the arrangement.

This is a part of the system for training teachers which cannot be dispensed with, and any considerable hope of success retained. To attempt to train practical teachers without it, would be like attempting to train sailors by keeping boys upon Bowditch's Navigator, without ever suffering them to go on board a ship, or handle a ropeyarn. One must begin to teach, before he can begin to be a teacher; and it is infinitely better, both for himself and his pupils, that he should make this beginning under the eye of an experienced teacher, who can give him directions and point out his errors, than that he should blunder on alone, at the risk of ruining multitudes of pupils, before he can learn to teach by the slow process of unaided experience.

VI. Course of instruction in the Teachers' Seminary.

1. A thorough, scientific, and demonstrative study of all the branches to be taught in the common schools, with directions, at every step, as to the best method of inculcating each lesson on children of different dispositions and capacities, and various intellectual habits.

It is necessary here to give a general outline of a course of study for the common schools of this country. The pupils usually in attendance are between the ages of six and sixteen, and I would arrange them in three divisions, as follows:

FIRST DIVISION, including the youngest children, and those least advanced, generally between the ages of six and nine.

Topics of Instruction.—1. Familiar conversational teaching, in respect to objects which fall daily under their notice, and in respect to their moral and social duties, designed to awaken their powers of observation and expression, and to cultivate their moral feelings.

2. Elements of reading.
3. Elements of writing.
4. Elements of numbers.
5. Exercises of the voice and ear—singing by rote.
6. Select readings in the Pentateuch, Psalms, and Gospels.

SECOND DIVISION, including those more advanced, and generally between the ages of nine and twelve.

Topics of Instruction.—1. Exercises in reading.

2. Exercises in writing.
3. Arithmetic.
4. Elements of geography, and geography of the United States.
5. History of the United States.
6. Moral and religious instruction in select Bible narratives, parables, and proverbs.

7. Elements of music, and singing by note.

8. English grammar and parsing.

THIRD DIVISION, most advanced, and generally between the ages of twelve and sixteen.

Topics of Instruction.—1. Exercises in reading and elocution.

2. Caligraphy, stenography, and linear drawing.
3. Algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, with their application to civil engineering, surveying, &c.
4. English composition, forms of business, and book-keeping.
5. General geography, or knowledge of the earth and of mankind.
6. General history.

7. Constitution of the United States, and of the several States.
8. Elements of the natural sciences, including their application to the arts of life, such as agriculture, manufactures, &c.
9. Moral instruction in the connected Bible history, the life and discourses of Christ, the religious observation of Nature, and history of Christianity.
10. Science and art of vocal and instrumental music.

Thorough instruction on all these topics I suppose to be essential to a complete common-school education; and though it may be many years before our schools come up to this standard, yet I think nothing short of this should satisfy us; and, as fast as possible, we should be laboring to train teachers capable of giving instruction in all these branches. When this standard for the common school has been attained, then, before the pupil is prepared to enter on the three years' course of study proposed in the Teachers' Seminary, he must have studied all the topics above enumerated, as they ought to be studied in the common schools.

The study of a topic, however, for the purpose of applying it to practical use, is not always the same thing as studying it for the purpose of teaching it. The processes are often quite different. A man may study music till he can perform admirably himself, and yet possess very little skill in teaching others; and it is well known that the most successful orators are not unfrequently the very worst teachers of elocution. The process of learning for practical purposes is mostly that of combination or synthesis; but the process of learning for the purpose of teaching is one of continued and minute analysis, not only of the subject itself, but of all the movements and turnings of the *feelers* of the mind, the little *antennæ* by which it seizes and retains its hold of the several parts of a topic. Till a man can minutely dissect, not only the subject itself, but also the intellectual machinery by which it is worked up, he cannot be very successful as a teacher. The orator analyzes his subject, and disposes its several parts in the order best calculated for effect; but the mental processes by which he does this, which constitute the tact that enables him to judge right, as if by instinct, are generally so rapid, so evanescent, that it may be impossible for him to recall them so as to describe them to another; and it is this very rapidity of intellectual movement, which gives him success as an orator, that renders it the more difficult for him to succeed as a teacher. The musician would perform very poorly, who should stop to recognize each volition that moves the muscles which regulate the movement of his fingers on the organ-keys; but he who would teach others to perform gracefully and rapidly, must give attention to points minute as these. The teacher must stop to observe and analyze each movement of the mind itself, as it advances on every topic; but men of genius for execution, and of great practical skill, who never teach, are generally too impatient to make this minute analysis, and often, indeed, form such habits as at length to become incapable of it. The first Duke of Marlborough was one of the most profound and brilliant military men that ever lived; but he had been so little accustomed to observe the process of his own mind, by which he arrived with such certainty at those astounding results of warlike genius which have given him the first rank among Britain's soldiers, that he could seldom construct a connected argument in favor of his plans, and generally had but one answer to all the objections which might be urged against them, and that was usually repeated in the same words,—“Silly, silly, that's silly.” A like remark is applicable to Oliver Cromwell, and several other men distinguished for prompt and energetic action. The mental habits best adapted for effect in the actual business of life are not always the mental habits best suited to the teacher; and the Teachers' Seminary requires a mode of instruction in some respects different from the practical school.

The teacher, also, must review the branches of instruction above enumerated with reference to their scientific connections, and a thorough demonstration of them, which, though not always necessary in respect to their practical application to the actual business of life, is absolutely essential to that ready command which a teacher must have over them in order to put them into the minds of others.

Nor is this all. There is a great variety of methods for inculcating the same truth; and the diversities of mind are quite as numerous as the varieties of method. One mind can be best approached by one method, and another mind by another; and in respect to the teacher, one of the richest treasures of expe-

rience is a knowledge of the adaptation of the different methods to different minds. These rich treasures of experience can be preserved, and classified, and imparted in the Teachers' Seminary. If the teacher never studies his profession, he learns this part of his duties only by the slow and wasteful process of experimenting on mind, and thus, in all probability, ruins many before he learns how to deal with them. Could we ascertain how many minds have been lost to the world in consequence of the injudicious measures of inexperienced and incompetent teachers; if we could exhibit, in a statistical table, the number of souls which must be used up in qualifying a teacher for his profession, by intrusting him with its active duties without previous study, we could prove incontrovertibly that it is great want of economy, that it is a most prodigious waste, to attempt to carry on a system of schools without making provision for the education of teachers.

2. The philosophy of mind, particularly in reference to its susceptibility of receiving impressions from mind.

The teacher should learn, at least, not to spoil by his awkward handling what Nature has made well; he should know how to preserve the intellectual and moral powers in a healthful condition, if he be not capable of improving them. But, through ignorance of the nature of mind, and its susceptibilities, how often are a teacher's most industrious efforts worse than thrown away—perverting and destroying rather than improving! Frequently, also, the good which is gained by judicious efforts in one direction is counteracted by a mistaken course in another.

Under this head there should be a complete classification of the sources of influence, a close analysis of the peculiar nature and causes of each, and of its applicability to educational purposes. There should be also a classification of the errors liable to be committed, with a similar analysis, and directions for avoiding them. It appears to me that there are some valuable discoveries yet to be made in this branch of knowledge; and that, for the purposes of education, the powers of the mind are susceptible of a classification much better than that which has hitherto generally been adopted.

3. The peculiarities of intellectual and moral development in children, as modified by sex, parental character, wealth or poverty, city or country, family government, indulgent or severe, fickle or steady, &c.

These diversities all exist in every community, and exert a most important influence on the developments of children; and no teacher can discharge his duties diligently and thoroughly without recognizing this extensive class of influences. The influence of sex is one of the most obvious, and no successful teacher, I believe, ever manages the boys and the girls of his school in precisely the same manner. But the other sources of influence are no less important. Parental character is one. Parents of high-minded and honorable feeling, will be likely to impart something of the same spirit to their children. Such children may be easily governed by appeals to their sense of character, and perhaps ruined by the application of the rod. If parents are mean-spirited and selfish, great allowance should be made for the failings of their children, and double diligence employed to cultivate in them a sense of honor.

The different circumstances of wealth and poverty produce great differences in children. The rich child generally requires restraint, the poor one encouragement. When the poor are brought in contact with the rich, it is natural that the former should feel somewhat sensitive as to the distinctions which may obtain between them and their fellows; and in such cases special pains should be taken to shield the sensibilities of the poor child against needless wounds, and make him feel that the poverty for which he is no way blamable is not to him a degradation. Otherwise he may become envious and misanthropic, or be discouraged and unmanned. But how often does the reverse of this take place, to the great injury of the character both of the poor and the rich! Surely it is misfortune enough to the suffering child that he has to bear the ills arising from ignorance or negligence, vice or poverty, in his parents; and the school should be a refuge for him, where he can improve himself and be happy.

Again, city and country produce diversities in children almost as great as the difference of sex. City children are inclined to the ardent, quick, glowing temperament of the female; country children lean more to the cooler, steadier,

slower development of the male. City children are more excitable; by the circumstances in which they are placed, their feelings are kept in more constant and rapid motion, they are more easily moved to good, and have stronger temptation to evil; while country children, less excitable, less rapid in their advances toward either good or evil, present, in their peculiarities, a broad and solid foundation for characters of stable structure and enduring usefulness. Though human nature is every where the same, and schools present the same general characteristics; yet the good country teacher, if he remove to the city, and would be equally successful there, will find it necessary to adopt several modifications of his former arrangements.

Many other circumstances give rise to diversities no less important. It is the business of the Teachers' Seminary to arrange and classify these modifying influences, and give to the pupil the advantages of an anticipated experience in respect to his method of proceeding in regard to them. No one will imagine that the teacher is to let his pupils see that he recognizes such differences among them; he should be wise enough to keep his own counsel, and deal with each individual in such manner as the peculiar circumstances of each may render most productive of good.

4. The science of education in general, and full illustration of the difference between education and mere instruction.

Science, in the modern acceptation of the term, is a philosophical classification and arrangement of all the facts which are observed in respect to any subject, and an investigation from these facts of the principles which regulate their occurrence. Education affords its facts, and they are as numerous and as deeply interesting as the facts of any other science; these facts are susceptible of as philosophical a classification and arrangement as the facts of chemistry or astronomy; and the principles which regulate their occurrence are as appropriate and profitable a subject of investigation as the principles of botany or zoology, or of politics or morals. I know it has been said by some, that education is not a science, and cannot be reduced to scientific principles; but they who talk thus either make use of words without attaching to them any definite meaning, or they confound the idea of education with that of the mere art of teaching. Even in this sense the statement is altogether erroneous, as will be shown under the next head.

The teacher should be acquainted with these facts, with their classification, their arrangement and principles, before he enters on the duties of his profession; or he is like the surgeon who would operate on the human body before he has studied anatomy, or the attorney who would commence practice before he has made himself acquainted with the first principles of law.

It is a common error to confound education with mere instruction; an error so common, indeed, that many writers on the subject use the words as nearly, if not entirely, synonymous. Instruction, however, comprehends but a very small part of the general idea of education. Education includes all the extraneous influences which combine to the formation of intellectual and moral character; while instruction is limited to that which is directly communicated from one mind to another. "*Education and instruction* (says Hooker) are the means, the one by *use*, the other by *precept*, to make our natural faculty of reason both the better and the sooner to judge rightly between truth and error, good and evil." A man may become well *educated*, though but poorly *instructed*, as was the case with Pascal and Franklin, and many others equally illustrious; but if a man is well *instructed*, he cannot, without some great fault of his own, fail to acquire a good *education*. *Instruction* is mostly the work of others; *education* depends mainly on the use which we ourselves make of the circumstances by which we are surrounded. The mischiefs of defective *instruction* may often be repaired by our own subsequent efforts; but a gap left down in the line of our *education* is not so easily put up, after the opportunity has once passed by.

5. The art of teaching.

The *art* of teaching, it is true, is not a *science*, and cannot be learned by theoretic study alone, without practice. The *model-school* is appropriately the place for the acquisition of this art by actual practice; but, like all the rational arts, it rests on scientific principles. The theoretical instruction, therefore, in this branch, will be limited mainly to a development of the principles on which it is

founded; while the application of those principles will be illustrated, and the art of teaching acquired, by instructing in the model-school under the care of the professors, and subject to their direction and remarks. The professor assigns to the pupil his class in the model-school, he observes his manner of teaching, and notices its excellences and defects; and after the class is dismissed, and the student is with him alone, or in company only with his fellow-students, he commends what he did well, shows him how he might have made the imperfect better, and the erroneous correct, pointing out, as he proceeds, the application of theoretic principles to practice, that the lessons in the model-school may be really an illustration of all that has been taught in the Teachers' Seminary.

6. The art of governing children, with special reference to the imparting and keeping alive of a feeling of love for children.

Children can be properly governed only by affection; and affection, rightly directed, is all-powerful for this purpose. A school governed without love is a gloomy, mind-killing place; it is like a nursery of tender blossoms filled with an atmosphere of frost and ice. Affection is the natural magnet of the mind in childhood; the child's mind is fitted by its Creator to be moved by a mother's love; and cold indifference or stern lovelessness repels and freezes it. In governing children there is no substitute for affection, and God never intended there should be any.

General rules can be given for the government of a school; the results of experience can be treasured up, systematized, and imparted; the candidate for the teacher's office can be exercised to close observation, patience, and self-control; and all these are essential branches of instruction in the art of governing. Still, if there be no feeling of love for children, all this will not make a good school-governor. There is great natural diversity in individuals in regard to this, as in all other affections; yet every one whom God has fitted to be a parent has the elements of this affection, and these elements are susceptible of development and improvement.

7. History of education, including an accurate outline of the educational systems of different ages and nations; the circumstances which gave rise to them; the principles on which they were founded; the ends which they aimed to accomplish; their successes and failures, their permanency and changes; how far they influenced individual and national character; how far any of them might have originated in premeditated plan on the part of their founders; whether they secured the intelligence, virtue, and happiness of the people, or otherwise, with the causes, &c.

To insure success in any pursuit, the experience of our predecessors is justly considered a valuable, and generally an indispensable aid. What should we think of one who claimed to be a profound politician while ignorant of the history of political science; while unacquainted with the origin of governments, the causes which have modified their forms and influences, the changes which have taken place in them, the different effects produced by various systems under diverse influences, and of the thousand combinations in which the past treasures wisdom for the future? What should we think of the lawyer who knew nothing of the history of law? or of the astronomer, ignorant of the history of astronomy? In every science and every art we recognize the value of its appropriate history; and there is not a single circumstance that gives value to such history, which does not apply, in all its force, to the history of education. Yet, strange to say, the history of education is entirely neglected among us; there is not a work devoted to the subject in the English language; and very few, indeed, which contain even notices or hints to guide one's inquiries on this deeply interesting theme. I wish some of those writers who complain that education is a *hackneyed* subject, a subject so often and so much discussed, that nothing new remains to be said upon it, would turn their inquiries in this direction, and I think they will find much, and that too of the highest utility, which will be entirely new to the greater part even of the reading population.

Man has been an educator ever since he became civilized. A great variety of systems of public instruction have been adopted and sustained by law, which have produced powerful and enduring influences; and are we to set sail on this boundless ocean entirely ignorant of the courses, and soundings, and discoveries of our predecessors?

The Hebrew nation, in its very origin, was subjected to a premeditated and thoroughly systematized course of national instruction, which produced the most wonderful influence, and laid the foundation for that peculiar hardihood and determinateness of character, which have made them the astonishment of all ages, a miracle among nations. A full development of this system, and a careful illustration of the particulars which gave it its peculiar strength, and of the circumstances which perverted it from good to evil, which turned strength into the force of hate, and perseverance into obstinacy, would be a most valuable contribution to the science of general education. The ancient Persians and Hindoos had ingenious and thoroughly digested systems of public instruction, entirely diverse from each other, yet each wonderfully efficacious in its own peculiar way. The Greeks were a busily educating people, and great varieties of systems sprung up in their different states and under their different masters, all of them ingenious, most of them effective, and some of them characterized by the highest excellences. Systems which we cannot and ought not to imitate, may be highly useful as warnings, and to prevent our trying experiments which have been often tried before, and failed to be useful. The Chinese, for example, have had for ages a system which is peculiarly and strictly *national*; its object has always been to make them *Chinese*, and nothing else; it has fully answered the purpose intended; and what has been the result?* A nation of machines, a people of patterns, made to order; a set of men and women wound up like clocks, to go in a certain way, and for a certain time, with minds wonderfully nice and exact in certain little things; but as stiff, as unsusceptible of expansion, as incapable of originating thought, or deviating from the beaten track, as one of their own graven images is of navigating a ship. In short, they are very much such a people as the Americans might become in a few centuries, if some amiable enthusiasts could succeed in establishing what they are pleased to denominate a system exclusively *American*. Education, to be useful, must be expansive, must be universal; the mind must not be trained to run in one narrow channel: it must understand that human beings have thought, and felt, and acted, in other countries than its own; that the results of preceding efforts have their value, and that all light is not confined to its own little Goshen.

When a science has become fixed as to its principles, when its facts are ascertained and well settled, then its history is generally written. Why, then, have we no history of education in our language? Simply, because the science of education, with us, is yet in its infancy; because, so far from being a hackneyed or an exhausted subject, on which nothing new remains to be said, its fundamental principles are not yet so ascertained as to become the basis of a fixed science. It cannot be pretended that there are no materials for the composition of such a history. We are not destitute of information respecting the educational systems of the most ancient nations, as the Chaldeans, Assyrians, Egyptians, and Carthaginians; and in respect to the Hindoos, the Persians, the Greeks, the Romans, the Chinese, the modern Europeans, the materials for their educational history are nearly as ample as those for their civil history; and the former is quite as important to the educator as the latter is to the civilian. The brief and imperfect, but highly interesting sketches, given by Sharon Turner in his *History of England*, afford sufficient proof of my assertion; and they are to a full history of English education, as the first streaks of dawn to the risen sun. Should Teachers' Seminaries do nothing else than excite a taste and afford the materials for the successful pursuit of this branch of study only, they would more than repay all the cost of their establishment and maintenance. Systems of education which formed and trained such minds as arose in Egypt, in Judea, in Greece—systems under whose influence such men as Moses and Isaiah, Solon, and Plato, and Paul, received those first impressions which had such commanding power over their mighty intellects, may afford to us many valuable suggestions. The several topics to which I have above alluded, as particularly worthy of notice in a history of those systems, are too obviously important to require a separate illustration.

8. The rules of health and the laws of physical development.

The care of the body while we are in this world is not less important than

* See Note A, at the close of this article.

the culture of the mind; for, as a general fact, no mind can work vigorously in a feeble and comfortless body; and when the fore-castle of a vessel sinks, the cabin must soon follow. The educating period of youth is the time most critical to health; and the peculiar excitements and temptations of a course of study, add greatly to the natural dangers of the forming and developing seasons of life. Teachers, therefore, especially, should understand the rules of health, and the laws of physical development; and it is impossible that they should understand them, unless they devote some time to their study. What a ruinous waste of comfort, of strength, and of life, has there been in our educational establishments, in consequence of the ignorance and neglect of teachers on this point! And how seldom is this important branch of study ever thought of as a necessary qualification for the office of teacher!

As it is a most sacred duty of the teacher to preserve uninjured the powers of the mind, and keep them in a healthful condition, so it is no less his duty to take the same care of the physical powers. The body should not only be kept in health, but its powers should be developed and improved with as much care as is devoted to the improvement of the mind, that all the capabilities of the man may be brought out and fitted for active duty. But can one know how to do this if he never learns? And will he be likely to learn, unless he has opportunity of learning? It is generally regarded as the province of teachers to finish out and improve on Nature's plan; but if they can all be brought to understand their profession so well as not to mar and spoil what Nature made right, it will be a great improvement on the present condition of education in the world.

9. Dignity and importance of the teacher's office.

Self-respect, and a consciousness of doing well, are essential to comfort and success in any honorable calling; especially in one subject to so many external depressions, one so little esteemed and so poorly rewarded by the world at large, as that of the teacher. No station of so great importance has probably ever been so slightly estimated; and the fault has been partly in the members of the profession itself. They have not estimated their official importance sufficiently high; they have given a tacit assent to the superficial judgment of the world; they have hung loosely on the profession, and too often abandoned it the first opportunity. They ought early to understand that their profession demands the strongest efforts of their whole lives; that no employment can be more intimately connected with the progress and general welfare of society; that the best hopes and tenderest wishes of parents and of nations depend on their skill and fidelity; and that an incompetent or unworthy discharge of the duties of their office brings the community into the condition of an embattled host *when the standard-bearer faileth*. If teachers themselves generally had a clear and definite conception of the immensely responsible place they occupy; if they were skilled in the art of laying these conceptions vividly before the minds of the people among whom they labor, it would produce a great influence on the profession itself, by bringing it under the pressure of a mightier motive, and cause all classes of people more clearly to understand the inestimable worth of the good teacher, and make them more willing to honor and reward him. And this, too, would be the surest method of ridding the profession of such incumbents as are a disgrace to it, and an obstacle to its elevation and improvement. Julius Cæsar was the first of the Romans who honored school-teachers by raising them to the rank of Roman citizens, and in no act of his life did he more clearly manifest that peculiar sagacity for which he was distinguished.

10. Special religious obligations of teachers in respect to benevolent devotedness to the intellectual and moral welfare of society, habits of entire self-control, purity of mind, elevation of character, &c.

The duties of the teacher are scarcely less sacred or less delicate than those of the minister of religion. In several important respects he stands in a similar relation to society; and his motives and encouragements to effort must, to a considerable extent, be of the same class. It is not to be expected that teaching will ever become generally a *lucrative* profession, or that many will enter it for mere love of money, or that, if any should enter it from such a motive, they would ever be very useful in it. All teachers ought to have a comfortable support, and a competency for the time of sickness and old age; but what *ought to*

be and what is, in such a world as this, are often very different things. If a competency is gained by teaching, very few will ever expect to grow rich by it. Higher motives than the love of wealth must actuate the teacher in the choice of his profession, and animate him in the performance of its laborious duties. Such motives as the love of doing good, and peculiar affection for children, do exist in many minds, notwithstanding the general selfishness of the world; and these emotions, by a proper kind of culture, are susceptible of increase, till they become the predominant and leading desires. The teacher who has little benevolence, and little love for children, must be a miserable being, as well as a very poor teacher; but one who has these propensities strongly developed, and is not ambitious of distinction in the world of vanity and noise, but seeks his happiness in doing good, is among the happiest of men; and some of the most remarkable instances of healthy and cheerful old age are found among school-teachers. As examples, I would mention old Ezekiel Cheever, who taught school in New England for seventy-one years without interruption, and died in Boston in the year 1708, at the advanced age of ninety-three; or Dr. G. F. Dinter, now living at Königsberg in Prussia, in the eightieth year of his age. Indeed, the ingenious author of *Hermippus Redivivus* affirms, that the breath of beloved children preserves the benevolent schoolmaster's health, as salt keeps flesh from putrefaction. In Prussia, school-teachers generally enter on their profession at the age of twenty-two or twenty-five, and the average term of service among the forty thousand teachers there employed is over thirty years, making the average duration of a teacher's life there nearly sixty years; a greater longevity than can be found in any profession in the United States. Many teachers continue in the active discharge of their official duties more than fifty years; and the fiftieth anniversary of their induction to office is celebrated by a festival, and honored by a present from government.

The other qualities mentioned, self-control, purity of mind, elevation of character, are so obviously essential to a teacher's usefulness, that they require no comment. We need only remark, that these are moral qualities, and can be cultivated only by moral means; that they are religious qualities, and must be excited and kept alive by religious motives. Will any one here raise the cry, *Sectarianism, Church and State?* I pity the poor bigot, or the narrow-souled unbeliever, who can form no idea of religious principle, except as a *sectarian thing*; who is himself so utterly unsusceptible of ennobling emotions, that he cannot even conceive it possible that any man should have a principle of virtue and piety superior to all external forms, and untrammelled by metaphysical systems. From the aid of such men, we have nothing to hope in the cause of sound education; and their hostility we may as well encounter in one form as another, provided we make sure of the ground on which we stand, and hold up the right principles in the right shape.

11. The influence which the school should exert on civilization and the progress of society.

It requires no great sagacity to perceive that the school is one of the most important parts of the social machine, especially in modern times, when it is fast acquiring for itself the influence which was wielded by the pulpit some two centuries ago, and which, at a more recent period, has been obtained by the periodical press. As the community becomes separated into sects, which bigotry and intolerance force into subdivisions still more minute, the influence of the pulpit is gradually circumscribed; but no such causes limit the influence of the school. Teachers need only understand the position they occupy, and act in concert, to make the school the most effective element of modern civilization, not excepting even the periodical press. A source of influence so immense, and which draws so deeply on the destinies of man, ought to be thoroughly investigated and considered, especially by those who make teaching their profession. Yet I know not, in the whole compass of English literature, a single work on the subject, notwithstanding that education is so worn out a theme, that nobody can say any thing new upon it.

12. The elements of Latin, together with the German, French, and Spanish languages.

The languages of Europe have received most of their refinement and their science through the medium of the Latin; and so largely are they indebted to

this tongue, that the elements of it are necessary as a foundation for the study of the modern languages. That the German should be understood by teachers, especially in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and the Western States generally, is obvious from the fact, that more than half the school districts contain German parents and children, who are best approached through the medium of their own tongue; and the rich abundance and variety of educational literature in this language, greater, I venture to say, than in all other languages together, render it an acquisition of the highest importance to every teacher. In the present state of the commercial world one cannot be said to have acquired a business education without a knowledge of French; while our intimate relations with Mexico and South America render the Spanish valuable to us, and, indeed, in the Western country, almost indispensable. The mental discipline which the study of these languages gives is of the most valuable kind, and the collateral information acquired while learning them is highly useful. Though a foreign tongue is a difficult acquisition for an adult, it is very easy for a child. In the Rhine provinces of Germany, almost every child learns, without effort, both German and French, and, in the commercial cities, English also; and the unschooled children of the Levant often learn four or five different languages merely by the ear. I do not suppose that the modern languages will soon become a regular branch of study in all our common schools; still, many who depend on those schools for their education, desire to study one or more of them, and they ought to have the opportunity; and if we would make our common schools our best schools, as they surely ought to be, the teachers must be capable of giving instruction in some of these languages.

I have thus endeavored to give a brief view of the course of study which should be pursued in a Teachers' Seminary, and this, I suppose, in itself, affords a strong and complete argument to establish the necessity of such an institution. A few general considerations in favor of this object will now be adduced.

1. The necessity of specific provision for the education of teachers is proved by the analogy of all other professions and pursuits.

To every sort of business in which men engage, some previous discipline is considered necessary; and this idea, confirmed by all experience, proceeds on the universal and very correct assumption, that the human mind knows nothing of business by intuition, and that miraculous inspiration is not to be expected. A man is not thought capable of shoeing a horse, or making a hat, without serving an apprenticeship at the business. Why, then, should the task of the schoolmaster, the most difficult and delicate of all, the management of the human mind, that most intricate and complex of machines, be left to mere intuition, be supposed to require no previous training? That the profession of school-teacher should so long be kept so low in the scale of professions, that it should even now be so generally regarded as a pursuit which needs, and can reward, neither time nor pains spent in preparation for its important duties, is a plain proof and example of the extreme slowness of the human race to perfect the most important parts of the social system.

2. A well-endowed, competent, and central institution, in a State, for the education of teachers, would give, in that State, oneness, dignity, and influence to the profession.

It would be a point of union that would hold the profession together, and promote that harmony and co-operation so essential to success. Teachers have been isolated and scattered, without a rallying-point or rendezvous; and the wonderful influence which has been exerted by the Western college of teachers (and other similar institutions in the Eastern States), the whole secret of which is, that it affords a central point around which teachers may rally, is but a faint shadow of what might be accomplished by a well-endowed and ably-manned seminary. Let there be some nucleus around which the strength of the profession may gather, and the community will soon feel its importance, and give it its due honor.

This object cannot be accomplished by small institutions scattered through the State, nor by erecting teachers' departments in existing institutions. The aggregate expense of such an arrangement would be quite as great as that of endowing one good institution; and without such an institution it would, after all,

accomplish but very little. It would be like distributing the waters of the canal to every little village in the State, instead of having them run in one broad and deep channel, suitable for navigation.

3. Such an institution would serve as a standard and model of education throughout the community.

The only reason why people are satisfied with an inferior system of common-school instruction is, that they have no experience of a better. No community ever goes voluntarily from a better to a worse, but the tendency and the effort generally are to rise in excellence. All our ideas of excellence, however, are comparative, and there will be little prospect of advancement unless we have a standard of comparison higher than any thing to which we have already attained.

A well-managed institution at the seat of government, which should embody all real improvements, and hold up the highest standard of present attainment, being visited by the executive officers, the legislators, the judges, the members of the bar, and other enlightened and influential men, who annually resort to the capital from every part of the State, would present a pattern to every school district, and excite emulation in every neighborhood. As an example of the rapidity with which improvements are taken, provided only there are appropriate channels for them to flow in, I may mention the practice of singing in schools, so recently introduced, and now so generally approved.

4. Such an institution would produce concentration of effort; its action would possess the vigor which strong sympathies impart; and it would tend to a desirable uniformity in books and modes of teaching.

I do not suppose that absolute perfection will ever be attained in the art of teaching; and while absolute perfection is not reached, it is certain there ought not to be entire uniformity in books and modes of teaching. But in this, as in all other human arts, there may be constant approximation toward the perfect; and this progress must be greatly accelerated by the concentration of effort, and the powerful sympathetic action of mind on mind, collected in one institution, and determined, as it were, to one focus. The action of such an institution would obviate the principal evils, now so strongly felt, arising from the diversity of books and methods; it would produce as much uniformity as would be desirable in the existing stage of improvement; and the more advanced the progress, the greater would be the uniformity.

5. All experience (experience which we generally appeal to as the safest guide in all practical matters) has decided in favor of institutions sustained by government for the education of teachers.

No country has ever yet obtained a sufficient number of well-qualified teachers in any other way; while every government which has adopted this method, and vigorously pursued it, either has already gained the object, or is in the fair way of gaining it, however unpromising the beginnings might have been. No country has ever been so well supplied with competent teachers as Prussia at the present moment, and yet, thirty years ago, the mass of school-teachers there was probably below the present average standard of New England and Ohio. Dinter gives several examples of ignorance and incapacity during the first years of his official labor in East Prussia, which we should scarcely expect to find any where in the United States; and the testimony of Dr. Julius before the British House of Commons, which was published in connection with my last report to the Legislature of Ohio, gives a similar view of the miserable condition of the Prussian schools at that time.

Now, what has been the great means of effecting so desirable an object in Prussia? Obviously, and by universal acknowledgment, the establishment of seminaries for the education of teachers.* The experiment was commenced by placing one in each of the ten provinces into which the kingdom is divided (equivalent to having one in each of the several States of this Union); and as their utility was tested, their number was increased; till now there are more than forty for a population of fourteen millions. Wirttemberg, Bavaria, Austria, Russia, Holland, France, and all other countries which desire to obtain a sufficient number of well-qualified teachers, find it necessary to follow this example; and I do not believe the United States are an exception to so general a rule. Indeed,

* See Notes B and C, at the close of this article.

such institutions must be even more necessary for us than for them, since, from the crowded state of the professions in old countries, there is much greater competition for the appointment of schoolmaster there than here.

It now only remains that I state a few of the more prominent objections which are sometimes made to these institutions, and endeavor to answer them.

1. "Such institutions are unnecessary. We have had good teachers without them, and may have good teachers still."

This is the old stereotyped objection against every attempt at improvement in every age. When the bold experiment was first made of nailing iron upon a horse's hoof, the objection was probably urged that horseshoes were entirely unnecessary. "We have had excellent horses without them, and shall probably continue to have them. The Greeks and Romans never used iron horseshoes: and did not they have the best of horses, which could travel thousands of miles, and bear on their backs the conquerors of the world?" So, when chimneys and glass windows were first introduced, the same objection would still hold good. "We have had very comfortable houses without these expensive additions. Our fathers never had them, and why should we?" And at this day, if we were to attempt, in certain parts of the Scottish Highlands, to introduce the practice of wearing pantaloons, we should probably be met with the same objection. "We have had very good men without pantaloons, and no doubt we shall continue to have them." In fact, we seldom know the inconveniences of an old thing till we have taken a new and better one in its stead. It is scarcely a year since the New York and European sailing packets were supposed to afford the very *ne plus ultra* of a comfortable and speedy passage across the Atlantic; but now, in comparison with the newly-established steam-packets, they are justly regarded as a slow, uncertain, and tedious mode of conveyance. The human race is progressive, and it often happens that the greatest conveniences of one generation are reckoned among the clumsiest waste lumber of the next. Compare the best printing-press at which Dr. Franklin ever worked, with those splendid machines which now throw off their thousand sheets an hour; and who will put these down by repeating, that Dr. Franklin was a very good printer, and made very good books, and became quite rich without them?

I know that we have good teachers already; and I honor the men who have made themselves good teachers, with so little encouragement, and so little opportunity of study. But I also know that such teachers are very few, almost none, in comparison with the public wants; and that a supply never can be expected without the increased facilities which a good Teachers' Seminary would furnish.

2. "Such an institution would be very expensive."

True, it would cost more than it would to build a stable, or fence in a few acres of ground; and in this view of the matter a canal is expensive, and so is a public road, and many other things which the public good requires, and the people are willing to pay for. The only questions worthy of answer are: Whether the expense be disproportionate to the object to be secured by it? and whether it be beyond the resources of the country? To both these questions I unhesitatingly answer, No. The object to be secured is one which would fully justify any amount of expense that might be laid out upon it; and all that need be done might be done, and not a man in the State feel the poorer for it. We could not expect a perfect institution at once. We must begin where we are, and go forward by degrees. A school sufficient for all present purposes might well be maintained for five thousand dollars a year; and what is that for States with resources like most of the States of this Union, and for the sake of securing an object so great as the perfection of the school system? If the kingdom of Prussia, with fourteen millions of people, two-thirds of whom are very poor, and the other third not very rich, can support *forty-two* Teachers' Seminaries, surely such States as Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and Virginia, and others, with populations of more than a million, none of whom are very poor, and many fast growing rich, can afford to support *one*.

3. "We cannot be certain that they who study in such institutions would devote themselves to the business of teaching."

This objection applies with equal force to all professional institutions; and if it is of any weight against a Teachers' Seminary, it is equally available against

a medical school. The objection, however, has very little weight ; for after a man has prepared himself for a profession, he generally wishes to engage in it, if he is competent to discharge its duties ; and if he is not competent, the public are no losers by his withdrawal.

But let it even be supposed that a Teachers' Seminary should be established on the plan above sketched out, and occasionally a man should go successfully through the prescribed course of study, and not engage in teaching ; are the public the losers by it ? Is the man a worse member of society after such a course of study, or a better ? Is he less interested in schools, or less able to perform the duties of a school officer, or less qualified to give a useful direction to the system among the people, than he would have been without such a course of study ? Is he not manifestly able to stand on higher ground in all these respects, than he otherwise could have done ? The benefit which the public would derive from such men out of the profession (and such would be useful in every school district) would amply remunerate all the expenses of the establishment. But such cases would be too few to avail much on either side of the argument ; certainly, in any view of them, they can argue nothing against the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries.

4. "Teachers educated in such an institution would exclude all others from the profession."

Not unless the institution could furnish a supply for all the schools, and they were so decidedly superior that the people would prefer them to all others ; in which case certainly the best interests of education demand that the statement in the objection should be verified in fact. But the success of the institution will not be so great and all-absorbing as this. It will not be able at once to supply half the number of teachers needed, and all who are educated in it will not be superior to every one who has not enjoyed its advantages. There is great diversity of natural gifts ; and some, with very slender advantages, will be superior to others who have been in possession of every facility for acquisition. That such an institution will elevate the standard of qualification among teachers, and crowd out those who notoriously fall below this standard, is indeed true ; but this, so far from being an objection, is one of its highest recommendations.

5. "One such institution cannot afford a sufficient supply for all the schools."

This is readily conceded ; but people generally admit that half a loaf is better than no bread, especially if they are hungry. If we have a thousand teachers, it is much better that three hundred of the number should be well qualified, than that all should be incompetent ; and five hundred would be still better than three hundred, and seven hundred better than either, and the whole thousand best of all. We must begin as well as we can, and go forward as fast as we are able ; and not be like the poor fool who will not move at all, because the first step he takes from his own door will not land him at once in the place of his destination. The first step is a necessary preliminary to the second, and the second to the third, and so on till all the steps are taken, and the journey completed. The educated teacher will exert a reforming influence on those who have not been so well prepared ; he will elevate and enlarge their views of the duties of the profession, and greatly assist them in their endeavors after a more perfect qualification.* He will also excite capable young men among his pupils to engage in the profession ; for one of the greatest excitements of the young to engage in any business, is to see a superior whom they respect in the successful prosecution of it.

Every well-educated teacher does much toward qualifying those who are already in the profession without sufficient preparation, and toward exciting others to engage in it ; and thus, though the institution cannot supply nearly teachers enough for all the schools, yet all the schools will be better taught in consequence of its influence. Moreover, a State institution would be the parent of many others, which would gradually arise, as their necessity would be appreciated from the perceived success of the first.

6. "The wages of teachers are not sufficient to induce teachers so well educated to engage in the profession."

At present this is true ; for wages are generally graduated according to the

* See Note D, at the close of this article.

aggregate merit of the profession, and this, hitherto, has not been very great. People will not pay high for a poor article; and a disproportionate quantity of poor articles in market, which are offered cheap, will affect the price of the good, with the generality of purchasers. But let the good be supplied in such quantities as to make the people acquainted with it, and it will soon drive out the bad, and command its own price. The establishment of a Teachers' Seminary will raise the wages of teachers, by increasing their qualifications, and augmenting the real value of their services; and people eventually will pay a suitable compensation for good teaching, with much less grudging than they have hitherto paid the cheap wages of poor teachers, which, after all, as has been well observed, is but "buying ignorance at a dear rate."*

NOTES.

(A.)

CHINESE EDUCATION.

There is a regular system of schools in China of two kinds—the people's schools, and schools for the nobles. The course commences when the child is five years old, and is continued very rigorously, with but few and short vacations, to the age of manhood. In the people's schools the course consists of four parts, each of which has its appropriate book. The first is called Pe-kia-sing, and contains the names of persons in one hundred families, which the children must commit to memory. The second is called Tsa-tse, and contains a variety of matters necessary to be known in the common business of life. The third is called Tsien-tse-ouen, a collection of one thousand alphabetical letters. The fourth is San-tse-king, a collection of verses of three syllables each, designed to teach the elements of Chinese morals and history. Such is the provision for the common people.

For the nobles there is a great university at Peking, the Koue-tze-kien, to which every mandarin is allowed to send one of his sons. The candidate for admission must go first to the governor of a city of the third rank for examination, and if approved, he receives the degree of Hien-ming. He then goes to the governor of a city of the first rank, and, if he maintains a good examination there, is admitted to the university.

A mandarin is annually sent out from Peking, to visit the higher institutions in the larger cities, and to confer degrees on the pupils, according to their progress. A class of four hundred is selected, and passes through ten examinations. The fifteen who have acquitted themselves best in all these examinations, receive the degree of Sinoa-tsay, the most important privilege of which is, that they are no longer liable to be whipped with the bamboo. Rich men's sons, who cannot always obtain this degree by a successful passage through the ten examinations, can procure the equivalent degree of Kien-song by paying a stipulated sum into the public treasury. Having attained either of these lower degrees, the pupil, after three years, can offer himself at Peking for the higher degree of Kin-jin, which must be obtained after rigorous examination. The successful applicants for this honor, after one year longer, can demand at Peking an examination for the highest academical degree, that of Tsin-tse. He who obtains this is congratulated and feasted by his friends; he is regarded with veneration by the people, is eligible to the highest office in the State, and may be raised by the Emperor to the dignity of Han-lin.

The Emperor himself is required to be a man of learning, and the care of his

* The New England practice of having district schools taught by college-students, during their winter vacation, has been of great and acknowledged utility both to the teachers and the schools. I have no desire to discourage this good old practice; for I apprehend that our common district schools, for many years to come, will need the services of temporary teachers of this kind. It is to be wished, however, that our colleges would make some provision for the special instruction of such students as engage in teaching. It would not only make their teachers much more valuable, but would fit them also to become school-examiners and inspectors after they have left the vocation of schoolmaster for some more lucrative employment.

early education is committed to a special college of learned men, called Tschéa-sza-fu; and he is regarded in law as the *educator* and *instructor* of his people, as well as their ruler. In each village there is a public hall, where the civil and military functionaries assemble on the first and fifteenth of every month, and a discourse is delivered to them on the Sacred Edict. This Sacred Edict contains, 1. The principles of Khong-hi, an ancient emperor. 2. A commentary by his son Young-tching, who reigned about the year 1700; and, 3. A paraphrase by Wangyeou-po. It was translated into English by Rev. W. Milne, Protestant Missionary at Malacca, and printed in London in 1817.

In the above brief sketch, it is plain that the Chinese have a great veneration for learning, and that the emoluments and honors of the empire are designed to be accessible to those only who have taken academical degrees. But the whole system is arranged to make them Chinese. It excludes every thing of foreign origin, it admits neither improvement nor variation, and the result is manifest in the character of the people.

Some, however, of our modern improvements have long been known and practiced in the Chinese schools. Such as the practice of the children reading and repeating together in choir, the art of mnemonics, and others of the like kind.—See *Schwartz's Geschichte der Erziehung*, vol. i. p. 68-75.

(B.)

PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS, A FEW YEARS AGO.

The following questions and answers are from Dr. Julius's testimony, before the Committee of the British House of Commons, in 1834, respecting the Prussian School System.

"Do you remember, from your own knowledge, what the character and attainments of the schoolmasters were previous to the year 1819?"

"I do not recollect; but I know they were very badly composed of non-commissioned officers, organists, and half-drunken people. It has not risen like a fountain at once. Since 1770, there has been much done in Prussia, and throughout Germany, for promoting a proper education of teachers, and by them of children."

"In your own observation has there been any very marked improvement in the character and attainments of schoolmasters, owing to the pains taken to which you have referred?"

"A very decided improvement."

Dinter, in his autobiography, gives some surprising specimens of gross incapacity in teachers, even subsequent to 1819. The following anecdotes are from that interesting work, *Dinters Leben von ihm selbst beschrieben*.

In the examination of a school in East Prussia, which was taught by a subaltern officer dismissed from the army, the teacher gave Dinter a specimen of his skill in the illustration of Scripture narrative. The passage was Luke vii, the miracle of raising the widow's son at Nain. "See, children (says the teacher), Nain was a great city, a beautiful city; but even in such a great, beautiful city, there lived people who must die. *They brought the dead youth out*. See, children, it was the same then as it is now—dead people couldn't go alone—they had to be carried. *He that was dead began to speak*. This was a sure sign that he was alive again, for if he had continued dead he couldn't have spoken a word."

In a letter to the King, a dismissed schoolmaster complained that the district was indebted to him 200705 dollars. Dinter supposed the man must be insane, and wrote to the physician of the place to inquire. The physician replied that the poor man was not insane, but only ignorant of the numeration table, writing 200 70 5 instead of 275. Dinter subjoins, "By the help of God, the King, and good men, very much has now been done to make things better."

In examining candidates for the school-teacher's office, Dinter asked one where the Kingdom of Prussia was situated. He replied, that he believed it was somewhere in the southern part of India. He asked another the cause of the ignis-fatuus, commonly called Jack-with-the-lantern. He said they were specters made by the devil. Another being asked why he wished to become a school-teacher, replied, that he must *get a living somehow*.

A military man of great influence once urged Dinter to recommend a disabled soldier, in whom he was interested, as a school-teacher. "I will do so," says Dinter, "if he sustains the requisite examination." "O," says the Colonel, "he doesn't know much about school-teaching, but he is a good, moral, steady man, and I hope you will recommend him to oblige me." *D.*—O yes, Colonel, to oblige you, if you in your turn will do me a favor. *Col.*—What is that? *D.*—Get me appointed drum-major in your regiment. True, I can neither beat a drum, nor play a fife; but I am a good, moral, steady man as ever lived.

A rich landholder once said to him, "Why do you wish the peasant children to be educated? it will only make them unruly and disobedient." Dinter replied, "If the masters are wise, and the laws good, the more intelligent the people, the better they will obey."

Dinter complained that the military system of Prussia was a great hinderance to the schools. A nobleman replied that the young men enjoyed the protection of the government, and were thereby bound to defend it by arms. Dinter asked if every stick of timber in a house ought first to be used in a fire-engine, because the house was protected by the engine? or whether it would be good policy to cut down all the trees of an orchard to build a fence with, to keep the hogs from eating the fruit?

(C.)

SCHOOL-COUNSELOR DINTER.

GUSTAVUS FREDERICK DINTER was born at a village near Leipsic, in 1760. He first distinguished himself as principal of a Teachers' Seminary in Saxony, whence he was invited by the Prussian government to the station of School-Counselor for Eastern Prussia. He resides at Königsberg, and about ninety days in the year he spends in visiting the schools of his province, and is incessantly employed nearly thirteen hours a day for the rest of his time, in the active duties of his office; and that he may devote himself the more exclusively to his work, he lives unmarried. He complains that his laborious occupation prevents his writing as much as he wishes for the public, yet, in addition to his official duties, he lectures several times a week, during term-time, in the University at Königsberg, and always has in his house a number of indigent boys, whose education he superintends, and, though poor himself, gives them board and clothing. He has made it a rule to spend every Wednesday afternoon, and, if possible, one whole day in the week besides, in writing for the press; and thus, by making the best use of every moment of time, though he was nearly forty years old before his career as an author commenced, he has contrived to publish more than sixty original works, some of them extending to several volumes, and all of them popular. Of one book, a school catechism, fifty thousand copies were sold previous to 1830; and of his large work, the School-Teacher's Bible, in 9 volumes 8vo, thirty thousand copies were sold in less than ten years.

He is often interrupted by persons who are attracted by his fame, or desire his advice; and while conversing with his visitors, that no time may be lost, he employs himself in knitting; and thus not only supplies himself with stockings and mittens, suited to that cold climate, but always has some to give away to indigent students and other poor people. His disinterestedness is quite equal to his activity, and of the income of his publications, he devotes annually nearly five hundred dollars to benevolent purposes. Unweariedly industrious, and rigidly economical as he is, he lays up nothing for himself. He says, "I am one of those happy ones, who, when the question is put to them, 'Lack ye any thing?' (Luke xxii. 35), can answer with joy, 'Lord, nothing.' To have more than one can use is superfluity; and I do not see how this can make any one happy. People often laugh at me, because I will not incur the expense of drinking wine, and because I do not wear richer clothing, and live in a more costly style. Laugh away, good people; the poor boys, also, whose education I pay for, and for whom, besides, I can spare a few dollars for Christmas gifts, and new-year's presents, they have their laugh too."

Toward the close of his autobiography, he says respecting the King of Prussia, "I live happily under Frederick William; he has just given me one hundred

and thirty thousand dollars to build churches with in destitute places; he has established a new Teachers' Seminary for my poor Polanders, and he has so fulfilled my every wish for the good of posterity, that I can myself hope to live to see the time when there shall be no schoolmaster in Prussia more poorly paid than a common laborer. He has never hesitated, during the whole term of my office, to grant me any reasonable request for the helping forward of the school-system. God bless him! I am with all my heart a Prussian. And now, my friends, when ye hear that old Dinter is dead, say, 'May he rest in peace; he was a laborious, good-hearted, religious man; he was a Christian.'

A few such men in the United States would effect a wonderful change in the general tone of our educational efforts.

(D.)

IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL-TEACHERS.

At the commencement of the late school efforts in Prussia, for the benefit of teachers already in the profession who had not possessed the advantages of a regular training, it was the custom for them to assemble during the weeks of vacation in their schools, and, under the care of a competent teacher, go through a regular course of lessons for their improvement. Of the entire course a careful and minute journal was kept and transmitted to the government. The following is from the journal of a four weeks' course of this kind, which was held at Regenwald in 1821, under the charge of School-Counselor Bernhardt. The King gave his special approbation of this journal, and caused a large number of copies to be printed and circulated throughout the kingdom. The Minister of Public Instruction expresses himself respecting it in the following terms:—

"The view presented and acted upon by School-Counselor Bernhardt, that the important point is not the quantity and variety of knowledge communicated, but its solidity and accuracy; and that the foundation of all true culture consists in the education to piety, the fear of God, and Christian humility; and, accordingly, that those dispositions, before all things else, must be awakened and confirmed in teachers, that thereby they may exercise love, long-suffering, and cheerfulness, in their difficult and laborious calling—these principles are the only correct ones, according to which the education of teachers every where, and in all cases, can and ought to be conducted, notwithstanding the regard which must be had to the peculiar circumstances and the intellectual condition of particular provinces and communities. The Ministry hereby enjoin it anew upon the Regency, not only to make these principles their guide in their own labors in the common schools and Teachers' Seminaries, but also to commend and urge them in the most emphatic manner on all teachers and pupils in their jurisdiction. That this will be faithfully done, the Ministry expect with so much the more confidence, because in this way alone can the supreme will of his Majesty the King, repeatedly and earnestly expressed, be fulfilled. Of the manner in which the Regency execute this order, the Ministry expect a Report, and only remark further, that as many copies of the journal as may be needed will be supplied."

The strongly religious character of the instructions in the following journal will be noticed; but will any *Christian* find fault with this characteristic, or with the King and Ministry for commending it?

The journal gives an account of the employment of every hour in the day, from half past six in the morning to a quarter before nine in the evening. Instead of making extracts from different parts of it, I here present the entire journal for the last week of the course, that the reader may have the better opportunity of forming his own judgment on the real merits of the system.

FOURTH WEEK.

Monday, Oct. 22.—A. M. 6½-7. Meditation. Teachers and parents, forget not that your children are men, and that, as such, they have the ability to become reasonable. God will have all men to come to the knowledge of the truth. As men, our children have the dignity of men, and a right to life, cultivation, honor, and truth. This is a holy, inalienable right, that is, no man can divest himself of

it without ceasing to be a man. 7-8½. Bible instruction. Reading the Bible, and verbal analysis of what is read. Jesus in the wilderness. 9-12. Writing. Exercise in small letters. P. M. 2-5. Writing as before. 5½-7. Singing. 8-8¾. Meditation. Our schools should be Christian schools for Christian children, and Jesus Christ should be daily the chief teacher. One thing is needful. Jesus Christ, the same yesterday, to-day, and forever. The great end of our schools, therefore, is the instruction of children in Christianity; or the knowledge of heavenly truths in hope of eternal life; and to answer the question, What must I do to be saved? Our children, as they grow up, must be able to say, from the conviction of their hearts, We know and are sure that thou art the Christ, the Son of the living God. Beloved teachers, teach no Christianity without Christ, and know that there cannot be a living faith without knowledge and love.

Tuesday, Oct. 23.—A. M. 6-7. Meditation. Christian schools are the gardens of God's Spirit, and the plantations of humanity, and, therefore, holy places. How dreadful is this place! This is none other than the house of God. Teachers, venerate your schools—regard the sacred as sacred. 7-8½. Bible instruction. Reading of the Bible and verbal analysis of what is read. Luke xv. 1-10. 8½-9. Catechism. Repeating the second article with proper emphasis, and the necessary explanation of terms. 10-12. Writing. Exercise in German capitals, with the writing of syllables and words. P. M. 1-4. General repetition of the instructions for school-teachers given during the month. 4-5. Brief instruction respecting school discipline and school laws. 5-7. Singing. 8-8½. Meditation. Teachers, you should make your school a house of prayer, not a den of murderers. Thou shalt not kill—that is, thou shalt do no injury to the souls of thy children. This you will do if you are an ungodly teacher, if you neglect your duty, if you keep no order or discipline in your school, if you instruct the children badly, or not at all, and set before them an injurious example. The children will be injured also by hurrying through the school-prayers, the texts, and catechism, and by all thoughtless reading and committing to memory. May God help you!

Wednesday, Oct. 24.—6-6¾. Meditation. Dear teachers, you labor for the good of mankind and the kingdom of God; be, therefore, God's instruments and co-workers. Thy kingdom come. In all things approving ourselves as the ministers of God. 6¾-8½. Bible instruction as before, John iv. 1-15. 8½-9. Catechism. The correct and emphatic reading and repeating of the first section, with brief explanation of terms. 10-12. Instruction in school discipline and school laws. P. M. 1-3. Instruction in the cultivation of fruit-trees. For instruction in this branch of economy, the school is arranged in six divisions, each under the care of a teacher acquainted with the business, with whom they go into an orchard, and under his inspection perform all the necessary work. General principles and directions are written in a book, of which each student has a copy. More cooling is the shade, and more sweet the fruit, of the tree which thine own hands have planted and cherished. 3-5. Instruction in school discipline and school laws. 5¼-½. Singing. 8-9. Meditation. The Christian school-teacher is also a good husband and father. Blameless, the husband of one wife, vigilant, sober, of good behavior, apt to teach, not given to wine, no striker, not greedy of filthy lucre, patient, not a brawler, not covetous, one that ruleth well his own house, having his children in subjection, with all gravity. He that readeth, let him understand.

Thursday, Oct. 25.—A. M. 6-6¾. Meditation. Dear teachers, do all in your power to live in harmony and peace with your districts, that you may be a helper of the parents in the bringing up of their children. Endeavor to maintain the unity of the Spirit in the bond of peace. As much as in you lies, live peaceably with all men. 6¾-9. Bible instruction as before, Luke vii. 11-17. Reading by sentences, by words, by syllables, by letters. Reading according to the sense, with questions as to the meaning. Understandest thou what thou readest? 10-11. Instructions as to prayer in schools. Forms of prayer suitable for teachers and children are copied and committed to memory. Lord, teach us to pray. 11-12. Writing. Exercise in capitals and writing words. P. M. 2-3. Instruction respecting prayer in the family and in the school. Forms of prayer for morning and evening, and at the table, are copied, with instructions that school children should commit them to memory, that they may aid their parents to an edifying performance of the duty of family worship; that, as the school

thus helps the family, so the family also may help the school. Use not vain repetitions. 3-5. Bible instruction. General views of the contents of the Bible, and how the teacher may communicate, analyze, and explain them to his children, yearly, at the commencement of the winter and summer terms. 5½-7. Singing. 8-9. Meditation. Teachers, acquire the confidence and love of your districts, but never forsake the direct path of duty. Fear God, do right, and be afraid of no man. The world, with its lusts, passeth away, but he that doeth the will of God shall abide forever.

Friday, Oct. 26.—Meditation. Teachers, hearken to the preacher, and labor into his hands; for he is placed over the Church of God, who will have the school be an aid to the Church. Remember them that labor among you, and are over you in the Lord, and esteem them highly in love for their works' sake. Neither is he that planteth any thing, nor he that watereth any thing, but God who giveth the increase. 7-9. Bible instruction. Summary of the contents of the Bible, to be committed to memory by children from ten to fifteen years of age. 10-12. Bible instruction. Brief statement of the contents of the historical books of the New Testament. P. M. 1-5. Bible instruction. Contents of the doctrinal and prophetic books of the New Testament. Selection of the passages of the New Testament proper to be read in a country school. A guide for teachers to the use of the Bible in schools. 5-7. Singing. 8-9. Meditation. Honor and love, as a good teacher, thy King and thy father-land; and awake the same feelings and sentiments in the hearts of thy children. Fear God, honor the King, seek the good of the country in which you dwell, for when it goes well with it, it goes well with thee.

Saturday, Oct. 27.—6-6½. Meditation. By the life in the family, the school, and the church, our heavenly Father would educate us and our children for our earthly and heavenly home; therefore parents, teachers, and preachers, should labor hand in hand. One soweth and another reapeth. I have laid the foundation, another buildeth thereon; and let every man take heed how he buildeth thereon. Means of education: 1. In the family—the parents, domestic life, habits; 2. In the school—the teacher, the instruction, the discipline; 3. In the church—the preaching, the word, the sacraments. 6½-9½. Bible instruction. Rules which the teacher should observe in reading the Bible. In analyzing it. In respect to the contents of the Old Testament books, and selections from them for reading, written instructions are given and copied, on account of the shortness of the time which is here given to this topic. 10-12. Bible instruction. General repetition. P. M. 1-4. Bible instruction. General repetition. 4-5. Reading. Knowledge of the German language, with written exercises. 7-10½. Review of the course of instruction and the journal. 10½-12. Meditation. The prayer of Jesus (John xvii.), with particular reference to our approaching separation.

Sunday, Oct. 28.—6½-9. Morning prayer. Catechism. Close of the term. (In the open air on a hill at sunset) singing and prayer. Address by the head teacher. Subject. What our teacher would say to us when we separate from him. 1. What you have learned apply well, and follow it faithfully. If ye know these things, happy are ye if ye do them. 2. Learn to see more and more clearly that you know but little. We know in part. 3. Be continually learning, and never get weary. The man has never lived who has learned all that he might. 4. Be yourself what you would have your children become. Become as little children. 5. Let God's grace be your highest good, and let it strengthen you in the difficulties which you must encounter. My grace is sufficient for thee—my strength is perfect in thy weakness. 6. Keep constantly in mind the Lord Jesus Christ. He has left us an example that we should follow his steps. Hymn—Lord Jesus Christ, hearken thou to us. Prayer. Benediction.

Review of the hours spent in different studies during the four weeks. Arithmetic, sixty-seven; writing, fifty-six; Bible, twenty-five; meditation, thirty-six; other subjects, twenty-six; singing, twenty-eight. Total, two hundred and thirty-eight. From nine to ten, in the morning, was generally spent in walking together, and one hour in the afternoon was sometimes spent in the same manner.

Familiar lectures were given on the following topics: 1. Directions to teachers as to the knowledge and right use of the Bible in schools. 2. Directions to teachers respecting instruction in writing. 3. Directions for exercises in mental arithmetic. 4. Instructions respecting school discipline and school laws. 5. A col-

lection of prayers for the school and family, with directions to teachers. 6. The German parts of speech, and how they may be best taught in a country school. 7. The day-book.

Printed books were the following: 1. Dinter's Arithmetic. 2. Dinter on Guarding against Fires. 3. Brief Biography of Luther. 4. On the Cultivation of Fruit-Trees. 5. German Grammar. 6. Baumgarten's Letter-Writer for Country Schools. 7. Luther's Catechism.

That which can be learned and practiced in the short space of a few weeks, is only a little—a very little. But it is not of so much importance that we have more knowledge than others; but most depends on this, that I have the right disposition; and that I thoroughly understand and faithfully follow out the little which I do know.

God help me, that I may give all which I have to my school; and that I, with my dear children, may, above all things, strive after that which is from above. Father in heaven, grant us strength and love for this.

PROCEEDINGS

OF AN

EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION IN PLYMOUTH COUNTY, IN 1838.

In the autumn of 1834, Rev. Charles Brooks, pastor of a church in Hingham, commenced his labors in behalf of common schools, and particularly of the establishment of a state system of supervision, and of a Normal School. Mr. Brooks had become interested in these features of a system of public education during a visit to Europe, and from an opportunity of becoming well acquainted with the details of the Prussian system, in conversation with Dr. Julius, who was his companion across the Atlantic, during his voyage home, when the latter gentleman was on his visit to this country on a commission from the Government of Prussia, to examine into our system of prison discipline. As will be seen hereafter, that visit was twice blessed—it helped, by disseminating a knowledge of our improvements in prisons, and our amelioration of the criminal code, to advance the cause of humanity in Europe, and make known among our statesmen and educators the progress which had been made in Germany in the means and agencies of popular education. Mr. Brooks' first public effort was on the 3d of December, 1835, in a thanksgiving address to his people, in which he gave a sketch of the Prussian system of education, and proposed the holding a series of conventions of the friends of common schools to agitate the subject of establishing a Normal School in the old colony. The first of these conventions was held on the 7th of December, 1836, and continued in session two days. This was followed by a second, at Hingham, on the 11th; at Duxbury, on the 18th; at New Bedford, on the 21st and 23d; at Fair Haven, on the 23d; and at East Bridgewater, on the 24th and 25th of the same month. Mr. Brooks continued his labors in the county in the autumn and winter following, sometimes before conventions, and sometimes by his individual appointment. He was at Kingston on the 16th of January, 1837; at South Hingham, February 4th; at Quincy, February 21st; at Dunbury, May 10th; at Hansen, July 9th; at Plymouth, October 24th; and at Weymouth, November 5th.

The labors of this gentleman were not confined to the old colony, or even to the State of Massachusetts. In the course of the same year he lectured at Northampton, Springfield, Deerfield, Boston, Middleborough, and other places in Massachusetts, in 1836 and 1837, and particularly in the Hall of the House of Representatives on the 18th and 19th of January, 1837, during the memorable session of the Legislature, in which the Board of Education was instituted; and on the 28th of January, 1838, during the no less memorable session, by which the first appropriation in behalf of Normal Schools was made. His theme every where was the

Teacher—"As is the Teacher, so is the School,"—and the aim of all his discourses was to induce individuals and legislatures to establish Normal Schools and other agencies for improving the qualifications and the pecuniary and social condition of the teacher, as the source of all other improvements in popular education. His facts and illustrations were drawn from the experience of Prussia and Holland. Mr. Brooks closed his active labors in this cause in Massachusetts after he had the satisfaction of seeing the Board of Education established, and the first Normal School opened; but not until he had made a powerful effort to get one of these institutions located in Plymouth county, by means of the educational convention held at Hanover, on the 3d of September, 1838, which was graced by the presence and address of several of the most distinguished public men in the commonwealth. After noticing the proceedings of that convention, we will return to our narrative.

At a meeting of the "Plymouth County Association for the Improvement of Common Schools," held at Hanover, September 3d, 1838, the question of a *Normal School in Plymouth County* was discussed by an array of distinguished men, such as the cause has seldom brought together in this country. The following notice of the proceedings is abridged from the Hingham Patriot. After an address by Mr. Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, on "*Special Preparation, a Pre-requisite to Teaching*," Rev. Mr. Brooks, of Hingham, introduced a resolution approving of a plan, proposed by a committee of the Association, to raise in the several towns in the county a sum sufficient to provide a building, fixtures, and apparatus, in order to secure the location of one of the three Normal Schools which the Board proposed to establish in Plymouth county. Mr. Brooks excused himself from advocating the resolution, inasmuch as he had reiterated his views on the subject in every town in the county, and published them in two addresses through the press; he therefore gave way to friends from abroad, who had come with strong hands and warm hearts to aid in the holy work.

Mr. Ichabod Morton, of Plymouth, who had, two years before, out of a large heart, and small resources, offered to meet one tenth of the expense of the enterprise, advocated the raising up better teachers, who, by a Christian education, could carry the happiness of childhood fresh and whole through life.

Mr. Rantoul, of Gloucester, thought a reformation in our common schools was exceedingly needed, and this change for the better could only be effected by better teachers, well paid, and permanently employed.

Rev. George Putnam, of Roxburg:—

"For himself he saw no objection to the establishment of Normal Schools. But perhaps some might say, there was no need of special preparation for a teacher. To this opinion he must emphatically object. If there be any department for the able and proper performance of whose duties special instruction be absolutely necessary it is that of the educator. He said he had once kept school, and with tolerable acceptance, he believed, to his employers, but though just from college, he found himself deficient in the very first steps of elementary knowledge. He had studied all the mathematics required at Cambridge, but he did not know how to come at a young mind so as successfully to teach enu-

meration. He had studied the classics; but he could not teach a boy how to construct a simple English paragraph. He found himself wanting in that highest of arts, the art of simplifying difficult things so that children can grasp them. He therefore, from his own experience, ventured to say, that no liberal profession so comes short of its objects as that of the schoolmaster. Few, very few, apprehend its difficulties. To know how to enter the child's soul, and when there to know what to do, is knowledge possessed but by few, and if there be a province in which specific preparation be necessary it is this; and this very preparation is what Normal Schools promise to confer. We want no law schools, or any higher schools or colleges at this time, so much as we want seminaries, to unfold the young minds of this community. Another objection might be with some, that a Normal School in Plymouth County was some trick of the rich to get advantage of the poor. He ably refuted this objection. He said it happened to have a directly opposite tendency. It was to be a free school; free in tuition and open to the poorest of the poor. It would eminently benefit the poor. The rich would not go to it except where a great love of teaching actuated a rich young person. On the other hand it would be a free school where a very superior education would be furnished gratis to any one who wished to become a teacher in the county. Another objection might be felt by some, viz., that it may tend to raise the wages of our teachers. To this he replied, that females might become teachers to a wider extent than now. It would, moreover, raise common schools to be the best schools in the community; and when they had become the best schools, as they should be, then the money now spent in private schools would be turned in to the public ones, as in the Latin School at Boston, and higher wages could be given without any additional burden on our towns. He asked why should not the great mass of the people have the best schools? Why should not talent and money be expended on town schools as well as on academies and colleges? Let the town schools be made as good as to force all parents, from mere selfishness, to send their children. Let all our young people come together, as republicans should, find common sympathies, and move by a common set of nerves. The Normal School, while it opens infinite advantages to the poor, will lessen their burdens and elevate them to knowledge and influence."

Hon. John Quincy Adams:—

"He had examined the subject of late, and he thought the movements in this county by the friends of education had been deliberate and wise and Christian; and he thought the plan, contemplated by the very important resolution before the meeting, could not but find favor with every one who would examine and comprehend it. All accounts concur in stating a deficiency of competent teachers. He said, when he came to that meeting, he had objections to the plan rising in his mind; but those objections had been met and so clearly answered, that he now was convinced of the wisdom and forecast of the project, and that it aimed at the best interests of this community. Under this head, and alluding to his views, he said, the original settlers of New England were the first people on the face of the globe who undertook to say that all children should be educated. On this our democracy has been founded. Our town schools, and town meetings, have been our stronghold in this point; and our efforts now are to second those of our pious ancestors. Some kingdoms of Europe have been justly praised for their patronage of elementary instruction, but they were only following our early example. Our old system has made us an enlightened people, and I feared that the Normal School system was to subvert the old system, take the power from the towns and put it into the state, and overturn the old democratic principle of sustaining the schools by a tax on property; but, I am happy to find that this is not its aim or wish; but on the contrary, it is accordant to all the old maxims, and would elevate the town schools to the new wants of a growing community. He said, he thought of other objections, but they were so faint as to have faded out of his mind. We see monarchs expending vast sums, establishing Normal Schools through their realms, and sparing no pains to convey knowledge and efficiency to all the children of their poorest subjects. *Shall we be outdone by Kings?* Shall monarchies steal a march on republics in the patronage of that education on which a republic is based? On this great and glorious cause let us expend freely, yes, *more* freely than on any other. There was a usage, he added, in the ancient republic of Sparta, which now

occurred to him, and which filled his mind with this pleasing idea, viz., that these endeavors of ours for the fit education of all our children would be the means of raising up a generation around us which would be superior to ourselves. The usage alluded to was this: the inhabitants of the city on a certain day collected together and marched in procession; dividing themselves into three companies; the old, the middle-aged, and the young. When assembled for the sports and exercises, a dramatic scene was introduced, and the three parties had each a speaker; and Plutarch gives the form of phraseology used in the several addresses on the occasion. The old men speak first; and addressing those beneath them in age, say,—

“We have been in days of old
Wise, generous, brave, and bold.”

Then come the middle-aged, and casting a triumphant look at their seniors, say to them,—

“That which in days of yore ye were,
We, at the present moment, are.”

Last march forth the children, and looking bravely upon both companies who had spoken, they shout forth thus:—

“Hereafter at our country’s call,
We promise to surpass you all.”

Hon. Daniel Webster:—

“He was anxious to concur with others in aid of the project. The ultimate aim was to elevate and improve the primary schools; and to secure competent instruction to every child which should be born. No object is greater than this; and the means, the forms and agents are each and all important. He expressed his obligation to town schools, and paid a tribute to their worth, considering them the foundation of our social and political system. He said he would gladly bear his part of the expense. The town schools need improvement; for if they are no better now than when he attended them, they are insufficient to the wants of the present day. They have, till lately, been overlooked by men who should have considered them. He rejoiced at the noble efforts here made of late, and hoped they might be crowned with entire success. * * It has become the fashion to teach every thing through the press. Conversation, so valued in ancient Greece, is overlooked and neglected; whereas it is the richest source of culture. We teach too much by manuals, too little by direct intercourse with the pupil’s mind; we have too much of words, too little of things. Take any of the common departments, how little do we really know of the practical detail, say geology. It is taught by books. It should be taught by excursions in the fields. So of other things. We begin with the abstracts, and know little of the detail of facts; we deal in generals, and go not to particulars; we begin with the representative, leaving out the constituents. Teachers should teach things. It is a reproach that the public schools are not superior to the private. If I had as many sons as old Priam, I would send them all to the public schools. The private schools have injured, in this respect, the public; they have impoverished them. They who should be in them are withdrawn; and like so many uniform companies taken out of the general militia, those left behind are none the better. This plan of a Normal School in Plymouth County is designed to elevate our common schools, and thus to carry out the noble ideas of our pilgrim fathers. There is growing need that this be done. But there is a larger view yet. Every man and every woman, every brother and every sister, is a teacher. Parents are eminently teachers. Every man has an interest in the community, and helps his share to shape it. Now, if Normal Schools are to teach teachers, they enlist this interest on the right side; they make parents and all who any way influence childhood competent to their high office. The good which these Seminaries are thus to spread through the community is incalculable. They will turn all the noblest enthusiasm of the land into the holy channel of knowledge and virtue. Now, if our Plymouth school succeeds, they will go up in every part of the state, and who then can compute the exalted character which they may finally create among us? In families there will be better teaching, and the effect will be felt throughout society. This effort thus far has done good. It has raised in many minds a clear conviction of the importance of competent teachers; and a clear benefit

to follow this will be, to raise the estimation in which teachers should be held. He hoped that this course of policy would raise, even beyond what we expected, the standard of elementary instruction. He considered the cost very slight. It can not come into any expanded mind as an objection. If it be an experiment, it is a noble one, and should be tried."

[Mr. Webster has always stood out a bold and eloquent advocate of common schools. In his centennial address at Plymouth, in 1822, he paid the following noble tribute to the policy of New England in this respect:—

"In this particular, New England may be allowed to claim, I think, a merit of a peculiar character. She early adopted and has constantly maintained the principle, that it is the undoubted right, and the bounden duty of government, to provide for the instruction of all youth. That which is elsewhere left to chance, or to charity, we secure by law. For the purpose of public instruction, we hold every man subject to taxation in proportion to his property, and we look not to the question, whether he himself have, or have not, children to be benefited by the education for which he pays. We regard it as a wise and liberal system of police, by which property, and life, and the peace of society are secured. We seek to prevent, in some measure, the extension of the penal code, by inspiring a salutary and conservative principle of virtue and of knowledge in an early age. We hope to excite a feeling of respectability, and a sense of character, by enlarging the capacity, and increasing the sphere of intellectual enjoyment. By general instruction, we seek, as far as possible, to purify the whole moral atmosphere; to keep good sentiments uppermost, and to turn the strong current of feeling and opinion, as well as the censures of the law, and the denunciations of religion, against immorality and crime. We hope for a security, beyond the law, and above the law, in the prevalence of enlightened and well-principled moral sentiment. We hope to continue and prolong the time, when, in the villages and farm-houses of New England, there may be undisturbed sleep within unbarred doors. And knowing that our government rests directly on the public will, that we may preserve it, we endeavor to give a safe and proper direction to that public will. We do not, indeed, expect all men to be philosophers or statesmen; but we confidently trust, and our expectation of the duration of our system of government rests on that trust, that by the diffusion of general knowledge and good and virtuous sentiments, the political fabric may be secure, as well against open violence and overthrow, as against the slow but sure undermining of licentiousness."

In a speech delivered at Madison, Indiana, after congratulating the people of the state on the attention they had paid to common school education, Mr. Webster adds:—

"Among the planets in the sky of New England—the burning lights, which throw intelligence and happiness on her people—the first and most brilliant is her system of common schools. I congratulate myself that my first speech on entering public life was in their behalf. Education, to accomplish the ends of good government, should be universally diffused. Open the doors of the school-house to all the children of the land. Let no man have the excuse of poverty for not educating his own offspring. Place the means of education within his reach, and if they remain in ignorance, be it his own reproach. If one object of the expenditure of your revenue be protection against crime, you could not devise a better or cheaper means of obtaining it. Other nations spend their money in providing means for its detection and punishment, but it is for the principles of our government to provide for its never occurring. The one acts by *coercion*, the other by *prevention*. On the diffusion of education among the people rests the preservation and perpetuation of our free institutions. I apprehend no danger to our country from a foreign foe. The prospect of a war with any powerful nation is too remote to be a matter of calculation. Besides, there is no nation on earth powerful enough to accomplish our overthrow. Our destruction, should it come at all, will be from another quarter. From the inattention of the people to the concerns of their government—from their care-

lessness and negligence—I must confess that I do apprehend some danger. I fear that they may place too implicit a confidence in their public servants, and fail properly to scrutinize their conduct,—that in this way they may be made the dupes of designing men, and become the instruments of their own undoing. Make them intelligent, and they will be vigilant—give them the means of detecting the wrong, and they will apply the remedy.”]

Rev. Dr. Robbins remarked—

“As the offer of the Normal Schools had been first made to the Old Colony, that “mother of us all,” he hoped that the descendants of the pilgrims would sustain the exalted character of their fathers; and, as in times past, so now, go forward in improvements which are to elevate and bless all coming generations.”

The object of the Convention was attained. One of the three Normal Schools which the Board had decided to establish out of the donation of \$10,000, by Mr. Dwight, and the appropriation of the same sum by the state, placed at their disposal, was located at Bridgewater, in Plymouth County.

A previous convention in Plymouth County, at Halifax, on the 24th of January, 1837, had adopted a petition to the Legislature, drawn up by the Rev. Charles Brooks,* asking for the Establishment of a Board of Education, and a Teachers' Seminary; and in the same year, the Directors of the American Institute of Instruction presented a memorial on the same subject; drawn up by George B. Emerson,† of Boston. The Board of Education was established in that year, and the Normal School in the year following.

* Although not directly connected with the history of Normal Schools in Massachusetts, it may be mentioned in this place, that no individual in the whole country has done more to arouse the public mind of New England to the importance of Normal Schools, and to some extent, the leading minds of some other states, than the Rev. Charles Brooks. He lectured before the Legislature of New Hampshire, by their request, at Concord, on the 13th, 14th, and 15th of June, 1837 and 1838, and again in 1845, and in the former year at Keene, Portsmouth, Concord, and Nashua; before the Legislature of Vermont, in 1847, and at several other points in that state; before the State Convention of the friends of education at Hartford, Connecticut, in November, 1838; before the Legislature of New Jersey, March 13, 1839; at Philadelphia about the same time; and at Providence in 1833, during the struggle which ended in the re-organization of the public schools of that city, and at a later period, when the establishment of the Public High School was in jeopardy. On one of these visits, Mr. Brooks delivered eight addresses in seven days. These, however, are not all the times and places in which we have met with notices of his labors and addresses in behalf of his favorite subject. Although his labors, every where, in his own country and out of it, in his own state and out of it, were gratuitous, he did not escape the assaults of the newspapers. In one of these, he was represented as “Captain Brooks,” with ferule in hand, at the head of a troop of schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, marching for a Normal School in the clouds.

† Mr. Emerson commenced his career as a teacher, in a district school, and before opening his private school for young ladies, he was principal of the English High School, in Boston, on its first establishment, in 1821. Under his immediate direction, Colburn's “First Lessons in Intellectual Arithmetic,” printed on separate sheets for this purpose, were first tested, and the deficiencies ascertained in the classes of this school. If Mr. Emerson had rendered no other service to the cause of educational improvement in this country, than to have successfully organized the First Public English High School, and have assisted in perfecting the “First Lessons,” he would be entitled to a large measure of the gratitude of teachers and the public generally.

A LECTURE,*

ON SPECIAL PREPARATION, A PREREQUISITE TO TEACHING, 1833.

BY HORACE MANN,

Gentlemen of the Convention :

AFTER the lapse of another year, we are again assembled to hold counsel together for the welfare of our children. On this occasion we have much reason to meet each other with voices of congratulation and hearts of gladness. During the past year the cause of Popular Education in this Commonwealth has gained some suffrages of public opinion. On presenting its wants and its claims to citizens in every part of the State, I have found that there were many individuals who appreciated its importance, and who only awaited an opportunity to give utterance and action to their feelings;—in almost every town, some,—in many, a band.

Some of our hopes, also, have become facts. The last Legislature acted toward this cause the part of a wise and faithful guardian. Inquiries having been sent into all parts of the Commonwealth to ascertain the deficiencies in our Common-School system, and the causes of failure in its workings; and the results of those inquiries having been communicated to the Legislature,—together with suggestions for the application of a few obvious and energetic remedies,—that body forthwith enacted such laws as the wants of the system most immediately and imperiously demanded. Probably at no session since the origin of our Common-School system have laws more propitious to its welfare been made, than during the last.

* * * * *

But among all the auspicious events of the past year, ought not the friends of Popular Education to be most grateful, on account of the offer made by a private gentleman† to the Legislature, of the sum of ten thousand dollars, upon the conditions that the State should add thereto an equal sum, and that the amount should be expended, under the direction of the Board of Education, in qualifying teachers for our Common Schools, and of the promptness and unanimity with which the Legislature acceded to the proposition? I say, the *unanimity*, for the vote was entirely unanimous in the House of Representatives, and there was but one *nay* in the Senate. Vast donations have been made in this Commonwealth, both by the government and by individuals, for the cause of learning in some of its higher, and, of course, more limited departments; but I believe this to be the first instance where any considerable sum has been given for the cause of education, generally, and irrespective of class, or sect, or party. Munificent donations have frequently been made, among ourselves, as well as in other States and countries, to perpetuate some distinctive theory or dogma of one's own, or to requite a peculiar few who may have honored or flattered the giver. But this was given to augment the common mass of intelligence, and to promote universal culture; it was given with a high and enlightened disregard of all local, party, personal, or sectional views; it was given for the direct benefit of all the heart and all the mind, *extant*, or *to be extant*, in our beloved Commonwealth; and, in this respect, it certainly stands out almost, if not absolutely alone, both in the amount of the donation, and in the elevation of the motive that prompted it. I will not tarnish the brightness of this deed by attempting to gild it with praise.

* Copied, by permission, from *Lectures on Education by Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education*. Boston: William B. Fowle. 1845. Most of the Lectures embraced in this volume were delivered by Mr. Mann before conventions of the friends of education, held in the several counties of Massachusetts in the autumn of each year, from 1833 to 1842. The lecture which follows was delivered in 1838, to prepare the public mind for a fair trial of the experiment of providing means for the special qualification of teachers for the common schools of the State.

† Hon. Edmund Dwight, of Boston.

One of the truest and most impressive sentences ever uttered by Sir Walter Scott is, however, so appropriate, and forces itself so strongly upon my mind, that I cannot repress its utterance. When that plain and homely Scotch girl, Jeannie Deans,—the highest of all the characters ever conceived by that gifted author,—is pleading her suit before the British queen, and showing herself therein to be ten times a queen,—she utters the sentiment I refer to: "But when," says she, "the hour of trouble comes to the mind or to the body, and when the hour of death comes, that comes to high and low, then it isna what we hae dune for ourself, but what we hae dune for others, that we think on maist pleasantly."

There is, then, at last, on the part of the government of Massachusetts, a recognition of the expediency of providing means for the special qualification of teachers for our Common Schools; or, at least, of submitting that question to a fair experiment. Let us not, however, deceive or flatter ourselves with the belief, that such an opinion very generally prevails, or is very deeply seated. A few, and those, as we believe, best qualified to judge, hold this opinion as an axiom. But this cannot be said of great numbers; and it requires no prophetic vision to foresee that any plan for carrying out this object, however wisely framed, will have to encounter not only the prejudices of the ignorant, but the hostility of the selfish.

The most momentous practical questions now before our State and country are these: In order to preserve our republican institutions, must not our Common Schools be elevated in character and increased in efficiency? and, in order to bring our schools up to the point of excellence demanded by the nature of our institutions, must there not be a special course of study and training to qualify teachers for their office? No other worldly interest presents any question comparable to these in importance. To the more special consideration of the latter,—namely, whether the teachers of our public schools require a special course of study and training to qualify them for their vocation,—I solicit your attention, during the residue of this address.

I shall not here insist upon any particular *mode* of preparation, or of preparation in any particular class of institutions,—whether Normal Schools, special departments in academies, colleges, or elsewhere,—to the exclusion of all other institutions. What I insist upon, is, not the form, but the substance.

In treating this subject, duty will require me to speak of errors and deficiencies; and of the inadequate conceptions now entertained of the true office and mission of a teacher. This is a painful obligation, and in discharging it I am sure I shall not be misunderstood by any candid and intelligent mind. Toward the teachers of our schools,—as a class,—I certainly possess none but the most fraternal feelings. Their want of adequate qualifications is the want of the times, rather than of themselves. Teachers, heretofore, have only been partakers in a general error,—an error in which you and I, my hearers, have been as profoundly lost as they. Let this be their excuse hitherto, and let the ignorance of the past be winked at; but the best service we can now render them, is to take this excuse away, by showing the inadequacy and the unsoundness of our former views. Let all who shall henceforth strive to do better, stand acquitted for past delinquencies; but will not those deserve a double measure of condemnation who shall set themselves in array against measures, which so many wise and good men have approved,—at least until those measures have been fairly tested? When the tree shall have been planted long enough to mature its fruit, then, *let it be known by its fruit.*

No one has ever supposed that an individual could build up a material temple, and give it strength, and convenience, and fair proportions, without first mastering the architectural art; but we have employed thousands of teachers for our children, to build up the immortal Temple of the Spirit, who have never given to this divine, educational art, a day nor an hour of preliminary study or attention. How often have we sneered at Dogberry in the play, because he holds that "to read and write comes by nature;" when we ourselves have undertaken to teach, or have employed teachers, whose only fitness for giving instruction, not only in reading and writing, *but in all other things*, has come by nature, if it has come at all; that is, in exact accordance with Dogberry's philosophy.

In maintaining the affirmative of this question,—namely, that all teachers do require a special course of study and training, to qualify them for their profes-

sion,—I will not higgle with my adversary in adjusting preliminaries. He may be the disciple of any school in metaphysics, and he may hold what faith he pleases, respecting the mind's nature and essence. Be he spiritualist or materialist, it here matters not,—nay, though he should deny that there is any such substance as mind or spirit at all, I will not stop to dispute that point with him,—preferring rather to imitate the example of those old knights of the tournament, who felt such confidence in the justness of their cause, that they gave their adversaries the advantage of sun and wind. For, whatever the mind may be, in its inscrutable nature or essence, or whether there be any such thing as mind or spirit at all, properly so called, this we have seen and do know, that there come beings into this world, with every incoming generation of children, who, although at first so ignorant, helpless, speechless,—so incapable of all motion, upright or rotary,—that we can hardly persuade ourselves they have not lost their way, and come, by mistake, into the wrong world; yet, after a few swift years have passed away, we see thousands of these same ignorant and helpless beings, expiating horrible offenses in prison-cells, or dashing themselves to death against the bars of a maniac's cage;—others of them, we see, holding “colloquy sublime,” in halls where a nation's fate is arbitrated, or solving some of the mightiest problems that belong to this wonderful universe;—and others still, there are, who, by daily and nightly contemplation of the laws of God, have kindled that fire of divine truth within their bosoms, by which they become those moral luminaries whose light shineth from one part of the heavens unto the other. And this amazing change in these feeble and helpless creatures,—this transfiguration of them for good or for evil,—is wrought by laws of organization and of increase, as certain in their operation, and as infallible in their results, as those by which the skillful gardener substitutes flowers, and delicious fruits, and healing herbs, for briars, and thorns, and poisonous plants. And as we hold the gardener responsible for the productions of his garden, so is the community responsible for the general character and conduct of its children.

Some, indeed, maintain,—erroneously as we believe,—that a difference in education is the sole cause of all the differences existing among men. They hold that all persons come into the world just alike in disposition and capacity, though they go through it and out of it so amazingly diverse. They hold, in short, that if any two men had changed cradles, they would have changed characters and epitaphs;—that, not only does the same quantity of substance or essence go to the constitution of every human mind, but that all minds are of the same quality also,—all having the same powers, and bearing, originally, the same image and superscription, like so many half-dollars struck at the government mint.

But deeply as education goes into the core of the heart and the marrow of the bones, we do not claim for it any such prerogative. There are certain substructures of temperament and disposition, which education finds, at the beginning of its work, and which it can never wholly annul. Nor does it comport with the endless variety and beauty manifested in all other parts of the Creator's works, to suppose that he made all ears and eyes to be delighted with the same tunes and colors; or provided so good an excuse for plagiarism, as that all minds were made to think the same thoughts. This inherent and original diversity, however, only increases the difficulty of education, and gives additional force to the argument for previous preparation; for, were it true that all children are born just alike, in disposition and capacity, the only labor would be to discover the right method for educating a single child, and to stereotype it for all the rest.

This, however, we must concede to those who affirm the original equality and exact similitude of all minds;—namely, that all minds have the same elementary or constituent faculties. This is all that we mean when we say that human nature is every where the same. This is, in part, what the Scriptures mean when they say, “God hath made of one blood all nations of men.” The contrasts among men result, not from the possession of a different number of original faculties, but from possessing the same faculties, in different proportions, and in different degrees of activity. The civilized men of the present day, have neither more nor less faculties, *in number*, than their barbarian ancestors had. If so, it would be interesting to ascertain about what year, or century, a new good faculty was given to the race, or an old bad one was taken away. An assembly of civilized men, on this side of the globe, convening to devise measures for dimin-

ishing the number of capital crimes, and thus to reduce the number of capital punishments, were *born* with the same number and kind of faculties,—though doubtless differing greatly in proportion and in activity,—with a company of Batta islanders, on the opposite side of the globe, who, perhaps at the same time, may be going to attend the holiday rites of a public execution, and, as is their wont, *to dine on the criminal*. As each human face has the same number of features, each human body the same number of limbs, muscles, organs, &c., so each human soul has the same capacities of Reason, Conscience, Hope, Fear, Love, Self-love, &c. The differences lie in the relative strength and supremacy of these powers. The human eye is composed of about twenty distinct parts or pieces; yet these constituent parts are so differently arranged that one man is far-sighted, another near-sighted. When an oculist has mastered a knowledge of one eye, he knows the general plan upon which all eyes have been formed; but he must still learn the peculiarities of each, or, in his practice, he will ruin all he touches.* When a surgeon, or an assassin, knows where one man's heart is, he knows, substantially, where the hearts of all other men may be found. And so of the mind and its faculties. It is because of this community of original endowments, that all the great works of nature; and art, and science, address a common susceptibility or capacity, existing in all minds. It is because of this kindred nature that the same earth is given to us all, as a common residence. The possession by each of his complement of powers and susceptibilities, confers the common nature, while the different portions or degrees in which they exist, and the predominance of one or a few over the others, break us up into moral and intellectual classes. It is impossible to vindicate the propriety of making or of carrying a Revelation to the whole human race, unless that race has common capacities and wants to which the revelation is adapted. And hence we learn the appalling truth,—a truth which should strike “loud on the heart as thunder on the ear,”—that every child born into this world has tendencies and susceptibilities pointing to the furthest extremes of good and evil. Each one has the capacity of immeasurable virtue or vice. As each body has an immensity of natural space open all around it, so each spirit, when waked into life, has an immensity of moral space open all around it. Each soul has a pinion by which it may soar to the highest empyrean, or swoop downward to the Tartarean abyss. In the feeblest voice of infancy, there is a tone which can be made to pour a sweeter melody into the symphonies of angels, or thunder a harsher discord through the blasphemies of demons. To plume these wings for an upper or a nether flight; to lead these voices forth into harmony or dissonance; to woo these beings to go where they should go, and to be what they should be,—does it, or does it not, my friends, require some knowledge, some anxious forethought, some enlightening preparation?

You must pardon me, if, on this subject I speak to you with great plainness; and you must allow me to appeal directly to your own course of conduct in other things. You have property to be preserved for the support of your children while you live, or, when you die, for their patrimony; you have health and life to be guarded and continued, that they may not be bereaved of their natural protectors;—and you have the children themselves, with their unbounded, unfathomable capacities of happiness and misery. Now, in respect to your property, what is it your wont to do, when a young lawyer comes into the village, erects his sign, and (the most unexclusive of men) gives to the public a general invitation? Though he has a diploma from a college, and the solemn approval of bench and bar, yet how warily do the public approach him. How much he is reconnoitered before he is retained. How many premeditated plans are laid to appear to meet him accidentally, to talk over indifferent subjects with him,—the weather, the crops, or Congressional matters,—in order to measure him, and probe him, and see if there be any hopefulness in him. And should all things

* I have heard that distinguished surgeon, Doct. John C. Warren, of Boston, relate the following anecdote, which happened to him in London:—Being invited to witness a very difficult operation upon the human eye, by a celebrated English oculist, he was so much struck by the skill and science which were exhibited by the operator, that he sought a private interview with him, to inquire by what means he had become so accomplished a master of his art. “Sir,” said the oculist, “I spoiled a hat-full of eyes to learn it.” Thus it is with incompetent teachers; they may spoil schoolrooms-full of children to learn how to teach,—and perhaps may not always learn even then.

promise favorably, the young attorney is intrusted, in the first instance, only with some outlawed note, or some doubtful account, before a justice of the peace. No man ever thinks of trusting a case which involves the old homestead, to his inexperienced hands. He would as soon set fire to it.

So, too, of a young physician. No matter from what medical college, home or foreign, he may bring his credentials. From day to day the neighbors watch him without seeming to look at him. In good-wives' parties, the question is confidentially discussed, whether, in a case of exigency, it would be safe to send for him. And when, at last, he is gladdened with a call, it is only to look at some surface ailment, or to *pother* a little about the extremities. Nobody allows him to lay his unpracticed hand upon the vitals. Now this common sentiment,—this common practice of mankind,—is only the instinctive dictate of prudence. It is only a tacit recognition of a truth felt by all sensible men, that there are a thousand ways to do a thing wrong, but only one to do it right. And if it be but reasonable to exercise such vigilance and caution, in selecting a healer for our bodies which perish, or a counselor for our worldly estates, who shall assign limits to the circumspection and fidelity with which the teachers of our children should be chosen, who, in the space of a few short years, or even months, will determine, as by a sort of predestination, upon so much of their future fortunes and destiny?

Again: it is the universal sense of mankind, that skill and facility, in all other things, depend upon study and practice. We always demand more, where opportunities have been greater. We stamp a man with inferiority, though he does *ten* times better than another, if he has had *twenty* times the advantages. We know that a skillful navigator will carry a vessel through perilous straits, in a gale of wind, and save cargo and lives, while an ignorant one will wreck both, in a broad channel. With what a song of delight we have all witnessed, how easily and surely that wise and good man, at the head of a great institution in our own State, will tame the ferocity of the insane; and how, when each faculty of a fiery spirit bursts away like an affrighted steed from its path, this mighty tamer of madmen will temper and quell their wild impetuosity and restore them to the guidance of reason. Nay, the great moral healer can do this, not to one only, but to hundreds, at a time; while, even in a far shorter period than he asks to accomplish such a wonderful work, an ignorant and passionate teacher will turn a hundred gentle, confiding spirits into rebels and anarchists. And, my hearers, we recognize the existence of these facts, we apply these obvious principles, to every thing but to the education of our children.

Why cannot we derive instruction even from the folly of those wandering showmen who spend a life in teaching brute animals to perform wonderful feats? We have all seen, or at least we have all heard of, some learned horse, or learned pig, or learned dog. Though the superiority over their fellows, possessed by these brute prodigies, may have been owing, in some degree, to the possession of greater natural parts, yet it must be mainly attributed to the higher competency of their instructor. Their teacher had acquired a deeper insight into their natures; his sagacious practice had discovered the means by which their talents could be unfolded and brought out. However unworthy and even contemptible, therefore, the mere trainer of a dog may be, yet he illustrates a great principle. By showing us the superiority of a well-trained dog, he shows what might be the superiority of a well-trained child. He shows us that higher acquisitions,—what may be called academical attainments,—in a few favored individuals of the canine race, are not so much the results of a more brilliant genius on the part of the dog-pupil, as they are the natural reward and consequence of his enjoying the instructions of a professor who has concentrated all his energies upon dog-teaching.

Surely it will not be denied that a workman should understand two things in regard to the subject-matter of his work:—*first*, its natural properties, qualities, and powers; and *secondly*, the means of modifying and regulating them, with a view to improvement. In relation to the mechanic arts, this is admitted by all. Every body knows that the strength of the blow must be adjusted to the malleability of the metal. It will not do to strike glass and flint either with the same force or with the same implements; and the proper instrument will never be selected by a person ignorant of the purpose to be effected by its use. If a

man working on wood mistakes it for iron, and attempts to soften it in the fire, his product is—ashes. And so if a teacher supposes a child to have but one tendency and one adaptation when he has many;—if a teacher treats a child as though his nature were wholly animal, or wholly intellectual, or wholly moral and religious, he disfigures and mutilates the nature of that child, and wrenches his whole structure into deformity.

The being, *Man*, is more complex and diversified in constitution, and more variously endowed in faculties, than any other earthly work of the Creator. It is in this assemblage of powers and prerogatives that his strength and majesty reside. They constitute his sovereignty and lordship over the creation around him. By our bodily organization we are adapted to the material world in which we are placed;—our eye to the light, which makes known to us every change in the form, motion, color, position, of all objects within visual range;—our ear and tongue to the air, which flows around us in silence, yet is forever ready to be waked into voice and music;—our hand to all the cunning works of art which subserve utility or embellishment. Still more wonderfully does the spiritual nature of man befit his spiritual relations. Whatever there is of law, of order, of duty, in the works of God, or in the progressive conditions of the race, all have their spiritual counterparts within him. By his perceptive and intellectual faculties he learns the properties of created things, and discovers the laws by which they are governed. By tracing the relation between causes and effects, he acquires a kind of prophetic vision and power; for, by conforming to the unchanging laws of Nature, he enlists her in his service, and she works with him in fulfilling his predictions. Regarded as an individual, and as a member of a race which reproduces itself and passes away, his lower propensities,—those which he holds in common with the brutes,—are the instincts and means to preserve himself and to perpetuate his kind; while by his tastes, and by the social, moral, and religious sentiments of which he is capable, he is attuned to all the beauties and sublimities of creation, his heart is made responsive to all the delights of friendship and domestic affection, and he is invited to hold that spiritual intercourse with his Maker, which at once strengthens and enraptures.

Now the voice of God and of Nature declares audibly which of these various powers within us are to command, and which are to obey; and with which, in every questionable case, resides the ultimate arbitrament. Even the lowest propensities are not to be wholly extirpated. Within the bounds prescribed by the social and the divine law, they have their rightful claims. But the moral and the religious sentiments,—Benevolence, Conscience, Reverence for the All-creating and All-bestowing Power,—these have the prerogative of supremacy and absolute dominion. These are to walk the halls of the soul, like a god, nor suffer rebellion to live under their eye. Yet how easy for this many-gifted being to fall,—more easy, indeed, because of his many gifts. Some subject-faculty, some subordinate power, in the spiritual realm, unfortunately inflamed, or,—what is far more common,—unwisely stimulated by an erroneous education, grows importunate, exorbitant, aggrandizes itself, encroaches upon its fellow-faculties, until, at last, obtaining the mastery, it subverts the moral order of the soul, and wages its parricidal war against the sovereignty of conscience within, and the laws of society and of Heaven without. And how unspeakably dreadful are the retributions which come in the train of these remorseless usurpers, when they obtain dominion over the soul! Take, for instance, the earliest-developed, the most purely selfish and animal appetite that belongs to us,—that for nourishing beverage. It is the first which demands gratification after birth. Subjected to the laws of temperance, it will retain its zest, fresh and genial, for threescore years and ten, and it affords the last corporal solace upon earth to the parched lips of the dying man. Yet, if the possessor of this same pleasure-giving appetite shall be incited, either by examples of inordinate indulgence, or by festive songs in praise of the vine and the wine-cup, to inflame it, and to feed its deceitful fires, though but for the space of a few short years, then the spell of the sorcerer will be upon him; and, day by day, he will go and cast himself into the fiery furnace which he has kindled;—nor himself, the pitiable victim, alone, but he will seize upon parents and wife and his group of innocent children, and plunge with them all into the seething hell of intemperance.

So there is, in human nature, an innate desire of acquiring property,—of own-

ing something,—of using the possessives *my* and *mine*. Within proper limits, this instinct is laudably indulged. Its success affords a pleasure in which reason can take a part. It stimulates and strengthens many other faculties. It makes us thoughtful and fore-thoughtful. It is the parent of industry and frugality,—and industry and frugality, as we all know, are blood-relations to the whole family of the virtues. But to the eye and heart of one in whom this love of acquisition has become absorbing and insane, all the diversified substances in creation are reduced to two classes,—that which is gold, and that which is not;—and all the works of Nature are valued or despised, and the laws and institutions of society upheld or assailed, as they are supposed to be favorable or unfavorable to the acquisition of wealth. Whether at home or abroad, in the festive circle or in the funeral train; whether in hearing the fervid and thrilling appeals of the sanctuary, or the pathos of civic eloquence, one idea alone,—that of money, money, money,—holds possession of the miser's soul; its voice rings forever in his ear; and were he in the garden of Eden,—its beauty, and music, and perfume suffusing all his senses,—his only thought would be, how much money it would bring! Such mischief comes from giving supremacy to a subordinate, though an essential and highly useful faculty. This mischief, to a greater or less extent, parents and teachers produce, when, through an ignorance of the natural and appropriate methods of inducing children to study, they hire them to learn by the offer of pecuniary rewards.

So, too, we all have an innate love for whatever is beautiful;—a sentiment that yearns for higher and higher degrees of perfection in the arts, and in the embellishments of life,—a feeling which would prompt us to “gild refined gold, to paint the lily, to throw a perfume on the violet, and add another hue unto the rainbow.” Portions of the external world have been exquisitely adapted to this inborn love of the beautiful, by Him who has so clothed the lilies of the field that they outshine Solomon in all his glory. This sentiment may be too much or too little cultivated;—so little as to make us disdain gratifications that are at once innocent and pure; or so much as to over-refine us into a hateful fastidiousness. In the works of nature, beauty is generally, if not always, subordinated to utility. In cases of incompatibility, gracefulness yields to strength, not strength to gracefulness. How would the rising sun mock us with his splendor, if he brought no life or warmth in his beams! The expectation of autumnal harvests enhances the beauty of vernal bloom. These manifestations of nature admonish us respecting the rank which ornament or accomplishment should hold in the character and in the works of men; and, of course, in the education of children. Christ referred *occasionally* to the beauties and charms of nature, but dwelt *perpetually* upon the obligations of duty and charity. But what opposite and grievous offenses are committed on this subject by different portions of society! The laboring classes, by reason of early parental neglect in cultivating a love for the beautiful, often forego pleasures which a bountiful Providence scatters profusely and gratuitously around them, and strews beneath their feet; while there is a class of persons at the other extremity of the social scale, who, from never comprehending the immeasurable value of the objects for which they were created, and the vast beneficence of which, from their wealth and station, they are capable, actually try every thing, however intrinsically noble or sacred, by some conventional law of fashion, by some arbitrary and capricious standard of elegance. In European society, this class of “fashionables” is numerous. They have their imitators here,—beings, who are not men and women, but similitudes only,—who occupy the vanishing point in the perspective of society, where all that is true, or noble, or estimable in human nature, fades away into nothing. With this class it is no matter what a man does with the “Ten Commandments,” provided he keeps those of Lord Chesterfield; and, in their society, Beau Brummel would take precedence of Dr. Franklin.

In a Report lately made by the Agricultural Commissioner for the survey of this Commonwealth, I noticed a statement respecting some farmers in the northern part of the county of Essex, who attempted to raise sun-flowers for the purpose of extracting oil from the seeds. Twenty bushels to the acre was the largest crop raised by any one. Six bushels of the seed yielded but one gallon of oil, worth, in the market, one dollar and seventeen cents only. It surely required no great boldness to assert that the experiment did not succeed:—culti-

vation, one acre: product, three gallons of oil; value, three dollars and fifty cents!—which would, perhaps, about half repay the cost of labor. Woe to the farmer who seeks for independence by raising sun-flowers! Ten times woe to the parents who rear up sun-flower sons or sun-flower daughters,—instead of sons whose hearts glow and burn with an immortal zeal to run the noble career of usefulness and virtue which a happy fortune has laid open before them;—instead of daughters who cherish such high resolves of duty as lift them even above an enthusiasm for greatness, into those loftier and serene regions where greatness comes not from excitement, but is native, and ever-springing and ever-abiding. Every son, whatever may be his expectations as to fortune, ought to be so educated that he can superintend some part of the complicated machinery of social life; and every daughter ought to be so educated that she can answer the claims of humanity, whether those claims require the labor of the head or the labor of the hand. Every daughter ought to be so trained that she can bear, with dignity and self-sustaining ability, those revolutions in Fortune's wheel, which sometimes bring the kitchen up and turn the parlor down.

Again; we have a natural, spontaneous feeling of self-respect, an innate sense that, simply in our capacity as human beings, we are worth something, and entitled to some consideration. This principle constitutes the interior framework of some of the virtues, veiled, indeed, by their own beautiful covering, but still necessary in order to keep them in an erect posture, amidst all the overbearing currents and forces of the world. Where this feeling of self-respect exists too weakly, the whole character becomes limber, flaccid, impotent, sinks under the menace of opposition, and can be frightened out of any thing or into any thing. On the other hand, when this propensity aggrandizes itself, and becomes swollen and deformed with pride, and conceit, and intolerance, it is a far more offensive nuisance than many of those which the law authorizes us to abate, summarily, by force and arms. Our political institutions are a rich alluvium for the growth of self-esteem; for, while every body knows that there are the greatest differences between men in point of honesty, of ability, of will to do good and to promote right, yet our fundamental laws,—and rightly too,—ordain a political equality. But what is not right is, that the political equality is the fact mainly regarded, while there is a tendency to disregard the intellectual and moral inequalities. And thus a faculty, designed to subserve, and capable of subserving the greatest good, engenders a low ambition, and fills the land with the war-whoop of party strife.

These are specimens only of a long list of original tendencies or attributes of the human mind, from a more full enumeration and exposition of which, I must, on this occasion, refrain. But have not enough been referred to, to authorize us to assert the general doctrine, that every teacher ought to have some notions, clear, definite, and comprehensive, of the manifold powers,—the various nature,—of the beings confided to his hands, so that he may repress the redundancy of a too luxuriant growth, and nourish the feeble with his fostering care? No idea can be more erroneous than that children go to school to learn the rudiments of knowledge only, and not to form character. The character of children is always forming. No place, no companion is without an influence upon it; and at school it is formed more rapidly than any where else. The mere fact of the presence of so many children together, puts the social or dissocial nature of each into fervid action. To be sent to school, especially in the country, is often as great an event in a child's life, as it is, in his father's, to be sent to the General Court: and we all know with what unwonted force all things affect the mind, in new places and under new circumstances. Every child, too, when he first goes to school, understands that he is put upon his good behavior; and, with man or child, it is a very decisive thing, and reaches deep into character and far into futurity, when put upon his good behavior, to prove recreant. Now, teachers take children under their care, as it were, *during the first warm days of the spring of life*, when more can be done toward directing their growth and modifying their dispositions, than can be done in years, at a later season of their existence.

Equally indispensable is it, that every teacher should know, by what means,—by virtue of what natural laws,—the human powers and faculties are strengthened or enfeebled. There is a principle running through every mental operation,—without a knowledge of which, without a knowledge how to apply which,

the life of the most faithful teacher will be only a succession of well-intentioned errors. The growth or decline of all our powers depends upon a steadfast law. There is no more chance in the processes of their growth or decay than there is in the Multiplication Table. They grow by exercise, and they lose tone and vigor by inaction. All the faculties have their related objects, and they grow by being excited to action through the stimulus or instrumentality of those objects. Each faculty, too, has its own set or class of related objects; and the classes of related objects differ as much from each other as do the corresponding faculties which they naturally excite. If any one power or faculty, therefore, is to be strengthened, so as to perform its office with facility, precision, and dispatch, that identical faculty,—not any other one,—must be exercised. It does not strengthen my left arm to exercise my right; and this is just as true of the powers of the mind as of the organs of the body. The whole pith of that saying of Solomon, "Train up a child in the way he should go," consists in this principle, because "to train" means to drill, to repeat, to do the same thing over and over again,—that is, *to exercise*. Solomon does not say, "Tell a child the way he should go, and when he is old, he will not depart from it." Had he said this, we could refute him daily by ten thousand facts. Unfortunately, education among us, at present, consists too much in *telling*, not in *training*, on the part of parents and teachers; and, of course, in *hearing*, not in *doing*, on the part of children and pupils. The blacksmith's right arm, the philosopher's intellect, the philanthropist's benevolence, all grow and strengthen according to this law of exercise. The farmer *works* solid flesh upon his cattle; the pugilist *strikes* vigor into his arms and breast; the foot-soldier *marches* strength into his limbs; the practical man *thinks* quickness and judgment into his mind; and the true Christian *lives* his prayers of love and his thoughts of mercy, until every man becomes his brother. Our own experience and observation furnish us with a life-full of evidence attesting this principle. How did our feet learn to walk, our fingers to write, our organs of speech to utter an innumerable variety of sounds? By what means does the musician pass from coarse discords to perfect music,—from hobbling and shambling in his measure, to keeping time like a chronometer,—from a slow and timid touch of keys or chords, to such celerity of movement, that, though his will sends out a thousand commands in a minute, his nimble fingers obey them all? It is this exercise, this repetition, which gives to jugglers their marvelous dexterity. By dint of practice, their motions become quicker than our eyesight, and thus elude inspection. A knowledge of this principle solves many of the riddles of life, by showing us whence comes the domineering strength of human appetites and passions. It comes from exercise,—from a long indulgence of them in thought and act,—until the offspring of sinful desire turn back, and feast upon the vitals of the wretch who nurtured them. It is this which makes the miser pant and raven for gain, more and more, just in proportion to the shortness of the life during which he can enjoy it. It is this which sends the drunkard to pay daily tribute to his own executioner. It is this which scourges back the gambler to the hell he dreads.

It is by this law of exercise that the perceptive and reflective intellect,—I mean the powers of observing and judging,—are strengthened. If, therefore, in the education of the child, the action of these powers is early arrested; if his whole time is engrossed and his whole energy drawn away, by other things; or, if he is not supplied with the proper objects or apparatus on which these faculties can exert themselves,—then the after-life of such a child will be crowded with practical errors and misjudgments. As a man, his impressions of things will be faint and fleeting; he will never be able to describe an object as he saw it, nor to tell a story as he heard it. No handcraftsman or mechanic ever becomes what we call a first-rate workman, until after innumerable experiments and judgments,—that is, repetitions, or exercises. And the rule is the same even with genius;—artisan or artist, he must practice long and sedulously upon lines, proportions, reliefs, before he can become the first sculptor of the age, or the first bootmaker in the city. The teacher, then, must continue to exercise the powers of his pupils, until he secures accuracy even in the minutest things he teaches. Every child can and should learn to judge, almost with mathematical exactness, how long an inch is;—no matter if he does not guess within a foot of it the first time. Whether the story of Casper Hauser be true or not, it has

verisimilitude, and is therefore instructive. It warns us what the general result must be, if, by a non-presentation of their related objects, the faculties of a child are not brought into exercise. We meet with persons every day who, in regard to some one or more of the faculties, are Casper Hausers. This happens, almost universally, not through any natural defect, but because parents and teachers have been ignorant, either of the powers to be exercised, or of the related objects through whose instrumentality they can be excited to action.

But here arises a demand for great skill, aptitude, and resources, on the part of the teacher; for, by continuing to exercise the same faculty, I do not mean a monotonous repetition of the same action, nor a perpetual presentation of the same object or idea. Such a course would soon cloy and disgust, and thus terminate all effort in that direction. Would a child ever learn to dance, if there were but one figure; or to sing, if there were but one tune? Nature, science, art, offer a boundless variety of objects and processes, adapted to quicken and employ each of the faculties. These resources the teacher should have at his command, and should make use of them, in the order, and for the period, that each particular case may require. Look into the shops of our ingenious artisans and mechanics, and see their shining rows of tools,—hundreds in number,—but each adapted to some particular process in their curious art. Look into the shop or hut of a savage, an Indian mechanic, and you will find his chest of tools composed of a single jack-knife! So with our teachers. Some of them have apparatus, diagram, chart, model; they have anecdote, epigram, narrative history, by which to illustrate every branch of study, and to fit every variety of disposition; while the main resource of others, for all studies, for all ages, and for all dispositions, is—the rod!

Again: a child must not only be exercised into correctness of observation, comparison, and judgment, but into accuracy in the narration or description of what he has seen, heard, thought, or felt, so that, whatever thoughts, emotions, memories, are within him, he can present them all to others in exact and luminous words. Dr. Johnson said, "Accustom your children constantly to this: if a thing happened at one window, and they, when relating it, say that it happened at another, do not let it pass, but instantly check them. You do not know where deviation from the truth will end." Every man who sees effects in causes, will fully concur with the Doctor in regard to the value of such a habit of accuracy as is here implied. If, in the narration of an event, or in the recitation of a lesson, a child is permitted to begin at the last end of it, and to scatter the middle about promiscuously, depend upon it, if that child, after growing up, is called into court as a witness, somebody will suffer in fortune, in reputation, or perhaps in life. When practicing at the bar, I was once engaged in an important case of slander, where the whole question of the innocence or guilt of the defendant turned upon the point whether, at a certain time, he was seen out of one window or out of another; and the stupid witness first swore that it was one window, then another window, and at last, thought it might be a door; and doubtless, he could have been made to swear that he saw him through the skylight. Would you appreciate the importance of accuracy, in observation and statement, take one of those cases which so frequently occur in our courts of law, where a dozen witnesses,—all honest,—swear one way, and another dozen,—equally honest,—counter-swear; and contrast it with a case, which so rarely occurs, where a witness, whose mind, like a copying machine, having taken an exact impression of whatever it has seen or heard, attests to complicated facts, in a manner so orderly, luminous, natural,—giving to each, time, locality, proportion, that when he has finished, every auditor,—bench, bar, spectators,—all feel as though they had been personally present and witnessed the whole transaction. Now, although something of this depends, unquestionably, upon soundness in physical and mental organization, yet a vast portion of it is referable to the early observation or neglect, on the part of teacher or parent, of the law we are considering.

There is another point, too, which the teacher should regard, especially where only a small portion of non-age is appropriated to school attendance. In exercising the faculties for the purpose of strengthening them, the greatest amount of useful knowledge should be communicated. The faculties may be exercised and strengthened in acquiring useful or useless knowledge. A farmer or a stone-

mason may exercise and strengthen the muscles of his body, by pitching or rolling timbers or stones backward and forward; but, by converting the same materials into a house or a fence, he may at once gain strength and do good. Every teacher, at the same time that he exercises the faculties of his pupils, ought to impart the greatest amount of valuable knowledge; and he should always be above the temptation of keeping a pupil in a lower department of study, because he himself does not understand the higher; or, on the other hand, of prematurely carrying his pupil into a higher department, because of his own ignorance of the lower. Suppose a bright boy, for instance, to be studying arithmetic and geography, at school. Now, arithmetic cannot be taught unless it is understood; but, with the help of an atlas, and a text-book whose margin is all covered with questions, the business of teaching geography may be set up on a very slender capital of knowledge. And here a teacher who is obliged to be very economical of his arithmetic, would be tempted to keep his pupil upon all the small towns, and tiny rivers, and dots of islands in the geography, in order to delay him, and gain time,—like the officers of those banks whose specie runs low, who seek to pay off their creditors in *cents*, because it takes so long to count the copper. Every teacher ought to know vastly more than he is required to teach, so that he may be furnished, on every subject, with copious illustration and instructive anecdote; and so that the pupils may be disabused of the notion, they are so apt to acquire, that they carry all knowledge in their satchels. Every teacher should be possessed of a faculty at explanation,—a tact in discerning and solving difficulties,—not to be used too often, for then it would supersede the effort it should encourage,—but when it is used, to be quick and sure as a telescope, bringing distant objects near, and making obscure ones distinct. In the important, but grossly neglected and abused exercise of reading, for instance, every new fact, every new idea, is *news* to the child; and, did he fully understand it, he would be as eager to learn it, as we are to learn what is *news* to us. But how, think you, should we be vexed, if our news-bringer spoke every third word in a foreign language; or gave us only a Pennsylvania newspaper printed in German, when we wanted to know how their votes stood in an election for President? Whatever words a child does not understand, in his reading lesson, are, to him, words in a foreign language; and they must be translated into his own language before he can take any interest in them. But if, instead of being translated into his language, they are left unnoticed, or are translated into another foreign language still,—that is, into other words or phrases of which he is ignorant,—then, the child, instead of delightful and instructive ideas, gets empty words, mere sounds, atmospheric vibrations only. In Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, the word "*Net-work*" is defined to be "any thing reticulated or decussated, with interstices between the intersections." Now who, ignorant of the meaning of the word "*net-work*" before, would understand it any better by being told, that it is "any thing reticulated or decussated, with interstices between the intersections?" Nor would he be much enlightened if, on looking further, he found that the same author had given the following definitions of the defining words:—"reticulated," "*formed with interstitial vacuities*;"—"decussated," "*intersected at acute angles*;"—"interstice," "*space between one thing and another*;"—"intersection," "*point where lines cross each other*." If this is not, as Milton says, "dark with excess of bright," it is, at least, "darkness visible." A few years since, a geography was published in this State,—the preface of which boasted of its adaptation to the capacities of children,—and, on the second page, there was this definition of the words "*zenith and nadir*:"—"zenith and nadir, two Arabic words *importing their own signification*." A few years since, an English traveler and book-maker, who called himself Thomas Ashe, Esq., visited the Big Bone Licks, in Kentucky, where he found the remains of the mammoth, in great abundance, and whence he carried away several wagon-loads of bones. In describing the size of one of the shoulder-blades of that animal, he says, it "was *about as large as a breakfast-table!*" A child's mind may be dark and ignorant before, but, under such explanations as these, darkness will coagulate, and ignorance be sealed in hermetically. Let a school be so conducted but for one season, and all life will be abstracted from it; and it will become the painful duty of the school committee, at its close to attend a *post-mortem* ex-

amination of the children,—without even the melancholy satisfaction of believing that science will be benefited by the horrors of the dissection.

Every teacher should be competent to some care of the health of his pupils,—not merely for the purpose of regulating the temperature of the school-room, and, of course, the transition which the scholars must undergo, on entering or leaving it,—though this is of no small importance,—but so that, as occasion offers, he may inculcate a knowledge of some of the leading conditions upon which health and life depend. I saw, last year, in the public town school of Northampton,—under the care of Mr. R. M. Hubbard,—more than a hundred boys, from ten or eleven to fifteen or sixteen years of age, who pointed out the place and gave the name of all the principal bones in their bodies, as well as an anatomist would have done; who explained the physiological processes of the circulation of the blood and the alimentation of food, and described the putrefactive action of ardent spirits upon the delicate tissues of the stomach. Now such boys have a chance, nay, a certainty, of far longer life and far better health, than they would otherwise have; and as they grow up, they will be far less easily tempted to emulate either of the three cockney graces,—Gin, Swearing, and Tobacco.

But I must pass by other considerations, respecting the growth and invigoration of the intellectual faculties, and the classes of subjects upon which they should be employed. I hasten to the consideration of another topic, incalculably more important.

The moral faculties increase or decline, strengthen or languish, by the same law of exercise. In legislating for men, *actions* are mainly regarded; but in the education of children, *motives are every thing*, MOTIVES ARE EVERY THING. All, this side of the motive, is mere mechanism, and it matters not whether it be done by the hand, or by a crank. There was profound philosophy in the old theological notion, that whoever made a league with the devil, in order to gratify a passion through his help, became the devil's property afterward. And so, when a teacher stimulates a child to the performance of actions, externally right, by appealing to motives intrinsically wrong, he sells that child into bondage to the wrong motive. Some parents, finding a desire of luxurious food a stronger motive-power in their children than any other, accomplish every thing through its means. They hire them to go to school and learn, to go to church and remember the text, and to behave well before company, by a promise of dainties. Every repetition of this enfeebles the sentiment of duty, through its inaction, while it increases the desire for delicacies, by its exercise; and as they successively come into competition afterward, the virtue will be found to have become weaker, and the appetite stronger. Such parents touch the wrong pair of nerves,—the sensual instead of the moral, the bestial instead of the divine. These springs of action lie at the very extremes of human nature,—one class down among the brutes, the other up among the seraphim. When a child, so educated, becomes a man, and circumstances make him the trustee or fiduciary of the friendless and unprotected, and he robs the widow and orphan to obtain the means of luxury or voluptuousness, we exclaim, "Poor human nature," and are ready to appoint a Fast; when the truth is, he was educated to be a knave under that very temptation. Were a surgeon to operate upon a human body with as little knowledge of his subject as this, and whip round his double-edged knife where the vital parts lie thickest, he would be tried for manslaughter at the next court, and deserve conviction.

Take another example;—and I instance one of the motive-fores which, for the last fifty or a hundred years, has been mainly relied on, in our schools, academies, and colleges, as the stimulus to intellectual effort, and which has done more than every thing else to cause the madness and the profligacy of those political and social rivalries that now convulse the land. Let us take a child who has only a moderate love of learning, but an inordinate passion for praise and place; and we therefore allure him to study by the enticements of precedents and applause. If he will surpass all his fellows, we advance him to the post, and signalize him with the badges of distinction, and never suffer the siren of flattery to cease the enchantments of her song. If he ever has any compassionate misgivings in regard to the effect which his own promotion may have upon his less brilliant, though not less meritorious fellow-pupils, then we seek to withdraw his thoughts from this virtuous channel, and to turn them to the selfish contempla-

tion of his own brilliant fortunes in future years;—if waking conscience ever whispers in his ear, that that pleasure is dishonorable which gives pain to the innocent; then we dazzle him with the gorgeous vision of triumphal honors and applauding multitudes;—and when, in after-life, this victim of false influences deserts a righteous cause because it is declining; and joins an unrighteous one because it is prospering, and sets his name in history's pillory, to be scoffed and jeered at for ages, then we pour out lamentations, in prose and verse, over the moral suicide! And yet, by such a course of education, he was prepared beforehand, like a skillfully organized machine, to prove a traitor and an apostate at that very juncture. No doubt, a college-boy will learn more Greek and Latin if it is generally understood that college-honors are to be mainly awarded for proficiency in those languages; but what care we though a man can speak seven languages, or dreams in Hebrew or Sanscrit, because of their familiarity, if he has never learned the language of sympathy for human suffering, and is deaf when the voice of truth and duty utters their holy mandates! We want men who feel a sentiment, a *consciousness*, of brotherhood for the whole human race. We want men who will instruct the ignorant,—not delude them; who will succor the weak,—not prey upon them. We want men who will fly to the moral breach when the waters of desolation are pouring in, and who will stand there, and, if need be, die there,—applause or no applause. No doubt, every one is bound to take watchful care of that portion of his happiness which rightfully depends upon the good opinion of others; but before any teacher attempts to secure the proficiency of his pupils by inflaming their love of praise and place, ought he not to appeal, with earnest and prolonged entreaty, to every higher sentiment? and even then, should he fail of arousing a desire for improvement, would it not be better to abandon a pupil to mediocrity, or even insignificance, than to insure him the highest eminence by awakening an unholy ambition in his bosom? It is infinitely better for any nation to support a hospital for fools, than to have a parliament or a congress of knaves.

And thus it is with all moral developments. Ignorance may appeal to a wrong motive, and thus give inordinate strength to an inferior sentiment, while honestly in quest of a right action. For a few times, perhaps even for a few years, the appeal may be successful; but, by-and-by, the inferior sentiment, or propensity, will gain predominance, and usurp the throne, and rule by virtue of its own might.

So, too, a train of circumstances may be prepared, or a system of government adopted, designed by their author for good, yet productive of a venomous brood of feelings. Suppose a teacher attempts to secure obedience by fear, instead of love, but still lacks the energy or the talent requisite for success. Forthwith, and from the necessity of the case, there are two hostile parties in that school,—the teacher with his government to maintain, the pupils with their various and ever-springing desires to gratify, in defiance of that government. Not only will there be revolts and mutinies, revolutions and counter-revolutions in such a school, but, what is infinitely worse, because of its meanness and baseness, there will be generated a moral pestilence of deception and trickery. The boldest spirits,—those already too bold and fool-hardy,—will break out into open rebellion, and thus begin to qualify themselves to become, in after-life, violators and contemners of the laws of society; while those who are already prone to concealment and perfidy, will sharpen their wits for deception; they will pretend to be saying or doing one thing when saying or doing another; they will sever the connection between tongue and heart; they will make the eyes, the face, and all the organs that contribute to the natural language belie the thoughts; and, in fine, will turn the whole body into an instrument of dissimulation. Such children, under such management, are every day preparing to become,—not men of frankness, of ingenuousness, of a beautiful transparency of disposition,—but sappers and miners of character,—men accomplishing all their ends by stratagem and ambush, and as full of guile as the first serpent. Who of us has not seen some individual so secretive and guileful as to be impervious to second-sight, or even to the boasted vision of animal magnetism? I cannot but believe that most of those hateful specimens of duplicity,—I might rather say, of triplicity, or multiplicity,—which we sometimes encounter in society, had their origin in the attempts made in early life to evade commands injudiciously given, or not

enforced when given. If any thing pertaining to the education of children demands discretion, prudence, wisdom, it is the commands which we impose upon them. In no case ought a command ever to be issued to a child without a moral certainty either that it will be voluntarily obeyed, or, if resisted, that it can be enforced; because disobedience to superiors, who stand at first in the place of the child's conscience, prepares the way for disobedience to conscience itself, when that faculty is developed. Hence the necessity of discriminating, as a preliminary, between what a child will do, or can be made to do, and the contrary. Hence, when disobedience is apprehended, the issue should be tried rather on a case of prohibition than of injunction, because a child can be deterred when he cannot be compelled. Hence, also, the necessity of discriminating between what a child has the moral power to do, and what it is in vain to expect from him. Take a child who has been brought-up luxuriously, indulgently, selfishly, and command him, in the first instance, to incur some great sacrifice for a mere stranger, or for some object which he neither understands nor values, and disobedience is as certain as long days in the middle of June;—I mean the disobedience of the spirit, for fear, perhaps, may secure the performance of the outward act. Such a child knows nothing of the impulsions of conscience, of the joyful emotions that leap up in the heart after the performance of a generous deed; and it is as absurd to put such a weight of self-denial upon his benevolence, the first time, as it would be to put a camel's load upon his shoulders. Such a child is deeply diseased. He is a moral paralytic. In regard to all benevolent exertion and sacrifice, he is as weak as an infant; and he can be recovered and strengthened to virtuous resolutions only by degrees. What should we think of a physician, who, the first time his patient emerged from a sick chamber,—pallid, emaciated, tottering,—should prescribe a match at wrestling, or the running of races? Yet this would be only a parallel to the mode in which selfish or vicious children are often treated; nay, some persons prepare or select the most difficult cases,—cases requiring great generosity or moral intrepidity,—by which to break new beginners into the work of benevolence or duty. If, by a bad education, a child has lost all generous affections (for no child is born without them); if he never shares his books or divides his luxuries with his playmates; if he hides his playthings at the approach of his little visitors; if his eye never kindles at the recital of a magnanimous deed,—of course I mean one the magnanimity of which he can comprehend,—then he can be won back to kindness and justice only by laborious processes, and in almost imperceptible degrees. In every conversation before such children, generosity and self-denial should be spoken of with a fervor of admiration and a glow of sympathy. Stories should be told or read before them, in which the principal actors are signalized by some of the qualities they delight in (always provided that no element of evil mingles with them); and when their attachments are firmly fastened upon hero or heroine, then the social, amiable, and elevated sentiments which are deficient in the children themselves, should be developed in the actors or characters whom they have been led to admire. A child may be led to admire qualities on account of their relationships and associations, when he would be indifferent to them if presented separately. If a child is selfish, the occasion for kind acts should be prepared, where all the accompaniments are agreeable. As the sentiment of benevolence gains tone and strength, and begins to realize some of those exquisite gratifications which God, by its very constitution, has annexed to its exercise, then let the collateral inducements be weakened, and the experiments assume more of the positive character of virtue. In this way, a child so selfish and envious as to be grieved even at the enjoyment of others, may be won, at last, to seek for delight in offices of humanity and self-sacrifice. There is always an avenue through which a child's mind can be reached; the failures come from our want of perseverance and sagacity in seeking it. We must treat moral more as we treat physical distempers. Week after week the mother sits by the sick-bed, and welcomes fasting and vigils; her watchfulness surrounds her child, and with all the means and appliances that wealth or life can command, she strives to bar up every avenue through which death can approach him. Did mothers care as much for the virtues and moral habits as for the health and life of their offspring, would they not be as patient, as hopeful, and

as long-suffering in administering antidote and remedy to a child who is morally, as to one who is physically, diseased?

Is it not in the way above described,—after a slowly brightening twilight of weeks, perhaps of months,—that the oculist, at last, lets in the light of the meridian sun upon the couched eye? Is it not in this way, that the convalescent of a fevered bed advances, from a measured pittance of the weakest nutrition, to that audacious health which spurns at all restraints upon appetite, whether as to quantity or quality? For these healings of the diseased eye or body, we demand the professional skill and science of men, educated and trained to the work; nay, if any impostor or empiric wantonly tampers with eye or life, the injured party accuses him, the officers of the law arrest him, the jurors upon their oaths convict him, the judges pass sentence, and the sheriff executes the mandates of the law;—while parties, officers, jurors, judges, and sheriffs, with one consent, employ teachers to direct and train the godlike faculties of their children, who never had one hour of special study, who never received one lesson of special instruction, to fit them for their momentous duties.

If, then, the business of education, in all its departments, be so responsible; if there be such liability to excite and strengthen any one faculty of the opening mind, instead of its antagonist; if there be such danger of promoting animal and selfish propensities into command over social and moral sentiments; if it be so easy for an unskillful hand to adjust opportunity to temptation in such a way that the exposed are almost certain to fall; if it be a work of such delicacy and difficulty to reclaim those who have wandered; if, in fine, one, not deeply conversant with the human soul, with all its various faculties and propensities, and with all the circumstances and objects which naturally excite them to activity, is in incomparably greater danger of touching the wrong spring of action, than one unacquainted with music is of touching the wrong key or chord of the most complicated musical instrument,—then, ought not every one of those who are installed into the sacred office of teacher, to be “a workman who needeth not to be ashamed?” Surely, they should know, beforehand, how to touch the right spring, with the right pressure, at the right time.

There is a terrible disease that sometimes afflicts individuals, by which all the muscles of the body seem to be unfastened from the volitions of the mind, and then, after being promiscuously transposed, to be refastened; so that a wrong pair of muscles is attached to every volition. In such a case, the afflicted patient never does the thing he intends to do. If he would walk forward, his will starts the wrong pair of muscles, and he walks backward. When he would extend his right arm to shake hands with you, in salutation, he starts the wrong pair of muscles, thrusts out his left, and slaps or punches you. Precisely so is it with the teacher who knows not what faculties of his pupils to exercise, and by what objects, motives, or processes, they can be brought into activity. He is the *will* of the school; they are the *body* which that will moves; and, through ignorance, he is perpetually applying his will to the wrong points. What wonder, then, if, spending day after day in pulling at the wrong pairs of muscles, the teacher involves the school in inextricable disorder and confusion, and, at last, comes to the conviction that they were never made to go right?

But, says an objector, can any man ever attain to such knowledge that he can touch as he should this “harp of thousand strings?” Perhaps not, I reply; but ask, in my turn, Cannot every man know better than he now does? Cannot something be done to make good teachers better, and incompetent ones less incompetent? Cannot something be done to promote the progress and to diminish the dangers of all our schools? Cannot something be done to increase the intelligence of those female teachers, to whose hands our children are committed, in the earliest and most impressible periods of childhood;—and thus, in the end, to increase the intelligence of mothers,—for every mother is *ex officio* a member of the College of Teachers? Cannot something be done, by study, by discussion, by practical observation,—and especially by the institution of Normal Schools,—which shall diffuse both the art and the science of teaching more widely through our community, than they have ever yet been diffused?

My friends, you cannot go for any considerable distance in any direction, within the limits of our beloved Commonwealth, without passing one of those edifices professedly erected for the education of our children. Though rarely an archi-

tectural ornament, yet, always, they are a moral beauty, to the land in which we dwell. Enter with me, for a moment, into one of these important, though lowly mansions. Survey those thickly seated benches. Before us are clustered the children of to-day, the men of to-morrow, the immortals of eternity! What costly works of art; what splendid galleries of sculpture or of painting, won by a nation's arms, or purchased by a nation's wealth, are comparable in value to the treasures we have in these children? How many living and palpitating nerves come down from parents and friends, and center in their young hearts! and, as they shall advance in life, other living and palpitating nerves, which no man can number, shall go out from their bosoms to twine round other hearts, and to feel their throbs of pleasure or of pain, of rapture or of agony! How many fortunes of others shall be linked with their fortunes, and shall share an equal fate. As yet, to the hearts of these young beings, crime has not brought in its retinue of fears, nor disappointment its sorrows. Their joys *are* joys, and their hopes more real than our realities; and, as visions of the future burst upon their imaginations, their eye kindles, like the young eagle's at the morning sunbeam. Grouping these children into separate circles, and looking forward, for but a few short years, to the fortunes that await them, shall we predict their destiny, in the terrific language of the poet:—

“ *These* shall the fury passions tear
The vultures of the mind,
Disdainful Anger, pallid Fear,
And Shame that skulks behind.

“ Ambition *this* shall tempt to rise,
Then whirl the wretch from high,
To bitter Scorn a sacrifice,
And grinning Infamy.

“ The stings of Falsehood, *those* shall try,
And hard unkindness' alter'd eye
That mocks the tear it forced to flow;
And keen Remorse, with blood defiled,
And moody Madness, laughing wild,
Amid severest woe;—”

or, concentrating our whole souls into one resolve,—high and prophetically strong,—that our duty to these children *shall be done*, shall we proclaim, in the blessed language of the Savior;—“IT IS NOT THE WILL OF YOUR FATHER WHICH IS IN HEAVEN, THAT ONE OF THESE LITTLE ONES SHOULD PERISH.”

AN ADDRESS*

BY

EDWARD EVERETT, GOVERNOR OF MASSACHUSETTS,

AT THE OPENING OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL AT BARRE, SEPTEMBER 5, 1839.

WE are assembled to take a suitable public notice of the opening of an institution in this place, destined, as we hope, to exercise a salutary influence on the cause of common school education. The visitors of the institution have thought it expedient that a public explanation should be made, at this time, of its nature and objects, and of the hopes and expectations with which it is founded; and they have requested me, on their behalf, to appear before you for this purpose. I have complied with their request cheerfully. My official connection with the Board of Education, which, under the authority of the Legislature, has established the school, and the deep personal interest I take in the result of this experiment for the improvement of popular education in the commonwealth, (convinced as I am that the time has come when it is incumbent on the people of Massachusetts to do more than has yet been done for the improvement of their common schools,) are the motives which have led me, at considerable personal inconvenience, to undertake the duty which has been assigned to me on this occasion.

The institution which is now opened in this pleasant and prosperous village, is devoted to the education of teachers of common schools, and is called a Normal School. The name *normal* is derived from a Latin word, which signifies a rule, standard, or law. Schools of this character were called Normal Schools, on their establishment in France, either because they were designed to serve in themselves as the model or rule by which other schools should be organized and instructed, or because their object was to teach the rules and methods of instructing and governing a school. This name has been adopted to designate the schools for teachers established in Massachusetts, because it is already in use to denote similar institutions in Europe; because it applies exclusively to schools of this kind, and prevents their being confounded with any others; and because it is short, and of convenient use. It has been already adopted in England and in our sister states, in writing and speaking of institutions for the education of teachers.

Schools of this kind are of comparatively recent date. In 1748, a private school for teachers was established by the Rev. John Julius Hecker, a minister of the gospel at Berlin, and chief counselor of the consistory of that place. A document cited by M. Cousin, in his celebrated report on the subject of public instruction in Prussia, speaks of Hecker as "the first individual who undertook to train young men for the art of teaching." This little institution was founded at a very critical period in the history of Prussia, and even of Europe; in fact, it was an era of mighty movement throughout the world. Frederic II., commonly, and by a somewhat questionable title, called the Great, was projecting the plans of aggrandizement by which he aimed to raise Prussia, before his time a secondary state, to the rank of a leading power in Europe. It would have been happy for his subjects and mankind if all his measures had been as wise or as innocent as those which he adopted for the improvement of education. He seems early to have comprehended the importance of the systematic education of teachers; and in the year 1754, the private school, established under the auspices of Mr. Hecker, was raised to the rank of a royal primary school for the education of schoolmasters and parish clerks. It was directed, by a royal ordinance of that year, that all schoolmasters and parish clerks, whose places were in the gift of the crown, should be appointed from this institution. It is probable that at the same time funds were appropriated by the government for its support.

* Copied by permission from "*Orations and Speeches on various occasions, by Edward Everett*. 2 vols. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1850."

Scarcely, however, was this beginning made in the systematic education of teachers, when the dreadful Seven Years' war came on; a war which spread from our western wilderness, where it broke out, to the bounds of the civilized world, and the remotest European settlements in India. Frederic was the hero of this war on the continent of Europe. He conducted it with a perseverance, skill and resolution, which astonished mankind, and came out of it with an exhausted treasury, shattered health, and a wasted kingdom. The Normal School at Berlin, in common with all the other institutions of the country, languished under the pressure of the times. It remained, with the exception of a few inconsiderable establishments of the same character in the city of Berlin, the only institution for the education of teachers, and was, of course, wholly inadequate to the wants of the kingdom. In 1770, a fund of four thousand dollars annually was appropriated by Frederic for the general improvement of the Prussian schools, and it was expended in raising the salaries of teachers. A considerable impulse was given to the cause of education by this endowment; but I do not find any further notice of the progress of Normal Schools during the residue of his reign.

Shortly after his death, the French Revolution began; and in the disastrous wars and convulsions to which it gave rise, the various states of Germany, and none more so than Prussia, were trampled to the dust. The effects were felt in all their institutions; but, as often happens in human affairs, the moment of extremest depression is the moment of commencing regeneration. The Prussian monarchy, broken by the fatal battle of Jena, in 1806, seemed on the verge of dissolution, and to owe a precarious existence to the clemency of Napoleon. At this gloomy period, it occurred to some noble minds to attempt the restoration of affairs by a strong appeal to the popular mind, and by awakening a powerful sentiment of patriotism. Every thing was resorted to which could promote this end. The clergy were appealed to; the high schools and universities were agitated; a secret association, under the name of the *Union of Virtue*, (*Tugendbund*,) was formed throughout the country; the ancient German costume was revived; a jealousy of foreigners inculcated; and, as an important instrument toward the end in view, the attention of the government was, in 1809, again particularly turned to the subject of education of teachers. In 1810, the Normal School at Berlin was re-organized; but before the result could be seen, the great and final struggle of the northern powers of Europe with Napoleon took place. The conflict was for the independence or subjection, the life or death, of nations. The entire population rose as a man at the call of the governments; the universities and academies sent their young men, scarce able to bear the weight of a musket, to the war; and it terminated in the overthrow of the invader.

From that moment, every thing in Germany seemed animated with new life. Prussia, in particular, with the establishment of a general peace, bent all the power of the monarchy upon national education, as the great safeguard of national independence. The Normal School of Berlin was transferred to Potsdam, as a situation more retired and favorable for its objects. Similar schools were proposed throughout the kingdom, and in other parts of Germany; and in the year 1819, the subject of education was referred to a separate department of the government, under a minister of state exclusively devoted to its administration. The present organization of the Prussian system of education dates from this period, and by the provisions of an ordinance of the government of the same year, a royal Normal School is established in each of the ten provinces of the kingdom, as an essential part of the system. From these seminaries, with the aid derived from various local establishments of the same character, teachers thoroughly trained in the art of instruction are furnished for all the public schools of Prussia. The same process has been going on contemporaneously in Saxony, in Bavaria, in Wirtemberg, in Baden, and other German states. The example early spread to France, and more recently to Holland. One or two institutions of a private character have, it is believed, been established in England for the formation of teachers; and it has been proposed at the present session of parliament, by a committee of the privy council of the realm, to found a central Normal School in the city of London.*

* Since the delivery of this address, this and other similar projects have gone into highly successful operation in England, under the auspices of the committee of the privy council for education.

The attention of the friends of education in several of the states of the Union has for some time been turned to this subject. In New York, some provision has been made by the Legislature for training teachers at the incorporated academies of the state. In some of our own respectable academies, the qualifying of teachers of both sexes has been particularly attended to, and these establishments, in point of fact, have served as the nurseries from which many of our schools have been furnished with instructors. In addition to what has been done in this way, an institution, amply endowed by private liberality, has existed for some time at Andover, expressly devoted to the education of instructors. Many respectable teachers have, it is believed, been formed at this school.

The subject of special provision by public authority for the education of teachers has at many different times, within the last few years, been considered by the committees of education of the two branches of the Legislature. Their establishment has been strongly urged in the reports which, from time to time, have emanated from this source. Among those who have recommended such a provision with the greatest zeal and intelligence, it would be unjust not to mention the name of a citizen of this county, (Mr. Carter, of Lancaster,) who, both in a separate publication and in official reports as a member of both branches of the Legislature, has rendered distinguished service in this way.

In the first report of the Board of Education, at the beginning of the year 1838, the attention of the Legislature was invited to this subject. In the course of the ensuing session, the secretary of the board was authorized by a friend of education, whose name was not communicated to the public,* to inform the Legislature that ten thousand dollars would be furnished by him whenever the same sum should be appropriated from the public treasury, to be expended under the direction of the Board of Education in qualifying teachers for the common schools of Massachusetts. This offer was promptly accepted by the Legislature, and the requisite appropriation made.

The steps taken by the Board of Education, in discharge of the important trust thus devolved upon them, are minutely set forth in their second annual report, which was made to the Legislature at the commencement of the last session. It will be sufficient to observe, on the present occasion, that after deliberate and anxious reflection, and a careful comparison of the claims of various places proposed, in different parts of the commonwealth, Lexington, in Middlesex county, and Barre, in Worcester county, have been selected as the sites of two of the Normal Schools. A confident expectation is entertained that a third may shortly be established in some other part of the state.†

These institutions are, of course, to some extent experimental. They are so of necessity. The funds provided for their support, with all the subsidiary aid which can reasonably be expected from the friends of education in the neighborhood of the schools, although highly creditable to the generous spirit by which they are furnished, are quite inadequate to the endowment of permanent establishments. For reasons set forth in the report to which I have alluded, it was thought proper not to stake the result of the whole trial on one school; but to afford to different parts of the commonwealth an opportunity of judging for themselves. It was further considered that three years is the shortest period which would authorize any safe conclusion as to the operation of the system. It will readily be perceived that when the funds to be disposed of are divided among three schools, and distributed over three years, it becomes necessary to adopt the most frugal scale of expenditure not inconsistent with the object to be attained. Our situation in this respect is widely different from that of foreign countries, where ample funds for objects of this kind are appropriated by wealthy governments; where buildings, apparatus, libraries, and the maintenance of pupils, are provided for by permanent dotations; and as many instructors are supported as are deemed necessary for the fullest development of the system.

The narrowness of the means from which the experiment of our Normal Schools is undertaken may (though we trust it will not) defeat its success. We hope that so much good will manifestly be done within the range of our resources, that the Legislature will be disposed, and private benefactors encouraged, to convert our temporary Normal Schools into permanent foundations for the qualification of teachers. Still, however, we trust, in justice to all con-

* The late Hon. Edmund Dwight.

† Since this address was delivered, a third Normal School has been founded at Bridgewater, and those at Lexington and Barre have been transferred to Newton and Westfield.

cerned, that it will be borne in mind, that this experiment is conducted under considerable disadvantages, independent of the difficulties incident to the organization of every new institution. This consideration, we trust, will secure us the sympathy and co-operation of the community in which the schools are established, and of the public at large. It is always of great importance to a youthful institution, that it should be kindly regarded in the place where it is established. We trust that the respected principal of this school, and all who may have a joint care with him in conducting it, and all who resort to it to qualify themselves as teachers, will enjoy the good will, and be favored with the countenance and kind offices, of the reverend clergy of all denominations, of the individuals of lead and influence in the other professions, and of the citizens generally in this part of the commonwealth. While no pains will be spared to make the school creditable to the community in which it is placed, nothing will do more to promote its prosperity than the friendly regard of an enlightened public.

This occasion requires a few remarks on the character and objects of Normal Schools, and the importance of a systematic education of teachers. Much has been said and written of late on this subject. Not to mention foreign publications, it is discussed at length in the legislative reports to which I have alluded, and a very valuable essay by Professor Stowe, on Normal Schools and Teachers' Seminaries, has recently been given to the public. The necessary limits of an address of this kind will require my remarks to be of a very general character.

The office of the teacher, in forming the minds and hearts of the young, and training up those who are to take our places in life, is all-important. After all that has been said, in all ages, on the subject, more than justice has not been, and never can be, done to the theme. With no small part of the children in the community, the intercourse of the teacher with the young is scarcely inferior, in closeness and the length of time for which it is kept up, to that of the parents;—not at all inferior, in the importance of the objects to be attained by it. As soon as the child is old enough to be sent to school, the teacher is relied upon to furnish occupation for the opening faculties of the mind, to direct its efforts in the acquisition of the elements of knowledge, and to suggest the first distinct ideas on some of the most important questions in conduct and morals. The child is committed to the teacher's hands in the very morning of life, when the character, still more than the young limbs, is, so to say, still in the gristle. They have, both limbs and character, acquired some of their proper consistency and power of resistance; but to how much of the intellectual and moral frame are not the first impress and shaping to be given at school? Is this a light matter? If the teacher was to fashion your child's personal proportions, or to remold his features, with what jealousy would you inquire after his qualification for that task? Is it of less importance how he fashions and molds the features of the mind? Is it of small account, whether your child's germinating faculties—to use a proverbial expression, to which no rhetoric can add force—shall be "nipped in the bud," a bud in which seeds of immortal life and heavenly intelligence have been curiously wrapped by the Creator? The husbandman can tell us if it is a matter of little or no consequence whether you employ a skillful or an unskillful person to raise a crop of corn, the growth of a few months, under a simple process of culture. And yet so much depends on proper management, that from the same seed you may see, in one field, the corn towering up, vigorous, swelling with life and strength, its broad, healthy leaves crackling till the farmer thinks he can both hear it and see it grow, the graceful tassel dancing on the summit of the stalk, and dropping its fertilizing powder on the silken filaments, which force their way from the top of the husk to receive the vital principle, and convey it to the ripening ear; and perhaps on the other side of the way, in a corner of the sluggard's garden, struggling with rank weeds for the joint possession of the unenriched soil, you will see, from the same seed, a scanty, blighted, sickly crop, yellow as saffron when it ought to be green, and black when it ought to be yellow, and scarce promising a few meager stalks for the barn-yard. Whenever I witness such a contrast in the natural world, I ask myself, with trembling, whether the mind is a principle so much less delicate than a blade of grass,—whether the proper care and culture of the intellect, the raising up and the training up of that unspeakable mystery on earth, a thinking, reasoning, discoursing, immortal creature,—are so inferior in importance, in

difficulty, and in the amount of the consequences involved, that while we would trust the tillage of our field, the sowing of our corn, and the gathering of the harvest, only to an expert and a judicious hand, any one may be trusted to keep our schools and cultivate the minds of our children?

These inquiries scarcely need an answer. Every man's reflection who is able to reason on the subject,—every one's observation who has turned his attention to it,—every one's experience who has had children of his own confided to a succession of teachers, and still more, who, at any time, has himself been engaged in the business of instruction, will satisfy himself that the teacher's duty is important, complicated, and arduous. It is not a mere piece of job-work, to which any one may turn his hand, but a professional calling, which requires knowledge, judgment, and experience.

There is scarce such a thing conceivable, as even a solitary act, consisting of several parts or movements, which does not admit of every degree of excellence in the manner and success of the performance. See two men handle an ax, in cutting down a tree, one a raw hand, the other a practiced woodman. Look at two persons on horseback, of equal courage and strength, the one for the first time in his life in the saddle, the other an expert rider. One seems to realize the fable of the Centaur, as if he were himself a part of the animal on which he is moving; the other can scarce keep his seat. Let an inexperienced person go to work with a handsaw or a paint brush; or undertake to conduct a piece of cloth through a power-loom, or to cover a whip-handle with its mysterious network; and he will be very sure, for several times, to fail. I think there are few persons in this assembly, except those who may have had considerable practice, who can drive a nail straight into a board, without striking their fingers with the hammer. In fact, "to hit a nail on the head," simple as the operation seems, is in reality one of so much nicety, that it has become a proverbial expression for dexterity and skill.

We might cast our eyes over the entire circle of human pursuit, and find new illustrations of the necessity of diligent preparation for every calling; and no one can seriously suppose that the office of an instructor makes an exception. But inasmuch as institutions for the education of teachers are as yet hardly known by name among us, it is a natural question how teachers in our country have hitherto been able to prepare themselves for the discharge of their duties. May not the means which have hitherto proved adequate for the supply of our schools with competent instructors, still suffice for that purpose? The question is a fair one, and deserves a candid answer.

Whoever thinks that we are favored with an ample supply of teachers, as well qualified as can be wished, needs no further answer. Whoever considers that of the teachers in times past and at the present day in our schools, there are those possessing all degrees of qualification, from very high to very low, it will seem a pertinent inquiry, what their means of preparation have been; and such an inquirer will probably be of opinion that we need a more systematic and efficient preparation for this purpose.

We must assume, then, first, that natural aptitude goes very far, on the plan hitherto pursued, in deciding the qualification of the teacher. This, under all circumstances, will be an important element. One man will be a better teacher, with little or no training or experience, than some others, who pass their lives in the business. This, however, is equally the case in every pursuit or calling,—in law, physic, and divinity, in trade, manufactures, and farming,—and is never thought to supersede the necessity of education. Some remain inefficient and incapable after every imaginable advantage; others, with slender opportunities, bound, as it were, at a single leap, to the front rank. I have seen a person, who, from his infancy, never knew a want; who passed from the arms of a careful nurse into the care of the best of teachers; who enjoyed, from the first, every conceivable aid and encouragement, (except the most efficient of all, the spur of necessity,) the best of masters, the best of books in abundance, and steady schooling, and, at the close of his school education, grossly ignorant in every branch of knowledge; while another, of the same age, educated under the stern discipline of necessity, with limited means, the ordinary chance of instructors, the old books which his father wore out before him, and attendance at school far from steady, has advanced from one branch to another, mastering each as he goes, with a keen relish for learning, and an ever-craving appetite for new truth. Whatever may be the calling of these two men, one is destined

to eminence, the other to failure. Should circumstances call them to the instructor's desk, it is quite evident that he who has learned little will have still less to teach, while the other will be very likely to exhibit the same facility in the communication as in the acquisition of knowledge.

In the next place, the teacher's fitness, at the present day, depends very much on the kind of instruction which he received himself while at school. If he was so fortunate as to be taught by a sound, accurate, and judicious instructor, he will be not unlikely to exhibit that character himself. A good degree of the school-keeping capacity, and I may say, also, incapacity, are traceable to this source. Our schools are under a kind of traditionary discipline. To a considerable extent they are kept by young men and women, who make a pretty rapid transition from the pupil's bench to the master's and mistress's chair. Unless they possess strong, original minds,—which are not very common,—there is not much likelihood that they will rise above the standard of the schools where they were themselves taught. If these were very good, they will be more apt to fall below it. Mediocrity is much more apt to be propagated than excellence. If a teacher of average capacity keep the school for a few years, he will not be likely to make any improvements, and will do very well if he hands it over to his successor as good as he found it. When this state of things prevails in a community for a long course of years, we behold the painful spectacle of schools in the rear of every thing else. There is progress in every thing else, but the schools are stationary, and even degenerating. I have heard judicious observers express the doubt, whether the average of our district schools, at the present day, are better than they were thirty years ago. If the remark is just, it is a state of things not very creditable to the commonwealth. To keep pace with the general progress of improvement, they ought to be much better. We should be ashamed to be quoted hereafter, as a proof that there is a law in the intellectual and moral, like that which has been observed in the natural world, with respect to many of the products of the earth—that the fruit which is borne on the graft runs out with the original stock. Good husbandry requires that attention should be constantly given to the discovery of improved methods, and the introduction of new varieties raised from the seed. Tradition is closely allied to degeneracy.

Where the teacher engages in his pursuit for life, a new source of qualification presents itself of great value; I mean *experience*. He qualifies himself. But such teachers are not found, I presume, in many of our common schools. They rise to higher stations. Besides this, it may happen, when Experience is the teacher, as with teachers of other kinds, the pupil is by no means sure to excel his master. Self-instruction is not always improving. It depends on the character of a man's mind, how much advantage he derives from experience. The experience of one man is clear and decisive. He commits an error, perceives it, and henceforward avoids it. He is struck with the advantage of some procedure or method, traces that advantage to its principle, builds a rule upon it, and enlarges or amends his practice to the end of life. The experience of other men yields them no such fruit. It is vague and irresolute. They live and act, but have no experience, properly so called. Proceeding without steady principles of conduct, without the intelligence or the moral aptitude to profit by their mistakes, the working of one day counteracts that of another. It is only where order, the first law of earth, as well as Heaven, presides, that day unto day uttereth speech, and night unto night showeth forth knowledge. Without this guide of conduct, experience may perplex instead of directing. The mistake of to-day produces the mistake of to-morrow; and life is exhausted in half-finished experiments and constantly-repeated blunders, so that whether a man's experience profit him depends upon whether it is good experience, which may be either successful experience, or unsuccessful experience wisely heeded; and it may often happen that the recorded experience of another more judicious mind will in reality guide a man better than his own.

The recorded experience of others, then,—that is, books,—is another means by which the teacher at present qualifies himself for his calling. Unquestionably, the conscientious instructor may derive the greatest advantages from the careful study of judicious publications on the subject of his pursuit. The number of these is greatly multiplied of late years. It is a branch of literature comparatively of recent growth; and without doing injustice to the works of the patriarchs in this science, of Plato and of Cicero to the writings of Ascham,

of Milton, of Locke, I am inclined to think that, for practical views, what has been written within the last fifty years exceeds, both in amount and value, all that had before been given to the world on the subject of education. As far as my acquaintance with the subject extends, the works of Miss Edgeworth are entitled to the credit of having first promulgated, in the English language at least, sound and judicious views as to the whole business of education. A person thoroughly possessed of every thing in her works, would have but little to learn, as to general principles, (with one exception,) from other sources. There are, however, many things, of course, in her publications, not applicable to the condition of things in this country; and on one all-important topic, the subject of religious instruction, there is a deeply to be lamented deficiency. For the practical purposes of the American teacher, some good works have appeared in our own country, of which that of Mr. Jacob Abbott appears to me decidedly the best. No person can peruse it without gaining new conceptions of the importance of the teacher's duty, and practical hints as to the best method of discharging it. Whether a perusal of it will not, in most cases, leave on the reader's mind a painful impression as to the imperfection of our schools, in condition and management, is a question which each must answer for himself.

From the various useful works on the business of instruction, the faithful teacher will, under all circumstances, derive great benefit. But neither in this nor any other calling, will the solitary study of books effect all that is to be desired, to say nothing of the objection to this and all the other sources of self-instruction, which arises from the condition of the schools, while the master is endeavoring to improve himself. Those of our children may do well who have the advantage of his teaching, after he has qualified himself by experience in office and the study of good books; but what is to become of those who are to get their education while this process is going on, and before it has proceeded to any valuable extent? As a general remark, perhaps it would not be unjust to say, that most of our teachers retire from that pursuit about the time they become well qualified to carry it on to the greatest advantage.

We are thus brought to the necessity of some specific preliminary preparation for the office of teacher—a preparation which shall fit him in some degree beforehand for his duties. To afford this preparation, is the precise object of a Normal School. Nothing is farther from my purpose than to set up the pretension that there can be no well-qualified teacher without such a school; but that great advantages may be expected from a regular plan of instruction, in seminaries devoted to this object; a plan of instruction to come in aid of all the other means of improvement, on which the faithful teacher must now exclusively depend. To afford this instruction, is the object of the Normal Schools now established in the commonwealth. It is impossible that it should be so thorough and comprehensive, as the theory of a perfect institution of the kind requires. There are no funds applicable to the expense of such an establishment; and our young men and women could not generally afford the time requisite for a very long course of preparation, because the majority of our districts do not require, and would not support, teachers who, having been at great expense of time and money in fitting themselves for their calling, would need a proportionate compensation. We suppose that many of those who resort to these institutions, will, at present, be able only to pass but a part of one year in the enjoyment of their advantages; but while provision is made for the shortest period for which any individual could reasonably wish to be received, a thorough course of instruction will also be arranged for those who desire to devote a longer time to their preparation as teachers.

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

1. A careful review of the branches of knowledge required to be taught in our common schools; it being, of course, the first requisite of a teacher that he should himself know well that which he is to aid others in learning. Such an acquaintance with these branches of knowledge is much less common than may be generally supposed. The remark may sound paradoxical, but I believe it will bear examination, when I say, that a teacher thoroughly versed in those branches of knowledge only which are taught in our common schools, is as difficult to find as a first-rate lawyer, divine, or physician, statesman, man of business, or farmer. A good schoolmaster should be able to read and speak the English language with propriety, ease, and grace; and this can not be done without a thorough knowledge of its grammar. He should possess, at the same

time, a clear, shapely, and rapid hand-writing, and be well versed in the elemental principles and operations of numbers. Without going beyond these three branches,—best designated by the good old-fashioned names of reading, writing, and arithmetic,—I venture to say that a man who possesses them thoroughly is as rare as one of corresponding eminence in any of the learned professions. And yet the law requires such masters for our district schools. What says the statute? "In every town containing fifty families or householders, there shall be kept, in each year, at the charge of the town, by a teacher or teachers of competent abilities and good morals, a school for the instruction of children in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and good behavior."

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

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

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

by counting on his fingers, instead of learning a simple addition table by rote at the outset; who has formed to himself a small, ill-looking, and illegible scrawl, under the name of a running hand, without ever having learned to shape the letters in bold and fair proportions; or who, under the notion of refinements beyond the common standard, has been taught such barbarisms as "he shew me the book," "I have began to read it," "had I have had time to go,"—such a child, I say, comes into the hands of the teacher heavily laden with a cargo, which it must be the first labor and care to throw overboard.

But the art of teaching is not confined to a correction of the errors, or a reform of the bad habits, of the mistaught pupil. Where nothing of this kind is to be done, the mind of the learner is still to be guided, aided, and encouraged in its progress. The perfection of the art of teaching consists in hitting the precise point between that which the studious pupil must do for himself, and that which the instructor may do with him and for him. It is not enough, in teaching a child to read, to correct with a harsh voice some gross error which he may make in reading a verse or two in the New Testament or the National Reader. The teacher must himself, patiently, kindly, and with a gentle voice, read the passage over repeatedly, and see that the learner understands the meaning of every word, and of the whole sentence. It is peculiar to arithmetic, that though there are degrees of readiness in performing its operations, there are no degrees of clearness and certainty in the knowledge of its principles. The incredible vexation which attends the study of this branch with many children, generally arises from the unskillfulness of the teacher, in not taking care that the learner, as he goes along, understands thoroughly each successive step. If this be done, the child of ten years old will know what he knows at all as well as Sir Isaac Newton. Some simple schoolboy muse, in former times, has recorded its sorrowful experience on this subject in the following plaintive and, in my day, very popular strain—

"Multiplication is vexation,
Division is as bad,
The rule of three doth puzzle me,
And practice makes me mad."

But if proper care be taken that every step be thoroughly understood before advancing to the next, multiplication and division will be found as simple as addition or subtraction; while the rule of three and practice have been shown, in the recent and best school books, to be wholly unnecessary, inasmuch as all questions usually performed by their aid can be more readily performed by simpler processes.

One thing is certain; that though there can be no difference in the average capacity of equal numbers of the children in two schools in the same community, there is often a vast difference in the average scholarship, after the same amount of schooling. To what can the difference be ascribed, but to the different degrees of skill on the part of teachers? It is not an uncommon thing to find children who, after having been months, and even years, employed either on the lower elements or on the higher branches of learning, leave school, at last, knowing nothing thoroughly, and not much superficially. They can not read with fluency, force, and intelligence, to say nothing of grace and beauty; they write a poor, unsteady, hieroglyphical hand; they have no clear notions of grammatical construction, and are awkward and incorrect in the use of numbers. Perhaps this is the description of nearly half the children who leave school in town or country. The little that is learned of Latin and Greek is equally inaccurate and shallow. The fault is commonly laid at the pupil's door, especially if he has had what is usually called schooling enough. I think, however, generally, that the fault is with the teacher, who is frequently not thoroughly versed himself in what he undertakes to teach—more frequently unskilled in the art of teaching. The astonishing difference sometimes noticed in the progress of the same school under different teachers, in successive seasons, shows how much is justly attributable to this cause.

Besides the general art of teaching, there are peculiar methods, applicable to each branch of knowledge, which should be unfolded in the instructions of a Normal School; but this is a topic in which my limits do not permit me to engage. I hasten to

3. The third branch of instruction to be imparted in an institution, which concerns the important subject of the government of the school, and which

might perhaps more justly have been named the first. The best method of governing a school—that is, of exercising such a moral influence in it as is most favorable to the improvement of the pupils—will form a very important part of the course of instruction designed to qualify teachers for their calling. It is this part of their duty which is probably least considered by themselves or their employers; for the reason, perhaps, that qualification in this respect is least capable of being estimated by an external standard. But how much is not implied in the words “to govern a school!” For several hours in the day, the teacher is to exercise the authority of a parent over fifty or sixty, perhaps over ninety or a hundred children. Parents can form an opinion whether this is a task to be executed without system, without principles, and as a matter of course; or whether it is not that in which the youthful teacher will most stand in need of all the preparation which it is possible to acquire. Without the aid of that instinct of natural affection which fortifies parental authority, he is expected, with a parent's power, to control alike the docile and the obstinate, the sullen and the gay. While his entire intercourse with his pupils is that of constraint and requisition, he must acquire an absolute control over many a youthful spirit, which has already been irritated by caprice, soured by tyranny, or spoiled by indulgence at home. And he is to do this not by violence and storm, but by wisely threading the maze of that living labyrinth, the affections of the youthful heart. In this department perhaps greater improvement has taken place of late years than in any other; there has been a general call for moral influence, instead of physical power. I do not say that this last should never be resorted to, but I trust the day is wholly past for that ferocious warfare between master and pupil which was once so general, and with no other effect than that of turning the teacher's office into a hateful tyranny, and the happy season of childhood into a long martyrdom. Dr. Johnson, in composing a legal argument to be used by another person, puts into his mouth the sentiment, “that a school can be governed only by fear.” It would, I think, have been much nearer the truth to say, that a school can be governed only by patient, enlightened, Christian love, the master principle of our natures. It softens the ferocity of the savage; it melts the felon in his cell. In the management of children it is the great source of influence; and the teacher of youth though his mind be a storehouse of knowledge, is ignorant of the first principles of his art, if he has not embraced this as an elemental maxim.

But let it not be thought that these are smooth sayings, and that moral discipline is unattended with difficulty, and preferred by an indolent age for its comparative ease. The reverse is nearer the truth. To walk the rounds of the school with a ratan in the hand, to be bestowed as liberally on the thoughtless exuberance of youthful spirits, on the restlessness of the little urchin unused to his confinement, and on the mistakes of mere inadvertence or absolute ignorance, as on hardened perversity and resolute disobedience, is a much easier task than to graduate each of these cases on the scale of moral demerit, and to treat them accordingly. It is related of the late Dr. Bowditch, that he very early manifested that skill in numbers which afterward raised him to the level of the first mathematicians of the day. While quite a child at school, he performed a difficult sum in arithmetic with astonishing readiness. His schoolmaster was at once so ignorant of the mode of governing a school, and had so little acquainted himself with the powers of his pupil's mind, that he thought it impossible the task should have been performed without assistance, and asked who had helped him. On being told by young Bowditch that he had done it himself, the coarse tyrant severely chastised him for falsehood—a treatment well calculated to subvert the entire moral frame of a sensitive lad, but much more simple than it would have been for an understanding such as this master possessed to enter into a careful analysis of the capacities of his forward pupil.

The instruction of the Normal School will therefore dwell on the government of youth as of paramount importance; as that part of the teacher's duty which demands the rarest union of qualities, which most tries the temper, and I will add, when faithfully and judiciously performed, is most important in its results. Give me the child whose heart has embraced without violence the gentle lore of obedience, in whom the sprightliness of youth has not encroached on deference for authority, and I would rather have him for my son, though at the age of twelve he should have his alphabet to learn, than be compelled to struggle with the caprice of a self-willed, obstinate youth, whose bosom has become a

viper's nest of the unamiable passions, although in early attainments he may be the wonder of the day.

There are many other topics connected with the teacher's duty, on which it may be expected that instruction will be afforded in the Normal School. Among these is the all-important subject of direct instruction in morals and religion, the relations of teachers and parents, of teachers and the higher school authorities, and the duties of teachers to each other and to the community, and of the community to them, as the members of a respectable profession. I am necessarily prevented by the limits of the occasion from entering upon any of these subjects.

4. In the last place, it is to be observed, that in aid of all the instruction and exercises within the limits of the Normal School, properly so called, there is to be established a common or district school, as a school of practice, in which, under the direction of the principal of the Normal School, the young teacher may have the benefit of actual exercise in the business of instruction. This, of course, is a very interesting portion of the system; but I am obliged to dismiss it with this simple mention.

Such then, briefly, are the nature and objects of a Normal School, and such the manner in which it proposes to qualify teachers. We do not expect that it will work miracles; we shall be satisfied if it does good; and of this only we feel a reasonable degree of confidence, that no young man or young woman can pass even three months in the institution without leaving it better qualified for the business of instruction. We trust the result will be such as eventually to contribute to the improvement of our schools. We have spared no pains, with the means at our command, to secure in advance the confidence of an enlightened public. The talent, the services, and the distinguished character of the gentlemen to whom the schools already founded have been intrusted, are a pledge to the community of what may be expected from their labors in this cause. Among the fundamental principles laid down by the Board of Education for the government of the Normal Schools, it has been provided that a portion of Scripture shall be daily read; and it is their devout hope that a fervent spirit of prayer, pervading the heart of both principal and pupils, may draw down the Divine blessing on their pursuits.

I can not forbear, sir,* to express to you, on this occasion, the deep sense which is felt by the Board of Education of the importance of the trust which they have confided to your hands. I have the pleasure to assure you, that all their proceedings in reference to the school, and your own connection with it, have been entirely unanimous, and that a large measure of confidence is reposed both in your ability and disposition to fulfil their expectations. The reputation which you bring to this place, acquired by a long course of faithful labor in a highly responsible station elsewhere, (Bowdoin College,) is a sufficient guaranty to the public of the services which may be expected from you in this new and untried position. On you and the highly respected principal of the Normal School at Lexington, (Mr. Cyrus Pierce,) it will depend at present, in no small degree, whether institutions of this description shall win the public favor, and be incorporated into our system of common school education. We are sensible of the deep responsibility which this consideration devolves upon you, and shall, at all times, extend to you, to the utmost of our power, the support and encouragement you may need. Should this effort succeed to improve our schools by the increased qualifications of our teachers, you will have the satisfaction of being the first in our country to engage in an enterprise of the most eminent usefulness. Ages may pass away before an opportunity will present itself of working greater good than will be effected by those in this generation, who shall lay the foundations of decided improvements in popular education. We commend you, sir, to the support of this enlightened community, and the care of a watchful Providence.

To you, my young friends of either sex, who have entered yourselves as pupils of the Normal School, we would say that the eyes of the friends of education, in all parts of the commonwealth, will be anxiously fixed upon you, and those who, with you, may be among the first to take advantage of the means of improvement which this institution affords. You are about to prepare yourselves, under great advantages, for the important office of instruction. This

* Professor S. P. Newman.

momentous trust, which hitherto, almost without exception, in this country, has been assumed without specific preparation, will be approached by you, after having had its principles carefully unfolded to you, with some opportunity of putting them to practice, in the model school, which will form a part of the institution. When you shall engage in the business of instruction, the community will reasonably expect of you that you should exhibit unusual fitness for the work. Let this thought engage you to enter upon your studies with redoubled zeal. A failure on your part to meet the public expectation, will have an injurious effect, for some time, on this attempt to improve the qualifications of teachers, in institutions expressly devoted to that object. On the other hand, your spirit and devotion to the object you are pursuing, and your visible improvement in the noble skill of aiding in the development of mind and the formation of character, while they will put you upon the path of acknowledged usefulness and prosperity, will contribute essentially to the permanent adoption of Normal Schools, as a part of the Massachusetts system of public education. May a higher motive than human approbation animate your conduct, and the Divine blessing crown your studies with success.

Permit me, fellow-citizens and friends, in bringing this address to a close, to congratulate you on the establishment, in the bosom of this community, of an institution, destined, we trust, to be an instrument of great good. We place it under the protection of an intelligent public. Its organization is simple; its action will be wholly free from parade and display; its fruits, we trust, will be seen in raising the standard of common school education. This object, we confess, we regard as one of paramount importance,—second to no other not immediately connected with the spiritual concerns of man. If there be any persons to whom the words “common schools” and “common school education” convey an idea of disparagement and insignificance, such persons are ignorant, not merely of the true character of our political system, but of the nature of man. I certainly intend nothing derogatory to our higher seminaries of education, in town or in country. They are recognized by the constitution of the state. It is made the duty of all magistrates to encourage and promote them, and they are justly strong in the public favor. But whether we consider the numbers who enjoy their benefit, the relative importance to the state of an entire well-educated population, and of the services of those who receive the advantages of an education at the higher seminaries, taken in connection with the fact that a liberal education may be had elsewhere, but that a common school education must be had at home or not at all, no rational man, as it seems to me, can fail to perceive the superior importance of the common schools. They give the keys of knowledge to the mass of the people. The child learns more by his fourth year, than the philosopher at any subsequent period of his life; he learns to affix an intelligible sign to every outward object and inward emotion, by a gentle impulse imparted from his lips to the air. In like manner, I think it may with truth be said, that the branches of knowledge taught in our common schools, when taught in a finished, masterly manner,—reading, in which I include the spelling of our language,—a firm, sightly, legible handwriting, and the elemental rules of arithmetic, are of greater value than all the rest which is taught at school. I am far from saying that nothing else can be taught at our district schools; but the young person who brings these from school can himself, in his winter evenings, range over the entire field of useful knowledge. Our common schools are important in the same way as the common air, the common sunshine, the common rain, invaluable for their commonness. They are the corner-stone of that municipal organization which is the characteristic feature of our social system; they are the fountain of that widespread intelligence, which, like a moral life, pervades the country; they are the nursery of that inquiring spirit to which we are indebted for the preservation of the blessings of an inquiring, Protestant, spiritual faith. Established as they were by special legislation in the infancy of the colony, while they are kept up and supported with a liberality corresponding with the growth of the country, no serious evil can befall us. Whatsoever other calamities, external or internal, may overtake us, while the schools are supported, they will furnish a perennial principle of restoration. With her three thousand district schools, supported at the public expense, nothing but the irreversible decree of Omnipotence can bring the beaming forehead of Massachusetts to the dust. Vicissitudes may blight the foliage, but there will be vigor in the trunk, and life at the root.

Talent will constantly spring up on her barren hill-sides, and in her secluded vales, and find an avenue, through her schools, to the broad theatre of life, where great affairs are conducted by able men. Other states may exceed her in fertility of soil, but the skillful labor of her free citizens will clothe her plains with plenty. Other states may greatly outnumber her, but her ingenuity will people her shady glens and babbling waterfalls with half-reasoning engines, which will accomplish the work of toiling myriads. Other states will far surpass her in geographical domain; but the government of cultivated mind is as boundless as the universe. Wheresoever on the surface of the globe, and in the long line of coming ages, there is a reasonable being, there is a legitimate subject of mental influence. From the humblest village school, there may go forth a teacher who, like Newton, shall bind his temples with the stars of Orion's belt,—with Herschel, light up his cell with the beams of before undiscovered planets,—with Franklin, grasp the lightning. Columbus, fortified with a few sound geographical principles, was, on the deck of his crazy caravel, more truly the monarch of Castile and Arragon, than Ferdinand and Isabella, enthroned beneath the golden vaults of the conquered Alhambra. And Robinson, with the simple training of a rural pastor in England, when he knelt on the shore of Delft Haven, and sent his little flock upon their gospel errantry beyond the world of waters, exercised an influence over the destinies of the civilized world which will last to the end of time.

REMARKS

AT THE DEDICATION OF THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE
AT BRIDGEWATER.

August 19, 1846.

THE completion of a new edifice to accommodate the State Normal School at Bridgewater was signalized by appropriate exercises, on the 19th of August, 1846. Addresses were made during the day by His Excellency, Governor Briggs, Hon. William G. Bates, of Westfield, Amasa Walker, Esq., of Brookfield, at the church, and in the new school-room. After these addresses the company partook of a collation in the Town Hall, on which occasion the health of the Secretary of the Board of Education was given by the president of the day, and received by the company with enthusiastic applause. To this sentiment Mr. Mann responded as follows, as reported in the Boston Mercantile Journal.

Mr. President: Among all the lights and shadows that have ever crossed my path, this day's radiance is the brightest. Two years ago, I would have been willing to compromise for ten years' work, as hard as any I had ever performed, to have been insured that, at the end of that period, I should see what our eyes this day behold. We now witness the completion of a new and beautiful Normal School-house for the State Normal School at Bridgewater. One fortnight from to-morrow, another house, as beautiful as this, is to be dedicated at Westfield, for the State Normal School at that place. West Newton was already provided for by private munificence. Each Normal School then will occupy a house, neat, commodious, and well adapted to its wants; and the Principals of the schools will be relieved from the annoyance of keeping a Normal School in an *ab*-Normal house.

I shall not even advert to the painful causes which have hastened this most desirable consummation,—since what was meant for evil has resulted in so much good. Let me, however, say to you, as the moral of this result, that it strengthens in my own mind what I have always felt; and I hope it will strengthen, or create, in all *your* minds, a repugnance to that sickly and cowardly sentiment of the poet, which made him long

“For a lodge in some vast wilderness,
Some boundless contiguity of shade,
Where rumor of oppression and deceit,
Of unsuccessful or successful wars,
Might never reach him more.”

There is oppression in the world which almost crushes the life out of humanity. There is deceit, which not only ensnares the unwary, but almost abolishes the security, and confidence, and delight, which rational and social beings ought to enjoy in their intercourse with each other. There are wars, and the question whether they are right or wrong tortures the good man a thousand times more than any successes or defeats of either belligerent. But the feeling which springs up spontaneously in my mind, and which I hope springs up spontaneously in your minds, my friends, in view of the errors, and calamities, and iniquities of the race, is, *not* to flee from the world, but to remain in it; *not* to hie away to forest solitudes or hermit cells, but to confront selfishness, and wickedness, and ignorance, at whatever personal peril, and to subdue and extirpate them, or to die in the attempt. Had it not been for a feeling like this among your friends, and the friends of the sacred cause of education in which you have enlisted, you well know that the Normal Schools of Massachusetts would have been put down, and that this day never would have shone to gladden our hearts and to reward our

toils and sacrifices. Let no man who knows not what has been suffered, what has been borne and forborne, to bring to pass the present event, accuse me of an extravagance of joy.

Mr. President, I consider this event as marking an era in the progress of education,—which, as we all know, is the progress of civilization,—on this western continent and throughout the world. It is the completion of the first Normal School-house ever erected in Massachusetts,—in the Union,—in this hemisphere. It belongs to that class of events which may happen once, but are incapable of being repeated.

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

But this occasion brings to mind the past history of these schools, not less than it awakens our hopes and convinces our judgment respecting their future success.

I hold, sir, in my hand, a paper, which contains the origin, the source, the *punctum saliens*, of the Normal Schools of Massachusetts. [Here Mr. Mann read a note from the Hon. Edmund Dwight, dated March 10th, 1838, authorizing him, Mr. Mann, to say to the Legislature, that the sum of ten thousand dollars would be given by an individual for the preparation of teachers of Common Schools, provided the Legislature would give an equal sum. The reading was received with great applause.]

It will be observed, resumed Mr. Mann, that this note refers to a conversation held on the evening previous to its date. The time, the spot, the words of that conversation can never be erased from my soul. This day, triumphant over the past, auspicious for the future, then rose to my sight. By the auroral light of hope, I saw company after company go forth from the bosom of these institutions, like angel ministers, to spread abroad, over waste spiritual realms, the power of knowledge and the delights of virtue. Thank God, the enemies who have since risen up to oppose and malign us, did not cast their hideous shadows across that beautiful scene.

The proposition made to the Legislature was accepted, almost without opposition, in both branches; and on the third day of July, 1839, the first Normal School, consisting of only *three* pupils, was opened at Lexington, under the care of a gentleman who now sits before me,—Mr. Cyrus Pierce, of Nantucket,—then of island, but now of continental fame.

[This called forth great cheering, and Mr. Mann said he should sit down to give Mr. Pierce an opportunity to respond. Mr. Pierce arose under great embarrassment; starting at the sound of his name, and half doubting whether the eloquent Secretary had not intended to name some other person. He soon recovered, however, and in a very happy manner extricated himself from the "fix" in which the Secretary had placed him. He spoke of his children, the pupils of the first Normal School, and of the honorable competition which ought to exist between the several schools; and to the surprise, as well as regret, of all who heard him, he spoke of being admonished by infirmities which he could not mistake, that it was time for him to retire from the profession. The audience felt as if, for once in his life, this excellent teacher had threatened to do wrong. He then told an amusing anecdote of a professor who retained his office too long, and was toasted by the students in the words of Dr. Watts,—“The Rev. Dr. —, Hush, my babe, lie still and slumber.” And then he sat down amidst the sincere plaudits of the company, who seemed to think he was not “so plaguy old” as he wished to appear.]

I say, said Mr. Mann, on resuming, that, though the average number of Mr. Pierce's school is now from sixty to eighty; and though this school, at the present term, consists of one hundred pupils, yet the first term of the first school opened with *three* pupils only. The truth is, though it may seem a paradox to

say so, the Norman Schools had to come to prepare a way for themselves, and to show, by practical demonstration, what they were able to accomplish. Like Christianity itself, had they waited till the world at large called for them, or was ready to receive them, they would never have come.

In September, 1839, two other Normal Schools were established: one at Barre, in the county of Worcester, since removed to Westfield, in the county of Hampden; and the other at this place, whose only removal has been a constant moving onward and upward, to higher and higher degrees of prosperity and usefulness.

In tracing down the history of these schools to the present time, I prefer to bring into view, rather the agencies that have helped, than the obstacles which have opposed them.

I say, then, that I believe Massachusetts to have been the only State in the Union where Normal Schools could have been established; or where, if established, they would have been allowed to continue. At the time they were established, five or six thousand teachers were annually engaged in our Common Schools; and probably nearly as many more were looking forward to the same occupation. These incumbents and expectants, together with their families and circles of relatives and acquaintances, would probably have constituted the greater portion of active influence on school affairs in the State; and had they, as a body, yielded to the invidious appeals that were made to them by a few agents and emissaries of evil, they might have extinguished the Normal Schools, as a whirlwind puts out a taper. I honor the great body of Common School teachers in Massachusetts for the magnanimity they have displayed on this subject. I know that many of them have said, almost in so many words, and, what is nobler, they have acted as they have said:—"We are conscious of our deficiencies; we are grateful for any means that will supply them,—nay, we are ready to retire from our places when better teachers can be found to fill them. We derive, it is true, our daily bread from school-keeping, but it is better that our bodies should be pinched with hunger than that the souls of children should starve for want of mental nourishment; and we should be unworthy of the husks which the swine do eat, if we could prefer our own emolument or comfort to the intellectual and moral culture of the rising generation. We give you our hand and our heart for the glorious work of improving the schools of Massachusetts, while we scorn the baseness of the men who would appeal to our love of gain, or of ease, to seduce us from the path of duty." This statement does no more than justice to the noble conduct of the great body of teachers in Massachusetts. To be sure, there always have been some who have opposed the Normal Schools, and who will, probably, continue to oppose them as long as they live, lest they themselves should be superseded by a class of competent teachers. These are they who would arrest education where it is; because they cannot keep up with it, or overtake it in its onward progress. But the wheels of education are rolling on, and they who will not go with them must go under them.

The Normal Schools were supposed by some to stand in an antagonistic relation to academies and select schools; and some teachers of academies and select schools have opposed them. They declare that they can make as good teachers as Normal Schools can. But, sir, academies and select schools have existed in this State, in great numbers, for more than half a century. A generation of school-teachers does not last, at the extent, more than three or four years; so that a dozen generations of teachers have passed through our Public Schools within the last fifty years. Now, if the academies and high schools can supply an adequate number of school-teachers, why have they not done it? We have waited half a century for them. Let them not complain of us, because we are unwilling to wait half a century more. Academies are good in their place; colleges are good in their place. Both have done invaluable service to the cause of education. The standard of intelligence is vastly higher now than it would have been without their aid; but they have not provided a sufficiency of competent teachers; and if they perform their appropriate duties hereafter, as they have done heretofore, they cannot supply them; and I cannot forbear, Mr. President, to express my firm conviction, that if the work is to be left in their hands, we never can have a supply of competent teachers for our Common Schools, without a perpetual Pentecost of miraculous endowments.

But if any teacher of an academy had a right to be jealous of the Normal Schools, it was a gentleman now before me, who, at the time when the Bridgewater Normal School came into his town, and planted itself by the path which led to his door, and offered to teach gratuitously such of the young men and women attending his school, as had proposed to become teachers of Common Schools, instead of opposing it, acted with a high and magnanimous regard to the great interests of humanity. So far from opposing, he gave his voice, his vote, and his purse, for the establishment of the school, whose benefits, you, my young friends, have since enjoyed. (Great applause.) Don't applaud yet, said Mr. Mann, for I have better things to tell of him than this. In the winter session of the Legislature of 1840, it is well known that a powerful attack was made, in the House of Representatives, upon the Board of Education, the Normal Schools, and all the improvements which had then been commenced, and which have since produced such beneficent and abundant fruits. It was proposed to abolish the Board of Education, and to go back to the condition of things in 1837. It was proposed to abolish the Normal Schools, and to throw back with indignity, into the hands of Mr. Dwight, the money he had given for their support.

That attack combined all the elements of opposition which selfishness and intolerance had created,—whether latent or patent. It availed itself of the argument of expense. It appealed invidiously to the pride of teachers. It menaced Prussian despotism as the natural consequence of imitating Prussia in preparing teachers for schools. It fomented political partisanship. It invoked religious bigotry. It united them all into one phalanx, animated by various motives, but intent upon a single object. The gentleman to whom I have referred was then a member of the House of Representatives, and Chairman of the Committee on Education, and he, in company with Mr. Thomas A. Greene, of New Bedford, made a minority report, and during the debate which followed, he defended the Board of Education so ably, and vindicated the necessity of Normal Schools and other improvements so convincingly, that their adversaries were foiled, and these institutions were saved. The gentleman to whom I refer is the Hon. JOHN A. SHAW, now Superintendent of schools in New Orleans.

[Prolonged cheers;—and the pause made by Mr. Mann, afforded an opportunity to Mr. Shaw, in his modest and unpretending manner, to disclaim the active and efficient agency which he had had in rescuing the Normal Schools from destruction before they had had an opportunity to commend themselves to the public by their works;—but all this only increased the animation of the company, who appeared never before to have had a chance to pay off any portion of their debt of gratitude. After silence was restored, Mr. Shaw said that every passing year enforced upon him the lesson of the importance and value of experience in school-keeping. Long as he had taught, he felt himself improved by the teachings of observation and practice; and he must therefore express his joy and gratitude at the establishment and the prosperity of the school at that place, whatever might be the personal consequences to himself.]

Nor, continued Mr. Mann, is this the only instance of noble and generous conduct which we are bound this day to acknowledge. I see before me a gentleman who, though occupying a station in the educational world far above any of the calamities or the vicissitudes that can befall the Common Schools,—though, pecuniarily considered, it is a matter of entire indifference to him whether the Common Schools flourish or decline,—yet, from the beginning, and especially in the crisis to which I have just adverted, came to our rescue, and gave all his influence, as a citizen and as a teacher, to the promotion of our cause; and whom those who may resort hither, from year to year, so long as this building shall stand, will have occasion to remember, not only with warm emotions of the heart, but, during the wintry season of the year, with warm sensations of the body also.* I refer to Mr. GEO. B. EMERSON.

[Mr. Emerson was now warmly cheered, until he rose, and in a heartfelt address of a few moments, expressed his interest in the school, and in the cause of education, which he begged the young teachers not to consider as limited to this imperfect stage of our being.]

These, said Mr. Mann, are some of the incidents of our early history. The late events which have resulted in the generous donations of individuals, and in the patronage of the Legislature, for the erection of this, and another edifice at Westfield, as a residence and a home for the Normal Schools,—these events, I shall

* Mr. Emerson has furnished, at his own expense, the furnace by which the new school-house is to be warmed.

consult my own feelings, and perhaps I may add, the dignity and forbearance which belong to a day of triumph, in passing by without remark.

[This part of the history, however, was not allowed to be lost. As soon as the Secretary had taken his seat, the Rev. Mr. Waterston, who had been instrumental in getting up the subscription to erect the two school-houses, arose, and eloquently completed the history. He stated, in brief, that the idea of providing suitable buildings for the Normal Schools originated with some thirty or forty friends of popular education, who, without distinction of sect or party, had met, in Boston, in the winter of 1844-5, to express their sympathy with Mr. Mann in the vexatious conflict which he had so successfully maintained; and who desired, in some suitable way, to express their approbation of his course in the conduct of the great and difficult work of reforming our Common Schools. At this meeting, it was at first proposed to bestow upon Mr. Mann some token evincive of the personal and public regard of its members; but, at a subsequent meeting, it was suggested that it would be far more grateful and acceptable to him to furnish some substantial and efficient aid in carrying forward the great work in which he had engaged, and in removing those obstacles and hinderances both to his own success and to the progress of the cause, which nothing but an expenditure of money could effect. No way seemed so well adapted to this purpose as the placing of the Normal Schools upon a firm and lasting basis, by furnishing them with suitable and permanent buildings; and the persons present thereupon pledged themselves to furnish \$5000, and to ask the Legislature to furnish a like sum for this important purpose. The grant was cheerfully made by the Legislature, whose good-will has since been further expressed by a liberal grant, to meet the expenses of those temporary Normal Schools, called Teachers' Institutes. Mr. Mann, who had not yet taken his seat, then continued as follows:]

I have, my young friends, former and present pupils of the school, but a single word more to say to you on this occasion. It is a word of caution and admonition. You have enjoyed, or are enjoying, advantages superior to most of those engaged in our Common Schools. Never pride yourselves upon these advantages. Think of them often, but always as motives to greater diligence and exertion, not as points of superiority. As you go forth, after having enjoyed the bounty of the State, you will probably be subjected to a rigid examination. Submit to it without complaint. More will sometimes be demanded of you than is reasonable. Bear it meekly, and exhaust your time and strength in performing your duties, rather than in vindicating your rights. Be silent, even when you are misrepresented. Turn aside when opposed, rather than confront opposition with resistance. Bear and forbear, not defending yourselves, so much as trusting to your works to defend you. Yet, in counseling you thus, I would not be understood to be a total non-resistant,—a perfectly passive, non-elastic sand-bag, in society; but I would not have you resist until the blow be aimed, not so much at you, as, through you, at the sacred cause of human improvement, in which you are engaged,—a point at which forbearance would be allied to crime.

To the young ladies who are here—teachers and those who are preparing themselves to become teachers,—I would say, that, if there be any human being whom I ever envied, it is they. As I have seen them go, day after day, and month after month, with inexhaustible cheerfulness and gentleness, to their obscure, unobserved, and I might almost say, unrequited labors, I have thought that I would rather fill their place, than be one in the proudest triumphal procession that ever received the acclamations of a city, though I myself were the crowned victor of the ceremonies. May heaven forgive them for the only sin which, as I hope, they ever commit,—that of tempting me to break the commandment, by coveting the blissfulness and purity of their quiet and secluded virtues.

ADDRESS

AT THE

DEDICATION OF THE BRIDGEWATER STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE,

BY WILLIAM G. BATES,

August 19th, 1846.

Gentlemen of the Board of Education, Teachers, and Friends :

THE sagacious enactment of the Legislature of 1845, and the enlightened liberality of philanthropic individuals, placed at the disposal of the Board of Education the means of erecting two edifices for the accommodation of the State Normal Schools. One of those edifices is now completed; and this day it is to be set apart to the uses for which it was designed. The occasion has been deemed one of sufficient importance to justify a public and joyful commemoration; and, at the request of the other members of the Board, and by their appointment, I appear before you, to bear a part in the performances of the day. We have assembled, then, to dedicate a school-house! The executive authority of this ancient Commonwealth, the Board of Education, the wise and the learned from the different sections of the State, and the friends of progressive improvement in the cause of education, without regard to conventional lines or state boundaries, have convened to rejoice in the dedication of a building which henceforth is to be appropriated to the education of those who are to instruct the children of the State in the rudiments of learning.

"Is not this," methinks I hear an objector exclaim, "a trivial matter? Are there not other and more appropriate occasions of rejoicing? Are there not bright days in our national calendar, events in our history, to fire the soul of song, and to swell the anthem of joy? Have you no voice of praise for that recent consummation which has extended our institutions, in peaceful perpetuity, to the distant shores of the Pacific? Give over, then, this inapposite attempt to dignify so unimportant an event as that which has called us together this day."

Every nation has its own, its peculiar days of rejoicing. The birth of a prince, the accession of a king, the yielding up of a charter, the overthrow of a dynasty, have swelled the hearts of many an oppressed and suffering people. Our own country has even nobler themes than these. But, if it be the object of social life to increase our pleasures here; if the cultivation of our moral powers is to minister to our enjoyments hereafter; if the aim of political institutions is to secure to a people the inalienable rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, there can be no more heart-cheering vision than to behold a rich and powerful State solemnly pledging its wealth and its energies to the promotion of a cause upon which all these interests depend. Indeed, of all the events in our historic annals of which orators have discoursed and poets have sung, there is not one, worthy of a lasting commemoration, which is not intimately connected with the cause which has convened us to-day. Take, for example, that ever-memorable event, which stands out in our history as the brightest and the noblest, since the great triumph of Columbus, and ask yourselves why we celebrate the anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims. Is it that a few adventurers succeeded in establishing a colony which has been ripened, by subsequent wisdom, into this great empire? that, driven by persecution from their native land, they fled to the solitude of a new continent, and converted a refuge from present distress into an asylum for the oppressed of every clime? The feelings which animated them were nobler than these, and their plans more enduring. They came hither to found a State! All their desires and their energies tended to this one object. Danger could not appal, suffering could not deter them from its pursuit. When they left the harbor of Delft-haven, and while their frail bark staggered under the fearful billows, their breasts were laboring for the development of those great principles of government which were destined to win for them the gratitude of a world. When they landed upon the rock of Plymouth, they stood upon the territory of a civ-

ilized state ; and the sun which woke the first morning of their occupancy, shone upon a regularly organized government.

Nor, amid the gloom which enshrouded them, and the dangers which threatened to engulf their infant colony, did they falter in the designs which had their birth in suffering. Having elicited the great principle of the capability of man for the duties of self-government, they set forth, at once, to provide the means of demonstrating that capability ; and, in the midst of a mighty struggle for the very existence of their colony, they provided by enactment, within the first quarter of a century of its existence, for the future education of its children.

The first provision for public instruction in the colony of Massachusetts Bay, was passed in the year 1642. Five years after, in 1647, another act was passed, securing, still more effectually, the education of the young ; but in the year 1692, just two centuries after the discovery of this continent, the means of diffusing the light of learning and religion, not only throughout that continent, but throughout the world, were provided in the enactments of the Pilgrim Fathers.* Other patriots and other sages, before them, had labored earnestly for the dissemination of intelligence—and, in the early ages, some of them had fallen martyrs to their zeal in this noblest cause—but it was reserved for “the Fathers” to ingraft that great principle on the laws of a country, as a maxim of government, that *all the people of a State should be educated by the State.*

This provision is entitled “An Act for the settlement and support of ministers and schoolmasters.” “The Fathers” evidently considered Learning to be the handmaid of Religion, and while, in the law, they provided for the former, by making it the duty of the magistracy to supply any want of the stated means of grace by the appointment of a suitable pastor at the expense of the neglectful town, they secured the promotion of learning by heavy penalties for each case of neglect.

But then, as now, there were enlightened men whose zeal and intelligence were in advance of their age. The act of 1701,† after reciting the former act, proceeds as follows : “The observance of which wholesome and necessary law is shamefully neglected by divers towns, and the penalty thereof not required, tending greatly to the nourishment of ignorance and irreligion, whereof grievous complaint is made.” It then provides for the redress of these evils, and enacts that the penalties for future neglect shall be doubled ; that every grammar-master shall be approved by the minister of the town and the ministers of two adjoining towns, or any two of them ; that no minister of any town shall perform such services, as a teacher, as to discharge the town from the performance of its duties under the act ; and that justices of the peace, and all grand-jurors, shall diligently inquire and true presentment make of all breaches and neglect of the same, that due prosecution may be made against the offenders.

Nor were they more zealous in providing the means of instruction for the rising generation, than they were solicitous as to the characters of the teachers ; and their wisdom, in this respect, far transcends the legislation of modern days. We provide, in reference to our security in the qualification of teachers, that they shall be examined by a competent board of judges, and, if not found to be qualified, why, then, that their employers shall be under no obligation to pay them for their services. Under the operation of this law, a grossly incompetent teacher, who has been rejected for the want of proper moral or literary qualifications, may form the minds and morals of our children, according to his own standard of character ; and yet, if his employers are so inclined, he may receive a reward for his work of evil. But even this safeguard applies only to the public schools. In our academies, and in the numerous private schools with which, unfortunately, our country abounds, there is no legal check upon the injury which a bad man may work upon the minds and hearts of those who, by misjudging parents, may be committed to his charge. No matter how much he may lack in intelligence or in morals ; no matter how positively depraved he may be in his sentiments or in his conduct ; he is, nevertheless, a teacher under the law, or rather in spite of the law, and may exert a most deleterious influence upon the minds of those whose education should be under its especial guardianship.

Not such were the views of those wise men who have transmitted to us that

* Province Laws, c. XIII. p. 245.

† Province Laws, c. LXXXII. p. 371.

glorious system, under the operation of which the hitherto discordant elements of government have moved on in unbroken harmony. They considered the teacher as the former of the man; and that, to secure a virtuous and an intelligent community, it was necessary, not only to provide the means of good instruction, but to guard against the influences of bad. Their opinions on this subject were fully and forcibly expressed in the act of 1712, which is known as the "Reformation Act."* Its preamble recites, that, "forasmuch as the well educating and instructing of children and youth, in families and schools, are a necessary means to propagate religion and good manners, and the conversation and example of heads of families and schools having great influence on those under their care and government, to an imitation thereof," no person "shall presume to set up or keep a school," without the allowance and approbation of the proper authority; and, the law continues, if any person "shall be so hardy" as to offend against its provisions, he shall forfeit a heavy penalty, to be inflicted as long as his school shall continue, and as often as he may be prosecuted therefor.

Such were the views and feelings of the Pilgrims. Such were the objects at which they aimed, and the means by which those objects were sought to be accomplished. And when we consider the wise adaptation of the means to the end, when we contemplate the sure and rapid progress which has marked our course as a nation, the more sure, and the more rapid, accordingly as we have adhered to and maintained those principles which they established—who shall say that the first vision of a free and an independent republic did not break upon their sight, while they were tossing upon the ocean in the cabin of the *May Flower*?

If we are correct in the opinion which has been incidentally expressed, and which has obtained a general credence throughout the world, that the security of our free institutions depends upon the enactment of the provisions for the universal education of the people, at the expense of the State, it surely cannot be inappropriate to the present occasion, nor can the occasion itself be trifling and unimportant, which leads us to consider the manner in which that provision affects the people in relation to our government. If the consideration subserves no other purpose than to renew our recollections of those whose stout hands and whose stouter hearts provided for us this goodly land, it is, at least, but a fitting tribute paid at the call of gratitude. But the consideration may produce a more useful result; and, as Old Mortality, among the tombs of the Covenanters, "considered himself as fulfilling a sacred duty, while renewing to the eyes of posterity the decaying emblems of the zeal and sufferings of their forefathers, and thereby trimming, as it were, the beacon-light which was to warn future generations to defend their religion even unto blood," so we, in the contemplation of this noblest of the monuments of the Pilgrims, may be led to emulate them in their zeal, to catch the fire of their devotion, and to resolve to hand down to future ages this splendid memorial of their undying fame.

The country from which the Pilgrims fled is a monarchy. In it the three essential modifications of government are arranged with so nice an adaptation to the liberty of the subject, as to make the British constitution the wonder of the world. There, is the freedom of the press! There, is the trial by jury! There, every man's property is secured to him under the provisions of the law, and every man's house is his castle. There, the path to wealth is open to every traveler, and honors and rewards are ready to be showered upon the successful and the deserving. How sedulously they labor to promote their national prosperity! And, to secure that object, how carefully they watch over the welfare of those who may become their monarchs! The birth of a royal infant is announced as a subject of national congratulation, and the announcement is hailed with a response of national enthusiasm. The most experienced and celebrated physicians watch over even its healthful hours, and ladies of rank and fortune are proud to be its nurses. Learning waits upon and calls forth the development of its intellect, and science strengthens its powers by well-adapted and judicious exercise. Learned treatises and controversial publications discuss the means for the cultivation of all its faculties, and the whole nation watches for its progress with more than a parental anxiety. And why? Because this infant may be a

* Province Laws, c. CV. p. 398.

component part of their own government; and they know how much the happiness and welfare of a people depend upon the virtue and intelligence of their rulers.

Nor is their zeal for the blessings of a good government expended in their efforts for the education of the executive power only. Their judicial and their legislative departments are equally the objects of their fostering care. Of their judiciary, it is sufficient to remark, that the exorbitant salaries of the office, and the pension which follows its resignation, have ever called the highest talent from the bar to the bench, and made the judges of England, from the earliest ages, the true expounders of the law and the pure ministers of justice.

Of the Legislative branch, the House of Lords is composed principally of those who derive, from a long line of ancestry, the office of hereditary rulers of the realm. And, to guard against the deteriorations which inevitably follow the accident of birth, the most distinguished citizens of the nation are promoted to the peerage, to superadd to the distinctions of rank the dignity of intelligence.

The remaining branch of the Legislature consists of that body of men which is designed to represent the great interests of the people. But so guarded is the election of the members of the House of Commons by the controlling powers of the crown and the peers, and the dictates of a cautious and wary policy, that the people of England depend, for their immunities, rather upon the opinion of the higher estates of the realm, than upon the influence of their own voice in the national councils.

I refer to these principles of British legislation with no view to the consideration of their expediency and wisdom. I advert to them only to show with what solicitude they endeavor to guard against the irruptions of ignorance, and with what feelings they regard educational training, even in a monarchical government.

If such is the policy of England, what should be that of the United States! If such is the practice of a monarchy, what should be that of a republic! If such are the feelings of a people where, although the rights of man are secured, yet his interests are subordinate to the rights of property, what should be the feelings of that people whose system of government recognizes man as the very organ of its action, and his interests as the choicest objects of its care!

When our fathers fled from religious persecution, to seek the "pure shrine" of faith, they sought also the blessings of civil liberty. They rejected the long-cherished doctrine of usurped agency, and gave back to man his heaven-born birthright. They repudiated the cumbrous machinery of a system which, while it protected his rights, pressed like an incubus upon his interests, and they relied upon a scheme of self-government founded upon his intelligence and virtue. And, truly, it was the sublimest conception which ever broke upon the mind of a patriotic statesman. Conceive, if you can, of an intelligent people, "nursed up from brighter influences, with souls enlarged to the dimensions of spacious art and high knowledge," cognizant of their rights, governed by their duties, demanding nothing wrong, yielding ever to the right, just in all the relations of private life, and acting upon these principles in all their foreign intercourse; and where is the Utopia which is the abode of a more well-imagined happiness?

And yet, bright as the conception is, it is the home designed for us by our heroic fathers. It is no Oceana, it is no Utopia. The realization of this plan is in our own power; and our approach to it will be proportionate to the ardor of our zeal and the warmth of our devotion.

Have we been true to our obligations in the performance of the duties which have been assigned to us to perform? Have we imitated even the zeal and the wisdom of a monarchy?

Who are our rulers? Are they those who claim a descent from a long line of illustrious ancestors? Are they those who by their wealth clothe themselves with the right to rule? Or are they those who purchase the offices of the State as in the most venal of the days of the Roman State?

Who are the persons, that, in this country, are to stand in the place of the monarch? Every native-born male child in the Union is the heir-apparent to the throne of this great empire. Who are to compose our House of Lords? Every citizen of the age of thirty years, who shall have resided within the United States for the space of nine years, is eligible to that exalted station.

Who are to constitute that popular branch, which in England is denominated the House of Commons? The age of twenty-five years, seven of which shall have been passed within the limits of the Union, is a legal qualification for the people's representative. These are the persons who, together with the judicial department, form the three constituent parts of the most complex government upon earth. These are the persons to whom are intrusted those powers which are guarded with so much care by the educational policy of a monarchy.

And now, let us ask if we rival the wisdom of this policy? Are the youth, the future presidents, and senators, and representatives of this country, thus carefully instructed in a knowledge of those duties which they will and must be called upon to perform? Are they trained, in their early years, according to the great laws of health, so as to produce "a sound mind in a sound body?" Do the wise and the learned watch over and guide their intellectual progress, and imbue their impressible minds with the love of virtue? Or are they not, rather, suffered "to come up," like neglected plants, ignorant of the relations of civil life, and unknowing of those important trusts which are to be committed to them? Who can well estimate the vast responsibilities which rest upon the conduct of these rulers! How fraught may be their conduct with good; how pregnant with evil! Their acts may destroy the balance of this well-adjusted confederacy, and array brother against brother in the strife of blood. Their conduct may embroil nation with nation, and convert our smiling fields into the Golgothas of battle. Their decision may change the industrial character of the whole people, and turn thrift into idleness, and plenteousness into famine. Their examples may exalt vice, debase virtue, and give respectability and character even unto crime. And, on the other hand, powerful to good, and strong against evil, they can unseal the hidden springs of their country's prosperity, and read the nation's gratitude in the nation's eyes.

But let us advance more directly to what is suggested by the occasion, and contemplate this subject in its relation to our own State. Whatever may be the fate of the government of which it forms a component part, and whatever may be our feelings or our duties toward it, yet, in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, our first civil obligations were assumed, and in its cause shall our latest efforts be made.

Like that of other States, the government of Massachusetts consists of three departments. The Legislative, consisting of our Senate and House of Representatives, enact those laws which are intended to secure our rights and promote our welfare. The judicial department declares what those laws are, and settles the conflicting rights of individuals under them. The Executive power carries into execution the will of the people, as thus expressed and declared. We have adopted, as a part of its system, the doctrine of universal suffrage; and practically, the avenues to office, as well the highest as the lowest, are open to every citizen. Such is the theory of the government of Massachusetts. Such is that system of laws and institutions, by which we prosper, and under which we live.

No well-informed person will deny, not merely how important, but how indispensable is a government of laws to the prosperity of a people. But still, there are few who are aware of the extent of its influence, through all the relations and circumstances of life. Indeed, there are thousands whose whole knowledge of its effects is derived from the experience of others. They are not impleaded themselves, nor do they implead their fellows. They are not charged with crime, and, of course, feel no alarm at its undirected terrors. They know that it is around them, with its invisible shield, and they inquire not whence it comes, or whither it goes. They regard it as they do the sun that warms, and the air which surrounds them. They know that the sun will shine, and that the atmosphere will breathe around them the elements of life; and they seem to consider that man, in his imperfect institutions, is to rival the wisdom and the beneficence of the Creator. When they walk abroad, they know that the arm of the law is over them, to protect them from peril. They visit, without fear, the most remote and sequestered scenes; for they feel that it will restrain the hand of violence, and blunt the steel of the assassin. They repose in their habitations during the long hours of night; for the law makes their house their castle, and protects it, as well against secret mischief as open aggression. They consider, in short, that their property is protected by the nation's strength, and that

millions of bayonets are the sure guaranties for the preservation of their liberties.

There are, however, moral influences, resulting from the operations of law, which are still more striking. How does it pervade the very spirit of society, and control the whole conduct of men in their daily intercourse! How does it strengthen the sentiment of justice in their hearts, and induce them to do right, almost without volition! How it extends even to the domestic relations—restrains the excess of parental authority, and deepens the feelings of filial obedience! How it binds the husband to the wife, in the most endearing relation, and renders more indissoluble those holy ties which are the unspeakable charm of social existence! And when, at last, they feel that they are about to depart from those who are to live after them, and to leave them to live on, without their natural protection, with what confidence do they turn from the trusts of interested men to the laws and institutions of their country!

And yet, these laws and institutions, with all the momentous interests which grow up and flourish under them, depend for their existence upon these three co-ordinate departments of the government. They sprang forth, at first, full-armed in wisdom, like Minerva from the brain of power, but they cannot, like her, rely upon a native-born immortality. They are the mere creations of legislative will, and the power which made them can again destroy. Look at the affluence which successful acquisition has concentrated in this, the richest of the States. It is held only by a legal tenure. The law can tax it; the law can appropriate it; and what shall protect it from the inroads of fraud, and the aggressions of violence, if the law were to withhold its protecting arm? Our houses and our lands we hold, as we imagine, by the securest of all tenures; but a single act of the Legislature of the State may destroy the muniments of our title, and our respective portions of "the great globe itself" may take to themselves the light wings of the morning.

It may, perhaps, be conceded that our rulers should be both virtuous and intelligent, and yet that the same necessity does not exist for a virtuous and intelligent constintency. This supposition assumes that the principles of legislation are so complex and intricate, that the people are to choose others to do for them those governmental acts of which they cannot perceive the wisdom. Such a doctrine is upheld in other governments, in the other hemisphere; but it is repudiated by the very principles of republicanism. As well might the legislative power be delegated in perpetuity, as well might the offices of our rulers depend upon the accident of birth, as that the results of their authority should rest upon any other foundation than the consent and the approval of the people governed. We employ a physician, indeed, to do for us what we are presumed to be unable to do for ourselves, and we submit ourselves, unarguing, to his guidance. "What he wills, unargued, we obey." But in matters of legislation, however complicated, we are presumed to be the judges. We vote for a public officer because we know his opinions, and our vote, therefore, should be but the true expression of our own; and we might, in ignorance of the healing art, as properly administer remedies to a diseased patient, as, in ignorance of political information, thrust our nostrums into the body politic.

And who that has watched our legislative history does not know that the acts of our rulers are but the embodiment of the popular will? Who does not know that no legislation can be permanent or useful which does not rest upon the sentiment of an approving people? The act may be wise in its inception and beneficent in its operation; but it is the public sentiment alone which can give it vitality; and unless the public mind can be made to perceive and approve its wisdom, it will slumber, as though it were useless, until another law shall abrogate its provisions.

But, if it were granted that ignorant and vicious men will choose wise and virtuous rulers; that those who cannot perceive the wisdom of wise laws will yet acquiesce in their permanency; in short, that a system of government founded upon the virtue and intelligence of the people, and upheld by these conservative principles alone, has within itself that miraculous efficacy of winning to it the support of ignorance and vice—still, let me ask whether, in the choice of wise and virtuous rulers, we fulfill to the government all the duties of good citizens?

Let any one, who is inclined to give an affirmative answer, go into our courts

of justice, and see how those rights of life, liberty, and property, which the constitution upholds, depend as much upon their administration as upon the laws themselves! How complicated are the subjects which are presented at a judicial trial! How strangely intermingled are questions of fact with the principles of law! How subtle and astute are the arguments of those who often make the worse appear the better reason! How profoundly logical are the reasonings of the judge!

And then, too, how harassing are often the questions of evidence! The treacherous memory, the mistaken apprehensions, the corrupt misstatements of witnesses, leave the truth in doubt. How adroitly the opposing counsel labor through a long and searching examination to unravel the web of error and destroy the equipoise of a suspended judgment! Now all these nice questions of fact, these applications of law, these arguments of counsel, these reasonings of the court, and this weighing in the nicest of scales the conflicting evidence, are to be settled and passed upon by a jury of twelve men, approved by the people and coming from among the people! How momentous is often the result of their opinions! Property, liberty, and life itself, hang upon their verdicts; and yet how often is it that their verdict is wrong! And is it not necessary that jurors should be intelligent? Go to the litigant, who watches the progress of his cause with an intensity of interest, and upon whose heart every circumstance of trial tells, like the puncture of a nerve, and ask him if his rights are safe in the hands of an ignorant jury.

Recently, in one of the counties of our own Commonwealth, an incompetent jurymen was observed to slumber during the progress of an important trial. The fact was communicated by a party to his counsel. "Let him sleep," was the reply; "his dreams will be as intelligent as his waking thoughts." "I believe it," said the party, as he sat down, heartsick, in his seat; and the juror slumbered till his laborious breathing attracted the attention of the judges.

It is not, however, the unjust loss of property, of liberty, or even of life itself, which alone should prompt us to labor for the promotion of increased intelligence among those who may act upon our juries. Every wrong adjudication has a more deleterious effect than the mere loss of either of these rights, however valuable they may be to their possessor. It weakens the confidence of man in the honesty of his peers; it jeopardizes that feeling of security which is essential to individual happiness; it impairs the strength of our reliance upon that great conservative feature of a representative government; and, by forcing upon the mind the remembrance of a wrong endured, it weakens our desire to give permanency to those institutions which have partially failed to answer the end of their creation.

But still, when the suffering litigant, under the influence of these feelings, calls for increased intelligence and virtue in the jury-box, let him reflect, that however embarrassing, and arduous, and important are the duties of a juror, they are not more important, and require no more consideration, than those political duties which are performed sometimes, almost without even a thought of duty.

There are other modes in which education ministers to the prosperity and the security of the institutions of the State, to some of which I can only refer, and to others I cannot even allude.

The more than three hundred flourishing towns and cities in our Commonwealth have municipal duties, which education alone can enable them to perform. The annual election of their municipal officers, the construction and repair of roads and bridges, the sanitary regulations for the preservation of the public health, the adoption of precautionary measures against the commission of crime, the preventives against, the remedy for, and the support of honest poverty, the regulations for the security of individual property, the appropriations for beneficent municipal objects, the applications of money for those institutions of learning, the sustenance of which the law has wisely thrown upon them, and the appointment of persons to watch over these nurseries of virtue and knowledge—all these objects require the exercise of those higher qualities, both of the mind and heart, without which we are neither faithful to our trusts, just to ourselves, nor mindful of our posterity.

Having thus far considered the necessity of popular education in a popular government, and, to some extent, the manner in which it affects the operation

of this vast, wise, and complex system, let me ask of you whether the people are equal to the responsibilities which have been thrown upon them by the framers of our government. I do not now refer to that great State, in one of the congressional districts of which there is not a single newspaper, because its inhabitants cannot read! nor to those constituent parts of our great confederacy, where candidates for office advocate their own claims by oral addresses, because the ear is the only organ of communication between them and their constituents! nor to those other sections of our Union, where vice and ignorance reign triumphant over the institutions of the ballot, and "fools rush in where angels fear to tread;" but here, in our own venerated State, and in reference to our own beloved Massachusetts, I ask of you, her citizens, if the people have arrived at that consummation in the education of the young, when efforts for improvement may safely cease. There is not, I trust, in all the mass of people within her borders, a single individual who will give an affirmative answer. They know that the offices and interests of our towns have again and again depended upon a *single vote!* They know that more than once the vote of a single individual has displaced or elevated the very highest of our officers! They know, too, that often the character of the legislation of our Commonwealth has depended upon the votes of those who never read, who never heard read, I might almost say, who never heard *of*, the people's constitution!

Thus feeling, thus believing, there is not a man of them who would consent to stay the march of improvement; and, if not for the sake of education itself, if not for the sake of his children and of the people, yet for the sake of those institutions which are perhaps our *too* constant boast, he will look with eager desire for that period when the will of the people shall be directed by intelligence and virtue.

The question then arises, how are these hopes to be realized? How is this people to be educated? How is every man, who assumes the duties of the citizen, to be fitted for the performance of them?

Will you point me to the family relation, and affirm that those who are the creators of the body are also to be the educators of the mind and heart? It is true that around the knees of the mother many a youth is yet to receive what so many illustrious citizens have already received—those invaluable precepts which alone can form the man. It is true that from the lips of many a father the child is to be inspired with those holy impulses which are to quicken his march along the path of virtue. But not all parents are sufficiently capable, not all have the requisite opportunity, for the performance of this great duty. And besides, how true is the doctrine which has received the approbation of the great orator of the age, that all the children of a republic should be educated in the people's schools!

Will you point me to our colleges and our university? Alas! how few of the children of our State receive the enlightenment of their instruction! Founded by the wisdom of the Pilgrims, and fostered by their children, they are ever to be cherished by succeeding generations. But, though they may gild the eminences of society, they can never irradiate the sequestered vales of life. They may stand, indeed, as the great Bethsadas of healing, but there is a great multitude of folk, halt, blind, and withered, who can never rejoice in the healing of their waters.

Will you refer me to those academic institutions which shine as lesser lights in our literary horizon? They have exercised, and are destined still to exercise, an important office in the dissemination of virtue and sound learning; but they can never rival in their usefulness the seminaries of the people. And besides, they are not *free schools*. They have been, and must still be, supported by the price paid for labor; and however useful they may be as places of preparation for the higher seminaries of learning, or for the acquisition of an elegant or useful education by a large class of our citizens, they can never form a link in that vast chain of intercommunication which is to give an enkindling impulse to every citizen in the land.

There are in the State more than 200,000 children, between the ages of 4 and 16 years. Of these, about 500 are supposed to be students of our colleges and university, and about 12,000 to be members of the various academical institu-

tions There are, then, about 190,000 children, who, if educated at all, are to be educated in our Common Schools.

And in view of the momentous interests which rest upon these institutions of the State, the question naturally occurs to us, Are they adequate to the fulfillment of the designs of those who created, and of those who fostered, and who still foster them? No one expects an affirmative answer. Every one admits that there, in the school-room, our children are to be imbued with the knowledge and with the love of duty; that there it is that their powers are to be trained, their views expanded, and their hearts improved; but no one believes that those by whom all these results are to be accomplished are competent to the task. I might confidently appeal to the experience of those who, either long ago or at a later period, have left the Common Schools, as to the competency of their teachers. I might confidently refer to the very teachers themselves. I might refer also to the opinions of those parents whose children are now fitting themselves for the field of usefulness, or preparing for that harvest of evil which is sure to follow the years of neglected childhood. But many a parent has never seen the teacher of his child; and in this respect they rival the apathy of those ignorant citizens whose votes give authority to the voice which speaks from the ballot. Recently, a little girl objected to join the model school connected with one of our State Normal institutions. "Why," said her father, "you will receive the instruction of your regular teachers, assisted by those Normal pupils, who will instruct you, under the inspection and direction of the Normal teacher himself." "I know that," she rejoined, "but I don't want to go there to be practiced upon!" How long have ignorance and immorality "practiced upon" the forming minds of childhood! and while, with the keenness of avarice, we have guarded the subordinate interests of property, to what rash hands have we committed the inappreciable interests of the mind and heart!

Assuming the necessity, or even the desirableness of elevating the standard of Common-School education, and adding to the qualifications of those teachers in whom is invested a charge of such vast responsibility, let us refer to the modes which have been proposed for the accomplishment of these objects.

It has been thought advisable that the means for the education of teachers should be provided in our colleges and universities. But no one supposes that teachers can be educated there without some change, both in the expenses and in the mode of teaching. A change in one particular alone would be productive of no beneficial result. If, for instance, the expenses should be diminished, and if, indeed, those persons who propose to devote themselves to the business of teaching were to be supported wholly at public expense, there would still remain the objection, that the course of studies pursued at these institutions, with a view to the learned professions, is not the one best adapted for the creation of a sympathy with the mind of a child; and, on the other hand, if the required changes were made in the course of instruction, there are few districts which would feel themselves able to employ a teacher so expensively educated.

Suppose both these objections to be anticipated by a diminution of the expense, and the creation of a department for the education of teachers. That department would then be subordinate to the other departments of the college, or those departments to the former; and, in either case, disunion of feeling and collision of interests would impair the usefulness of both. But, apart from this effect, the creation of such a department for the purposes indicated, or, to obviate still further the objection, the appropriation to them of all the departments of the college, would be, in one case, to ingraft a Normal School upon the institution of a college, and, in the other, to convert the college itself into a Normal School. The same general views apply to the use of our incorporated academies, for the purposes indicated, and their correctness has been fully verified by actual experiment. In the exercise of that enlightened liberality which for a long time has characterized the educational policy of the great State of New York, this identical plan was resorted to as a system of means to qualify the teachers of their Common Schools. An academy was selected in each of the eight senatorial districts, upon which was ingrafted a teachers' department. An ample appropriation was made for a library and apparatus, and a further sum for the salary of an additional instructor. The system won to itself the confidence of the community. The schools were well attended; the pupils were eagerly sought for as

instructors; and such was their success as to induce the Legislature to make still further appropriations for the extension of the system.

But it is in the science of education as in the laws of nature and the principles of art. One discovery or one improvement only prepares us for another, until we look with a feeling of derision upon those original developments which once commanded our unbounded admiration. Such, it would seem, was the progress of opinion as to this reform upon the educational system of New York. Great even as the advantages were which attended this provision, it was found that the plan was only a vein in the vast mine of improvement; and it was rightly supposed that, if the establishment of a department subordinate to other departments was attended with important results to the greatest interests of the State, surely the endowment of an entire institution for the same objects, having no rival aims, engrossed by no partial pursuits, weakened by no incidental or collateral purposes, not, like the mistletoe, insinuating its fibers into the substance of another body, and depending upon it for a precarious, parasitical existence, but striking its supporting roots deeply into the soil over which it was destined to throw its healthful shade, would concentrate, more effectually, the power of effort, and of course extend more widely and more deeply the advancement of learning.

Accordingly, the system of combining teachers' seminaries with academies has been abandoned. A Normal School has been established, with an endowment worthy of the wealth and character of that State. Already the effects of its establishment are visible, and the people look forward to its future influence with a firmer belief than the faith of prophecy.

We come to the consideration of the wisdom of that institution which has been established in our own State—which, in imitation of our example, has been adopted by New York, and which has long existed in other countries. Let us advert briefly to our own State history of Normal Schools.

The law of 1837, creating the Board of Education, made it its duty to submit to the Legislature such observations as experience and reflection might suggest upon the condition and efficiency of our system of popular education, and the most practicable means of improving and extending it.

In obedience to this call, the Board, in its First Annual Report, presented to the Legislature its views of the propriety of the establishment of an institution for the education of teachers, with a well-digested summary of the reasons in favor of such an institution; and the summary concluded with the expression of a sanguine hope that the resources of public or private liberality, applied to such an institution, would soon remedy the existing defects in the character of the teacher.

This appeal to the liberality of individuals was promptly met by one who places a proper estimate upon the usefulness of wealth. Prompted by the importance of the call, Edmund Dwight (I mention it for the hundredth time, because, upon an occasion like the present, our duties would be incomplete without a recognition of the generosity of the act) at once placed the sum of \$10,000 conditionally at the disposal of the Board, for the purposes indicated in their report.

The same Legislature, to which the report was made, accepted the donation, fulfilled the condition of its acceptance, and placed at their disposal a sum of equal amount, to be expended in qualifying teachers of our Common Schools. In carrying out the expressed intention of the Legislature, the Board established, at successive periods, three institutions for the instruction of teachers in "the theory and practice" of school-teaching; and when the fund which had been placed at their disposal was expended, the Legislature of 1842 appropriated the further sum of \$6000 annually, for three years, to secure their continuance.

Has this conduct, both of our Legislature and of the Board, proceeded from the dictates of a wise policy?

To strip this representation of its illustrations, the propositions may be presented thus:

The provision for the education of the people of the State, at the expense of the State, is essential to its prosperity. That people can only be educated in the Common Schools. Those schools are inadequate to the proper educational training of that people, by reason of the want of a proper degree of attainment

in the teachers. These teachers cannot be educated at our colleges and our academies. No other means are proposed for this purpose than those institutions in which they are to be taught the rules and principles for harmoniously unfolding the physical, the intellectual, and the moral nature of man. And *then* recurs the question—Is the establishment of such institutions the dictate of a wise policy?

It is not necessary to sustain the affirmative by argument. It needs none. The very statement is argument. Illustration cannot strengthen, reason cannot enforce it. What! Here, in Massachusetts, in the Old Colony, “that mother of us all,” shall we sit down gravely to discuss a proposition of which even barbarian ignorance has perceived the truth? For now, even now, when the skeptic cavils, and the cautious doubt, the sultan of Turkey has spoken! and, in his zeal for the introduction of the improvements of the age, he has followed an act of religious toleration by the establishment of a Normal School.

France, too, has spoken; and her voice comes to us in tones at once of encouragement and of warning. She has cultivated the intellect, but she has corrupted the heart. She has awakened the susceptibilities of the soul, but she has incited them to crime; and while she has shown us, by the example of intellectual training, of what the system is capable, she has admonished us to neglect not the improvement of those other powers, the harmonious development of which is alone the education of the man.

Prussia also has spoken; and when we contemplate the wonderful effects which the operation of her Normal Schools, for a generation, has wrought upon her people—the more strikingly wonderful, from the disparity which it has created between those who have enjoyed their benefits, and that other and more teachable sex, which, by its exclusion, has been cut off from a common sympathy—we are led to prize the more highly that beneficent provision of our own polity which declares that *all* the people shall be educated.

But, more than all, and above all, Massachusetts has spoken; and her voice sounds harmoniously with that of the great State of New York. She has watched the rise and progress of these institutions with a cautious dread of injudicious innovation, and yet with an earnest zeal for well-considered improvement. She has seen her doubts of their usefulness resolved by the light of experience, and she has incorporated them into her educational policy. The three State Normal Schools are now her recognized offspring, and until perfection shall have superseded the necessity of effort, she stands pledged to their support, by her past history and her present fame. The institution at Newton is Normal in its teachers, Normal in its accommodations, and Normal in the results which it has produced and is still producing. The institution at Westfield will start forth on the 3d of September next, with the means of renewed usefulness; and this day witnesses the commencement of a new effort, which is to extend a benignant influence through future ages.

And now, who will pronounce as unimportant and trifling the occasion of our assembling? Let us draw within the circle of our contemplation the prospective advantages which this institution promises, and see if our imagination clothes with too bright a hue the visions of the future.

We behold its teachers working with the plastic hand of an artist upon the immortal mind. We behold them, not like the painter, who makes the canvas glow with those delineations of genius which a few years will obliterate; not like the sculptor, who fashions and works out the features of greatness, the enduring marble of which the hand of time will soon destroy; but we contemplate them forming, and fashioning, and moulding beings who are to exist forever. Here they are to discipline the intellect, to train the feelings, to curb the passions, to inspire true motives of action, to inculcate pure principles of morality, and to instill that deep feeling of religious obligation which superadds to the precepts of philosophy the impulse of an enlightened conscience. Here are to be taught those doctrines of relation, a knowledge of which is essential to the security of political rights and the performance of social duties. Here are to be drawn out, and developed, and expanded, the illimitable faculties of a being formed in God's own image. Here, in a word, man is to be EDUCATED.

If this was to be the ultimate object of the establishment of this institution, and the pupils, who shall thus be educated, were to go forth only as future

fathers and mothers, and citizens, what might we not expect from their enlightened example!

But it has a more enlarged and extended purpose. The pupils who shall carry from these walls those principles which enlightened wisdom can alone impart, are to enter, year by year, those ten thousand seminaries, in which, day by day, are formed the hearts of the arbiters of this nation's destiny. They are to transfuse those principles into other minds. They are to multiply and extend those streams of improvement which, proceeding from this fountain, are destined to increase as they roll, and to fertilize as they flow.

Let, then, those two great States which have committed themselves to the fulfillment of this great effort, go on, hand in hand, with a unity never to be severed. Let their example be for the imitation of other States and the praise of all posterity. Then shall the hardest difficulties which beset the path of free governments smooth themselves out before us, and then shall the blessings of free institutions be bestowed upon the people, like the all-dispensing bounty of the rain and the sunshine.

ADDRESS

AT THE

DEDICATION OF THE WESTFIELD STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE,

BY REV. HEMAN HUMPHREY, D. D.,

September 3, 1846.

Friends and Patrons of Popular Education :

UNDER the smiles of a beneficent Providence, this beautiful edifice has been reared and finished ; and we are assembled to exchange our mutual congratulations upon the occasion. It is now ready for the reception of the Normal School, and it is fitting that, before its ample accommodations are thrown open, it should be dedicated to the cause for which its munificent benefactors designed it.

Next to the church, the school-house rose in the wildernesses of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay, under the saws and hammers of those sturdy Christian adventurers, "of whom the world was not worthy." Their deep and far-reaching policy was to educate their children for both worlds ; to prepare them, by early intellectual and moral training, to glorify God here, and to enjoy him forever in his kingdom. By providing every facility in our power for the extension and thoroughness of popular education, we are only following out the wise forecast of the men who scarcely waited for the thawing off of the icy mail with which they were clad when they landed, before they began to execute their purpose, that every child, however poor, in their infant Commonwealth, should receive at least what we now denominate a Common-School education.

Their school-houses, indeed, were cheap and humble structures, compared with the noble Grecian edifice which is henceforth to adorn this prosperous village, and open its doors indiscriminately to all the youth, far and near, who may wish to avail themselves of its advantages. They had no schools of a higher order for the training of their teachers ; but they did what they could. It would be a shame and a sin, if, with all our wealth, and all the experience and advance of two such centuries as the past, we should content ourselves with the standard of popular education as they left it, or as our fathers of the last generation left it. It is our duty to leave the first principles, and go on unto perfection.

The instructions of those who taught us in the primary schools, when we sat with our feet dangling upon the four-legged slabs, just from the saw-mill, are not to be undervalued. Considering the disadvantages under which they labored, it is remarkable that they accomplished so much as many of them did. But the best of our primary teachers have felt and do feel the want of a suitable education for the discharge of their responsible duties ; and there has for some time been a growing conviction in the public mind, that teaching ought to be elevated to the rank of a liberal profession, and that to meet the demand we must have a new class of professional seminaries. It is to supply this desideratum in our own State, that the Normal Schools of West Newton, Bridgewater, and Westfield have been established by individual and public munificence. It is confessedly an experiment of very great importance, and every facility ought to be afforded for testing its claims to public favor. In presenting my own thoughts on the subject to this enlightened audience, I shall touch

Upon the urgent demand for better qualified teachers in our Common Schools :

Upon the reasons why those who are to be teachers should be educated with special reference to the profession ;

Upon what is embraced in a good professional teacher's education ; and

Upon the adaptation of the Normal system of instruction to give such education.

Each of these topics affords ample scope for an opening discourse ; and upon more than one of them I would gladly dwell much longer than my limits will allow.

To glance at the first. The proposition is that there is an urgent demand for

better qualified teachers in our Common Schools. It is an axiom in every trade and profession, that a man must first learn the trade, must study his profession—in other words, must be *educated* for it before he commences. A blacksmith is no blacksmith at all until he has learned how to smite the anvil and shoe horses. Before a man sets up for a tailor, he must serve a regular apprenticeship. A cabinet-maker must learn the use of tools before he can make sofas and sideboards. The jeweler must know how to cut, and polish, and set precious stones. The physician, the lawyer, the clergyman, the college faculty, must all be educated for their respective professions, to entitle them to public confidence. This is the general rule. Is the schoolmaster an exception? Can he teach others what he has never learned himself? Is it safe to confide the education of our children to a mere tyro; to one who has never been trained himself in elementary studies? He may be very honest and very faithful; but can he teach reading, or grammar, or arithmetic, or surveying, if he is a poor reader of the plainest prose, and gets bewildered every day among the tenses, and is sure to lose the points of compass, and find himself a staring left-hand cipher at his wits' end, whenever he ventures into the regions of fractions?

I have no disposition to depreciate the talents or the labors of our primary teachers. In mental power and moral worth, they will not suffer in comparison with any equally numerous class of men and women in the community. The *material* is excellent. It is of the genuine Saxon growth. The world cannot furnish a better. As a class, our teachers are doing what they can to raise the standard of popular education. They work hard. They do as well as they know how. In these respects they are entitled to our confidence and our thanks. As a class, I honor, and so far as I am able, will defend them. They have laid the Commonwealth under lasting obligations of gratitude and encouragement; and if she had done more for them, they would have done more for her.

But it cannot be concealed or disputed, that our schools are suffering for want of better qualified instructors. Very few of our teachers have been systematically educated for the profession. By far the greater number have never enjoyed the advantages of thorough professional training at all. They have been left to educate themselves as best they could, and that mainly by the process of experience in teaching. It seems not, till lately, to have entered the minds of more than a few, even of the enlightened friends of our Common Schools, that teachers' seminaries are at all necessary. It had been taken for granted that the demand, as in political economy, would create a supply; and that any person who has received a good common education himself must be competent to teach little children in a district school. The consequence is, that while we have educated shoemakers, and carpenters, and goldsmiths enough—that is, men brought up to their business—we have but few educated schoolmasters. As juster views are now taken of the subject, and are extending among the people, the complaint is growing louder and louder, that nothing like a supply of competent teachers can be had. After the most diligent inquiry, they cannot be found. Respectable districts, by scores and hundreds, are obliged to take up with such as have no pretension to the requisite qualifications.

On this subject the annual reports of school committees, from all parts of the Commonwealth, are alarmingly instructive. I might quote their complaints till sunset, that it is impossible to have good schools for want of good teachers. Many who offer themselves for examination are deficient in every thing; in spelling, in reading, in penmanship, in geography, in grammar, in common arithmetic. There is not a single branch which they are capable of teaching arithmetically and correctly. Many others are but little better qualified; and the majority would be dismissed and advised to go back to their domestic and rural employments, if competent instructors could be had. The demand for such teachers is great, and it is increasing.

We will next inquire into the reasons why those who are to be teachers should be educated with special reference to the profession. Whatever a man undertakes, the importance of his knowing how to do it, rises in proportion to the magnitude of the interests involved and the difficulties to be overcome. In some cases, the first bungler that comes along may be employed, where no better man offers, because, if he fails, it is very little matter; but, in other cases, it would be madness to employ any but an experienced workman. You may let any body

hoe your potato-patch who is willing to undertake it; but the ship in which you intend to circumnavigate the globe must be built by first-rate workmen.

When you bring a teacher into one of your primary schools of forty or fifty children, and put him in communication with their opening and ductile minds, what is the task which he has before him?

In the first place, what is the material upon which he is to exercise his skill; which he is to mold, and fashion, and polish? If it were a coarse and vulgar substance, it might go into rough hands, and take its chance. But it is something infinitely more precious and ductile than the finest gold. It is the intelligent, the immortal mind, or, rather, it is half a hundred such minds, sparkling around the teacher, and all opening to his plastic touch. It is—what shall I say? a substance of the finest mold, that can be fashioned and chiseled like the Grecian Apollo? No! it is a spiritual essence, fresh from the skies. It is a mysterious emanation from the infinite Source of being and intelligence, an immortal mind—ever present, though always invisible, in the school-room—seeing, hearing, thinking, expanding; always ready to take the slightest impression for good or for evil, and certain to be influenced every hour, one way or the other, by the teacher. What a responsibility! What a task!

Consider the kind of substance upon which the schoolmaster is either skillfully or unskillfully tracing the first lines that it receives, after the invisible cipher of the nursery, and what the sketching upon such a tablet ought to be. He might go down to the sea-shore, when the tide is out, and write as rudely as he pleased, and the first reflux wave would wash the surface just as smooth as the last ebb left it. He might draw his awkward diagrams upon the drifted snow-bank, and the first breath of air would whisk them away. He might write out his lessons like a wise man or a fool, and it would make no difference; the next hour would obliterate them all.

But it is not so in the school-house. Every tablet there is more durable than brass. Every line that the teacher traces upon the mind of the scholar is, as it were, "graven with the point of a diamond." Rust will eat up the hardest metals; time and the elements will wear out the deepest chiseling in marble; and if the painter could dip his pencil in the rainbow, the colors would at length fade from the canvas. But the spirits, the impressible minds of that group of children, in however humble circumstances, are immortal. When they have outlived the stars, they will only have entered upon the infancy of their being. And there is reason to believe that no impression made upon them will ever be obliterated. Forgotten, during shorter or longer periods of time, many things may be; but the cipher, without the erasure of a single line, in all probability remains, to be brought out by the tests of a dying hour, or the trial of the last day. The schoolmaster literally speaks, writes, teaches, paints, for eternity. They are immortal beings, whose minds are as clay to the seal under his hand. And who is sufficient for these things?

Just look at the case in another light. They are the children of a hundred and thirty or forty thousand families, who, as they successively become old enough, are receiving their education in the Common Schools of Massachusetts. At present, they are under tutors and governors, and have no direct influence, one way or the other, upon the great interests of the Commonwealth. But who are they? Go with me from school to school, from town to town, and from county to county, and let us inquire. On that little form directly in front of the teacher, sits a distinguished and skillful physician. Just behind him you see one of the prominent members of the General Court. On another bench, behind the door, sits a professor of mathematics, biting his pencil and puzzling over the rule of three. On the other side of the room, that chubby boy is none other than the Secretary of State. In the next school we find here a governor of the Commonwealth, reading in tables of two syllables; there, from one of the poorest families of the district, an importing merchant, worth half a million of dollars; and close by his side one of the shrewdest lawyers in the county. Going on to the next school-house, in the remotest corner of the town, we find a selectman, a sheriff, a professor of languages, and, besides a number of enterprising and prosperous farmers and mechanics, perhaps a representative to Congress. But we must not be partial in our visits. Let us take the cars and go into another section of the State, and see what we can find there. The very first boy we over-

take trudging along toward the village school-house, with his dinner-basket in one hand, and his skates in the other, is the chief-justice of the Commonwealth. We enter, and who should we find there but the president of a great railroad company; also one of the richest bankers in State-street; two or three clergymen, of as many different denominations; a chemist, a town clerk, a judge of probate, and a great civil engineer. In the next school we see a United States senator at the blackboard; a physician just getting out of his a-b-abs; a brigadier-general trying to make straight marks upon his pasteboard slate; an honorable counselor digging out his first sentence in parsing, and half a dozen school-teachers, some in "baker," some in "a-cat-may-look-on-a-king," and some in "a-i-l, to be troubled."

But we are not through yet. In the very next school we visit—it may be in Boston, it may be in the obscurest mountain town of the interior, it may be on the sea-board, or under the shadow of Wachusett—we find an associate judge of the Supreme Court, or an attorney-general, or a foreign ambassador, or, speaking in the past tense, a president of the United States.

Thus, were we to visit all the primary schools of the Commonwealth, we should be sure to find nearly all the ministers, lawyers, physicians, judges, legislators, professors, and other teachers, merchants, manufacturers, and, in short, all the most intelligent, active, and useful men of the next generation in these schools. We cannot now point them out by name. We cannot tell who of them will be governors, and judges, and merchant princes; but in winter, or summer, or both, they are all there. They are receiving the rudiments of their education under such teachers as we provide for them, and in the period of life when the most lasting impressions are made. More, I will venture to say, is done during the first ten or twelve years, in the humble district school-house, to give tone and shape to the popular mind, than in all the years that follow. Bad habits of reading, or slovenly habits of writing, or loose habits of reciting and thinking, which are contracted there, will cling to most men as long as they live; while, on the contrary, the permanent advantages of a good beginning, under competent instructors, are witnessed and acknowledged by all. It has been so in Massachusetts from the beginning.

Her great men have commenced their education in the common school-house. And "the thing that hath been is that which shall be, and that which is done is that which shall be done, as one generation passeth and another cometh." In less than half a century, all the professions in our noble State will be filled, all the offices will be held, all the business will be done, and nearly all the property will be owned, by the boys who first graduate at our Common Schools, and whose parents are too poor to give them a better education. It will be so as long as these schools are sustained and open to all: and they will do more or less to elevate the moral and intellectual character of the people, as the teachers are thoroughly or superficially educated. Every faithful and well-qualified instructor in the humblest district school is a public benefactor. But where shall the school committees look for a sufficient number of such, till Teachers' Seminars furnish them?

It is not so well considered as it should be, that education is both a science and an art. Though not one of the exact sciences, it rests on deep and complicated elementary principles, and calls for a more careful study of the early susceptibilities and operations of the human mind than any other science. Every child has, if I may so speak, *three* natures—a physical, a mental, and a moral, between which there are mysterious sympathies and connections, that reciprocally govern and are governed. He has organs of sense, which are the inlets of knowledge, and without which he could not learn any thing, however skillful the teacher. He would still have a mind, but it would be a prisoner, groping hopelessly in a dungeon. He has perception, reason, memory, and imagination. He can learn and apply rules, understand propositions, and in simple examples see the connection between premises and conclusions. He can be stimulated and swayed by motives, and is peculiarly alive to their influence. He is susceptible of a great variety of opposite emotions—of hope and fear; of joy and sorrow; of love and hatred. But I need not enumerate. Every child in the primary school has a moral as well as a rational nature—has a *conscience*. He can discern between good and evil. He knows the difference between right and wrong;

between truth and falsehood. In short, he has within him all the elements of high responsibility; all the noble faculties of an accountable and immortal being. But these faculties are yet to be unfolded, to be cultivated, to be *educated*. The understanding needs it. The memory needs it. The imagination needs it. The conscience and the heart need it.

This is what I mean by education as an *art*; and the art here, as in most other cases, is founded upon the science. It is seizing upon the elements and reducing them to order—it is arranging and applying fundamental principles. It is molding the mind, and stimulating it to high and noble aims. It is drawing out its powers, teaching it its own strength, and making it work, as the incumbent atmosphere does the steam-engine. In fine, it is the art of educating the whole man, of symmetrically cultivating all the powers and faculties of the pupil's mind, and training him up to the love and practice of all the virtues. In this view, education holds a high, if not the highest rank among the liberal and useful arts. But it is no more intuitive than any of them. The art of educating, as well as every other art, must be studied, must be learned. Though it be not essential that every schoolmaster should be a profound intellectual and moral philosopher, it is necessary that he should understand what the motive power in the child's mind is, and how to reach it.

It would be mere commonplace to add that no one can teach what he does not understand himself. He may try; and when he gets fairly swamped, he may look as wise as an owl upon a hollow tree. He may blunder along over the recitation like a bewildered militia-man in an enemy's country, and bless himself that he has got through some how or other; but this is not teaching. It is mumbling and hesitating; and, in the last resort, knocking a difficulty on the head as an impudent intruder, or shying round it as if it lay coiled and hissing in his path, like a serpent. It seems to be strangely overlooked, in many quarters, even to this day, that a competent education for teaching embraces a great deal more than a general and superficial knowledge of spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and geography. But really it is time for every body to understand the difference between smattering in school, six hours a day, and teaching thoroughly, accurately, in all the studies. Every branch should, if possible, be as familiar to the instructor as the first lessons in the child's reader. If it is not at his tongue's end, he labors under very great embarrassment. He has no time to study out the lessons as he goes along. He needs to be as sure and prompt as a percussion-lock. He *must* be, in order to do full justice to his school.

Just consider for a moment what is required of him, every day and every hour. In the first place, the school is to be brought under strict subordination before he can begin to teach. Half a hundred children, often more, of all ages, are to be *governed*, or they will soon govern him, as they do their parents at home. Even after his authority is established, it requires the eyes of an Argus to keep them in subjection and close to their studies. This, of itself, would be a laborious task. Let any one who doubts and theorizes, try it, and he will see. But it is a trifle compared with what the sole teacher of a large district school has to do. Look in upon him, and judge for yourselves. He must hear from five to ten classes in as many different branches before the clock strikes twelve, and must do it in the midst of constant interruptions. Mr. A., may I go to the fire—may I go out—may I get some snow and put into my ink—may I go home and get my slate? Mr. A., will you mend my pen—will you show me how to do this sum? I have worked upon it two hours, and it won't come right now. I wonder what such hard sums were made for. Mr. A., Sam pinched me. Mr. A., Ben keeps pulling my hair. Mr. A., Mr. A., Bill studies so loud that I can't get my lesson. Mr. A., what time is it? Mother says I must go home at three o'clock, and do the chores.

These are a few specimens of the thousand and one questions and other interruptions by which the teacher of a Common School is harassed from morning to night, till his patience is worn threadbare. What, then, in the mean time, is to become of his recitations? The classes must go on in spite of all this, if they are to read, and spell, and recite at all. The sun will not stop for the pens to be mended, nor for the tongues to cease. Woe to the master who cannot attend to more than one or two things at once! If, when a class gets up to read, he is

obliged to take the book and follow them, line by line, to see whether they call the words right and mind the stops, as I have sometimes myself witnessed, who will keep the school in order, and all the rest of the machinery in gear and in motion? Poor man! how I pity him from the bottom of my heart! and how I pity the school too! So, when he calls up a class in grammar, or in arithmetic, if he is obliged to direct his whole attention to the lesson; if the slightest transposition or anomaly in the construction of a sentence sends him to his accidence to puzzle it out, while the whole class is waiting, dubious of his success; or if the nine digits, with their characteristic obstinacy, bring him to a dead stand in some of the common rules, and oblige him to adjourn the recitation over night, what, in the mean time, must become of all the other exercises and interests of the school? If any teacher in the world needs to have every thing by heart, it is the teacher of a common school. He has so many classes, so many branches, so many wheels to keep in motion, so many things to divide his attention, that, if he is not thoroughly educated himself, it is impossible for him to do justice to those who are committed to his care. It may be no fault of his that he is deficient in some, or even in all the branches of popular education. He may never have been thoroughly educated himself. Considering his limited advantages, he may do better than could have been expected; but such a man will feel his deficiencies, and the school will suffer in spite of his best endeavors.

What, then, is to be done? Where and how are our schoolmasters and school-mistresses to be better educated? There is no want of the material. We have young men and young women enough in Massachusetts who would prove themselves worthy of the highest public confidence as teachers if they could but be regularly trained to the profession. But while all admit that there is a great demand for more thoroughly qualified teachers in the public schools, some suppose that it can be fully met by the colleges and academies of the State. I have no disposition to undervalue these seminaries. They are the glory of the Commonwealth. No one will dispute the ability of our colleges to give just such an education as every schoolmaster wants. They are furnished with the ablest instructors, and teach many things which are far in advance of what the public schools require. But the colleges have no teachers' department, and do not pretend to qualify their graduates and undergraduates for common schoolmasters. Some of them teach the winter schools, to be sure; and it seems to be taken for granted, that because they have studied Greek and Latin, and Conic Sections, they must know all about the branches of Common-School education. This is one of the best examples of *non sequitur* that I can think of. Because a young man can read Demosthenes and calculate eclipses, he must be eminently qualified to teach a primary school! It is no disparagement to some of the best classical scholars to say, that they are not fit for common schoolmasters. They are above the employment, but not equal to it. They can educate teachers a great deal better than they can teach the a-b-abs, and "When the sky falls, we shall catch larks." Experience abundantly proves that many who go from college halls to try their hand in district school-houses, are greatly surpassed by some who never saw a college in their lives; and if it were the main object of a collegiate education to furnish schoolmasters, every one must see how very inadequate would be the supply.

The academies can do more than the colleges in educating teachers, and they are entitled to a great deal of credit for what they have done; but something more is wanted. While I cannot agree with those, on the one hand, who speak disparagingly of our academies, as teachers' seminaries, I am equally unable, on the other, to coincide with those who think we need no other class of Teachers' Institutes. The truth, it seems to me, lies between these two extremes. Let the academies do what they can. There is room for their most strenuous endeavors, without interfering at all with the recent movement on the part of benevolent individuals and the State in the same direction. If a sufficient number of Teachers' Seminaries could be established to educate all the schoolmasters and mistresses that are wanted, the case would be different. But when we remember that there are more than *three thousand* school districts in Massachusetts, requiring almost double the number of teachers (including winter and summer schools), it seems as if every one must see that the agency of the academies in helping to furnish them cannot be dispensed with. Let those of them

which already have teachers' departments, make them still more thorough, and let others come into the same arrangement. Still, there will be ample room for another class of seminaries, conveniently located in different parts of the Commonwealth, exclusively devoted to the education of teachers, both male and female.

Our three State Normal Schools are just these seminaries. Their sole object is to raise the standard of popular education by furnishing the Public Schools with abler teachers than they now have, or can have, without some such provision. Leaving to our excellent academies the task of fitting young men for college, and for the various departments of business, they propose to take as many promising youth of both sexes as they can accommodate, and qualify them thoroughly for teaching. This, and this only, is what the Normal Schools propose; and it is too plain to need argument, that, with good accommodations and able teachers, they can do more than the academies and high schools in this particular department. They must do more to entitle themselves to public confidence and patronage.

Are they, then, just such Teachers' Seminaries as we want? Let us visit them and see. The accommodations are ample, and all the arrangements highly convenient. The buildings are new and handsome. The grounds are inviting, and such ornaments as time alone can add, will make them still more so. The locations are healthful, and far removed from dangerous allurements. The principals are men who have distinguished themselves as able and successful teachers in the Common Schools, and their assistants are selected with special regard to the requisite qualifications. By the wise and liberal policy of the State, tuition is free. Every branch of Common-School education is taught, and much more thoroughly taught, than, for the want of time, any of these branches can be in our best academies. Let those who doubt it go into one of these Normal Schools, and witness the drilling, and listen to the recitations, for a single forenoon, and judge for themselves. No scholar escapes; no one can be superficial or hesitate without being made to feel it to the quick. The design is to make prompt and able teachers, by giving line upon line, and precept upon precept; to make them so familiar with the whole range of studies, that when they come to take charge of the schools, they shall never be at a loss, never keep a class waiting while they turn over books to refresh their own memories. The object is, as far as practicable, to make every teacher as true and quick as steel; and this cannot be done but by severe drilling, by waking up the mind to its best efforts, and keeping it wide awake from morning to night. To be a first-rate schoolmaster, a man must be able to attend to twenty things at once. To this end, he must be perfectly at home in all the studies, as I have before said; and I am satisfied there is no such place for getting armed and equipped at all points, as in a good Normal School. If any branch is superficially taught in these schools, it must be the fault of the principal or his assistants; and if any incompetent or unfaithful instructor should ever be retained, it will be the fault of the Board of Education.

But something more is necessary to furnish the best class of teachers, than the thorough instruction of which I have spoken, and much more is actually done in the Normal Schools. The best methods of teaching, and of the management and government of Common Schools, are made prominent topics of familiar lectures and conversation. And to make these instructions in the highest degree practical, each of our Normal Schools has what is called a Model Primary School attached to it, where, in turn, the Normal scholars have opportunity to try their skill in teaching and governing, under the general superintendence of the Principal. Besides all this, public sentiment demands that the Bible should be made a text-book; and every Principal is expected to give moral lectures and religious instruction, weekly, if not daily, in the school-room. While the Board, under whose control the State has placed this and the other Normal Schools, would not countenance any mere sectarian obtrusion on the part of instructors, they would not, I am persuaded, continue any one in his place who should reject the Christian Scriptures, or omit to inculcate their divine precepts upon those who are to be the future teachers of our Common Schools. Mere neutrality in religion on the part of any principal, were absolute neutrality possible, would not be tolerated, I am sure, by the present Board. And if I thought the day would

ever come when the high and eternal sanctions of the Christian religion should no longer be held up in the Normal Schools, my fervent prayer would be, that then "one stone might not be left upon another."

I have spoken thus far upon the direct agency which well-managed Normal Schools must needs have in raising the standard of popular education through the teachers whom they educate; but if they succeed, there will be an *indirect* influence, equally auspicious, if not more so. The public expect, and have a right to expect, that they will send out *model teachers*; not that all will be superior to those who have gone before them; but that some, that *many* will excel, in proportion to their superior advantages; and that their better and more thorough methods of instruction will be copied by other teachers. This is the order of nature in the progress of all human improvements. The few who are most highly endowed, or best instructed, are looked up to as models by the masses in every community. The fortunate inventor of a labor-saving machine, or the discoverer of some new principle in physical science, is a public benefactor, even though he should not teach one in a thousand the use of the machine or the application of the principle. The man who invents a new and improved model of a steam-engine, or builds a better water-wheel than any before in use, or brings out from his power-looms a handsomer and more substantial fabric than any other manufacturer, or makes a cheaper and better button, while he fills his own pockets, virtually teaches a thousand others how to do the same thing. The model, or the article manufactured, is before them, and their own eyes and ingenuity do the rest. So it is in all the useful and ornamental arts; so it is in agriculture; so it is in building bridges and making roads. A single turnpike, passing through a section of country where the scraper had never been seen before, will, in a short time, wonderfully improve all the cross-roads for miles and miles on both sides of it. It is the model road for all the highway surveyors far and near. So with the agricultural school. Though the pupils may be few in number, yet when they come to be scattered abroad over the farming districts, they will not only teach others what they have been taught themselves, but thousands will watch their improved methods of cultivation, and profit by them.

The same thing is true in popular education. The public are benefited, both directly and indirectly, by every improved method of instruction. Though the teachers from the Normal Schools should, for some years to come, bear but a small proportion to the whole number of schoolmasters and mistresses in the Commonwealth, while they will be raising up a class of teachers under their own improved and thorough methods of instruction, just so far as they rise above the ordinary level, their schools will become model schools for all the neighboring districts. Every valuable improvement in teaching and governing will in time be copied, and thus the indirect agency of the Normal Schools, in raising the standard of general education, will be extended far beyond the limits of their direct and immediate influence.

I am aware that these anticipations may be regarded as quite too sanguine by some who take a deep interest in the improvement of our Public Schools. They may demand of us how much the Common Schools have yet been benefited by the Normal Seminaries, and, because their expectations have not been answered, may set down the experiment as but little short of a failure. But they ought in fairness to consider that there has not yet been time enough to test it. It was commenced but seven years ago, and under several disadvantages. We had no teachers who had themselves been trained up under the system. When they began, they had much to learn, as well as every thing to teach. And they had no suitable accommodations. It is only the last year that the first school-house was built, and the other two are now just finished. Teachers cannot be thoroughly educated in a few months under the best system that ever was devised. A regular course requires two or three years of close study. But few have enjoyed the advantages of the system at all; and the most highly favored have not had time to show what they can do since they left the schools and began to teach. It would be quite unreasonable, therefore, to judge of the adaptation of the Normal system to the wants of our Public Schools, by what has already been accomplished. Give it a fair trial, and if it does not meet the reasonable expectations of an enlightened public, let it be abandoned.

The great difficulty hitherto has been to keep the pupils long enough in pro-

fessional training. The Board have done what they could by their recommendations and by-laws. The secretary and the principals have exhausted their persuasions, I will not say in vain, but without any thing like that degree of success which they have fairly earned. We are obliged to confess, that in this respect we have been disappointed. We did suppose that fine accommodations, free tuition, and the best instruction, would be sufficient inducements, not only to fill up the schools, but to secure attendance for a reasonable length of time. In this, I say, we have been disappointed. Many have remained but a single term, but few have given themselves time for the whole course, and the Normal Schools have been held answerable for their deficiencies. This is unreasonable. Nobody ever pretended that the new system could work miracles—that coming in at one door and going out at the other would make good teachers. The Normal Schools claim no supernatural advantages over other seminaries. Thorough training for any profession is a slow and arduous process. The Board of Education are extending the time as fast as public sentiment will sustain them; and they hope to be able, within a reasonable period, to make it a condition that those who enter shall remain long enough to reap all the substantial advantages which the system offers.

But notwithstanding these disadvantages, those who have had the best opportunities for judging and comparing, will bear us out in claiming, that many of the teachers from the Normal Seminaries have distinguished themselves already in the primary schools, and are giving still brighter promise, from year to year, of what may be expected hereafter. Where they can be had, the normal trained teachers are generally preferred; and experience, with some exceptions, no doubt, justifies the preference.

Let it not be said or surmised that this is a scheme to drive other worthy teachers from the schools. It is rather to aid them and add to their numbers. They cannot be spared. Not one district in ten could obtain a teacher from a Normal School if ever so much disposed, and for a long time yet to come the great majority must be trained elsewhere. Let them be trained. Let the most strenuous efforts be made by other seminaries to raise the standard of popular education, by furnishing better qualified schoolmasters and mistresses than have yet been raised up, and we will rejoice in the highest measure of their success. Let a competent number of well-educated teachers be provided, through whatever agency, and the Board will mingle their congratulations with all who labor in the same noble cause.

Friends of popular education—as I am sure you all are—ministers, laymen, parents, teachers, school committees, let me stir you up to your duties. A nobler field for action, for educational labors and improvements than our own beloved Commonwealth furnishes, the sun does not shine upon. A richer legacy than our religious institutions and Common Schools never came down from a wise and pious ancestry. Some things can be done up, and then dismissed as requiring no further care or labor; but it is not so with education. Like household work, it is always returning and never done.

We have none the less to do because our fathers did so much, nor will our children be eased of the burden by our highest efforts to raise the standard. All the toil is to be gone over again by each successive generation. It is a circle which returns upon itself, and will continue to return to the end of time. The procession of children coming upon the stage has no end. Wait we ever so long, it will not pass by. When we depart, they will still be coming, and in closer ranks than ever. Those who are centuries behind will surely come, and the great business of every generation will be to educate the children of the next. What, therefore, our hands find to do, let us do it with our might.

Citizens of Westfield, we congratulate you upon your educational enterprise and privileges. Few towns in the Commonwealth have acted upon a wiser forecast. Besides your primary schools, with doors wide open to every child, however poor, you have one of the oldest and most flourishing academies in the State; not waxing and waning, as many do, but always flourishing under able teachers and a supervision which forbids its decline. With these high advantages you might have rested satisfied. But when the western Normal School was to be permanently located, you entered into an honorable competition for the additional facilities which it would bring to your doors. Favored by your

natural advantages, and entitling yourselves by liberal subscriptions to the preference, you succeeded. The school which had been for some time suspended was brought here, and reopened with temporary accommodations, and now this new and beautiful edifice is to receive it. Much will it depend on your co-operation with the Board and with the teachers for its prosperity. Upon your aid in accommodating the scholars from abroad on reasonable terms, and guarding them against those moral dangers which so easily beset the young, we confidently rely. You will not disappoint this expectation. You will cherish this seminary as you do your schools and academy. To the cause of good learning we dedicate it. To the care and benediction of Heaven we commend it. May it more than answer the sanguine hopes of its projectors, in furnishing teachers of a high order for many generations.

ASSOCIATIONS AND AGENCIES

FOR THE

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

IN addition to the annual appropriation of seven thousand dollars for the support of the State Normal Schools, Massachusetts makes an annual contribution in aid of several associations of teachers, for their professional improvement, and the advancement of education generally.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

A Teachers' Institute, as the term is now used, is an assemblage of teachers for a period extending from one to four weeks, for the purpose of reviewing the studies they are to teach, and to witness, and to some extent practice, the best methods of arranging and conducting the classes of a school, as well as of obtaining the matured ideas of experienced teachers on topics of educational improvement. They bear a close resemblance to the conferences of teachers, provided for in the school laws of Prussia and France.

Massachusetts* was the first state to afford legislative encouragement to Teachers' Institutes. The sum of twenty-five hundred dollars a year is placed at the disposal of the Board of Education, to defray certain expenses incident to this class of meetings.

Whenever "reasonable assurance" is given to the Board, that a number of teachers of common schools, not less than fifty, shall desire to assemble for the purpose of forming a Teachers' Institute, and to remain in session for such period of time as the Board shall determine; the Board, by a committee, or by their secretary, or, in case of his inability, by such person or persons as they may delegate, are to appoint a time and place for a meeting, make suitable arrangements therefor, and give due notice thereof.

The Board, or their committee or appointee, must engage teachers and lecturers for each institute that may be called; provide rooms, fires, lights, attendance, and so forth; but, for these purposes, they are not authorized to expend, on any one institute, a greater sum than two hundred dollars. By a regulation of the Board, the personal expenses of the secretary of the Board, incurred in calling and attending the institutes, may be defrayed from said sum of two hundred dollars; but no extra allowance is made for his services. The personal expenses of the members for travel, board, and so forth, are to be defrayed by themselves. The committee of the Board, their secretary, or, in his absence, the person appointed by them or him, stands in the same relation to the institute in which a teacher stands to his school.

* The following notices are taken from Mr. Mann's "*Tenth Annual Report.*"

The instruction at the institutes is designed to be of such a character as shall furnish a model for common school exercises, although the former will naturally partake more of the oral method than the latter. Owing to the shortness of the time during which the institutes are usually held, they can do but little besides giving some practical skill—some knowledge of the *art* of teaching. For a mastery of principles, or an indoctrination into the *science* of teaching, Normal Schools must be the main and the only unfailing reliance, in any system of common schools.

The evenings of the session are usually occupied by debates, or by lecturers, who treat of any of the important topics embraced in the vast range of common school interests.

COUNTY ASSOCIATIONS OF TEACHERS.

Whenever any county association of teachers, and others, shall hold semi-annual meetings of not less than two days each, for the express purpose of promoting the interests of common schools, such associations are entitled to receive fifty dollars a year from the state. For obtaining this sum, the president and secretary of the association must certify, under oath, to the governor, that two such semi-annual meetings have been held. The governor will then draw his warrant on the treasurer of the commonwealth.

At the head of this class of associations, stands that of Essex county, which was formed in August, 1830, and which has held a semi-annual meeting every year to the present time, and was never exerting a better influence on the teachers themselves, or their schools, than now. Its object is declared to be "the improvement of teachers and the system of education generally."

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Massachusetts Teachers' Association was formed on the 25th of November, 1845, at a meeting of more than two hundred "practical teachers" from every section of the commonwealth, on the call of the Essex County Teachers' Association. The association meets annually, and continues in session two days for lectures and discussions on topics of educational and professional improvement. In 1847, "a committee of publication" was appointed, under whose direction the "Massachusetts Teacher" was commenced, in 1848, and has since been issued monthly. The state appropriates one hundred and fifty dollars annually in aid of the objects of the association.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

This institution had its origin at a meeting of teachers and other friends of education, in Boston, on the 15th of March, 1830. A committee then appointed, reported to a convention, composed of several hundred persons, mostly teachers, from eleven different states of the Union, which met in the Representatives Hall, on the 19th of August, in the same year, a constitution, which, with some alterations, was adopted.

The object set forth in the constitution is, "the diffusion of useful knowledge in regard to education." This object has been gained by the delivery of valuable lectures, and the discussion of interesting topics relating to popular education, at the annual meeting in August, which usually continues for five or six days, and the subsequent publication of the same in an annual volume, now amounting to twenty. These lectures and papers have been prepared by some of the most distinguished educators and literary men in our country; and, at the time of the delivery, and since, have done much to advance common education and the improvement of teachers. Much of what we now witness and rejoice in, as evidence of increased interest in this all-embracing good cause, can be traced back to the efforts of the members of this Institute, at their anniversary, and in their own spheres of usefulness and labor at home.

Well might President Wayland, in his introductory discourse, in 1830, say: "In the long train of her joyous anniversaries, New England has yet beheld no one more joyous than this. We have assembled to-day, not to proclaim how well our fathers have done, but to inquire how we may enable their sons to do better. We meet, not for the purpose of empty pageant, nor yet of national rejoicing, but to deliberate upon the most successful means of cultivating to its highest perfection, that invaluable amount of intellect which Divine Providence has committed to our hands. We meet to give to each other the right hand of fellowship in carrying forward this all-important work; and here to leave our professional pledge, that if each succeeding generation does not act worthily, the guilt shall not rest upon those who are the instructors of New England." In conclusion, he adds, the teacher "has chosen a noble profession. What can be more delightful to a philanthropic mind, than to behold intellectual power increased a hundred-fold by our exertions, talent developed by our assiduity, passions eradicated by our counsel, and multitudes of men pouring abroad over society the luster of a virtuous example, and becoming meet to be inheritors with the saints in light; and all in consequence of the direction we have given them in youth. It becomes us, then, to act worthily of our station. Let us, by all the means in our power, second the efforts and the wishes of the public. Let us see that the first steps in this course are taken wisely. This country ought to be the best educated on the face of the earth. By the blessing of Heaven, we can do much toward the making of it so. God helping us, then, let us make our mark upon the rising generation."

This spirit has characterised many of the eminent teachers who have lectured before the Institute, and have made the anniversary meetings seasons of rejoicing, and congratulation, and encouragement in the great work of school improvement.

The state has appropriated annually, since 1836, three hundred dollars in aid of the publications, and other objects of the Association. The annual volume of proceedings and lectures constitute a valuable part of the educational literature of the country. Many of these lectures have been re-published in England.

LECTURES AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION from 1830 to 1847. Eighteen volumes. Boston: Ticknor.

These volumes embrace more than 150 lectures and essays, on a great variety of important topics, by some of the ablest scholars and most successful teachers in the country.

CONTENTS.—VOL. I, for 1830. Introductory Discourse, by *President Wayland*. *Lecture I.* Physical Education, by *John C. Warren*, M. D. *Lecture II.* The Development of the Intellectual Facilities, and on Teaching Geography, by *James G. Carter*. *Lecture III.* The Infant School System, by *William Russell*. *Lecture IV.* The Spelling of Words, and a Rational Method of Teaching their Meaning, by *Gideon F. Thayer*. *Lecture V.* Lyceums and Societies for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, by *Nehemiah Cleaveland*. *Lecture VI.* Practical Method of Teaching Rhetoric, by *Samuel P. Newman*. *Lecture VII.* Geometry and Algebra, by *F. J. Grund*. *Lecture VIII.* The Monitorial System of Instruction, by *Henry K. Oliver*. *Lecture IX.* Vocal Music, by *William C. Woodbridge*. *Lecture X.* Linear Drawing, by *Walter R. Johnson*. *Lecture XI.* Arithmetic, by *Warren Colburn*. *Lecture XII.* Classical Learning, by *Cornelius C. Felton*. *Lecture XIII.* The Construction and Furnishing of School-Rooms and School Apparatus, by *William J. Adams*.

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ture VI. Relation between the Board of Trustees and the Faculty of a University, &c., by *Jasper Adams*. Lecture VII. School Reform, or Teachers' Seminaries, by *Charles Brooks*. Lecture VIII. Teaching of Composition in Schools, by *R. G. Parker*. Lecture IX. Evils of the Present System of Primary Instruction, by *Thomas H. Palmer*. Lecture X. Reading and Declamation, by *William Russell*.

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VOL. XVIII, for 1847.—Journal of Proceedings. List of Officers. Lecture I. On the Study of Language, by *Hubbard Winslow*. Lecture II. On the Appropriateness of Studies to the State of Mental Development, by *Thomas P. Rodman*.

AGENTS OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

In 1850, the Board of Education were authorized to appoint two Agents to visit schools, deliver addresses, and in other ways to co-operate with their Secretary in his labors.

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS.

Although the State has not granted aid to any Educational Journal, there has been one or more published in the state since 1826.

On the 1st of January, 1826, the first number of the American Journal of Education, the first periodical devoted to the subject, which had appeared in the English language, was commenced, and with that title, and as the Annals of Education, under which name it was published after 1830, continued until 1839. Month after month, year after year, this ably-conducted periodical spread before a limited number of minds, broader and more generous views of education—its nature, objects, and methods—than had been before entertained. To William Russell, William C. Woodbridge, and Dr. William A. Alcott, are the friends of education largely indebted, for their valuable services rendered amid many discouragements, as editors of this periodical. Hardly a number appeared for fifteen years in which the special education of teachers was not advocated and enforced. The following extract of the origin of this Journal, is taken from a letter by William Russell, Esq.

“The Journal of Education had its origin in the mind of the late Thomas B. Wait, of Boston, whose attention had been peculiarly attracted to the subject of education, during his residence in Portland, Maine, at the time when the first movements were there made for the introduction of a public system of primary schools. Mr. Wait had retired from business; but on the return of one of his sons from the West, on whom he could devolve the active duties of publishing, he applied to Mr. John Frost, now of Philadelphia, to edit the intended periodical. Mr. Frost, however, was suddenly attacked with a pulmonary disease, which compelled him to resort to the climate of the West Indies for relief; and Mr. Wait made application to the late Dr. Coffin, of Boston, then engaged in editing the Boston Medical Journal. Dr. Coffin referred Mr. Wait to myself; and to this circumstance was owing my subsequent connection with the Journal, as its editor, for nearly three years. Early in the second year of that period, Mr. Wait, finding the business connected with publishing a periodical too burdensome, disposed of it to Mr. S. G. Goodrich, whose attention, ere long, was attracted to more profitable branches of the business of publishing; and the Journal, through the agency of Mr. T. H. Carter, was taken up by Messrs. Carter & Hendee, and, under the designation of Annals of Education, was edited by Mr. William C. Woodbridge, assisted by Dr. William A. Alcott. Subsequently the work was published by Otis, Broaders, & Co., in whose hands it was discontinued in 1839.”

In August, 1838, the first number of the Common School Journal was published under the editorship of the Hon. Horace Mann, during his continuance in the office of Secretary of the Board of Education, until 1849, when it passed into the hands of William B. Fowler, by whom it is still edited and published at Boston.

In January, 1848, the Massachusetts Teacher was commenced under the editorial charge of a Committee, appointed by the Massachusetts Teachers' Association. Its publication is still continued at Boston.

NEW YORK,

AMONG the earliest and most earnest advocates of legislative provision for the professional training of teachers, stands the name of Governor De Wit Clinton. In his message to the Legislature in 1825, he recommends "to their consideration, the education of competent teachers;" and in 1826, he again adverts to the subject in the following language:

"Our system of instruction, with all its numerous benefits, is still, however, susceptible of improvement. Ten years of the life of a child may now be spent in a common school. In two years the elements of instruction may be acquired, and the remaining eight years must either be spent in repetition or idleness, unless the teachers of common schools are competent to instruct in the higher branches of knowledge. The outlines of geography, algebra, mineralogy, agricultural chemistry, mechanical philosophy, surveying, geometry, astronomy, political economy and ethics, might be communicated in that period of time, by able preceptors, without essential interference with the calls of domestic industry. The vocation of a teacher in its influence on the character and destiny of the rising and all future generations, has either not been fully understood, or duly estimated. It is, or ought to be, ranked among the learned professions. With a full admission of the merits of several who now officiate in that capacity, still it must be conceded that the information of many of the instructors of our common schools does not extend beyond rudimental education; that our expanding population requires constant accession to their numbers; and that to realize these views, it is necessary that some new plan for obtaining able teachers should be devised. I therefore recommend a seminary for the education of teachers in those useful branches of knowledge which are proper to engraft on elementary attainments. A compliance with this recommendation will have the most benign influence on individual happiness and social prosperity."

And again, in his message in 1828, Governor Clinton urges the subject on the attention of the Legislature.

"It may be taken for granted, that the education of the body of the people can never attain the requisite perfection without competent instructors, well acquainted with the outlines of literature and the elements of science." He recommends with this view, "a law authorizing the supervisors of each county to raise a sum not exceeding \$2000, provided

that the same sum is subscribed by individuals, for the erection of a suitable edifice for a Monitorial High School, in the county town. I can conceive of no reasonable objection to the adoption of a measure so well calculated to raise the character of our school masters, and to double the powers of our artizans by giving them a scientific education."

In 1826, Hon. John C. Spencer, from the Literature Committee of the Senate, to whom the message of Governor Clinton for that year had been referred, made a report, recommending among other plans for the improvement of common schools, that the income of the "Literature Fund" be divided among the academies of the State, *not* in reference to the number of *classical students* in each, but "to the number of persons instructed in each, who shall have been licensed as teachers of common schools by a proper board." He thus introduces the subject:

"In the view which the committee have taken, our great reliance for nurseries of teachers must be placed on our colleges and academies. If they do not answer this purpose, they can be of very little use. That they have not hitherto been more extensively useful in that respect is owing to inherent defects in the system of studies pursued there. When the heads of our colleges are apprised of the great want of teachers which it is so completely in their power to relieve, if not supply, it is but reasonable to expect that they will adopt a system by which young men whose pursuits do not require a knowledge of classics, may avail themselves of the talent and instruction in those institutions, suited to their wants, without being compelled also to receive that which they do not want, and for which they have neither time nor money."

"In 1827, Mr. Spencer, from the same Committee, reported a bill entitled 'An act to provide permanent funds for the annual appropriation to common schools, to increase the Literature Fund, and to promote the education of teachers,' by which the sum of \$150,000 was added to the Literature Fund. And the Regents of the University were required annually to distribute the whole income of this fund among the several incorporated academies and seminaries, which then were or might thereafter become subject to their visitation, 'in proportion to the number of pupils instructed in each academy or seminary for six months during the preceding year, who shall have pursued classical studies, or the higher branches of English education, or both.' In the report accompanying this bill, which, on the 13th of April, became a law, the committee expressly observe, that their object in thus increasing this fund is 'to promote the education of young men in those studies which will prepare them for the business of instruction, which it is hoped may be accomplished to some extent, by offering inducements to the trustees of academies to educate pupils of that description.' 'In vain will you have established a system of instruction; in vain will you appropriate money to educate the children of the poor, if you do not provide persons competent to execute your system, and to teach the pupils collected in the schools. And every citizen who has paid attention to it and become acquainted practically with the situation of our schools, knows that the incompetency of the great mass of teachers is a radical defect which impedes the whole system, frustrates the benevolent designs of the Legislature, and defeats the hopes and wishes of all who feel an interest in disseminating the blessings of education.' 'Having undertaken a system of public instruction, it is the solemn duty of the Legislature to make that system as perfect as possible. We have no right to trifle with

the funds of our constituents, by applying them in a mode which fails to attain the intended object. Competent teachers of common schools must be provided; the academies of the State furnish the means of making that provision. There are funds which may be safely and properly applied to that object, and if there were none, a more just, patriotic, and in its true sense, popular reason for taxation cannot be urged. Let us aid the efforts of meritorious citizens who have devoted large portions of their means to the rearing of academies; let us reward them by giving success to their efforts; let us sustain seminaries that are falling into decay; let us revive the drooping and animate the prosperous, by cheering rays of public beneficence; and thus let us provide nurseries for the education of our children, and for the instruction of teachers who will expand and widen and deepen the great stream of education, until it shall reach our remotest borders, and prepare our posterity for the maintenance of the glory and prosperity of their country."

The legal provision for the better education of teachers rested on this basis until 1834, when an act was passed, by which the surplus income of the Literature Fund over twelve thousand dollars was placed at the disposal of the Regents of the University, to be by them distributed to such academies, subject to their visitation as they might select, and to be *exclusively devoted to the education of teachers for the common schools*, in such manner and under such regulations as they might prescribe.

In pursuance of the provisions of the act of 2d of May, 1834, authorizing the Regents of the University to apply a part of the income to the Literature Fund to the education of common school teachers, a plan was reported on the 8th of January, 1835, by Gen. DIX, from the committee appointed for that purpose, to the Regents with the view of carrying into effect the intention of the act. This plan was approved and adopted by the Regents; and one academy was selected in each of the eight Senate districts, charged with the establishment of a Department specially adapted to the instruction of teachers of common schools. To support these departments, each academy received from the Literature Fund, a sufficient sum to procure the necessary apparatus for the illustration of the various branches required to be taught; the sum of \$191 to be appropriated to the enlargement of the academical library; and an annual appropriation of \$400 to meet the increased expense which might devolve upon the institution in consequence of the establishment of the teachers' department.

In his annual Report for 1836, the Superintendent (Gen. DIX,) again adverts to the fact, that in the adoption of this system 'the Legislature has merely provided for the more complete execution of a design long entertained, so far as respects the employment of the academies for this purpose. The propriety of founding separate institutions," he continues, 'upon the model of the seminaries for teachers in Prussia, was for several years a subject of public discussion in this State. It was contended, on the one hand, that such institutions would be more likely to secure the object in view; and on the other, that it might be as effectually and more readily accomplished through the organized academies.' After again referring to the act of April 13, 1827, he concludes:

"Thus although the plan of engrafting upon the academies, departments for the preparation of teachers, may not have been contemplated at the time, yet this measure is to be regarded only as a more complete development of the design of the Legislature in passing the act referred to."

"By the 8th section of the act of April 17, 1838, appropriating the income of the United States Deposit Fund to the purposes of education,

&c. the sum of \$28,000 was directed to be annually paid over to the Literature Fund, and apportioned among the several academies of the State; and by the 9th section, it was made the duty of the Regents of the University 'to require every academy receiving a distributive share of public money, under the preceding section equal to seven hundred dollars per annum, to establish and maintain in such academy, a department for the instruction of common school teachers, under the direction of the said Regents, as a condition of receiving the distributive share of every such academy.' Under this provision eight academies, in addition to those designated specially for this purpose by the Regents, established departments for the education of teachers.

Desirous of knowing the practical operation of the departments thus organized, the superintendent (Mr. SPENCER) during the summer of 1840, commissioned the Rev. Dr. Potter of Union College, and D. H. Little, Esq. of Cherry-Valley, to visit these institutions, and report the result of their examinations to the department, accompanied by such suggestions as they might deem expedient. Prof. Potter in his report, after enumerating the various advantages and defects which had presented themselves to his observation in the course of his examination, observes in conclusion:

'The principal evil connected with our present means of training teachers, is, that they contribute to supply instructors for *select* rather than for common schools; and that for want of special exercises, they perform even that work imperfectly. I would suggest whether some means might not be adopted for training a class of teachers, with more especial reference to country common schools, and to primary schools in villages and cities; teachers whose attainments should not extend much beyond the common English branches, but whose minds should be awakened by proper influence; who should be made familiar by practice with the best modes of teaching; and who should come under strong obligations to teach for at least two or three years. In Prussia and France, normal schools are supported at the public expense; most of the pupils receive both board and tuition gratuitously; but at the close of the course they give bonds to refund the whole amount received, unless they teach under the direction of the government for a certain number of years. That such schools, devoted exclusively to the preparation of teaching, have some advantages over any other method, is sufficiently apparent from the experience of other nations: and it has occurred to me that, as supplementary to our present system, the establishment of one in this State might be eminently useful. If placed under proper auspices and located near the Capitol, where it could enjoy the supervision of the Superintendent of Common Schools, and be visited by the members of the Legislature, it might contribute in many ways to raise the tone of instruction throughout the State.'

From an examination of these reports, the Superintendent comes to the conclusion that 'these departments ought not to be abandoned, but sustained and encouraged, and the means of establishing a large number in other academies provided. They, with the other academies and colleges of the State, furnish the supply of teachers indispensable to the maintenance of our schools.' He recommends 'the extension of the public patronage to all the academies in the State, to enable them to establish teachers' departments; and in those counties where there are no academies, the establishment of normal schools.' 'One model school or more,' he thinks, 'might be advantageously established in some central parts of the State, to which teachers, and those intending to be such, might repair to acquire the best methods of conducting our common schools.'

By a resolution adopted by the Regents of the University, on the 4th of May of the same year, eight additional academies were designated for the establishment and maintenance of teachers' departments; and the appropriation to each of the institutions in which such departments had been organized by the Regents, reduced to \$300 per annum. At this period, including the academies which were required, under the act of 1838, to maintain such departments in consequence of the receipt of a specified portion of the Literature Fund, the number of academies in which departments for the education of teachers were organized was twenty-three, and the number of students taught in them about six hundred."

The above facts and extracts have been principally gathered from a "Report of the Committee on Colleges, Academies, and Common Schools," to the House of Representatives in 1844, of which Mr. Hulburd, of St. Lawrence, was chairman, and the author of the able document referred to. The Committee, on passing to the consideration of a State Normal School, remark :

"From this recapitulation, it will appear that the principal reliance of the friends and supporters of the common schools, for an adequate supply of teachers, has, from a very early period, been upon the academies; that the inability of the latter to supply this demand, induced, in 1827, an increase of \$150,000 of the fund, applicable to their support; and this for the express purpose of enabling them to accomplish this object; that the Regents of the University, the guardians of these institutions, characterized this increase of the fund as an unwonted and "extraordinary" act of liberality on the part of the State towards them; explicitly recognized the condition, or rather the avowed *expectations* on which it was granted; accepted the trust, and undertook to perform those conditions, and to fulfill those expectations; that, to use the language of one of the superintendents, 'the design of the law was not sustained by the measures necessary to give it the form and effect of a system;' that to remedy this evil, one academy was specially designated in each Senate district with an endowment of \$500 to provide the necessary means and facilities of instruction, and an annual appropriation of \$400, for the maintenance of a department for the education of teachers; and soon afterwards the sum of \$28,000 added to the Literature Fund from the avails of the U. S. Deposit Fund, while eight additional academies were required to organize and maintain similar departments; that, finally, the number of these departments was augmented to twenty-three, and every exertion put forth to secure the great results originally contemplated in their establishment; and that in the judgment of successive superintendents of common schools, the Regents of the University and the most eminent and practical friends of education throughout the state, these institutions, whether considered in the aggregate or with reference to those specially designated, from time to time, for the performance of this important duty, of supplying the common schools with competent teachers, have not succeeded in the accomplishment of that object. Having, therefore, to revert again to the language of the superintendent before referred to, 'proved inadequate to the ends proposed,' may not now '*a change of plan* be insisted on without being open to the objection of abandoning a system which has not been fairly tested?' And have the academies any just reason to complain, if they are not longer permitted to enjoy undiminished the liberal appropriations conferred upon them by the State for a *specific object*; an object which they have not been able satisfactorily to accomplish?"

This committee having satisfied themselves that all former legislation on this subject was inadequate, and having examined, by a sub-committee, the Normal Schools of Massachusetts, and inquired into their operation in other countries, recommended the establishment of a Normal School at Albany, "for the education and training of teachers for common schools," and that the sum of \$9,600 for the first year, and \$10,000 annually for five years thereafter, in appropriations for its support. This recommendation was adopted by an almost unanimous vote.

This institution is required to be located in the county of Albany; and is to be under the supervision, management and direction of the Superintendent of Common Schools and the Regents of the University, who are authorized and required "from time to time to make all needful rules and regulations; to fix the number and compensation of teachers and others to be employed therein; to prescribe the preliminary examination, and the terms and conditions on which pupils shall be received and instructed therein—the number of pupils from the respective cities and counties, conforming as nearly as may be to the ratio of population—to fix the location of the said school, and the terms and conditions on which the grounds and buildings therefor shall be rented, if the same shall not be provided by the corporation of the city of Albany; and to provide in all things for the good government and management of the said school." They are required to appoint a board, consisting of five persons, including the Superintendent of Common Schools, who are to constitute an executive committee for the care, management and government of the school, under the rules prescribed by the Board of Regents. Such executive committee, are to make full and detailed reports from time to time to the Superintendent and Regents, and among other things to recommend such rules and regulations as they may deem proper for said schools.

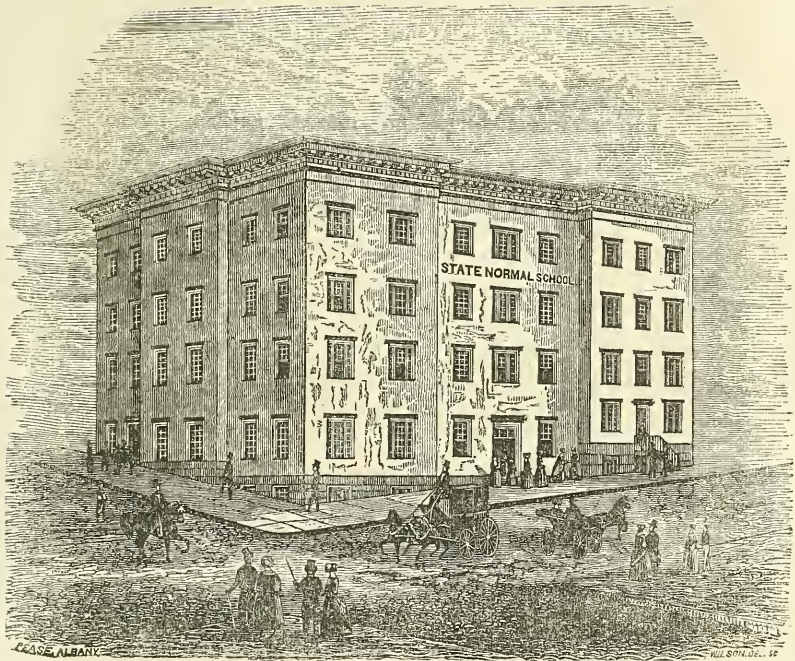
The superintendent and Regents are required annually to transmit to the Legislature an account of their proceedings and expenditures, together with a detailed report from the executive committee, relating to the progress, condition, and prospects of the school.

The city of Albany tendered the use of a suitable building, free of rent, for the use of the institution, and the school was organized and commenced the business of instruction in December, 1844, under the charge of David P. Page, Esq., of Newburyport, Mass., as Principal.

The following members composed the Executive Committee, under which the institution was organized: Hon. *Samuel Young*, State Superintendent, Rev. *Alonzo Potter*, D. D., Rev. *Wm. H. Campbell*, *Gideon Hawley* and *Francis Dwight*, Esqrs.

NEW YORK STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

AT ALBANY.



THE Normal School for the state of New York, was established by an act of the Legislature in 1844, "for the instruction and practice of Teachers of Common Schools, in the science of Education and the art of Teaching." It was first established for five years, as an experiment, and went into operation on the 18th of December, 1844, in a building provided gratuitously by the city of Albany, and temporarily fitted up for that purpose. In 1848, an act was passed by the Legislature "for the permanent establishment of the State Normal School," appropriating \$15,000 toward the erection of a suitable building. The following year an additional appropriation of \$10,000 was made for its completion. A large and commodious edifice, (See Fig. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,) containing a dwelling-house for the Principal, has accordingly been erected on the corner of Lodge and Howard streets, adjoining the State Geological and Agricultural Rooms. To this building the school was removed on the 31st of July, 1849. At the expiration of the term of five years for which this institution was originally established, and in connection with the closing exercises of the Summer

Session ending September 27, 1849, Samuel S. Randall, Esq., Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools, pronounced an address in which the origin and progress of the Normal School is thus graphically set forth :

For several years prior to 1844, the attention of the friends of Common School education in this state had been strongly directed to the inadequacy of the existing agencies for the preparation of duly qualified teachers for our elementary institutions of learning. Liberal endowments had, from time to time, during a long series of years, been bestowed upon the academies in different sections of the state, with a view to the attainment of this object ; but the practical inability of these institutions to supply the demand thus made upon them with all the resources at their command, soon became obvious and undeniable. The establishment of Normal Schools for this special and exclusive purpose in various portions of Europe, where popular education was most flourishing, and in the adjoining state of Massachusetts, long and honorably distinguished for her superior public and private schools, and the manifest tendency of these institutions to elevate and improve the qualifications and character of teachers, had begun to attract the regard of many of our most distinguished statesmen.

On a winter's afternoon, early in the year 1844, in a retired apartment of one of the public buildings in this city, might have been seen, in earnest and prolonged consultation, several eminent individuals whose names and services in the cause of education are now universally acknowledged. The elder of them was a man of striking and venerable appearance—of commanding intellect and benignant mien. By his side sat one in the prime and vigor of manhood, whose mental faculties had long been disciplined in the school of virtuous activity, and in every lineament of whose countenance appeared that resolute determination and moral power, which seldom fails to exert a wide influence upon the opinions and actions of men. The third in the group was a young man of slight frame and pale, thoughtful visage ; upon whose delicate and slender form premature debility had palpably set its seal ; yet whose opinions seemed to be listened to by his associates with the utmost deference and regard. The remaining figure was that of a well-known scholar and divine, whose potent and beneficial influence had long been felt in every department of the cause of popular education, and whose energy, activity and zeal had already accomplished many salutary and much needed reforms in our system of public instruction.

The subject of their consultation was the expediency and practicability of incorporating upon the Common School system of this state an efficient instrumentality for the education of teachers. The utility of such a measure, and its importance to the present and prospective interests of education, admitted, in the minds of these distinguished men, of no doubt. The sole question was whether the public mind was sufficiently prepared for its reception and adoption : whether an innovation so great and striking, and involving as it necessarily must a heavy and continued expenditure of the public money, might not be strenuously and successfully resisted : and whether a premature and unsuccessful attempt then to carry into execution a measure of such vital importance, might not be attended with a disastrous influence upon the future prospects of the cause of education. These considerations after being duly weighed, were unanimously set aside by the intrepid spirits then in council ; and it was determined that, backed by the strong and decided recommendation of the head of the Common School Department, immediate measures should be forthwith adopted for the establishment of a STATE NORMAL SCHOOL. The men who thus gave the first decided impetus to the great enterprise, whose gratifying results are now before us, were SAMUEL YOUNG, CALVIN T. HULBURD, FRANCIS DWIGHT, and ALONZO POTTER.

Mr. Hulburd, the able and enlightened Chairman of the Committee on Colleges, Academies and Common Schools, of the Assembly, visited the Normal Schools of Massachusetts, and after a thorough examination of their merits and practical operations, submitted an elaborate and eloquent report to the House, in favor of the immediate adoption of this principle in our system of public instruction. The bill introduced by him, and sustained in all its stages by his powerful influence and indefatigable exertions, and the cooperation of the most zealous friends of education throughout the state, became a law, and appropriated the sum of \$10,000 annually for five successive years, for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a State Normal School in this city. The general control of the Institution was committed to the Regents of the University, by whom an Executive Committee, consisting of five persons, one of whom was to be the Superintendent of Common Schools, was to be appointed, upon whom the direct management, discipline and course of instruction should devolve.

In pursuance of this provision, the Board of Regents, in June, 1844, appointed a Committee comprising the Hon. SAMUEL YOUNG, then Superintendent of Common Schools, the Rev. ALONZO POTTER, Rev. WM. H. CAMPBELL, Hon. GIDEON HAWLEY, and FRANCIS DWIGHT, Esq. This committee forthwith entered upon the execution of their responsible duties; procured on very liberal and favorable terms from the city of Albany the lease for five years of the spacious building in State street, recently occupied by the Institution; prescribed the necessary rules and regulations for the instruction, government and discipline of the school, the course of study to be pursued, the appointment and selection of the pupils, &c., and procured the services of the late lamented and distinguished Principal, then of Newburyport, Massachusetts, together with his colleague, Prof. Perkins, of Utica, the present Principal, as teachers. On the 18th day of December, 1844, the school was opened in the presence of a large concourse of citizens and strangers, by an eloquent address from Col. YOUNG, and by other appropriate and suitable exercises. Twenty-nine pupils, thirteen males and sixteen females, representing fourteen counties only, of both sexes were in attendance, who, after listening to a brief but clear and explicit declaration from Mr. PAGE, of his objects, views and wishes in the management and direction of the high duties devolved upon him, entered at once upon the course of studies prescribed for the school. Before the close of the first term on the 11th of March, 1845, the number of pupils had increased to ninety-eight, comprising about an equal number of each sex, and representing forty of the fifty-nine counties of the state. During this term the musical department of the school was placed under the charge of Prof. ILSLEY, of this city, and instruction in drawing was imparted by Prof. J. B. HOWARD, of Rensselaer.

On the commencement of the second term, on the 9th of April, 1845, 170 pupils were in attendance, comprising a nearly equal proportion of males and females, and representing every county in the state, with a single exception. Of these pupils about nine-tenths had been previously engaged in teaching during a longer or shorter period. The term closed on the 28th of August, with a public examination and other suitable exercises, and thirty-four of the students received the certificate of the Executive Committee and Board of Instruction, as in their judgment well qualified in all essential respects, to teach any of the Common Schools of the state.

On the 15th of October succeeding, the school re-opened with 180 pupils, which was increased during the progress of the term to 198 from every county in the state but one. The death of Mr. DWIGHT, which took place on the 15th of December, and the transfer of the Rev. Dr. PORTER to the Episcopal Diocese of Pennsylvania, created vacancies in

the Executive Committee, which were supplied by the appointment of the Hon. HARMANUS BLEECKER, and the Hon. SAMUEL YOUNG, the latter gentleman having been succeeded in the office of Superintendent of Common Schools by the Hon. N. S. BENTON, of Herkimer. The sudden death of Mr. Dwight, who had taken a deep interest in the prosperity and success of the Institution, and had given to its minutest details the benefits of his supervision and constant attention, cast a deep gloom upon the inmates; and the peculiar circumstances under which it took place were strikingly indicative of the vain and illusory nature of all human expectations. For several weeks previous to his death, Mr. Dwight had manifested much interest in devising appropriate means for the celebration of the opening of the school, on the 18th of December. Alas! how little could he imagine that the long line of Normal pupils, with the children of the various public schools of the city, to whom also he had been a signal benefactor, and hundreds of his fellow-citizens should, on that day, follow his lifeless remains to their long home!

At the close of the third term, March 18, 1846, a public examination was held, which continued during four successive days, and convinced all who felt an interest in the Institution, that the work of preparation for the teacher's life was, in all respects, thorough and complete. The diploma of the Institution was conferred on forty-seven graduates. During this and the preceding term a valuable addition had been made to the Board of Instruction, by promoting to the charge of several of the principal departments, those graduates of the Institution who now so ably and successfully preside over these departments. The Experimental School, organized at the commencement of the second term, was placed under the general supervision of its present teacher, and has proved an exceedingly valuable auxiliary in the practical preparation of the pupils of the principal school for the discharge of their duty as teachers. Two hundred and five pupils were in attendance at the commencement of the fourth term, on the first Monday of May, 1846, of whom sixty-three received a diploma at its close in September following. During the fifth term, commencing on the second of November, one hundred and seventy-eight pupils only appeared, forty-six of whom graduated in March, 1847. At the commencement, however, of the sixth term in May subsequently, two hundred and twenty-one pupils were in attendance, of whom sixty-four received the diploma of the Institution in September; and at the re-opening of the school in November, two hundred and five pupils appeared. Up to this period the number of names entered on the Register of the school as pupils, including those in attendance at the commencement of the seventh term, was seven hundred and thirty-seven. Of these two hundred and fifty-four had received their diploma as graduates, of which number two hundred and twenty-two were actually engaged in teaching in the Common Schools of the state; and the residue, with few exceptions, in the different academies or in private schools. Of those who had left the school without graduating, nearly all were engaged during a longer or shorter period in teaching in the several Common Schools.

And now came that dark and gloomy period when the hitherto brilliant prospects of the Institution were overcast with deep clouds of melancholy and despondency—when that noble form and towering intellect which, from the commencement of the great experiment in progress, had assiduously presided over and watched its development, was suddenly struck down by the relentless hand of the great destroyer—when the bereaved and stricken flock, deprived of their revered and beloved guide, teacher, friend, mournfully assembled in their accustomed halls on that dreary and desolate January day at the commencement of the year 1848, to pay the last sad obsequies to the remains of their departed Principal. In the prime and vigor of his high faculties—in the meridian brightness of his

lofty and noble career—in the maturity of his well-earned fame as “first among the foremost” of the teachers of America, he passed away from among us, and sought his eternal reward in that better land where the ills and the obstructions of mortality are forever unknown; where the emancipated spirit, freed from the clogs which here fetter its high action and retard its noblest development, expands its illimitable energies in the congenial atmosphere of infinite knowledge and infinite love. It is not for me, on the present occasion, to pronounce his eulogy, although I knew and loved him well. That has already been done by an abler hand, and it only remains to say that the impress which his masterly and well-trained mind left upon the Institution, the child of his most sanguine hopes and earnest efforts, and upon the interests of education generally throughout the state, of which he was the indefatigable promoter, has been of the most marked character, and will long consecrate his name and memory.

Since this period the progress of the Institution, under the auspices of its present enlightened Principal, and his devoted corps of assistants, has been uniformly onward and upward. At the close of the seventh term fifty pupils were graduated, and the eighth term opened with two hundred and eight, of whom forty-six received their diploma at its close. The ninth term opened on the first day of November last with one hundred and seventy-five pupils, and at its close forty-three were graduated; and the tenth term, which has now just closed, opened with upward of two hundred pupils, of whom thirty-six are now about to graduate.

The following account of the State Normal School is copied from the Annual Circular of the Executive Committee, for 1850:

“Each county in the state is entitled to send to the school a number of pupils, (either male or female,) equal to twice the number of members of the Assembly in such county. The pupils are appointed by the county and town superintendents at a meeting called by the county superintendent for that purpose. This meeting should be held and the appointment made at least two weeks before the commencement of each term, or as soon as information is received as to the number of vacancies. A list of the vacancies for each term will be published in the District School Journal, as early as the number of such vacancies can be ascertained, usually before the close of the former term.

Pupils once admitted to the school will have the right to remain until they graduate; unless they forfeit that right by voluntarily vacating their place, or by improper conduct.

Persons failing to receive appointments from their respective counties, should, after obtaining testimonials of a good moral character, present themselves the first day of the term, for examination by the Faculty. If such examination is satisfactory, they will receive an appointment from the Executive Committee, without regard to the particular county, provided any vacancies exist. In such case the pupil will receive mileage.

By an act of the Legislature, passed April 11, 1849, “every teacher shall be deemed a qualified teacher, who shall have in possession a Diploma from the State Normal School.”

QUALIFICATION OF APPLICANTS. Females sent to the school must be sixteen years of age, and males eighteen.

The superintendents, in making their appointments, are urged to pay no regard to the political opinions of applicants. The selections should be made with reference to the *moral worth* and abilities of the candidates. Decided preference ought to be given to those, who, in the judgment of the superintendents, give the highest promise of becoming the most efficient teachers of common schools. It is also desirable that those only

should be appointed who have already a good knowledge of the common branches of study, and *who intend to remain in the school until they graduate.*

ENTRANCE. All the pupils, on entering the school, are required to sign the following declaration:

'We the subscribers hereby DECLARE, that it is our intention to devote ourselves to the business of teaching district schools, and that our sole object in resorting to this Normal School is the better to prepare ourselves for that important duty.'

As this should be signed in good faith on the part of the pupils, they should be made acquainted with its import before they are appointed. It is expected of the superintendents, that they shall select such as will sacredly fulfill their engagements in this particular.

Pupils on entering the school are subjected to a thorough examination, and are classified according to their previous attainments. The time required to accomplish the course will depend upon the attainments and talents of the pupil, varying from *one to four terms.* *Very few,* however, can expect to graduate in one term.

PRIVILEGES OF THE PUPILS. All pupils receive their tuition free. They are also furnished with the use of text-books without charge; though if they already own the books of the course, they would do well to bring them, together with such other books for reference as they may possess. Moreover, they draw a small sum from the fund for the support of the school, to defray in part their expenses.

It is proposed to apportion the sum of \$1,700 among the 256 pupils, who may compose the school during the next term. 1. Each pupil shall receive three cents a mile on the distance from his county town to the city of Albany. 2. The remainder of the \$1,700 shall then be divided equally among the students in attendance.

The following list will show how much a student of each county will receive, during the ensuing term:

Albany, \$2.41; Allegany, \$10.09; Broome, \$6.76; Cattaraugus, \$11.17; Cayuga, \$7.09; Chautauque, \$12.49; Chemung, \$8.35; Chenango, \$5.41; Clinton, \$7.27; Columbia, \$3.28; Cortland, \$6.67; Delaware, \$4.72; Dutchess, \$4.66; Erie, \$10.93; Essex, \$6.19; Franklin, \$8.77; Fulton, \$3.76; Genesee, \$9.73; Greene, \$3.43; Hamilton, \$4.87; Herkimer, \$4.81; Jefferson, \$7.21; Kings, \$6.97; Lewis, \$6.28; Livingston, \$9.19; Madison, \$5.44; Monroe, \$8.98; Montgomery, \$3.61; New-York, \$6.85; Niagara, \$10.72; Oneida, \$5.29; Onondaga, \$6.40; Ontario, \$8.26; Orange, \$5.44; Orleans, \$10.12; Oswego, \$7.21; Otsego, \$4.39; Putnam, \$5.59; Queens, \$7.63; Rensselaer, \$2.59; Richmond, \$7.32; Rockland, \$6.07; Saratoga, \$4.78; Schenectady, \$2.86; Schoharie, \$3.07; Seneca, \$7.54; St. Lawrence, \$8.59; Steuben, \$8.89; Suffolk, \$9.16; Sullivan, \$5.80; Tioga, \$7.42; Tompkins, \$7.31; Ulster, \$4.15; Warren, \$4.27; Washington, \$3.85; Wayne, \$7.84; Westchester, \$6.46; Wyoming, \$9.85; Yates, \$7.96.

It is proper to state, that if the number of pupils is less than 256, the sum to be received will be proportionately increased. The above schedule shows, therefore, the minimum sum to be received by each pupil. His apportionment cannot be less than as above stated, and it may be more.

This money will be paid at the *close of the term.*

APPARATUS. A well assorted apparatus has been procured, sufficiently extensive to illustrate all the important principles in Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, and Human Physiology. Extraordinary facilities for the study of Physiology are afforded by the Museum of the Medical College, which is open at all hours for visitors.

LIBRARY. Besides an abundant supply of text-books upon all the branches of the course of study, a well selected miscellaneous library has been procured, to which all the pupils may have access free of charge. In the selection of this library, particular care has been exercised to procure most of the recent works upon Education, as well as several valuable standard works upon the Natural Sciences, History, Mathematics, &c. The State library is also freely accessible to all.

TERMS AND VACATIONS. The year is divided into two terms, so as to bring the vacations into April and October, the months for holding the Teachers' Institutes. This also enables the pupils to take advantage of the cheapness of traveling by the various means of water communication in the State, in going to and from the school.

The **SUMMER TERM** commences on the **FIRST MONDAY IN MAY**, and continues **TWENTY WEEKS**, with an intermission of one week from the first of July.

The **WINTER TERM** commences on the **FIRST MONDAY IN NOVEMBER**, and continues **TWENTY-TWO WEEKS**, with an intermission from Christmas to New Year's day inclusive.

PROMPT ATTENDANCE. As the school will open on Monday, it would be for the advantage of the pupils, if they should reach Albany by the Thursday or Friday preceding the day of opening. The Faculty can then aid them in securing suitable places for boarding.

As the examinations of the pupils preparatory for classification will commence on the first day of the term, it is exceedingly important that all the pupils should report themselves on the first morning. Those who arrive a day after the time, will subject not only the teachers to much trouble, but themselves also to the rigors of a private examination. After the first week, no student, except for the strongest reasons, shall be allowed to enter the school.

PRICE OF BOARD. The price of board in respectable families, varies from \$1.50 to \$2.00, exclusive of washing. Young gentlemen by taking a room and boarding themselves, have sustained themselves at a lower rate. This can better be done in the summer term.

The ladies and gentlemen are not allowed to board in the same families. Particular care is taken to be assured of the respectability of the families who propose to take boarders, before they are recommended to the pupils.

EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL. Two spacious rooms in the building are appropriated to the accommodation of the two departments of this school. These two departments are under the immediate supervision of the Permanent Teacher, who is a graduate of the Normal School.

The object of this school is to afford each Normal Pupil an opportunity of practising the methods of instruction and discipline inculcated at the Normal School, as well as to ascertain his 'aptness to teach,' and to discharge the various other duties pertaining to the teacher's responsible office. Each member of the graduating class is required to spend at least two weeks in this department.

In the experimental School there are ninety-three pupils between the ages of six and sixteen years. **FIFTY-EIGHT** of these are free pupils. The free seats will be hereafter given exclusively to fatherless children, residing in the city of Albany. This is in consideration of an appropriation by the city to defray in part the expense of fitting up one of the rooms of the school. The remaining **THIRTY-FIVE** pupils are charged \$20 per year for tuition and use of books. This charge is made merely to defray the expense of sustaining the school."

COURSE OF STUDY.—The following is the course of study for the School; and a thorough acquaintance with the whole of it, on the part of the male pupils, is made a condition for graduating.

The School is divided into three classes, JUNIORS, MIDDLES and SENIORS. These classes are arranged in divisions to suit the convenience of recitation.

JUNIORS.

Reading and Elocution.	
Spelling.	
Orthography,	<i>Normal Chart.</i>
Writing.	
Geography and Outline Maps, (with Map Drawing,) <i>Mitchell.</i>	
Drawing, (begun.)	
Intellectual Arithmetic,	<i>Colburn.</i>
Elementary Arithmetic,	<i>Perkins.</i>
English Grammar, (begun,)	<i>Brown.</i>
History of United States,	<i>Willson.</i>
Higher Arithmetic, (begun,)	<i>Perkins.</i>
Elementary Algebra, (begun,)	<i>Perkins.</i>

MIDDLES.

Reading and Elocution.	
Spelling.	
Orthography,	<i>Normal Chart.</i>
Writing.	
Geography and Outline Maps, (with Map Drawing,) <i>Mitchell.</i>	
Drawing.	
Intellectual Arithmetic,	<i>Colburn.</i>
English Grammar,	<i>Brown.</i>
History of United States,	<i>Willson.</i>
Higher Arithmetic,	<i>Perkins.</i>
Elementary Algebra,	<i>Perkins.</i>
Human Physiology,	<i>Cutter.</i>
Geometry, (begun,)	<i>Perkins.</i>
Perspective Drawing,	<i>Lectures.</i>
Mathematical Geography and Use of Globes.	

The division of this class composed of the Juniors of the former term, will not be required to review such studies as they have already completed.

SENIORS.

Higher Algebra, Chaps. VII. and VIII, (omitting Multinomial Theorem and Recurring Series,) <i>Perkins.</i>	
Geometry, Six Books,	<i>Perkins' Elements.</i>
Plane Trigonometry, as contained in	<i>Davies' Legendre.</i>
Land Surveying,	<i>Davies.</i>
Natural Philosophy,	<i>Olmstead.</i>
Chemistry, with (Experimental Lectures,)	<i>Silliman.</i>
Intellectual Philosophy,	<i>Abercrombie.</i>
Moral Philosophy,	<i>Wayland, abridged.</i>
Rhetoric,	<i>Lectures.</i>
Constitutional Law, with select parts of the Statutes of this state, most intimately connected with the rights and duties of citizens,	} <i>Young's Science of Government, Revised Statutes.</i>
Art of Teaching,	
Elements of Astronomy,	<i>Lectures.</i>
Lessons in Vocal Music, to be given to all.	

The same course of study, omitting the Higher Algebra, Plane Trigonometry and Surveying, must be attained by females as a condition of graduating.

Any of the pupils who desire further to pursue mathematics, can be allowed to do so after completing the above course of study.

NORMAL SCHOOL

FOR

FEMALE TEACHERS IN THE CITY OF PHILADELPHIA.

In the Act "to provide for the education of children at the public expense within the city and county of Philadelphia," passed in 1818, it was made the duty of the Controllers, who were intrusted with the administration of the schools, "to establish a Model School, in order to qualify teachers for the sectional schools, and for schools in other parts of the state." One of the public schools, located in Chester street, was accordingly organized as a Model School, under the direction of Joseph Lancaster, whose system of school organization and instruction was introduced. This school was used to some extent, as a pattern after which to conduct the other schools, and as a school of practice to train the teachers, and to some extent the monitors of the other schools, up to 1836, when the system of Lancaster was modified so far as to substitute an older class of females, graduates of the school, as assistants, in the places of the monitors selected from the pupils themselves. From this date the school in Chester street did not differ materially from any other school of the same grade until 1848, when, on the solicitation of the present accomplished and devoted Principal, and the recommendation of a committee of the Controllers, it was re-organized as a Normal School, according to the present idea of such an institution.

The Normal School was opened on the 13th of January, 1848, by an Address from James J. Barclay, Esq., in which he gave a brief history of the public schools of Philadelphia, and of this new agency in the system, "which contemplates the thorough training of the female teachers in those branches of a good English education, and in such practical exercises, as will discipline and develop the mind, adorn and elevate the character, insure the best mode of imparting knowledge, and of instructing children in their studies, establish uniformity in teaching, prevent fruitless experiments, manifold mistakes, and irreparable loss of time, with all their sad consequences to teachers and pupils." In reference to this last point, the Principal, in his Report for 1850, observes :

"How wide the difference, in point of usefulness as well as happiness, between the teacher trained to a proper realization of her duty as an educator, conversant with the true principles of her art, with ability to apply them, and one with just knowledge sufficient to pass an examination and secure a situation; discovering, when too late, her deficiency, confined from day to day to the same round of unsuccessful exertion, discouraged by the consciousness of her incompetency, and humiliated by the irresistible conviction of her want of integrity, in continuing to occupy a place

for which every day's experience proves her unfit. And, if prompted by a sense of duty to her pupils, she attempts to remove her deficiencies by study, her health yields to her over-taxed strength, and she is compelled to abandon a profession, which, but for the want of proper training before engaging in it, she would have ornamented, and the pursuit of which would have added to her happiness, instead of rendering her miserable."

The following account of the school is gathered from the Reports of the Principal, for 1849 and 1850.

NUMBER OF PUPILS.—The first term of the school was commenced February 1st, 1848, with one hundred and six pupils; since which time there have been admitted one hundred and fifty-five, exclusive of those admitted at the end of the last term; consequently, the whole number who have enjoyed the advantages of the school, is two hundred and sixty-one.

The following statement will exhibit the number belonging to the school at the beginning and end of each term, and also the admissions and withdrawals during the year :

Attending school August 27th, 1849,	143
Discontinued at the close of the term ending February 15th, 1850,	46
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Remaining,	97
Admitted at the close of the term,	53
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Attending school, February 18th, 1850,	150
Discontinued at the close of the term ending July 26th, 1850,	40
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Remaining,	110
Admitted at the close of the term,	40
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Attending school, September 2d, 1850,	150
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Average number belonging to the school during the year,	135
Average daily attendance,	128

ADMISSION OF PUPILS.—Pupils are admitted twice a year, in February and July. After evidence of sufficient age (15 years) is presented, the whole test of the qualifications of candidates consists in determining their proficiency in the branches prescribed for examination. Previous to the last examination, the candidates were required to answer one set of questions orally, and one in writing; the oral examination being a guide in determining whether the written answers were given by the candidate herself, or through the aid of some one sitting near her; it being impracticable always to arrange them so as to prevent communication. The general correspondence between the results of the oral and written examination, proved the double examination to be unnecessary. Acting upon this conclusion, at the end of the last term, the examination in orthography, definition of words, English grammar, history of the United States, geography and arithmetic, was conducted entirely in writing.

The method of conducting the examinations, as modified, by omitting the oral part, is as follows :

Questions upon each subject are prepared by the teachers of the respective branches, and submitted to the Principal, from which he selects a sufficient number, to be used in conducting the examination.

To prevent any improper influence that might result from a knowledge of the names of the candidates, a ticket having a number upon it, is given to each; by which number the applicant is known during the examina-

tion; her name not being communicated, until after the decision is made as to her admission.

In determining the candidate's average of scholarship in any particular branch, the whole number of facts embraced in the answers to the questions is used as a denominator, and the number answered correctly as a numerator; and the part of 10 expressed by this fraction gives the average. Thus, if the number of facts in a branch is forty, and the candidate answers thirty-five correctly, the average is obtained by taking $\frac{35}{40}$ of 10, and is expressed by 8.75.

The several averages in each branch, being added together, and divided by the number of subjects of examination, the general average of each candidate is obtained. The lowest average of scholarship which shall entitle the candidate to admission is then determined upon. At the last examination, those having averages above 6 were considered qualified for admission.

In pursuing the plan of examination thus indicated, although some errors may occur, yet they can not be numerous or important. The method leaves no room for partiality, as the averages indicating the scholarship of the candidates must correspond with the written evidences, which are always preserved as vouchers for the accuracy of the results.

Notwithstanding the small number of pupils admitted to the Normal School, compared with the number of applicants, I am not aware of a single instance in which a controller, director, teacher or parent, was not satisfied with the propriety of the rejections, after having examined the written answers of the candidates. And, in every instance, I have found the teachers more surprised at the deficiency exhibited by their pupils, than disappointed that they were not admitted. The number of applicants, admissions and rejections, at each examination, has been as follows:

	Candidates.	Admitted.	Rejected.
At the organization of the school, . . .	156	106	50
Second examination,	56	40	16
Third "	67	35	32
Fourth "	58	27	31
Fifth "	100	53	47
Sixth "	79	40	39
Total,	516	301	215

The number of admissions being but little more than 58 per cent. of the applicants.

The lowest age required of candidates for admission is fifteen years; the average age of pupils admitted has been fifteen years and ten months.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION. In arranging the plan of instruction, a primary object is to keep the mind of the pupil constantly in contact with subjects immediately or incidentally connected with the great object of her training, and to habituate her to *think* in reference to communicating her thoughts to others. In accomplishing this, the pupil necessarily attains that mental discipline, essential to the formation of habits of exact investigation and quick discrimination, which enable her readily to comprehend and acquire the knowledge of a subject, as well as to illustrate it with perspicuity and clearness.

As the name imports, the Normal School is designed to be a pattern school; the instruction, therefore, in all its departments, from the most elementary to the highest, is adapted, as far as possible, to the methods of teaching which are intended shall be pursued by its pupils.

It is a well-known fact that all children of natural endowments possess an innate desire to *know*; the eager inquisitiveness of children is proverbial. Consequently, the conclusion is self-evident, that the business

of the elementary educator is to encourage this propensity. With this view, the method of instruction pursued in the Normal School excludes altogether routine recitations, with the text book before the teacher as a guide, and the pupils reciting from memory, that which they have learned merely as a lesson. No teacher uses a text book during the recitations; meeting the classes with a full knowledge of the subject, and a perfect acquaintance with the widest range of incidental facts which may present themselves in its discussion, she invites inquiry; and questioning becomes as much the business of the pupils as of the teacher.

At every stage of instruction, it is made a prominent object to imbue pupils with a just sense of the importance of their relations as teachers, and to cause them to realize, that the whole duty of a teacher does not consist in hearing lessons; but that her business is thoroughly to develop all the intellectual and moral powers, and awaken and call forth every talent that may be committed to her care.

Carefully watching the results of the training described, the pleasing conclusion presents itself to my mind, that, as the methods of teaching are good in the opinion of the pupils themselves, and as mechanical modes give place to systems adapted to the development of the faculties, so the interest of the pupils is awakened; illustrating the important fact that, whether in schools or communities, the interest excited in education is always in proportion as the system of instruction is good, and efficiently carried out.

Infuse into the minds of the pupils of our schools that spirit which prompts them to seek knowledge for the sake of itself, and they will reach forward from elements to principles, from lower to higher branches of study, until the mind's own food creates the desire for more. It excites that spirit which constantly cries "give"—the outbursting of that innate principle—the spur to mental acquirement—the *desire to know*.

STUDIES.—At the organization of the school, in the selection of subjects of instruction, next to imparting a thorough knowledge of the branches taught in the public schools, preference was given to those branches best calculated for mental discipline, in connection with their utility in the practical duties of the pupils in after life. All the subjects embraced in the original plan of the school are now taught in the regular exercises of each term. While the range of study is extended, so as to occupy the full period of the pupil's connection with the school, it is sufficiently limited, to enable all of ordinary industry and talents to complete it in the prescribed period, if the pupil is possessed of sufficient knowledge at the time of her admission.

Theory and Practice of Teaching.—Lectures on the Principles of Education; embracing mental, moral and physical education. Also, instruction in school government, and teaching the elementary branches, and practice in teaching.

Mathematics.—Review of elementary arithmetic, and instruction in higher arithmetic, algebra, geometry and elementary astronomy.

Grammar.—Review of English grammar, and instruction in etymology, rhetoric and elements of composition.

Reading.—Instruction in English literature, and the art of reading.

History.—Review of geography and history of the United States, and instruction in the history of America, history of England, and general history of the world.

Writing.—Instruction in plain and ornamental penmanship.

Drawing.—Instruction in linear drawing, exercises in drawing from models, and principles of perspective.

Music.—Instruction in the elements and practice of vocal music.

Miscellaneous.—Instruction in natural philosophy, chemistry and physiology, is imparted entirely by lectures and examinations, by the Principal. Instruction in the constitutions of the United States and Pennsylvania, is given by the Principal and teacher of history.

In arranging the subjects and course of instruction, the aim is to restrict them chiefly to such branches or subjects, as are essential to a complete fulfillment of the duties of a teacher, under whatever circumstances she may be placed; and not only in the instruction, but in every relation the pupil holds to the school, her future destination as a teacher is kept prominently in view.

A very important feature of the exercises, is the recitation of the pupils to each other; in which a free expression of opinion, in the way of criticism, is encouraged; the modes of illustration being suggested by the pupils themselves, to meet the particular cases under consideration. This leads to originality of thought, and the application of methods not attainable in any other way. Thus, from the very entrance of the pupil into the school, to the completion of her course of study, practice in teaching is blended with positive instruction; and the powers of the pupil to communicate her ideas to others, are successfully cultivated; while exactness in the use of language becomes habitual. The purpose of the school, being particularly to develop the talents of the pupils as instructors, after a prescribed course of instruction on any topic is indicated by the Principal or teacher of the class, the recitations are left to be carried on by the pupils themselves.

The method of instruction is founded upon strictly inductive principles;—always proceeding from the known to the unknown. In pursuing this course much time is required, and the patience and skill of the teacher are subjected to the severest test;—while mere routine teaching, or simply imparting positive instruction, so generally practiced because attended with less labor, is carefully avoided. In the application of the first method, the mind being necessarily the active *agent* in obtaining knowledge, is unfolded, while in the latter, by its being the passive *recipient*, it is liable to be overburdened and the memory *only* improved. If the positive knowledge acquired by the inductive method is ever lost, the habit of thinking *remains*; and the reasoning powers are developed and disciplined.

In inculcating general principles, the theories are reduced to practice; and the danger of forming theoretical teachers is thus avoided. By applying principles, under circumstances where error is sure to be pointed out, and corrected by the observation of class-mates and teachers, every lesson becomes an exercise of thought and reason.

SCHOOLS OF PRACTICE.—The schools of practice consist of a girls' grammar school with 230 pupils, and two teachers, female principal and assistant; and a boys' secondary school with 147 pupils, and two female teachers, a female principal and assistant, in the same building with the Normal students. At least three pupils of the Normal School are employed at one time, in teaching in each school. The period occupied by the pupil-teacher is about four weeks in the term.

The pupil-teachers give instruction, under the immediate direction of the principals of the schools of practice; whose duty it is to teach *with* them and *for* them;—to aid them by advice, suggestions and example;—in effect, to instruct the classes *through* them as *aids*—not as *substitutes*. To enable the principal to give her undivided attention to the inexperienced pupil-teacher on first taking charge of a class, those engaged in the school are changed at such intervals, as to leave two experienced teachers occupied in teaching at one time; and on the introduction of the third,

the principal remains with her, until she can manage the class alone; a new teacher is then substituted for the one having been longest in practice. Before placing a pupil in charge of a class, the principal of the school carefully informs her as to the particular duties connected with its instruction and management. If after a brief trial, the pupil-teacher is found deficient in ability, readily to adapt herself to the circumstances of her new position, she is immediately withdrawn, her deficiencies noted, and her instruction in the Normal School directed to their removal. The duty of assigning lessons is performed entirely by the principal; the pupils being previously examined, at the close of the exercise, upon the subject of recitation. Thus making them immediately responsible to her, for their progress in learning.

The successful management and instruction of the classes in the schools of practice, depend to a great extent upon the principals of these schools; and this success will be in proportion to the attention given to the minutæ of the practical duties of the schools, with which all experienced teachers are familiar; guarding the pupil-teacher from falling into errors, instantly checking them when discovered, cultivating and bringing into exercise that tact required to arouse the dull, to keep in check the restless, to secure the attention of the indolent, and maintain a continued and uniform interest throughout the whole class while reciting.

The position of the principal thus occupied, is peculiar in its character;—requiring in a remarkable degree promptitude, patience and industry; her duty being not merely to *teach*, but to impart through others intellectual and moral instruction; to foster correct habits, and cultivate and bring into action the powers of both teachers and pupils, through the agency of the former. The character of these schools will therefore depend entirely upon the manner in which the principals perform their duties, whether they are really *schools of practice*, or mere *experimental* schools, in which the pupil-teachers are left to learn to correct errors, by first making them;—wasting their own time and that of their pupils, in attempts to *discover* methods, instead of putting them into *practice*.

In affording an opportunity to the Normal pupils to acquire practice in teaching and discipline, the question may arise, whether the pupils whom they teach have equal advantages with those taught entirely by permanent teachers. The success of any school, depends in a great measure upon the ability and tact of the principal in its *general management*. In a small school, where the instruction is all given by one teacher, but little qualification is necessary, besides ability to teach properly; but as the school becomes larger, the duties devolving upon its head are so far extended in the general management and discipline, as to render the ability to teach of comparatively little value, in the absence of tact in school government. Therefore, as an increase in the number of subordinate teachers becomes necessary, so, different qualifications are requisite on the part of the principal; and while aptness to teach is an indispensable qualification, it must be accompanied by ability to control, and bring into exercise the best powers of the assistant teachers, to insure the *effective* teaching of the whole school. In substituting for permanent assistants, pupil-teachers who remain in charge of the classes for a comparatively limited period, the tact of the principal, and her skill in school government, form so important an element in the success of the school, that no qualifications which the pupil-teachers may possess, can compensate for their absence.

Under corresponding circumstances, young teachers will be more thorough in their instruction, and accomplish more work than older ones: the novelty of their position, their desire to gain the approbation of those directing them, and of the pupils themselves; the great pleasure derived from bringing into practice qualifications they are conscious of possessing,

are incentives to exertion, which contribute largely to success. Again, the pupil-teachers are frequently found to communicate in a manner more *intelligible* to the pupils than those who are further removed by age; the difficulty of acquiring a knowledge of a particular subject, being forgotten by the older teacher, while not only the difficulty, but the proper means to overcome it, are yet fresh in the memory of the younger ones. The zeal and energy of the young teacher are imparted to her pupils; they exert themselves more than if under a teacher less their equal in age. There is more sympathy existing between the pupils and the young teachers; friendships are formed, a desire to please is engendered, and the discipline is maintained more by self-control than by forced obedience. The deep interest manifested by the pupil-teacher in the progress of her scholars, seldom fails to produce great exertion on the part of the latter, and instances are not unfrequent, where the teacher and pupils emulate each other, in their efforts to promote one another's happiness. If to all these, is added the watchful care of the principal, the results can not be other than satisfactory.

The pupil-teachers, before meeting their classes, are required carefully to study the lessons to be recited during the day, that they may add interest to the exercises, by imparting instruction on subjects incidental to the lesson. The confidence of the class is thereby gained; and finding that their instructor is not compelled to rely upon the text book, they look upon her as the *teacher*, not the mere *agent to compel* the recitation of the contents of the book. Thus, an interesting fact or an appropriate narrative, introduced into the exercises, is often found to give to the young teacher greater influence over the class, than all the ordinary means of discipline.

The pupil-teacher, accustomed herself to rigid thoroughness, insists upon it from habit, in the recitations of her pupils; the constant explanation leads to inquiry, and this to thought; and in this manner the foundation of correct education is laid.

While the general control of the school, and even much of the teaching, devolve upon the principal, the pupil-teachers are made accountable to her for the deportment of the pupils while under their care, and also for their progress in learning. It is therefore made their duty to report promptly to the principal all cases of misconduct, or neglect of studies.

To render the mode of instruction pursued in the schools of practice, conformable to the methods taught in the Normal School, the principal of the latter devotes a portion of time daily, to the supervision of those teaching in them.

EXAMINATIONS.—Written examinations of the pupils of the Normal School are made quarterly, in all the regular branches in which instruction has been given during the term. As the pupil's continuance in the school, her position in the class, or her promotion to a higher one, depends upon these tests of scholarship, their results are looked to with much anxiety. The intervals of their occurrence are not sufficiently great to lessen their influence on the recitations of the pupils, or the every-day discharge of duty; while their repetition is frequent enough to afford sufficient means of estimating the improvement. The results of these examinations, with the register of the daily recitations, are preserved; affording a complete history of the pupil's standing and progress, during the whole time of her connection with the school.

GRADUATING CLASSES.—Twice a year certificates are granted to such pupils as have completed the prescribed course of study, and were considered properly qualified to perform the duties of teachers in the public schools.

In determining the pupil's claim to a certificate as a properly qualified teacher, three leading requisites are considered, besides her moral qualities:

1. Her knowledge of the branches to be taught.
2. Her ability to communicate what she knows.
3. Her general literary attainments.

Every teacher should be so thoroughly conversant with the branches she professes to teach, as to be able to conduct the recitations without the use of text books; as, in proportion to her ability to do this, she will succeed in imparting to her pupils a *knowledge* of the subject, instead of its *mere definition*—the certain result of mere routine teaching from text books. It is obvious that ability to illustrate the subject of instruction, must depend entirely upon the teacher herself being so familiarized with it, as readily to meet the pupil's difficulties by prompt and clear illustrations.

Although a perfect acquaintance with the subjects proposed to be taught, is essential to the teacher, yet, to possess knowledge without ability to communicate it, would not constitute a qualified teacher; while the greatest powers to impart, could not compensate for ignorance of the branches proposed to be taught.

Thus, the perfect scholar may be an unsuccessful *teacher*, while the perfect teacher *must* be a perfect *scholar*, at least to the extent of the branches she teaches. The casual observer, or even the inattentive child, does not fail to distinguish between the mystifying, misleading, stultifying, and inefficient attempts of the *mere scholar* to teach, and the developing, educating, and even creating power of the thorough teacher. Adopting these views of the relative importance of scholarship and aptness to teach, and their inseparable connection as essential qualifications in forming the perfect teacher, no certificate is granted to a pupil deficient in either.

As a test of the candidate's literary qualifications, the results of every examination, from the time of her admission to the completion of the full course of study, in connection with her daily recitations, are considered. In estimating her ability to teach, and tact in school discipline, her performances in the schools of practice, occupying more than one-sixth of the time of her pupilage in the Normal School, are taken as a guide.

The moral character, industrious habits, and integrity of purpose of the candidate, are determined from an acquaintance extending through a period of time amply sufficient to arrive at a correct conclusion.

The following is a copy of the certificate given to graduates of the Normal School:

NORMAL SCHOOL.

First School District of Pennsylvania.

THIS IS TO CERTIFY, That ——— has pursued and completed, in a satisfactory manner, the course of study of the NORMAL SCHOOL, and is deemed competent to impart instruction in the branches taught in the Public Grammar Schools.

Principal.

—————
By authority of the Controllers of Public Schools.

THIS CERTIFICATE is granted to ———, a pupil of the NORMAL SCHOOL, in testimony that her literary attainments, industrious habits, and integrity, qualify her to discharge properly all the duties of a Teacher.

President of the Board of Controllers.

Secretary.

Committee of the Normal School

TEACHERS AND EXPENSE OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.—The following statistics of the Normal School, and Model Schools, or Schools of Practice are taken from the Report of the Controllers, for 1850.

NORMAL SCHOOLS *located in Chester Street, above Race.*

Number of Pupil Teachers—Girls 136. Average attendance 129.

A. T. W. Wright, Principal,	\$1,000 00
Mary E. Houpt, Teacher of Grammar, &c.,	300 00
Mary E. Brown, Teacher of Reading, &c.,	300 00
Anna Vanarsdalen, Teacher of Arithmetic, &c.,	300 00
Mary E. Tazewell, Teacher of History, &c.,	300 00
E. W. Mumford, Teacher of Drawing,	150 00
George Kingsley, Teacher of Music,	150 00

MODEL SCHOOLS, *Chester Street, above Race.*

Girls' Grammar Schools.—Total 230. Average attendance 200.

Sally F. Dawes, Principal,	\$500 00
Mary Hunt, Assistant,	250 00

Boys' Secondary School.—Total 157. Average attendance 140.

Martha C. Brodie, P incipal,	\$300 00
Margaret Bell, Assistant,	200 00

Total expense of the Normal School, . .	\$2,694 66
“ “ “ Model Schools,	2,382 39

\$5,077 05

The total expense of the Normal School to the city, exclusive of the expense of the Model Schools, which would be increased by their disconnection from it, can not exceed \$2,000, and for this sum, every Primary, Secondary, and Grammar School, will derive benefits which could not be secured by the direct expenditure of a much larger sum. The Controllers bear the following testimony to the results of the school for 1850: “The Normal School has been in successful operation through the year, and has fully met the expectations of its most sanguine friends. Already a number of the pupils have been elected as teachers in several of our schools; and from their efficiency and aptness to teach, we may look to this school for a constant supply of teachers, not only well instructed in the different branches taught in our public schools, but capable also of imparting it to their pupils.”

The following statistics of the Public Schools of Philadelphia, are gathered from the “*Thirty-second Annual Report of the Controllers of the Public Schools of the City and County of Philadelphia*, composing the First School District of Pennsylvania, for the year ending June 30, 1850.” pp. 244. The whole document is highly creditable to the city, and the Report of John S. Hart, LL.D., Principal of the High School, as well as that of Dr. Wright, Principal of the Normal School, should be read and studied by every officer and teacher connected with the administration and instruction of Public Schools in every large city in our country. It must lead to the establishment of a High School where it does not now exist, and of a Normal School in each city, as Boston, Providence, New York, Cincinnati, New Orleans, &c.

Population of First School District, in 1850,	425,000
Number of Public Schools,	256
Classification of the Schools,—	
High School for Boys,	1
Normal School,	1
Grammar Schools,	53
Secondary Schools,	29
Primary Schools,	132
District or unclassified Schools,	40
Number of Scholars,—	
Males,	23,706
Females,	21,677
	<hr/>
	Total,
	45,383
Number of Teachers,—	
Male,	81
Females,	646
	<hr/>
	Total,
	727
Average number of pupils to each Teacher,	62
Amount expended during the year, for	
Salaries and Teachers,	\$178,325 84
Books and Stationery	36,213 07
Sites, Buildings and Furniture,	40,906 63
Fuel, Furnaces and Stoves,	13,422 72
Total expense for all School purposes,	\$332,433 21
Amount of current expenses, exclusive of houses and furniture, \$291,526 58	
Average of current expense to each pupil,	: . 6 42
Average of expense for each pupil, exclusive of books &c.,	5 67
Average expense of books and stationery to each pupil,	75

RHODE ISLAND.

THE following extracts from the Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools for 1845, will show the steps which were taken from 1843 to 1848, to improve the qualifications for teachers, and make their labors more serviceable to the schools.

BOOKS ON EDUCATION.

"As a permanent depository of the most valuable books and documents relating to schools, school systems, and particularly to the practical departments of education, I have nearly completed arrangements, to establish a library of education in every town, either to be under the management of the school committee of the town, or of some district or town library association, and in either case to be accessible to teachers, parents, and all interested in the administration of the school system, or the work of the more complete, thorough and practical education of the whole community. Each library will contain about thirty bound volumes, and as many pamphlets. To these libraries, the Legislature might from time to time hereafter, forward all laws and documents relating to the public schools of this state, and at a small annual expense, procure the most valuable books and periodicals which should be published on the theory and practice of teaching, and the official school documents of other states, and thus keep up with the progress of improvement in every department of popular education."

MODEL SCHOOLS.

"Whenever called upon by school committees, and especially in reference to schools which from their location might become, under good teachers, *models* in all the essential features of arrangement, instruction and discipline, for other schools in their vicinity, I have felt that I was rendering an essential service toward 'the improvement and better management of the public schools,' by aiding in the employment of such teachers. If but one good teacher could be permanently employed in each town, the direct and indirect influence of his teaching and example would be soon felt in every school; and his influence would be still more powerful and extensive if arrangements could be made so as to facilitate the visitation of his school by other teachers, or so as to allow of his making a circuit through the districts and towns in his vicinity, and give familiar and practical lectures and illustrations of his own methods of instruction. It is necessary to the rapid progress of education that parents, committees and teachers, should see and know what a good school is, and feel that 'as is the teacher so is the school.'"

TEACHERS' INSTITUTE, AND ASSOCIATIONS.

"By Teachers' Associations as now generally used, is understood the permanent organization of teachers among themselves; and by Teachers' Institutes, a temporary meeting, under the appointment of themselves, or the school officer of the state, for professional improvement. Teachers in every town have been urged to hold occasional meetings, or even a single meeting, for the purpose of

listening to practical lectures and discussions, or what would in most cases be better, of holding familiar conversation together on topics connected with the arrangement of schools, or methods of instruction now practised, or recommended in the various periodicals or books which they have consulted, and on the condition of their own schools. But something more permanent and valuable than these occasional meetings, has been aimed at by an organization of the teachers of the state, or at least of a single county, into a Teachers' Institute, with a systematic plan of operations from year to year, which shall afford to young and inexperienced teachers an opportunity to review the studies they are to teach, and to witness, and to some extent practice, the best methods of arranging and conducting the classes of a school, as well as of obtaining the matured views of the best teachers and educators on all the great topics of education, as brought out in public lectures, discussions and conversation. The attainments of solitary reading will thus be quickened by the action of living mind. The acquisition of one will be tested, by the experience and strictures of others. New advances in any direction by one teacher, will become known, and made the common property of the profession. Old and defective methods will be held up, exposed and corrected, while valuable hints will be followed out and proved. The tendency to a dogmatical tone and spirit, to one-sided and narrow views, to a monotony of character, which every good teacher fears, and to which most professional teachers are exposed, will be withstood and obviated. The sympathies of a common pursuit, the interchange of ideas, the discussion of topics which concern their common advancement, the necessity of extending their reading and inquiries, and of cultivating the power and habit of written and oral expression, all these things will attach teachers to each other, elevate their own character and attainments, and the social and pecuniary estimate of the profession."

ITINERATING NORMAL SCHOOL AGENCY.

"With the co-operation of the Washington County Association, the services of a well-qualified teacher were secured to visit every town in that county, for the purpose, among other objects, of acting directly on the schools as they were, by plain, practical exposures of defective methods, which impair the usefulness of the schools, and illustrations of other methods which would make the schools immediately and permanently better."

NORMAL SCHOOL.

"Although much can be done toward improving the existing qualifications of teachers, and elevating their social and pecuniary position, by converting one or more district schools in each town and county, into a model school, to which the young and inexperienced teacher may resort for demonstrations of the best methods; or by sending good teachers on missions of education throughout the schools of a county; or by associations of teachers for mutual improvement,—still these agencies can not so rapidly supply, in any system of public education, the place of one thoroughly-organized Normal School, or an institution for the special training of teachers, modified to suit the peculiar circumstances of the state, and the present condition of the schools. With this conviction resting on my own mind, I have aimed every where so to set forth the nature, necessity, and probable results of such an institution, as to prepare the public mind for some legislative action toward the establishment of one such school, and in the absence of that, to make it an object of associated effort and liberality. I have good reason to believe that any movement on the part of the state, would be met by the prompt co-operation of not a few liberal-minded and liberal-handed friends of education, and the great enterprise of preparing Rhode Island teachers for Rhode Island schools, might soon be in successful operation."

ADDRESSES AND PUBLICATIONS ON THE SUBJECT OF EDUCATION.

The following extract from Remarks of the Commissioner before the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, will exhibit his mode of preparing the way for a broad, thorough and liberal system of public instruction, by

interesting all who could be reached by the living voice or the printed page, in the nature and means of education, the condition and wants of the schools, and the best modes of introducing desirable improvements.

“To this end public meetings have been held, not only in every town, but in every village and neighborhood, more numerous and more systematic in their plan of operations than was ever attempted in any other community, or than could have been carried out in the same time in any state of greater territory, and with a population less concentrated in villages than this. More than eleven hundred meetings have been held expressly to discuss topics connected with the public schools, at which more than fifteen hundred addresses have been delivered. One hundred and fifty of these meetings have continued through the day and evening; upward of one hundred, through two evenings and a day; fifty, through two days and three evenings; and twelve, including the Teachers' Institutes, through an entire week. In addition to this class of meetings and addresses, upward of two hundred meetings of teachers and parents have been held for lectures and discussions on improved methods of teaching the studies ordinarily pursued in public schools, and for exhibitions or public examinations of schools, or of a class of pupils in certain studies, such as arithmetic, reading, &c. These meetings have proved highly useful. Besides these various meetings, experienced teachers have been employed to visit particular towns and sections of the state, and converse freely with parents by the way-side and the fire-side, on the condition and improvement of the district school. By these various agencies it is believed that a public meeting has been held within three miles of every home in Rhode Island, except in sections of a few towns where an audience of a dozen people could not be collected in a circuit of three or four miles.

To the interest awakened by these addresses and by the sympathy of numbers swayed by the same voice, and by the same ideas, must be added the more permanent and thoughtful interest cultivated by the reading of books, pamphlets, and tracts on the same topics at home. More than sixteen thousand pamphlets and tracts, each containing at least sixteen pages of educational matter, have been distributed gratuitously through the state; and in one year, not an almanac was sold in Rhode Island without at least sixteen pages of educational reading attached. This statement does not include the official school documents published by the state, nor the Journal of the Institute, nor upward of twelve hundred bound volumes on schools and school systems, and the theory and practice of teaching, which have been purchased by teachers, or which have been added to public or private libraries within the last four years. In addition to the printed information thus disseminated, the columns of the different newspapers published in the state have always been open to original and selected articles on education, and to notices of school meetings.”

The author of the Remarks above quoted was obliged, from impaired health, to resign his office of Commissioner of Public Schools, before he could organize these various agencies into a complete and permanent system for the professional training and improvement of the teachers of Rhode Island. His plan contemplated a thoroughly-organized and equipped Normal School, and ultimately two Normal Schools—one to be located in the city of Providence, having a connection, under the auspices of the school committee, with a Public Grammar, Intermediate and Primary School, or Schools of Observation and Practice, and also with Brown University, under a distinct professorship, and with access to libraries, apparatus, and courses of lectures, so far as the same could be made available;—and the other in the country. The Normal School at Providence was to receive two classes of pupils—young men, whose previous studies and talent fitted them for the charge of the most advanced classes in public schools in the cities and villages, and the other for female teachers. The plan of a Normal School in the country, was modeled in some of

its features after the institution of Verhli, at Krutzlingen, in Switzerland, of which an account was published in the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, in 1846, and of the Training School at Battersea, in England. In this school the teachers were to support themselves in whole, or in part, or at least the expense of board was to be reduced, after the plan of the Seminary at Mount Holyoke, in Massachusetts. In both institutions, the course of instruction was to embrace the principles of science as applied to the leading industrial pursuits of the people of the state; and in this department of the plan, the co-operation of the "Rhode Island Society for the Encouragement of Domestic Industry," was anticipated. No state in the Union possesses such facilities. As was remarked by the Commissioner, in taking final leave of the Legislature, and the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, in 1848:

"Her territory is small, and every advance in one town or district, can easily be known, seen and felt in every other. Her wealth is abundant,—more abundant, and more equally distributed, than in any other state. Her population is concentrated in villages, which will admit of the establishment of public schools of the highest grade. The occupations of the people are diverse, and this is at once an element of power and safety. Commerce will give expansion; manufactures and the mechanical arts will give activity, power, invention and skill; and agriculture, the prudence and conservatism which should belong to the intellectual character and habits of a people. Rhode Island has a large city, to which the entire population of the state is brought by business or pleasure every year, and which should impart a higher tone of manners, intelligence and business, than can exist in a state without a capital; and fortunately, Providence has set a noble example to the rest of the state in her educational institutions,—in the provision of her citizens for schools, libraries, and institutions for religion and benevolence."

PROFESSORSHIP IN DIDACTICS IN BROWN UNIVERSITY.

In the reorganization of the course of instruction in Brown University as presented in the Report of President Wayland, on the 19th of July, 1850, provision is made for a course in "Didactics, or the Theory and Practice of Teaching." The following explanation is given in the Report.

"The course in Didactics is designed at present especially for the benefit of teachers of common schools. There will be held two terms a year in this department, of at least two months each. It shall be the duty of the professor of Didactics to review with the class the studies taught in common schools, and then to explain the manner of communicating knowledge to others. The other professors in the University will be expected to deliver to this class such lectures in their several departments as may be desired by the Executive Board."

The course as thus explained, if entrusted to a competent professor, will accomplish much good to a limited number of teachers, who shall bring a suitable preparatory knowledge, and be able to meet the expenses of a residence in Providence. But unless greatly enlarged, and accompanied with opportunities of observation and practice in the public schools of the city, it will fall far short of meeting the wants of the female teachers of the state, and much the larger portion of the male teachers. It is to be hoped that the plan will be so far extended, as to embrace a Normal School under the auspices of the School Committee of Providence, and in connection with a Grammar, Intermediate and Primary School, as Schools of Practice, for female teachers, like that in successful operation in Philadelphia.

MICHIGAN.

THE importance of making early and efficient provision for a sufficient number of well-qualified teachers, was pointed out by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, in his preliminary report to the Legislature, on the organization of the system, in 1837. The subject was repeatedly presented to the public in subsequent recommendations from the same officer, until 1849, when the Legislature passed an act to establish a State Normal School, "the exclusive purposes of which shall be the instruction of persons, both male and female, in the art of teaching, and in all the various branches that pertain to a good common school education; also to give instruction in the mechanic arts and in the arts of husbandry and agricultural chemistry, in the fundamental laws of the United States, and in what regards the rights and duties of citizens."

For the purpose of providing the necessary expenses of building, books and apparatus, "ten sections of salt-spring lands," were appropriated, as the "Normal School Fund;" and to meet the salaries of the Principal and Assistants, the Board of Education, to whom the management of the School is intrusted, are authorized "to locate fifteen sections of salt-spring lands," as the "Normal School Endowment Fund," the interest of which only can be applied to the above purposes.

The School has been located in Ypsilanti, the citizens of that beautiful village having tendered for the use of the School an eligible lot of ground, a subscription of \$13,500 toward a suitable building, and the payment of the salary of the teacher of the Model School, to be composed of the children of the village. The plan of the building has been decided on, and is to be ready for the occupation of the School, in the course of 1850.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

IN

BRITISH PROVINCES.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

By an Act of the Provincial Legislature of New Brunswick, in 1848, two Training Schools were established, one at Fredericton, and the other at St. Johns, as an experiment, for a period of two years. In 1850, the act was continued in force two years longer, to give time to prepare a more comprehensive measure for the education of teachers. In 1850, the school at Fredericton was united with that at St. Johns, which is in successful operation under the charge of Mr. E. H. Duval.

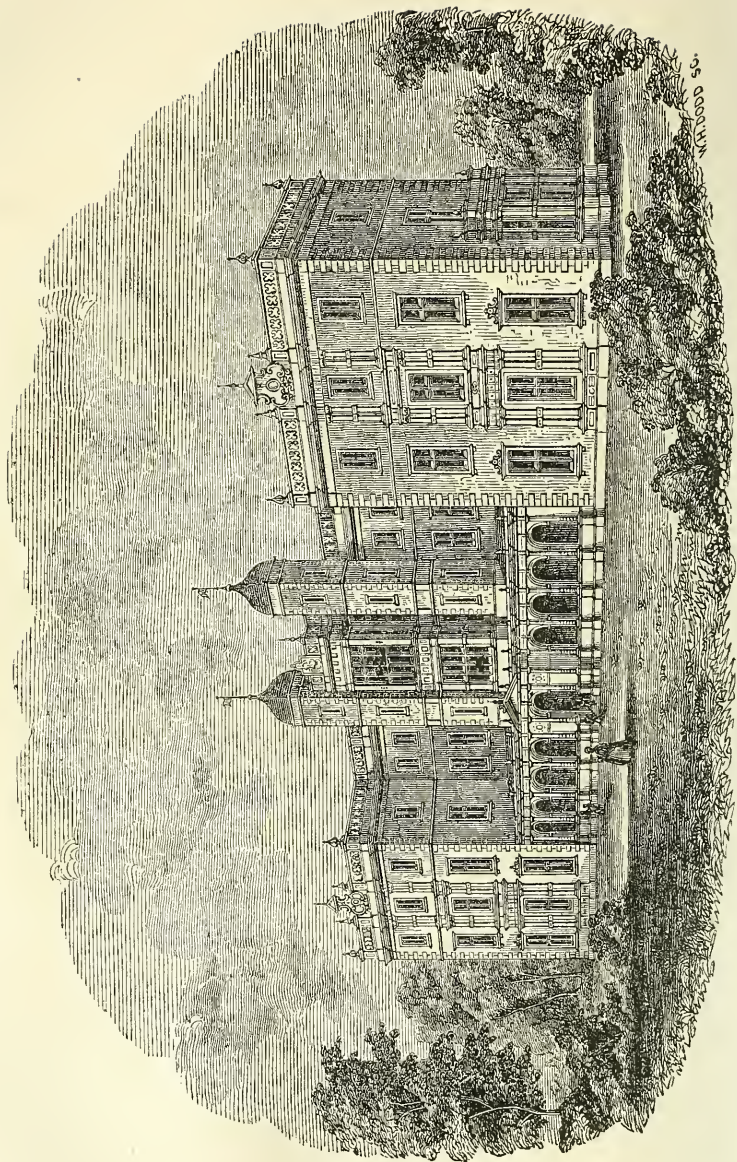
UPPER CANADA.

The Provincial Normal School for Upper Canada, was established at Toronto, in 1846, and since its first organization has been under the immediate instruction of Professor J. B. Robertson, who was for many years one of the chief Inspectors of Schools, in connection with the Board of National Education for Ireland. In 1850, the Provincial Legislature appropriated the sum of \$60,000 for procuring a site, and erecting buildings for the "Provincial Normal and Model School." The September number of the *Journal of Education*, published at Toronto, under the editorial charge of Dr. Ryerson, and sent at the expense of the province to every school district, contains the following notice:

"A site has been purchased, consisting of nearly eight acres of ground, beautifully situated in a central part of the city of Toronto, composing an entire square. This ground will afford facilities for a botanical garden—the proper accompaniment of the Normal School lectures in vegetable physiology; also for agricultural experiments on a limited scale—an appropriate illustration of the Normal School course of instruction in agricultural chemistry and science.

The Council of Public Instruction has also advertised for designs and plans for the Normal and Model School buildings, including rooms for a school of art and design,—offering liberal premiums, so as to insure the contributions of the highest architectural science and skill in the country."

Not one of the United States has made more progress in the last ten years than the province of Upper Canada, in carrying into successful operation a system of common schools, under the auspices of the Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D.D., chief superintendent of the department. Dr. Ryerson's "Report on the Organization of a System of Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada," in 1846, embodies the results of nearly two years' observation on the practical workings of schools and school systems in the different states of Europe, and is a valuable contribution to the literature of education.



W. H. WOOD SC.

KNELLER HALL TRAINING SCHOOL, ENGLAND

NORMAL SCHOOLS,

AND OTHER

INSTITUTIONS, AGENCIES, AND MEANS

DESIGNED FOR THE

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.

BY HENRY BARNARD,

SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS OF CONNECTICUT.

PART II.—EUROPE.

HARTFORD:

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1851.

L

C I R C U L A R .

THIS volume, although prepared from documents originally collected, from time to time, to assist the undersigned in maturing his own views and plans for the improvement of the common schools of Connecticut, and particularly in devising modes of operating beneficially for the advancement of the teacher's profession, here and in Rhode Island, is not intended, exclusively or mainly, for circulation in this State. It embodies information which the author believes can be made available in organizing new, and improving existing systems of public instruction, and particularly institutions and agencies, designed for the professional education of teachers, in every State of this Union. Its value does not consist in its conveying the speculations or limited experience of the author, but the matured views and varied experience of wise statesmen, educators and teachers, through a succession of years, and under the most diverse circumstances of government, society and religion. It is believed that every teacher, and every school officer, who will peruse these pages with any degree of attention, can gain valuable hints and reliable information, as to the experience of States and Institutions, which can be turned to good account in his own school, and his own sphere of administrative duty.

HENRY BARNARD,

Superintendent of Common Schools.

HARTFORD, January 13, 1851.

INTRODUCTION.

WHATEVER may be thought of the practical value of the experience of Germany and other European States in the organization and administration of Systems of Public Instruction, to those who are engaged in the work of establishing and improving Public Schools in this country, no one who has reflected at all on this subject, can doubt the applicability, with some modifications, of many of the institutions and agencies which are employed there, especially in Germany, Holland, and Switzerland, to secure the thorough professional education, and progressive improvement of teachers of elementary schools. Among these institutions and agencies are,

1. Institutions supported by the government, wholly, or mainly devoted to a course of instruction in the theory of education as a science, and in methods of teaching as an art. In most of the German States these institutions are known as Teachers' Seminaries, and are not composed of children, but of teachers, or of candidates for admission to the profession, with one or more schools for children annexed but subordinate to them as schools of practice.

Institutions of this class are not confined to training teachers for primary or elementary schools, but are established for the preparation of professors and teachers in universities, and schools of secondary and superior education.

2. Courses of lectures on the principles and practice of teaching, to classes of young persons who have gone through the studies of the primary school, and who enjoy opportunities of observation and practice as assistants, in the classification, instruction and discipline of the schools, in which these lectures are given. These schools composed of children, are always located in large towns, and were originally denominated Normal Schools, because they were *patterns*, or models, for the imitation of the class of teachers,—the *rule* or *law* of their practical operation. The name was first applied in Austria, where

this system of training teachers still prevails, and was adopted in France to designate institutions which are properly Teachers' Seminaries. Through the reports and treatises of French writers on education, the word Normal has been introduced into the English language, as synonymous with Teachers' Seminaries, when used in connection with schools. Courses of Lectures on Didactics and Pedagogy are common in the Universities and Theological Schools of Germany, and are frequented by those who expect to teach in the Gymnasias, and other schools of Secondary and Superior Education. In some of the German States students of theology are required to attend these lectures as a necessary preparation for the right performance of the duties of school committees, which are always, although not exclusively, composed of clergymen of different denominations.

3. A combination of the Teachers' Seminary and the Normal School, (in its original acceptance, of courses of lectures and practice as assistants in model or pattern schools,) with a system of apprenticeship in the business of teaching. This is the plan of preparing teachers which has worked admirably in Holland, and has recently been introduced into England, under the auspices of the Committee of Council on Education.

4. Institutions, composed, not of teachers or candidates for teaching, in attendance only for a limited period, ranging from six months to four years, as in Teachers' Seminaries and Normal Schools, but of members, who, having passed through a novitiate, or preparatory course to test their vocation, are devoting themselves for life, from religious motives, under a rule of celibacy and poverty, but without a vow, to the education of the poor. These institutions, (*Ecoles-maire*, or Mother Schools,) originated in France, and the principal congregations are known as Brothers of the Christian Doctrine. The teachers are models of industry and Christian devotion in their vocation, and their Schools for the poor are among the best elementary schools in Europe. A modification of these institutions has been recently introduced at Kaisersworth, and Berlin, in Prussia.

5. An Itinerating Normal School Agency, by which superior teachers, of experience and the requisite tact and talent for the business circulate among the schools of a particular district, not mainly for the purposes of inspection, but for familiar conversation with teachers, and practical illustrations in their school-rooms, of improved methods of arranging the studies, and conducting the recitations and discipline of the schools.

6. A system of examination, by which only persons of the right spirit, character, attainments, and practical skill, are licensed to teach, combined with modes of school inspection, by which incompetent and unworthy members are excluded from the profession.

7. Plans of associations of the teachers of a town or larger district, for periodical conferences for mutual and professional improvement.

8. Legal recognition of the true value of the teacher's office, by exemption from duties which will interfere with the full performance of its duties, and by provision for its permanence and adequate compensation, independent of the negligence or parsimony of parents and municipal authorities.

9. A system of promotion from a less desirable school, to one more so in respect to studies, location, and salary, dependent not upon favoritism, but generally on the results of an open and impartial examination.

10. Access to books on the theory and practice of teaching, and to educational periodicals, by which the young and inexperienced teacher is made acquainted with the views of experienced teachers in his own and other times, in his own and other countries.

11. Facilities for the acquisition of some industrial pursuit, out of school hours, which will add to the happiness and emoluments of the teacher, without diminishing his personal influence as the educator of the community.

12. A system of savings, aided and guaranteed by the government, but founded in habits of thrift and forecast in the teachers, by which provision is made for themselves in old age, or sickness, and for their families, in case of death.

By these and other institutions, agencies and means, recognized or established in some of the best systems of public instruction in Europe, the office of teacher has been greatly elevated in usefulness, and in social and pecuniary consideration. It is the object of this volume to bring together the experience of different states in this most important department of the whole field of educational labor, as presented in official documents, and the observations of intelligent and trustworthy educators. For the imperfect manner in which the work is done, and for many omissions of historical facts, the author can offer no other apology than the simple statement that he has found the time he could devote to its performance altogether too short and that a portion of this time has been occupied by official duties, or rendered useless for this purpose by ill health.

In conclusion, it may save some misapprehension of his own views

to remark, that with all these agencies for the education and improvement of teachers, the public schools of Europe, with their institutions of government and society, do not turn out such practical and efficient men as our own common schools, acting in concert with our religious, social, and political institutions. A boy educated in a district school of New England, taught for a few months in the winter, by a rough, half-educated but live teacher, who is earning his way, by his winter's work in the school-room out of the profession into something which will pay better, and in the summer by a young female, just out of the oldest class of the winter school, and with no other knowledge of teaching than what she may have gathered by observation of the diverse practices of some ten or twelve instructors, who must have taught the school under the intermittent and itinerating system which prevails universally in the country districts of New England—a boy thus taught through his school life, but subjected at home and abroad, to the stirring influences of a free press, of town and school district meetings, of constant intercourse with those who are mingling with the world, and in the affairs of public life, and beyond all these influences, subjected early to the wholesome discipline, both moral and intellectual, of taking care of himself, and the affairs of the house and the farm, will have more capacity for business, and exhibit more intellectual activity and versatility than the best scholar who ever graduated from a Prussian school, but whose school life, and especially the years which immediately follow, are subjected to the depressing and repressing influences of a despotic government, and to a state of society in which every thing is fixed both by law and the iron rule of custom. But this superiority is not due to the school, but is gained in spite of the school. Our aim should be to make the school better, and to bring all the influences of home and society, of religion and free institutions, into perfect harmony with the best teaching of the best teacher.

Hartford, January 13, 1851.

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN EUROPE.

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TABLE.

NUMBER OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE DIFFERENT STATES OF EUROPE.

Prussia,	51	1735
Saxony,	10	1785
Austria,	11	1775
Bavaria,	9	1777
Wirtemberg,	7	1757
Hanover,	7	1750
Baden,	4	1768
Hesse-Cassel,	3	
Hesse-Darmstadt,	2	
Anhalt,	3	
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha,	2	1779
Saxe-Meiningen,	1	
Saxe Weimar,	2	
Oldenburg,	2	
Holstein,	1	1788
Nassau,	1	
Brunswick,	1	
Luxemburg,	1	
Lippe,	1	
Mecklenburg Schwerin,	1	
Mecklenburg Strelitz,	1	
Lubeck,	1	
Bremen,	1	
Hamburg,	1	
Frankfort,	1	
Holland,	2	1816
Belgium,	2	
Denmark,	2	
Sweden,	1	
France,	97	1808
England and Wales,	23	1840
Scotland,	2	1835
Ireland,	1	1836
	264	

GERMANY.

To Germany,* as a whole, as one people, and not to any particular state of Germany, as now recognized on the map of Europe, belongs the credit of first thoroughly organizing a system of public education under the administration of the civil power. Here, too, education first assumed the form and name of a science, and the art of teaching and training children was first taught systematically in seminaries established for this special purpose.

But not to Germany, or to any one people or any civil authority any where, but to the Christian Church, belongs the higher credit of first instituting the public school, or rather the parochial school, for the elementary education of the poor, which was the earliest form which this mighty element of modern society assumed. After the third century of the Christian era, whenever a Christian church was planted, or religious institutions established, there it was the aim of the higher ecclesiastical authorities to found, in some form, a school for the nurture of children and youth for the service of religion and duties of society. Passing by the ecclesiastical and catechetical schools, we find, as early as 529, the council of Vaison strongly recommending the establishment of village schools. In 800 a synod at Mayence ordered that the parochial priests should have

* Mr. W. E. Hickson, in his valuable pamphlet, entitled "*Dutch and German Schools*," published in London in 1840, well says :

"We must bear in mind that the German states, although under different governments, are not nations as distinct from, and independent of each other, as France and Spain, or as Russia and Great Britain. Each of the German states is influenced more or less by every other ; the whole lying in close juxtaposition, and being linked together by the bond of a common language and literature. The boundary line that separates Prussia from Hesse on one side, or from Saxony on another, is not more defined than that of a county or parish in England. A stone in a field, or a post painted with stripes, in a public road, informs the traveler that he is passing from one state into another, that these territorial divisions make no change in the great characteristics of the people : whatever the name of the state, or the color of the stripes, the people, with merely provincial differences, are the same : from the Baltic to the Adriatic, they are still Germans. The national spirit may always be gathered from the national songs, and in Germany the most popular are those which speak of all Germans as brothers, and all German states as belonging to one common country, as may be gathered from the following passage of a song of M. Arndt :—

"What country does a German claim ?
His Fatherland ; know'st thou its name ?
Is it Bavaria.—Saxony ?
An inland state, or on the sea ?
There, on the Baltic's plains of sand ?
Or mid the Alps of Switzerland ?
Austria, the Adriatic shores ?
Or where the Prussian eagle soars ?
Or where hills covered by the vine,

Adorn the landscape of the Rhine ?
Oh no, oh no, not there, alone,
The land, with pride, we call our own,
Not there. A German's heart or mind
Is to no narrow realm confined.
Where'er he hears his native tongue,
When hymns of praise to God are sung,
There is his Fatherland, and he
Has but one country—Germany !"

schools in the towns and villages, that the little children of all the faithful might learn letters from them; "let them receive and teach these with the utmost charity, that they themselves may shine as the stars for ever. Let them receive no remuneration from their scholars, unless what the parents through charity may voluntarily offer." A council at Rome, in 836, under Eugene II., ordained that there should be three kinds of schools established throughout Christendom; episcopal, parochial in towns and villages, and others wherever there could be found place and opportunity. In 836, Lothaire I. promulgated a decree to establish eight public schools in some of the principal cities of Italy, "in order that opportunity may be given to all, and that there may be no excuse drawn from poverty and the difficulty of repairing to remote places." The third council of Lateran, in 1179, says: "Since the Church of God, as a pious mother, is bound to provide that opportunity for learning should not be withdrawn from the poor, who are without help from patrimonial riches, be it ordained, that in every cathedral there should be a master to teach both clerks and poor scholars gratis." This decree was enlarged and again enforced by Innocent III. in the year 1215. Hence, in all colleges of canons, one bore the title of the scholastic canon. The council of Lyons, in 1215, decreed "that in all cathedral churches, and others provided with adequate revenues, there should be established a school and a teacher by the bishop and chapter, who should teach the clerks and other poor scholars gratis in grammar, and for this purpose a stipend should be assigned him."*

Such was the origin of the popular school, as now generally understood—every where the offspring, and companion of the Church; sharing with her, in large measure, the imperfections which attach to all new institutions and all human instrumentalities; encountering peculiar difficulties from the barbarism of the age and people through which it passed, and which it was its mission to enlighten; and every where crippled by insufficient endowments, unqualified teachers, and the absence of all text books, and necessary aids to instruction and illustration. The discovery of the art of printing, in 1440, and the consequent multiplication of books at prices which brought them more within reach of the great mass of the people; the study and use of the vernacular language by scholars and divines, and particularly its employment in the printing of the Bible, hymns, popular songs, school books, and in religious instruction generally; the recognition by the municipal authorities of cities, and at a later period by the higher civil power, of the right, duty and interest of the state, in connection with, or independent of the church, to provide liberally and efficiently for the education of all children and youth; and above all, the intense activity given to the human mind by the religious movement of Luther, in the early part of the sixteenth century; the assertion of the right of private judgment in the interpretation of the scriptures; the breaking up of existing ecclesiastical foundations, and the diversion of funds

* Digby's *Mores Catholicæ*.

from religious to educational purposes,—all these causes, combined with the general progress of society, co-operated to introduce an advantageous change in the organization, administration, instruction and discipline of the popular school. But the progress actually made from year to year, and century even to century, was slow, and after three hundred years of effort, there is much yet to be done even in those states and communities which have accomplished the most toward improving the outward organization and instrumentalities of the schools, and above all its internal life in the improved qualification and position of the teachers—for as is the teacher, so is the school. A brief reference to a few of the more prominent names in the history of popular education in Germany, and through Germany, of Modern Europe, is all that can be attempted at this time and in this connection. Among these names stands prominent that of Martin Luther.

In a letter to the Elector of Saxony, in the year 1526, Luther says:*

“Since we are all required, and especially the magistrates, above all other things, to educate the youth who are born and are growing up among us, and to train them up in the fear of God and in the ways of virtue, it is needful that we have schools and preachers and pastors. If the parents will not reform, they must go their way to ruin, but if the young are neglected, and left without education, it is the fault of the state; and the effect will be that the country will swarm with vile and lawless people, so that our safety, no less than the command of God requireth us to foresee and ward off the evil.” He maintains in that letter that the government, “as the natural guardian of all the young,” has the right to compel the people to support schools. “What is necessary to the well-being of a state, that should be supplied by those who enjoy the privilege of such state. Now nothing is more necessary than the training of those who are to come after us and bear rule. If the people are too poor to pay the expense, and are already burdened with taxes, then the monastic funds, which were originally given for such purposes, are to be employed in that way to relieve the people.” The cloisters were abandoned in many cases, and the difficult question, what was to be done with their funds, Luther settled in this judicious manner. How nearly did he approach to the policy now so extensively adopted in this country, of supporting schools partly by taxation and partly by funds appropriated for that purpose.

In 1524 he wrote a remarkable production, entitled “An Address to the Common Councils of all the Cities of Germany in behalf of Christian Schools,” from which a few passages may here be extracted. After some introductory remarks, he comes directly to his point, and says to his countrymen collectively:

“I entreat you, in God’s behalf and that of the poor youth, not to think so lightly of this matter as many do. It is a grave and serious thing, affecting the interest of the kingdom of Christ, and of all the world, that we apply ourselves to the work of aiding and instructing the young. . . . If so much be expended every year in weapons of war, roads, dams, and countless other things of the sort for the safety and prosperity of a city; why should not we expend as much for the benefit of the poor, ignorant youth, to provide them with skillful teachers? God hath verily visited us Germans in mercy and given us a truly golden year. For we now have accomplished and learned young men, adorned with a knowledge of literature and art, who could be of great service if employed to teach the young. . . .

Even if the parents were qualified, and were also inclined to teach, they have so much else to do in their business and household affairs that they can not find the time to educate their children. Thus there is a necessity that public teach-

* The following extracts are taken from Dr. Sears’ “*Life of Martin Luther*,” published by the American Sunday School Union.

ers be provided. Otherwise each one would have to teach his own children, which would be for the common people too great a burden. Many a fine boy would be neglected on account of poverty; and many an orphan would suffer from the negligence of guardians. And those who have no children would not trouble themselves at all about the whole matter. Therefore it becometh rulers and magistrates to use the greatest care and diligence in respect to the education of the young.

The diligent and pious teacher who properly instructeth and traineth the young, can never be fully rewarded with money. If I were to leave my office as preacher, I would next chose that of schoolmaster, or teacher of boys; for I know that, next to preaching, this is the greatest, best, and most useful vocation; and I am not quite sure which of the two is the better; for it is hard to reform old sinners, with whom the preacher has to do, while the young tree can be made to bend without breaking."

In 1527, a visitation was made of the churches and schools of the electorate of Saxony, in which more than thirty men were employed a whole year. The result in respect to education was, that the "Saxon school system," as it was called, was drawn up by the joint labors of Luther and Melancthon; and thus the foundation was laid for the magnificent organization of schools to which Germany owes so much of her present fame.

In a letter to Margrave George, of Brandenburg, July 18, 1529:—

"I will tell you what Melancthon and myself, upon mature consideration, think best to be done. First, we think the cloisters and foundations may continue to stand till their inmates die out. . . . Secondly, it would be exceedingly well to establish in one or two places in the principality a learned school, in which shall be taught, not only the Holy Scriptures, but law, and all the arts, from whence preachers, pastors, clerks, counselors, &c., may be taken for the whole principality. To this object should the income of the cloisters and other religious foundations be applied, so as to give an honorable support to learned men; two in theology, two in law, one in medicine, one in mathematics, and four or five for grammar, logic, rhetoric, &c. . . . Thirdly, in all the towns and villages, good schools for children should be established, from which those who are adapted to higher studies might be taken and trained up for the public."

Under these instructions and appeals a school law was adopted in Wirtemberg in 1559, and modified in 1565; in Saxony in 1560, and improved in 1580; in Hesse in 1565; and in Brandenburg, still earlier; which recognized and provided for the classification, inspection, and support of public schools on substantially the same plan which prevails to this day throughout Germany.

The pedagogical work of Luther—his labors to improve the method of instruction—were continued by Trotzendorf,* in Goldberg, from 1530 to 1556; by Sturm, in Strasbourg, from 1550 to 1589; by Neander, in Ilefeld, from 1570 to 1595, whose schools were all Normal Schools, in the original acceptation of the term, *pattern* or *model* schools, of their time. They were succeeded by Wolfgang Ratich, born at Wilster, in Holstein, in 1571; by Christopher Helwig, born near Frankfort, in 1581; and by Amos Comenius, born at Comna, in Moravia, in 1592; who all labored, by their writings, and by organizing schools and courses of instruction, to disseminate improved methods of teaching. Comenius was invited by an act of parliament in 1631, to visit England for the purpose of intro-

* Trotzendorf practiced the monitorial system of instruction two hundred and fifty years before Dr. Bell or Joseph Lancaster set up their claims for its discovery.

ducing his method into the public institutions of that country. But internal commotions interrupted and ultimately defeated his plans.

In 1618, the religious war—known as the *Thirty Years' war*—broke out in Germany, and for an entire generation swept over the land, wasting harvest fields, destroying cities, tearing fathers from the protection of their families, scattering teachers and schools, and arresting the progress of all spiritual and educational improvement. At the close of the war, and in some of the smaller states during its progress, the civil government began to take effectual steps to secure the attendance of children at school, by making it compulsory on parents, on penalty of fine and imprisonment for neglect, to send them during a certain age. This was first attempted in Gotha, in 1643; in Heildesheim, in 1663; and in Prussia, in 1669; and Calenberg, in 1681. About this period, two men appeared, Philip J. Spener, born in the Alsace in 1635, and Augustus Herman Franké, born at Lübeck in 1663; who, the first by the invention of the catechetic method, and the last, a pupil of the former, by the foundation of the orphan-house at Halle in 1696, were destined to introduce a new era in the history of education in Germany.

The history of the orphan-house at Halle, is a beautiful illustration of practical Christian charity, and the ever-extending results of educational labor. While pastor of Glaucha, a suburb of Halle, he was in the habit of distributing bread to the poor, with whose poverty and ignorance he was equally distressed. To relieve at once their physical and spiritual destitution, he invited old and young into his house, and while he distributed alms, he at the same time gave oral and catechetical instruction in the principles of the Christian faith. To benefit the orphan children still more, he took a few into his family in 1694, and to avail himself of the gifts of the charitable, he resorted to the following expedient, according to his biographer, Dr. Guericke:

“He caused a box to be fastened up in the parlor of the parsonage-house, and wrote over it, ‘Whoso hath this world’s goods, and seeth his brother have need, and shutteth up his bowels of compassion from him, how dwelleth the love of God in him?’ (1 John iii. 17,) and underneath, ‘Every one according as he purposeth in his heart, so let him give; not grudgingly or of necessity; for God loveth a cheerful giver.’ (2 Cor. ix. 17.) This box, which was destined for the reception of the casual gifts of those who visited Franké, was fixed up at the commencement of 1695; and not in vain. The passage (2 Cor. ix. 8,) had fallen in his way, a short time before this circumstance, and now occurred the incident related in his letter to Schädé. ‘This,’ says he, ‘served to show me, how God is able to make us abound in every good work.’

‘After the poor’s-box had been fixed up in my dwelling about a quarter of a year,’ relates Franké, ‘a certain person put, at one time, four dollars and sixteen groschen into it. On taking this sum into my hand, I exclaimed with great liberty of faith,—This is a considerable sum, with which something really good must be accomplished; I will commence a school with it for the poor. Without conferring, therefore, with flesh and blood, and acting under the impulse of faith, I made arrangement for the purchase of books to the amount of two dollars, and engaged a poor student to instruct the poor children for a couple of hours daily, promising to give him six groschen weekly for so doing, in the hope that God would meanwhile grant more; since in this manner a couple of dollars would be spent in eight weeks.’

Franké, who was ready to offer up whatever he had to the service of his neighbor, fixed upon the ante-chamber of his study, for the school-room of the

poor children, who began regularly to receive instruction at Easter, 1695. In this school-room, he caused a second box to be fixed up, with the inscription, 'For the expenses of the instruction of the children, needful books, &c.,' and underneath, 'He that hath pity upon the poor, lendeth to the Lord; and that which he hath given, will he pay him again,' (Prov. xix. 17.)

At Whitsuntide, Franké was visited by some friends, who were much pleased at his efforts in behalf of the poor, to which they contributed a few dollars. Others also gave small donations, from time to time, to the school-box. Soon after Whitsuntide, when some of the townspeople saw how regularly the children of the poor received instruction, they became desirous of sending their children likewise to the same teacher, and offered to pay him weekly a groschen for each child; so that the teacher now received sixteen groschen weekly for a five-hours' daily instruction. The number of his scholars, that summer, amounted to between fifty and sixty, of which the poor, besides gratuitous instruction, also received alms, twice or thrice a-week, to incite them to attend school the more willingly. Donations in money, and linen, for shirts for the poor children, began now to arrive from other places.

About Whitsuntide of the same year, Franké laid also the first foundation for what was subsequently called the royal school. The widow of a nobleman desired him to send her a domestic tutor for her own, and one of her friend's children. He found no one who was sufficiently far advanced in his studies, and therefore proposed to the parents, to send their children to Halle, and that he would then provide for their education, by able teachers and guardians. The parents agreed to this plan; and a few months afterward, an additional number of youths were sent, and thus originated the seminary above mentioned, which, in 1709, consisted of an inspector, twenty-three teachers, and seventy-two scholars; and in 1711, by means of Franké's exertions, had a building appropriated exclusively to it.

In the summer of the same year, 1695, Franké unexpectedly and unsolicited received a very considerable contribution; for a person of rank wrote to him with the offer of five hundred dollars, for the purpose of distribution among the poor, and especially among the indigent students. This money was shortly afterward paid over to him. He then selected twenty poor students, whom he assisted with a weekly donation of four, eight, or twelve groschen; 'and this,' says he, 'was in reality the origin of the poor students' participating to the present hour, in the benefits of the orphan-house.'

In the autumn there was no longer sufficient room in the parsonage for the increasing number of scholars; he therefore hired a school-room of one of his neighbors, and a second in the beginning of the winter. He then divided the scholars into two classes, and provided a separate teacher for the children of the townspeople, and another for the children of the poor. Each teacher gave four hours instruction daily, and received a guilder weekly, besides lodging and firing gratis.

But Franké was soon made to see, that many a hopeful child was deprived, when out of school, of all the benefit he received in it. The idea therefore occurred to him, in the autumn of 1695, to undertake the entire charge and education of a limited number of children; 'and this,' says he, 'was the first incitement I felt, and the first idea of the erection of an orphan-house, even before I possessed the smallest funds for the purpose. On mentioning this plan to some of my friends, a pious individual felt induced to fund the sum of five hundred dollars for that purpose,—twenty-five dollars for the interest on which were to be paid over every Christmas, which has also been regularly received. On reflecting upon this instance of the divine bounty, I wished to seek out some poor orphan child, who might be supported by the yearly interest. On this, four fatherless and motherless children, all of the same family, were brought to me. I ventured, in confidence upon God, to receive the whole four; but as one of them was taken by some other good people, only three were left; but a fourth soon appeared in the place of the one that had been taken. I took therefore these four; placed them with religious people, and gave them weekly half a dollar for the bringing up of each. On this, it happened to me, as is generally the case, that when we venture to give a groschen to the poor in faith, we feel afterward no hesitation in venturing a dollar upon the same principle. For after having once begun in God's name, to receive a few poor orphans without any human prospect of certain assistance, (for the interest of the five hundred

dollars was not sufficient to feed and clothe a single one,) I boldly left it to the Lord to make up for whatever might be deficient. Hence the orphan-house was by no means commenced and founded upon any certain sum in hand, or on the assurances of persons of rank to take upon themselves the cost and charges, or upon any thing of a similar nature, as was subsequently reported, and as some were inclined to suppose; but solely and simply in reliance on the living God in heaven.

'The day after I had undertaken the charge of the four orphans above-mentioned, two more were added; the next day, another; two days afterward, a fourth, and one more after the lapse of a week. So that, on the 16th November, 1695, there were already nine, who were placed with pious people.' He fixed upon George Henry Neubauer, a student of divinity, to have the oversight of their education and their bringing up. 'Meanwhile,' continues he, 'the faithful God and Father of the fatherless, who is able to do abundantly above what we can ask or think, came so powerfully to my aid, that foolish reason could never have expected it. For he moved the hearts of those persons of rank, who had given me the five hundred dollars already mentioned, to present me with an additional sum of a thousand dollars in the beginning of the winter. And in the middle of the winter, another person of rank was incited to send me three hundred dollars to enable me to continue my attention to the poor. Another individual gave a hundred dollars, and others gave donations of smaller sums.'

Franké had hitherto distributed the money destined for the poor students weekly; but in 1696, the idea occurred to him, instead of a weekly allowance, to give them dinner gratuitously; 'in the firm confidence in God, that he would from time to time send such supplies, as to enable this arrangement to be continued.' By this he expected to be of greater service to the poor students; he could also, in this manner, become better acquainted with them, and possess a better insight into their life and conduct; and lastly, restrain the applications of the less needy, 'who would gladly have been more delicately fed.' Two open tables were therefore provided—each for twelve poor students; and that one thing might assist the other, he selected the teachers of the charity-school from them. This was the origin of the teachers' seminary, which afterward gradually arose out of it.

The schools of the children of the townspeople who paid a certain sum for their instruction, though inadequate to the expense, were separated from the school for the poor, at the request of the townspeople themselves; and in September, 1697, another school was added for those tradesmen's children who were instructed in the elements of superior science. About this time also, more classes were required in the orphan school, on account of the increased number of the pupils. The boys and girls received separate instruction, and when any of the former manifested abilities, they were again separated from the rest, and instructed in languages and the sciences by particular teachers. In May, 1699, Franké united this class of the orphan children with the class of the tradesmen's children, who likewise received superior instruction. These arrangements for imparting a more learned education, show us the rudiments from whence the Latin school or Gymnasium afterward developed itself in Franké's institutions, which in 1709 was attended by two hundred and fifty-six children, of whom sixty-four were orphans, divided into seven classes; and in 1730, by more than five hundred pupils.

At the time of his death, the Orphan House, or Hallische Waisenhaus, embraced all the institutions which now belong to it.

1. The *Orphan Asylum*, established in 1694, in which over 5,000 orphans had been educated, up to 1838, gratuitously. Such of the boys as manifest peculiar talent, are prepared for the university, and supported there.

2. The *Royal Pædagogium*, founded in 1696, for the education of children of rich and noble families. Up to 1839, 2,850 individuals had been educated in this boarding institution. The profits of this school are paid over to the orphan asylum.

3. The *Latin School*, established in 1697, for pupils from abroad, of less wealthy condition than the former, and for boys of the city of Halle.

4. The *German School*, for boys and girls whose parents do not wish to give them a classic education.

These several schools number from 3,000 to 4,000 pupils,* of every age, and in every study. Besides these schools there are other features in the institution.

5. The *Canstein Bible Press*, established in 1712, to furnish the Bible at a cheap rate. The profits on the sale of an edition are applied to diminish the expense of the next edition.

6. A *Library*, commenced by Franké by setting apart his own books for the use of his schools, and which now number 20,000 volumes.

7. An *Apothecary's Shop*, commenced by Franké as a medicine chest for the poor, and the profit of which, after furnishing the wants of the orphan-house, are applied to the support of the institution.

8. A *Book Establishment*, in which the classics, and school books, are published at a low price, not only for the institution, but for the trade generally.

9. A house for widows.

We have dwelt on the labors of Franké, because he proved his faith in God by his works, and because he was an educator in the largest and best sense of that designation.

According to his biographer, the first teachers' class was founded by Franké in 1697, by providing a table or free board for such poor students as stood in need of assistance, and selecting, a few years later, out of the whole number, twelve who exhibited the right basis of piety, knowledge, skill and desire for teaching, and constituting them his "Seminarium Præceptorum," Teachers' Seminary. These pupil teachers received separate instruction for two years, and obtained a practical knowledge of methods, in the classes of the several schools. For the assistance thus rendered they bound themselves to teach for three years in the institution after the close of their course. In 1704, according to Raumer, this plan was matured, and the supply of teachers for all the lower classes were drawn from this seminary. But besides the teachers trained in this branch of Franké's great establishment, hundreds of others, attracted by the success of his experiment, resorted to Halle, from all parts of Europe, to profit by the organization, spirit, and method of his various schools. Among the most distinguished of his pupils and disciples, may be named, Count Zinzendorf, the founder of the communities of United Brethren, or Moravians, in Herrnhut, in 1722; Steinmetz, who erected a Normal School in Klosterbergen, in 1730; Hecker, the founder of the first Real

* It is interesting to a visitor to remark in the chief cities of Germany, during certain hours the silence of the streets, with their entire desertion by children, and the contrast of the change produced by the clock striking twelve. The road and footway then suddenly swarm with children, carrying books and slates, and returning from the studies of the morning. The most striking sight of the kind we ever witnessed was at Halle, where, as we approached a large educational establishment, called the "Hallische Waisenhaus," the whole of its juvenile inmates, 3,000 in number, burst forth into the street, and filling up the entire roadway, formed an unbroken stream of a quarter of a mile in length.—*Hickson's Dutch and German Schools.*

School in Berlin, to which a seminary for teachers was attached in 1748; Rambalt, who lectured in the Universities in Jena and Giessen in pedagogic, and reformed the schools in Hesse-Darmstadt; Felbiger, who reorganized the schools of Silesia, and afterward those of Austria;—these, and others scarcely less distinguished, were among the most eminent and successful teachers of the day, and were known as the school of Pietists.

The educational school of Franké was followed by Basedow, (born at Hamburg, in 1723,) Campe, and Salzman, who acquired for themselves a European reputation by the Philanthropinum, founded by the former at Dessau, in 1781.

This institution gave its name to the school of educationists, known as Philanthropic, and which prevails at this day in some sections of Germany. Its earliest development on the continent was made by Rousseau, in his "Emile," and by John Locke, in England, in his "Thoughts on Education." Its great aim was the formation of a practical character, and this was to be accomplished by following the indications of nature. The body, as well as the mind, was to be hardened and invigorated, and prepared to execute with energy the designs of the mind. The discipline of the family and school was softened by constant appeals to the best principles in the child's nature. Particular attention was paid to instruction in language, music, and the laws and objects of nature. Many of these principles became engrafted on to the teachers of Normal Schools, and through their pupils were introduced into the common schools.

About this time appeared Henry Pestalozzi, who followed in the track of the Philanthropic School, and by his example and writings, diffused a new spirit among the schools of primary instruction, all over Europe. Although born in Switzerland, at Zurich, in 1746, and although his personal labors were confined to his native country, and their immediate influence was weakened by many defects of character, still his general views of education were so sound and just, that they are now adopted by teachers who never read a word of his life or writings, and by many who never heard of his name. They have become the common property of teachers and educators all over the world. A brief notice* of the leading principles of the system, which now bears his name, and which has moulded the entire character of the schools of Germany, during the last half century, can not be deemed irrelevant.

"The father of Pestalozzi, who was a physician, died when he was quite young, and his early education was left to his mother, and an old domestic of the family, until he was of an age to pass into the grammar school of Zurich. In consequence of such an education, corresponding entirely to his natural disposition, he retained a remarkable gentleness and simplicity of manners, which continued through his long life, and produced that agreeable mixture of manly and female excellence, which rendered him peculiarly interesting to children, to whom his person was unattractive. Oppressive treatment at school, and misapprehension of his views in riper years, gave him, however, a keen sense of justice, which roused him to vindicate the cause of the oppressed among the lower classes of the people, and often made his language as a writer, bitter and sarcastic.

* Abridged from an article by William C. Woodbridge, in the *Annals of Education*, for January, 1847.

Pestalozzi first lived in the midst of the people, in order that he might understand their misery, and endeavor to discover its source. He believed that he found it in the want of an observation of nature and mankind—in the absence of spiritual elevation and religious sentiment—in the prejudice, thoughtlessness, levity and disorderly conduct which were the natural results, and the distrust, and obstinate and revengeful disposition which necessarily followed toward those who profited by their weaknesses, or punished their offenses. He believed that a good education for the children of the people was the only means of remedying this evil. The ravages of war had left a multitude of destitute orphans in the small cantons of Switzerland. His first attempt to carry his benevolent plan into execution, was in collecting a number of these poor children at Stanz, devoting himself to their instruction and care in the sacrifice of most of the comforts of life, and providing for their support from his own resources, or from the charity which he solicited from others. Here, he labored to discover the true and simple means of education. He treated his pupils with uniform sympathy and tenderness, and thus attempted to awaken love and confidence in their hearts, and to sow the seed of every good feeling. He therefore assumed *faith and love* as the only true foundation of a system of education.

He subsequently established a school in more regular form in Burgdorf, in the canton of Berne, to which his benevolence and talents attracted a number of fellow-laborers. Here he endeavored to ascertain the principles which should govern the development of the infant faculties, and the proper period for the commencement and completion of each course of instruction in this view.

As the result of his investigations, Pestalozzi assumed as a fundamental principle, that education, in order to fit man for his destination, must proceed according to the laws of nature. To adopt the language of his followers—that it must not act as an arbitrary mediator between the child and nature, between man and God, pursuing its own artificial arrangements, instead of the indications of Providence—that it should assist the course of natural development, instead of doing it violence—that it should watch, and follow its progress, instead of attempting to mark out a path agreeably to a preconceived system.

I. In view of this principle, he did not choose, like Basedow, to cultivate the mind in a material way, merely by inculcating and engraving every thing relating to external objects, and giving mechanical skill. He sought, on the contrary, to develop, and exercise, and strengthen the faculties of the child by a steady course of excitement to self-activity, with a limited degree of assistance to his efforts.

II. In opposition to the haste, and blind groping of many teachers without system, he endeavored to find the proper point for commencing, and to proceed in a slow and gradual, but uninterrupted course, from one point to another—always waiting until the first should have a certain degree of distinctness in the mind of the child, before entering upon the exhibition of the second. To pursue any other course would only give superficial knowledge, which would neither afford pleasure to the child, nor promote its real progress.

III. He opposed the undue cultivation of the memory and understanding, as hostile to true education. He placed the essence of education in the harmonious and uniform development of every faculty, so that the body should not be in advance of the mind, and that in the development of the mind, neither the physical powers, nor the affections, should be neglected; and that skill in action should be acquired at the same time with knowledge. When this point is secured, we may know that education has really begun, and that it is not merely superficial.

IV. He required close attention and constant reference to the peculiarities of every child, and of each sex, as well as to the characteristics of the people among whom he lived, in order that he might acquire the development and qualifications necessary for the situation to which the Creator destined him, when he gave him these active faculties, and be prepared to labor successfully for those among whom he was placed by his birth.

V. While Basedow introduced a multitude of subjects of instruction into the schools, without special regard to the development of the intellectual powers, Pestalozzi considered this plan as superficial. He limited the elementary subjects of instruction to Form, Number and Language, as the essential condition

of definite and distinct knowledge; and believed that these elements should be taught with the utmost possible simplicity, comprehensiveness and mutual connection.

VI. Pestalozzi, as well as Basedow, desired that instruction should commence with the intuition or simple perception of external objects and their relations. He was not, however, satisfied with this alone, but wished that the *art of observing* should also be acquired. He thought the things perceived of less consequence than the cultivation of the perceptive powers, which should enable the child to observe completely,—to exhaust the subjects which should be brought before his mind.

VII. While the Philanthropinists attached great importance to special exercises of reflection, Pestalozzi would not make this a subject of separate study. He maintained that every subject of instruction should be properly treated, and thus become an exercise of thought; and believed, that lessons on Number, and Proportion and Size, would give the best occasion for it.

VIII. Pestalozzi, as well as Basedow, attached great importance to Arithmetic, particularly to Mental Arithmetic. He valued it, however, not merely in the limited view of its practical usefulness, but as an excellent means of strengthening the mind. He also introduced Geometry into the elementary schools, and the art connected with it, of modeling and drawing beautiful objects. He wished, in this way, to train the eye, the hand, and the touch, for that more advanced species of drawing which had not been thought of before. Proceeding from the simple and intuitive, to the more complicated and difficult forms, he arranged a series of exercises so gradual and complete, that the method of teaching this subject was soon brought to a good degree of perfection.

IX. The Philanthropinists introduced the instruction of language into the common schools, but limited it chiefly to the writing of letters and preparation of essays. But Pestalozzi was not satisfied with a lifeless repetition of the rules of grammar, nor yet with mere exercises for common life. He aimed at a development of the laws of language from within—an introduction into its internal nature and construction and peculiar spirit—which would not only cultivate the intellect, but also improve the affections. It is impossible to do justice to his method of instruction on this subject, in a brief sketch like the present—but those who have witnessed its progress and results, are fully aware of its practical character and value.

X. Like Basedow, Rochow and others, Pestalozzi introduced vocal music into the circle of school studies, on account of its powerful influence on the heart. But he was not satisfied that the children should learn to sing a few melodies by note or by ear. He wished them to know the rules of melody and rhythm, and dynamics—to pursue a regular course of instruction, descending to its very elements, and rendering the musical notes as familiar as the sounds of the letters. The extensive work of Nageli and Pfeiffer has contributed very much to give this branch of instruction a better form.

XI. He opposed the abuse which was made of the Socratic method in many of the Philanthropic and other schools, by attempting to draw something out of children before they had received any knowledge. He recommends, on the contrary, in the early periods of instruction, the established method of dictation by the teacher and repetition by the scholar, with a proper regard to rhythm, and at a later period, especially in the mathematical and other subjects which involve reasoning, the modern method, in which the teacher merely gives out the problems in a proper order, and leaves them to be solved by the pupils, by the exertion of their own powers.

XII. Pestalozzi opposes strenuously the opinion that religious instruction should be addressed exclusively to the understanding; and shows that religion lies deep in the hearts of men, and that it should not be entamped from without, but developed from within; that the basis of religious feeling is to be found in the childish disposition to love, to thankfulness, to veneration, obedience and confidence toward its parents; that these should be cultivated and strengthened and directed toward God; and that religion should be formally treated of at a later period in connection with the feelings thus excited. As he requires the mother to direct the first development of all the faculties of her child, he assigns to her especially the task of first cultivating the religious feelings.

XIII. Pestalozzi agreed with Basedow, that mutual affection ought to reign between the educator and the pupil, both in the house and in the school, in or-

der to render education effectual and useful. He was, therefore, as little disposed as Basedow, to sustain school despotism; but he did not rely on artificial excitements, such as those addressed to emulation. He preferred that the children should find their best reward in the consciousness of increased intellectual vigor; and expected the teacher to render the instruction so attractive, that the delightful feeling of progress should be the strongest excitement to industry and to morality.

XIV. Pestalozzi attached as much importance to the cultivation of the bodily powers, and the exercise of the senses, as the Philanthropinists, and in his publications, pointed out a graduated course for this purpose. But as Guts-muths, Vieth, Jahn, and Clias treated this subject very fully, nothing further was written concerning it by his immediate followers.

Such are the great principles which entitle Pestalozzi to the high praise of having given a more natural, a more comprehensive and deeper foundation for education and instruction, and of having called into being a method which is far superior to any that preceded it.

But with all the excellencies of the system of education adopted by Pestalozzi, truth requires us to state that it also involves serious defects.

1. In his zeal for the improvement of the mind itself, and for those modes of instruction which were calculated to develop and invigorate its faculties, Pestalozzi forgot too much the necessity of general positive knowledge, as the material for thought and for practical use in future life. The pupils of his establishment, instructed on his plan, were too often dismissed with intellectual powers which were vigorous and acute, but without the stores of knowledge important for immediate use—well qualified for mathematical and abstract reasoning, but not prepared to apply it to the business of common life.

2. He commenced with intuitive, mathematical studies too early, attached too much importance to them, and devoted a portion of time to them, which did not allow a reasonable attention to other studies, and which prevented the regular and harmonious cultivation of other powers.

3. The *method* of instruction was also defective in one important point. Simplification was carried too far, and continued too long. The mind became so accustomed to receive knowledge divided into its most simple elements and smallest portions, that it was not prepared to embrace complicated ideas, or to make those rapid strides in investigation and conclusion which is one of the most important results of a sound education, and which indicates the most valuable kind of mental vigor both for scientific purposes and for practical life.

4. He attached too little importance to testimony as one of the sources of our knowledge, and devoted too little attention to historical truth. He was accustomed to observe that history was but a 'tissue of lies;' and forgot that it was necessary to occupy the pupil with man, and with moral events, as well as with nature and matter, if we wish to cultivate properly his moral powers, and elevate him above the material world.

5. But above all, it is to be regretted, that in reference to religious education, he fell into an important error of his predecessors. His too exclusive attention to mathematical and scientific subjects, tended, like the system of Basedow, to give his pupils the habit of undervaluing historical evidence and of demanding rational demonstration for every truth, or of requiring the evidence of their senses, or something analogous to it, to which they were constantly called to appeal in their studies of Natural History.

It is precisely in this way, that many men of profound scientific attainments have been led to reject the evidence of revelation, and some, even, strange as it may seem, to deny the existence of Him, whose works and laws they study. In some of the early Pestalozzian schools, feelings of this nature were particularly cherished by the habit of asserting a falsehood in the lessons on Mathematics or Natural history, and calling upon the pupils to contradict it or disprove it if they did not admit its truth. No improvement of the intellectual powers, can, in our view, compensate for the injury to the moral sense and the diminished respect for truth, which will naturally result from such a course.

6. While Pestalozzi disapproved of the attempts of the Philanthropinists to draw forth from the minds of children, before they had stores of knowledge, he seemed to forget the application of his principle to moral subjects, or to imagine that this most elevated species of knowledge was innate. He attempted too much to draw from the minds of his pupils those great truths of religion and the

spiritual world which can only be acquired from revelation; and thus led them to imagine they were competent to judge on this subject without external aid. It is obvious that such a course would fall in most unhappily with the tendencies produced by other parts of the plan, and that we could not hope to educate in such a mode, a truly Christian community.

The personal character of Pestalozzi also influenced his views and methods of education on religious subjects. He was remarkably the creature of powerful impulses, which were usually of the most mild and benevolent kind; and he preserved a child-like character in this respect even to old age. It was probably this temperament, which led him to estimate at a low rate the importance of positive religious truth in the education of children, and to maintain that the mere habit of faith and love, if cultivated toward earthly friends and benefactors, would, of course, be transferred to our Heavenly Father, whenever his character should be exhibited to the mind of the child. The fundamental error of this view was established by the unhappy experience of his own institution. His own example afforded the most striking evidence that the noblest impulses, not directed by established principles, may lead to imprudence and ruin, and thus defeat their own ends. As an illustration of this, it may be mentioned that, on one of those occasions, frequently occurring, on which he was reduced to extremity for want of the means of supplying his large family, he borrowed four hundred dollars from a friend for the purpose. In going home, he met a peasant, wringing his hands in despair for the loss of his cow. Pestalozzi put the entire bag of money into his hands, and ran off to escape his thanks. These circumstances, combined with the want of tact in reference to the affairs of common life, materially impaired his powers of usefulness as a practical instructor of youth. The rapid progress of his ideas rarely allowed him to execute his own plans; and, in accordance with his own system, too much time was employed in the profound development of principles, to admit of much attention to their practical application.

But, as one of his admirers observed, it was his province to educate ideas and not children. He combated, with unshrinking boldness and untiring perseverance, through a long life, the prejudices and abuses of the age in reference to education, both by his example and by his numerous publications. He attacked with great vigor and no small degree of success, that favorite maxim of bigotry and tyranny, that obedience and devotion are the legitimate offspring of ignorance. He denounced that degrading system, which considers it enough to enable man to procure a subsistence for himself and his offspring—and in this manner, merely to place him on a level with the beast of the forest; and which deems every thing lost whose value can not be estimated in money. He urged upon the consciences of parents and rulers, with an energy approaching that of the ancient prophets, the solemn duties which Divine Providence had imposed upon them, in committing to their charge the present and future destinies of their fellow-beings. In this way, he produced an impulse, which pervaded the continent of Europe, and which, by means of his popular and theoretical works, reached the cottages of the poor and the palaces of the great. His institution at Yverdon was crowded with men of every nation; not merely those who were led by the same impulse which inspired him, but by the agents of kings and noblemen, and public institutions, who came to make themselves acquainted with his principles, in order to become his fellow-laborers in other countries."

When the Prussian Government, in 1809, undertook systematically the work of improving the elementary schools, as a means of creating and diffusing a patriotic spirit among the people, the fame of Pestalozzi was at its height. To him and to his school, to his method and to his disciples, the attention of the best teachers in the kingdom was turned for guidance and aid. Several enthusiastic young teachers were sent to his institution at Yverdon, (Iserten,) to study his methods and imbibe his spirit of devotion to the children of the poor. One of his favorite pupils, C. B. Zeller, of Wirtemberg, and who shared with him in certain weak-

nesses of character, which prevented his attaining the highest success as a practical educator in carrying out the details of an extensive plan, was invited to organize a Normal School at Königsberg, in the orphan-house (orphanotrophy) established by Frederick III., on the 13th of January, 1701, the day on which he declared his dukedom a kingdom, and caused himself to be crowned king, under the name of Frederick the First. To this seminary, during the first year of its existence, upward of one hundred clergymen, and eighty teachers, resorted, at the expense of the government, to acquire the principles and methods of the Pestalozzian system. Through them, and the teachers who went directly to Pestalozzi, these principles and methods were transplanted not only into various parts of Prussia, but also into the schools and seminaries of other states in Germany. Not even in Switzerland is the name of this philanthropist and educator so warmly cherished as in Prussia.

His centennial birthday was celebrated throughout Germany, and particularly in Prussia, on the 12th of January, 1846, with an enthusiasm usually awarded only to the successful soldier. In more than one hundred cities and villages, in upward of one thousand schools, by more than fifty thousand teachers, it is estimated in a German school journal, was the anniversary marked by some public demonstration. The following notice of the appropriate manner in which it was celebrated in Leipsic, by founding a charity for the orphans of teachers, and for poor and neglected children generally, is abridged from an extended notice in Reden's School Gazette.

"At the first school hour, the elder pupils of the city school at Leipsic, were informed by a public address of the eminent merits of Pestalozzi as an eminent teacher, and a program, with his portrait, handed to them; this program contained an address to the citizens of Leipsic, by the Rev. Dr. Naumann; the plan of a public charity, to be called the Pestalozzi Foundation, (*Hiftung*.) by Director Vogel; and a biographical sketch, by Professor Plato. At ten o'clock, the elder pupils of the burgher school, and delegates from all the schools, with their teachers, and the friends of education, assembled in the great hall of one of the public schools; on the walls were portraits of Pestalozzi, adorned with garlands. Addresses were made by the Rev. Dr. Naumann, who had visited Pestalozzi in Ifferten, and by other gentlemen, while the intervals were enlivened by songs and music composed for the occasion. In the evening a general association of all the teachers in Leipsic was formed, for the purpose of establishing 'the Pestalozzi foundation,' designed for the education of poor and neglected children."

In Dresden a similar charity was commenced for the benefit of all orphans of teachers from any part of Saxony. The same thing was done in nearly all the large cities of Germany. In Berlin a Pestalozzi foundation was commenced for an orphan-house, to which contributions had been made from all provinces of Prussia, and from other states of Germany; to the direction of this institution Dr. Diesterweg has been appointed.

The schools of most of the teachers and educators, whose names have been introduced, were in reality Teachers' Seminaries, although not so designated by themselves or others. Their establishments were not simply schools for children, but were conducted to test and exemplify

principles and methods of education, and these were perpetuated and disseminated by means of books in which they were embodied, or of pupils and disciples who transplanted them into other places.

As has been already stated, on the authority of Franké's biographer, and of Schwartz, Raumer, and other writers on the history of education in Germany, the first regularly-organized Teachers' Seminary, or Normal School, (not *normal* in the sense in which the word was originally used, as a school of children so conducted as to be a *model* or *pattern* for teachers to imitate, but a *school of young men*, who had already passed through an elementary, or even a superior school, and who were preparing to be teachers, by making additional attainments, and acquiring a knowledge of the human mind, and the principles of education as a science, and of its methods as an art,) was established in Halle, in a part of Hanover, prior to 1704. About the same period, Steinmetz opened a class for teachers in the Abbey of Klosterberge, near Magdeburg, and which was continued by Resewitz, by whom the spirit and method of Franké and the pietists were transplanted into the north of Germany. In 1730, lectures on philology and the best methods of teaching the Latin, Greek and German languages, were common in the principal universities and higher schools. The first regularly-organized seminary for this purpose, was established at Göttingen, in 1733, and by its success led to the institution of a similar course of study and practice in Jena, Halle, Helmstadt, Heidelberg, Berlin, Munich, &c.

In 1735, the first seminary for primary school teachers was established in Prussia, at Stettin, in Pomerania. In 1748, Hecker, a pupil of Franké, and the founder of burgher, or what we should call high schools, established an institution for teachers of elementary schools, in Berlin, in which the king testified an interest, and enjoined, by an ordinance in 1752, that the country schools on the crown lands in New Mark and Pomerania should be supplied by pupil teachers from this institution who had learned the culture of silk and mulberries in Hecker's institution, with a view of carrying forward industrial instruction into that section of his kingdom. In 1757, Baron von Fürstenberg established a seminary for teachers at Munster, in Hanover. In 1767, the Canon von Rochow opened a school on his estate in Rekane, in Bradenburg, where, by lectures and practice, he prepared schoolmasters for country schools on his own and neighboring properties. To these schools teachers were sent from all parts of Germany, to be trained in the principles and practice of primary instruction. In 1770, Bishop Febinger, organized a Normal (*model*) School in Vienna, with a course of lectures and practice for teachers, extending through four months; and about the same time the deacon Ferdinand Kindermann, or von Schulstein, as he was called by Maria Theresa, converted a school in Kaplitz, in Bohemia, into a Normal Institution. Between 1770 and 1800, as will be seen by the following Table, teachers' seminaries were introduced into nearly every German state, which, in all but three instances, were supported in whole or in part by the government.

As the demand for good teachers exceeded the supply furnished by these seminaries, private institutions have sprung up, some of which have attained a popularity equal to the public institutions. But in no state have such private schools been able to sustain themselves, until the government seminaries and the public school system had created a demand for well-qualified teachers. And in no state in Europe has the experiment of making seminaries for primary school teachers an appendage to a university, or a gymnasium, or any other school of an academic character, proved successful for any considerable period of time, or on an extensive scale.

At the beginning of the present century, there were about thirty teachers' seminaries in operation. The wars growing out of the French Revolution suspended for a time the movements in behalf of popular education, until the success of the new organization of schools in Prussia, commencing in 1809, arrested the attention of governments and individuals all over the continent, and has led, within the last quarter of a century, not only to the establishment of seminaries nearly sufficient to supply the annual demand for teachers, but to the more perfect organization of the whole system of public instruction.

The cardinal principles of the system of Primary Public Instruction as now organized in the German states, are,

First. The recognition on the part of the government of the right, duty and interest of every community, not only to co-operate with parents in the education of children, but to provide, as far as practicable, by efficient inducement and penalties, against the neglect of this first of parental obligations, in a single instance. The school obligation,—the duty of parents to send their children to school, or provide for their instruction at home,—was enforced by law in Saxe-Gotha, in 1643; in Saxony and Wirtemberg, in 1659; in Hildesheim in 1663; in Calenberg, in 1681; in Celle, in 1689; in Prussia, in 1717; and in every state of Germany, before the beginning of the present century. But it is only within the last thirty years, that government enactments have been made truly efficient by enlisting the habits and good will of the people on the side of duty. We must look to the generation of men now coming into active life for the fruits of this principle, universally recognized, and in most cases wisely enforced in every state, large and small, Catholic and Protestant, and having more or less of constitutional guaranties and forms.

Second. The establishment of a sufficient number of permanent schools of different grades, according to the population, in every neighborhood, with a suitable outfit of buildings, furniture, appendages and apparatus.

Third. The specific preparation of teachers, as far as practicable, for the particular grade of schools for which they are destined, with opportunities for professional employment and promotion through life.

Fourth. Provision on the part of the government to make the schools accessible to the poorest, not, except in comparatively a few instances,

and those in the most despotic governments, by making them free to the poor, but cheap to all.

Fifth. A system of inspection, variously organized, but constant, general, and responsible—reaching every locality, every school, every teacher, and pervading the whole state from the central government to the remotest district.

The success of the school systems of Germany is universally attributed by her own educators to the above features of her school law—especially those which relate to the teacher. These provisions respecting teachers may be summed up as follows:—

1. The recognition of the true dignity and importance of the office of teacher in a system of public instruction.

2. The establishment of a sufficient number of Teachers' Seminaries, or Normal Schools, to educate, in a special course of instruction and practice, all persons who apply or propose to teach in any public primary school, with aids to self and professional improvement through life.

3. A system of examination and inspection, by which incompetent persons are prevented from obtaining situations as teachers, or are excluded and degraded from the ranks of the profession, by unworthy or criminal conduct.

4. A system of promotion, by which faithful teachers can rise in a scale of lucrative and desirable situations.

5. Permanent employment through the year, and for life, with a social position and a compensation which compare favorably with the wages paid to educated labor in other departments of business.

6. Preparatory schools, in which those who wish eventually to become teachers, may test their natural qualities and adaptation for school teaching before applying for admission to a Normal School.

7. Frequent conferences and associations for mutual improvement, by an interchange of opinion and sharing the benefit of each others' experience.

8. Exemption from military service in time of peace, and recognition, in social and civil life, as public functionaries.

9. A pecuniary allowance when sick, and provision for years of infirmity and old age, and for their families in case of death.

10. Books and periodicals, by which the obscure teacher is made partaker in all the improvements of the most experienced and distinguished members of the profession in his own and other countries.

With this brief and rapid survey of the history and condition of Popular Education in Germany, we will now pass to a more particular description of primary schools in several states, with special reference to the organization and course of instruction of Normal Seminaries, and other means and agencies for the professional training of teachers. Before doing this, we publish a table, prepared from a variety of school documents, exhibiting the number and location of Normal Schools in Germany, with the testimony of some of our best educators as to the result of this Normal School system.

TABLE.

NUMBER AND LOCATION OF NORMAL SEMINARIES IN THE DIFFERENT STATES OF GERMANY.

The following Table has been compiled from recent official documents and school journals, and without being complete, is accurate as far as it goes. Calinich, in an article in Reden's Magazine, estimates the whole number of public and private seminaries in Germany, at one hundred and fifty-six, and the preparatory schools at two hundred and six.

PRUSSIA,	45	HANOVER,	7
SUPERIOR SEMINARIES.		Alfeld, f. 1750; Hanover, Hildesheim, Osnabrück, Stade; one for Jewish teachers in Hanover.	
Stettin, founded 1735; Potsdam, foun. 1748; Breslau, foun. 1765; Halberstadt, f. 1778; Magdeburg, f. 1790; Weissenfels, f. 1794; Karalene, f. 1811; Braunsberg, f. 1810; Marienburg, f. 1814; Graudenz, f. 1816; Neuzelle, f. 1817; Berlin, f. 1830; Cöslin, f. 1806; Bunzlau, f. 1816; Bromberg, f. 1819; Paradies, f. 1838; Erfurt, f. 1820; Büren, f. 1825; Meurs, f. 1820; Neuwied, f. 1816; Brühl, f. 1823; Kempen, f. 1840; Königsberg, re-organized, 1809; Ober-Glogau, re-or., 1815; Posen, f. 1804; Soest, f. 1818; Löwen, f. 1849.	BADEN,	4	
SMALL, OR SECONDARY SEMINARIES.		Carlsruhe, f. 1768; Ettlingen, Meersburg, Müllheim.	
Angerburg, f. 1829; Mühlhausen, Greifswald, f. 1791; Kammin, f. 1840; Pyritz, f. 1827; Trzemesseo, f. 1829; Gardelegen, f. 1821; Eisleben, f. 1836; Petershagen, f. 1831; Langenhorst, f. 1830; Heiligenstadt, Eylau, Alt-Döbern, Stralsund.	HESSE-CASSEL,	3	
FOR FEMALE TEACHERS.		Fulda, Homberg, Schlichtern.	
Münster; Paderborn; private seminaries in Berlin, (Bormann); Marienwerder, (Alberti;) Kaiserswerth, (Fleidner.)	HESSE-DARMSTADT,	2	
AUSTRIA,	Friedberg, Bensheim.		
Vienna, f. 1771; Prague, Trieste, Salzburg, Inspruck, Graz, Görz, Klagenfurt, Laibach, Linz, Brünn.	ANHALT,	3	
SAXONY,	Bernburg, Cöthen, Dessau.		
Dresden, f. 1785; Fletcher's seminary, f. 1825; Freiberg, f. 1797; Zittau, Budissin, Plauen, Grimma, Annaberg, Pirna, Waldenburg.	REUSS,	3	
BAVARIA,	Greiz, Gera, Schleiz.		
Bamberg, f. 1777; Eichstüdt, Speyer, Kaiserslautern, Lauingen, Altdorf, Schwabach.	SAXE COBURG-GOTHA,	2	
WIRTEMBERG,	Coburg; Gotha, f. 1779.		
Esslingen, Oehringen, Gmünd, Nürtingen, Stuttgart, Weingarten, Tübingen.	SAXE MEININGEN,	1	
	Hildburghausen.		
	SAXE WEIMAR,	2	
	Weimar, Eisenach.		
	OLDENBURG,	2	
	Oldenburg, Birkenfeld.		
	HOLSTEIN,	1	
	Segeberg, f. 1780.		
	SAXE-ALTENBURG,	1	
	Altenburg.		
	NASSAU,	1	
	Idstein.		
	BRUNSWICK,	1	
	Wolfenbüttel.		
	LUXEMBURG,	1	
	Luxemburg.		
	LIPPE,	1	
	Detmold.		
	MECKLENBURG SCHWERIN,	1	
	Ludwigslust.		
	MECKLENBURG STRELITZ,	1	
	Mirow.		
	SCHWARZBURG,	1	
	Rudolstadt.		
	LUBECK,	1	
	BREMEN,	1	
	HAMBURG,	1	
	FRANKFORT,	1	

RESULTS

OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM IN GERMANY.

THE following testimony as to the results of the system of training teachers in institutions organized and conducted with special reference to communicating a knowledge of the science and art of education, is gathered from American documents.

Rev. Calvin E. Stowe, D. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, Ohio, in a "*Report on Elementary Public Instruction in Europe*," submitted to the General Assembly of Ohio, December, 1839, after describing the course of instruction pursued in the common schools of Prussia and Wirtemberg, thus sums up the character of the system in reference particularly to the wants of Ohio :

"The striking features of this system, even in the hasty and imperfect sketch which my limits allow me to give, are obvious even to superficial observation. No one can fail to observe its great completeness, both as to the number and kind of subjects embraced in it, and as to its adaptedness to develop every power of every kind, and give it a useful direction. What topic, in all that is necessary for a sound business education, is here omitted? I can think of nothing, unless it be one or two of the modern languages, and these are introduced wherever it is necessary. I have not taken the course precisely as it exists in any one school, but have combined, from an investigation of many institutions, the features which I suppose would most fairly represent the whole system. In the Rhenish provinces of Prussia, in a considerable part of Bavaria, Baden, and Wirtemberg, French is taught as well as German; and in the schools of Prussian Poland, German and Polish are taught. Two languages can be taught in a school quite as easily as one, provided the teacher be perfectly familiar with both, as any one may see by visiting Mr. Solomon's school in Cincinnati, where all the instruction is given both in German and English.

What faculty of mind is there that is not developed in the scheme of instruction sketched above? I know of none. The perceptive and reflective faculties, the memory and the judgment, the imagination and the taste, the moral and religious faculty, and even the various kinds of physical and manual dexterity, all have opportunity for development and exercise. Indeed, I think the system, in its great outlines, as nearly complete as human ingenuity and skill can make it; though undoubtedly some of its arrangements and details admit of improvement; and some changes will of course be necessary in adapting it to the circumstances of different countries.

The entirely practical character of the system is obvious throughout. It views every subject on the practical side, and in reference to its adaptedness to use. The dry, technical, abstract parts of science are not those first presented; but the system proceeds, in the only way which nature ever pointed out, from practice to theory, from facts to demonstrations. It has often been a complaint in respect to some systems of education, that the more a man studied, the less he knew of the actual business of life. Such a complaint cannot be made in reference to this system, for, being intended to educate for the actual business of life, this object is never for a moment lost sight of.

Another striking feature of the system is its moral and religious character. Its morality is pure and elevated, its religion entirely removed from the narrowness of sectarian bigotry. What parent is there, loving his children, and wishing to have them respected and happy, who would not desire that they should be

educated under such a kind of moral and religious influence as has been described? Whether a believer in revelation or not, does he not know that without sound morals there can be no happiness, and that there is no morality like the morality of the New Testament? Does he not know that without religion the human heart can never be at rest, and that there is no religion like the religion of the Bible? Every well-informed man knows that, as a general fact, it is impossible to impress the obligations of morality with any efficiency on the heart of a child, or even on that of an adult, without an appeal to some code which is sustained by the authority of God; and for what code will it be possible to claim this authority, if not for the code of the Bible?

But perhaps some will be ready to say, 'The scheme is indeed an excellent one, provided only it were practicable; but the idea of introducing so extensive and complete a course of study into our common schools is entirely visionary, and can never be realized.' I answer, that it is no theory which I have been exhibiting, but a matter of fact, a copy of actual practice. The above system is no visionary scheme, emanating from the closet of a recluse, but a sketch of the course of instruction now actually pursued by thousands of schoolmasters, in the best district schools that have ever been organized. It can be done; for it has been done—it is now done: and it ought to be done. If it can be done in Europe, I believe it can be done in the United States: if it can be done in Prussia, I know it can be done in Ohio. The people have but to say the word and provide the means, and the thing is accomplished; for the word of the people here is even more powerful than the word of the king there; and the means of the people here are altogether more abundant for such an object than the means of the sovereign there. Shall this object, then, so desirable in itself, so entirely practicable, so easily within our reach, fail of accomplishment? For the honor and welfare of our state, for the safety of our whole nation, I trust it will not fail; but that we shall soon witness, in this commonwealth, the introduction of a system of common-school instruction, fully adequate to all the wants of our population.

But the question occurs, *How* can this be done? I will give a few brief hints as to some things which I suppose to be essential to the attainment of so desirable an end.

1. Teachers must be skillful, and trained to their business. It will at once be perceived, that the plan above sketched out proceeds on the supposition that the teacher has fully and distinctly in his mind the whole course of instruction, not only as it respects the matters to be taught, but also as to all the best modes of teaching, that he may be able readily and decidedly to vary his method according to the peculiarities of each individual mind which may come under his care. This is the only true secret of successful teaching. The old mechanical method, in which the teacher relies entirely on his text-book, and drags every mind along through the same dull routine of creeping recitation, is utterly insufficient to meet the wants of our people. It may do in Asiatic Turkey, where the whole object of the school is to learn to pronounce the words of the Koran in one dull, monotonous series of sounds; or it may do in China, where men must never speak or think out of the old beaten track of Chinese imbecility; but it will never do in the United States, where the object of education ought to be to make immediately available, for the highest and best purposes, every particle of real talent that exists in the nation. To effect such a purpose, the teacher must possess a strong and independent mind, well disciplined, and well stored with every thing pertaining to his profession, and ready to adapt his instructions to every degree of intellectual capacity, and every kind of acquired habit. But how can we expect to find such teachers, unless they are trained to their business? A very few of extraordinary powers may occur, as we sometimes find able mechanics, and great mathematicians, who had no early training in their favorite pursuits; but these few exceptions to a general rule will never multiply fast enough to supply our schools with able teachers. The management of the human mind, particularly youthful mind, is the most delicate task ever committed to the hand of man; and shall it be left to mere instinct, or shall our schoolmasters have at least as careful a training as our lawyers and physicians?

2. Teachers, then, must have the means of acquiring the necessary qualifications; in other words, there must be institutions in which the business of teaching

is made a systematic object of attention. I am not an advocate for multiplying our institutions. We already have more in number than we support, and it would be wise to give power and efficiency to those we now possess before we project new ones. But the science and art of teaching ought to be a regular branch of study in some of our academies and high schools, that those who are looking forward to this profession may have an opportunity of studying its principles. In addition to this, in our populous towns, where there is opportunity for it, there should be large model schools, under the care of the most able and experienced teachers that can be obtained; and the candidates for the profession who have already completed the theoretic course of the academy, should be employed in this school as monitors, or assistants—thus testing all their theories by practice, and acquiring skill and dexterity under the guidance of their head master. Thus, while learning, they would be teaching, and no time or effort would be lost. To give efficiency to the whole system, to present a general standard and a prominent point of union, there should be at least one model teachers' seminary, at some central point—as at Columbus—which shall be amply provided with all the means of study and instruction, and have connected with it schools of every grade, for the practice of the students, under the immediate superintendence of their teachers.

3. The teachers must be competently supported, and devoted to their business. Few men attain any great degree of excellence in a profession unless they love it, and place all their hopes in life upon it. A man cannot, consistently with his duty to himself, engage in a business which does not afford him a competent support, unless he has other means of living, which is not the case with many who engage in teaching. In this country especially, where there are such vast fields of profitable employment open to every enterprising man, it is not possible that the best of teachers can be obtained, to any considerable extent, for our district schools, at the present rate of wages. We have already seen what encouragement is held out to teachers in Russia, Prussia, and other European nations, and what pledges are given of competent support to their families, not only while engaged in the work, but when, having been worn out in the public service, they are no longer able to labor. In those countries, where every profession and walk of life is crowded, and where one of the most common and oppressive evils is want of employment, men of high talents and qualifications are often glad to become teachers even of district schools; men who in this country would aspire to the highest places in our colleges, or even our halls of legislation and courts of justice. How much more necessary, then, here, that the profession of teaching should afford a competent support!

Indeed, such is the state of things in this country, that we cannot expect to find male teachers for all our schools. The business of educating, especially young children, must fall, to a great extent, on female teachers. There is not the same variety of tempting employment for females as for men; they can be supported cheaper, and the Creator has given them peculiar qualifications for the education of the young. Females, then, ought to be employed extensively in all our elementary schools, and they should be encouraged and aided in obtaining the qualifications necessary for this work. There is no country in the world where woman holds so high a rank, or exerts so great an influence, as here; wherefore, her responsibilities are the greater, and she is under obligations to render herself the more actively useful.

4. The children must be made comfortable in their school; they must be punctual, and attend the whole course. There can be no profitable study without personal comfort; and the inconvenience and miserable arrangements of some of our school-houses are enough to annihilate all that can be done by the best of teachers. No instructor can teach unless the pupils are present to be taught, and no plan of systematic instruction can be carried steadily through unless the pupils attend punctually and through the whole course.

5. The children must be given up implicitly to the discipline of the school. Nothing can be done unless the teacher has the entire control of his pupils in school-hours, and out of school too, so far as the rules of the school are concerned. If the parent in any way interferes with, or overrules, the arrangements of the teacher, he may attribute it to himself if the school is not successful. No teacher ever ought to be employed to whom the entire management of the children can-

not be safely intrusted; and better at any time dismiss the teacher than counteract his discipline. Let parents but take the pains and spend the money necessary to provide a comfortable school-house and a competent teacher for their children, and they never need apprehend that the discipline of the school will be unreasonably severe. No inconsiderable part of the corporal punishment that has been inflicted in schools, has been made necessary by the discomfort of school-houses and the unskillfulness of teachers. A lively, sensitive boy is stuck upon a bench full of knot-holes and sharp ridges, without a support for his feet or his back, with a scorching fire on one side of him and a freezing wind on the other; and a stiff Orbilius of a master, with wooden brains and iron hands, orders him to sit perfectly still, with nothing to employ his mind or his body, till it is *his turn to read*. Thus confined for hours, what can the poor little fellow do but begin to wriggle like a fish out of water, or an eel in a frying-pan? For this irrepressible effort at relief he receives a box on the ear; this provokes and renders him still more uneasy, and next comes the merciless ferule; and the poor child is finally burnt and frozen, cuffed and beaten, into hardened roguery or incurable stupidity, just because the avarice of his parents denied him a comfortable school-house and a competent teacher.

6. A beginning must be made at certain points, and the advance toward completeness must be gradual. Every thing cannot be done at once, and such a system as is needed cannot be generally introduced till its benefits are first demonstrated by actual experiment. Certain great points, then, where the people are ready to co-operate, and to make the most liberal advances, in proportion to their means, to maintain the schools, should be selected, and no pains or expense spared, till the full benefits of the best system are realized; and as the good effects are seen, other places will very readily follow the example. All experience has shown that governmental patronage is most profitably employed, not to do the entire work, but simply as an incitement to the people to help themselves.

To follow up this great object, the Legislature has wisely made choice of a Superintendent, whose untiring labors and disinterested zeal are worthy of all praise. But no great plan can be carried through in a single year; and if the Superintendent is to have opportunity to do what is necessary, and to preserve that independence and energy of official character which are requisite to the successful discharge of his duties, he should hold his office for the same term, and on the same conditions, as the Judges of the Supreme Court.

Every officer engaged in this, or in any other public work, should receive a suitable compensation for his services. This, justice requires; and it is the only way to secure fidelity and efficiency.

There is one class of our population for whom some special provision seems necessary. The children of foreign emigrants are now very numerous among us, and it is essential that they receive a good ENGLISH EDUCATION. But they are not prepared to avail themselves of the advantages of our common English schools, their imperfect acquaintance with the language being an insuperable bar to their entering on the course of study. It is necessary, therefore, that there be some preparatory schools, in which instruction shall be communicated both in English and their native tongue. The English is, and must be, the language of this country, and the highest interests of our state demand it of the Legislature to require that the English language be thoroughly taught in every school which they patronize. Still, the exigencies of the case make it necessary that there should be some schools expressly fitted to the condition of our foreign emigrants, to introduce them to a knowledge of our language and institutions. A school of this kind has been established in Cincinnati, by benevolent individuals. It has been in operation about a year, and already nearly three hundred children have received its advantages. Mr. Solomon, the head teacher, was educated for his profession in one of the best institutions of Prussia, and in this school he has demonstrated the excellences of the system. The instructions are all given both in German and English, and this use of two languages does not at all interrupt the progress of the children in their respective studies. I cannot but recommend this philanthropic institution to the notice and patronage of the Legislature.*

In neighborhoods where there is a mixed population, it is desirable, if possible,

* German schools now form a part of the system of public schools in Cincinnati.

to employ teachers who understand both languages, and that the exercises of the school be conducted in both, with the rule, however, that all the reviews and examinations *be in English only.*"

Alexander Dallas Bache, LL. D., Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey, in a "*Report on Education in Europe,*" to the Trustees of the Girard College of Orphans, Philadelphia, in 1838, remarks as follows :

"When education is to be rapidly advanced, Seminaries for Teachers offer the means of securing this result. An eminent teacher is selected as Director of the Seminary ; and by the aid of competent assistants, and while benefiting the community by the instruction given in the schools attached to the Seminary, trains, yearly, from thirty to forty youths in the enlightened practice of his methods ; these, in their turn, become teachers of schools, which they are fit at once to conduct, without the failures and mistakes usual with novices ; for though beginners in name, they have acquired, in the course of the two or three years spent at the Seminary, an experience equivalent to many years of unguided efforts. This result has been fully realized in the success of the attempts to spread the methods of Pestalozzi and others through Prussia. The plan has been adopted, and is yielding its appropriate fruits in Holland, Switzerland, France, and Saxony ; while in Austria, where the method of preparing teachers by their attendance on the primary schools is still adhered to, the schools are stationary, and behind those of Northern and Middle Germany.

These Seminaries produce a strong *esprit de corps* among teachers, which tends powerfully to interest them in their profession, to attach them to it, to elevate it in their eyes, and to stimulate them to improve constantly upon the attainments with which they may have commenced its exercise. By their aid a standard of examination in the theory and practice of instruction is furnished, which may be fairly exacted of candidates who have chosen a different way to obtain access to the profession."

Hon. Horace Mann, in his "*Seventh Annual Report as Secretary of the Board of Education in Massachusetts,*" in which he gives an account of an educational tour through the principal countries of Europe in the summer of 1843, says :

"Among the nations of Europe, Prussia has long enjoyed the most distinguished reputation for the excellence of its schools. In reviews, in speeches, in tracts, and even in graver works devoted to the cause of education, its schools have been exhibited as models for the imitation of the rest of Christendom. For many years, scarce a suspicion was breathed that the general plan of education in that kingdom was not sound in theory and most beneficial in practice. Recently, however, grave charges have been preferred against it by high authority. The popular traveler, Laing, has devoted several chapters of his large work on Prussia to the disparagement of its school system. An octavo volume, entitled 'The Age of Great Cities,' has recently appeared in England, in which that system is strongly condemned ; and during the pendency of the famous 'Factories' Bill' before the British House of Commons, in 1843, numerous tracts were issued from the English press, not merely calling in question, but strongly denouncing, the whole plan of education in Prussia, as being not only designed to produce, but as actually producing, a spirit of blind acquiescence to arbitrary power, in things spiritual as well as temporal—as being, in fine, a system of education adapted to enslave, and not to enfranchise, the human mind. And even in some parts of the United States—the very nature and essence of whose institutions consist in the idea that the people are wise enough to distinguish between what is right and what is wrong—even here, some have been illiberal enough to condemn, in advance, every thing that savors of the Prussian system, because that system is sustained by arbitrary power.

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But allowing all these charges against the Prussian system to be true, there were still two reasons why I was not deterred from examining it.

In the first place, the evils imputed to it were easily and naturally separable

from the good which it was not denied to possess. If the Prussian schoolmaster has better methods of teaching reading, writing, grammar, geography, arithmetic, &c., so that, in half the time, he produces greater and better results, surely we may copy his modes of teaching these elements without adopting his notions of passive obedience to government, or of blind adherence to the articles of a church. By the ordinance of nature, the human faculties are substantially the same all over the world, and hence the best means for their development and growth in one place, must be substantially the best for their development and growth everywhere. The spirit which shall control the action of these faculties when matured, which shall train them to self-reliance or to abject submission, which shall lead them to refer all questions to the standard of reason or to that of authority,—this spirit is wholly distinct and distinguishable from the manner in which the faculties themselves ought to be trained; and we may avail ourselves of all improved methods in the earlier processes, without being contaminated by the abuses which may be made to follow them. The best style of teaching arithmetic or spelling has no necessary or natural connection with the doctrine of hereditary right; and an accomplished lesson in geography or grammar commits the human intellect to no particular dogma in religion.

In the second place, if Prussia can pervert the benign influences of education to the support of arbitrary power, we surely can employ them for the support and perpetuation of republican institutions. A national spirit of liberty can be cultivated more easily than a national spirit of bondage; and if it may be made one of the great prerogatives of education to perform the unnatural and unholy work of making slaves, then surely it must be one of the noblest instrumentalities for rearing a nation of freemen. If a moral power over the understandings and affections of the people may be turned to evil, may it not also be employed for the highest good?

Besides, a generous and impartial mind does not ask whence a thing comes, but what it is. Those who, at the present day, would reject an improvement because of the place of its origin, belong to the same school of bigotry with those who inquired if any good could come out of Nazareth; and what infinite blessings would the world have lost had that party been punished by success! Throughout my whole tour, no one principle has been more frequently exemplified than this,—that wherever I have found the best institutions,—educational, reformatory, charitable, penal, or otherwise,—there I have always found the greatest desire to know how similar institutions were administered among ourselves; and where I have found the worst, there I have found most of the spirit of self-complacency, and even an offensive disinclination to hear of better methods.

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All the subjects I have enumerated were taught in all the schools I visited, whether in city or country, for the rich or for the poor. In the lowest school in the smallest and obscurest village, or for the poorest class in overcrowded cities; in the schools connected with pauper establishments, with houses of correction, or with prisons,—in all these, there was a teacher of *mature age*, of simple, unaffected, and decorous manners, benevolent in his expression, kind and genial in his intercourse with the young, and of such attainments and resources as qualified him not only to lay down the abstract principles of the above range of studies, but, by familiar illustration and apposite example, to commend them to the attention of the children.

I speak of the teachers whom I saw, and with whom I had more or less of personal intercourse; and, after some opportunity for the observation of public assemblies or bodies of men, I do not hesitate to say, that if those teachers were brought together, in one body, I believe they would form as dignified, intelligent, benevolent-looking a company of men as could be collected from the same amount of population in any country. They were alike free from arrogant pretension and from the affectation of humility. It has been often remarked, both in England and in this country, that the nature of a school-teacher's occupation exposes him, in some degree, to overbearing manners, and to dogmatism in the statement of his opinions. Accustomed to the exercise of supreme authority, moving among those who are so much his inferiors in point of attainment, perhaps it is proof of a very well-balanced mind, if he keeps himself free from assumption

in opinion and haughtiness of demeanor. Especially are such faults or vices apt to spring up in weak or ill-furnished minds. A teacher who cannot rule by love, must do so by fear. A teacher who cannot supply material for the activity of his pupils' minds by his talent, must put down that activity by force. A teacher who cannot answer all the questions and solve all the doubts of a scholar as they arise, must assume an awful and mysterious air, and must expound in oracles, which themselves need more explanation than the original difficulty. When a teacher knows much, and is master of his whole subject, he can afford to be modest and unpretending. But when the head is the only text-book, and the teacher has not been previously prepared, he must, of course, have a small library. Among all the Prussian and Saxon teachers whom I saw, there were not half a dozen instances to remind one of those unpleasant characteristics,—what Lord Bacon would call the 'idol of the tribe,' or profession,—which sometimes degrade the name and disparage the sacred calling of a teacher. Generally speaking, there seemed to be a strong love for the employment, always a devotion to duty, and a profound conviction of the importance and sacredness of the office they filled. The only striking instance of disingenuousness or attempt at deception, which I saw, was that of a teacher who looked over the manuscript books of a large class of his scholars, selected the best, and, bringing it to me, said, 'In seeing one you see all.

Whence came this beneficent order of men, scattered over the whole country, molding the character of its people, and carrying them forward in a career of civilization more rapidly than any other people in the world are now advancing? This is a question which can be answered only by giving an account of the Seminaries for Teachers.

From the year 1820 to 1830 or 1835, it was customary, in all accounts of Prussian education, to mention the number of these Seminaries for Teachers. This item of information has now become unimportant, as there are seminaries sufficient to supply the wants of the whole country. The stated term of residence at these seminaries is three years. Lately, and in a few places, a class of preliminary institutions has sprung up,—institutions where pupils are received in order to determine whether they are fit to become candidates to be candidates. As a pupil of the seminary is liable to be set aside for incompetency, even after a three years' course of study; so the pupils of these preliminary institutions, after having gone through with a shorter course, are liable to be set aside for incompetency to become competent.

Let us look for a moment at the guards and securities which, in that country, environ this sacred calling. In the first place, the teacher's profession holds such a high rank in public estimation, that none who have failed in other employments or departments of business, are encouraged to look upon school-keeping as an ultimate resource. Those, too, who, from any cause, despair of success in other departments of business or walks of life, have very slender prospects in looking forward to this. These considerations exclude at once all that inferior order of men who, in some countries, constitute the main body of the teachers. Then come,—though only in some parts of Prussia,—these preliminary schools, where those who wish eventually to become teachers, go, in order to have their natural qualities and adaptation for school-keeping tested; for it must be borne in mind that a man may have the most unexceptionable character, may be capable of mastering all the branches of study, may even be able to make most brilliant recitations from day to day; and yet, from some coldness or repulsiveness of manner, from harshness of voice, from some natural defect in his person or in one of his senses, he may be adjudged an unsuitable model or archetype for children to be conformed to, or to grow by; and hence he may be dismissed at the end of his probationary term of six months. At one of these preparatory schools, which I visited, the list of subjects at the examination,—a part of which I saw,—was divided into two classes, as follows:—1. Readiness in thinking, German language, including orthography and composition, history, description of the earth, knowledge of nature, thorough bass, calligraphy, drawing. 2. Religion, knowledge of the Bible, knowledge of nature, mental arithmetic, singing, violin-playing, and readiness or facility in speaking. The examination in all the branches of the first class was conducted in writing. To test a pupil's readiness in thinking, for instance, several topics for composition are given out, and, after the lapse of a cer-

tain number of minutes, whatever has been written must be handed in to the examiners. So questions in arithmetic are given, and the time occupied by the pupils in solving them, is a test of their quickness of thought, or power of commanding their own resources. This facility, or faculty, is considered of great importance in a teacher.* In the second class of subjects the pupils were examined *orally*. Two entire days were occupied in examining a class of thirty pupils, and only twenty-one were admitted to the seminary school;—that is, only about two-thirds were considered to be eligible to become eligible, as teachers, after three years' further study. Thus, in this first process, the chaff is winnowed out, and not a few of the lighter grains of the wheat.

It is to be understood that those who enter the seminary directly, and without this preliminary trial, have already studied, under able masters in the Common Schools, at least all the branches I have above described. The first two of the three years, they expend mainly in reviewing and expanding their elementary knowledge. The German language is studied in its relations to rhetoric and logic, and as æsthetic literature; arithmetic is carried out into algebra and mixed mathematics; geography into commerce and manufactures, and into a knowledge of the various botanical and zoological productions of the different quarters of the globe; linear drawing into perspective and machine drawing, and the drawing from models of all kinds, and from objects in nature, &c. The theory and practice, not only of vocal, but of instrumental music, occupy much time. Every pupil must play on the violin; most of them play on the organ, and some on other instruments. I recollect seeing a Normal class engaged in learning the principles of Harmony. The teacher first explained the principles on which they were to proceed. He then wrote a bar of music upon the black-board, and called upon a pupil to write such notes for another part or accompaniment, as would make *harmony* with the first. So he would write a bar with certain intervals, and then require a pupil to write another, with such intervals as, according to the principles of musical science, would correspond with the first. A thorough course of reading on the subject of education is undertaken, as well as a more general course. Bible history is almost committed to memory. Connected with all the seminaries for teachers are large Model or Experimental Schools. During the last part of the course much of the students' time is spent in these schools. At first they go in and look on in silence, while an accomplished teacher is instructing a class. Then they themselves commence teaching under the eye of such a teacher. At last they teach a class alone, being responsible for its proficiency, and for its condition as to order, &c., at the end of a week or other period. During the whole course, there are lectures, discussions, compositions, &c., on the theory and practice of teaching. The essential qualifications of a candidate for the office, his attainments, and the spirit of devotion and of religious fidelity in which he should enter upon his work; the modes of teaching the different branches; the motive-powers to be applied to the minds of children; dissertations upon the different natural dispositions of children, and, consequently, the different ways of addressing them, of securing their confidence and affection, and of winning them to a love of learning and a sense of duty; and especially the sacredness of the teacher's profession,—the idea that he stands, for the time being, in the place of a parent, and therefore that a parent's responsibilities rest upon him, that the most precious hopes of society are committed to his charge, and that on him depends, to a great extent, the temporal and perhaps the future well-being of hundreds of his fellow-creatures,—these are the conversations, the ideas, the feelings, amid which the candidate for teaching spends his probationary years. This is the daily atmosphere he breathes. These are the sacred, elevating, invigorating influences constantly pouring in upon his soul. Hence, at the expiration of his course, he leaves the seminary to enter upon his profession, glowing with enthusiasm for the noble cause he has espoused, and strong in his resolves to perform its manifold and momentous duties.

Here, then, is the cause of the worth and standing of the teachers, whom I had the pleasure and the honor to see. As a body of men, their character is

* The above described is a very common method of examining in the gymnasia and higher seminaries of Prussia. Certain sealed subjects for an exercise are given to the students; they are then locked up in a room, each by himself, and at the expiration of a given time, they are enlarged, and it is seen what each one has been able to make out of his faculties.

more enviable than that of either of the three, so-called, 'professions. They have more benevolence and self-sacrifice than the legal or medical, while they have less of sanctimoniousness and austerity, less of indisposition to enter into all the innocent amusements and joyous feelings of childhood, than the clerical. They are not unmindful of what belongs to men while they are serving God; nor of the duties they owe to this world while preparing for another.

On reviewing a period of six weeks, the greater part of which I spent in visiting schools in the north and middle of Prussia and in Saxony (excepting, of course, the time occupied in going from place to place), entering the schools to hear the first recitation in the morning, and remaining till the last was completed at night, I call to mind three things about which I cannot be mistaken. In some of my opinions and inferences I may have erred, but of the following facts there can be no doubt:

1. During all this time, I never saw a teacher hearing a lesson of any kind (excepting a reading or spelling lesson), *with a book in his hand.*

2. I never saw a teacher *sitting* while hearing a recitation.

3. Though I saw hundreds of schools, and thousands,—I think I may say, within bounds, tens of thousands of pupils,—*I never saw one child undergoing punishment, or arraigned for misconduct. I never saw one child in tears from having been punished, or from fear of being punished.*

During the above period, I witnessed exercises in geography, ancient and modern; in the German language,—from the explanation of the simplest words up to belles-lettres disquisitions, with rules for speaking and writing;—in arithmetic, algebra, geometry, surveying, and trigonometry; in book-keeping; in civil history, ancient and modern; in natural philosophy; in botany and zoology; in mineralogy, where there were hundreds of specimens; in the endless variety of the exercises in thinking, knowledge of nature, of the world, and of society; in Bible history and in Bible knowledge;—and, as I before said, in no one of these cases did I see a teacher with a book in his hand. His book,—his books,—his library, was in his head. Promptly, without pause, without hesitation, from the rich resources of his own mind, he brought forth whatever the occasion demanded. I remember calling one morning at a country school in Saxony, where every thing about the premises, and the appearance, both of teacher and children, indicated very narrow pecuniary circumstances. As I entered, the teacher was just ready to commence a lesson or lecture on French history. He gave not only the events of a particular period in the history of France, but mentioned, as he proceeded, all the contemporary sovereigns of neighboring nations. The ordinary time for a lesson here, as elsewhere, was an hour. This was somewhat longer, for, toward the close, the teacher entered upon a train of thought from which it was difficult to break off, and rose to a strain of eloquence which it was delightful to hear. The scholars were all absorbed in attention. They had paper, pen, and ink before them, and took brief notes of what was said. When the lesson touched upon contemporary events in other nations,—which, as I suppose, had been the subject of previous lessons,—the pupils were questioned concerning them. A small text-book of history was used by the pupils, which they studied at home.

I ought to say further, that I generally visited schools without guide, or letter of introduction,—presenting myself at the door, and asking the favor of admission. Though I had a general order from the Minister of Public Instruction, commanding all schools, gymnasia, and universities in the kingdom to be opened for my inspection, yet I seldom exhibited it, or spoke of it,—at least not until I was about departing. I preferred to enter as a private individual, an uncommended visitor.

I have said that I saw no teacher *sitting* in his school. Aged or young, all stood. Nor did they stand apart and aloof in sullen dignity. They mingled with their pupils, passing rapidly from one side of the class to the other, animating, encouraging, sympathizing, breathing life into less active natures, assuring the timid, distributing encouragement and endearment to all. The looks of the Prussian teacher often have the expression and vivacity of an actor in a play. He gesticulates like an orator. His body assumes all the attitudes, and his face puts on all the variety of expression, which a public speaker would do if haranguing a large assembly on a topic vital to their interests.

It may seem singular, and perhaps to some almost ludicrous, that a teacher in expounding the first rudiments of handwriting, in teaching the difference between a hair-stroke and a ground-stroke, or how an *l* may be turned into a *b*, or a *u* into a *w*, should be able to work himself up into an oratorical fervor; should attitudinize, and gesticulate, and stride from one end of the class to the other, and appear in every way to be as intensely engaged as an advocate when arguing an important cause to a jury;—but, strange as it may seem, it is nevertheless true; and before five minutes of such a lesson had elapsed, I have seen the children wrought up to an excitement proportionally intense, hanging upon the teacher's lips, catching every word he says, and evincing great elation or depression of spirits, as they had or had not succeeded in following his instructions. So I have seen the same rhetorical vehemence on the part of the teacher, and the same interest and animation on the part of the pupils, during a lesson on the original sounds of the letters,—that is, the difference between the long and the short sound of a vowel, or the different ways of opening the mouth in sounding the consonants *b* and *p*. The zeal of the teacher enkindles the scholars. He charges them with his own electricity to the point of explosion. Such a teacher has no idle, mischievous, whispering children around him, nor any occasion for the rod. He does not make desolation of all the active and playful impulses of childhood, and call it peace; nor, to secure stillness among his scholars, does he find it necessary to ride them with the nightmare of fear. I rarely saw a teacher put questions with his lips alone. He seems so much interested in his subject (though he might have been teaching the same lesson for the hundredth or five hundredth time), that his whole body is in motion;—eyes, arms, limbs, all contributing to the impression he desires to make; and, at the end of an hour, both he and his pupils come from the work all glowing with excitement.

Suppose a lawyer in one of our courts were to plead an important cause before a jury, but instead of standing and extemporizing, and showing by his gestures, and by the energy and ardor of his whole manner, that he felt an interest in his theme, instead of rising with his subject and coruscating with flashes of genius and wit, he should plant himself lazily down in a chair, read from some old book which scarcely a member of the panel could fully understand, and, after drooping away for an hour, should leave them, without having distinctly impressed their minds with one fact, or led them to form one logical conclusion;—would it be any wonder if he left half of them joking with each other, or asleep;—would it be any wonder,—provided he were followed on the other side by an advocate of brilliant parts, of elegant diction and attractive manner,—who should pour sunshine into the darkest recesses of the case,—if he lost not only his own reputation, but the cause of his client also?

These incitements and endearments of the teacher, this personal ubiquity, as it were, among all the pupils in the class, prevailed much more, as the pupils were younger. Before the older classes, the teacher's manner became calm and didactic. The habit of attention being once formed, nothing was left for subsequent years or teachers, but the easy task of maintaining it. Was there ever such a comment as this on the practice of hiring cheap teachers because the school is young, or incompetent ones because it is backward!

In Prussia and in Saxony, as well as in Scotland, the power of commanding and retaining the attention of a class is held to be a *sine qua non* in a teacher's qualifications. If he has not talent, skill, vivacity, or resources of anecdote and wit, sufficient to arouse and retain the attention of his pupils during the accustomed period of recitation, he is deemed to have mistaken his calling, and receives a significant hint to change his vocation.

Take a group of little children to a toy-shop, and witness their outbursting eagerness and delight. They need no stimulus of badges or prizes to arrest or sustain their attention; they need no quickening of their faculties by rod or ferule. To the exclusion of food and sleep they will push their inquiries, until shape, color, quality, use, substance, both external and internal, of the objects around them, are exhausted; and each child will want the show-man wholly to himself. But in all the boundless variety and beauty of nature's works; in that profusion and prodigality of charms with which the Creator has adorned and enriched every part of his creation; in the delights of affection; in the ecstatic joys of benevolence; in the absorbing interest which an unsophisticated conscience

instinctively takes in all questions of right and wrong ;—in all these, is there not as much to challenge and command the attention of a little child, as in the curiosities of a toy-shop? When as much of human art and ingenuity shall have been expended upon teaching as upon toys, there will be less difference between the cases.

The third circumstance I mentioned above was the beautiful relation of harmony and affection which subsisted between teacher and pupils. I cannot say that the extraordinary fact I have mentioned was not the result of chance or accident. Of the probability of that, others must judge. I can only say that, during all the time mentioned, I never saw a blow struck, I never heard a sharp rebuke given, I never saw a child in tears, nor arraigned at the teacher's bar for any alleged misconduct. On the contrary, the relation seemed to be one of duty first, and then affection, on the part of the teacher,—of affection first, and then duty, on the part of the scholar. The teacher's manner was better than parental, for it had a parent's tenderness and vigilance, without the foolish dotings or indulgences to which parental affection is prone. I heard no child ridiculed, sneered at, or scolded, for making a mistake. On the contrary, whenever a mistake was made, or there was a want of promptness in giving a reply, the expression of the teacher was that of grief and disappointment, as though there had been a failure, not merely to answer the question of a master, but to comply with the expectations of a friend. No child was disconcerted, disabled, or bereft of his senses, through fear. Nay, generally, at the ends of the answers, the teacher's practice is to encourage him with the exclamation, 'good,' 'right,' 'wholly right,' &c., or to check him, with his slowly and painfully articulated 'no'; and this is done with a tone of voice that marks every degree of *plus* and *minus* in the scale of approbation and regret. When a difficult question has been put to a young child, which tasks all his energies, the teacher approaches him with a mingled look of concern and encouragement; he stands before him, the light and shade of hope and fear alternately crossing his countenance; he lifts his arms and turns his body,—as a bowler who has given a wrong direction to his bowl will writhe his person to bring the ball back upon its track;—and finally, if the little wrestler with difficulty triumphs, the teacher felicitates him upon his success, perhaps seizes and shakes him by the hand, in token of congratulation; and, when the difficulty has been really formidable, and the effort triumphant, I have seen the teacher catch up the child in his arms and embrace him, as though he were not able to contain his joy. At another time, I have seen a teacher actually clap his hands with delight at a bright reply; and all this has been done so naturally and so unaffectedly as to excite no other feeling in the residue of the children than a desire, by the same means, to win the same caresses. What person worthy of being called by the name, or of sustaining the sacred relation of a parent, would not give any thing, bear any thing, sacrifice any thing, to have his children, during eight or ten years of the period of their childhood, surrounded by circumstances, and breathed upon by sweet and humanizing influences, like these!

The Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D. D., Chief Superintendent of Schools, in a "*Report on a System of Public Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada*," after quoting the above passages from Mr. Mann's report, remarks:

"In the above summary and important statements on this subject, by the able Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, I fully concur, with two slight exceptions. In one instance I did see a boy in tears (in Berlin) when removed to a lower class on account of negligence in his school preparations. I did see one or two old men sitting *occasionally* in school. With these exceptions, my own similar inquiries and experience of nearly three months in Southern and Western, as well as Northern and Middle Germany, and I might add a longer period of like investigations in Switzerland, Holland, Belgium and France—enable me not only to subscribe to the statements of the Hon. Mr. Mann, but would enable me, were it necessary, to illustrate them by various details of visits to individual schools."

Professor Lemuel Stephens, now of Girard College of Orphans, Philadelphia, in a "*Letter addressed to Hon. F. R. Shunk, Superintendent of Common Schools in Pennsylvania,*" from Berlin, in 1843, remarks:

"To determine absolutely the influence which teachers' seminaries have had upon the state of popular education in Germany, would be a matter of great difficulty, owing to the gradual growth of these institutions. One thing is certain, that the improvement of the schools has followed, hand in hand, the multiplication and improvement of the seminaries. Perhaps the value of these institutions can be shown in no light so advantageously, as by comparing the class of common school teachers in Germany, at the present moment, with the same class in England and America. In this country one is struck with the zeal and common spirit which a common education has imparted to the whole body. They have been for three or four years under the instruction of men practically and scientifically acquainted with the best principles of teaching; and what is an indispensable part of their preparation, they have had the opportunity of testing the value, and of becoming familiar with the application of these principles in practice. During the latter part of their course they have been accustomed, under the eye of their teachers, to instruct a school of children, by which means the art and the theory have kept pace with each other. Some knowledge of the human mind, and some just conception of the great problem of education which they are engaged in solving, inspires them with self-respect, with earnestness and love of their profession. Once raised above the idea that education consists alone in drilling children in a few useful accomplishments, a sense of the dignity of the work of operating on, and forming other minds, causes them to overlook the humble outward conditions of a village school, and fortifies them against the seductions of false ambition.

Leaving out of the question the great immediate benefit of these seminaries in fitting teachers better to fill their office, I believe that the professional spirit, the *esprit du corps*, which they create, is productive of results which are alone sufficient to recommend these institutions. It is this common spirit which secures the progress of the young teacher after he has entered into active service, and saves him from the besetting sin of rusting into a mechanical routine, by keeping up a lively interchange of opinions, and making him acquainted with the successes and improvements of other teachers. The means for this intercourse, are conferences and periodicals of education. In every German city, in which I have made the inquiry, I have learned that the teachers from the different schools are accustomed to come together, at stated times, for the purpose of mutual improvement: even in the villages of Hesse, and the mountainous part of Saxony, I found that the teachers, from villages miles apart, held their monthly conferences for debate and lecture.

In Germany there are no less than thirty periodicals devoted exclusively to education. In these all questions of interest to teachers are discussed; the best method of instructing explained, all new school books noticed and criticised: the arrangements and organizations of distinguished schools described, and accounts given from time to time of the progress of education in other states. The General School Gazette, which has particularly attracted my attention, has a list of more than one hundred regular contributors. The journals are open to all teachers to make known their experience, or to ask for information. The able director of the seminary in this city, who is at the same time the conductor of one of these periodicals, informs me that one or more of them finds its way to every common school teacher. They are furnished so low that he can generally afford to take them, or if not, they are taken by the district for his benefit. By these means an active spirit of inquiry is kept up; the improvements of individuals become the property of all; the obscure village teacher feels that he is a member of a large and respectable class, engaged in the great work of human improvement; and love and zeal for his profession are enkindled. There is union, sympathy, generous emulation and mutual improvement. Among the members of a profession, there is a common principle of life. It is a type of organic life, which contains within itself the principle of development and growth.

A valuable ordinance passed in Prussia, in 1826, and renewed in 1846, requires a director of a seminary to travel about once a year, and visit a certain part of the schools within his circuit. He makes himself acquainted with the

state of the school, listens to the instruction given, takes part himself in the same, and gives to the teacher such hints for improvement as his observation may suggest. The results of his yearly visits he presents in the form of a report to the school authorities of the province. This occasional visitation is very useful in clearing up the dark corners of the land, correcting abuses, and giving an impulse, from time to time, to teachers, who might otherwise sink into apathy and neglect. To render the efficacy of the seminaries more complete, it is provided that at the end of three years after leaving the seminary, the young teachers shall return to pass a second examination. And further, by an ordinance in 1826, it is provided, 'To the end, that the beneficial influence of the seminary may extend itself to those teachers already established, who either require further instruction, or who in their own cultivation and skill in office do not advance, perhaps even recede; it is required that such teachers be recalled into the seminary for a shorter or longer time, as may be needful for them, in order, either to pass through a whole methodical course, or to practice themselves in particular departments of instruction.' By this organization it is very easy to see that the whole system of popular instruction is brought under the influence of the most able teachers; their skill is made to tell upon the character of the class; and the assurance is given that the work of education is advancing surely and consequently toward perfection.

It is only by the distinct division of the objects of human industry and knowledge, into separate arts and sciences, that their advancement can be insured. The necessity for the division of labor in the mechanic arts is well enough understood. A necessity for this division, in intellectual pursuits, exists in a by no means less degree. So long as the science of education depends for its development upon the casual contributions of men of all professions, without being made the business of any, it must grope its way hither and thither by the light of occasional flashes, instead of being guided on by a steady flame.

The views of certain men on education are known among us, but so far as pedagogics from being cultivated as a science, we feel ourselves as yet hardly authorized to use the word. I am far from denying that we have many very good teachers; but they stand separate and alone. Their influence rarely extends beyond the sphere of their own schools. Their experience has furnished them with excellent practical rules for their own procedure, but these rules have perhaps never been expressed in words, much less their truth demonstrated by a reduction of the same to scientific principles. They are content to be known as possessing the mysterious talent of a skillful teacher, and their wisdom dies with them. It is owing to the isolated position in which teachers by profession find themselves, that the didactic skill they may have acquired, even when it rises above the character of a blind faculty, and is founded on the enlightened conclusions of science, still remains almost without influence on the wrong ideas in education which may be in vogue around them. To quote a remark of Dr. Harnisch: 'we have had, now and then, capable teachers without possessing seminaries: we still find such *singly* in states which yet have no seminaries, but it can not be denied that seminaries are most effectual levers for elevating the condition of common schools, and such they have sufficiently proved themselves to be in latter years.'

* * * * *

"How far may we avail ourselves of the German plan of popular education? It will be borne in mind, that the Prussian system is so far voluntary that it is left entirely to the parent where, and in what manner, his child shall be educated, only requiring that the years, from six till fourteen, shall be devoted to instruction, and that a certain amount of knowledge shall be obtained. The Swiss republics have placed their public schools on the same basis that the German states have done, their laws are essentially the same, and teachers have therefore, there as well as in Germany, the character of public servants. The great feature of the Prussian system, which it is both suitable and highly desirable for us to imitate, is that which I have already described, namely: the provision therein made for the education of common school teachers. This appears to me the only radical reform, and the only means of putting public education in a steady and consequent train of improvement.

To apply to ourselves the advantages which I have already stated as flowing from this measure—It will raise the employment of teaching among us to a regular profession, and introduce generally consistent and rational methods of

instructing. It will create among teachers, devotion to their office, and a desire for co-operation. This desire will manifest itself in the organization of unions for conference, and in the establishment and support of many periodicals. The higher character of teachers, and the improved state of the schools, will bring them respect, and a better remuneration for their services. The higher value set upon education, the immense contrast between the efficacy of a constant, and that of a half-yearly school, and I must add, the *impossibility of getting good teachers for the latter*, will gradually do away with this great evil under which our school system suffers. The permanent settlement of teachers, rendering much less the annual accession to the profession necessary to keep the schools supplied, will, as I have shown, obviate all difficulty on the score of numbers. The science of the human mind and its cultivation, this vitally important branch of a nation's literature, will be developed among us, and its blessings will be richly manifested in the better cultivation of all the sciences and arts of life.

Such is a scanty outline of the benefits which the experience of other countries, and reason, show us will follow the proper education of our teachers. I do not mean to say that Germany has already realized all these benefits. It is important to observe that the reform in education in this country, goes out from the government, not from the people themselves, who rather passively submit to its operation, than actively co-operate in giving it efficacy. This, with other grounds before stated, necessarily make popular education in Germany productive of less results than in our own country. * * *

In the establishment of teachers' seminaries, their utility and success will depend entirely upon their appropriate and perfect organization. False economy has often attempted to provide for the education of primary teachers, by making the seminary an appendage to a high school, or an academy. Thirty years ago this arrangement was not uncommon in Germany; and later the experiment has been tried in the State of New York. * * * If it were needed, to strengthen the evidence of the inefficiency of this system, I might easily quote the testimony of the most able teachers of Germany to this effect. Perhaps no department of education requires a more peculiar treatment, and more calls for the undivided zeal and energy of those who have the conduct of it, than the preparation of teachers.

Every thing depends on making the seminaries for teachers, separate and independent establishments, with a careful provision for a thorough, theoretical and practical preparation for all the duties of the common school. In the experiment of introducing teachers' seminaries into our country, there is a danger that we shall be too sparing in the number of teachers employed in conducting them. Seminaries conducted by one or two teachers can not be otherwise than imperfect; and while but little good would come from them, there is great danger that their failure would serve to bring the cause into disrepute."

PRUSSIA.

THE system of Public Instruction in Prussia embraces three degrees, provided for in three classes of institutions. 1. Primary or Elementary Instruction, conveyed in schools corresponding to our common schools. 2. Secondary Instruction, provided for in Gymnasias, Real Schools and Trade Schools. 3. Superior instruction, communicated in the Universities. We shall confine our attention to Primary Instruction, and shall present a general idea of the system from various authorities.*

As early as the reign of the Elector Joachim the Second, before the kingdom of Prussia existed, except as the Mark of Brandenburg, (1540,) visitors were appointed to inspect the town schools of the Electorate, with express directions to report in relation to the measures deemed necessary for their improvement. In 1545, the same elector appointed a permanent council or board, on church and school matters. In a decree of some length, by the elector John George, (1573,) special sections are devoted to the schools, to teachers and their assistants, and to pupils. It is remarkable as containing a provision for committees of superintendence, consisting of the parish clergyman, the magistrates and two notables, exactly similar in constitution to the present school committees.

In 1777, a decree of Frederick William the First, king of Prussia, enjoins upon parents to send their children to school, provides for the payment of teachers, for the education of poor children, and for catechetical instruction by the parochial clergymen. In 1735, the first regular seminary for teachers in Prussia was established at Stettin, in Pomerania. To induce a better attendance at school, a decree of 1736 requires that the parent of every child between five and twelve years of age, shall pay a certain fee, whether his child goes to school or not; this rule being, as it were, preliminary to the present one of forced attendance. The same decree refers to school-houses erected by associated parishes, showing, that such associations existed previously to the decree for providing public schools; similar associations may even now exist, but they are not numerous, forming exceptions to the general rule requiring each parish to have its public school. The decree provides further for the amount of fees to be paid to the teacher by the pupils, the church, or the state, and for aid to peasants who have more than two children above five years of age, by the payment of the fees of all over this number from a school fund. A rescript of 1738, constitutes the clergy the inspectors of schools.

Bache's "*Report on Education in Europe.*" Cousin's "*Report on Primary Instruction in some of the States of Germany, and particularly in Prussia.*" Prof. Stephens's "*Letter to the Superintendent of Common Schools in Pennsylvania in 1843.*" Recent School Documents from Germany, by Harnisch, Calinich, Jacobi and others.

An attempt to provide more precisely, by law, for the regulation of the schools in Berlin, was made by a decree of 1738. This decree requires that teachers shall be regularly examined by the inspectors of schools before being allowed to teach, and prescribes their acquirements in detail. It directs the opening and closing of the schools with prayers; fixes the hours of daily attendance at from eight to eleven, or seven to ten in the morning, and one to three in the afternoon; prescribes instruction in spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, and regulates the emoluments and perquisites of the master.

A new impulse was given to public instruction under the reign of Frederick the Great. The regulations drawn up by Hecker, and approved by the king, (1763,) are very precise, and though they have been in part superseded by later decrees, many of their provisions are still in force. They provide for the selection of school books by the consistory; that children shall be sent to school at five years of age, and be kept there until thirteen or fourteen, or until they have made satisfactory attainments in reading and writing, in the knowledge of Christian doctrine, and of such matters as are to be found in their text-books; fix the school-hours, requiring six hours a day for instruction in winter, and three in summer, and one hour of catechetical instruction, besides the Sunday teaching; require that all unmarried persons of the parish shall attend the hour of instruction in the catechism, and besides, receive lessons in reading and writing from the Bible. The regulations provide anew for the schoolmasters' fees, and for the instruction of poor children; require that the schoolmaster shall be furnished from the church-register with a list of all the children of the age to attend school, and that he shall prepare a list of those who are actually in attendance, and submit both to the clergyman, in his periodical visits; direct anew the examination of candidates for the situation of schoolmaster, and refer particularly to the advantages of the seminary opened at Berlin for preparing teachers for the Mark of Brandenburg; lay down minutely the scheme of elementary instruction, and actually specify the time to be devoted to the different branches, with each of the two classes composing the school; require the parochial clergy to visit the schools twice a week, and inspectors of circles to perform the same service at least once a year.

The decree of Frederick regulating the Catholic schools of Silesia, (1765,) is even more particular than the foregoing. It shows the settled policy in regard to educating teachers in special seminaries, now so important a part of the Prussian system, by setting apart certain schools by name for this purpose, requiring the appointment of a director to each, and assigning his duties.

In 1787, Frederick William the Second created a council of instruction, under the title of an "Upper School Board," (Ober-Schul Collegium,) of which the minister of state was president. The council was directed to examine text-books, and to pass upon the licenses of masters, on the reports of the provincial school-boards. They were authorized to erect seminaries for teachers at the government expense, and to frame their regulations; to send out an inspector from their body to examine any part of public instruction, and to rectify all wrongs by a direct order, or through the school-boards of the provinces, the school committees or patrons. This organization remained substantially in force until the separation of the departments of state and instruction in 1817, with the creation of a ministry of public instruction. The attributes of this upper school board, it will be seen, now belong to that council.

The school plan of 1763 was modified by an ordinance of 1794, which introduces geography and natural history in the elementary schools, and refers to vocal music as one of their most important exercises; it also attempts, by minute prescriptions, to introduce uniformity in the methods of

instruction and discipline. The regulation for the catholic schools of Silesia was also revised in 1801.

But the most important era in the history of public instruction in Prussia, as well as in other parts of Germany, opens with the efforts put forth by the king and people, to rescue the kingdom from the yoke of Napoleon in 1809. In that year the army was remodeled and every citizen converted into a soldier; landed property was declared free of feudal service; restrictions on freedom of trade were abolished, and the whole state was reorganized. Great reliance was placed on infusing a German spirit into the people by giving them freer access to improved institutions of education, from the common school to the university. Under the councils of Hardenberg, Humbolt, Stein, Altenstein, these reforms and improvements were projected, carried on, and perfected in less than a single generation.

The movement in behalf of popular schools commenced by inviting C. A. Zeller, of Wirtemberg, to Prussia. Zeller was a young theologian, who had studied under Pestalozzi in Switzerland, and was thoroughly imbued with the method and spirit of his master. On his return he had convened the school teachers of Wirtemberg in barns, for want of better accommodations being allowed him, and inspired them with a zeal for Pestalozzi's methods, and for a better education of the whole people. On removing to Prussia, he first took charge of the seminary at Koenigsberg, soon after founded the seminary at Karalene, and went about into different provinces meeting with teachers, holding conferences, visiting schools, and inspiring school officers with the right spirit.

The next step taken was to send a number of young men, mostly theologians, to Pestalozzi's institution at Ifferten, to acquire his method, and on their return to place them in new, or reorganized teachers' seminaries. To these new agents in school improvement were joined a large body of zealous teachers, and patriotic and enlightened citizens, who, in ways and methods of their own, labored incessantly to confirm the Prussian state, by forming new organs for its internal life, and new means of protection from foreign foes. They proved themselves truly educators of the people. Although the government thus not only encouraged, but directly aided in the introduction of the methods of Pestalozzi into the public schools of Prussia, still the school board in the different provinces sustained and encouraged those who approved and taught on different systems, such as Dinter, Zerrenner, Salzman, and Niemyer—all, in fine, who labored with a patriotic purpose, thus allowing intellectual freedom, and appropriating whatever was good from all quarters toward the accomplishment of the great purpose.

To infuse a German spirit into teachers and scholars, particular attention was paid to the German language, as the treasury house of German ideas, and to the geography and history of the father land. Music, which was one of Pestalozzi's great instruments of culture, was made the vehicle of patriotic songs, and through them the heart of all Germany

was moved to bitter hatred of the conqueror who had desolated her fields and homes, and humbled the pride of her monarchy. All these efforts for the improvement of elementary education, accompanied by expensive modifications in the establishments of secondary and superior education, were made when the treasury was impoverished, and taxes, the most exorbitant in amount, were levied on every province and commune of the kingdom. Prof. Stephens, now of Girard College, in a letter to the Superintendent of Common Schools of Pennsylvania, written from Berlin, at a time when there was at least a talk of the repudiation of state debts, and especially when a distinguished citizen of that state had proposed to divert the money appropriated for the support of common schools to the payment of interest on the state debts, makes the following remarks on this period of the educational history of Prussia.

"Prussia, who furnishes us with a pattern of excellence in the present state of her public schools, affords us a still more brilliant example in the noble policy by which she sustained them in times of great public distress. Of all the nations of Europe, Prussia was reduced to the greatest extremity by the wars of Napoleon. In 1806, at the battle of Jena, her whole military force was annihilated. Within a week after the main overthrow, every scattered division of the army fell into the hands of the enemy. Napoleon took up his quarters in Berlin, emptied the arsenal, and stripped the capital of all the works of art which he thought worthy to be transported to Paris. By the treaty of Tilsit, in 1807, the king of Prussia was deprived of one-half of his dominions. A French army of 200,000 men were quartered upon the Prussians till the end of the year 1808. Prussia must pay to France the sum of 120,000,000 francs, after her principal sources of income had been appropriated by Napoleon, either to himself or his allies. The system of confiscation went so far that even the revenue from the endowments of schools, of poor houses, and the fund for widows, was diverted into the treasury of France. These last were given back in 1811. Foreign loans were made, to meet the exorbitant claims of the conqueror. An army must be created, bridges rebuilt, ruined fortifications in every quarter repaired, and so great was the public extremity that the Prussian ladies, with noble generosity, sent their ornaments and jewels to supply the royal treasury. Rings, crosses, and other ornaments of cast-iron were given in return to all those who had made this sacrifice. They bore the inscription, "*Ich gab gold um eisen,*" (I gave gold for iron,) and such Spartan jewels are much treasured at this day by the possessors and their families. This state of things lasted till after the "War of Liberation," in 1812. But it is the pride of Prussia, that at the time of her greatest humiliation and distress, she never for a moment lost sight of the work she had begun in the improvement of her schools.

In 1809, the minister at the head of the section of instruction, writes as follows, to some teachers who had been sent to the institution of Pestalozzi to learn his method and principles of instructing:—"The section of public instruction begs you to believe, and to assure Mr. Pestalozzi, that the cause is the interest of the government, *and of his majesty, the king, personally*, who are convinced that liberation from extraordinary calamities is fruitless, and only to be effected by a thorough improvement of the people's education." In 1809, was established the teachers' seminary in Koenigsberg. In 1810, the seminary at Braunsburg. In 1811, the seminary at Karalene. In 1812, was established at Breslau, the first seminary, completely organized according to the new ideas. In 1809, the most amply endowed and completely organized of all the German universities

was founded in Berlin. Professors were called from all parts, and in 1810 the university was in full operation. In 1811, the old university of Breslau was reorganized, and large grants were received from the government for new buildings and new professorships. Is not this noble policy, on the part of an absolute government, at a time when the nation was struggling for existence, a severe rebuke upon the narrow and short-sighted expedients of those republican politicians, who can invent no better way to pay a public debt than by converting into money that institution on which the virtue and intelligence of the people, and the special safety of a republican state, mainly depend?"

The school system of Prussia, is not the growth of any one period, and is not found in one law, but is made up of an aggregation of laws and general regulations, enacted at different times for different provinces, differing in the condition, habits, and religion of the people, and to meet particular wants, as these have been developed in the progress of the system. An attempt was made in 1819 to prepare a general school law for Prussia, but without success. This is considered by Harnisch and other German educators, a great defect, as it leads to great inequalities of education, and great irregularities of administration in different provinces. The ordinance of 1819, however, embraces much of the regulations which are applicable to the whole kingdom, while the peculiarities and details of the system must be looked for in the provincial ordinances and special regulations.

The authorities which administer public instruction in Prussia are the following:—The chief authority is the minister, who joins to this supervision that of ecclesiastical and medical affairs. He is assisted by a council, consisting of a variable number of members, and divided into three sections corresponding to the three charges of the minister. The section for public instruction has its president and secretary, and meets usually twice a week for the transaction of business. One of this body is generally deputed as extraordinary inspector in cases requiring examination, and reports to the minister. The kingdom of Prussia is divided into ten provinces, each of which has its governor, styled Superior President, (Ober-President,) who is assisted by a council called a Consistory, (Consistorium.) This council has functions in the province similar to those in the ministerial council in the kingdom at large, and has direct control of secondary public instruction, and of the schools for the education of primary teachers. It is subdivided into two sections, of which one has charge of the primary instruction in the province, under the title of the School Board, (Provincial Schul Collegium.) The school board, in addition to exercising the general supervision of education in the province, examines the statutes and regulations of the schools, insures the execution of existing laws and regulations, examines text-books, and gives permission for their introduction, after having obtained the approbation of the ministry. This board communicates with the higher authorities, through their president, to whom the reports from the next lower authority, to be presently spoken of, are addressed, and by whom, when these relate to school matters, they are referred to the board for examination.

The next smaller political division to a province, is called a Regency, (Regierungs-Bezirk,) which is again subdivided into Circles, (Kreis,) and those into parishes, (Gemeinden.) The chief civil authority in the Regency, is a president, who is assisted by a council called also a regency.

This body is divided into three sections, having charge respectively of

the internal affairs, of direct taxes, and of church and school matters. The last named committee examines and appoints all the teachers of elementary and burgher schools within the regency, superintends the schools, ascertains that the school-houses and churches are duly kept in order, administers the funds of schools and churches, or superintends the administration, when vested in corporations, and collects the church and school fees. This committee is presided over by a member of the regency called the School Councilor, (Schul-rath.) As councilor, he has a seat and voice in the provincial consistory, where he is required to appear at least once a year, and to report upon their affairs in his regency, of which the provincial consistory has the superintendence. It is also his duty to visit the schools, and to satisfy himself that they are in good condition.

The next school authority is the inspector of a circle, who has charge of several parishes. These inspectors are generally clergymen, while the councilors are laymen. Next below the special superintendents is the immediate authority, namely, the school committee, (Schul-Vorstand.) Each parish (Gemeinde) must, by law, have its school, except in special cases, and each school its committee of superintendence, (Schul-Vorstand,) consisting of the curate, the local magistrate, and from two to four notables; the constitution of the committee varying somewhat with the character of the school, whether endowed, entirely supported by the parish, in part by the province or state, or by subscription. The committee appoints a school inspector, who is usually the clergyman of the parish. In cities, the magistrates form the school committee, or school deputation, as it is there called, the curates still acting as local inspectors.

Thus, there is a regular series of authorities, from the master of the school up to the minister, and every part of primary instruction is entirely within the control of an impulse from the central government, and takes its direction according to the will of the highest authorities. With such a system, under a despotic government, it is obvious that the provisions of any law may be successfully enforced.

The cardinal provisions of the school system of Prussia, are:

First, That all children between the ages of seven and fourteen years shall go regularly to school. This is enforced by the school committee, who are furnished with lists of the children who should attend, and of those actually in the schools under their charge, and who are required to enforce the penalties of the law.

Second, That each parish shall, in general, have an elementary school. When the inhabitants are of different religious persuasions, each denomination has its school, and if not, provision is made for the religious instruction of the children by their own pastors. The erection of the school-house, its furniture, the income of the master, and aid to poor scholars, are all provided for. The requisite sum comes, in part, from parochial funds, and in part from a tax upon householders. When the parish is poor, it is assisted by the circle, by the province, and even by the state. Besides these elementary schools, most of the towns in Prussia have one or more upper primary or burgher schools.

Third, The education of teachers in seminaries, adapted to the grade of instruction to which they intend devoting themselves. Their exemption during their term of study from active military service required of other citizens. A provision for their support during their term of study. A preference given to them over schoolmasters not similarly educated. Their examination previous to receiving a certificate of capacity, which entitles them to become candidates for any vacant post in the province where they have been examined. Their subsequent exemption from active military service, and even from the annual drill of the militia, if they

can not, in the opinion of the school inspector, be spared from their duties. Provision for the removal of the incompetent or immoral. A provision for the support of decayed teachers.

Fourth, The authorities which regulate the schools, and render them a branch of the general government, and the teachers in fact, its officers. In a country like Prussia, this connection secures to the teacher the respect due to his station, and thus facilitates the discharge of his important duties.

Under this system of organization and administration, and especially with these arrangements to secure the employment of only properly qualified teachers, the public schools of Prussia have been multiplied to an extent, and have attained within the last quarter of a century a degree of excellence, which has attracted the attention of statesmen, and commanded the admiration of intelligent educators in every part of Christendom. In the provinces, where the improved system has gone into operation with the habits of the people in its favor, it has already reached every human being; and in even the outer provinces, it is, as fast as time sweeps along new generations, replacing the adult population with a race of men and women who have been subjected to a course of school instruction far more thorough and comprehensive than has ever been attempted in any other country. As an evidence of the universality of the system it may be mentioned, that out of 122,897 men of the standing army, in 1846, only two soldiers were found who could not both read and write. But the system aims at much higher results—with nothing short of developing every faculty both of mind and body, of converting creatures of impulse, prejudice, and passion, into thinking and reasoning beings, and of giving them objects of pursuit, and habits of conduct, favorable to their own happiness and that of the community in which they live. The result which may be reasonably anticipated from this system—when the entire adult population have been subjected to its operation, and when the influences of the home and street, of the business and the recreations of society, all unite with those of the school—have not as yet been realized in any section of the kingdom. Every where the lessons of the school-room are weakened, and in a measure destroyed, by degrading national customs, and the inevitable results of a government which represses liberty of thought, speech, occupation, and political action. But the school, if left as good and thorough as it now is, must inevitably change the government, or the government must change the school. And even if the school should be made less thorough than it now is, no governmental interference can turn back the intelligence which has already gone out among the people. It would be easier to return the rain to the clouds, from which it has parted, and which has already mingled with the waters of every rising spring, or reached the roots of every growing plant.

The following Table exhibits the state of the Public Schools of Prussia, according to the latest official returns published by the government.

STATE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN PRUSSIA IN 1946.

Name of the District.	No. of Schools.	Elementary Schools.				Schools of a higher description than Elementary.						Town Schools.				Normal Schools.				
		Teachers.		Scholars in Average Attendance.		Boys.			Girls.			Number of				No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.			
		Male.		Fe- male.	Boys.	Girls.	Number of		Number of		Schools.	Teachers.	Assistants.	Scholars.	Schools.			Assistants.	Scholars.	
		Fixed.	Asstnants.				Schools.	Teachers.	Assistants.	Scholars.						Schools.	Teachers.			Mistresses.
1. K nigr berg...	1,598	1,750	178	88	57,892	56,858	17	42	7	1,402	18	93	10	1,828	5	91	15	1,088	8	126
2. Gumbinnen...	1,083	1,131	41	5	40,198	39,044	18	46	..	2,040	19	36	8	1,965	2	15	2	508	1	48
3. Danzig	639	680	24	85	27,083	25,428	9	18	2	700	4	12	12	574	4	29	5	1,009	1	43
4. Marienwerder	1,044	1,097	15	7	40,210	38,003	5	18	2	895	5	17	6	519	4	16	6	884	1	65
5. Posen	1,194	1,860	31	659	67,382	66,124	7	17	..	674	7	17	8	984	5	27	5	572	3	187
6. Bromberg	691	747	23	14	29,325	27,623	6	12	..	357	6	8	8	444	1	1	..	29	2	48
7. Hurl Berlin..	108	237	272	134	14,096	12,720	12	27	61	1,797	45	271	138	5,157	9	68	59	2,950	1	33
8. Potsdam	1,547	1,810	44	66	66,224	63,515	37	124	4	6,809	84	80	37	8,598	1	9	1	882	1	95
9. Frankfurt	1,265	1,568	31	19	67,476	66,028	14	36	..	1,963	16	44	14	2,023	6	40	2	1,275	2	149
10. Sietlin	1,077	1,221	80	32	41,588	39,575	28	80	8	8,955	83	88	86	4,375	2	20	5	529	3	84
11. Coslin	1,023	1,015	70	9	30,855	29,554	14	59	4	2,855	15	80	9	2,579	1	7	..	184	1	51
12. Stralsund....	379	386	10	86	12,421	11,475	11	23	2	766	9	18	12	460	3	6	..	249	2	24
13. Breslau.....	1,495	1,551	343	54	89,585	89,376	22	54	19	8,595	7	19	26	2,937	1	11	12	570	1	107
14. Oppeln.....	939	1,078	816	4	79,871	79,686	7	17	2	294	4	17	8	845	1	6	2	225	1	118
15. Ingnitz	1,339	1,224	275	5	66,905	68,054	17	46	10	2,025	21	42	47	2,511	3	16	3	571	1	91
16. Magdeburg ..	1,068	1,371	36	51	55,332	55,249	40	87	6	8,847	19	61	55	8,194	4	29	8	801	3	121
17. Merseberg ..	1,258	1,410	52	11	61,807	60,236	18	86	82	6,844	21	95	29	6,811	1	8	18	299	2	108
18. Erfurt.....	519	627	14	27	29,756	28,758	4	21	2	1,139	6	36	9	1,549	2	18	3	423	8	122
19. Munsden	530	417	29	144	32,339	31,727	12	16	14	433	2	4	4	52	1	3	2	45	1	28
20. Minden	572	589	76	53	41,608	39,893	6	12	..	377	7	10	12	632	2	3	..	76	2	98
21. Arnberg	811	876	37	55	50,370	47,165	16	23	1	548	9	19	3	243	6	18	5	462	1	47
22. Cohn	581	504	222	93	41,561	37,966	2	3	4	52	7	9	31	628	3	13	4	404	1	101
23. Dusseldorf....	798	904	354	86	71,637	67,693	12	24	2	405	25	53	48	554	12	53	17	1,310	2	177
24. Coblenz.....	1,058	985	79	62	45,419	43,508	5	11	11	202	11	13	46	527	13	26	10	489	1	37
25. Trier	881	830	71	96	39,634	39,025	2	..	4	51	4	6	5	350	4	11	11	234
26. Aachen.....	533	551	101	60	34,229	31,702	1	1	..	11	6	8	19	568	4	18	7	561
Total.....	24,030	25,914	2,749	1,856	1,235,448	1,197,885	342	898	197	48,516	860	1,094	640	48,302	100	505	197	15,624	41	2,186

LEGAL PROVISION

RESPECTING THE

EDUCATION, IMPROVEMENT, AND SUPPORT OF TEACHERS IN PRUSSIA.

THE following are the provisions of the law of 1819 respecting Normal Schools and teachers. It is difficult to describe the well-qualified teacher in more appropriate language :

“In order that a master may be enabled to fulfill the duties of his station, he ought to be religious, wise, and alive to the high importance of his profession. He ought thoroughly to understand the duties of his station, to have acquired the art of teaching and managing youth, to be firm in his fidelity to the state, conscientious in the discharge of his duties, friendly and prudent in his relations with the parents of his children, and with his fellow-citizens in general ; finally, he ought to inspire all around him with a lively interest in the progress of the school, and to render them favorably inclined to second his own wishes and endeavors.”

In order to insure the education of such schoolmasters, the following regulations are laid down :

“Each department is required to have a number of young men well prepared for their duties, who may supply the yearly vacancies in the ranks of the schoolmasters of the department, and therefore each department shall be required to support a Normal School. These establishments shall be formed on the basis of the following regulations :

1. No Normal School for teachers in the primary schools shall admit more than seventy pupil teachers.

2. In every department where the numbers of Catholics and Protestants are about equal, there shall be, as often as circumstances will permit, a Normal School for the members of each sect. But where there is a very marked inequality in the numbers of the two sects, the masters of the least numerous sect shall be obtained from the Normal Schools belonging to that sect in a neighboring department, or by smaller establishments in the same department annexed to an elementary primary school. Normal Schools for simultaneous education of two sects shall be permitted when the pupil teachers can obtain close at hand suitable religious instruction, each in the doctrines of his own church.

3. The Normal Schools shall be established whenever it is possible in small towns, so as to preserve the pupil teachers from the dissipations, temptations, and habits of life which are not suitable to their future profession; without subjecting them to a monastic seclusion; but the town ought not to be too small, in order that they may profit by the vicinity of several elementary and superior primary schools.

6. No young man can be received into a Normal School who has not passed through a course of instruction in an elementary primary school; nor can any young man be received, of the excellence of whose moral character there is the least ground of suspicion. The age of admission into the Normal Schools shall be from sixteen to eighteen years.

7. As to the methods of instruction, directors of the Normal Schools shall rather seek to conduct the pupil teachers by their own experience to simple and clear principles, than to give them theories for their guidance; and with this end in view, primary schools shall be joined to all the

Normal Schools, where the pupil teachers may be practised in the art of teaching.

8. In each Normal School *the course of instruction shall last three years*, of which the first shall be devoted to the continuation of the course of instruction which the pupils commenced in the primary schools; the second to an instruction of a still higher character, and the third to practice in the primary school attached to the establishment. For those who are sufficiently advanced when they enter not to require the first year's instruction, the course may be reduced to one of two years.

10. In each Normal School particular funds, set apart for that purpose, shall be devoted to the support of young men of good character not able to pay for themselves, *but in such a manner as not to habituate them to too many comforts, and not to render them unfit for the worst paid situations in the primary schools.*

11. Every pupil who receives such assistance from a Normal School, is obliged at the end of his educational course to accept the place which the provincial consistories assign him; a prospect of advancement, however, must always be held out to him in case of perseverance and good conduct.

12. The provincial consistories have the immediate surveillance of all the Normal Schools in the different departments of their respective provinces; and the provincial ecclesiastical authorities have the especial surveillance of the religious instruction of their respective sects."

The following provisions, gathered from the law of 1819, and from the general regulations, have an important bearing on the social and pecuniary condition of the teacher.

No young man is allowed to conduct a primary school until he has obtained a certificate of his capacity to fulfill the important duties of a schoolmaster. The examinations of the candidates for these certificates is conducted by commissions, composed of two laymen and two clergymen, or two priests. The provincial consistories nominate the lay members, the ecclesiastical authorities of the respective provinces nominate the clerical members for the examination of the religious education of the Protestant candidates; and the Roman Catholic bishop nominates the two priests who examine the Roman Catholic candidates.

The members of these commissions are nominated for three years, and they can afterward be continued in their office if advisable.

The lay examiners and the clerical examiners join in granting the certificates, but the religious and secular examinations are conducted separately. The certificates are signed also by the director of the Normal School in which the young man has been educated, and describe his moral character and his intellectual capability.

These certificates are not valid until they have been ratified by the superior authorities, that is, by the provincial consistories; and in the case of the certificates granted to the Roman Catholics, the further ratification of the bishop is necessary. If the provincial consistories and the bishops can not agree about the granting of any certificate, the matter is referred to the minister of public instruction, who decides between them. The provincial authorities can re-examine the candidates, if they think there is any reason to doubt what is specified on the certificate granted by the committee of examination, and can declare them incapable, and can require the local authorities to proceed to another examination if they are not satisfied with the character of any of the candidates.

The young women who are candidates for the situations of school-mistresses are obliged to submit to the same kind of examination before they can obtain the certificate enabling them to take the charge of a girls' school.

The election and nomination of masters for the communal schools, is the duty of the local committees, on the presentation of the communal inspectors.

The masters can not be installed and begin to receive their salaries, until their certificates have been ratified by the provincial authorities.

“The provincial consistories are required to choose able and zealous clerical inspectors, and to engage them to form and direct great associations between the masters of the town and rural schools, for the purpose of fostering among them a feeling of interest in their profession, of furthering the further development of their education by regular reunions, by consultations, conversations, practical treatises, study of particular branches of instruction, and discussions on treatises read aloud in their public assemblies.”

These teachers' conferences are very useful. They not only promote a spirit of generous emulation among the schoolmasters, and so stimulate them to further exertions, but they encourage the masters, by reminding them that they form part of a great and honorable body. And nothing encourages man more than a feeling of association. Man alone is weak and timid; but let him only feel that his feelings and aims are those of a number who regard him as their fellow, and he then is a giant in his aims and efforts.

The provincial consistories have the power of sending the master of a primary school, who appears to be in need of further instruction, to a Normal School, for the time that may appear requisite to give him the necessary additional instruction; during his absence his place is supplied by a young man from the Normal School, who receives a temporary certificate.

The expenses of the conferences and of the masters who frequent for a second time the Normal Schools, are generally defrayed by the provincial educational authorities.

The schoolmasters are encouraged to continue their own education by hopes of preferment to better situations, or to superior schools; but before they can attain this preferment, they must pass a second examination, conducted by the same authorities who conducted the former.

If a schoolmaster is negligent or conducts himself improperly in his station, the inspector of the school first remonstrates with him, and if this fails to convince him, the inspector of the canton reproves him; and if he still prove refractory, they report him to the provincial authorities, who have the power of fining him, or of removing him from the school.

If he commits any flagrant crime, he is reported at once to the provincial authorities, who remove him immediately, after having carefully verified the accusations brought against him by the inspectors.

Every school in a village or town must have a garden suitable to the nature of the country and habits of the people, for a kitchen-garden, nursery-orchard, or the raising of bees. This is provided as an additional resource for the teacher, as well as an available means of instruction of the scholars.

Every school-house must not only embrace what we regard as essential features in such structures, such as size, location, ventilation, warmth, seats and desks, &c., but apparatus for illustrating every study, and “a sufficient collection of books for the use of the master,” as well as a residence for him.

Whenever a new fund, legacy, or donation, accrues to the schools of a province or commune, the same must be appropriated to the improvement of the school, or of the master's income, and not to the diminution of any tax or rate before collected.

The practice of “boarding round,” or the right of the teacher to a place at the table of every family in the commune or district in rotation

(called in German, *Wandeltisch*, movable table,) formerly prevailed in Prussia, but it was first arrested by an ordinance in 1811, directing that this "movable table" should not be reckoned in payment of the teacher's compensation, and should be given up at the option of the teacher. It is now abandoned in every commune which makes any pretension to civilization. It never included any thing beyond an "itinerating table." The teacher always had a fixed residence provided, and usually under the same roof with his school.

Scholars are encouraged to form among themselves a fund, by voluntary contributions, for the assistance of their necessitous schoolfellows. The fund is managed by themselves under the direction of their teacher. This is done to cultivate good feeling in the school, and save the teacher from a constant tax for articles for such pupils.

All school fees, all contributions or assessments in money, fuel, &c., must be collected by the regular school authorities, and not by the teacher. And no service can be required of the teacher in or about the school, and he can engage in no employment, which will lower his dignity, or weaken his influence.

All public teachers are regarded as public functionaries, and are exempt from liability to military service in time of peace, and from all local and capitation taxes, or if taxed, an equivalent is allowed in an increase of salary.

Whenever any division of land belonging to a parish, or town, is made, a sufficient quantity shall be allotted to the schoolmaster for a vegetable garden, and for the feed of a cow. Wherever the right of common exists, the teacher shall share in its benefits.

Schoolmasters who become temporarily infirm, are entitled to an allowance from the school moneys provided for the support of their schools. And when permanently disabled, are entitled to an annual allowance from the income of funds provided in each province for this purpose, and for the support of the widows and children of teachers, who entitle themselves to such provision for their families, by a small annual contribution from their salaries.

Teachers, who show themselves entitled to promotion to the direction of Normal Schools, are enabled to travel both in Prussia, and other countries, for the purpose of extending their knowledge of the organization, instruction and discipline of schools.

A valuable ordinance passed in 1826, and renewed in 1846, requires the director of a seminary to travel about, once a year, and visit a certain part of the schools within his circuit. He makes himself acquainted with the state of the school, listens to the instruction given, takes part himself in the same, and gives to the teacher such hints for improvement as his observation may suggest. The results of his yearly visits he presents, in the form of a report, to the school authorities of the province. This occasional visitation is very useful in clearing up the dark corners of the land, correcting abuses, and giving an impulse, from time to time, to teachers, who might otherwise sink into apathy and neglect. To render the efficacy of the seminaries more complete, it is provided that at the end of three years after leaving the seminary, the young teachers shall return to pass a second examination.

By an ordinance in 1826, it is provided: "To the end, that the beneficial influence of the seminary may extend itself to those teachers already established, who either require further instruction, or who in their own cultivation and skill in office do not advance, perhaps even recede; it is required that such teachers be recalled into the seminary for a shorter or longer time, as may be needful for them, in order, either to pass through a whole methodical course, or to practice themselves in particular departments of instruction."

CLASSIFICATION, LOCATION, AND NUMBER

OF

PUPILS OF TEACHERS' SEMINARIES IN PRUSSIA.

TEACHERS' SEMINARIES in Prussia are divided into Public and Private. Public Seminaries are divided into those intended for teachers of Real Schools, Gymnasias, and Universities, and those intended for Primary Schools. Primary School Seminaries are again divided into superior or chief seminaries, (*Haupt Seminaire*,) and secondary, or small seminaries, (*Neben Seminaire*.) By the former (*Haupt Seminaire*) was originally understood such seminaries as were completely organized according to the requirements of the laws. Afterward they were distinguished by the fact, that a special commission of examination was appointed for them, to which commission the director and head teacher belonged. But by recent regulation, a commission for this purpose is appointed to the small, and even the private, as well as to the superior seminaries. They differ now only by the number of pupils, and in a few instances, the smaller seminaries require a shorter residence, and train teachers exclusively for country schools. The seminaries are also divided into Boarding Schools, and Day Schools. The general practice is to provide board and lodging in the institution, as more favorable to the purposes of a seminary which is to educate the pupils, not only during ordinary school hours, and in methods of instruction, but at all times, and in every particular. Private seminaries are encouraged, because the annual graduates of the public institutions can not yet supply the annual vacancies in the schools created by death, withdrawal and dismissal.

In addition to the seminaries included in the following tables, there are five institutions for female teachers, viz., at Berlin, Kaiserswerth, Münster, Paderborn, and Marienwerder, which are recognized, and to some extent aided, by the government.

The whole number of public seminaries, and private seminaries aided by the government, not including seminaries for female teachers, in 1848, was 46. These were distributed among the different provinces, as follows:

Provinces.	Population.	No. of Teachers' Seminaries.	No. of Pupils.
Prussia,	2,499,400	8	447
Posen,	1,364,000	6	336
Brandenburg,	2,020,000	4	324
Pomerania,	1,666,000	6	177
Silesia,	2,065,800	4	585
Saxony,	1,742,500	9	346
Westphalia,	1,445,700	4	231
Rhineland,	2,763,000	5	267

TABLE II.—LOCATION AND NUMBER OF PUPILS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS, IN 1846.

Province.	Regency District.	Place where located.	No. of Pupil Teachers.	No. of Masters and Assistants.	For what Sect designed.	Date when founded.	No. of Free Places.	No. of Pupils assisted.	
Prussia,	Königsberg,	Königsberg,	28	4	P.	1809	30		
		Braunsberg,	53	5	C.	1810	20	10	
		Eylau,	70						
Posen,	Gumbinnen,	Angerberg,	38	3	P.	1829			
		Karalene,	70	0	P.	1811	25		
	Danzig, Marienwerder,	Marienburg,	53		C. & P.	1814		46	
		Graudenz,	96	6	C. & P.	1816		59	
	Potsdam,	Potsdam,	Posen, Paradies,	100	10	C.	1804	18	70
			78			1838			
Brandenburg,	Potsdam,	Bromberg,	30	4	P.	1819		30	
		Trzemessno,	15	2	P.	1829			
		Berlin, Potsdam,	34	3	P.	1830			
Pomerania,	Frankfort,	Berlin,	98	1	P.	1748			
		Potsdam,							
	Stettin,	Neuzelle,	120	10	P.	1817	10	88	
		Alt-Döbern,	104	8	P.		22	24	
Silesia,	Breslau,	Stettin,	50	4	P.	1735		50	
		Kammin, Pyritz,	18	2	C.	1840			
			15	2	P.	1827			
Silesia,	Stralsund,	Cöslin, Stralsund,	60	5	P.	1806		60	
			31						
Saxony,	Magdeburg,	Breslau,	195		C.	1765		58	
	Merseburg,	Oppeln, Liegnitz,	Ober-Glogau, Buntzlau,	150	10	C.	1815		
				135	8	P.	1816		
		Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Gardelegen,		65	5	P.	1790		24
Erfurt,	Erfurt,		49	4	P.	1778		12	
			27			1821			
		Eisleben, Weissenfels, Zeit,	20	3	C.	1836			
Erfurt,	Erfurt,		68	4	P.	1794		23	
			8						
Westphalia,	Münster,	Erfurt, Mühlhausen, Heiligenstadt,	103		C. & P.	1820			
			6						
			32						
Rhine,	Minden,	Langenhorst,	36	3	P.	1830			
		Petershagen, Büren,	34	3	P.	1831			
	Arnsberg, Cologne,		80	5	C.	1825			
		Soest, Brühl,	42	4	P.	1818		36	
			100	7	C.	1823		97	
Düsseldorf,	Düsseldorf,	Kempen, Meurs,	101	7	P.	1840		30	
			96	8	P.	1820			
		Neuwied, Trier, Aix-la-Chapelle,	36	4	P. C.	1816		30	

Prior to 1846 there were two seminaries at Breslau; in that year the Protestant seminary, with 130 pupils, was closed, and the pupils were provided for in two new institutions, one at Löwen, and the other at Heinau. The Small Seminary at Zeitz, was abolished in 1846, and those at Stettin, Pyritz and Kammin, were consolidated into a Chief Seminary at Stettin. The Seminary at Potsdam, is to be transferred (in 1849) to Köpnick, in the neighborhood of Berlin.

REGULATIONS

OF THE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF LASTADIE AND PYRITZ,

IN PRUSSIA.

THE following Regulations of two of the best small (nebeusen) Normal Schools are taken from M. Cousin's "*Report on the State of Public Instruction in some of the States of Germany, and especially of Prussia.*" The author introduces them with some remarks on this class of Normal Schools in Prussia. It is no longer true that all of the smaller seminaries are private establishments.

The small Normal Schools are almost all private establishments, but the government aids and watches over them, without subjecting them to the same publicity it requires of its great schools.

The small Normal Schools differ, generally, from the large, not only in the number of pupils, which is much smaller, but above all as being nurseries of village schoolmasters for the very poorest parishes. This is their proper object; this it is which gives them so peculiar a character, so profound a utility. The great schools, it is true, furnish masters for the country as well as for the towns; and their pupils,—those at least who receive the *stipendia*, or exhibitions,—are for many years at the disposal of the government, which sends them where it likes; a right which, from the well-known rigor of the Prussian government in making all public servants work, we may be sure it exercises. But in every country there are parishes so poor, that one would hesitate to send a schoolmaster of any eminence to live in them; and yet it is precisely these miserable villages which stand in the greatest need of instruction to improve their condition. This need, then, the small Normal Schools are destined to supply. They labor for these poor and backward villages. To this their whole organization, their studies, their discipline, are to be directed. Unquestionably, the great Normal Schools of Prussia are entitled to the highest respect; but never can there be veneration enough for these humble laborers in the field of public instruction, who, as I have said, seek obscurity rather than fame; who devote themselves to the service of poverty with as much zeal as others to the pursuit of riches, since they toil for the poor alone; and who impose restraints on every personal desire and feeling, while others are excited by all the stimulants of competition. They cost scarcely any thing, and they do infinite good. Nothing is easier to establish,—but on one condition, that we find directors and pupils capable of the most disinterested, and, what is more, the most obscure devotion to the cause. Such devotion, however, can be inspired and kept alive by religion alone. Those who can consent to live for the service of men who neither know nor can appreciate them, must keep their eyes steadfastly fixed on Heaven: that witness is necessary to those who have no other. And, accordingly, we find that the authors and directors of these small schools are almost all ministers of religion, inspired by the spirit of Christian love, or men of singular virtue, fervent in the cause of popular education. In these humble institutions, every thing breathes Christian charity, ardor for the good of the people, and poverty. I shall lay before you a description of two;—one hidden in a suburb of Stettin, and the other in the village of Pyritz in Pomerania.

Stettin has a large Normal School, instituted for the training of masters

for the burgher schools. An excellent man, Mr. Bernhardt, school-councilor (*Schulrath*) in the council of the department, was the more powerfully struck by the necessity of providing for the wants of the country schools. He founded a small Normal School for this sole purpose, and placed it not in the town, but in a suburb called Lastadie; he laid down regulations for its government, which I annex nearly entire.

Small Primary Normal School of Lastadie, near Stettin.

1. This school is specially designed for poor young men who intend to become country schoolmasters, and who may, in case of need, gain a part of their subsistence by the labor of their hands.

2. Nothing is taught here but those things necessary for small and poor country parishes, which require schoolmasters who are Christians and useful men, and can afford them but a very slender recompense for their toils.

3. This school is intended to be a *Christian school*, founded in the spirit of the gospel. It aspires only to resemble a village household of the simplest kind, and to unite all its members into one family. To this end, all the pupils inhabit the same house, and eat at the same table with the masters.

4. The young men who will be admitted in preference, are such as are born and bred in the country; who know the elements of what ought to be taught in a good country school; who have a sound, straightforward understanding, and a kindly, cheerful temper. If, withal, they know any handcraft, or understand gardening, they will find opportunities for practice and improvement in it in odd hours.

5. The school of Lastadie neither can nor will enter into any competition with the great Normal Schools completely organized; on the contrary, it will strive always to keep itself within the narrow limits assigned to it.

6. The utmost simplicity ought to prevail in all the habits of the school, and, if possible, manual labor should be combined with those studies which are the main object, and which ought to occupy the greater portion of the time.

7. The course of instruction is designed to teach young people to reflect, and by exercising them in reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, to put it in their power to instruct themselves, and to form their own minds. For the humblest peasant ought to be taught to think; but to enlighten him, to make him a rational and intelligent being, does not mean to make him learned. "God willeth that all men be enlightened, and that they come to the knowledge of the truth."

8. The instruction ought to have a direct connection with the vocation of the students, and to include only the most essential part of the instruction given in the great Normal Schools.

9. The objects of instruction are—religion, the German language, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing. To these are joined the first elements of geometry, easy lessons in natural history, narratives drawn from national history (particularly that of Pomerania), and geographical descriptions. The principal object, and the foundation of all education, is religion, as learned from history and the Bible. The principal books are the Bible, the psalter, and the catechism. The school of Lastadie will also strive to excite and cherish in its pupils a love of nature, and to that end will cultivate a taste for gardening and planting.

10. In treating of all these subjects, the pupils must be trained to speak in pure and accurate language; for after the knowledge of religion and of nature, there is nothing of which the children of peasants stand so much in need, as to learn to express what they know with simplicity, truth, and accuracy.

11. The students know enough, when they speak, read, and write well; when they can produce a good composition in the German tongue; when they can calculate with facility and with reflection, and when they sing well; they know enough when they are thoroughly versed in the Bible, when they possess the most essential notions of the system of that universe which they have constantly before their eyes, of that nature in the midst of which they live: they have attained much, when they are Christian, rational, and virtuous men.

12. The period of study is fixed at two years. The first year the pupils learn what they are hereafter to teach to others; besides which, they assist at the lessons the masters give to the children of the school annexed to this small Normal

School. In the second year the future teacher appears more distinctly, and from that time every thing is more and more applied to practice. They continue the whole year to practice teaching, and at the end they receive a set of rules, short and easy to understand, for the management of a school of poor country children.

13. To the school of Lastadie is joined a school of poor children, in which the young men have an opportunity of going over what they have learned, by teaching it to others, and of exercising themselves in tuition according to a fixed plan. This school consists of a single class, in order that the students may see how a good school for poor children should be composed and conducted, and how all the children may be kept employed at once.

14. The number of pupils is fixed at twelve. The pecuniary assistance they receive will depend on circumstances. The instruction is gratuitous. Six pupils inhabit each room. The master lives on the same floor. They take their simple but wholesome meals together. Servants are not wanted. The pupils do the work of the house.

15. The daily lessons begin and end with prayers and psalmody. It rests with the master to fix the hours of devotion (founded chiefly on the Bible and the book of Psalms), as well as their number. So long as the true spirit of Christianity—faith quickened by charity—shall pervade the establishment, and fill the hearts of masters and of pupils, the school will be Christian, and will form Christian teachers; and this spirit of faith and of charity will be productive of blessings to the poor and to the mass of the nation.

16. It will not, therefore, be necessary to lay down minute regulations; but practical moral training must be combined as much as possible with instruction. "The letter killeth, the spirit quickeneth." But what will it not require to imbue the whole establishment with the true spirit of Christianity, so that masters and pupils may devote themselves with their whole hearts, and for the love of God, to the children of the poor?

17. Whoever wishes to be admitted into this establishment must not be under eighteen nor above twenty years of age. He must bring the certificates of his pastor, of the authorities of his parish, and of the physician of the circle, as to his previous conduct and the state of his health. He must, moreover, have such preliminary knowledge as is to be acquired in a well-conducted country school, on Biblical history, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing. Those who join to these acquirements the principles of piano-forte or violin playing, will be preferred. The candidates for admission give notice to the director, and are examined by the members of the departmental authorities who have the care of the people's schools.

18. There is no public examination. The examination on quitting is likewise conducted by the school-councilors of the department, and the certificates of capacity are founded on this examination, according to the gradations 1, 2, 3, and are delivered by the departmental authorities.

19. As to the placing of the pupils, it is desirable that they should work some years as assistant masters, in order that they may gradually acquire the necessary experience and confidence, and may become well acquainted with children, and with the inhabitants of villages. Under this supposition, the age of admission might be conveniently fixed at sixteen; and this arrangement would be a great relief to aged schoolmasters who are become burdensome to themselves and to their parishes.

20. Particular attention is paid to singing and to horticulture; as means of ennobling and animating the public worship of God, and the general course of a country life; of providing the pupils with an agreeable recreation, and, at the same time, a useful occupation; and, further, of combating the grossness of mind and the obstinate prejudices to which uneducated husbandmen are prone.

21. All the students attend divine service in the church of Lastadie on Sundays.

22. The vacations must not exceed four weeks for the whole year: they are, at Easter, in the autumn, and at Christmas.

23. The establishment has no other revenues than what it owes to the bounty of the minister of public instruction. These funds are employed,—

1. In maintaining the poorest students.

2. In indemnifying the assistant masters of singing and gardening.

3. In paying for the school tuition.
4. In paying the expenses of lodging the students.
5. In lighting and warming the school-room and the two lodging-rooms.
6. In extraordinary expenses.

The expense of the meals taken at noon and evening, in common, is also chiefly defrayed from these grants; the students, however, contribute a little from their own means.

The school of Lastadie pays the head master from its own resources.

May this establishment (concludes Mr. Bernhardt), which owes its existence to such fervent charity, not be deprived of that blessing, without which it can do nothing!

Assuredly there is not a virtuous heart which does not unite its prayers with those of the worthy and benevolent councilor.

The second small Normal School of this description was founded in 1824, in honor of Otto, bishop of Bamberg, who introduced Christianity into Pomerania, having baptized 4000 Pomeranians in 1124, near the fountain of Pyritz. When the minister of public instruction granted the license for its establishment, he made it a condition that the students should be instructed in agriculture, not merely as a recreation, but as essential to their destination; that they should be bound to study gardening, the cultivation of fruit-trees, and of silk-worms. The special superintendence of this house is intrusted to the pastor of the place. The regulations are as follows:—they resemble those of Lastadie in many respects, but go into great detail, and are perhaps still more austere as to discipline.

Rules of the small Normal School of Pyritz, in Pomerania.

I.

1. The purpose of this endowment is to give to every pupil the training and instruction suitable for a good and useful country schoolmaster: this, however, can only be done by the union of Christian piety with a fundamental knowledge of his vocation, and with good conduct in the household and in the school.

2. Piety is known—

By purity of manners;

By sincerity in word and deed;

By love of God and of his word;

By love of our neighbor;

By willing obedience to superiors and masters;

By brotherly harmony among the pupils;

By active participation in the pious exercises of the house, and of public worship;

By respect for the king, our sovereign, by unshaken fidelity to our country, by uprightness of heart and of conduct.

3. A thorough knowledge of the duties of a teacher are acquired—

By long study of the principles and elements;

By learning what is necessary and really useful in that vocation;

By habits of reflection and of voluntary labor;

By constant application to lessons;

By incessant repetition and practice;

By regular industry and well-ordered activity; according to this commandment, "Pray and work."

4. Good conduct in the house and the school requires—

A good distribution and employment of time;

Inflexible order, even in what appears petty and insignificant;

Silence in hours of study and work;

Quietness in the general demeanor;

Care and punctuality in the completion of all works commanded;

Decent manners toward every person and in every place: decorum at meals;

Respect for the property of the school, and for all property of others;

The utmost caution with regard to fire and light;

Cleanliness of person and of clothing ;

Simplicity in dress, and in the manner of living ; according to the golden rule, "Every thing in its time and place. Let things have their course. Provide things honest in the sight of all men."—Rom. xii. 16, 17.*

II.

1. All the pupils inhabit one house and one room ; for they must live in union, and form one family of brothers, loving one another.

2. The whole order of the house rests on the master of the school ; he lives in the midst of the pupils ; he has the immediate superintendence of them, of their conduct, and of their labors. He ought to be to those under his care what a father of a Christian family is in his household.

He is responsible for the accounts of the establishment, the registers, the result of the quarterly examinations, and for the formation of the necessary lists. He has the special care of the provisions, the rooms, the library, the furniture. He is responsible to the school-administration for good order in every department.

3. The oldest and most intelligent of the students assists the master. He is called the master's assistant. He must take care—

That every one in the room under his care rises and goes to bed at the appointed moment ;

That nobody, without the master's permission, leave the house, smoke, or carry candles into the passages or the loft ;

That no one wantonly injure the windows, doors, or furniture, or throw any thing out of the windows ;

That the utmost cleanliness be observed in the sitting-room, the passage, and the sleeping-room ;

That all clothes, linen, books, &c., be in their places ;

That no noise be made in going up and down stairs, or in going to the children's school.

It is his especial business to help his companions in the preparation of their lessons, to hear them repeat, to prepare the exercises for the master, and to assist him as far as he can in all his business. He ought to be to his fellow-students what a good elder brother is to his younger brothers and sisters. He is chosen, on the master's recommendation, by the school-committee.

4. The humbler sort of household work, such as cleaning and putting in order the rooms, dusting the furniture, fetching water, cleaving wood, &c., is done by the pupils, who serve a week in rotation. The time of service is prolonged by order of the master, in case of negligence.

5. The order of the day is as follows :—

In winter at five, in summer at half past four in the morning, at a given signal, all the pupils must rise, make their beds, and dress.

Half an hour after rising, that is, at half past five in winter, and five in summer, all the pupils must be assembled in the school-room. The assistant first pronounces the morning benediction, and each pupil then occupies himself in silence till six. If any repetitions stand over from the preceding day, they must be heard now. After this, breakfast.

In winter, as well as in summer, the lessons begin at six o'clock, and last till a quarter before eight. Then the students go with their master to the children's school, attached to the Normal School, where they remain till ten, either listening, or assisting in teaching some small classes ; or they may be employed in their own studies at home.

To these employments succeeds an hour of recreation, and then an hour's lesson in the establishment.

At noon, the students assemble in the master's room, where they find a frugal but wholesome meal, consisting of vegetables, meat, and fish, at the rate of two thalers (six shillings) a month.

The time which remains, till one o'clock, may be passed in music, gardening, and walking.

* I do not happen to have the French version of the Bible. The texts as quoted by M. Cousin do not agree with those in our version. Ver. 11, is rendered by Luther, *Schicket euch in die Zeit*. Adapt yourselves to the time ; which is not given in our version. The next clause above, I find neither in his version nor in ours.

In the afternoon, from one till three, while the master is teaching in the town school, the pupils accompany him, as in the morning. From three till five, lessons.

The succeeding hours, from five till seven, are, according to the seasons, employed in bodily exercises, or in the school-room in quiet occupations. At seven they assemble at a simple cold supper.

From seven to eight they practice singing and the violin; then repetitions or silent study till ten, when all go to bed.

Two afternoons of each week are free, and are usually spent in long walks. The time from four to six, or from five to seven, is devoted to the practice of music.

On Sundays or holidays all the pupils must attend divine service in the church of the town, and assist in the choir. The remainder of these days may be passed by every one as he pleases: in the course of the morning, however, the students must write down the heads of the sermon (the text, the main subject, the distribution), and in the evening must give an account of the manner in which they have spent the day.

Every evening, as well as on the mornings of Sundays and holidays, a portion of time is spent in meditation in common.

A few Sundays after the setting in of winter, and after the festival of St. John (May 6th), the students partake of the Lord's Supper, in company with their masters.

Every student, from the time of his admission, must solemnly engage (in token of which he gives his hand to the master and signs his name) to follow the rules of the house, which may be summed up in these three principal maxims:—

1. Order in behavior and in work, combined with the utmost simplicity in all things; to the end that the students who belong to the poorer classes, and whose destiny it is to be teachers of the poor, may willingly continue in that condition, and may not learn to know wants and wishes which they will not, and ought not to have the power of satisfying. For this reason, they must be their own servants.

2. As to the course of instruction, the repetitions must always be heard by the forwardest pupils. The pupils must be made, as much as possible, to teach each other what they have learned of the master, in order that they may perfect themselves in the art of teaching.

3. Piety and the fear of God should be the soul of their little community, but a true Christian piety, a fear of God according to knowledge and light, so that the pupils may do all to the glory of God, and may lead a simple, humble, and serene life, resigned and contented in labor and travail, according to the exhortation of the Apostle:

“Fulfill ye my joy, that ye be like-minded, having the same love, being of one accord, of one mind. Let nothing be done through strife or vain-glory; but in lowliness of mind let each esteem other better than themselves.”—*Philip.* ii. 2, 3.

“And as many as walk according to this rule, peace be on them, and mercy!”—*Galat.* vi. 16.

I abstain from all comment on these two sets of regulations, which seem to have been dictated by the spirit of St. Vincent de Paule. The greater number of the small Normal Schools of Prussia are founded and governed in the same spirit. All rest on the sacred basis of Christianity. But beneath their simple lowly exterior we trace a taste for instruction, a feeling for nature, a love of music, which take away every vestige of coarseness, and give these modest institutions a character of liberality. Undoubtedly all this is the offspring of the national manners, and of the genius of Germany; yet Christian charity might transplant a good deal of it into our France; and I should esteem myself happy, if the regulations of the little schools of Lastadie and of Pyritz were to fall into the hands of some worthy ecclesiastic, some good curate or village pastor, who would undertake such an apostolic mission as this.

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL

AT POTSDAM.

THE following account of one of the best primary Normal Schools of Prussia is abridged from the report of M. Stintz, the director of the establishment.

1. DIRECTION AND INSPECTION.

The Normal School and its annexed school are placed under a director or principal, subordinate to the royal school board of the province of Brandenburg, at Berlin, and to the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs.

The last named authority lays down the principles to be followed in this school, as in all other public schools; exacts an account of all important matters, such as the examination of the masters, and any change in the fundamental plan of the studies; and receives every year, through the medium of the royal school board, a detailed report, prepared by the director of the school.

The school board is charged with the special inspection of the Normal School: it must watch its progress, and from time to time send commissioners to make inquiries on the spot. It examines also and approves the plan of studies presented every half year, and decides on all questions submitted to the consistory.

The director should superintend the whole establishment, observe and direct the master and servants, make reports to the superior authorities, carry on the correspondence, &c.

2. BUILDING.

The Normal School, situated near the canal and the Berlin gate, is a large edifice two stories high, with a frontage of 127 feet, and considerable back buildings, which, joined to the main building, form a square within which is a tolerably spacious court. The whole comprehends:

1. A family residence for the director or principal, and another for a master;
2. Three apartments for three unmarried masters
3. An apartment for the steward and his servants, and sufficient convenience for household business and stowage;
4. A dining-room for the pupils, which serves also for the writing and drawing class;
5. An organ-room; in which the music lessons are given, the examinations take place, and the morning and evening prayers are said;
6. Two rooms for the scientific instruction of the pupils;
7. Four rooms for the classes of the annexed school;
8. Five rooms of different sizes, and two dormitories for the pupils;
9. Two infirmaries;
10. A wash-house;
11. Two cabinets of natural history;
13. Granaries, cellars, wood-houses, &c.

3. REVENUES.

The annual income of this establishment amounts to \$6000, which is

derived from the state fund and the tuition of the pupils, both of the Normal School, and the annexed primary model school.

4. INVENTORY.

The establishment contains the following articles :

1. Things required in the economy of the house, kitchen utensils, tables, forms, &c. ;
2. Sufficient and suitable furniture, consisting of chests of drawers, tables, forms, chairs and boxes, for the class of the Normal School, and the school for practice, and for the masters' rooms, &c. There is also, for the poorer pupils, a certain number of bedsteads with bedding ;
3. A considerable library for the masters and pupils, as well as a good collection of maps and globes for the teaching of geography ;
4. A tolerably complete collection of philosophical instruments ;
5. A collection of minerals, presented to the establishment by Councilor Von Turck ;
6. A collection of stuffed birds, and other objects in natural history ;
7. The instruments most required in mathematical instruction ;
8. Complete drawing apparatus ;
9. A very considerable collection of music ;
10. A very good organ, a piano forte, seven harpsichords, and many wind and string instruments.

5. DOMESTIC ECONOMY AND MAINTENANCE OF THE PUPILS.

To support about eighty pupils, and to preserve cleanliness in the house, a steward has been appointed, whose duties are specified in a contract renewable every year.

The food of the pupils is good and wholesome, which is proved by the state of their health. Some parents think it needful to send their children eatables, or money to purchase them. They are wrong, for the children have no such want ; on the contrary, so far from being advantageous, these presents only serve to take away their appetite at meals, and to make them dainty and gluttonous. The orphans, and those whose parents are too poor to send them any thing, are exactly those who are the strongest and healthiest.

The director is almost always present at meals, to be sure of the goodness of the food, and to prevent any irregularity in the serving up.

Sick pupils are sent to the infirmary, and are attended by the physician or surgeon of the establishment.

6. MASTERS.

There are six masters attached to this establishment in which they live, besides the director, who instructs in religion, in the principles of education, of training, of the art of teaching, and of the methods of study.

7. NUMBER OF PUPILS.

The number of pupils is fixed by the regulation at from seventy to eighty, and is now seventy-eight, of whom seventy-two live in the establishment ; the other six have obtained a license to remain with their parents in order to lessen the expense of their maintenance.

This number is determined not only by the building, but also by the wants of the province. Brandenburg contains about 1500 masterships of primary schools, in town and country. Supposing that out of a hundred places, two become vacant every year, there will be at least thirty masters required for this province ; but these places for the most part pay so badly, that they are compelled to be content with but moderately qualified masters, who, perhaps, have not been educated at a Normal School, and who sometimes follow some trade or handicraft. If, then, the Normal School contains seventy-eight pupils who form three classes, one of which

quits annually, it will furnish each year twenty-six candidates, which about meets the wants of the country.

8. WHAT IS REQUIRED OF APPLICANTS FOR ADMISSION.

Once a year, at Michaelmas, twenty-six pupils are admitted. Of these are required—

1. Good health and freedom from all bodily infirmity. (Obstacles to admission would be, exceeding smallness of stature, short-sightedness, or a delicate chest;)
2. The age of seventeen complete;
3. The evangelical religion;
4. A moral and religious spirit, and a conduct hitherto blameless;
5. A good disposition and talents, among which are a good voice and a musical ear;
6. To be prepared for the studies of the Normal School by the culture of the heart and mind; to have received a good religious education (which shall include a knowledge of the Bible and biblical history;) to be able to read; to know the grammar of the German language, of composition, arithmetic, the principles of singing, the piano forte and violin.

A written request for admission must be sent to the director, by June at the latest, accompanied with—

1. A certificate of birth and baptism;
2. A school certificate, and one of good conduct;
3. A police certificate, stating the condition of the young man or his father, or else a written declaration from the father or guardian, stating the time within which he can and will pay the annual sum fixed by law; *i. e.* 48 thaler (6*l.* 16*s.*)

The director enters the petitioners on a list, and in the month of June or July invites them, by letter, to present themselves at the examination which takes place in July or August.

The examination is conducted partly in writing, and partly *viva voce*.

As a means of ascertaining the acquirements of the candidates, and of judging of their memory, their style, and their moral dispositions, an anecdote or parable is related in a clear and detailed manner, summing up and repeating the principal points, after which they produce it in writing, with observations and reflections.

The oral examination usually includes only religion, reading, grammar, logical exercises, and arithmetic.

They are also examined in singing, the piano forte and the violin.

After the examination, the talents and merits of the respective candidates are conscientiously weighed and compared, in a conference of the masters. The choice being made, it is submitted to the sanction of the royal school board, with a detailed report of the result of the examination.

At the end of some weeks the candidates are informed of the decision; their admission is announced, or the reasons which prevent it stated; with either advice to give up their project entirely, or suggestions relative to their further preparation.

The admitted candidate is bound to bring, besides his clothes and books, among which must be the Bible and the prayer-book used in the establishment, half a dozen shirts, six pair of stockings, a knife and fork, and, generally, a bedstead with all requisite bedding.

He is also bound to sign, on his entrance, the following engagement to the director, with the consent of his father or guardian.

COPY OF THE ENGAGEMENT WITH THE DIRECTOR TO BE SIGNED BY THE PUPIL ON HIS ENTRANCE.

“I, the undersigned, N—— of N——, by these presents, bind myself, conformably with the ordinance of the royal minister of public in-

struction, and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, dated February 28th, 1825, with the consent of my father (or guardian) who signs this with me, to place myself during three years after my leaving the Normal School, at the disposal of the king's government; and consequently not to subscribe anything contrary to this engagement; or, in such case, to refund to the Normal School the expenses incurred by the state for my instruction, namely :

'1. Ten thaler for each half year passed in the Normal School, and for the instruction received in this period of time ;

'2. The whole amount of the grants and exhibitions I may have received ;

Potsdam, the &c."

The applicant rejected, but not advised to choose another course, is summoned to a fresh examination the following year.

The number of applicants having been for some time past very great, the author of this report thinks it his duty to warn parents, (especially schoolmasters,) whose children do not evince talent and have not a decided taste for teaching, not to suffer them to lose the precious time which they might employ with much more success in some other career.

This respects chiefly the poor youths who can have no claim to the exhibitions, unless they give proofs of an extraordinary capacity, from which the state and society may derive a real advantage.

The Normal School is by no means designed for those who are unfit for any business, and think, if they can read and write, they are capable of becoming schoolmasters. This notion is so deeply rooted, that you hear fathers declare with all the simplicity in the world—"My son is too delicate to learn a business," or "I don't know what to make of my son, but I think of getting him into the Normal School." We reply to such, that the pupils of the Normal School must, on the contrary, be sound both in body and mind, and able to brave the toils and troubles of a career as laborious as it is honorable.

Much neglect unfortunately still exists on a subject which is of the highest importance,—the methodical preparation of these young men for the calling it is desired they should embrace.

A false direction is often given to their preliminary studies. A young man is believed to be well prepared for the Normal School, if he have passed the limits of elementary instruction, and if he have acquired a greater mass of knowledge than other pupils. It frequently happens, however, that candidates who come strongly recommended from school, pass the examination without credit, or are even rejected.

The most immediate and the most important aim of all instruction, is to train up and complete the Man; to ennoble his heart and character; to awaken the energies of his soul, and to render him not only disposed, but able, to fulfil his duties. In this view alone can knowledge and talents profit a man; otherwise, instruction, working upon sterile memory and talents purely mechanical, can be of no high utility. In order that the teacher, and particularly the master of the primary school, may make his pupils virtuous and enlightened men, it is necessary he should be so himself. Thus, that the education of a Normal School, essentially practical, may completely succeed, the young candidate must possess nobleness and purity of character in the highest possible degree, the love of the true and the beautiful, an active and penetrating mind, the utmost precision and clearness in narration and style.

Such above all things are the qualities we require of young men. If they have reached this state of moral and intellectual advancement by the study of history, geography, mathematics, &c., and if they have acquired additional knowledge on these various branches, we can not but give them applause; but, we frankly repeat, we dispense with all these

acquirements, provided they possess that *formal instruction* of which we have just spoken, since it is very easy for them to obtain in the Normal School that *material instruction* in which they are deficient.

It is nevertheless necessary to have some preliminary notions, seeing that the courses at the Normal School are often a continuation of foregone studies, and that certain branches could not be there treated in their whole extent, if they were wholly unknown to the young men when they entered. We have already mentioned the branches they should be most particularly prepared in; but this subject being of the greatest interest, we shall conclude this chapter with some suggestions on the plan to be followed.

I. *Religion.* To awaken and fortify the religious spirit and the moral sentiments. For this purpose the histories and parables of the Bible are very useful. Frequent reading and accurate explanation of the Bible are necessary. The pupils should be able to explain the articles of faith, and the most important duties, as laid down in the catechism. Many sentences, whole chapters and parables from the Holy Scriptures, hymns and verses, should be known by heart; they should be able to give answers on the most interesting points of the history of the church and the Reformation.

II. As to *general history*, there is no need of its being circumstantially or profoundly known; but the young men should be able to refer with exactness to those historical facts which may be profitably used to form the heart, to exercise and rectify the judgment, to infuse a taste for all that is grand and noble, true and beautiful.

III. *Geometry* (the study of forms) combined with *elementary drawing*, the one as a basis for instruction in writing and drawing, and as a preparation for the mathematics; the other to exercise the hand, the eye and the taste.

IV. *Writing.* The copies by Henrich and Henning only ought to be used, which, after long practice, give and preserve a beautiful hand, even when writing fast and much.

V. *Logical Exercises.* These ought to tend to produce in young minds clearness and accuracy of ideas, justness of judgment, and, by consequence, precision and facility in oral and written explanations.

VI. *Reading.* When once the pupil can read fluently, he must be taught to give emphasis to his reading, and to feel what he reads. He should be habituated to recite, and even gradually to analyze the phrases and periods he has just read, to change the order, and express the same idea in different words,—to put, for example, poetry into prose, &c. Thus these exercises serve at the same time to teach him to think, and to speak. We advise also that he be made to declaim pieces he has learnt by heart.

VII. *German language and composition.* Language should be regarded and treated on the one hand as a means of *formal instruction*,—as practical logic; and on the other as an indispensable object of *material instruction*.

VIII. *Arithmetic.* This does not include either methods of abstruse calculation or practical arithmetic. Nothing more is required of the pupil than to use figures without difficulty, and to calculate in his head.

IX. *Singing, piano forte, violin.* The formation of the voice and ear. Skill and firmness in producing sounds. Exercises in elementary singing. Psalmody.

For the piano forte and violin, as much dexterity as can be expected, and a good fingering for the former instrument.

If these suggestions have the effect of inducing a conscientious master to train even a few young candidates, they will have attained their object.

The enumeration of a great number of works from which assistance may be derived, at least facilitates the choice.

9. OUTWARD CONDITION OF THE PUPILS; AND THE NATURE OF THEIR CONNECTION WITH THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

If the young men have no relations at Potsdam who can answer for their good conduct and application, they are all, without exception, bound to live in the Normal School, and to take their food there, paying to the director the sum of twelve thaler (1*l.* 16*s.*) per quarter.

Each pupil costs the establishment 100 thaler a year. In paying, therefore, the yearly sum of forty-eight thaler, required by law, he delays only half his expenses. A bursar is entitled to lodging, firing, board, candles, and instruction. A half bursar pays only twenty-four thaler a year. He has then only to buy his clothes, to pay for his washing, his books, paper, pens, ink, and whatever is wanted for music and drawing.

With respect to lodging, they are distributed into five large rooms, with stoves, appropriated to the pupils; and they live and work, to the number of eight, twelve, or sixteen, in one of these rooms, which is furnished with tables, chairs, drawers, book-cases, bureaus, and piano fortes. Their beds and chests are put in two dormitories. Each sitting-room, each bed-room, has its inspector, chosen from among the pupils, who is responsible for its order. It is the duty of one of the pupils belonging to the chamber to arrange and dust the furniture every day. Neglect in the fulfilment of his office is punished by the continuance of it.

So long as the pupils remain at the Normal School, and behave with propriety, they are exempt from military service.

All the pupils are bound to pursue the course of the Normal School for three years; their acquirements and instruction would be incomplete if they did not conform to this regulation.

10. EDUCATION OF THE PUPILS BY MEANS OF DISCIPLINE AND OF INSTRUCTION:

In the education of the masters of primary schools the wants of the people must be consulted.

A religious and moral education is the first want of a people. Without this, every other education is not only without real utility, but in some respects dangerous. If, on the contrary, religious education has taken firm root, intellectual education will have complete success, and ought on no account to be withheld from the people, since God has endowed them with all the faculties for acquiring it, and since the cultivation of all the powers of man, secures to him the means of reaching perfection, and, through that, supreme happiness.

To sustain and confirm the religious and moral spirit of our pupils, we adopt various means. We take particular care that they go to church every Sunday: they are not compelled to attend exclusively the parish church of the Normal School; but on the Monday they are required to name the church they went to, and to give an account of the sermon. Every Sunday, at six o'clock in the morning, one of the oldest pupils reads, in turn, a sermon, in the presence of all the pupils and one master. At the beginning and end they sing a verse of a psalm, accompanied on the organ. A prayer, about ten or fifteen minutes long, is offered up every morning and night, by one of the masters. They begin with singing one or two verses; then follows a religious address, or the reading of a chapter from the Bible, and, in conclusion, another verse.

To obtain a moral influence over the pupils, we consider their individual position, their wants, and their conduct. Much aid in this respect is derived from the weekly conferences of the masters, and particularly from the quarterly report (*Censur*) of the pupils, or judgment on the applica-

tion, progress, and conduct of each. This is written in a particular book, called the report-book (*Censurbuch*), and forms the basis of the certificates delivered to the pupils on their leaving the establishment; as well as of private advice given at the time.

The means of correction adopted, are, warnings, exhortations, reprimands; at first privately, then at the conference of the masters; lastly, before all the pupils. If these means do not suffice, recourse is had to confinement, to withdrawing the *stipendia* or exhibitions, and in the last resort, to expulsion. But we endeavor, as much as possible, to prevent these punishments, by keeping up a friendly intercourse with the pupils, by distinguishing the meritorious, by striving to arouse a noble emulation, and to stir up in their hearts the desire of gaining esteem and respect by irreproachable conduct.

It is on the interest given to the lessons that especially depends the application of study out of class. Certain hours of the day are consecrated to private study, and each master by turns takes upon himself to see that quiet is maintained in the rooms, and that all are properly occupied.

At the end of each month, the last lesson, whatever the branch of instruction, is a recapitulation, in the form of an examination, on the subjects treated of in the course of the month.

As to the branches of knowledge taught, and the course of study, the following is the fundamental plan:

In the first year *formal instruction* predominates: in the second, *material instruction*; in the third, *practical instruction*.* The pupils having then about ten lessons a week to give in the annexed-school, (lessons for which they must be well prepared,) follow fewer courses in the school.

Our principal aim, in each kind of instruction, is to induce the young men to think and judge for themselves. We are opposed to all mechanical study and servile transcripts. The masters of our primary schools must possess intelligence themselves, in order to be able to awaken it in their pupils; otherwise, the state would doubtless prefer the less expensive schools of Bell and Lancaster.

We always begin with the elements, because we are compelled to admit, at least at present, pupils whose studies have been neglected; and because we wish to organize the instruction in every branch, so as to afford the pupils a model and guide in the lessons which they will one day be called upon to give.

With respect to *material instruction*, we regard much more the solidity, than the extent, of the acquirements. This not only accords with the intentions of the higher authorities, but reason itself declares that solidity of knowledge alone can enable a master to teach with efficacy, and carry forward his own studies with success. Thus, young men of delicate health are sometimes exempted from certain branches of study, such as the mathematics, thorough bass, and natural philosophy.

Gardening is taught in a piece of ground before the Nauen gate; and swimming, in the swimming-school established before the Berlin gate, during the proper season, from seven to nine in the evening.

Practical instruction we consider of the greatest importance.

All the studies and all the knowledge of our pupils would be fruitless, and the Normal School would not fulfil the design of its institution, if the young teachers were to quit the establishment without having already methodically applied what they had learned, and without knowing by experience what they have to do, and how to set about it.

* *Formal instruction* consists of studies calculated to open the mind, and to inculcate on the pupils good methods in every branch, and the feeling of what is the true vocation of a primary teacher. *Material instruction*, or more positive instruction, occupies the second year, in which the pupils go through the special studies of every solid kind, much of which they may never be called upon to teach. *Practical instruction*, or instruction in the art of teaching, occupies the third year.

To obtain this result, it is not sufficient that the younger men should see the course gone through under skillful masters, or that they should themselves occasionally give lessons to their school-fellows; they must have taught the children in the annexed school for a long time, under the direction of the masters of the Normal School. It is only by familiarizing themselves with the plan of instruction for each particular branch, and by teaching each for a certain time themselves, that they can acquire the habit of treating it with method.

11. ANNEXED SCHOOL.

The annexed school was founded in 1825, and received gratuitously from 160 to 170 boys. The higher authorities, in granting considerable funds for the establishment of this school, have been especially impelled by the benevolent desire of securing to the great mass of poor children in this town the means of instruction, and of relieving the town from the charge of their education.

The town authorities agreed, on their part, to pay the establishment one thaler and five silber-groschen (3s. 6d.) a year for each child. On this condition we supply the children gratuitously with the books, slates, &c. which they want.

The annexed school is a primary school, which is divided into four classes, but reckons only three degrees: the second and third classes are separated from each other only for the good of the pupils, and for the purpose of affording more practice to the young masters.

The first class, with the two above it, forms a good and complete elementary school; while the highest presents a class of a burgher school, where the most advanced pupils of the Normal School, who will probably be one day employed in the town schools, give instruction to the cleverest boys of the annexed school.

The most advanced class of the students of the Normal School to be employed in the school for practice, is divided into five *cetus*, or divisions, each composed of five or six pupils. Each division teaches two subjects only during two months and a half, and then passes on to two other subjects; so that each has practical exercise in all the matters taught, in succession.

As far as possible, all the classes of the school for practice attend to the same subject at the same hour. The master of the Normal School, who has prepared the young masters beforehand, is present during the lesson. He listens, observes, and guides them during the lessons, and afterward communicates his observations and his opinion of the manner in which the lesson was given. Each class has a journal for each branch of instruction, in which what has been taught is entered after the lesson. As far as possible, the young master who is to give the next lesson, witnesses that of his predecessor. By this means, and particularly through the special direction of the whole practical instruction by a master of the Normal School, the connection and gradation of the lessons is completely secured.

It is requisite that every pupil of the Normal School should teach all the branches in the lowest class in succession; for the master of a primary school, however learned he may be, is ignorant of the most indispensable part of his calling, if he can not teach the elements.

12. DEPARTURE FROM THE NORMAL SCHOOL; EXAMINATIONS; CERTIFICATE AND APPOINTMENT.

The pupils quit the Normal School after having pursued the course for three years; for the lengthening of their stay would be an obstacle to the reception of new pupils.

But they must first go through an examination in writing and *viva voce*,

as decreed by the ordinance of the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, of which we give an abstract:

“1. All the pupils of the primary Normal Schools in the kingdom shall go through an examination on leaving.

2. The examinations shall be conducted by all the masters of the Normal School, on all the subjects taught in the house, in the presence and under the direction of one or more commissioners delegated by the provincial school board.

3. Every pupil, before leaving, shall give a probationary lesson, to show to what degree he possesses the art of teaching.

4. After the examination is over, and exact accounts of the pupils leaving are given by the director and all the masters, a certificate shall be delivered to each pupil, signed by the director, the masters and the commissioners.

5. This certificate shall specify the knowledge and talents of the pupil; it shall state whether he possesses the art of teaching, and whether his moral character renders him fit for the office of primary schoolmaster. It shall include, besides, a general opinion of his character and attainments, expressed by one of the terms, ‘excellent,’ ‘good,’ ‘passable,’ and answering to the numbers 1, 2, 3.

6. This certificate only gives the pupil a provisional power of receiving an appointment for three years. After that time he must undergo a new examination at the Normal School. But any pupil who, on leaving the establishment, obtained number 1, and has, in the course of the three first years, been teacher in a public school, shall not have to pass another examination. No others can take a situation, except provisionally.

7. These new examinations shall not take place at the same time as those of the pupils who are leaving; but, like those, always in the presence and under the direction of the commissioners of the school board.

8. In the first examinations the principal object is, to ascertain if the pupils have well understood the lessons of the Normal School, and learned to apply them; in the last, the only object of inquiry is the practical skill of the candidate.

9. The result of this new examination shall likewise be expressed in a certificate, appended to the first, and care shall be taken to specify therein the fitness of the candidate for the profession of schoolmaster.”

For which reason, the pupils on their departure receive a certificate, the first page of which describes their talents, character and morality, and the two following contain an exact account of the result of the examination on all branches of study.

Those who have not obtained appointments in the interval between the two examinations, shall present this certificate to the superintendents and school-inspectors of the places where they live, and, on leaving that place, shall demand a certificate of conduct, which they shall produce at the time of the second examination. Those who have been in situations during the three first years, shall produce certificates from their immediate superiors.

All the pupils can not be appointed immediately on their leaving the school: but a great number of them are proposed by the director for vacant places, and are sought after by the royal government, by superintendents, magistrates, &c.; so that at the end of a year we may calculate that they are all established.

M. Cousin, in his “*Report on Public Instruction in Prussia*,” after publishing the foregoing account, remarks:

“I can answer for the perfect fidelity of this description of the Normal School of Potsdam.

I saw this scheme in action. The spirit which dictated the arrange-

ment and distribution of the tuition is excellent, and equally pervades all the details. The Normal course, which occupies three years, is composed, for the first year, of studies calculated to open the mind, and to inculcate on the pupils good methods in every branch, and the feeling of what is the true vocation of a primary teacher. This is what is called the *formal* instruction, in opposition to the *material* or more positive instruction of the second year, in which the pupils go through special studies of a very solid kind, and learn considerably more than they will generally be called upon to teach. The third year is entirely *practical*, and is devoted to learning the art of teaching. This is precisely the plan which I take credit to myself for having followed in the organization of the studies of the great central Normal School of Paris, for the training of masters for the royal and communal *colleges*. At Potsdam, likewise, the third year comprises the sum of the two preceding, and the pupils are already regarded as masters. In this view there is a primary school annexed to the Normal School, in which the students in their third year give lessons, under the superintendence of the masters of the Normal School. The children who attend this primary school pay, or rather the town pays for them, only four thaler (12s.) a year; there are 170. They are divided, according to their progress, into four classes, which are taught by the twenty or five and twenty students, or apprentice masters, in their third year, with all the ardor of youth and of a new vocation. I was present at several of these lessons, which were extremely well given. A master of the Normal School frequently attends one of the classes, and, when the lesson is finished, makes observations to the young masters, and gives them practical lessons, by which they can immediately profit.

As appears from the prospectus, the musical instruction is carried to a very high point. There are few students who have not a violin, and many of them leave the school very good organists and piano forte players. Singing is particularly cultivated. The course of instruction embraces not only a little botany, mineralogy, physical science, natural history, and zoology, but exercises in psychology and logic, which tend to give the young men the philosophy of that portion of popular education intrusted to their care. I was present at several lessons; among others, one on history and chronology, in which, out of courtesy to me, the pupils were interrogated on the history of France, particularly during the reigns of Charles IX., and Henry III., and Henry IV.,—a period of which Protestantism is so important a feature. The young men answered extremely well, and seemed perfectly familiar with the dates and leading facts. I say nothing of the gymnastic courses, as Prussia is the classic land of those exercises.

What struck me the most was the courses, called in Germany courses of *Methodik* and *Didaktik*, as also those designated by the name of *Pädagogik*: the two former intended to teach the art of tuition, the latter the more difficult art of moral education. These courses are more particularly calculated for the acting masters, who come back to perfect themselves at the Normal School; for which reason they are not entered in the table, or prospectus, which exhibits only the regular studies of the school. These courses are almost always given by the director, who also generally gives the religious instruction, which here comes in its proper place,—that is, first.

I ought to add that all the students of the school at Potsdam had a cheerful happy air, and that their manners were very good. If they brought any rusticity to the school, they had entirely lost it. I quitted the establishment highly satisfied with the students, full of esteem for the director, and of respect for a country in which the education of the people has reached such a pitch of prosperity.”

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL,

AT BRUHL.

THE Normal School at Bruhl may be regarded as a type of the establishment for teachers of the Catholic faith, as that at Potsdam is of the Protestant institutions. The following account is abridged from an annual Report of its principal, Mr. Schweitzer, a Catholic clergyman.

“The town of Bruhl stands in a beautiful plain on the left bank of the Rhine, two leagues from Koln, three from Bonn, and a short league from the river. It is surrounded by fertile fields and picturesque villages. Directly before it majestically rises the ancient Colonia, with its numerous towers and steeples, and its colossal cathedral. It bounds the view on that side: on the right, the *Siebengebirge** traces its gigantic outlines on the blue distance, and on that side presents to the eye a picture of grandeur and repose. From some neighboring heights the lover of natural beauty looks down with admiration on the plains which lie outspread before him, and the silvery luster of the majestic Rhine, which, in its ample windings, rolls peacefully along, as if it delighted to linger in these smiling regions, while two long chains of hills seem to hold this magnificent plain in their embrace. One of these chains stretches along the left bank of the Rhine, to the Eifel Mountains, and is for that reason called the *Vorgebirge*—(fore or introductory range): at the foot of this chain is Bruhl. The summit is clothed with the forest of Vill, and the undulating sides are dotted with country-houses and pretty villages, the houses of which are half hidden among fruit-trees. At the blossoming season these villages present the most delightful aspect, and help to compose a picture of enchanting variety. It is not without reason, then, that Bruhl was the favorite residence of the Electoral Archbishops of Koln, and in former times this little town was far more important than it now is. At the present day Bruhl consists of only 278 houses, among which are many poor mud cottages, and contains only from fourteen to fifteen hundred inhabitants. Since it ceased to be the residence of the Electors, its inhabitants nearly all live by agriculture, and by a small trade. There are only two remarkable buildings,—the palace, which is abandoned, and the monastery. This latter building is occupied by the establishment under my care.

“The monastery was formerly the nursery of the order of Franciscan monks for the whole province of Koln. After the suppression of the order on the left bank of the Rhine, in 1807, Napoleon gave the monastery and its dependencies to the town of Bruhl, which, in 1812, granted them to Messrs. Schug and Schumacher for the establishment of a secondary and commercial school, whose existence closed in 1822. At the end of that year, the town ceded these buildings to the government, for the establishment of the primary normal school which now occupies them.

1. BUILDINGS.

“The house is built in a grand style, with three stories, and in a quadrangular form. The entrance is to the north, and leads by a small fore court,

* The cluster of seven mountains nearly opposite to Bonn.

on the one side into the convent, on the other into the church, which is handsome, light, and lofty. The high altar, of artificial marble, and the organ, are much admired. On the south side are two wings, which give the buildings a handsome and palace-like appearance. From the very entrance, the cloisters are wide, with lofty vaulted roofs, cheerful and well lighted. They run quite round the building, as do the corridors over them on the first and second stories. On the ground floor we have four rooms or halls for study, and a large and very light dining-hall, which serves also for our public meetings, for study and for prayer. Beside it, are two school-rooms, and two rooms for the steward, with kitchen, offices and servants' hall in the basement story, where the porter has also his kitchen and two rooms. The establishment has a pump, abundantly supplied with fine water, near the kitchen; a rivulet which runs under the two wings is of great importance for purposes of cleanliness.

"The director occupies the eastern side of the building on the first floor; the inspector, the left wing and a part of the southern side; the steward has the rest of that side; the right wing and the western side are inhabited by an ancient father and brother of the Franciscan order,—regarded as the last remnant of a once flourishing body, now extinct—and by the master of the school for practice. There are no rooms to the north, only corridors adjoining the church.

"The assistant masters inhabit the upper story, in which are also five hospital rooms to the south, and two large dormitories for the students to the east and west of the main building. A granary or loft, in good repair, runs over the whole of the building, and affords both steward and masters convenient stowage for their stock of grain of all kinds.

"Both masters and pupils have ample reason to be satisfied with the rooms for study and for dwelling. The masters' apartments are not handsome, it is true; other schools have better: with a little cleaning and decoration they might, however, be made very comfortable. The students' dormitories are cheerful, and better fitted up than any I have seen in any normal school; their appearance is very neat and agreeable, with the clean beds all covered alike, which can be done only where they are furnished by the establishment. This house has only one inconvenience,—violent currents of air; but these might, I think, be remedied.

"The outside of the building is as agreeable as the inside is convenient; it is situated on the prettiest side of the town, and has no communication with any other building except the palace, with which it is connected by a covered way, and by the old orangery. It has a magnificent view over a delightful country, a large kitchen-garden, a commodious court, and two flower-gardens.

"The building is of stone, and consequently very substantial; its aspect is indeed a little hoary now, but a new coat of plaster would soon give it a cheerful appearance. The roof is in good condition, and if once the building underwent a thorough repair, the whole might be kept up at a very small expense. During the past year no great repairs have been done.

2. NUMBER OF STUDENTS.

"The number of students is fixed at a hundred; at this moment there are ninety-two. The object of the establishment is to train schoolmasters for the Catholic parishes of the four regencies of Coblenz, Koln, Aachen, and Dusseldorf. Its position with relation to the government is, in principle, to receive the pupils from its hands, and to render them back accomplished for their task. In the other normal schools the rule is, that the candidates for admission be examined by the schoolmasters, and by them declared fit or unfit to be either entered or immediately admitted; but here it is the cus-

tom for them to be examined in the department they come from, without any intervention of the school, and afterward admitted by the director on the nomination of the government. On the other hand, the parting examination rests with the school, under the condition of a special commissioner being present. The pupil declared fit for nomination is not subject to be re-examined by the government authorities. According to its regulations, the school is not only authorized, but obliged, at the end of the first year, to send away the pupils who are judged incapable of attaining the requisite excellence. At the time of the last parting examination, the school had been obliged to exercise this power in the case of eight pupils, which reduced their number to ninety-two.

3. HEALTH.

“The health of the students was not so good in 1824 as in the preceding year; as sufficiently appears from the bill for medical attendance for the two years.

“In 1823 this amounted to 66 thaler (9*l.* 18*s.*), in 1824 to 177 thaler (26*l.* 11*s.*) But we must not forget that the number of pupils in the latter year, as compared with the former, was as three to two. There have indeed been no contagious diseases, and few of a serious character, but frequent inflammatory and catarrhal fevers, some intermittent and one nervous fever. Inflammatory ophthalmia, attacks on the chest, and palpitations of the heart have not been rare. The physician has paid the pupils great attention, indeed I might almost say too much; and I have agreed with him that he shall not order them medicines, except in cases where diet, rest, perspiration, and domestic remedies are insufficient. In order to prevent the young men from abusing the facility of applying to a physician, I have ordered that no one shall, for the future, consult him without my permission. Infectious cutaneous diseases are avoided by having the pupils examined by the physician on their entrance, and again a week after. If any well-founded suspicions arise, separation takes place as a measure of precaution; if the appearances of a contagious disease are certain, the pupil is sent home till perfectly cured.

4. ORDER, DISCIPLINE, AND MORALITY.

“Without rigid attention to order, we could not hope for the smallest success. In an establishment composed of various elements, like this normal school, where young men who differ in language (dialect), manners, and education are gathered together, there must be rigorous obedience to rule. In domestic life, the head of the family is the rule; and in a large establishment, unquestionably those who govern are strictly bound to furnish an example to all under them. They are that spring of the great machine which cannot cease to move without stopping the whole. But it is also necessary that the establishment should have its precise rules, its written code of laws. The governors, it is true, fill the place of the law whenever it is silent; but all, without distinction, ought to know accurately what they *must* do, and what they *may* do. For this reason, the undersigned cannot share the opinion of some very estimable teachers who think it not necessary, nor even expedient, that there be written laws for an establishment like the primary normal school; nay, that their promulgation may operate only as an incitement to break them. Laws seem to me to grow out of the very nature of the institution. Gather together a number of young men without laying down any rule for them; they themselves will soon feel the necessity of making laws for the government of their intercourse with each other, and will choose one of their body as guardian of these laws. It is, then, natural, useful, and fitting that the managers and masters should make laws

for the school confided to them. If it be true that laws create the temptation to break them, that is a reason why laws for all human society ought to be abolished. Fixed laws give to an institution a steady course, protect the weaker against caprice and tyranny, prevent mistakes and precipitation, and, what is more important for the future, they show in a clear and striking manner the necessity of laws for the commonwealth, and train youth to a reasonable and willing obedience to them. The opinion I offer here springs from my general conviction of the utility of positive written laws, which my own experience has greatly strengthened. For in those infractions of order and discipline which have occasionally happened, I have contented myself with punishing the fault by reading the infringed law to the culprit, in a calm but severe manner, either in private or before all the pupils assembled; and this punishment has never failed of its effect.

“After this digression, which I have thought it expedient to insert here, I return to the order of the house. It is our duty to make the utmost possible use of the daylight, as being more healthful, more cheerful, and more perfect than lamp-light, and costing nothing. In our situation, it would be unpardonable to turn night into day. I make it a great point, too, that the young men should get the habit of rising early, so that in the evening they may lay aside all anxiety and all labor, and give themselves up to the enjoyment of tranquil and refreshing sleep. In summer, therefore, we rise at four, and even earlier when the days are at the longest; in winter at six, in spring and autumn at five. In summer, I and my pupils go to bed at nine or half past, in spring and winter at ten. The pupils ring the *reveille* by turns; a quarter of an hour after, the bell rings again, and all assemble in the dining-hall, where the morning prayer is said; then they all follow me to the church, where I perform the service of the holy mass. One of the students assists in the service; the others sing the responses; this religious act, for which we use the prayer-book and psalter of Bishop Von Hommer, is sometimes mingled with singing, but rarely, because singing very early in the morning is said to be injurious to the voice and chest. All is terminated in an hour; and the pupils, after having thus sanctified the first hour of morning, return to the house, make their beds, breakfast, and then prepare for lessons, which begin at seven or at eight, according to the season. In establishing this rule, I had some fears, at first, that rising so early and going directly into a cold church in the depth of winter, might be injurious to their health; but I am always there before them, and I have never suffered. It may be said that I am more warmly clothed than the young men; but then they are young, their blood is warmer than mine, and that restores the balance. Moreover, it cannot but be advantageous to them to harden themselves, while habits of indulgence and delicacy would be extremely unfavorable to them in their profession. On the Sundays and festivals of the church, I say mass to the students at half past eight in the morning. They sing a German mass for four voices, or simple chants and hymns; and, on high festivals, Latin mass. During the last year, the pupils of the first class have several times executed some easy masses extremely well. But, generally speaking, I am not perfectly satisfied with our church music; not that our masters and pupils do not do their best, but we have not a suitable supply of church music. The singing in Catholic churches is subject to a particular condition: it must be connected with the acts of the mass; it must form a whole, distinct, and yet in harmony with the mass, and moreover, must be adapted to each of the epochs of the ecclesiastical year. Now we have very little church music fit for the people. What there is, is in the hands of a few individuals, who do not choose to part with it. There is doubtless an abundance of sacred music suited to every occasion, but it is all in the most elevated style; and to what good end should the studies of the pupils be pushed so far beyond what can be of use to them in their future sphere of

action? Music of the highest order never can nor ought to become the property of the people. Music ought not to be cultivated as a mere gratification of a sense; it ought to help to ennoble and refine the heart, and to form the moral taste.

"It does not signify so much how they sing, as what they sing. In primary normal schools music ought not, any more than reading, to be the principal object; it must be regarded and treated as a means toward a higher end, which is, education and moral culture. It is therefore with reason that the primary normal schools are required to diffuse a nobler and more worthy kind of popular sacred music: this is, as regards music, their proper office. A good composer, who would devote himself to this object, might acquire immortal honor. It is to be wished that the higher authorities, particularly of the church, would encourage composers who show a genius for sacred music, to fill this chasm. In these remarks I have in view, it is true, only the Catholic church. It is quite otherwise with the Protestant, which possesses a great store of psalms; there is only to choose what are appropriate to the sermon. This greatly facilitates the task of the Protestant normal schools. In the Catholic worship, on the contrary, the sermon is only a subordinate part of a higher whole, with which the singing must harmonize, adapting itself to the different important moments, and hence the scarcity of simple counterpoint fit for the purpose. To attain the proposed end, we ought to have, not only a good organist, but also an able composer, which it is not easy to find. I return to the order of the day.

"As the day begins with prayer, so it ends with it. A quarter of an hour or half an hour before going to bed, all the pupils assemble, at the sound of the bell, for evening devotions. A short portion of the holy scripture is read, and after enlarging more or less on a text, and recommending it to imitation, I conclude by a prayer. During the past year I preached a homiletical discourse on the lesson of the day, before mass every Sunday morning; but as it becomes difficult for me to speak fasting, I now reserve it till evening. It has also been decided, that as a means of keeping alive religious and moral feelings, the pupils should confess and communicate once a month, unless particular reasons render it expedient to prolong the interval to six weeks, or, at furthest, two months. The rest of the day is employed according to the scheme of lessons and the order enjoined by the minister. The pupils are not allowed to go out, except on the weekly afternoon holiday; and this is sufficient for their health, because in all their hours of recreation they can take exercise in a garden of two acres which belongs to the establishment. Nevertheless, on fine days I occasionally give them leave to make expeditions into the country, when I think their health will be benefited by it; making it an express condition that they shall take no pipes.

"It is good to correct faults: better still to prevent them. Abundance of arguments have been adduced in support of the principle that we must let children have their will, in order that their will may become vigorous, and wait till the time when the reason expands to give it a lofty direction. But this is letting the tares overtop the wheat before we attempt to root them out. Experience proves that the good seed springs up more vigorously and thrives better when the soil has been cleared of weeds. Discipline ought, therefore, to precede and to accompany the instruction of young men, as docility and modesty that of children. Doubtless external reverence and reserve are but the beginning of wisdom; man must be brought to think spontaneously and without external impulse, of the duties he lies under, so that it may become his inclination to fulfill whatever he has clearly recognized as a duty, to consult nothing but conscience, and to set himself above the praise and the blame of men. This is true and uncontested; nevertheless, the flesh is always weak, even though the spirit be willing; and there are few of those elect for whom approbation and cen-

sure, remonstrances and encouragements, hope and fear, are not necessary helps; and for that reason, such helps are used for great and small, in private houses as well as in schools, in church as well as in state, and will never fail, if wisely used, to have a salutary effect. A hard ascetical constraint and discipline are as far from my taste as from my principles; but experience demands rigorous order in great schools, especially at their outset. When order has once been thoroughly established, when the will of each has learned to bend to the unity of the collective body, the early severity may be relaxed, and give place to kindness and indulgence. As long as I can recollect, I have observed that the education of children is best in houses where this principle is observed. To let children grow perverse and wayward in their infancy through weak tenderness and indulgence, and then to reprove and chastise them with harshness when their habits are formed, cannot be other than a false system. For these reasons we always begin by reading the rules and disciplinary laws of the house, so that the pupils may distinctly know what they have to do; we then take care that these laws are strictly enforced. The masters, on their side, are careful to show the most punctual obedience to all their duties. We afterward read portions of the rules, according to circumstances, and to the demand for any particular part; thus the discipline is strengthened and facilitated. The highest punishment is expulsion; and last year we were obliged to resort to this twice. In all cases we try to proportion the punishment to the fault, so as to conduce to the amendment of the culprit and the good of all. For instance, if one of the pupils lies in bed from indolence, he is deprived of his portion of meat at dinner, and for four days, a week, or a fortnight, as it may be, is obliged to declare his presence when we meet in the morning. Being kept at home on holidays, ringing the bell, fetching water, &c., are the only corporal punishments for faults of indolence and infractions of order. Faults of impatience or carelessness, of insincerity or mischievousness, of coarseness or any sort of incivility, offenses against decency or good manners, are punished by notes in the inspection-book, which the culprits themselves are obliged to sign. As to the conduct of the students when out of the house, the authorities and inhabitants of the whole neighborhood unanimously bear witness that the presence of these young men is in no way perceived. It is not difficult to speak to their hearts, and by expostulation suited to their age and station, to touch them even to tears.

“Of this I could cite several instances, did I not fear prolonging this Report. I will, however, give one. Last year the students of the highest class were dissatisfied with the steward, and presented a petition very numerously signed, in which they enumerated their causes of complaint, and asked to have him removed. I gave the petition to him, that he might answer the charges; and after he had made his defense, I suffered accusers and accused to plead their cause, at the time of one of the religious lessons. The steward was not irreproachable; his fault was, indeed, evident enough: on the other hand, the complaint was exaggerated, invidious, inexact, and inconsiderate; for several had signed without reading; others had signed because such or such a point seemed to them just; others again had shown themselves extremely active in collecting signatures, and had reproached those who refused to sign. The affair being clearly and circumstantially stated, the steward had his share of the reprimand, and was deeply affected by it; others were moved to tears; and the offenders, when the unbecoming, inconsiderate, and even criminal points of their conduct were distinctly explained to them, acknowledged their injustice, and promised never to act in the like manner again.

“Order and discipline, instruction and prayer, are thus regarded and employed as so many means, general and particular, for cultivating the morality of the pupils; and the undersigned, during the short time he has had the

care of the institution, has had the satisfaction of seeing many who entered it with bad and distressing habits, leave it metamorphosed and renewed. Sedateness and modesty have been substituted for giddiness; the spirit of temperance for craving after sensual enjoyments; and those who came to seek but ordinary bread, have acquired a taste for purer and higher food. It is hardly possible that among so many, a vicious one should not occasionally creep in; and last year, among the new-comers, was a cunning and accomplished thief, whose depredations filled the establishment with dissatisfaction and alarm. It was difficult to find him out, but falsehood and perversity betray themselves in the end. Heavy suspicions were accumulated during the year on the head of the criminal; and though there were not positive proofs, he could not so escape our vigilance as not to leave us in possession of a moral certainty against him. He was expelled at the examination of last year. Nevertheless, as there was no legal proof, his name was not stigmatized by publicity, and the higher authorities will readily excuse my not mentioning it here, and will be satisfied with the assurance that no misfortune of the kind has since occurred.

5. INSTRUCTION.

The business of the primary normal school is to form schoolmasters. It must therefore furnish its pupils with the sum of knowledge which the state has declared indispensably necessary to the intellectual wants of the lower classes of the people, of whom they are to be the teachers, and must afterward fit them to fulfill their important vocation with zeal and with a religious will and earnestness.

No more than grapes can be gathered from thorns, or figs from thistles, can any thing good be hoped from schoolmasters who are regardless of religion and of morality. For this reason, religious instruction is placed at the head of all other parts of education: its object is to implant in the normal schools such a moral and religious spirit as ought to pervade the popular schools. The course of religious instruction has undergone no change from that stated in the report of last year, except that the several classes have been united for the Biblical part. During the present year we propose to treat the concordance of the Gospels, the history of the Apostles, and some of the Epistles. The course adopted is this:—The series of the concordance is established and dictated by the master; the passages and discourses are explained, and, if thought expedient, learnt by heart by the pupils. For the catechising, or religious and moral instruction, properly so called, the classes are separated. The great catechism of Overberg is taken as a ground-work; and we treat first of faith, then of morals, so that the latter may be intimately connected with the former, or to speak better, that morality may flow from faith as from its source. I regard religion as a disposition or affection of the soul, which unites man, in all his actions, with God; and he alone is truly religious who possesses this disposition, and strives by every means to cherish it. In this view of the subject all morality is religious, because it raises man to God, and teaches him to live in God. I must confess, that in religious instruction I do not confine myself to any particular method; I try by meditation to bring the thing clearly before my own mind, and then to expound it intelligibly, in fitting language, with gravity and calmness, with uncton and earnestness, because I am convinced that a clear exposition obliges the pupils to meditate, and excites interest and animation.

As for the historical part, I have made choice of a short exposition of the history of the Christian church, with an introduction on the constitution of the Jewish church. I think it impossible to learn any thing of universal history, that can be useful or instructive to the students, in less than a hund-

red lessons. It signifies little whether a village schoolmaster knows the history of India, China, or Greece; but he ought to know something of the history of the church, because it is, in many points, nearly connected with that of religion. I must confess that, in the measure of time allowed us, I cannot make universal history very interesting or profitable to the pupils; but it is otherwise with ecclesiastical history.

I introduce the theory of education and tuition by experimental psychology. This course of study is of infinite use, in teaching the science of education, and of tuition, as likewise in teaching morals and religion; but I regard the school for practice, and the method there pursued, as the best course of pedagogical instruction. I have come to the conviction that, generally speaking, it is necessary to recommend to the pupils of the normal schools, and to all young schoolmasters, a firm and decided plan, leaving it to them to modify it as time and experience dictate. It is with them as with a traveler going to a place he has never been at before: it is best to show him the high road, that he may not lose himself; when he is familiar with that, he may try cross-roads, if he thinks they will abridge his journey. The masters of the school agree in my views on this point, and endeavor to act up to them. The following are their courses of instruction in their several departments, furnished by themselves.

Language:* *First class, or class of the first year.*—In the first half year we begin with the simplest elements, and gradually go through all the parts of speech, but without their subdivisions. In the second half year we go through the subdivisions in like manner; so that, in the first year, a thorough knowledge is acquired of the simple and compound elements, as well as of the divisions and subdivisions of speech. The course of instruction is partly synthetic, and partly analytic; that is to say, what has been learned in the first manner, is made thoroughly clear in the second, by the analysis of a passage from some author. *Second class, or class of the second year.*—This class, proceeding in a similar way, goes through the most complicated periods. In the second half year the pupils are familiarized with the most important principles of logic and of etymology.

Arithmetic: *Second class.*†—In the first half year are studied the rule of three, single and compound interest, and discount; in the second, the extraction of the square and cube roots, as far as equations of the first and second degree. The result of this course is a complete familiarity with all the branches of common arithmetic. These two departments of instruction, language and arithmetic, are taught according to the views of the inspector.

Geometry: *Second class.*—In the first half year they get through what relates to rectilinear figures and the circle; in the second, the theory of the transmutation of figures is added; and after that, the most important principles of geometry and the measurement of solids. The books of instruction are those of F. Schmid and Von Turek.

Drawing: *First class.*—In the first half year drawing is carried as far as the knowledge of the most important laws of perspective, so as to place objects, not too complex, according to the laws of perspective. In the second half year they study light and shade. *Second class.*—During the first half year the attention is directed to the relief and shading of works of art, such as houses, churches, vases, &c. In the second half, the pupils copy good drawings of landscapes, flowers, &c., with a view to familiarize them with the style of the best masters. The method adopted is that of F. Schmid.

Reading: *First class.*—Begins by the enunciation of some simple propositions, which are decomposed into words; the words are reduced to syllables, and these to their simple sound. This course has been adopted with the pupils, that they may themselves use it with the younger children, and thus acquire a familiar acquaintance with it. It is taught according to the

* M. Wagner.

† Another master takes the arithmetic for the first class or first year.

views of the inspector. *Second class.*—In the first class the principal object is reading with ease; in the second, reading with expression. The chief means of instruction consist in the master's reading aloud frequently, because it is considered that this plan is more unfailing and more easy than any rules. Since, however great the application on the part of both master and pupil, the art of reading is at all times difficult to acquire, this branch of instruction occupies a whole year.

Singing: First class.—In the first half year they begin with easy exercises in time and melody; the next step is to easy pieces for four voices. The second half year is devoted to more difficult exercises of the same kind; so that, by the end of the year, the pupils have acquired a tolerable facility in reading.

Natural Philosophy: Second class.—During the first half year the attention is directed to the general and particular properties of bodies; to those of the elements, water, air, and fire; then to the theory of sounds, the velocity of winds, the equilibrium of fluids, and aqueous meteors. In the second half year comes the theory of light, electricity, the lever, the inclined plane, luminous meteors, optics, &c. The principal object is to render the pupils attentive to the most striking phenomena of nature, and to accustom them to reflect upon her laws and secrets. The method adopted here is that of the inspector.

During half of last year my* lessons embraced the following points:—

Mental Arithmetic.—1, The knowledge of numbers with reference to their value and form; 2, addition; 3, subtraction; 4, subtraction and addition combined; 5, multiplication; 6, multiplication combined with the preceding rule; 7, division; 8, varied combinations of the four fundamental rules. Each rule was accompanied by its application, and by examples drawn from common life. My principal aim was to exercise the pupils in applying the rules to practice. I have endeavored also to draw their attention to the theory, and especially to the mode of using different rules in the solution of the same problem; with this view, I have always alternated the oral and written exercises.

Arithmetic on the Slate.—Calculation on the slate is based upon mental arithmetic, insomuch that the latter may be considered as a preparation for the former. When the four first exercises in mental arithmetic are gone through, the pupils begin to use the slate. I have labored not only to give them practical dexterity, but also solid knowledge, and with this aim have accustomed them to try various ways of working the questions.

Elements of Geometry.—I have followed the work of Harnisch, and his theory of space drawn from the theory of crystals, and employed by him as a basis to the mathematics.

NATURAL HISTORY: Botany.—The principal parts of a plant are first pointed out and named; then each of these parts are examined separately:—1, the root, its form and direction; 2, the stem, its internal construction, its figure and its covering; 3, the buds, their place upon the stalk; 4, the leaves, their variety according to their situation, their mode of insertion, their figure, their place; 5, the flower-stalks; 6, the flowers according to their species, the manner in which they are fixed, their composition; the calyx, corolla, stamina, pistil, the fruit, seed-vessel, and sex of the plants. All this has been shown to the pupils, either in the plants themselves, or in drawings which I have traced on the slate. I interrupted the botany till we could take it up again after Easter, and began

Mineralogy.—I have pursued the same course here. The pupils have first been familiarized with the properties which distinguish minerals one from another, as their colors, the arrangement of parts, the external form, regular and irregular, or crystalline form; the polish, texture, transparency, vein,

* Mr. Richter.

hardness, alteration of color, effervescence in acids: all these properties have been observed by the pupils in the minerals of our collection. To this succeeded the classification of minerals, from which the pupils have learned the names and uses of the most important.

Singing.—Having devoted last year, with my singing pupils, to time, tune, and acoustics, I have, during the past six months, combined the three branches of the art of singing which I had before taught separately, and have practiced them chiefly on sacred vocal music, such as a psalm of Schnabel's, a chorus from Handel's Messiah, a mass of Hasslinger, and another of Schiedermeyer, a chorus from Haydn's Creation, two songs by Von Weber, &c.

*Thorough-Base.**—The lessons I have given in this science have been according to Hering's practical introduction, or to my own ideas. The following course has been adopted: 1, the theory of intervals; 2, the theory of harmonic thirds, *a.* if they comprise a scale, *b.* if they belong to the whole system; 3, the theory of the chord of the seventh, *a.* if it belongs to a scale, *b.* if it belongs to the whole system of chords; 4, modulation, *a.* in a free style, *b.* in a free style, with particular reference to the organ; 5, written exercises in parts for four voices.

Geography.—We have finished Germany and begun Europe: the following course has been adopted. First we made the pupils acquainted, as exactly as possible, with the Rhenish provinces—our own peculiar country; then with Prussia, then with the rest of Germany. This was done in the following manner: 1, the boundaries; 2, the mountains; 3, the rivers; 4, the natural divisions according to the rivers; 5, the towns. We then considered Germany in its political divisions, paying attention to the position and natural limits of the countries. All the exercises on this subject were done with skeleton maps. If time permit (though only one year with two lessons a week are allotted to this department), Europe will be followed by a general review of the earth.

Writing.—In the writing I have followed exactly the system of Hennig; by giving, 1, the easiest and simplest letters of the running alphabet to be copied, each letter separately, till the pupil can make them with ease; 2, words composed of such letters as they have practiced; 3, at the opening of the course, after Easter, will come the capital letters, in the same way; 4, English handwriting.† In practicing single letters, I have especially pointed out how one was formed out of another, and the letter they were practicing as making part of that which followed. Afterward copies, written, not engraved, are placed before the pupils, because these last, according to the opinion of good penmen, discourage the pupils.

Orthography.—1, The object and utility of orthography; 2, general rules of German orthography; 3, the use of capital letters; 4, the regular use of isolated letters; 5, the division, composition, and abbreviation of words. These rules are alternately put in practice in the dictations. The director, with the assistance of the masters, examines in each department every three months. Instrumental music, on the violin, piano-forte, and organ, is taught by Mr. Richter and Mr. Rudisch, with the assistance of two pupils.

6. SCHOOL FOR PRACTICE.

It is difficult, in a written description, to convey a just idea of a school, or of any large establishment for instruction. Nevertheless, I will endeavor to give a brief sketch of this institution, and of the manner in which the pupils are there occupied. The regulations fix from one to three in the afternoon for the lessons of practice. The children of the school for practice are di-

* Mr. Rudisch.

† *i. e.* The Italian handwriting, as distinguished from the current German hand.—TRANSL.

vided into eight classes, and one of the pupils from the normal school presides over each of these divisions alternately, so that twenty-four are occupied from one to two, and twenty-four from two to three; and while the first twenty-four are teaching, the others listen, that they may be ready at any moment to take it up and continue the lesson. This can be done only where a fixed and complete mode of instruction is laid down.

The branches taught by the pupils are grammar, reading, composition, writing, drawing, arithmetic, mental exercises, singing, religion. Language is taught partly after Krause, and partly on the plan of the inspector, Mr. Wagner. Reading is closely connected with writing, according to the method of the inspector. The pupils of the higher classes have subjects of familiar compositions given them; at the same time, they are made to learn by heart short letters, narrations and descriptions, because this is deemed the best method of familiarizing children with the language, and enabling them to express themselves with ease in writing. When they have learned a piece by heart, they endeavor to write it without a fault, and with the proper punctuation; the comparison with the original and the correction are left to themselves, that the thing may be more deeply impressed upon their mind. Arithmetic is taught on the system of Schumacher and Jos. Schmid. In the lower classes great care is taken that the numbers are always correct, in order to avoid the inefficient and too artificial mental arithmetic of Pestalozzi, and to make arithmetic itself an exercise of language. Singing is taught by the two forwardest pupils of the school, who give two lessons in the morning, and drawing by the two most skillful draughtsmen. For exercises in language and mental activity, use is occasionally made of Krause's *Exercises for the Mind*, and Pestalozzi's *Mother's Book*. On religion the pupils give but one lesson a week, under the particular guidance of the director. The special superintendence of this school is confided to the inspector, Mr. Wagner, who, besides a daily visit during the lessons, subjects them to a slight examination every week, to keep up a persevering activity in the young men, and to know exactly what progress is made. The satisfaction of the parents at the pupils' mode of teaching is proved by the regular attendance at the school. I am well satisfied with the practical ability hitherto shown by the pupils.

7 MASTERS OF THE ESTABLISHMENT.

Two masters, besides the director, were last year annexed to the establishment—the inspector, Mr. Wagner, and Mr. Richter. The assistant master, Mr. Rudisch, was added at the beginning of this year. These masters give their entire and undivided attention to the school; yet they are not sufficient for this great establishment; two pupils and the organist of the town assist in the department of instrumental music.

Although the general superintendence rests upon the director, yet, to relieve him, one of the masters in rotation has hitherto conducted the special inspection each week. But I see every day more clearly, that the whole inspection ought to devolve upon the director alone;—in a well-regulated house there should be but one head. The other masters also recognize this principle; and in the end the director will have the whole superintendence, and, in case of need, will transfer it to the inspector. But as the director and the inspector cannot be always with the pupils, and as it is nevertheless necessary that there should be some fixed person to refer to when disturbances or complaints occur, the established custom will be continued of appointing the student who is deemed the best fitted as superintendent of his fellow-students. This plan may, besides, have a very useful effect in the education both of the young superintendent and of his school-fellows.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE TWO CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY IN EISELEBEN, PRUSSIA, IN THE SUMMER HALF YEAR OF 1839.

HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
7 to 8 . . .	{ First . . . Second . . .	Religious instruction, Religious instruction, Profane history,	Religious instruction, Profane history, Logic,	Art of teaching, Logic, Geography,	Religious instruction, Religious instruction, Profane history,	Religious instruction, Profane history, Logic or Prussian history, Arithmetic,	Religious instruction, Logic or sacred history, Geography.
8 to 9 . . .	{ First . . . Second . . .	Arithmetic, Reading, Thorough bass and organ, Arithmetic, Grammar,	Thorough bass and organ, Organ, Religious instruction, Grammar, Singing,	Geometry, Thorough bass, Drawing, Violin, Drawing,	Grammar, Art of teaching, Writing, Arithmetic, Thorough bass and organ,	Arithmetic, Reading, Religious instruction, Grammar, Singing,	Geometry. Arithmetic. Thorough bass and organ. Organ. Writing.
9 to 10 . . .	{ First . . . Second . . .	Reading, Thorough bass and organ, Arithmetic, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Grammar, Singing, Natural Philosophy, Reading,	Thorough bass, Drawing, Violin, Drawing,	Art of teaching, Writing, Arithmetic, Thorough bass and organ,	Reading, Religious instruction, Grammar, Singing,	Arithmetic. Thorough bass and organ. Organ. Writing.
1 to 2 . . .	{ First . . . Second . . .	Art of teaching, Natural Philosophy,	Natural Philosophy, Reading, Drawing, Geography,	Examining, Natural philosophy, Reading,	Natural history, Reading,
2 to 3 . . .	{ First . . . Second . . .	Geometry, Composition, Thorough bass, Organ,	Drawing, Geography, Drawing, Violin,	Geometry, Composition, Violin, Organ,	Writing, Geography, Writing, Violin,
3 to 4 . . .	{ First . . . Second . . .	Thorough bass, Organ,	Drawing, Violin,	Violin, Organ,	Writing, Violin,
4 to 5 . . .	{ First . . . Second . . .	Thorough bass, Organ,	Drawing, Violin,	Violin, Organ,	Writing, Violin,

NOTE.—Three hours of singing, and one hour of instruction in the art of teaching, are also weekly given at indeterminate times.

SEMINARY FOR TEACHERS*

AT WEISSENFELS,

IN PRUSSIA.

THIS seminary, for the education of teachers for the elementary schools, is one of four belonging to the province of Saxony,† and was last organized in 1822. It combines within its premises, or in the neighborhood, so as to be subject to the control of the same director, the following establishments: 1. The normal school, or seminary for teachers, a government institution. 2. A preparatory school, subsidiary to the former, and established by the enterprise of its teachers. 3. A seminary school, or burgher school, of four hundred pupils, already described. 4. An elementary school for poor children, of two hundred pupils. 5. A school for the deaf and dumb, of twenty-five pupils, established in 1828, and supported by the government. The last three mentioned schools afford practice to the students of the seminary.

The government of these establishments is confided to a director,‡ who is responsible immediately to the provincial school-board in Magdeburg. He has the personal charge of the seminary in which he gives instruction, and of which he superintends the domestic economy, discipline, and police. He is assisted in the seminary by three teachers, who meet him once a week in conference, to discuss the progress and conduct of the pupils, the plans of instruction, and other matters relating to the school. There are also seven assistant teachers, five for the seminary school, and two for the deaf and dumb institution, who also assist in the seminary itself. Once a month there is a general meeting of the teachers of all the schools just enumerated, for similar purposes.

Applicants for admission are required to produce certificates of baptism, of moral conduct, and of health,§ besides an engagement on the part of their parents or guardians to pay an annual sum of fifty thalers (thirty-seven dollars) for maintenance. These papers must be forwarded to the director a fortnight before the day of examination. The candidates are examined at a stated time of the year (after Easter), in presence of all the teachers of the school, and their attainments must prove satisfactory in Bible and church history, the Lutheran Catechism, reading, writing, German grammar, especially the orthography of the language, the ground-rules of arithmetic (mental and written), geography and history, and natural history and philosophy, of the grade of the highest class of a burgher school. They must also be able to play, at sight, easy pieces of music upon the violin. The usual age of admission is eighteen; and the lowest at which they are admissible, seventeen. On entrance, they are entitled to free lodging and instruction, and, if their conduct and progress are satisfactory, in general, receive a yearly allowance of twenty-five dollars, which is equivalent, nearly, to the cost of their maintenance. Their clothing and school-books are provided by the pupils. The modes of preparation judged most appropriate by the authorities of the seminary are, the attendance on a burgher school, with private lessons from a competent teacher, or entrance into the preparatory establishment at Weissenfels. A gymnasium is considered by no means a proper place for the

* From Bache's Education in Europe.

† At Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Erfurt, and Weissenfels.

‡ The Rev. Dr. Harnisch, to whom I am indebted for a kind welcome to his institution, and a MS. account of its different schools.

§ The directions issued by the provincial authorities are, that they shall have a strong chest and sound lungs, not to be too near-sighted, nor deaf, nor infirm. The physician's certificate must state whether they have had the measles, &c.

preparation of pupils, its courses, discipline, and mode of life having a different tendency from that required by the future teacher of a common school.

The admission of new pupils takes place with some ceremony, in presence of the teachers and pupils. The director gives a charge, in which he makes them acquainted with the rules of the school, chiefly those relating to moral conduct, to obedience to the authorities, punctuality, regular attendance at study, school, church, and, in general, on the appointed exercises, due exertion, neatness in their habits, and exactness in the payment of dues to the tradesmen with whom they may deal. They bind themselves to serve for three years after leaving the school, in whatever situation may be assigned them by the regency of Merseburg, or to pay the cost of their education and maintenance. During their stay at the seminary, they are exempted from military service, except for six weeks. In fact, this service usually takes place at leaving the school, and before entering upon their new career. The number of pupils, on the average, is sixty.

The courses of instruction are, morals and religion, German, arithmetic and geometry, cosmology, pedagogy, terraculture, hygiene, theory and practice of music, drawing, and writing. Cosmology is a comprehensive term for geography, an outline of history and biography, the elements of natural history and natural philosophy, all that relates to the world (earth) and its inhabitants. Pedagogy includes both the science and art of teaching. The courses just enumerated are divided among the masters, according to the supposed ability of each in the particular branches, the whole instruction being given by the four teachers. The director, as is customary in these schools, takes the religious instruction, and the science and art of teaching, as his especial province, and adds lectures on the theory of farming and gardening (terraculture), and of health.

The duration of the course of studies has been reduced from three years to two, on account, as is alleged, of the necessity for a more abundant supply of teachers. There are, probably, other reasons, such as the expense, and the fear of over-educating the pupils for their station, which have been influential in bringing about this reduction. There are two classes corresponding to the two years of study. The first year is devoted entirely to receiving instruction; and in the second, practice in teaching is combined with it. In the preparatory school there is likewise a course of two years, and the pupils are divided into two classes. This establishment is in a building near the seminary, which can accommodate forty pupils, and is under the special charge of one of the teachers.*

The outline of the studies in the two schools is as follows :

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Bible stories, which the pupils must be able to narrate with propriety. Christian doctrine. Portions of Scripture committed to memory. Four hours weekly.

I Class. Reading the Bible, especially the historical parts. Krummacher's Bible Catechism. Christian doctrine. Parables of the New Testament. Seven hours.

In the lectures on Christian doctrine, which the two classes of the normal school attend together, the director gives a portion of Scripture to be committed to memory, explains and illustrates it, and interrogates the pupils, who take notes of the lecture, which they subsequently write out.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Reading the Bible, particularly the historical parts; writing catechetical exercises, adapted to children. Two hours.

* The payments made by the pupils are, per annum, for instruction, nine dollars; for dinner, bread not included, thirteen dollars and fifty cents; lodging, three dollars; waiting and nursing in time of sickness, one dollar and seventy-five cents; use of library, fifty cents.

I Class. Continuation of the second class course. Two hours.
 I and II Class. Christian doctrine, from Luther's Catechism. Three hours.
 History of the different dispensations. Two hours. A course of two years.

The course of church history is taught, also, by the mixed method of lecture and interrogation, to both classes united.

GERMAN LANGUAGE.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Exercises of speech in reading and delivery. Descriptions and essays on subjects drawn from common life. Grammar. Writing, as an exercise in calligraphy and orthography. Nine hours.

I Class. Reading, with explanations. Composition. Grammar revised. Writing, as in the second class. Nine hours.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Reading, with explanations. Writing, as an exercise of calligraphy and orthography. Exercises of style. A composition once every month. Essays from history, geography, or natural history. Grammar revised. Eight hours.

I Class. Poetry, with readings. Calligraphy. Exercises of style. Grammar revised. National literature. Seven hours.

The first and second classes are united for a portion of instruction in this department, intended to rid them of provincialisms of speech, and to improve their handwriting. Three hours.

MATHEMATICS.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Arithmetic, including the Rule of Three. Three hours.

I Class. Arithmetic, revised and extended. Use of compass and ruler. Four hours.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Geometry, commenced. Four hours.

I Class. Revision of previous studies. Geometry, continued. Two hours.

The method of teaching mathematics is that of Pestalozzi; and director Harnisch has himself prepared a work on geometry for his pupils. The applications are made to follow the principles closely. As in the other courses, the greater part of the learning is done in the school-room, the books being used rather for reference than for preparation. In the lessons which I attended in this department, much skill was displayed by the instructors, and a very considerable degree of intelligence by the pupils. Considering it as the means of developing the reasoning powers, this method is very far superior to that in which the propositions are learned from books. To exemplify the method of Dr. Harnisch, I may state the following case of a recitation in geometry by the second class. The equality of two triangles, when the two sides and the angle contained between them in one are equal respectively to the two sides and the contained angle in the other, had been shown by the teacher, and the demonstration repeated by the pupils, who were interrogated closely upon it. An application of the theorem was at once required, to determining the distance between two points, one of which is inaccessible. Two of the class found the solution immediately, and all were able to take part in the subsequent discussion of the problem.

COSMOLOGY (WELTKUNDE).

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Elements of botany and zoology. Excursions for practical instruction in the former. Four hours.

I Class. Geography and the drawing of maps. Elements of physics and technology. Biography. Three hours.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Revision of the above studies. Three hours.

I and II Classes united. General views of the earth and its productions and inhabitants. One hour weekly for one year. Gardening and hygiene (Gesundheitskunde). Two hours weekly for two years.

The lectures in the normal school on these subjects are by the director. The means of illustration in physics are small, and the whole course is chiefly intended to show the future teachers how wide a range of knowledge may be opened to them by study. The natural history is illustrated, for the most part, by drawings. To render the seminarists more useful in their situation of country schoolmasters, which a large proportion of the pupils become, they have lectures on the principles of agriculture and gardening, and also practical lessons from the gardener, who has charge of the grounds. The pupils work during the appropriate season every day in turn, under the direction of the gardener. Good manuals, conveying correct but elementary instruction on these matters, are much wanted. They should, perhaps, be prepared by a teacher, but by no means allowed to go into use without revision by persons specially acquainted with the different branches of science thus grouped together. This revision would insure the accuracy which, though difficult to attain, is so necessary; the more so in conveying such elements, as there is no collateral knowledge to correct or modify error as to fact or theory.

SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

The first class receive simple directions for keeping school, and lessons on teaching. They attend in turn the classes of the seminary-schools two hours weekly, but take no part in teaching.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Lessons on teaching, three hours. Visits to the schools, three hours.

I Class. Lessons on the art of teaching, three hours. Visits to the schools, five hours. Lessons on the instruction of the deaf and dumb, by the director of that department, one hour.

I and II Classes united. Science of teaching, two hours.

The director delivers the course on the science of teaching, which in these schools is considered of the highest importance, and also gives a portion of the lessons in the art of teaching to the first class.

The theoretical instruction in the science and art of teaching embraces two courses, each of a year; the first being devoted chiefly to education in general, the second to instruction and the arrangements of the school.* The director remarks of this course, that the pupils learn by it to say a good deal upon these subjects, and sometimes believe that they can easily execute what they can so readily describe; an opinion of which practice can alone show the error, and which it is essential should be removed. The general theory of education is founded upon the constitution of man, and, under the head of instruction, the methods of teaching the various branches are described. The practice which must render this theory of real use is had in part in the schools. The pupils attend the free school, the burgher school, and the deaf and dumb school, at stated times. They go at first as listeners, next take part in the instruction, under direction of the assistant teachers, and lastly instruct the classes. In order that they may have models of teaching, not only in the assistants, but in the teachers of the seminary themselves, the latter give lessons occasionally in the different schools. Thus the director teaches one hour per week in the seminary school, the second teacher two hours, and the third and fourth teachers four hours. The lower class attend the several classes of the burgher school, except the highest girls' class, remaining, in general, one-fifth of the time in each class except the lowest, where they remain double this time, and visiting each

* Harnisch's Manual of Common School Matters (*Handbuch des Volks-schulwesens*) is used as a text-book.

A more common division of the course is into pedagogics, or the principles of education and instruction. Methodics, or the art of teaching the system or methods of education, to which a third division is sometimes added, called didactics, which relates to the subjects of education, (*Schwarz Erziehung und Unterrichts lehre*).

class twice at intervals. The upper class attend also the girls' class, the deaf and dumb school, and the free school, remaining one-eighth of their time in each of the classes. Each member of the lower class keeps a journal of his visits to the schools, which is inspected by the second teacher. Each of the first class draws up a report of his occupation and observations in the schools, which is reviewed by the assistant teacher of the class to which it refers, and is then examined by the second teacher and by the director. The several assistant teachers make reports upon the qualifications of the seminarists who have given instruction in their classes. By these arrangements, a pupil who has the mental qualities essential to a teacher cannot fail to become well versed in the practice of his profession. Habits of observation are inculcated, which must be of great service to him in his practice, enabling him to adapt himself to the circumstances in which he is placed, and to profit by the experience of every day.

To exemplify the principles and methods, a small number of the children from the seminary school are brought into the class-room of the seminary, and are examined upon a given subject by some of the pupils. The class present and the director make their notes on these examinations, and the exercise terminates by an examination of the children by the director himself, as an exemplification of his views, and that they may not receive injury from being left in a half or ill-informed state on the subjects of the lesson. The children having retired, the different members of the class make their criticisms, which are accepted or shown to be erroneous by the director, a conference or discussion being kept up until the subject is exhausted. The character of each exercise is marked by the director, who is thus enabled to judge of the progress made by every member of the class, and to encourage or admonish privately, according to circumstances.

The lectures given by the head master of the school for the deaf and dumb are also accompanied by practice, a certain number of pupils being detained every day for that purpose. The basis of the method is the idea that it is possible to restore the deaf mute to society, by enabling him to understand spoken language from the motion of the lips, and to speak intelligibly by mechanical rules. It is hoped ultimately, by training every schoolmaster in this method, that the mute may be instructed in schools with other children, and thus not be required to sunder ties of kindred during a long absence from home. The pupils of the deaf and dumb institution do not live in the establishment, but are boarded with tradesmen of the town of Weissenfels. The object is to induce the practice of the lessons out of school, the pupils being enjoined to avoid the use of signs. The first lesson is one in articulation. The principle of this instruction is now dominant in Germany, but up to this time the system has not been fairly tried by its results. The indomitable perseverance of the masters of the principal schools which I visited struck me with admiration; but I was not convinced that what they aimed at was practicable, at least to the extent which their principle asserts. The attempt deserves, however, the best encouragement.

D R A W I N G .

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

The two classes united for geometrical and perspective drawing.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

The same course continued.

M U S I C .

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

The two classes united for instruction in the elements of music. Choral singing. Instruction is given on the piano and organ to the pupils, divided into four sections. They are also taught the violin.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

The instruction, as just stated, is continued. Theory of music. Composition.

The violin is taught, as the means of leading the exercises in singing in the elementary schools. The piano serves as an introduction to the organ, a knowledge of which is important to the Prussian schoolmaster, as enabling him to act as organist in the church of the parish where his school may be situated. So high a value is placed upon an elementary knowledge in vocal music, that an ability to give instruction in it is indispensable to admission into the class of teachers. It is not, therefore, surprising that the pupils of the seminaries, in general, are proficient in music. I confess, however, that I was not prepared for the advance in the theory and practice to which many of the first class in this school had attained. In regard to the former, I was present at one of the exercises in composition, in which the teacher* read, and the pupils transcribed, three stanzas of poetry. This done, they were required to compose an air adapted to the words. In less than ten minutes, a fifth of the class were ready. The teacher took his station at a black-board, on which the ledger lines were drawn, and one of the pupils whom he designated began to sing the words to the air which he had composed, the teacher writing the music meanwhile. This air was pronounced not to be original. A second was tried, which the teacher thought an imitation. A third and fourth he accepted, and wrote upon the board. They were criticised by both the class and teacher, set to parts by the former, and sung. The two classes were in the next hour united for choral singing, in which many are proficient, the teacher leading at the organ.

The course of drawing is limited in extent, the object being chiefly to give opportunities to those pupils who have a taste for drawing to cultivate it. In fact, as it tends to divert attention from more important matters, which the short time spent at the seminary requires entire devotion to, it is not much encouraged.

The four teachers attached to the normal school have charge of specific departments of labor, as well as of particular implements of instruction. The director has the general superintendence of the instruction, discipline, household arrangements, and finance, and is librarian of their small collection. The second teacher has charge of one of the schools, of the musical exercises, books, and instruments; a third, of the students when assembled, especially in the school-house, and of the drawings, copy-slips for writing, and maps. The fourth superintends the pupils while in the dwelling-house, and also at meals. These teachers are aided in their duties by younger ones attached to the seminary, under the title of assistant teachers. The dining-hall, or the recitation-rooms, serve as places of study, according as the pupils are in the school-house or in the dwelling, the two buildings being separated by a portion of the grounds. The chapel, which is a neat room connected with the school-house, serves for the music-room, as well as for the religious exercises.

The order of the day in the normal school will serve to show how constantly these young men are employed in preparing for the duties of their arduous profession, and yet they appeared to me always cheerful in the performance of their self-imposed task. In winter, the pupils rise at five, and, after washing and dressing, have a brief religious exercise, and study until breakfast, which is at seven o'clock. Until eight there is recreation. From eight until twelve they are in school, engaged in recitation, listening to lectures, or teaching. From twelve until one they have dinner and recreation. From one until five they are again in school. From five until seven or half past seven, in summer, there is recreation, or excursions are made with a teacher, and then study until nine. In winter, there is recreation until six, from six to eight study, and from eight to nine musical exercises, one-third playing on the violin, another on the organ or piano, and another singing. At half past nine in winter, and ten in summer, the pupils retire. There are prayers

* Mr. Henschel.

morning and evening. On Wednesday and Saturday they have half of the day for recreation, and in summer make excursions to collect plants or minerals. A place for gymnastic exercises is provided, and used during the hours of recreation.

The moral education of these young men is closely attended to. They not only receive direct religious instruction, but the best examples are constantly before them. The chief reward for proficiency or good conduct is the approbation of the teachers; the principal punishment, short of dismissal, their disapprobation. The director has, also, the influence, resulting from his power, to give pecuniary assistance to the meritorious while in the school, and to secure them good places at leaving it. The greatest harmony reigns throughout the establishment. On the evenings of Saturday, there are frequently parties in turn among the teachers, to which the pupils are invited, and where there is usually music. Those who have acquaintances in the town are encouraged to visit their families, but the places of visiting must be known to the director.

Physical education is most essential where young men, at the time of life of these seminarists, are sedulously engaged in intellectual pursuits, and necessarily so much confined to the house. They, therefore, have gymnastic exercises or work in the fields or garden, or walk during those periods of the day and parts of the week allowed for recreation. Care is taken that, unless indisposed, they do not remain in the house at those times, when the weather permits them to be in the open air. There is an infirmary for the sick, in which one of the pupils in turn acts as nurse, and a physician is called in when necessary.

The school year is divided into three terms, the first from the beginning of June until August, the second from September to Christmas, and the third from January to May. The holidays are four weeks in August, two at Christmas, and one at Easter. During the first two named, the pupils go home to their friends. Christmas is celebrated in the school, and at the close of the first and second terms there are private examinations, the results of which are communicated to the students. At the close of the third term, the examination for passing from the second to the first class is held, and none are promoted from one class to another unless fully proficient in the courses of the past year. At the end of the second year, they are examined upon the whole range of study, and in composition and orthography. Those who pass satisfactorily receive a diploma, and find no difficulty in obtaining employment as teachers. Some of the most promising are frequently retained in the schools of the institution as assistant teachers, under the appointment of the director. The additional experience thus gained is of importance in a professional, and ultimately in a pecuniary point of view.

Every pupil, on leaving the school with a diploma, makes a drawing, or copies a piece of music or of writing, which he leaves as a memento.

The pupils of all the normal schools are bound by law to serve in such situations as may be assigned to them for three years, or to pay certain sums in lieu of this service.

The domestic economy is superintended by the director, who has a house-keeper under his orders. Dinner is provided at a common table, but each person furnishes himself with breakfast and supper. The diet is of the plainest kind, but there is meat for dinner every day in the week except two.* The police of the establishment is attended to by the pupils themselves. The members of the second class, in turn, have charge of the police of the school-rooms, dormitories, of the lamps, of ringing the bell, &c.; or these duties are executed by those who have fallen under censure. The first class superintend the fires and out-of-door work, have charge of the

* The dinner costs seven dollars and fifty cents per annum, or about two cents and a half per day. If a pupil receives no stipend from the institution, he is charged but half this sum.

cellar, store-room, lavatory, &c. There are three dormitories, under the general superintendence of one of the teachers, aided by pupils selected for the purpose. The bed and bedding are furnished by the pupils at entrance. The lodging of these youths is, like their fare and clothing, of the plainest sort—a plainness which puts in strong relief the richness of the moral and intellectual culture afforded by the institution.*

* The yearly cost of this institution is but about twenty-eight hundred and forty dollars. The director receives a salary of six hundred dollars, which enables him to live very comfortably, and to maintain his proper station, on a par with the burgher authorities, the clergyman, district judge, &c.

SEMINARY
FOR
TEACHERS OF THE CITY SCHOOLS,*
AT BERLIN, IN PRUSSIA.

THIS is one of the more recently erected seminaries, and its objects are declared to be—first, to educate teachers for the city schools; second, to enable teachers to advance in their vocation, by providing them with lectures, and with a library; and third, to enable candidates for the ministry to become somewhat acquainted with the art of teaching, as they are required, subsequently, to act as inspectors of the schools. The first of these is the main object of the institution. The teachers to be furnished are, in general, of the grade required for the burgher schools. This, with its location in the city, renders the general plan of this school different from that already described. The care taken in the selection of the directors of the normal schools prevents the necessity for minute regulations, and does what no regulation can—namely, infuses the proper spirit. Hence, there will always be found differences in the minute details of these institutions, which may not, however, be essential.

The director of this seminary† is also the head of the school of practice attached to it, and already described. There are, besides him, eight teachers for both the school and seminary. The pupils of the latter are about fifty in number.

The pupils generally live out of the seminary, there being accommodations but for sixteen or eighteen within the buildings. It is an important question whether the method of boarding the pupils in or out of the house shall be adopted in these institutions, and I believe that it has been rightly solved, both at Weissenfels and here, adopting in the former school the method of collecting the pupils, and in the latter, of allowing them to dwell apart.

The conditions for admission are nearly those, as to certificates, age, and qualification, of the Weissenfels school, taking as the standard of qualification the attainments of pupils from the preparatory department. Thus, eighteen years is the general age of admission, and the applicants must present to the school-board of the province certificates of baptism, of having attended the first communion, of having attended school, of moral conduct, of good health, and that their parents or guardians will support them while at the seminary. The candidates are expected to be prepared for examination on the principal parts of the Bible and the chief truths of Christianity, and to be acquainted with some of the principal church songs; to express themselves correctly in words and in writing, and to have a good knowledge of the etymology of the German language; to understand the ground rules of arithmetic, proportions, and fractions, and the elements of form in geometry; to possess a competent knowledge of geography and history; to know the use of mathematical instruments, and to have an elementary knowledge of music. The school does not professedly maintain any pupil while receiving instruction, but assists some of those of the second year who are meritorious, and makes a further advance to those of the third year who have shown themselves worthy of their calling.‡

* From Bache's Education in Europe.

† Dr. Diesterweg.

‡ This may amount to sixty dollars yearly. The boarders at the school pay but three dollars and thirty-seven cents per quarter for their lodging. An entrance fee of twelve dollars is paid, which exempts the pupil from further charges for instruction.

The courses are of three years' duration, of which the first is entirely occupied with revising and extending the attainments of the pupil; the second is, in part, devoted to teaching, but under the inspection of the director; and the third is mainly filled up with teaching in the school attached to the seminary, or others of the city. This arrangement is intended, first, to secure a due amount of scholarship on the part of the pupils; and next, to make practical teachers of them. The first essays in their art are made under close supervision; and subsequently, the independent teaching affords them opportunities for comparing the theoretical principles which are inculcated in the lectures at the seminary with their daily observation; and the communication of their remarks in meetings with the director gives them the advantage of his experience in guiding their observation.

The scope of the instruction here does not differ essentially from that at Weissenfels, the subjects being reproduced in a different form. The following table gives the names of the branches, with the time occupied in each of the classes, the third class being the lowest. The course of each class is a year in duration.

The hours of duty are from seven in the morning until noon, and from two in the afternoon until four for the second and third classes, with few exceptions. The first class receive their instruction from half past five until half past seven in the evening, except on Wednesday and Saturday. Wednesday is a half-holiday for the lower classes, as well as Saturday.

The religious instruction is given by a clergyman. The physical education is left much to the discretion of the young men, at least in case of those who live out of the seminary. The school is deficient, as the one already described, in the means of illustrating the courses of natural philosophy and natural history, but the pupils may have access to the natural history collections of the university.

TABLE OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AMONG THE DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENTS AT THE BERLIN SEMINARY.

Subjects of study, &c.	HOURS PER WEEK.		
	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.
Pedagogy	2		
Practice.....	1	4	
Religious Instruction.....	1	2	3
Theory of Music.....		1	1
Vocal Music	1	3	5
German Language.....		2	6
Reading.....		2	2
Arithmetic.....		3	4
Geometry		2	2
Geography		1	2
History		1	2
Zoology		2	2
Mineralogy		2	2
Physics		2	2
Drawing	2	2	2
Writing		1	2
Playing the Violin.....		3	3

The method of instruction, as in the other school, is mainly by lecture, with interrogations. The inductive system is followed in the mathematical branches. The works of the director on these subjects enjoy a high reputa-

tion, and are in use in many of the schools. The exercise called "practice," in the duty of the first class, is that which I have already described, where the pupil gives instruction under the eye of his class-mates and of the director, and this instruction is made the matter of subsequent criticism. Here the seminarists themselves act as pupils, receiving supposed lessons from one of their class; while at Weissenfels, pupils from the seminary class are called in. This latter plan appears to me to have great advantages over the one adopted here, which, however, is used, I believe, only in the case of the first class, who receive lessons at times when the schools are not in session.

SEMINARY SCHOOL OF BERLIN.

THE following account of the City Burgher School attached to the Teachers' Seminary, is taken, with a few omissions, from Bache's *Report on Education in Europe*.

This is a burgher or middle school, founded in 1832, and attached to the Teachers' Seminary of Berlin,* taking its name from this connection. The school is for boys only, and, like other higher burgher schools, it serves to prepare for the third class of a gymnasium, as well as for entrance into active life. The same teachers give instruction in this school and in the seminary, being assisted here by the pupils of the seminary, to whom this serves as a school of practice. There are four regular teachers, besides the director, and also masters for drawing and singing.

The pupils are admitted as early as five and six years of age. The time of year for general admission is Easter. There are six classes in the school, the lower four of which each retain the pupil, if industrious and intelligent, a year, and the two upper, each two years. The whole course thus lasts eight years. Fifteen is, however, the usual age at which those who do not pass to the gymnasium leave the school. The average number of pupils in each class is thirty.†

Every month there is a private examination, in presence of all the teachers, at which the parents may attend. Every three months the pupil receives a note of progress and conduct, to be handed to his parents. Formerly a printed circular was sent, containing information in the form of an abstract from the account kept of recitations and conduct. It has been found, however, much more effectual to give a written statement of the character of the pupil, derived from the school journal, inasmuch as it insures more certainly the attention of parents. At Easter, a public examination is held, and those who have made a proper proficiency in their studies are passed to a higher class.

Arrangements exist by which those pupils whose parents desire it, may study under the superintendence of a teacher,‡ during the time considered necessary for the preparation of the lessons of their class. The following division of the studies of the school is made by the director.

1. RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.—Bible history. History of the Church and of the Reformation. Protestant Catechism.

2. LANGUAGES.—(a) German. Fluency in reading, and readiness in answering questions. Capability of writing an exercise upon an ordinary subject. Grammar of the language. (b) Latin. Orthography, etymology, and the elements of syntax. Translation of an easy Latin author (Cornelius Nepos) into German, or of an easy German author into Latin. (c) French. Knowledge of the Grammar. Facility in the translation of easy authors, and in writing compositions.

3. SCIENCES.—(a) Arithmetic. Mental and written. Positive and negative quantities. Invention and evolution. (b) Geometry. Plane geometry, with practical applications. (c) Natural History. Knowledge of the most important minerals and plants of the neighborhood. General

* Of which Dr. Diesterweg is director.

† The school fees for the four lower classes are three dollars and seventy-five cents per quarter, and for the two higher classes four dollars and fifty cents per quarter, besides a charge of one dollar twelve and a half cents for fuel during the winter.

‡ The fee for private study is four dollars and fifty cents per quarter.

outline of zoology and anthropology. (d) Geography, physical and mathematical. (e) History. Outlines of universal history. History of the country.

4. MECHANICAL ACQUISITIONS.—(a) Reading. (b) A good handwriting. (c) Draughts of models, furniture, &c. (d) Singing.

It will be found, subsequently, that I have taken reading out of this class, and placed it beside the German language, to which it is subsidiary, and where it is classed in the preceding school.

In regard to the methods of carrying out this course, the following rules are laid down, and after carefully visiting the school, I can testify that they are fully observed. Indeed, this is one of the most interesting establishments which I saw, from the liveliness and activity which prevails in its classes.

The principle of induction is used, as far as practicable, in all branches; thus, in the earlier exercises, an object is presented to the pupil, who is led to notice its peculiarities, and to express his conceptions of them. He passes from objects which are known, and even familiar, to the unknown. Unknown objects are illustrated, if possible, by models, and the names of the parts are taught, and their uses or properties examined. The pupil proceeds first from particulars to generals. Subsequently, the order is reversed. He is made to understand whatever he is required to remember; to find out for himself, if possible, rather than to be taught directly.

Historical and similar subjects are taught by lecture, mingled with questions. The pupil is led to express himself readily and correctly; the teacher speaks no more, therefore, than is absolutely necessary for explanation, or to induce suitable answers. Self-exertion, on the part of the pupil, is constantly encouraged. He is taught to observe whatever is interesting. Imitation of what is seen, and repetition of what is heard, lead to original thought. This, however, is to be expected only from pupils of talent, and hence the teacher must be satisfied to allow some to learn what others have found out. The common mistakes of overburdening the mind with positive knowledge, and of too much system in teaching, are to be avoided, as both are injurious to mental development. The teacher must be able to make his subject interesting, and, therefore, should know how to communicate it without a book, and to elicit the knowledge of his pupil by proper questions. It is the mental activity of the pupil which will determine the measure of his success in after life; and hence this activity, rather than positive knowledge, should be looked to as the object of the instruction at school.

In regard to this last-named principle, although I consider it applicable, in a great degree, in elementary education, yet it appears to me that exception must be made of the cases of pupils who intend to enter active life on leaving the school, and to whom, therefore, the knowledge which they will have immediate occasion to use, should be imparted, to render their education effective. In general, where the mind may be cultivated by different studies, choice should be made of those most likely to be applied by the individual in his future career, especially if his education is necessarily to terminate before he can have time to master the complete circle.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

Class VI. Four hours per week. Narration by the teacher of stories from the Old Testament, in the words of the Bible, repeated by the pupils. Easy verses learned by heart.

Class V. Four hours. Stories from the gospels, except the latter portion of the Life of Christ. Church songs and Bible verses learned.

Class IV. Three hours. The Old Testament in a more connected form. The moral of the history is impressed upon the children. The Ten Commandments and church songs committed to memory.

Class III. Two hours. The life and doctrines of Christ, to the period of his imprisonment. Church history. Four weeks are set apart for learning the geography of Palestine.

Class II. Two hours. The Protestant catechism committed to memory and explained. Church songs and verses committed.

Class I. Two hours. A compendium of the history of the Christian Church, particularly after the apostolic age. History of the Reformation. Review of the Bible. Committing to memory psalms and hymns, continued.

GERMAN LANGUAGE.

Class VI. Four hours. Exercises of speech. Stories narrated to the children and repeated by them. After learning to write, these stories are written upon the slate.

Class V. Four hours. Exercises in orthography. Etymology begun.

Class IV. Four hours. Exercises in orthography and style. Every week a short composition is written on some subject which has been narrated.

Class III. Grammar continued.

Class II. Four hours. Original compositions, which are corrected during the recitations. Syntax commenced.

Class I. Three hours. Compositions on historical subjects. Essays written at home, and corrected in the class-room. Syntax continued.

LATIN LANGUAGE.

Class IV. Three hours. Declensions of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns learned. Examples learned by heart, and others written as an exercise at home. Auxiliary verbs conjugated.

Class III. Four hours. Comparison of adjectives. Regular verbs conjugated.

Class II. Four hours. Irregular verbs. Syntax begun. Translation from Latin into German.

Class I. Six hours. Grammar continued. Written exercises at home and in the class. Every four weeks an extempore exercise is written, which the teachers correct out of school hours. Cornelius Nepos read and construed.

FRENCH LANGUAGE.

Class III. Three hours. Exercises in reading. Elements of grammar. Words learned by heart. Easy exercises written at home and in school hours.

Class II. Four hours. Regular and irregular verbs learned. Syntax. Translations from French into German. Words learned by rote.

Class I. Four hours. Written exercises of increased difficulty. Tables dictated and learned by heart. Voltaire's Charles XII. read.

ARITHMETIC.

Class VI. Four hours. Practical arithmetic. The fundamental operations taught with numbers from one to one hundred; first mentally, then with blocks, and afterward with figures. Exercises prepared at home twice a week.

Class V. Four hours. The four ground rules continued, with numbers as high as one thousand. Exercises in reading and writing large numbers. Mental arithmetic especially practiced. Addition and subtraction of abstract numbers.

Class IV. Four hours. Addition and subtraction revised. Multiplication and division of abstract numbers. Weights and measures explained.

Class III. Four hours. The four ground rules, with fractions.

Class II. Three hours. Revision of the above. Rule of three.

Class I. Three hours. In the first year practical arithmetic finished. Proportions and decimal fractions. Elements of algebra. Mental algebra.

GEOMETRY.

Class IV. Two hours. The essential preparatory exercises in form, in connection with drawing. Rudiments explained.

Class III. Two hours. Practice in the position of points, drawing of lines, angles, plane figures, representations of solids.

Class II. Two hours. Elements of geometry proper, the point, line, angles, triangles, and measures of straight lines, surfaces, and contents.

Class I. Two hours. Plane geometry completed, with practical exercises. Every alternate six months lessons in physics are given.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Class II. Two hours. In the summer term, study of certain classes of plants. In the winter term, of animals. The subject is illustrated by drawings.

Class I. Two hours. Systematic botany during the winter term, and zoology and mineralogy during the winter.

GEOGRAPHY.

Class III. Two hours. Knowledge of home, Berlin and its environs. Regency of Potsdam. Province of Brandenburg. Necessary technical terms explained, as horizontal, vertical, &c.

Class II. Two hours. Geography of Prussia and Germany.

Class I. Two hours. General geography, particularly Europe and America. Asia more generally. Africa and Australia very briefly.

HISTORY.

Class II. Two hours. View of universal history, biographical rather than chronological.

Class I. Two hours. First year universal history completed. Second year the history of Germany, and particularly of Prussia. The most important inventions and discoveries are noticed in connection with the history of these countries.

READING.

Class VI. Seven hours. Reading by the phonic (lautir) method. Analysis of words in regard to division into syllables and sounds.

Class V. Seven hours. Mechanical reading continued, but with reference to the meaning of the words. The pupils are examined upon words, sentences, and paragraphs.

Class IV. Four hours. Explanatory reading continued. Accentuation. No piece is allowed to be read without its being understood.

Class III. Two hours. Rhythmic reading begun. Interesting portions of the matter read, narrated by the pupils in their own words.

Class II. Two hours. Rhythmic reading continued.

Class I. Two hours. Reading of some of the German classics. Analysis of the subject read.

WRITING.

- Class VI. Five hours. Introductory exercises of drawing upon the slate. Copying the small letters from the blackboard. Writing on paper. Capital letters. Written exercises at home twice a week.
- Class V. Five hours. Writing of German characters continued. Roman letters begun. Copying from a book at home, with special reference to orthography.
- Class IV. Four hours. Writing in German and Roman characters continued. Two hours copying from copy-slips. Two hours writing from dictation.
- Class III. Three hours. Exercises of Class IV. continued. Pupils who write well are allowed to write without lines. Writing without copies, according to progress.
- Class II. Two hours. Exercises continued. Most of the pupils write without lines, or by directing points merely.
- Class I. The written exercises in other departments are examined, to ascertain the character of the handwriting. No special lessons are given.

DRAWING.

- Class IV. Two hours. Drawing straight lines in various directions and of various lengths. Making definite angles. Drawing triangles, squares, and other rectilinear figures.
- Class III. Two hours. Drawing of circles and ovals.
- Class II. Two hours. Drawing of bodies bounded by planes and straight lines in perspective. Drawing of curves.
- Class I. Drawing from natural objects, from plaster casts, and models.

SINGING.

- Class IV. Two hours suffice to learn fifteen or twenty songs, of one or two verses, by note, and some ten choral songs.
- Class III. Two hours. Songs with two parts continued. Chorals with one voice.
- Class II. Two hours. Songs with two or three voices continued.
- Class I. Two hours. Songs and chorals with three or four parts.

Once during the morning there is an interval for recreation in the court-yard of the school, and the pupils are directed in their exercises of marching and counter-marching, and the like, by one of the teachers.

The course marked out in the foregoing programme, as far as it extends, seems to me well adapted to educate the moral and intellectual faculties, as well as the senses; to give mental vigor, while it furnishes information useful to the pupil in after life.

There are peculiarities in regard to the religious instruction, even as intended for Protestants, which may be remarked in the fifth and third classes, the object of which I do not understand. In other respects, when sectarian instruction may be given, as in this school, where all the pupils are of one denomination, the course appears to be good. The manner of communicating the instruction by conversation and lectures, renders it very effective. There are in all the classes, taken together, twenty-two hours per week devoted to religious instruction here, and eighteen in the other, but the programme does not show a gain in the amount of knowledge communicated.

The course in the mother tongue is fully explained in the programme, and is well adapted to produce fluency and accuracy of expression in conversation and writing. Both this and the foregoing course extend, as they should, through all the classes.

The Latin language is introduced with a view to preparation for a gymnasium, in the nomenclature of natural history, the business of the chemist and druggist, and perhaps, to use the language of an accomplished teacher in one of the higher town schools, "because such always has been the custom." I would give the preference to the course of this school over that of the other, considering the time of twenty-seven hours devoted to it more appropriate than of thirty, as in the other.

The French, besides, combining with the German and Latin to give the due proportion of intellectual culture from language, is introductory to the courses in the real schools, which are parallel with the gymnasia, and prepare for the polytechnic or other special schools, as the latter do for the university. It is practically useful, too, to the shopkeeper and tradesman of the continent of Europe, and was, probably, formerly more so than at present. The Latin language is begun in the fourth class, or at about eight years of age, and the French language in the third class, but neither occupy more than three hours a week, until a year afterward. These languages occupy forty-seven hours per week, during the entire period through which they are taught.

Nothing can be better than the foundation laid for arithmetic. The pupils are

engaged a year in practical arithmetic before they are introduced to a knowledge of abstract numbers. Habits of thought are given by simple exercises in mental arithmetic. The eye is enlisted to aid the mind by computing with cubes, according to the method in the schools of Holland. Written arithmetic relieves the mental exertion, aids the memory, and trains the hand. The course is then carried on, combining mental and written arithmetic, and reaching algebra, which is also, in part, taught mentally.

The course of geometry begins with ideas of form, in connection with drawing, according to Pestalozzi's method, which it follows in general. It is thus a powerful means of stimulating the mind, and, though the time occupied is greater than if the subject were taught in the ordinary way, the results are much more satisfactory. If there is latent mathematical talent in a pupil, his powers of invention cannot fail to be drawn out by this method.

Natural history is not left to incidental instruction, to be derived from the reading-book, but is directly taught in the last two years. I had not the opportunity of judging of the fruits of this instruction in the seminary school itself, but the pupils of the seminary were pursuing the subject with zeal. In comparing this course with that of the other school, I think it preferable, except in the omission, at the beginning, of an account of the domestic animals. There will be, I doubt not, great improvements in teaching this branch at a future day. At present, the plan is hardly formed, and the collections for illustration, where they exist at all, are, in general, quite small. There is, besides, a tendency to make the course too strictly scientific.

The system of instruction in geography is begun in the third class, or at nine years of age, with a description of home. History, which in its elements is combined with geography, takes a separate place in the second class. The practice of giving biographical sketches instead of mere chronological details, cannot be too much commended. The pupil learns with interest the events of the lives of men who have made an impression upon the age in which they lived; these events form an outline which is easily fixed in the mind, and may subsequently be filled up in detail. Again, the discussions of inventions and discoveries in art or science afford relief from the descriptions of battles and revolutions, and serve to show the influence of genius exerted in civil life.

The phonic method of teaching to read, wants only the use of words having a meaning, as in Mr. Wood's system, to be nearly perfect. No reading is allowed, however, without understanding not only the words, but their connection, and the ideas conveyed by the sentences. The habit of thus giving paraphrases of subjects, leads to facility of expression, and by combining this with copying from good models, a correct style is formed. The course of reading of the highest class, includes selections from the German classics. Introductory exercises in drawing precede the instruction in writing; these might, I have no doubt, be much further extended with advantage.* A good handwriting is produced by the succession of exercises described in the programme. The course of drawing, which is commenced as a distinct branch in the fourth class, is intended to enable the pupil to sketch correctly, and with facility, such objects of furniture, machinery, &c., as he may have occasion to represent in his occupations in after life. The addition of two hours of drawing in the fifth class, would seem to me not to overburden the class with work, while it would add materially to their proficiency in this useful branch.

Singing is successfully taught, and by note. It is considered an indispensable branch of instruction, and all my convictions are in its favor, whether as a means of developing moral sentiment, or of physical education. Singing by ear might, however, very well begin in the lower classes, and for this purpose the number of hours of instruction per week might be increased from twenty-four to twenty-six in the lowest, and twenty-eight in the fifth class.

The time allotted to the different studies will appear better by the annexed table. In regard to the ages of the pupils, inserted in the heading of the columns, it is to be understood that they are those of intelligent and industrious boys entering at six years, and going regularly through the classes. The subjects of

* As has been done for the elements of an English hand, by our countryman, Mr. Rembrandt Peale, in his admirable system of graphics. The forms of the German letters would require a different system.

instruction are placed in the first column, the number of hours per week occupied by the several classes in the following ones, and the total number of hours devoted to each subject, while in the school, in the last column. In forming this total, the number of hours occupied by the four lower classes, the course in each of which is of one year, is reckoned once; and the number of hours of the two upper classes, each course occupying two years, is doubled.

Table of distribution of time in the Royal Seminary School of Berlin.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK.						Totals.
	First Class, 12 yrs. 13 yrs.	Second Class, 10 yrs. 11 yrs.	Third Class, 9 years of age.	Fourth Class, 8 years of age.	Fifth Class, 7 years of age.	Sixth Class, 6 years of age.	
Religious Instruction.....	2	2	3	3	4	4	22
German Language.....	3	3	4	4	4	3	27
Reading.....	2	2	3	5	8	7	31
Latin Language.....	6	4	4	3			27
French Language.....	4	4	4				20
Arithmetic.....	3	3	3	4	4*	5	28
Geometry.....	2	2	2				10
Natural History.....	2	2					8
Geography.....	2	2	2				10
History.....	2	2					8
Writing.....	2	2	3	3	4	5	19
Drawing.....	2	2	2	2			12
Singing.....	2	2	2	2			12
	32	32	32	26	24	24	

From this table it appears that language occupies one hundred and five hours, estimating the time devoted to reading with that for German, Latin, and French, science sixty-four hours, and the mechanical branches, including writing, drawing, and singing, forty-three. It would be erroneous, however, to suppose that the results are in these proportions. The least consideration will show that the progress in different branches in the same school cannot be estimated by the time devoted to them; the intrinsic difficulties of acquisition, the different periods of the course at which they are introduced, and various other causes, prevent comparisons of this sort.

* This includes preparatory geometrical exercises

NORMAL SCHOOLS

FOR

FEMALE TEACHERS IN PRUSSIA

THE school system of Prussia, as well as the European system of public instruction generally, is defective in its provision for female education beyond the lowest grades of schools. While boys are highly instructed in language, the elements of science, and the principles of the useful arts, in public schools of a higher grade, the girls, except those of the wealthy and aristocratic classes, are entirely neglected. This has had the effect to open a chasm, broad and deep, between the intelligence and intellectual capabilities of the two sexes—has weakened the power and influence of woman on society—has narrowed the circle of a mother's teaching at home, and shut her out from the wide and appropriate field of employment as a teacher in every grade of public and private schools. The most valuable contribution now making by our American, and especially our New England experience, to the advancement of public education, is the demonstration of the wisdom of giving to every girl, rich or poor, and whatever may be her destination in life, an education which shall correspond, in amount and adaptation, to that given to boys in the same school—and particularly, to such as show the requisite tact, taste, and character, an appropriate training for the employment of teaching. Our experience has shown not only the capacity of woman, but her superiority to the male sex, in the whole work of domestic and primary instruction,—not only as principal teachers of infant and the lowest class of elementary schools, but as assistants in schools of every grade in which girls are taught, and as principal teachers, with special assistance in certain studies, in country schools generally. Their more gentle and refined manners, purer morals, stronger instinctive love for the society of children, and greater tact in their management, their talent for conversational teaching, and quickness in apprehending the difficulties which embarrass a young mind, and their powers, when properly developed, and sustained by enlightened public sentiment, of governing even the most wild and stubborn dispositions by mild and moral influences—are now generally acknowledged by our most experienced educators. Let this great fact be once practically and generally recognized in the administration of public schools in Europe, and let provision be made for the training of female teachers on a thorough and liberal scale, as is now done for young men, and a change will pass over the whole face of society.

Until within ten years no attempt was made to train females for the employment of teaching, except in certain convents of the Catholic church, where the self-denying life which the rules of their establishment

require, and the excellent education there given, are an admirable preparation for the important duties which many of the sisters are called upon to perform as teachers in schools for the poor, as well as for boarding-schools connected with their religious houses.

In 1840, for the first time, a seminary for female teachers, governesses, or rather a seminary course, was established at Marienweider, in the province of Prussia, in connection with a high school for young ladies, instituted by Alberti. The course is for two years. Candidates must be sixteen years of age, must be confirmed, and pass a satisfactory examination in the branches taught in common schools. Instruction is given in French, English, and Italian languages, as well as in the German literature and language, arithmetic, history, geography, natural sciences, music, history of art and esthetics, including drawing, sketching, &c., as well as in the theory and practice of teaching. The charge for tuition and residence can not exceed four thalers a month, and this is reduced according to the circumstances and continuance at the seminary of the pupils. In 1847, there were twenty-two pupils.

In 1841, a class of female teachers was instituted in connection with the celebrated "Diaconissen Anstalt," at Kaiserswerth, erected by Mr. Fleidner. The course for elementary schools occupied two years. In addition to the studies pursued at Marienweider, instruction is given in domestic economy and household work. Practice in teaching is had in the orphan and hospital schools, and the elementary school of the great establishment. In 1848, there were eighty-five pupils, forty-four of whom were destined for infant and industrial schools.

The "school for deaconesses," at Kaiserswerth, on the Rhine, was instituted by Rev. Thomas Fleidner, the pastor of its small Protestant parish, who seems to be acting in a new sphere of Christian benevolence with the spirit of Franké. The main object of the institution was to train females of the right spirit—females who are willing to consecrate a portion of their lives in humility and love to the service of their fellow-creatures, for Christ's sake—to the practical duties of the sick room. The original plan has been extended so as to embrace a Normal department for training young women of the same spirit for teachers of infant schools, as well as an asylum for erring. It is conceived in the spirit, and to some extent, formed on the model of some of the orders of sisters of charity, in the Catholic church. It presents a new application of the principle, and illustrates in a beautiful manner the importance, of Normal or professional training in every department of life which involve art and method. The following account of a visit to the institution is abridged from a communication in *Lowes' Edinburgh Magazine*, for 1846.

"Kaiserswerth is the name of a small village on the east bank of the Rhine, about an hour from Dusseldorf. The village is clean and orderly, but very ancient in its houses, and still more so in the aspect of its church and manse. This circumstance the more fixes the attention of the traveler on a new street running at right angles to the old one. All the buildings in it are peculiar, and piece on but awkwardly with the old manse, whence they spring, and which is occupied by the "School for Deaconesses." The Rev. Thomas Fleidner is pas-

tor of this small parish, and has found full occupation for his benevolent energy in the institution of which he is the founder.

We unwittingly made our visit of investigation on the great anniversary; a day for school examinations, for inspecting the hospitals, and for setting apart, for the exercise of their functions, wheresoever they may be called, such deaconesses as have satisfactorily passed through their period of training. The whole place was therefore in its best attire. Windows bright, walls newly colored, and every here and there, where an arch or a peg to hang a wreath upon could be found, active and tasteful hands had transferred the garden's autumnal treasures of flowers to the various chambers of the dwellings. In a room on one side of the street, the floor was covered with beds for the repose of visiting schoolmistresses and deaconesses who had returned to enjoy the day with their former associates; while, on the other, the hall with its table of many covers, and the savor of good food from the kitchen, indicated that the mother was on that day to entertain her children. In short, it was a gala day—the day of all the year when many acquisitions are brought to light, and for which many a studious preparation is made. As all were engaged in the examination of the orphan-school, we had leisure, while waiting, to observe the characteristic furniture of the manse parlor, where, according to the fashion of the country, the pale sand crackled under our feet. There hangs a portrait of Mrs. Fleidner, the honored and most useful coadjutor of her husband. She has been a fitting mother of that institution, of which he is the father. Having given out all her strength to it, she was in her prime translated from the land of labor and anxiety to the land of eternal rest.

Near her is placed, in meet companionship, a portrait of our Mrs. Fry, whose experienced eye took in at once, with much delight, the utility of the whole institution. On the same wall appears a portrait of Mr. Fleidner's mother, a venerable widow of a former pastor, whose lovely Christian bearing we had occasion to respect and admire, having made her acquaintance in a distant city. She had reared a large family for the church, and suffered many hardships while her country was the scene of French warfare, being long separated from her husband, uncertain of his safety, and moving from place to place with her young children, at times at a loss for a lodging and all necessary provision.

Opposite to these portraits are engravings of some of the Protestant Reformers, among whom appear Luther and Calvin; and in a corner a cupboard with a glass door, furnished with books for sale, chiefly such as are employed in the schools or report their condition. Also the noble set of Scripture prints which was prepared for the institution, but which is now to be found in many seminaries for the benevolent instruction of the young in Germany and Prussia.

Presently an amiable and gentlemanly man, who apologized for his imperfect English, came and guided us to the school-room, in which an intelligent teacher was calling forth the attainments of his pupils. The audience consisted of Mr. Fleidner's co-presbyters, the physician, a few personal friends, the teachers who were that day visitors to the school where they had themselves been trained, and as many of the deaconesses as could be spared from their regular avocations.

The orphans under examination are many of them the children of pastors and schoolmasters. They looked more vigorous and hearty than most children of their age do in Germany, and are receiving good, sound education, which will fit them to help both themselves and others in future life.

We were led from the school-room to the dormitories, and found each containing six small beds, and one larger. The deaconess, who occupies the larger bed, is regarded as the mother of these six children, and fills that office as to washing, clothing, medicating, and instructing them, just as a real mother ought to do. Each bed has a drawer which draws out at its foot, containing all the little tenant's property, and on the opposing wall is hung a tin basin, jug, and tooth-brush for the use of each. The deaconess soon feels an attachment to the orphans spring up in her bosom, while she also feels responsibility about their neat and healthy appearance, proper demeanor, and attainments of all kinds.

We next saw the delinquents' shelter, and two women in charge, one an older, sensible, firm-looking person, whose post is probably never changed, and another younger, her pupil. They showed us with some satisfaction the needle-work they had taught to a set of lowering-browed, unpromising-looking females,

who, like their peers in Scotland, gratify their curiosity by side-peeps, but never look you fairly in the face. From the educational system of Prussia, it rarely occurs that reading requires to be taught to adults. The senior deaconess spoke mildly and sensibly of some intractable, two or three runaways, some reconciled to friends, some restored to society, and acquitting themselves well in service. In short, it was a fac-simile of poor humanity, and the uncertain results of benevolent effort at home. These women sleep in small apartments, which fill one side of a long gallery—each contains a bed, a stool, and a box, and in the midst of them is the room for the deaconess, who is, by means of her open door, enabled to observe all movements, and prevent all communications on the subject of past transgressions. The delinquents are shut into their night-rooms.

In the infant school department, we did not observe any thing differing from what is to be seen in the best schools of the same style elsewhere, unless we might mention an extensive frame of pigeon-holes, each numbered to indicate the proprietor, and occupied by pieces of bread. In this Normal School have been trained teachers who are now engaged in managing the infant population in many parts of Prussia and Germany.

We crossed the little street, and entered, on the opposite side, the hospital, a handsome building entirely of recent erection, in a pretty extensive and neatly laid-out garden, where we observed some patients of all ages—the children at play or carried in the arms of their tender-looking nurse—the adults resting on benches in the sun, for the day was cool, or moving feebly as their reduced strength enabled them.

Our guide, whom we here discovered to be chaplain to the hospital, led us first into the apothecary's room, where we saw two sensible, energetic-looking women compounding medicines after the prescription of the physician. They are licensed by government, serving a regular time to the acquisition of this important branch of knowledge, and are always on the spot to watch the effect of their administrations. The place is fitted up like a druggist's shop at home. We forgot to inquire if the counter, within whose railed-off quarter the chief apothecary stood, is rendered necessary by the shop being frequented by the villagers, which seems probable. The other deaconess was working at a mortar. From this place we passed to the kitchen, and saw the huge apparatus necessary for feeding such a family, and the extra supply required on that festal day, when their family was greatly increased. The plans for keeping food in that warm country, the cleanliness and beautiful order of the larder and laundries, indeed of every corner, was quite remarkable, and the ventilation so perfect, that even when we ascended to wards occupied by persons in bed, or resting on the long benches, who looked very ill, the atmosphere was tolerably fresh and agreeable. Our conductors dropped here and there a good word to the sick as we passed. In the male wards a part of the attendance seems to be done by men, but each has its quota of deaconesses who have their own charge and responsibility. In one chamber we found five women who had joined the establishment a few days before, who were engaged in learning the useful art of cutting out clothing, under two instructors. There was something touching in the ward of sick children, where we saw many eyes beaming tenderness, and many hearts exercising all the maternal instincts, albeit not mothers. Some who were very sick formed for the time the sole charge of one deaconess, while three or four might be intrusted to the care of another. In addition to minute watchfulness over the body, there is, as they can bear it, an endeavor to occupy the memory with suitable hymns and passages of Scripture, and to engage their minds on subjects that lead them to glorify God by honoring and loving Him in the days of their youth. The chaplain was acquainted with each face, and its owner's little history, and tried to draw out a little repetition of their small store of Scripture learning. One could not but remark the useful discipline which such employment must be for the young women who are engaged in it, or fail to observe the loving patience with which one or two met the feverish fractiousness of their nurslings.

The office of these 'sisters of charity,' which elevates them above the common sick nurse, and engages them in concerns that touch on eternity, is that of reading the Scriptures to the sick and aged, and dropping a word of consolation into the languid ear, while they minister to the bodily wants. This they are authorized and expected to do, so that, instead of doing it by stealth, as a pious

sick nurse may do in our hospitals; or, instead of railing on the poor sufferer who cries out in concern for his soul's health, as an impious one has sometimes been known to do, they breathe balm while they turn the pillow, and speak of the way of reconciliation while they endeavor to lull pain. They are by the bed in the midnight hour, and can seize the moment of coolness and clearness to speak to the afflicted—a moment which neither chaplain, nor medical man, nor friendly visitor, may be so happy as to hit upon; and, while they are forbidden to be preachers, their living actions, their Christian bearing, and their faithful advices, are calculated to drop like balm on the wounded spirit, and have, in many cases, accomplished good which we may justly call incalculable, for its consequences are eternal.

After examining the excellent arrangement of the sick wards, we found ourselves in the chapel. It is placed at the lower extremity of the long range of buildings, and so crosses the end of four wards, two on the first, and two on the second story, the door of entrance to the chapel being placed in the center. Each ward has a folding-door of glass in the side of the place of worship, by opening which the Word of God can sound along even to the remotest beds. On communion occasions, the pastor is accustomed to convey the elements into these wards, so that many a fainting soul is thus refreshed, which, in any other circumstances, would be denied the privileges of the house of God. There are, on one side of the chapel, seats where the feeble can recline, and some with muslin curtains, behind which the unhappy or unsightly can find shelter. In this small, but sacred, place of worship, at three o'clock on that afternoon, October 5th, were the deaconesses, whose term of training was satisfactorily come to a close, questioned before the congregation with respect to their willingness to devote themselves to the work of mercy for the next five years, and having assented to the engagement proposed to them, they were solemnly set apart by prayer. They are now prepared to go to whatever city or country, to whatever hospital, or Normal Institution, or private family they may be called, the taste and capacity of the individual of course being consulted; for it must be carefully explained that there is nothing like a monastic vow of 'obedience to the church' in this affair, and that the engagement is formed subject to being set aside by the claims of nearer domestic duties, if such should arise. Some deaconesses have been called away to assist their own families, some have been lost to the Institution by entering on the conjugal relation. In truth, unfortunately for their vocation, they are rather too popular, as making excellent wives. But while one regards this circumstance with regret as respects the scheme, it is delightful to contemplate the sister of charity transformed into the rearer of her own children in the fear of the Lord.

In conversing with Mr. Fleidner, before taking leave, on the utility of forming such an institution in Scotland, he suggested, as a fundamental and absolute necessity, that it be ascertained that all who are admitted to the school are persons renewed in the spirit of their minds, and willing, under the guidance of the Holy Spirit, to devote themselves in humility and love to the service of their fellow-creatures for Christ's sake.

The two Prussian provinces of the Rhineland and Westphalia are united for its support, and it is under the superintendence of the Protestant Provincial Synod. Above one hundred deaconesses are now at work in different parts of Germany. Sixty are occupied in seventeen hospitals and orphan-houses at Berlin, Dresden, Frankfort, Worms, Cologne, Elberfeld, &c. Several are engaged for large congregations which have no hospital, and about twenty are sent out at the request of private families to nurse their sick members, &c. Five are now at work in the German hospital at Dalston, near London: one of them is matron of the establishment. It can readily be apprehended how uniformity of language, ideas, methods of preparing food, &c., will render these acceptable nurses to their sick countrymen.

In this country we lack a little of the German simplicity, and are so nice about distinctions of rank, and what belongs to our supposed station in society, that it may excite strong displeasure if we say that there are many single women in Scotland, of the excellent of the earth, who are not so useful in the church as they might be; that the reason of this is their want of proper guidance in selecting their work, and of support in its prosecution, and that the deaconess' status in society, and the style of character and bearing expected from her, is exactly what is wanted to confer the necessary energy and steadiness.

At Kaiserswerth, there are scholars not only of the middle classes, but several of the higher ranks of life. The king of Prussia, having taken a lively view of the utility of the Institution, is now forming a large model hospital at Berlin—a baroness, trained under Mr. Fleidner, is its destined matron; and twelve well-trained deaconesses are without delay to be called into active employment there. The principle on which the deaconess is required to act is that of willingness to be a servant of Christ alone; to devote herself to the service, without the worldly stimulus of pecuniary emolument, and without over solicitude about worldly comforts; to do the work of charity and self-denial, out of gratitude to her Savior.

Her wants are all supplied by the Institution, respectably, but without superfluity; while the salary paid annually for her services by the family, parish, or hospital, by which she is employed, is paid to Kaiserswerth. From the fund thus accumulated, the supplies of the deaconesses are derived, and those of them who have suffered in health, in consequence of their services, are by it entirely sustained.

The deaconess, with her healthful, beaming, loving countenance, distinguished from her neighbors only by her dark print gown, a white habit-shirt, and cap, (a bit of head-gear that one often misses painfully, even on grey-headed German matrons,) looks all animation, attention, and lively collectedness of spirit.

There is at Kaiserswerth the simplicity of real life in this working-day-world, as exhibited by persons whose actions are under the influence of grateful love to their Lord and Redeemer, and to their fellow-pilgrims."

In 1846, a Seminary for female teachers was established in connection with a new Institution for young ladies, in Friedrichstadt, Berlin. The course extends through two years, and includes the branches and practical exercises before specified. In all teachers intended for governesses, particular attention is paid to music, drawing, and the Italian and French languages, as well as to the literature of the German.

In 1847, a regulation was adopted for the examination of female teachers in the province of Bradenburg. The examination is conducted by a committee consisting of one member from the school-board of the province, and the directors and two teachers of the new seminary in Friedrichstadt. It is confined, unless the applicant desires a certificate for a higher school, to the branches taught in the primary schools. It is conducted by written answers to a few questions in each branch, to be made out without books, and without conference with each other; in conversation on the same subjects and pedagogical points; and in giving trial lessons in teaching. A record is taken of the examination, and if the result is satisfactory, a certificate is issued by the school-board of the Province. If the pupils of the seminary in Friedrichstadt can pass a similar examination before leaving the institution, they are not subjected to any farther examination.

PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

FOR

NORMAL SEMINARIES.

THERE is much diversity of opinion among the directors of seminaries as to the best preparatory course for those who propose to become Normal pupils, after they leave the primary schools, and before they are of age, or have the requisite knowledge to enter the seminary. To meet the want of some preparation, there has grown up a class of institutions, devoted, in whole or in part, to this specific work. In some instances, these institutions exist in connection with the seminary, as a sort of high school; in others, they are located in large towns, apart from the seminaries; and in other cases, they are nothing more than private classes under clergymen, or retired teachers. In the province of Brandenburg, in 1847, there were thirteen preparatory institutions, besides twenty-two clergymen, or teachers, occupied with preparing pupils for teachers' seminaries.

In the seminary at Königsberg the preparatory school is the ancient orphan house (*orphanotrophy*) established by Frederick III., Duke of Prussia, the day on which he declared his dukedom to be a kingdom, and himself king, under the name of Frederick the First. At Breslau, and at several other places, the preparatory school is a charity school for poor scholars, but receives pupils, rich or poor, who wish to become teachers.

Dr. Harnisch, in his treatise on the common schools of Prussia, objects to these preparatory schools, and prefers that the young candidate, after leaving school, should serve a sort of apprenticeship to an older teacher, be engaged a portion of the day in household work, assisting in every form of labor, high and low, which his master or guardian may have to perform, for the purpose of developing his practical talent, giving him a knowledge of life, of men and things—that sort of “round about” common sense, which nothing but actual contact with practical life will give. This the director deems of more importance than the additional book-learning which the candidate would have acquired in a regularly-conducted school, even though his studies are shaped to his future profession.

The experience of the ablest directors in Germany demonstrates the importance of receiving into these institutions only pupils who have the right spirit, and who have reached an age, and had that discipline of life, which can decide the calling of the individual. Otherwise the Normal course may turn out valuable thinkers, men of learning and ability, with a large fund of practical knowledge of good methods, and yet deficient in that creative spirit, and that love of the details of the profession, which make the superior teacher.

SAXONY.

THE constitution of Saxony, although monarchical, is based upon representative institutions. The members of the lower chamber are elected by freeholders, and almost every head of a family is a freeholder.

Saxony was one of the earliest of the German states to convert the parochial schools of the old ecclesiastical organization into public schools, and to provide for the special training of teachers to the duties of their profession. In the cession of a large portion of her territory to Prussia in 1816, several of her best teachers' seminaries, and higher literary institutions, were transferred to that power, and with them went several of her most devoted and distinguished educators, and among them the celebrated School Councilor Dinter.

The present school law was given in 1836, and since that time more has been done in Saxony for the improvement of common schools than in any other German state. Particular attention has been paid to the regular attendance of children at school; to the supervision of both public and private schools, and to the qualification and compensation of teachers.

A number of common schools, corresponding to the wants of the people, is insured by a division of the kingdom into school circuits (*schul-bezirke*,) and all the children residing in each circuit must attend the school there established. No boy can be apprenticed until after the age at which he may lawfully leave school. Congregations of different religious persuasions are allowed to establish schools in their circuit, and if no other school exists than one so established, all the children of the circuit are bound to attend it; they are not, however, required to take part in the religious instruction.

Every school circuit must furnish a school-house, and a dwelling for the teacher. The schools are supported from funds of the church, from the interest on donations to the school fund, from fines levied on parents who neglect to send their children to school, from a payment made to the school fund in purchases of property, from collections, from the fees paid by the pupils, and from direct taxation. These funds are chargeable with the master's salary, with the furniture of the school, books and slates for poor children, prizes, insurance, and incidental expenses.

Primary schools in Saxony, as in Prussia, are of two grades. In the

lower, or elementary school, pupils must receive instruction, by law, in:—
1. Religion. 2. Exercises of speech and reading. 3. Calligraphy and orthography, with written exercises on subjects relating to the affairs of common life. 4. Mental and written arithmetic. 5. Singing. 6. The most important portions of natural history, geography, and history, especially those of the country. The details of the school plan are left to the teacher and local school inspector.

In the higher grade, or lower burgher school, the amount taught in these branches is increased, and exercises of style, geometry, and drawing, are added.

The books used in the Protestant schools are, the Bible, Luther's Catechism, the hymn book, and three reading books, the selection of which is made by the local school inspector. In the Roman Catholic schools, the selection of books is left to the ecclesiastical authorities.

The regular time for attendance is six hours on three days in the week, and four on two other days, making twenty-six hours per week. The vacations are regulated by the church festivals, and last about a week at a time. Children above ten years of age, in the country, are exempted, during harvest time, from attendance at school.

The punishments are chiefly addressed to the moral sentiments, but corporeal chastisement, in extreme cases, is allowed. The code of discipline is required to be placed in a conspicuous situation in the school-room.

Every child must attend school for eight years, (from the age of six to fourteen,) and there is attached to each school a person whose duty it is to ascertain the causes of the absences of pupils, and who is entitled to a small fee from the parents for each call he makes upon them. According to statistics in the "German School Gazette," every child of a suitable age and of sound capacity was in some school, public or private, for a portion of the year 1846.

The kingdom is divided into four circles, in each of which there is a school board, which has charge of all primary schools, and teachers' seminaries, and regulates all appointments of teachers, and all pecuniary allowances—subordinate only to the Minister of Public Instruction.

Next in authority is a district board of inspectors, having charge of a certain number of schools—subordinate to the school board of the circle. The district board consists of a superintendent, the highest ecclesiastical and civil authority in the district, and a representative of the patrons of each school. The superintendent is the district inspector; who must counsel with the board, visit all schools, and report on the fidelity and capacity of each teacher.

The lowest authority is a committee for each school circuit, composed of four persons, one of whom must be a clergyman, who must assemble on fixed days to consult together for the interests of the schools, must hold semi-annual examinations in the presence of the district inspector, and report annually on the condition of the classes.

No person can be licensed who has not attained twenty-one years of

age, passed one examination as a candidate, served two years as an assistant, and passed a second examination of a higher grade; as, by the law of 1825, he must have graduated at a teachers' seminary. There are now nine of these institutions, besides a seminary for classical teachers, which was established in Leipsic in 1784, by Beck, and in which Hermann and Klotz subsequently gave instruction, for twelve students in philology, meeting twice a week. The annual graduates of these Normal Schools are now sufficient to supply all vacancies which occur in the schools. The state appropriates 14,050 thalers, (about \$12,000,) annually to the support of these seminaries.

The prescribed course of instruction occupies four years, and no one can now receive a certificate of qualification as a teacher without having gone through this course, or showing an amount of attainment and practical skill which shall be deemed its equivalent.

The seminaries were located as follows in 1848:

Two at Dresden,	} The Royal,	with 7 teachers and 71 pupils.
		The Fletcher,
One at Freiberg,	" 4 " " 73 "
One at Zittau,	" 2 " " 13 "
One at Bredissin,	" 6 " " 42 "
One at Plauen,	" 5 " " 45 "
One at Grimma,	" 6 " " 70 "
One at Annaberg,	" 3 " " 12 "
One at Waldenberg,	" 2 " " 15 "

The Royal Seminary at Dresden was founded in 1785, by Elector Augustus IV., and formerly possessed the celebrated Dinter as one of its directors. It was intended for fifty pupils, with a staff of four officers, including the directors. All the pupils, except those whose parents live in Dresden, board and lodge in the institution with the officers. Calinisch, one of the highest educational authorities in Germany, is vice-director. Connected with the seminary are six common schools, of the city, in which the pupils of the seminary acquire practice.

The Fletcher Seminary was founded by Baron Fletcher in 1825, and has its own administration, although it is aided by the government. Provision is made in the institution for twenty pupils, who, for the annual charge of about \$30, receive board, lodging and instruction, and in the second and third year of their course, a still larger allowance is made, especially to the poor and deserving. There is an institution for deaf mutes in the same building.

The government makes its appropriation in aid of local effort, and funds and graduates its payments according to the character and standing of the several teachers—providing that no teacher shall receive less than 130 thalers in the country, and 140 in the towns, besides a residence. In 1846, out of 2,142 teachers, only 315 received less than 130 thalers, (equivalent here to \$130,) and all but 687 were engaged not only through the year, but permanently, and had a residence.

The government has also established, on a foundation of 30,000 thalers, an institution, commenced in 1840, by Döhner, for superannuated teachers,

and the widows and orphans of teachers. To secure the benefits of the fund, teachers of the first class, (teachers in gymnasia, real schools and seminaries,) pay at their admission 4 thalers, and annually from 4 to 8 thalers, according to their salary. Teachers of the second class, (of common schools,) pay 2 thalers, and yearly from 1 to 4 thalers, according to their salary. The state takes care of the funds, and makes up any deficiency of the revenue of the fund to meet the demand upon it, besides a contribution of 2,000 thalers toward the capital. The fund yields:—1. To the widows of teachers of the first class, yearly, 60 thalers. 2. To orphans of teachers of the same class, 12 thalers until they reach their eighteenth year. 3. To widows of teachers of the second class, 30 thalers, and to their children 8 thalers. Teachers are thus not only provided against want while living, but from anxiety for their families, when dead, or incapacitated for active exertion. The result of these wise provisions on the part of the government, is seen in the improved and improving condition of the schools, and the higher attainments, professional skill, and social standing and influence of the teachers.

With a population of 1,809,023 in 1846, there was one university with 85 professors and 835 students; six academies of the Arts and Mining, with 43 professors and teachers, and 1,400 pupils; eleven gymnasia, with 131 teachers, and 1,590 pupils; six higher burgher and real schools, with 18 teachers, and 270 pupils; three special institutions for commerce and military affairs, with 43 teachers and 240 pupils; nine teachers' seminaries, with 41 teachers, and 362 pupils; seventeen higher schools of industry or technical schools, with 72 teachers and 779 pupils; sixty-nine lower technical schools, with — teachers, and 6,966 pupils; twenty-four schools for lace-making, with 37 teachers and 1,928 pupils; and 2,155 common schools, with 2,175 teachers and 278,022 pupils; besides one institution for the blind; one for deaf mutes; three orphan asylums; and a number of infant schools and private seminaries.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE TWO CLASSES AT THE FLETCHER NORMAL SEMINARY IN DRESDEN.

The course is of four years' duration, fresh pupils being received and departing every two years. Those that come in the fifth half year would be placed in the second class of the following scheme, and at the end of the eighth half year in the first class. Those entering in the first half year would be in the second class till the fifth half year.

Subjects of Instruction.	1st Half year.		2d Half year.		3d Half year.		4th Half year.		5th Half year.		6th Half year.		7th Half year.		8th Half year.	
	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.
1. Biblical Knowledge	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.
2. Biblical History	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.
3. Bible Explanation	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
4. Catechism			4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.
5. Art of Questioning			2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
6. Catechetical Exercises	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
7. Exercises in Thinking			2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
8. Psychology and Art of Teaching.			2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
9. School Discipline			2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
10. General History			4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.
11. German and Saxon History.			4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.
12. Latin			2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
13. Composition	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
14. Arithmetic	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.	common to both.
15. Geography	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.	4 h.
16. Natural Philosophy	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.	3 h.
17. Writing	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
18. Violin	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.
19. Singing	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
20. History of the Church			2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
21. Geometry			2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
22. Grammar	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.
23. Reading	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
24. Natural History			1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.
25. Drawing			2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
26. Thorough Bass	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
27. Organ	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.	2 h.
28. Piano	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.	1 h.

NOTE.—h. stands for the hours devoted to each subject of instruction during the week.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION							
PURSUED IN THE THREE CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY, ESSLINGEN, WURTEMBERG, IN THE SUMMER HALF YEAR OF 1839.							
HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
6 to 7	{ First Second Third	Arithmetic, Methods of instruction,	Art of questioning, Arithmetic,	Geometry,	Art of questioning,	Arithmetic,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic.
8 to 9	{ First Second Third	Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.
9 to 10	{ First Second Third	Methods of instruction, Geometry, Grammar, Thorough bass,	Religious instruction, Religious instruction, Composition, Thorough bass, Composition,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic. Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.
10 to 11	{ First Second Third	Religious instruction, Singing, Singing, Geometry or violin, Organ, Drawing,	Religious instruction, Methods of instruction, Arithmetic or piano, Organ or methods of in- struction, Drawing, Organ, Recitations, Organ, Writing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic. Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.
11 to 12	{ First Second Third	Singing, Singing, Geometry or violin, Organ, Drawing,	Religious instruction, Methods of instruction, Arithmetic or piano, Organ or methods of in- struction, Drawing, Organ, Recitations, Organ, Writing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic. Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.
1 to 2	{ First Second Third	Organ, Recitations, Writing, Drawing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Methods of instruction, Arithmetic or piano, Organ or methods of in- struction, Drawing, Organ, Recitations, Organ, Writing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic. Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.
2 to 3	{ First Second Third	Recitations, Writing, Drawing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Methods of instruction, Arithmetic or piano, Organ or methods of in- struction, Drawing, Organ, Recitations, Organ, Writing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic. Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.
3 to 4	{ First Second Third	Methods of instruction, Natural philosophy,	Religious instruction, Methods of instruction, Arithmetic or piano, Organ or methods of in- struction, Drawing, Organ, Recitations, Organ, Writing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic. Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.
4 to 5	{ First Second Third	Methods of instruction, Natural philosophy, Piano, Singing, Methodic, Thorough bass,	Religious instruction, Methods of instruction, Arithmetic or piano, Organ or methods of in- struction, Drawing, Organ, Recitations, Organ, Writing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic. Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.
5 to 6	{ First Second Third	Methods of instruction, Natural philosophy, Piano, Singing, Methodic, Thorough bass,	Religious instruction, Methods of instruction, Arithmetic or piano, Organ or methods of in- struction, Drawing, Organ, Recitations, Organ, Writing, Piano,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Profane history, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Natural history, Piano or geometry, Grammar, Composition, Grammar,	Religious instruction, Attend model school, Geography, Piano or arithmetic, Composition, Grammar, Recitations, Grammar,	Methods of instruction. Arithmetic. Attend model school. Profane history. Piano or geometry. Grammar. Geometry. Examinations. Examinations.

** Further instruction in instrumental music is given in the evening.

WIRTEMBERG.

WIRTEMBERG was one of the earliest of the German states to establish a graduated system of public instruction, from the common school to the university, and has always shared largely in all the educational movements of Germany. The framework of the school system in operation in 1848, was substantially the same as it was in 1538, enlarged from time to time to meet the demands of the age for new institutions and a more liberal and practical instruction. With a population of 1,750,000 there were the following institutions, aided by the government, in 1847:

One University at Tübingen, with six faculties, seventy-one professors, and 800 students.

Nine Real Schools, with seventy teachers.

Six Gymnasia, each with ten professors and three assistants, (that at Stuttgart has twenty-six professors.)

Five Lycea, each with seven teachers.

Eighty-seven Latin Schools, in which eighty-six classical teachers, sixty-six real teachers, and forty-four assistants are employed.

One Protestant Theological Seminary at Tübingen, with fifteen teachers, and four preparatory theological schools in other parts, each having six teachers and thirty pupils.

One Catholic Theological Seminary.

One Polytechnic School, with twenty-one teachers and a course of instruction embracing four years, for engineers, architects, &c.

One Institute for Agriculture and Forestry at Hohenheim, the most complete agricultural establishment in Europe.

One Veterinary School, with five professors.

Two Orphan Houses, each having 278 orphans.

Seven Schools of Art and Drawing.

One Superior Seminary for Protestant girls, at Obenstenfeld, with eleven teachers.

One Superior Seminary for Catholic girls, at Stuttgart, with thirteen male teachers, and thirteen female teachers.

One Institute for Deaf Mutes and the Blind.

One thousand four hundred and fifty-five Protestant Common Schools.

Seven hundred and eighty-seven Catholic Schools.

Six Teachers' Seminaries.

These institutions, providing on a liberal scale for the educational wants of the whole community, are all in some way aided by the government, and subject to its supervision through the Home Department. Subordinate to this department is the Evangelical Consistory, having charge of the Protestant, and the Church Council, having charge of the

Catholic seminaries, of the higher grade. Below these, for each of the four circles, or districts into which the kingdom is divided, there are Superintendents of each denomination, for the Real and Latin Schools; and School Inspectors for the Common Schools; and Directors of School Conferences, (Teachers' Institutes,) which are held four times in each year, for the improvement of the teachers, at different points.

Each *locality*, comprising thirty families, is compelled by law to have a primary school. Localities containing a population of less than thirty families, are compelled by law to unite with a neighboring locality in the establishment of a school. If the neighboring locality is at a distance of more than two and a half English miles, or the road thereto dangerous, then the Government Committee of Education can decree the establishment of a separate school even for fifteen families.

If in a community of different religious^o confessions the minority comprises sixty families, they may claim the establishment and support of a school of their own confession at the expense of the whole community. The expenses are paid by the whole community, without regard to religious confessions, and by each individual in proportion to the amount of taxes paid by him. In poor communities the government contributes in part toward the salary of the schoolmaster and repairs of the school.

The salaries of the schoolmaster are, in places containing 4000 inhabitants, 350 florins* and house-rent; in places containing less than 4000 and more than 2000 inhabitants, 300 florins, and house-rent. In a school where more than sixty scholars attend, 250 florins, and house-rent. In a school where less than sixty scholars attend, 200 florins, and house-rent.

Second schoolmasters receive a salary of 150 florins, and are allowed one room and fuel. An assistant schoolmaster (candidate) receives a salary of 120 florins. In a school where the number of scholars exceeds ninety, two schoolmasters are allowed; if more than 180 scholars, three schoolmasters; if more than 270 scholars, four schoolmasters; and so on in proportion.

The school hours are, in summer, four hours per day; in winter, six hours per day.

The school is under the inspection of the clergyman of the confession to which the schoolmaster belongs, and under the control of the presbytery.

There is in each district a special school inspector, who is a clergyman. The visitation of the schools is made by the school inspector of the district, the clergyman, and the presbytery of the community. The attendance of every child at the primary school is compulsory, unless he frequents a superior school, or receives private instruction, such as he would obtain at the primary school. If parents forbid their children's attendance at the school, or do not allow their receiving private instruction, they subject themselves to a fine, and even imprisonment; and if afterward they should still refuse to allow the children to attend the school, then the police is requested to adopt such measures as will compel the children to visit the

* A florin is thirty-eight cents.

school. If a child, by reason of health or otherwise, is unable to attend the public school, then the parents or guardians are obliged to see that he receive private instruction, and, if unable to pay for it, the community is obliged to supply the means. Children who have not frequented the primary schools, are equally obliged to attend the public examinations.

The right of selecting a teacher for a vacant school belongs to the locality, but in many instances, the locality has ceded this right to the authorities having the supervision of the seminaries. The professional training and improvement of teachers in public institutions are provided for by six Teachers' Seminaries, sixty Teachers' Associations or Conferences, and twelve annual courses of one or two weeks duration, similar to our Teachers' Institutes, held at twelve different places in the kingdom.

The candidates for the post of schoolmaster are not permitted to enter the seminary before they have reached seventeen years of age; nor does their education for that most responsible situation, nor the proofs of their capability for it, begin at their entrance into the Normal School. Long before that period they must give notice of their intention to devote themselves to such pursuits, and must undergo a previous preparation of two years ere they are allowed to enter the seminary.

The course lasts two years, tuition is free, and the poor receive assistance as to board.

The Seminary at Esslingen, under Director Denzel, is one of the oldest and most celebrated seminaries in Europe. It was founded in 1757, and with only sixty pupils, it has a director, two chief masters, and three assistants. The director is the author of the most complete treatise on education in any language. It is entitled the "*Introduction to the Science and Art of Education and Instruction for Masters of Primary Schools.*" Six volumes, Stuttgart, 1839. The author thus explains the reason of his undertaking the work in his preface to the last edition:

"When, three and twenty years ago, I entered upon my present occupation, great exertions were already in progress for the improvement of the elementary schools of Germany. Much had been accomplished in particular states, and much active discussion was going on with respect to the methods pursued, and the best means of raising the qualifications of the schoolmaster. But the times required something more than had yet been done for the popular schools. It came more and more to be understood that the school was not merely a place of instruction, but of education; that the common and necessary acquirements of the arts of reading, writing, and ciphering were not to be the sole or the principal objects of its care, but rather the unfolding and strengthening of the mental and bodily powers of the child conformably with nature and circumstances. When this began to be held to be the province of the elementary school, a new era broke upon it. Viewed in this its new and loftier position, it assumed a totally different aspect, and all relating to it required to be dealt with in a more serious and scientific manner. This salutary change of view respecting the real character and destiny of the elementary school, though long in progress, became at length universal, chiefly through the genius and exertions of Pestalozzi, whose principles, even where only partially adopted, facilitated and infused a new spirit into the processes of teaching."

He proceeds to state that, being called at that period to the duty of training schoolmasters, and therefore desiring to find some manual or treatise which embraced the entire subject, according to the enlarged views then entertained of it, he was unable to meet with any that satisfied his wishes. Those that he found, either merely embodied the old views or contained fragments only of the new. After many fruitless attempts to compose out of those fragments something that would serve as a groundwork for his course of teaching, he found himself compelled to form a treatise for himself; which has grown, with the experience of twenty years, into the valuable "Introduction," now widely known by his name. The following is the summary of his introductory course of instruction to teachers:

PART I.

- Chap. 1. Man as an organized, sentient, and intellectual being.
 2. Constitution and qualities of the body and mind.
 § 1. Of the body.
 § 2. Of the mind and its principal faculties.
 A. The feelings.
 B. The understanding.
 C. The will.
 Union of the highest powers in a Christian faith.
 Varieties of natural constitution and disposition, and their causes.
 3. On the liability of the faculties and disposition of childhood to take a wrong direction.
 4. On the natural course of development in childhood, boyhood, and youth.
 § 1. On the gradual development of the mental powers.
 5. Man in his social state.
 6. Man as an immortal being.

PART II.

1. On education in general.
 2. On the training of the body.
 3. On the training of the mind.
 § 1. On the regulation of the feelings.
 § 2. On the strengthening of the understanding.
 Observation and attention.
 Imagination.
 Memory.
 Judgment.
 § 3. On the regulation of the will.
 The moral sense.
 Force of habit.
 The love of what is right.
 Obedience.
 Perseverance.
 Order and punctuality.
 § 4. Religion—The best means of fixing religious impressions on the mind of a child.
 4. On educating boys and girls together.
 5. On rewards and punishments.
 6. On elementary instruction.
 § 1. Subjects—On the proper periods for commencing each.
 § 2. Method—The synthetic.
 Requisites of good teaching.
 Apparatus, &c.

In his second volume, the author enlarges on some of the principles laid down in the first, and on the spirit and object of the primary school, the best modes of organization and management, &c. The third and remaining volumes form a School Manual of four complete "courses," for children between the respective ages of six and eight, eight and ten, ten and twelve, twelve and fourteen. The subjects treated of at length, for the guidance of teachers, are object lessons, instruction in reading, writing, and ciphering, religious instruction, grammar and etymology, geography, elements of geometry, singing, elements of natural philosophy and natural history, composition, &c. General expositions of the principles to be kept in view, and the ends to be aimed at, are given, together with specimens of the lessons in detail, and the substance of a useful course under each head.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

IN

HESSE-CASSEL, AND NASSAU.

THE Electorate of Hesse-Cassel, with a population of 750,000 inhabitants, has three seminaries for teachers, viz.: at Fulda, Homberg and Schluchtern.

The course of instruction embraces three years, and each seminary receives sixty pupils, who are divided into two classes. The division of time and allotment of studies in one of the best of these seminaries in the summer of 1839, may be seen on the opposite page.

NASSAU.

The Duchy of Nassau, with a population of 420,000, supports one Teachers' Seminary at Idstein, which in 1846 had 154 pupils. The course lasts five years, four of which are devoted to a regular course of instruction in a thorough review of the studies pursued in the elementary schools and the acquisition of studies which facilitate and illustrate the teaching of the former, and the fifth, exclusively to the principles and practice of education. Pupils are admitted at the age of fourteen years. The library of the institution is free to teachers in any part of the Duchy, and the books are forwarded and returned by the government post without charge. In 1836 the government expended 3,596 thalers toward the expenses of board and lodging of the pupils.

HANOVER.

The Kingdom of Hanover, with a population of 1,790,000, supports seven Teachers' Seminaries. One of these, established in 1848, is devoted to the education of Jewish teachers. The course embraces three years, and, in addition to the studies and exercises embraced in the seminaries for Protestant and Catholic teachers, includes the study of Hebrew, the Old Testament, and the commentaries of Hebrew scholars on the same. This is a practical religious toleration beyond any thing seen in the rest of Europe. One of the seminaries is designated as the Chief Seminary, and receives as pupils only those who have already taught school.

The practice of "boarding round," which constitutes one of the distinguishing marks of a bad state of public education, still prevails to some extent in Hanover. "I confess with shame," said a Director of a Teachers' Seminary in Hanover, to Professor Stephens, now of Girard College of Orphans, "that this relic of barbarism may still be seen in a few villages of the kingdom, but it must soon vanish before the light which a well-educated class of teachers is diffusing among the people." This "relic of barbarism," necessarily disappears, where the business of teaching becomes a profession, and the teacher becomes permanently employed in the same place.

MECKLENBURG SCHWERIN.

The Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin, with a population of 515,000, supports two seminaries, viz.: at Ludwigslust, and Rostock. The last is in connection with the University, and embraces a course of three months for students of Theology, who wish to be appointed temporarily to situations as teachers.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED BY THE TWO CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY AT SCHLUCHTERN, HESSE CASSEL.

HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
7 to 8 . . .	First . . .	Attend model school, Life of Christ,	Attend model school, Life of Christ,	Attend model school, Life of Christ,	Attend model school, Life of Christ,	Attend model school, Life of Christ,	Attend model school, Catechism.
8 to 9 . . .	First . . .	Catechism,	Catechism,	Catechism,	Catechism,	Catechism,	Art of questioning.
	Second . . .	Bible explanations,	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.	Bible explanations,	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.
9 to 10 . . .	First . . .	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ.
	Second . . .	Composition,	Thorough bass,	Geography,	Composition,	Singing.	Geography.
10 to 11 . . .	First . . .	Natural philosophy,	Arithmetic,	Catechetical exer- cises,	Natural philosophy,	Composition,	Arithmetic.
	Second . . .	Reading,	Grammar,	Geometry,	Grammar,	Geometry,	Grammar.
11 to 12 . . .	First . . .	} Singing,	Violin,	{ Thorough bass,	} Singing,	Violin,	{ Singing.
	Second . . .			{ Writing,			{ Writing.
1 to 2 . . .	First . . .	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ,	Attend model school, or practise organ.
	Second . . .	Piano,	Drawing,	Botany,	Piano,	Drawing,	Botany.
2 to 3 . . .	First . . .	Botany,	Art of teaching writing,	Attend model school,	Botany,	Attend model school,	Geography.
	Second . . .	Piano.	Piano,	Biblical history,	Piano,	Piano,	Singing.
3 to 4 . . .	First . . .	Reading and explan- ation of German classics,	German history,	Geography,	Reading and explan- ation of German classics,	German history,	.
	Second . . .	Piano,	Piano,	Reading,	Piano,	Piano,	.
5 to 6 . . .	First . . .	Religious instruc- tion,	Art of teaching,	Botanical excur- sions,	Religious instruc- tion,	Art of teaching,	.
	Second . . .	} Open air exercise,	Open air exercise,		Open air exercise,	} Open air exercise,	} Open air exercise.
6 to 7 . . .	First . . .						
	Second . . .						

BAVARIA.

BAVARIA is divided into eight provinces, 230 chief towns, 351 market towns, and 15,120 villages and parishes.

The administration of public instruction is committed to four bodies, as follows: 1. A local committee for each school, appointed by the committee for each province, after consultation with the district committee. 2. A district committee for each town and village. 3. A provincial commission for all of the schools of each province, one of whom only is paid, and he must be a councilor of state. 4. A chief or head commission of four persons residing at Munich, one of whom is paid, and two of whom must be laymen. At the head of this commission is the Minister of Worship and Public Instruction. The second, third and fourth committees are appointed by the king, who also appoints from time to time special inspectors. The effective management of the schools is with the provincial commission. The special inspectors appointed by the king, are selected from this board.

All parents must send their children to some school, public or private, from six to fourteen years of age, or be fined. The support of the schools is borne by parents (varying from seventy-five cents to \$1,50 per year in quarterly payments, for each child;) by a local and provincial tax, voted by each district and province; and by the state, which appropriates about \$300,000 annually, in aid of local and parental efforts. The rate paid by parents and by districts, is collected with the ordinary taxes.

The course of instruction is the same as in the primary schools of other states of Germany. Religious instruction is given to the children on stated days and hours. If a school is composed of scholars belonging to different sects, the religious instruction is given by the pastor of each sect.

Every school according to law must have a small nursery-garden under the care of the teacher, where the pupils may learn the mode of treating trees and plants. Out of 6065 German schools, it appears from the official reports that 5284 had such grounds attached.

By a regulation adopted in 1836, every teacher appointed to a public school, must have qualified himself at one of the Normal Schools. There are seven of these institutions now in operation, viz.: five for Catholic teachers, at Bamberg, Eichstadt, Speyer, Keiserslautern, and Lauingen; two for Protestant teachers, at Altdorf and Schwabach.

The oldest Seminary is at Bamberg. It was founded in 1777, as a Normal School, according to the meaning at that time conveyed by this designation,—that is, a model or pattern school, to which teachers resorted for observation, and a temporary course of lectures, and was raised into a seminary, composed of teachers, in 1791. The course of instruction in 1846, was as follows :

1. Religion,—explanation of the catechism, Bible History, and sacred songs.
2. German Language, speaking, reading and writing.
3. Geography, including Natural History, and History.
4. Arithmetic.
5. Drawing and Geometry.
6. Penmanship, with constant exercises in composition.
7. Music, vocal and instrumental.
8. Pedagogics, general principles of education, methods of instruction, discipline, and administration of school affairs.

The number of pupils in 1844 was thirty-one, for whom there were three permanent teachers residing in the institution, and several teachers employed in special branches from the town. The pupils board in the Institution, and are charged a small fee for the privileges of instruction, including board, lodging, tuition, &c., which is, however, reduced from time to time, in consequence of diligence and proficiency. It does not exceed \$38 in any case. The course embraces two years. Out of study hours the pupils are under the special supervision of two of the instructors.

For the Protestant teachers there are two seminaries, one at Altdorf, and the other at Schwabach.

Jacobi, who was formerly inspector of the Seminary at Altdorf, and is now director of the new Protestant Seminary at Schwabach, published the following outline of a plan for a Seminary, in his *Pedagogical Journey* in 1847, and which, we may now conclude, he is aiming to realize in the institution now in his charge.

“For the location of a seminary I should choose a large town; for, however much may be said in favor of country towns, there are in large towns more means of culture and teaching; teachers and pupils are more easily provided with board; the institution is subjected to a more constant and intelligent inspection, and there is less exposure to a change of teachers, on account of the desirableness of a town residence to an educated man, and the facilities of education for sons and daughters.

I would have a large, healthy and attractive building, without any thing repulsive in or about it, and in it there should be accommodations for the Director, a housekeeper, and sixty pupils.

Each teacher should have his separate department: to one teacher should be assigned Religion, pedagogic and didactic; to another, German Language, literature and history; to a third, *Realia*, (natural science,) arithmetic, penmanship, and drawing; and to a fourth, the whole course of musical instruction and practice. Each teacher must not only be master of his branch, but must have a practical power and skill to form future teachers in his department, without being obliged to call in aid from any other teachers.

Every teacher should be adequately compensated, so as to give his whole time and soul to the institution, and he should rank with the professors in the gymnasium, and be subordinate only to the supervision of the highest governmental authority.

Every teacher should exhibit sincere piety, exemplary conduct, a glowing zeal in the cause of education, and an enthusiastic attachment to the institutions of his country; found always on the side of education, religion and his king, and above all, of his profession. The Director must be a good theologian, and must be so thoroughly trained in every department of study pursued in the institution, as to be able to answer promptly the questions of the pupils; must be a good musician, and a ready and gifted speaker, so as to be able to touch the heart in leading the devotions and public exercises of the institution. He must also be a man of business habits, and possess a tact in governing and moving others to his purposes. To such a director I would cheerfully commit the charge of the seminary, and to whom all other teachers must be subordinate, so far as the impulse and direction of the instruction and exercises are concerned.

I would be very cautious in introducing text books, which may afterward be followed exclusively by the pupils, when they become teachers. Every text book used in the school should be subjected to the sharpest competition and most rigid scrutiny, as to its principles and methods.

The regulations of the Seminary should be few and general, leaving the details of administration to the Director and a council of the teachers. It would be a matter of indifference to me, whether the pupils studied by themselves, or together, recited a particular study in the forenoon or afternoon, provided the best good of all was secured, and the great end of the Institution realized in producing good men, sincere Christians, sound scholars, and faithful and able teachers.

From time to time, the Institution should be visited by the highest authorities of the church and state, but not by subordinate and local school officers."

Bavaria has a population of about 4,250,000. The Educational Institutions consist of

3 Universities, viz., at Munich, with	1,329 students,
" Erlangen,	300 "
" Würzburg,	408 "
9 Lyceums, with	3,110 "
24 Gymnasiums,	85,681 "
32 Mechanics' Schools,	7,495 "
70 Latin Schools,	
3 Polytechnic Schools,	493 "
9 Normal Seminaries,	696 "
6,065 German, or Common Schools,	556,239 "

One Institution for the blind; one Institution for deaf mutes; one College or Higher Seminary for young ladies; one Academy of science; one School for artists.

GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.

THERE are four Normal Schools, or seminaries for teachers, in the Grand Duchy of Baden, viz.: at Carlsruhe, Ettingen, Meersburg, and Müllheim. Before giving a brief outline of the course of instruction pursued in the Normal School at Carlsruhe, we will give a condensed analysis of the plan upon which the primary schools of Baden are organized—drawn from the laws and ordinances now in force. The Grand Duchy is one of the most advanced constitutional states of Germany, and one the best provided with educational institutions.

With a population in 1844 of 400,000, there were—

Two Universities—one at Heidelberg, with 710 students.

“ at Freiburg, “ 485 “

Four Lyceums, or High Schools—a grade below the University.

Six Gymnasiums—devoted mainly to high classical instruction.

Six Pedagogiums, or Schools preparatory to the Lyceæ.

Fourteen Latin Schools—preparatory to the Gymnasium.

Eight Seminaries for young ladies.

Four Normal Schools—one at Carlsruhe, for Protestant teachers.

Catholic “

One Institution for the deaf mutes.

One Veterinary School.

One Polytechnical School, with 200 pupils.

One Trade School.

One Military Academy.

2121 Common Schools, each with different grades or classes.

SCHOOL AUTHORITIES AND INSPECTION.—These institutions are all under the general supervision of the State, from which they receive in some form aid annually. Their supervision is committed to the Department of the Interior, subordinate to which there exists an Education Department or Council, consisting of one member for each of the four districts or circles, into which the State is divided. In all regulations respecting religious instruction, the highest authorities of the Protestant and Catholic churches are consulted.

For the primary schools, there is a School Board, or committee for each of the four districts, which must be consulted by the local school authorities in the founding of a new school, or suppression of an old one, and respecting all changes in the appointment of teachers. The board has the appointment of a School Visitor for all the schools of the district, who holds his office six years, and is paid out of the State appropriation for educational purposes, and a School Inspector for the school or schools in each town and rural parish.

The lowest school authority consists of the Inspector as chairman, the

mayor, or highest civil officer of the locality, the vestry of the parish among Protestants, the trustees of all ecclesiastical foundations in Catholic communities, and the directors of synagogues in Jewish communities. These constitute a local or parochial school committee. In large towns, on special application, the State Education Department can appoint a special board to take charge of all the schools, and of any separate school for a particular religious denomination.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.—Children whose sixth year terminates between the 23d of April of one year and the 23d of April of the year following, are bound to commence their schooling with Easter of the second year. A year is allowed where infirmity or similar disabling causes are proved to the satisfaction of the school authorities.

The parish clergy, who keep the registers, have to furnish the school authorities with a list of all children whose schooling begins at the next following Easter. To this list is added of all children not born in the place, and which has to be drawn up by the school authorities. These lists are to be handed to the schoolmasters; and one fortnight after the school is opened, the schoolmaster has to return to the authorities the names of such children as attend the school, as well as those of the absent children. The latter are to be forced through the police to attend school, except where their absence is excused or explained for reasons hereafter to be stated.

Children leave schools also at Easter. Boys on having completed their 14th year, and girls their 13th year, or expecting to complete it before 25th April of that year. If by that period children who have attained these ages are not sufficiently advanced in the objects of instruction specified, they may be kept one or two years longer. Every scholar obtains a certificate on his leaving school.

Children who have private instruction, or who attend higher institutions, for the purpose of obtaining better instruction, are free of the school, but require a certificate from the school inspectors. Private seminaries must be authorized by the upper school authorities. This authorization cannot be refused where the applicants are in every respect approved candidates as masters; but such establishments must make good the school money which they abstract from the regular schoolmaster.

Every week the schoolmaster is required to give to the school authorities a list of such children as have been absent without leave, or who, having absented themselves, did not satisfactorily account for their so doing, together with number of days' absence. This list is handed to the burgo-master, who forwards it to the parents of the children, and imposes a fine, varying from 2 kreutzers ($\frac{2}{3}d.$) to 12 kreutzers ($8d.$) for every day of non-attendance.

STUDIES IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—The studies in the elementary schools are—1. Religion. 2. German language. 3. Writing. 4. Arithmetic. 5. Singing. 6. General instruction on subjects of natural history, natural philosophy, geography, and geometry; also on points appertaining to health and to farming. 7. Where there are sufficient means, drawing is to be taught. The last-named subjects are to be treated in such a manner that the more essential first five points are not to suffer by the attention bestowed upon them.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—1. Schools that have but one teacher are to be divided into three classes, to be counted from the lowest as *first* upward.

In the summer half-year the third or highest class has two morning hours of schooling daily; the second class has also two morning hours, and the first or lowest class has two hours in the afternoon.

In the winter half-year the third or highest class has three morning hours of instruction daily. The second class the first afternoon hour alone, and

the second in conjunction with the first class or beginners. One of these classes is to be employed in writing, under the inspection of a proper monitor selected from the scholars, while the other class is taught by the teacher. On half-holidays (Wednesday and Saturday) the morning hours, three in summer and four in winter, are to be proportionally divided among the three classes.

2. When there are two teachers, the elder scholars are to be placed under one teacher and the younger half under the other. The school is then divided into four classes, each teacher taking two, and each class has instruction for three hours daily, both in summer and in winter, excepting on half-holidays, when each class has but one hour and a half in the morning.

If the number of pupils does not exceed 210, they may be divided into three classes, with the consent of the school authorities. If boys and girls are instructed simultaneously, the division indicated above, into higher and lower classes, each under a separate teacher.

Where there are three teachers, one is to instruct the beginners in the two first classes. Where the upper classes are composed both of boys and girls, the elder pupils are under one teacher and the younger ones under the other, or the sexes may be separated.

With four teachers, two distinct schools are formed, of four classes each, the arrangements being such as are already indicated.

These arrangements, being fixed by the Education Department, in conference with the parochial school authorities and the Inspector, may be modified to suit the exigencies and the means of larger towns or villages, provided that nothing be so arranged as to interfere with the rules that no class is to exceed 70 in number; that each class is to have three hours' instruction daily, and the upper boys' class to have four in winter, with the exception of half-holidays, when the instruction is to be for them two hours, and for the others half hours.

In places where industrial schools for girls are established, no change in these arrangements is to be made in consequence. Changes made, in consequence of the aid of an assistant being required from the ill health of the master, or an increase in the number of children, are to be reported to the Inspector, who will report upon them when submitting the results of his inspection to the Education Department.

3. The advance of children from one class to another takes place after the examination, with the approval of the Inspector, and with due regard to the age and natural powers of the pupils. When the parents do not consent, a child can only be required to continue at school beyond the legal age on an authorization of the Education Department through the Inspector.

4. Care is to be taken that the pupils assemble punctually at the fixed hours, and they are clean in person and attire. They must also behave with propriety both on their way to and from school and while at school. The injunctions concerning their conduct are to be publicly read to the pupils at the beginning of every half-year, and are to be hung up in every school-room.

The pupils can be placed in their respective classes, according to their conduct and diligence, every week or month; but in the first classes oftener, if the teacher thinks it advisable.

Permission to absent themselves from a single lesson may be granted by the teachers; for more than one, the permission must be obtained from the school Inspector.

Punishments consist in reprimands, in giving a lower place in the class, in tasks after school hours, and, where obstinate persistence in faults is observed, in blows with a cane on the hand in a manner that is not dangerous. The teacher only takes cognizance of faults committed in school, or on the way to and from school. Bad conduct at other times is only punished at school when the parents and guardians palpably neglect their duty.

5. The school-rooms should have ten feet in height, and be built on a scale of six square feet to a pupil.

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION.—The aim of the primary school is to cultivate the intellect of the child, and to form his understanding and religious principles, as well as to furnish him with the knowledge requisite for his station in life. Instruction must, therefore, be imparted in such a manner as shall improve the mind.

The pupil must have his attention sharpened, and his intellectual energies must be brought into activity. He must learn nothing mechanically. The memory must not be cultivated, except in connection with the understanding and the feelings. The formation of every idea is to be preceded by the requisite insight into its fundamental principle, whether exemplified by objects or figuratively. In all explanations the elementary principles must precede the complex views. What has been learnt must be made familiar by frequent application and illustration. The instruction given in the different classes must correspond with the plan here laid down.

Religious Instruction.—Care must be taken that the lesson in religion does not degenerate into a mechanical learning of sayings and of chapters from the Bible. The pupil's insight into all points must be clear and well grounded; his feelings must be roused, and his good propensities must be confirmed.

The nature of the instruction given in religion is to be regulated in detail by the highest authority in the various confessions; it is to be communicated through the catechism and school books approved by these authorities and sanctioned by the State. In this lesson the duties of the citizen are to be enforced.

The school is to open and close daily with a short prayer or hymn, and the children are to be kept to regular attendance at church, the subject of the last sermon being a matter for the catechist to examine them upon.

Grammatical Instruction.—Grammatical instruction must be connected with exercises in correct thinking, as well as in the fittest mode of giving expression to thoughts. The consideration of the correctness of an idea must precede that of the mode of expressing it.

The organs of speech must be exercised until completely formed, and a due modulation of the voice must be cultivated. The writing lesson must teach neatness and a love of form.

Arithmetical Instruction.—Comprises the four rules, preceded by proper explanation of the properties and nature of figures, and simultaneously exercised, mentally and in writing. The mental calculation is to precede the written sum on all occasions. After practicing the rules in whole numbers, fractions, and with given simple or compound quantities in examples applicable in common life.

In the second class the construction of simple geometrical figures is to be taught both to boys and girls. In the highest class the use of the square and compass, and the mode of reducing to proportionate dimensions, is to be taught.

Musical Instruction.—The classes range as follows:—

First class.—Exercises of the ear and the voice. Simple solo airs.

Second class.—Duets and easy chorus singing.

Third class.—Chorus and ornamental singing.

General Instruction.—In natural history and philosophy, geography, history, sanitary points, and agriculture, will be imparted by the pieces selected in the reading-books, and can be enforced and illustrated by additional examples and reasoning on the part of the teacher.

Division of Time.—Half an hour daily must be devoted to religious instruction, but this time may be prolonged or abridged, according to the subject-matter treated of.

The study of the mother-tongue, combined with reading and writing, is to occupy a portion of six days in the week, in addition to copies to be written out of school hours. Arithmetic is to be taken four times, and singing twice in the week. Instruction in matters of general interest is to be given to the second class once and to the highest class three times in the week.

The plan of the school is to be arranged between the teachers and the Inspector for every half-year, and a draft of it must be laid before the school authorities once a year, together with the results of the inspection. When the children appear behindhand in particular points of instruction, more time must be appropriated to those in the following year.

If the scholars of one school be of different religious confessions, care is to be taken that they receive their religious instruction at the same hour. If the school belong exclusively to one confession, but is also attended by children of another confession, the instruction in religion must be fixed in the last hour of attendance, that such as do not participate in it may go home, or wherever such instruction may be provided for them.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE TWO CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY, CARLSRUHE, IN THE SUMMER HALF YEAR OF 1899.

HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
7 to 8	First . . . Second . . .	New Testament, New Testament, Singing,	Old Testament, Old Testament, Geography,	Geometry, Catechism, Organ,	New Testament, New Testament, Geography,	Old Testament, Old Testament, Singing,	New Testament. New Testament. Natural history.
8 to 9	Second . . .	Profane history, Organ,	Composition, Singing, Grammar,	Singing, Singing, Geography,	Organ, Singing, Singing, Grammar,	Geography, Arithmetic, Singing, Singing, Grammar,	Natural history. Organ. Composition. Organ.
9 to 10	First . . . Second . . .	Arithmetic, Grammar,	Singing, Grammar, Geometry,	Singing, Singing, Grammar,	Singing, Singing, Profane history, Organ,	Arithmetic, Singing, Singing, Grammar, Organ,	Composition. Organ. Organ.
10 to 11	First . . . Second . . .	Singing and organ, Natural history, Writing,	Organ, Natural philosophy, Agriculture, Arithmetic,	Natural history, Singing,	Profane history, Organ, Natural history, Writing, Drawing,	Arithmetic, Singing, Singing, Grammar, Organ, Natural philosophy, Agriculture, Arithmetic,	Composition. Organ. Organ. Arithmetic. Natural history. Singing. Organ. Art of teaching deaf and dumb.
11 to 12	First . . . Second . . .	Natural history, Writing, Drawing,	Agriculture, Arithmetic, Geometry, Historical composi- tion,	Writing, Drawing, Drawing, Writing,	Arithmetic, Singing, Singing, Grammar, Organ, Natural philosophy, Agriculture, Arithmetic,	Art of teaching deaf and dumb. Composition. . . .
2 to 3	First . . . Second . . .	Drawing, Writing,	Geometry, Historical composi- tion, Organ,	Drawing, Writing, Organ, Piano and organ, Piano and organ,	Geometry, Composition, Geometry, Geometry, Organ,	Composition. . . . Singing. Singing. . . .
3 to 4	First . . . Second . . .	Drawing, Writing,	Geometry, Historical composi- tion, Organ,	Drawing, Writing, Organ, Piano and organ, Piano and organ,	Geometry, Composition, Geometry, Geometry, Organ,	Composition. . . . Singing. Singing. . . .
4 to 5	First . . . Second . . .	Geometry, Organ, Piano and organ,	Historical composi- tion, Organ,	Piano and organ, Piano and organ, Piano and organ,	Geometry, Composition, Geometry, Geometry, Organ,	Singing. Singing.
5 to 6	First . . . Second	Historical composi- tion, Organ,	Piano and organ, Piano and organ, Piano and organ,	Geometry, Composition, Geometry, Geometry, Organ,	Singing. Singing.

AUSTRIA.

AUSTRIA has a system* of education which, from the village school to the university, is gratuitously open to all, and which, in all its departments, is based on religion, and governed and molded by the State. Its universality is secured not by direct compulsion, as in Prussia, but by enactments which render a certificate of school attendance and educational proficiency necessary to exercise a trade, or be employed as a workman,† to engage in the service of the State in any capacity, or to be married. Besides this, it is made the interest of the wealthy landholders to contribute liberally for the education of their tenants and the poor, by throwing upon them the support of the pauper population.

All the institutions for education are under the supervision of a Board or Council (the Hof-studien Commission) at Vienna, composed of laymen appointed by the crown, and at the head of which a Minister of Public Instruction was placed in 1848. It is the duty of this body to investigate all complaints against these institutions; suggest and prepare plans of improvement, and counsel the crown in all matters referred to them. Under them is a graduated system of superintendence, to be exercised jointly, by the civil and spiritual authorities in the various subdivisions of the empire. The bishop and his consistory, jointly with the landestelle, has charge of all the scholastic institutions of the diocese; the rural dean, jointly with the kreisamt, of those of a district; the parochial incumbent, and the civil commissary, those of a parish. This general arrangement has reference to the Catholic establishment; but the proper authorities of the Protestant, Greek, and Hebrew churches are substituted for those of the Catholic, for all that regards the members of their several communions.

There are six classes of schools subjected to the superintendence of the education-board; namely, the popular, the gymnasial, the philosophical, the medico-chirurgical, the juridical, and the theological. The four last of these form separately the objects of various special institutions; and, combined together, they constitute the four faculties of the universities.

The gymnasium is the school for classical learning, mathematics, and elementary philosophy.

The popular schools comprehend the establishments of various degrees, in which instruction is imparted of a more practical character, to those whose station in life does not fit them for the study of the learned languages. The lowest of these are the *volks-schulen*, or, as they are often termed, the *trivial* or the *German* schools, established, or intended to be established, in every district or parish of town or county, for the primary instruction in religion

* The following account of the educational system of Austria is abridged mainly from Turnbull's *Austria*, published during the present year in London. Some of the statistics are from Hawkins's *Germany*.

† Turnbull mentions an instance of a large manufacturer in Bohemia, who was fined for employing a workman not provided with the requisite certificates of education.

and morality, reading, writing, and accounts. In the larger places are also numerous *upper schools*, *haupt-schulen*, wherein a somewhat more extended education is given, for persons designed for the mechanical arts and other similar pursuits. These have an upper class called *Wiederholungs-schulen*, or Repetition Schools, who receive instruction in drawing, elementary geometry, and geography, and with it is combined a Normal School for teachers in the *volks-schulen*. In the larger towns are also commercial academies, termed *real-schulen*, in which are comprised two divisions of scholars: the one general, receiving instruction in accounts, geography, and history; the other special, having, in addition thereto, teachers in book-keeping and the principles of trade for mercantile pupils, in natural history and rural economy for those intended for agricultural life, in mathematics, chemistry, and principles of art for students in the higher arts, and in various foreign languages, especially English, French, and Italian, for those who may desire to receive such instruction. In the *volks-schulen* girls are taught, except in rare instances, in separate rooms from the boys; and for the superior instruction of females there are distinct establishments corresponding with the *haupt-schulen* and *real-schulen* of the boys, many of them managed and directed by certain communities of nuns, which are especially preserved for the purpose of education. Industrial schools of various kinds, and for both sexes, are also in some parts combined with these more general educational institutions; but the expenses attending such establishments prevent their being very numerous.

The establishments thus last described constitute the class of *popular schools*. The next above these are the *gymnasial*; of which there are one, or two, or several, in each district, according to the extent of its population. The pupils of the gymnasium are divided into several classes: the earlier ones are taught in religion, moral philosophy, elementary mathematics and physics, and Latin philology. To these subjects are added, for the more advanced classes—partly as perfect courses at the gymnasium, and partly as introductory to the higher instruction in the same branches at the lyceum or university—general history (and especially that of Austria), classical literature, Greek philology, æsthetics (namely, rhetoric, poetry, and a knowledge of the fine arts), and the history of philosophy. Above the gymnasium are the eight universities of Prague, Vienna, Padua, Pavia, Lemberg, Gratz, Olmutz, and Innsbruck; to which must be added the Hungarian university at Pesth. These are divided into two orders—those of Prague, Vienna, Padua, Pavia, and Pesth, are of the first, having chairs for all the four faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy; the others have a smaller number—as, for instance, Gratz, which has but three, having no professorship of medicine, and Lemberg, which has only two. In further addition, according to circumstances and localities, professorships are established, either at the gymnasium, the lyceum, or the university, in the Italian and Oriental languages, in theoretical agriculture, astronomy, chemistry, mechanics, and other branches of practical science.

In most of the provincial capitals, where no university exists (in such towns, for instance, as Linz, Laybach, Klagenfurt, &c.), there is an institution, under the name of *Lyceum*, which answers the purpose of a minor university; wherein public courses of lectures are given in some or all of the four faculties, and in other branches of knowledge. The *degree* cannot, indeed, be taken at the lyceum in any of the faculties; but certificates may be there obtained, which are accepted in lieu of those of the universities, for a large number of cases where certificates are required, and for youths who require them not, the education of the lyceum, extending as it does to the highest Greek and Latin classics, and natural philosophy, answers every purpose of general education. Of these lyceums, there are, in the empire, twenty-three under Roman Catholic direction; besides eleven Protestant,

Lutheran or Calvinist, and one Unitarian. For the instruction of the Hebrew subjects there are gymnasiums and other schools, wherein the same books are read as in the general establishments of the empire, except only that works of Jewish are substituted for those of Christian theology. In special branches of knowledge, the government establishments are very numerous: medical and surgical academies, clerical academies, polytechnic schools, military institutions in all branches, and a college for the Eastern languages, &c.

The popular schools are inspected and directed by the parochial incumbent, who, with a view to this duty, is bound to receive instruction, previous to his induction to a benefice, in the system of scholastic management, or, as it is termed in the language of the edicts, the *science of pædagoggy*. He is required, at least twice a week, at certain fixed hours, to examine and catechise the pupils, and to impart to them religious instruction; the parish or district being obliged to provide him with a carriage for that purpose, when the schools to be visited are distant from his residence. He orders removals from lower to higher classes, and grants those certificates, without which no pupil can pass from the popular school to the gymnasium. He is bound to render, periodically, statistical and discriminating returns on the state of the schools, both to his spiritual superior and to the *kreisamt*; to urge on parents the great importance of education to their offspring; and to supply books to those who cannot afford to purchase them, and clothes (so far as the poor fund or private contribution may enable him to do so) to such as, for want of clothing, are prevented attending the schools. Where children of different creeds are intermixed in one school, religious instruction and catechization is confined to the last hour of the morning and afternoon attendance, during which hour the non-Romanists are dismissed, to receive instruction elsewhere from their respective pastors; but where the number of non-Romanists is sufficiently great to support a separate school, the minister of that persuasion, whatever it may be, is charged exclusively with the same duties as, in the general schools, are imposed on the parish priest. To ministers of all professions an equal recourse is, by the terms of the ordinances, allowed to the aid of the poor fund and of the grants from the *kreisamt*. If the schools be too distant or too numerous for the proper supervision of the local minister, a separate instructor is named by the bishop, or, if the school be Protestant, by the provincial superintendent; and, for the visitors of all denominations, the expense of a carriage is equally borne by the public. Except in the points above enumerated, the parochial minister has no power to act, but only to report; in all those connected with defects or deficiencies of the buildings, he, in conjunction with the civil commissary, reports to the *kreisamt*, and in those of merely scholastic nature, as well as in the conduct of the teachers, he addresses his remarks to the inspector of the district.

The teachers at all the popular schools are required to produce testimonials from the Normal School at which they have been instructed, and receive their appointment from the diocesan consistory, or from the provincial chief of any special religions for which they may be intended, but require in all cases the confirmation of the *landestelle*. They are provided with residences attached to the schools, together with fixed stipends during good health and good conduct, and are allowed superannuation pensions, which, if they shall have served for a period of ten years, are extended to their widows, and to their orphans under fourteen years of age.

Each district has an *aufseher*, or *inspector* (named by the bishop from among the parochial clergy holding benefices therein), who compiles detailed statements on every point connected with education, for his spiritual superior, and for the *kreisamt*. Once a year he makes a tour of personal inspection, examines the pupils, distributes rewards to the best scholars, and super-

vises alike both the ministry and the teachers; most especially enforcing the rule, that those books only shall be used, and those instructions only be given, which have been commanded by imperial edict. Above these district inspectors, each diocese has a higher officer, under the name of *oberaufseher*, or inspector-general, who is named by the crown, and is in most cases a member of the cathedral chapter. His supervision extends not to the *volks-schulen* only, but also to the *real* and the *haupt-schulen*; and for these purposes he is the *district-inspector* for the city of his residence, and the *inspector-general* for the whole diocese. He is the official referee, whose opinion the consistory are bound to demand in every exercise of their educational functions, and by whom they are in fact principally guided; since every matter wherein their sentiments may not agree with his, must be referred to the decision of the landestelle. He examines and certifies teachers for appointment by the consistory; receives quarterly statements in all details from his subordinate inspectors, and embodies them into general reports, for the landestelle and the crown; finally, as supervisor of spiritual instruction, he examines candidates for orders, and novices for monastic vows, and grants certain testimonials of proficiency which are indispensable for their admission.

To the *episcopal consistories*, headed by the bishop, is committed the general supervision of all the scholastic concerns of the diocese, the regulations of matters of discipline, the communication of instruction, and the investigation of delinquencies. It is a part of their functions to order the erection of schools, to appoint the teachers, to authorize the payment of pensions to teachers in sickness or in age, and to their widows and orphans, when entitled to them; but in these points, as in all others which involve any exercise of real authority, patronage, or influence, their acts are invalid without the confirmation of the landestelle. For the professors of non-Romanist creeds, these respective functions are discharged in their several gradations by officers of their own persuasion. The Protestant *seniors* and *superintendents* are the district-inspectors and the provincial inspectors-general for their respective communities; and the functions of the diocesan consistories are transferred to the central Calvinistic and Lutheran consistories at Vienna.

The schools of higher degree, the Gymnasium, the Lyceum, the Theological Seminary, and the University, are all, as well as the popular schools, more or less subjected to the supervision of the diocesan and his consistory; but these depend more immediately on the educational board at Vienna. Over each of them presides a director, who is charged with the general management, in point both of discipline and instruction, acting under the orders of the board, or the edicts of the emperor. The various professors and teachers are all either named or approved by the landestelle, or the educational board; the same discriminating precautions being adopted as at the popular schools, for the religious instruction of those who profess non-Romish creeds. In every station, and in the various branches of education, the pupils are subjected to half-yearly examinations by authorized visitors; and from the result of these examinations, as well as from the testimonials which each is bound to produce as to moral conduct, and also as to religious knowledge from the minister of his communion, the director forms the reports which are furnished to the government.

For the erection of *popular* schools, certain rules are laid down which insure their erection as occasion may require. Although no ordinances compel education, yet the inducements held out to desire it are so great, that for schools of this description there is a constantly increasing demand, partly arising from the people themselves, and partly instigated by the spiritual and civil authorities; and, indeed, so urgent have of late years been applications to this effect, that it has become a usual, although not universal practice, to

require of the parishioners, or the inhabitants of the district petitioning, that they shall bind themselves by voluntary assessment to bear the whole or a portion of the attendant expenses. After the locality has been fixed by the aufseher and the kreisamt, it depends on the landestelle to issue the decree that the school be built; and, this being done, the law then provides for its gratuitous erection and completion. The lord of the soil is bound to grant the land and the materials; the inhabitants of the district to supply the labor; and the patron of the parochial benefice the internal fittings-up; all subsequent repairs, as well as the hiring of buildings for temporary accommodation, being a charge on these three parties jointly.

Notwithstanding, however, these ample provisions for general education, it will be readily conceived, that in a country where certain classes possess large pecuniary means and high aristocratic feelings, instruction cannot be absolutely confined to public institutions. In Vienna and other cities, many academic establishments of a superior order exist, endowed in the manner of our public schools; and in these, or in the schools of the monasteries before mentioned, wherein boarders are permitted to be received, or, finally, under private tutors in their own families, a large portion of the higher classes receive their education.

SCHOOLS FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, IN AUSTRIA, IN 1838.

Countries.	Population in 1838.	Children from 5 to 13 years of age.	Primary Schools.		Repetition Schools.		Sexes attending school.		Total Children at school.	Instructors.			Cost of Schools in Florins.
			No. of Primary Schools.	Children in actual attendance.	No. of Repetition Schools.	Children in actual attendance.	Boys.	Girls.		Religions.	Lay.	Total.	
Lower Austria	1,400,000	157,105	1,101	154,179	1,019	58,200	118,891	98,488	212,379	1,127	2,212	3,389	841,007
Upper Austria	846,000	90,576	626	86,485	606	41,435	65,580	62,340	127,920	718	1,114	1,832	185,371
Bohemia	4,173,000	526,569	3,470	494,329	3,431	229,812	376,580	347,451	724,041	1,361	5,781	7,142	475,967
Moravia and Silesia	2,172,000	287,782	1,886	272,638	1,855	177,239	231,826	218,051	449,877	1,899	8,026	4,425	264,706
Gallicia	4,728,000	514,308	1,869	67,278	591	30,022	67,065	80,235	97,800	905	2,037	2,942	124,627
Tyrol	839,000	106,439	1,618	107,507	1,191	46,673	80,697	73,488	154,180	1,539	2,185	3,724	101,436
Styria	976,000	101,990	624	76,869	567	35,106	61,468	50,512	111,975	647	967	1,614	89,626
Carynthia and Carniola	764,000	85,533	365	27,817	404	16,805	24,435	20,187	44,622	358	518	876	110,545
Illyrian coast	476,000	59,250	111	9,917	84	3,816	9,588	3,650	13,233	101	229	327	65,738
Lombardy and Venice	8,664,000	588,665	5,178	288,009	280	8,968	191,167	70,808	261,975	3,697	5,905	9,602	826,800
Transylvania	2,026,000	202,600	1,522	51,348	30	720	32,585	19,588	52,068	428	1,507	1,930	60,000
Military Frontier	1,198,000	126,674	1,113	64,550	776	20,903	56,803	29,150	85,453	862	1,266	2,128	180,598
Dalmatia	390,000	39,000	53	3,962	"	"	3,355	607	3,962	46	98	144	19,370
Total	23,652,000	2,886,441	19,536	1,674,788	10,784	664,197	1,814,460	1,024,525	2,338,985	18,188	26,842	40,025	2,795,791

TABLE II.—INSTITUTIONS OF SECONDARY AND SUPERIOR EDUCATION.

	No.	Pro- fessors.	Students.	Outlay.	Bursar- ships.	Endow- ments.
UNIVERSITIES.						
Vienna	1	71	4,718	florins. 165,671	256	florins. 21,583
Grätz	1	28	876	25,372	47	1,267
Innsbruck	1	24	317	25,053	52	3,593
Prague	1	63	3,341	66,864	55	3,065
Ollmütz	1	26	640	29,525	112	5,600
Lemberg	1	41	1,403	53,593	48	4,480
Pesth.	1
Pavia	1	60	1,316	80,891	24	4,200
Padua	1	40	1,260	98,646
Total (without Hungary)....	9	353	13,871	545,545	594	43,788
LYCEA.						
Salzburg, with Theol., Philos., and Medicine	1	20	212	23,465	7	455
Linz " " " "	1	12	167	12,090	10	362
Laibach " " " "	1	23	299	22,160	39	2,294
Klagenfurth " " " "	1	14	171	4,624	26	1,409
Klausenburg " " " "	1	14	330	8,810
In Hungary, 14*	5	83	1,179	71,149	82	4,520
.....
SEMINARIES FOR DIVINES.						
Vienna (Protestant)	1	5	59	17,007	30	2,400
Redemptorists (for their order)	1	6	8
Admont	1	6	8
Mantern	1	7	9	2,650
Tarnow }	2	8	156	4,193
Przemysl }						
Lemberg	1	5	31	3,010
Carlowitz (Greek Church)	1	9	30	4,765
Zara	1	7	46	15,128
Hermannstadt (Greek)	1	1	60	180
In Hungary, 2†	10	54	409	46,933	30	2,400
COLLEGES OF PHILOSOPHY ‡	25	166	3,192	127,089	38	2,140
SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS	31	195	3,508	248,151	163	29,097
{ for boys .						
{ for girls ..	10	29	429	21,775	21	2,026
GYMNASIA § (Grammar-Schools) { Catholic .	116	899	25,458	505,350	446	20,515
	{ Protestant	14	89	2,451	12,963	13
Total cost of the higher establishments for education, without including Hungary ..	198	1,378	35,038	915,328	681	53,850
.....	222	1,868	50,497	1,578,955	1,387	104,558

* 2 at Presburg; 2 Raab; 1 Agram, Debreczin, Eperies, Erlau, Grosswardein, Kásmark, Cashau, Oedenburg, Pápa, Saros-Patak.

† At Kerestur and Torda.

‡ At Krems, Kremsmunster, Görz, Trent, Budweis, Leitomischl, Pilsen, Brünn, Nikolsburg, Przemysl, Tarnopol, Czernowitz, Zara, Milan, Brescia, Cremona, Mantua, Bergamo, Como, Lodi, Venice, Verona, Udine, Vicenza.

In Hungary, at Stein am Auger and Szezechin, 2.

§ Hungary has 67 Catholic and 13 Protestant Gymnasia.

The Mining Academy at Schemnitz has 7 Professors, 233 Students: it costs 11,500 florins, and has 55 Bursarships endowed with 11,000 florins annually.

TABLE III.—ACADEMIES AND BOARDING-SCHOOLS.

	No.	Professors.	Pupils.		Outlay in florins.	Receiving instruction gratis in the house.		Scholars.	
			In the house.	Out of the house.		No.	Charge.	Receiving stipends out of the house.	
								No.	Charge.
For Boys:—									
For general education.	98	727	6,652	3,158	1,143,286	2,589	florins. 524,292	41	florins. 5,958
For Theology	51	189	3,238	1,219	634,172	2,317	460,888	835	21,149
For Military Schools..	40	181	3,457	613,332	2,725	450,036
For Girls	101	612	4,125	586	625,286	2,549	855,204	10	1,810
For both.....	17	99	1,537	3,026	295,166	1,445	167,652	2,878	77,831
Total.....	307	1,808	19,004	7,934	3,311,342	11,575	1,957,572	2,759	105,748

TABLE VI.—ACADEMIES OF SCIENCE, LITERATURE, AND THE FINE ARTS, IN 1836.

	No of Es- tablish- ments.	Directing.	Members.			Total.	Pupils.	Expen- diture.	Bursarships.		
			Ordinary.	Honorary.	Corres- ponding.				Con- tributing.	No.	Endow- ment.
Academies of Science and Literature	18	12	1,824	520	607	3,070	59,757	21	3,622		
Academies of Fine Arts	6	56	127	204	32	460	92,402	40	2,273		
Agricultural Colleges and Unions	11	3	4,243	362	1,004	5,945	21,946	3	1,781		
Museums, &c.	10	62	2,573	405	66	3,222	21,440	12	16		
Total.....	45	133	8,867	1,491	1,709	12,697	195,545	76	7,692		

SYSTEM

OF

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN AUSTRIA.

IN the school system of Austria, a Normal School is a *pattern* or *model* school, which is the primary signification of the word Normal. Of this class of schools there is one in the principal town in each province, and also in the chief town of each circle. In these Normal Schools the older boys who have passed through the course of instruction in the elementary and superior schools, and show a peculiar desire or fitness for the business of teaching, are arranged in a class for special instruction in a course of pedagogy. The course embraces a review of the studies pursued in the elementary schools, lectures on the principles of education, and the art of teaching, and practice as assistants in the lower classes of the schools. The time occupied by the course of study and practice varies from six months to two years—being longer in the provincial head school, than in the head school of the circle. There are twenty hours devoted in each week to the course, which are distributed as follows:

Pedagogy,	3 hours.
Methods of Religious Instruction,	2 "
Higher Arithmetic,	3 "
Writing and Drawing,	3 "
Exercises in Composition,	2 "
Geography,	1 "
Physical Education,	3 "
Vocal and Instrumental Music,	3 "

No one is allowed to teach unless he has gone through a course of Normal School training, either in the head school of the province or the circle. This system of training teachers was first introduced by order of Maria Theresa, in 1771, under the personal supervision of Felbinger, who was invited from Silesia for this purpose. The experiment was commenced in the school connected with the convent of St. Stephen, in Vienna, and the teachers of the city and suburbs were assembled and instructed in the new methods of teaching pursued in Prussia. This school received, in 1772, the privilege of publishing all school books used in schools on the crown lands of Austria, which was, in 1773, extended over the empire. The profits of this monopoly were set apart for the support of a Normal teacher in the head school (the best primary superior school) of each province.

The mode of training teachers does not satisfy the best educators of Austria. It gives a routine knowledge of methods, but does not secure that mastery of principles, or that formation of the pedagogical character,

which a three years' course of instruction and practice in a regularly constituted Teachers' Seminary is so well calculated to give. The government has been frequently applied to for aid to erect one or more Teachers' Seminaries, on the plan of those in Prussia, but thus far without success.

Calinisch, in his statistics of the schools in Germany, in *Reden's Magazine* for 1848, thus sums up the professional training of teachers, in Austria: "The pedagogical course in the provincial Normal Schools, which embraces four classes, continues six months, and in those with three classes, three months. In the universities and theological seminaries, there are lectures on pedagogy, and the methods of questioning children, and in two large boarding schools, one in Vienna, and the other at Hernal, in the neighborhood of Vienna, there is a course of special instruction for those young females who are destined for governesses in private families. In 1842, an independent school or seminary for teachers was started in Salzburg, with a two years' course, and with eighteen pupils. There is a Normal head school in Prague for teachers of Jewish schools."

The Provincial Normal Head Schools are located as follows:—Vienna, Prague, Trieste, Salzburg, Inspruck, Graz, Görz, Klagenfurt, Laibach, Linz, Brünn.

SWITZERLAND.

THE following general outline of the educational institutions of Switzerland, will be found to contain not only an interesting notice of the Normal Schools of that country, but also valuable hints respecting the compulsory attendance of children at school, and school inspection, as well as the relations of education to pauperism. It is abridged from a recent work by Joseph Kay, published by J. Hatchard and Son, London, 1846, entitled "*The Education of the poor in England and Europe.*"

"Perhaps of all countries Switzerland offers the most instructive lesson to any one investigating educational systems and institutions. It is divided into twenty-two independent cantons, each of which manages its own internal policy after its own peculiar views; so that the educational systems of the several cantons differ very materially, whilst the federal government which unites all, brings all into intimate connection one with another, and facilitates improvement, as the institutions which are found to work best are gradually adopted by all the different governments. Each canton being acquainted with the systems pursued by the others, the traveler is enabled, not only to make his own observations on the various results, but is benefited also by the conversation of men accustomed to compare what is being done by their own government with what is being done by others, and to inquire into the means of perfecting their educational systems.

But the advantage to be derived from an investigation of the various efforts made by the different cantons, is still further increased by the fact of their great difference in religious belief. Thus, the population of the canton of Vaud, for example, is decidedly Presbyterian.—that of Lucerne is almost exclusively Roman Catholic, whilst those of Argovia and Berne are partly Protestant and partly Roman Catholic. Not only, therefore, does the traveler enjoy the advantage of studying the educational systems of countries professing different religious creeds, but the still greater one of witnessing the highly satisfactory solution of the various difficulties arising from differences of religious belief existing under the same government.

The great development of primary education in Switzerland, dates from 1832 or 1833, immediately after the overthrow of the old aristocratic oligarchies. No sooner did the cantonal governments become thoroughly popular, than the education of the people was commenced on a grand and liberal scale, and from that time to this, each year has witnessed a still further progress, until the educational operations of the several governments have become by far their most weighty and important duties.

Throughout all the cantons, with the exception of Geneva, Vallais, and

three small mountainous cantons on the Lake of Lucerne, where the population is too scanty and too scattered to allow of the erection of many schools, education is compulsory; that is, all parents are required by law to send their children to school from the age of six to the age of fourteen, and, in several cantons, to the age of sixteen. The schoolmasters in the several communes are furnished with lists of all the children in their districts, which are called over every morning on the assembling of school; the absentees are noted, and also the reasons, if any, for their absence; these lists are regularly examined by the inspectors, who fine the parents of the absentees for each day of absence.

In some of the manufacturing districts, the children are permitted to leave school and enter the mills at the age of eleven, if they have then obtained from the inspectors a certificate of being able to read and write; but they are obliged to attend a certain number of periodical lessons afterward, until they attain the age of fourteen or fifteen. In the canton of Argovia, however, which is one of the manufacturing districts of Switzerland, the children are not allowed to enter the mills until they attain the age of thirteen, and I was assured by several of the manufacturers of this canton, that they did not suffer any inconvenience from this regulation, although it had been warmly opposed at first by the commercial men.

It ought to be remembered, that these laws are enforced under the most democratic forms of government.

The people themselves require attendance at the schools, so conscious are they of the necessity of education to the encouragement of temperance, prudence, and order.

In the cantons of Berne, Vaud, Argovia, Zurich, Thurgovia, Lucerne, and Schaffhouse, where this law is put into force most stringently, it may be said with truth, that all the children between the ages of seven and fifteen are receiving a sound and religious education. This is a most charming result, and one which is destined to rapidly advance Switzerland, within the next eighty years, in the course of a high Christian civilization. One is astonished and delighted, in walking through the towns of the cantons I have mentioned, to miss those heart-rending scenes to be met with in every English town; I mean the crowds of filthy, half-clothed children, who may be seen in the back streets of any of our towns, groveling in the disgusting filth of the undrained pavements, listening to the lascivious songs of the tramping singers, witnessing scenes calculated to demoralize adults, and certain to leave their impress on the susceptible minds of the young, quarreling, swearing, fighting, and in every way emulating the immorality of those who bred them. There is scarcely a town in England and Wales whose poorer streets, from eight in the morning until ten at night, are not full of these harrowing and disgusting scenes, which thus continually show us the real fountain-head of our demoralized pauperism. In Switzerland nothing of the kind is to be seen. The children are as regularly engaged in school, as their parents are in their daily occupations, and henceforward, instead of the towns continuing to be, as in England, and as they have hitherto been in Switzerland, the hot-beds and nurseries of irreligion, immorality, and sedition, they will only afford still more favorable opportunities, than the country, of advancing the religious, moral, and social interests of the children of the poor. How any one can wonder at the degraded condition of our poor, after having walked through the back streets of any of our towns, is a thing I never could understand. For even where there are any schools in the town, there are scarcely ever any playgrounds annexed to them; so that in the hours of recreation the poor little children are turned out into the streets, to far more than forget all the moral and religious counsel given in the school. It is strange that we do not understand how invaluable

the refuge is, which a school and playground afford to the children of the poor, however indifferent the education given in the school.

This small country, beautified but impoverished by its Alpine ranges, containing a population* less than that of Middlesex, and less than one-half its capital, supports and carries on an educational system greater than that which our government maintains for the whole of England and Wales! Knowing that it is hopeless to attempt to raise the character of the education of a country without first raising the character and position of the schoolmaster, Switzerland has established, and at the present moment supports, thirteen Normal schools for the instruction of the schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, whilst England and Wales rest satisfied with six! Eleven of these schools are permanent, and are held during the whole of the year; the remaining two sit only for about three months yearly, for the purpose of examining monitors recommended by the masters of the primary schools, and desirous of obtaining diplomas to enable them to act as schoolmasters. In the majority of these schools the members of the different religious sects are received with a willingness and with a Christian charity, which puts to shame our religious intolerance. Nor does this liberality proceed from any carelessness about the religious education of the people, for no master can obtain, from his canton's government, a diploma, to enable him to officiate as schoolmaster, without having first obtained from a clergyman of his own church a certificate of moral character and of competency to conduct the religious education in the school for which he is destined; but it proceeds rather from a recognition of this great truth, that the cause of religion must be deeply injured by neglecting the secular education of the people, and from a Christian resolution in all parties to concede somewhat, for the sake of insuring what must be the foundation of all social improvement, the advancement of the intelligence and morality of the people. M. Gauthey, a Presbyterian clergyman, and director of the Normal schools at Lausanne, M. Vehrli, director of the Normal school near Constance, the professors of the Normal school in Argovia, M. Schneider von Langnau, minister of public instruction in the canton of Berne, and M. Fellenberg, of Hofwyl, all assured me that they did not find the least inconvenience resulting from the instruction of different sects in the same schools. Those who differ in faith from the master of the school are allowed to absent themselves from the doctrinal lessons given in the school, and are required to attend one of their own clergy for the purpose of receiving from him their doctrinal instruction.

Even in Fribourg, a canton governed by Catholic priests, Protestants may be found mingled with the Catholics in the schools, and are allowed to absent themselves during the hours of religious lessons; and, in Argovia, a canton which has lately so distinguished itself by its opposition to the Jesuits of Lucerne, I found that several of the professors in the Normal school were Catholics, and that the utmost tolerance was manifested to all the Catholics attending the cantonal schools.

The Swiss governments perceived, that if the powerful sects in the several cantons were to refuse education to the Dissenters, only one part of the population would be educated. They perceived also, that secular education was necessary to the progress of religious education, and that they could secure neither without liberality; and therefore they resolved that all the children should be required to attend school, and that all the schools should be opened to the whole population.

In the canton of Neuchâtel, they have no Normal school, but they choose their masters from the monitors of the primary schools, who are most carefully educated and trained by the masters of the primary schools

* In 1846 the population of Switzerland was about 2,400,000.

for their future important situations. Notwithstanding their greatest exertions, however, to choose persons qualified for this most important post, I was assured by those interested in the progress of education in that canton, that they found the present system totally inadequate to the production of efficient masters, and that they felt that they must follow the example of the other cantons, and establish a permanent Normal school. In the cantons of Fribourg and Schaffhouse the Normal schools sit only during three months of the year, during which time they give lectures to those desiring to be schoolmasters, and examine the candidates before granting the diplomas. But so totally inefficient have they found this system, that Fribourg is about to establish a Normal school during the present year, and Schaffhouse has only been prevented from doing so by the want of sufficient funds.

I was assured by the priests in the one canton, and by the Protestant clergy in the other, that they were fully convinced that no efforts on their part could insure good masters, unless they were aided by a sufficiently long religious, intellectual, and domestic training, under the eye of experienced and trustworthy professors.

Four of the Normal schools of Switzerland contain each from eighty-five to one hundred pupil-teachers; the rest average from forty to eighty.

It may seem extraordinary to some that so small a country as Switzerland should require so many schools for teachers, but the explanation is very simple. Switzerland is a poor country, and although it gives the schoolmaster a very honorable station in society, and regards him as next in dignity to the priests and clergy, it is not able to pay him very well, so that in many cases there is no other inducement to a schoolmaster to remain long at his post, than the interest he feels in his profession. From this cause there is always a constant desertion from the ranks going on in some parts, and a consequent necessity for the preparation of a sufficient number to fill the vacant posts. If the masters were paid better, Switzerland would be able to dispense with two or three of its Normal schools.

I should like to enter upon a description of the different Normal schools of Switzerland, were not that rather beside the purpose of this report; but I cannot refrain from recording the unanimous opinion of the Swiss educators on two points connected with these schools. These are, the necessity of manual labor in connection with the instruction given in the schools, and the time which all are agreed upon as necessary to the perfecting of a schoolmaster's education. On the latter point, all with whom I conversed assured me, that their experience had taught them that three years were absolutely necessary for the education of a master; that wherever less time had been tried, it had always been found insufficient; and that in order that even three years should suffice, it was necessary that the young man entering the Normal school should have completed his education in the primary schools.

With respect to the necessity of manual labor in a Normal school, opinions were hardly less unanimous. To the Bernese Normal schools, as well as to that at Krutzlingen, conducted by Vehrli, the successor of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg, and to the Normal schools of Lucerne and Solleure, lands have been annexed, which are farmed and cultivated by the pupil-teachers. They are sufficiently extensive, in five of these schools, to employ all the young men in the Normal school at least two hours per diem in their cultivation. On these lands all the pupil-teachers, accompanied by their professors, and clothed in coarse farmers' frocks, with thick wooden sandals, may be seen toiling most industriously about the middle of the day, cultivating all the vegetables for the use of the household, as well as some for the neighboring markets, and could any one be taken among them at that period of the day, he would imagine he saw before him a set

of peasants at their daily labor, instead of the young aspirants to the much respected profession of schoolmaster.

Besides this labor in the fields, the young men are also required to clean their apartments, to take charge of their own chambers, prepare their own meals, besides keeping all the premises in good repair. Thus the life of the pupil-teacher in Switzerland, during the time he remains at school, is one of the most laborious nature. He is never allowed to lose sight of the manner of life of the class from which he was selected, and with which he is afterward required to associate. He is never allowed to forget that he is a peasant, so that he may not afterward feel any disgust in mingling with peasants. In this manner, they train their teachers in habits of thought and life admirably suited to the laborious character of the profession for which they are destined, and to the humble class who will be their companions in after life. The higher the instruction that is given to a pupil-teacher, the more difficult and the more important is it to cherish his sympathies for the humble and often degraded class among whom he will be called to live and exercise his important duties.

In fact, as all the Swiss educators said, the great difficulty in educating a teacher of the poor is to avoid, in advancing his intelligence and elevating his religious and moral character, raising his tastes and feelings so much above the class from which he has been selected, and with which he is called upon afterward to associate, as teacher, adviser, and friend, as to render him disgusted with his humble companions, and with the toilsome duties of his profession. In educating the teachers, therefore, far above the peasant class whom they are intended to instruct, the Swiss cantons, which I have mentioned, are very careful to continually habituate them to the simplicity and laborious character of the peasant's life, so that, when they leave the Normal schools, they find that they have changed from a situation of humble toil to one of comparative ease. They do not therefore become dissatisfied afterward with their laborious employments, but are accustomed even from their childhood to combine a high development of the intellect and a great elevation of the character with the simplicity and drudgery of a peasant's occupations.

Thus the Swiss schoolmasters live in their villages as the coadjutors of the clergy, associating with the laborers in their homes and at their fire-sides, whilst at the same time they exhibit to them the highly beneficial and instructive example of Christian-minded, learned and gentle peasants, living proofs of the benefits to be derived from possessing a properly educated mind.

I cannot deny myself the pleasure of giving Vehrli's opinion on this subject. He said, 'Your object in educating a schoolmaster ought to be, to prepare a teacher of the people, who, whilst he is considerably elevated in mental acquirements above those among whom he will be obliged to mingle, shall thoroughly sympathize with them by having been himself accustomed to hard manual labor. If you take pupil-teachers into your Normal schools, and content yourselves with merely cultivating their mental powers, you will find that, however carefully you tend their religious instruction, you have educated men who will soon, despite themselves, feel a disgust for the population with whom they must associate, and for the laborious duties which they will have to perform; but if during the whole of their residence at the Normal school, you accustom them to hard and humble labor, when they leave, they will find themselves in higher and easier situations than when they were at school, they will sympathize with their poor associates, and feel contented and satisfied with their position.'

In Argovia they have so strongly felt the truth of the above remarks, that they have resolved to adopt M. Vehrli's suggestions, and to annex

lands to their Normal school; and in the canton of Vaud, where no labor is required from the pupil-teacher, I was assured that they had constant reason to complain of the dissatisfaction expressed by the teachers for their profession after leaving the Normal school. Nor is it only by means of agricultural labor that Vehrli endeavors to prepare his pupils for the honorable but arduous duties of their future lives. Nearly all the domestic concerns of his household are conducted by the pupil-teachers, and all assistance that is not absolutely necessary is dispensed with. Vehrli assured me that by these means the expenses of maintaining his Normal school were greatly diminished, as they sent to market all the surplus of their agricultural produce, and employed the proceeds in defraying the ordinary expenditure of the school.

But whilst the Swiss cantons are thus careful to prepare the pupil-teachers for the practical duties of their lives, they do not neglect their intellectual instruction; as they are fully convinced that the instruction given in a village school by an ignorant man must not only be very meager in kind, but very unattractive in character. In order to attain a certain standard of instruction in a village school, the education of the master should be very much elevated above it; and in order to make the poor prize the village school, it is necessary that they should have a very high opinion of the character and learning of the teacher.

The education given by these masters in the parochial schools includes, 1. Religious instruction. 2. Reading. 3. Writing. 4. Linear drawing. 5. Orthography and grammar. 6. Arithmetic and book-keeping. 7. Singing. 8. The elements of geography, and particularly of the geography of Switzerland. 9. The history of Switzerland. 10. The elements of natural philosophy, with its practical applications. 11. Exercises in composition. 12. Instruction in the rights and duties of a citizen.

In the Catholic cantons, however, the instruction is generally confined to religious lessons, reading, writing, and arithmetic.

No teacher is allowed to undertake the charge of a school, until he has obtained from the council of his canton, whose duty it is to examine candidates, a diploma stating his capability of directing the education of a school. This diploma is only granted after a very severe examination, which the candidate must pass before he can become a schoolmaster. Besides this, he must have obtained a certificate of character from the director of the Normal school in which he was educated, and in many cases another from a clergyman of his own sect, stating his capability of conducting the religious education of a school. This latter point is always strictly inquired into, either by the council of inspection, which examines the candidates, or by a clergyman of the sect of which the candidate is a member. The character and abilities of the teachers are not considered in Switzerland as matters of small concern, but on the contrary, every precaution is taken to guard against the possibility of a man of low character or poor education obtaining such a post. It is happily understood in the Swiss cantons, that such a schoolmaster is much worse than none at all. The influence of such an one on the young is demoralizing in the extreme, and does infinite mischief, by creating in the minds of the children associations connecting the name of school with unhappy thoughts, and thus often actually engendering a spirit of hostility, not only against education, but also against the holy precepts which were professedly taught at school.

I consider the very backward state of education in some of these cantons, compared to the great progress it has made in others, as a satisfactory proof of the necessity of adopting a centralization system in preference to one leaving the direction of education to provincial governments. I know there are many in our own country who blindly cry out against centralization, not reflecting that the central government, as being the

richest and most powerful body, can most easily collect sufficient statistics on the comparative merits of different systems, and on the comparative results of different ways of teaching and managing a school, and that it affords a much greater security to the country than the best provincial governments can do,—that what is found to work best shall be speedily introduced throughout the country, and that education shall be universally spread, instead of being greatly developed in one part of the country, and altogether neglected in another.

Each canton in Switzerland is divided into a certain number of communes or parishes, and each of these communes is required by law to furnish sufficient school-room for the education of its children, and to provide a certain salary, the minimum of which is fixed by the cantonal government, and a house for each master it receives from the Normal school of the canton. These communal schools are, in the majority of cases, conducted by masters chosen from the most numerous religious sect in the commune, unless there are sufficient numbers of the different religious bodies to require more than one school, when one school is conducted by a master belonging to one sect, and the other by a master chosen from a different sect. The children of those parents, who differ in religion from the master of the school, are permitted to absent themselves from the doctrinal lessons, and are required to obtain instruction, in the religious doctrines of their own creed, from clergy of their own persuasion.

The inspection of the cantonal schools is conducted in the most satisfactory manner. Each canton has a board of inspectors, or council-general of instruction, which is presided over by the Minister of Public Instruction for the canton, and whose duty it is, to visit all the schools of the canton, once at least in the year, and to report on them individually to the government of the canton, as to the state of the schools themselves, as to the progress of the pupils, as to the character of the instruction given by the master, and as to the attendance of the children of the commune.

But besides the cantonal board of inspectors, there is also in each commune a board of inspectors, who are elected annually from among the clergy and educated men of the commune, and who visit the communal schools at least once each year, and report to the Minister of Public Instruction for the canton, on the individual progress of the children in the communal schools. The head inspector of the canton of Solleure showed me samples of the handwriting, composition, accounts, &c., of all the children in the canton. By these means each schoolmaster is encouraged in his exertions, as he feels that the eyes of his canton are upon him, and that he is regarded as a most important public functionary, to whom is committed a great and momentous trust, for the proper discharge of which it is but right his canton should receive constant assurance.

By these means the different communes or parishes are immediately interested in the progress of their schools, whilst the government is insured against the possibility of a school being wholly neglected, as every school is sure of receiving one or two visits from the government inspectors, even if the parochial authorities should wholly neglect them, or should not pay them sufficient attention.

This is the true theory of a system of inspection. There ought always to be a system of local inspection, because local authorities are able, when active, to discover better than any stranger can possibly do, the peculiar wants and requirements of their localities, as well as the real character of their teachers, and because a system of local inspection provides a continual check upon the schoolmaster; but as persons, who have other and pressing duties upon their hands, and who are deeply engaged in business or in agricultural pursuits, are very likely to neglect at times, and often altogether, the important duty of attending to the schools of their neighborhood, and as schools, which receive no surveillance from persons

qualified to judge of their particular merits or demerits, are always sure to degenerate, and are liable to become seriously demoralized; and as, moreover, it is deeply important that every government, for the sake of social order and also for the sake of the happiness and morality of its subjects, should have every security that the people are really educated and not demoralized by a sinful sham of education, it is necessary that in every well-governed state, where the government takes any interest in the improvement of the people, there should be a central inspection of all the schools of the country, which should be supported and directed by the government. If government has not the power of examining every school, it can have no security that the children are not being absolutely demoralized, and that the seeds of future rebellion and sedition are not being sown in the village schools. In many of the neglected schools of England and Wales at the present day, this is actually the case, and just because the schoolmasters, in many instances, are never visited and watched by any person capable of judging of the moral condition of their schools.

The development of the people's education in Switzerland and France is of far too recent a date to allow me to speak of its results. It is not in thirteen years that the habits, opinions, taste, and manners of a people can be changed. A change in a nation's character is not wrought in one generation; so that nothing can be more unfair than the language held by many persons on this subject. If any thing is said of French and Swiss education, the answer is, 'Look at its results.' 'The people of these two countries are the most disaffected and turbulent in Europe.' I repeat, that nothing can be more unfair than this reasoning. The real development of education dates in both countries from 1833, so that but few of the age of thirty in either country can have reaped any advantage from it, and of those below thirty, many can not have been able to attend any good school for more than two or three years, and many others not at all, whilst of those young men, who have enjoyed the advantages of attending a school directed by an able and efficient master, many must have received as much harm from the evil influence of demoralizing homes, as they have reaped benefit from the ennobling effect of the lessons and examples given them by a Christian and noble-minded schoolmaster. It is only when the corrupting influences of the old, ignorant, and demoralized generations have passed away, when the parents themselves have begun to estimate the advantages to be reaped from education, when the lessons of the teachers are backed by the lessons and examples of the parents, that the effects of education will begin to be apparent. This requires more than one generation, and much more than thirteen years; and it is this very slowness in the working of an educational system, however perfect, which renders me the more anxious that we should speedily prepare for the coming future.

Such is a short outline of the general character of the educational systems of Switzerland.

At the present time it may be truly said, that in nearly the whole of Switzerland, every boy and girl below the age of seventeen years, can read and write. The education of the girls is perhaps in a more satisfactory condition in the Catholic cantons than in the Protestant. It is confided to the special care of the nuns, and I can bear testimony to the gentle, patient, and religious spirit in which these excellent women affectionately tend the progress of the young girls. The self-denying life which the Catholic nuns lead, and the excellent education they receive in the nunneries, admirably suit them for the important duties confided to their charge in these cantons. After examining the schools conducted by some of the sisters in Fribourg, the abbess of the nunnery, to which the nuns who had the direction of the female schools belonged, allowed me, in com-

pany with a very intelligent priest, with whom I had been spending some days, to visit the nunnery. We went over it in company with one of the sisters. When I entered, I found myself in the presence of about twenty of the nuns, who, under the direction of a very venerable old abbess of about eighty years of age, were seated in the entrance-hall, engaged in making clothes for the poor.

The apartments of the sisters were of the plainest possible description. They were in beautiful order, and perfectly clean; but furnished very meagerly, and literally destitute of every thing that was not absolutely necessary. The sisters have no servants and no assistants. They prepare their own food, clean their own chambers, take charge by turns of the dining-room, hall, and room of the abbess, and, in fact, perform by turns all the humblest duties of domestic servants. They, at the same time, give a very excellent education to the young persons destined to take the veil, comprising reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, grammar, and singing. The novitiate is, therefore, in every way admirably prepared for the duties of instruction, which they undertake after having taken the veil, whilst the humble life to which they are accustomed during the years of their novitiate, and during the rest of their lives, in turn with the other sisters, makes them admirably well qualified for intercourse with the poor, and renders them patient, gentle, and persevering in their efforts in the schools. They certainly are living examples of the class of teachers a good training is capable of producing.

The condition of the peasantry in the Protestant cantons of Berne, Argovia, Vaud, Thurgovia, Neuchatel, Geneva, Basle, and Schaffhouse, and in the Catholic cantons of Solleure and Lucerne, is a very happy one. No beggars are to be seen in these cantons, and what is still more surprising, no signs of pauperism. Their dress, though homely, is always good, free from patches, and clean. Their cottages, though, from the smoked appearance of the timber, at first sight giving an idea of great poverty, are nevertheless very commodious, substantially built, and comfortably furnished, and what is more, they are their own. They are generally surrounded by their little gardens, and almost always stand on plots of land which belong to and are cultivated by the tenants, and no one, who has seen the garden-like appearance of the cantons of Berne, Vaud, Solleure, Argovia, Thurgovia, and Zurich, will doubt again the high state of cultivation which may be attained by small farmers, proprietors of their own farms. The Swiss proprietor, himself a farmer, is interested in the state of his little property, and he is not a man to reject the aid of science, or to shut his ears to advice, or his eyes to observation. Their small farmhouses are the pictures of neatness, and their little estates are tended with the care an Englishman bestows upon his flower-garden. By far the greater part of the population are themselves proprietors, and the lands are so subdivided, as to bring them within the reach of the poorest laborer. This acts as the happiest preventive check on early and improvident marriages, and as the strongest possible incentive to providence and self-denial. Owing to this cause, the earliest age at which a young man thinks of marrying in several cantons is twenty-five, as he spends the first part of his life, after he has begun to earn any wages, in laying by some little capital toward the purchase of a house and piece of land. When he can offer a certain share of the purchase-money, he pays it over to the vendor and enters into possession, clearing the rest of his debt by yearly payments. It is only after he has thus attained the great object of his wishes that he marries. Many even of the laborers in the towns own or rent their little properties outside. The happy effects of this system are manifest not only in the excellent check it affords to imprudently early marriages and in the happy stimulant to prudence and sobri-

ety, but also and more particularly in the interest it gives the country peasants in the maintenance of social order.

The Swiss have so clearly understood that the real cause of pauperism is want of prudence and foresight among the poor, that the people themselves, in three of the most democratic of the cantons, have not only resolved, that all children should be forced to attend school for a certain number of years, and that the descent of lands should be so arranged, as to insure a great subdivision and make the separate estates small and numerous; and have not only created, by these means, strong incentives to prudence among the poor, by elevating their tastes, by teaching them the great benefits to be derived from temporary self-denial, and by holding out to the saving and self-denying laborer the prospect of becoming a proprietor; but they have also enacted laws, which prohibit any man marrying, until he prove to the state that he is able to support his wife. It must be remembered, that these laws are put in force by the people themselves. So clearly is it understood in Switzerland that the true cause of pauperism in a well-governed state can only be ignorance, and improvidence resulting from ignorance, or some misfortune which could not have been foreseen; and that it is only the pauperism resulting from this latter cause for which a well-organized community ought to be called upon to provide."

EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENT

OF

MR. DE FELLEBERG, AT HOFWYL.

THE great educational establishment of Mr. de Fellenberg at Hofwyl, in the canton of Berne, has attracted more attention, and exerted a wider influence, than any one institution in Europe or America, during the present century. It originated in motives of patriotism and benevolence, about the year 1805, and was sustained for forty years by personal efforts and pecuniary sacrifices on the part of its founder, which have never been equalled among men of his wealth, and social position. Born to every advantage of education which wealth and rank could secure, advanced early to positions of trust and influence in public life, enjoying extensive opportunities of observation by travel in the most refined nations, thrown by the political convulsions of his country and of Europe, from 1790 to 1805, much among the people and their rulers, Fellenberg became convinced that improvement in *early education* was the only resource for the permanent strength and elevation of the state of his own and other countries. To this object, at the age of thirty-one, he consecrated himself and his fortune. Being possessed of ample means, he resolved to form on his own estate, and on an independent basis, a model institution, in which it should be proved what education could accomplish for the benefit of humanity. Out of this determination arose the Institution at Hofwyl.

He commenced with two or three boys from abroad, with his own children, in his own house; and from time to time received others, but never more than two or three new pupils at once, that they might fall insensibly into the habits of the school, without producing any effect upon its general state. In 1807, the first building was erected for the "Literary Institution," and the number of pupils increased to eighty, mostly from patrician families. During this year he projected an institution for indigent children, and employed Vehrli, the son of a schoolmaster of Thurgovia, in the execution of the plan, after training him in his own family. The farmhouse of the establishment was assigned for this school, and here Vehrli received the pupils taken from among the poorest families in the neighborhood. He left the table of Mr. de Fellenberg, and shared their straw beds and vegetable diet, became their fellow-laborer on the farm, and companion in hours of relaxation, as well as their teacher, and thus laid the foundation of the "Agricultural Institution," or "Poor School," in 1808. The principles on which this school was established, were to employ agriculture as the means of moral education for the poor, and to make

their labors the means of defraying the expense of their education. In this institution, Vehrli attained that practical knowledge of teaching, which fitted him for his higher work in the Normal School at Krutzingen.

About the same time, a school of "Theoretical and Practical Agriculture" for all classes, was formed and provided with professors. To this school several hundred students resorted annually. In the same year, Fellenberg commenced the formation of a Normal School, or seminary for teachers, at his own expense, inviting one of the most distinguished educators of the day to conduct it. Forty-two teachers, of the canton of Berne, came together the first year and received a course of instruction in the art of teaching. So great was the zeal inspired by the liberality of Fellenberg, and the course of instruction, that the teachers were content to prolong their stay beyond their first intention, and to lodge in tents, in lack of other accommodations on the premises. Owing to some jealousy and low party intrigue, the government of Berne interfered with his plan of bringing the teachers of the canton annually together for a similar course, and henceforth the benefits were open only to teachers from other cantons, and to such as belonged to the School of Agriculture. The teachers, after one of these annual courses, presented an address to Fellenberg, from which the following is an extract. It is addressed to "the worthy Father and Friend of the People."

"When we reflect that without education no true happiness is to be attained, and that this can only be secured by means of well-taught and virtuous teachers; and when we recollect that you have devoted yourself to the object without regard to the sacrifice it may require.—we must rejoice that this age is favored with such a friend of his country; and when we remember the kindness and friendship with which we have been treated at Hofwyl, we are compelled to give you our affection as well as our admiration, and which will not diminish as long as our hearts shall beat, and our children shall learn to say, 'So lived and labored Father Fellenberg.'* We will not enter here into any particular statement of our views concerning the course of instruction we have received, which we shall in due time make known to the public: we will only say, for your own satisfaction, that this course has far exceeded our expectations, by its complete adaptation to practical life, by the skill and efforts of your assistants, and by the moral and religious spirit with which the whole has been animated. We have been led to enter with a fervent devotion into a sacred engagement, that we will live and labor in our calling in the spirit which you have exhibited, and thus prove to you that your noble sacrifices have not been vain. We are more deeply penetrated than ever before with a sense of the sacredness of our calling. We are resolved to conduct ourselves with prudence and caution, in affection and union, with unyielding and conscientious faithfulness, in the discharge of our duty, and thus to prove ourselves worthy of your Institution."

In continuation of our brief sketch of Fellenberg's establishment at Hofwyl, we will add that, from 1810 to 1817, it attracted the attention of educators and statesmen in Switzerland and all parts of Europe. Pupils were sent from Russia, Germany, France and England. Deputations from foreign governments visited it, to learn especially the organization of the School of Agriculture, and the Poor, or Rural School. In 1815, a

* This title was habitually given to De Fellenberg by the Swiss teachers and youth who appreciated his character, or who had experienced his kindness.

new building was erected to accommodate the increasing number of the Agricultural School, the lower part of which was occupied as a riding-school and gymnasium. In 1818 another building became necessary for the residence of the professors, and the reception of the friends of the pupils; and soon after, a large building, now the principal one of the establishment, with its two wings, was erected for the Literary Institution, which furnished every accommodation that could be desired for health or improvement. In 1823 another building was erected, in the garden of the mansion, for a school of poor girls, which was placed under the direction of the oldest daughter of Fellenberg; and in 1827 the Intermediate or Practical Institution was established. It is much to be desired that this example of slow and cautious progress might be imitated by those who are establishing institutions in our own country, in place of collecting at once a large mass of discordant materials, without any preparation which can render them a solid basis for a well-proportioned or permanent moral edifice.

The Practical Institution, or "Real School," was designed for the children of the middle classes of Switzerland, and not solely for the same class in the canton of Berne, aiming thereby to assimilate the youth of the whole country into common feelings and principles of patriotism, by being educated together, and on one system. The course of instruction included all the branches which were deemed important in the education of youth not intended for the professions of law, medicine and theology. The pupils belonged to families of men of business, mechanics, professional men, and persons in public employment, whose means did not allow them to furnish their children an education of accomplishments, and who did not wish to have them estranged from the simplicity of the paternal mansion. In view of these circumstances, the buildings, the furniture, the table, and the dress of the pupils, were arranged in correspondence to the habits in these respects of their families at home. In addition to an ordinary scholastic course, the pupils were all employed two hours in manual labor on the farm, in a garden plot of their own, in the mechanic's shop, and in household offices, such as taking care of rooms, books, and tools.

More than one hundred reports, many of them quite voluminous, have been published in this country and in Europe, respecting the whole, or portions of Fellenberg's Establishments at Hofwyl. The most particular account, and that in which the spirit of the institutions was considered by their founder to be best exhibited, was given in a series of Letters from Hofwyl, by William C. Woodbridge, in the *Annals of Education*, published in Boston. These letters were republished in London, in 1842, as an Appendix to "*Letters from Hofwyl, by a Parent, on the Educational Institutions of De Fellenberg*," pp. 372. The preceding sketch of these institutions, and the outline of the Normal Course which follows, have been drawn from this volume. The following summary of the Principles of Education, as developed in the experience of Fellenberg, is gathered also

from this work, and from a letter of his directed to Lady Byron, who has established and supports a *School of Industry* at Earling, after the model of the Rural School at Hofwyl.

"The great object of education is to develop all the faculties of our nature, physical, intellectual, and moral, and to endeavor to train and unite them into one harmonious system, which shall form the most perfect character of which the individual is susceptible; and thus prepare him for every period, and every sphere of action to which he may be called. It is only by means of the harmonious development of every faculty of our nature, in one connected system, that we can hope to see complete men issue from our institutions—men who may become the saviors of their country, and the benefactors of mankind. To form such characters is more important than to produce mere scholars, however distinguished, and this is the object on which the eye of the educator should be fixed, and to which every part of his instruction and discipline should be directed, if he means to fill the exalted office of 'being a fellow-worker with God.'"

"On the reception of a new pupil, our first object is to obtain an accurate knowledge of his individual character, with all its resources and defects, in order to aid in its farther development, according to the apparent intention of the Creator. To this end, the individual, independent activity of the pupil is of much greater importance than the ordinary, busy officiousness of many who assume the office of educators and teachers. They too often render the child a mere magazine of knowledge, collected by means purely mechanical, which furnishes him neither direction nor aid in the business of life. The more ill-digested knowledge a man thus collects, the more oppressive will be the burden to its possessor, and the more painful his helplessness. Instead of pursuing this course, we endeavor, by bestowing the utmost care upon the cultivation of the conscience, the understanding, and the judgment, to light up a torch in the mind of every pupil, which shall enable him to observe his own character, and shall set in the clearest light all the exterior objects which claim his attention.

A great variety of exercises of the body and the senses are employed to prepare our pupils for the fulfilment of their destination. It is by means of such exercises that every man should acquire a knowledge of his physical strength, and attain confidence with regard to those efforts of which he is capable, instead of that fool-hardiness which endangers the existence of many who have not learned to estimate their own powers correctly.

All the various relations of space should be presented to the eye, to be observed and combined in the manner best adapted to form the coup d'œil. Instruction in design renders us important service in this respect—every one should thus attain the power of reproducing the forms he has observed, and of delineating them with facility, and should learn to discover the beauty of forms, and to distinguish them from their contrasts.⁶ It is only where the talent is remarkable that the attempt should be made to render the pupil an artist.

The cultivation of the ear by means of vocal and instrumental music is not less important to complete the development of the human being. The organs of speech, the memory, the understanding, and the taste, should be formed in the same manner by instruction, and a great variety of exercises in language, vocal music, and declamation. The same means should also be employed to cultivate and confirm devotional feelings.

In the study of natural history the power of observation is developed in reference to natural objects. In the history of mankind the same faculty is employed upon the phenomena of human nature and human relations, and the moral taste is cultivated, at the same time the faculty of conceiving with correctness, and of employing and combining with readiness, the materials collected by the mind, and especially the reasoning faculty, should be brought into exercise, by means of forms and numbers, exhibited in their multiplied and varied relations.

The social life of our pupils contributes materially to the formation of their moral character. The principles developed in their experience of practical life among themselves, which gradually extends with their age and the progress of their minds, serves as the basis of this branch of education. It presents the examples and occa-

sions necessary for exhibiting and illustrating the great principles of morals. According to the example of Divine Providence, we watch over this little world in which our pupils live and act, with an ever vigilant, but often invisible care, and constantly endeavor to render it more pure and noble.

At the same time that the various improvements of science and art are applied to the benefit of our pupils, their sound religious education should be continually kept in view in every branch of study; this is also the object of a distinct series of lessons, which generally continue through the whole course of instruction, and whose influence is aided by the requisite exercises of devotion.

By the combination of means I have described, we succeed in directing our pupils to the best methods of pursuing their studies independently; we occupy their attention, according to their individual necessities and capacities, with philology, the ancient and modern languages, the mathematics, and their various modes of application, and a course of historical studies, comprising geography, statistics, and political economy.

Moral Education.—The example of the instructor is all important in moral education. The books which are put into the pupils' hands are of great influence. The pupil must be constantly surrounded with stimulants to good actions in order to form his habits. A new institution should be begun with so small a number of pupils, that no one of them can escape the observation of the educator and his moral influence. The general opinion of the pupils is of high importance, and hence should be carefully directed. Intimate intercourse between pupils and their educators begets confidence, and is the strongest means of moral education. The educator must be able to command himself—his conduct must be firm and just; frequent reproofs from such are more painful to the pupil than punishment of a momentary sort.

While influences tending directly to lead the pupil astray should be removed from the school, he must be left to the action of the ordinary circumstances of life, that his character may be developed accordingly. The pupil should be led as far as possible to correct his faults by perceiving the consequences of them; the good or bad opinion of his preceptor and comrades are important means of stimulation. Exclusion from amusements, public notice of faults, and corporal punishment, are all admissible. Solitary confinement is efficacious as a punishment. Rewards and emulation are unnecessary as motives.

Religion and morality are too intimately connected to admit of separation in the courses inculcating them. The elementary part of such a course is equally applicable to all sects.

No good is to be derived from employing the pupils as judges or juries, or giving them a direct share in awarding punishment for offenses. It is apt to elevate the youth too much in his own conceit.

Family life is better adapted, than any artificial state of society within an institution, to develop the moral sentiments and feelings of youth.

Intellectual Education.—A system of prizes, or emulation, and the fear of punishment, do not afford the strongest motives to intellectual exertion. Experience shows that places in a class may be dispensed with. It is possible to develop a taste for knowledge, a respect and attachment for teachers, and a sense of duty which will take the place of any lower motive in inducing the requisite amount of study.

In the higher departments of instruction it is better to confine the task of the teacher to giving instruction merely, placing the pupil under the charge of a special *educator*, at times when he is not engaged in the class-room.

With the other, and more useful branches of instruction, correct ideas of natural history and phenomena should be communicated to children, and require, first, that they shall be duly trained to observation by calling the observing faculties into frequent exercise. Second, that they shall be made acquainted with the elements of natural history, especially in reference to familiar objects. Third, that the most familiar phenomena of nature, such as thunder and lightning, the rainbow, &c.; and further, the most simple principles of the mechanic arts, trades, &c., should be explained to them. Fourth, they should be taught to draw, in connection with the other instruction. Accuracy of conception is favored by drawing, and it is a powerful aid to the memory. The most important principles of physiology, and their application to the preservation of health, should form a part of the instruction.

Physical Education. Pure air, a suitable diet, regular exercise and repose, and a proper distribution of time, are the principal means of physical education. It is as essential that a pupil leave his studies during the time appropriated to relaxation, as that he study during the hours devoted to that purpose. Voluntary exercise is to be encouraged by providing suitable games, by affording opportunities for gardening, and by excursions, and by bathing. Regular gymnastic exercises should be insisted on as the means of developing the body; a healthy action of the bodily frame has an important influence on both mind and morals. Music is to be considered as a branch of physical education, having powerful moral influences. The succession of study, labor, musical instruction, or play, should be carefully attended to. The hours of sleep should be regulated by the age of the pupil.

Experience has taught me that *indolence* in young persons is so directly opposite to their natural disposition to activity, that unless it is the consequence of bad education, it is almost invariably connected with some constitutional defect.

The great art of education, therefore, consists in knowing how to occupy every every moment of life in well-directed and useful activity of the youthful powers, in order that, so far as possible, nothing evil may find room to develop itself.⁷

Mr. de Fellenberg died in 1846, and his family discontinued the educational establishments at Hofwyl, in 1848, except "the Poor School," which is now placed under a single teacher, and the pupils are employed in the extensive operations of the farm to acquire a practical knowledge of agriculture. But the principles developed by the distinguished philanthropist and educator, have become embodied in the educational institutions of his native country and of Europe. This is particularly true of the great aim of all his labors to develop all the faculties of our nature, physical, intellectual and moral, and to train and unite them into one harmonious system, which shall form the most perfect character of which the individual is susceptible, and thus prepare him for every period, and every sphere of action to which he may be called.

O U T L I N E
O F T H E
N O R M A L C O U R S E O F I N S T R U C T I O N A T H O F W Y L .

THE Rural or Agricultural School at Hofwyl was designed to be a seminary for teachers, as well as a school for those devoted to labor. Both Fellenberg and Vehrli deem it very important for all who are to be employed in the instruction of common schools to have a thorough acquaintance with the practical labor of a farm. As an additional provision for their support, and as an invigorating exercise, it will be desirable for them (as indeed it probably would be for all literary men) to continue these labors. But a practical acquaintance with the life and habits of a majority of their pupils is the only means of preparing them fully to enter into the views and feelings of those under their care, to understand their wants and their difficulties, and prepare them for their duties. It also furnishes many important illustrations and topics of remark. It enables them to give much valuable information of a practical kind in connection with the subjects of their studies, and much may be done in this way to extend agricultural improvements. It is also an additional means of securing the attachment of the teachers to those to whom it is desirable their labors should be devoted, and inducing them to continue in this employment. So much is this object appreciated in some of the seminaries for instructors in Germany, whose plan and location do not admit of a farming establishment, that a garden and a nursery of fruit-trees are annexed to the seminary, and regular instruction is given in connection with them.

The direct preparation of the teachers for their profession consists,—1. In a thorough study of the branches to be taught, which they acquire in common with the other pupils, and on the productive plan. 2. In a series of lessons designed especially for them, in which Vehrli directs them as to the method of communicating instruction. 3. In assuming alternately the place of teachers in this class, under the immediate inspection of Vehrli. 4. In acting alternately as instructor and monitor to the other pupils, and superintendents of their conduct, under the general direction of Vehrli. 5. In the daily advice and direction they receive from him in the discharge of these duties. 6. In witnessing his own methods of instruction, as he passes from class to class to observe their progress. 7. In the discussions connected with a meeting for familiar conversation. 8. Those who are qualified for a more extended course of study are permitted to attend the lessons of the professors in the Literary Institution; and some are employed in the instruction or superintendence of the younger pupils in that school. Indeed, Fellenberg has found that those who were trained in the

Agricultural Institution were among the most valuable and faithful educators he could obtain; and on this account he deems an establishment of this kind an important aid to one of a more scientific or literary character. It is with the aid of assistants thus trained that Vehrli has succeeded in rendering a school, often composed of the worst materials, a model of order, industry, and improvement, which has excited the admiration of all who have visited it.

The following is a sketch of the course of instruction pursued with the class of teachers which annually assembled, by invitation and at the expense of Fellenberg, at Hofwyl:

"The first object was to ascertain, by free conversation or examination, the intellectual condition of the teachers, and to arrange them in classes, and provide means of instruction adapted to their wants: they were connected in such a manner that the better informed might assist those who were less familiar with the subject, and that they might enjoy the advantages of mutual as well as general instruction.

The day was opened and closed with religious exercises, in which they were led particularly to consider the duties of their office. Eight hours were assigned to instruction; the evening was devoted to free conversation on the state of the schools and their wants, and the subjects presented in the day; and the teachers had the opportunity of asking general questions, or presenting topics for discussion. Daily lessons were given in language, arithmetic, natural history, and vocal music; three lessons weekly in religion, and the same number in geometry and drawing; and two in geography; and two in *anthropology*, or the description of the human body and mind. Two or three hours daily were specially devoted to repetitions, or the copying of notes. The mode of instruction was adapted to the topic: sometimes it consisted merely in the exhibition of the subject, or of the methods of instruction; but it was accompanied as often as possible by questions to the teachers, and by practical illustrations, either by forming a class among the teachers, or calling in the pupils of the Agricultural School. The object of this course was to give general views of some important topics; to improve and inform the minds of the teachers themselves; and especially to give them a complete view of the methods of teaching. We add an account of the principal courses:

The Maternal Language, or Grammar.—The course of instruction in the mother tongue occupied one hour daily of the course, as being the basis of instruction in all other branches. Clear and precise ideas of the meaning and connection of words, and of the proper mode of expressing our ideas, are not less indispensable to successful study than to the business of life. But the study of language was also presented as an efficient means of exciting and developing the powers of the mind; because it should always be connected with the observation of the things to be described, or reflection on the ideas to be expressed. In short, if properly taught, every step in this study is a practical exercise in logic. Instruction in the mother tongue ought to commence with exercises in speaking, the materials for which should be derived from the objects immediately surrounding the child, or most familiar to him; and are always connected with the exercise of the senses in distinguishing form, color, size, weight, sound, feeling, and taste. It was also urged that the speaking, writing, and reading of the native language should go on together, in alternate exercises, as a part of one course of instruction; and not divided, as they often are. A plan of instruction was described extending through the whole period allotted to school education. The subject was divided into portions corresponding to our division of etymology and syntax; the first

involving simply words and their variations, and the second their connection in sentences. The teachers were advised to present both in such a manner that the pupil could not escape with mere mechanical habits; that he should be compelled to exercise thought and judgment in regard to the meaning and variations of individual words and their modes of combination. The last was especially recommended as the best means of showing the meaning as well as the use of individual words: in short, the methods advised and adopted present the most striking contrast with the mechanical exercises and the parrot-like acquisitions of pupils in grammar in English and American schools.

The more important principles were dictated and written down by the teachers; and questions were asked and answered in illustration. Written exercises on the various points presented, were also prepared and corrected, as far as the time would allow.

Religious Instruction.—The course of instruction in religion embraced, 1. Biblical history of the Old and New Testament; 2. History of the Christian religion; 3. Principles and precepts of Christianity; 4. A brief exposition of the best manner of giving religious or catechetical instruction. The design of this course was two-fold:—

1. To give to the teacher himself clear views of the sacred truths and solemn duties of religion; to enlighten his mind; to strengthen him in the resolute, persevering performance of his duties; to enlarge and ennoble his feelings; and to implant in his heart an unchangeable, cheering hope, which should sustain him in the changes and trials incident to his laborious calling.

2. To render him an able teacher of religion, so far as it falls within the sphere of the common school; and to prepare him, by precept and example, to make his pupils acquainted with the truths of the Bible, and the duties it imposes, and to educate them as disciples of Christ.

Both these objects were kept in view, and each more or less attended to, according to the nature of the subject and the knowledge of the auditors.

Biblical History.—As the history of the Bible was already familiar to the audience, this subject was treated principally in reference to the method of teaching. After a general chronological review of the principal events of the history, and its connection with that of other nations, the experienced teacher of a common school to whom this part of the course was intrusted, examined the various methods of Biblical instruction adopted in the canton of Berne. He warned his hearers against many of those methods, some of which reduce this part of instruction to a mechanical exercise of memory, that destroys its spirit; while others neglect the great object, and employ it merely as a means of instruction in language. He recommended—1. That the teacher should relate each portion of the history in language as much biblical and child-like as possible, and call upon the children to repeat the narration.

2. That he should require them to select the principal and subordinate circumstances, and combine them in their regular order and connection.

3. That he should lead them to draw the conclusions and make the reflections which the history may suggest, under his direction and with his assistance; but that he should carefully guard against the error of attempting to derive too many lessons of a different nature from a single history, for this only enfeebles the influence of the great principle involved, and distracts the mind and the feelings with too great a variety of subjects. In order to illustrate more completely the methods proposed, a class of children from the Agricultural School was generally brought in, and exercised in the manner proposed.

History of the Christian Religion.—The great objects of this course were, to awaken a deeper and more general interest in the Christian reli-

gion, and to strengthen their faith in its irresistible power, by showing them how light and truth have ever gained the victory amidst all the oppression and persecution they have endured.

The progress of light was traced; the earnest and useless groping after truth described, which preceded the coming of the Saviour, and was only satisfied by his instructions. The political and civil condition of the world at the Christian era, and the influence which Christianity has had in changing or modifying it, by the mutual and undistinguishing benevolence it requires between individuals and nations, and the equal rights which it thus establishes, was made the subject of particular attention. But the attention of the pupils was principally directed to the internal condition of the Christian church in the first three centuries, while it remained comparatively pure: they were pointed to the influence of Christian feelings and a Christian life in the family, the community, and the state; to the invincible power of that faith, and that love to the Saviour and to one another, which triumphed over ridicule and suffering, and martyrdom itself in its most horrid forms. The errors in principle and practice of this early period were also exhibited, with their sad consequences; and the effects of the various extremes to which they led—of slavish formality or lawless licentiousness; of intolerance and of hypocrisy; of superstition and fanaticism; of ecclesiastical despotism, and of anarchy—were presented in such a light as to point out the dangers to which we are still exposed. The time did not allow the extension of the course to later periods of history.

Principles and Precepts of Christianity.—The religious instructor observes, that he endeavored to present this part of his subject in its biblical form, and to show his pupils the inexhaustible richness of Divine wisdom exhibited in the Scriptures, to which reason, when duly enlightened as to its proper sphere, will come as a pupil, and not as a teacher. This revelation, he remarked, made in the language of men, should be the rule by which the exhibitions of the Deity, in nature, and providence, and the mind of man, must be judged. On the other hand, he presented the leading doctrines contained in the formularies of the Swiss churches, but still as subordinate to the biblical exhibition of truth with which the teacher in Switzerland is chiefly concerned. The first subjects of instruction were the general nature of religion, the peculiar character of Christianity, and its adaptation to the nature of man, the admirable form in which it is presented, and the importance of taking the Savior as a model for the methods of religious instruction. The Scriptures were next examined as the sources of religious truth, and the principal contents of the various books described, with the leading evidences of its historical authority, of its inspiration, and of the credibility of the principles it contains. The leading doctrines maintained in the national church were then presented, each accompanied with the evidence and illustrations afforded by the Scriptures, and followed by an exhibition of the duties involved in it, or founded upon it. At the same time, illustrations were derived from nature and from the human heart; and directions were given as to the best mode of teaching these truths to the young.

Methods of Religious Instruction.—The method of giving religious instruction was also taken up in a special manner, at the conclusion of the course: the first object was to point out the manner and order in which the various principles and precepts of religion should be presented to the young in correspondence with the development of their faculties; and the importance of preparing their minds to receive the truths, by making them familiar with the language, and the objects of intellect and feeling in general, instead of calling upon them to pass at once from the observation and the language of the material world, to the elevated truths of religion expressed in terms entirely new, and which leave so many minds

in hopeless confusion, if not in absolute ignorance of their real nature. The distinction of essential and non-essential doctrines was adverted to, and general directions given as to the methods of narrating and examining.

Anthropology, or the Study of Man.—This course was intended to give a general idea of the nature of man, and especially of the construction of our bodies, with a view to illustrate at once their wonderful mechanism, and to direct to the proper mode of employing and treating their various organs. The teacher adopted as his leading principles, to exclude as much as possible all that has not practical importance, and to employ the most simple terms and illustrations which could be chosen. The first great division of the course was devoted to the structure of the human body: it was opened with a brief introduction to natural history, and a comparative view of vegetables and animals, and man, and of the several races of men. The elementary materials of the human frame were then described, and the great and wonderful changes they undergo in receiving the principle of life, and becoming a part of man.

The various systems of the human body, the bones, muscles, vessels, organs, and nerves were next described, and illustrated by a human skeleton and by preparations of animals: the offices of each part were described in connection with its form and situation; thus uniting anatomy and physiology. At the same time, reference was made to the mode of employing them; the common accidents to which they were liable, as dislocations, fractures, &c., and the mode of guarding against them. The second portion of the course was devoted to the subject of Hygiene, or Dietetics; the proper mode of employing and treating the various organs, in order to preserve health and strength. It was opened with some views of the nature and value of health, and the causes which most frequently undermine it. The first object of attention was the organs of reproduction, their important destination, their delicate nature, and the evil consequence of too early excitement or abuse on the rest of the system; with the indications of abuse, and the methods of restoration. The nervous system, in its connection with the subject, led to the consideration of spiritual life, and its connection with the body, through the medium of the nerves. The various passions and affections were particularly described, with their influence upon the health; and the rules of education derived from this topic. Sleeping and waking were then treated as phenomena of the nervous system; and the distinction to be observed between children and adults on this subject was pointed out. The importance of attending to the structure and use of the bed-room and the bed, and even the position in sleep, was also adverted to.

The organs of sense, especially the eye and the ear, were minutely described, with the diseases to which they are liable from improper use or neglect, or from causes injurious to the brain and nervous system in general. The importance of the skin and its functions, and of maintaining its cleanliness by frequent changes of clothing and bathing; the necessity and methods of useful exercise; the precautions which ought to be employed to secure the purity of the air, especially in schools, and to guard against diseases of the organs of respiration, were the subjects of particular instruction. The formation and uses of the blood, the influence of food, and the circumstances in its condition or preparation which render it injurious, the evil effects of alcoholic drinks, and the most obvious causes of injury to the digestive organs, or of interruption in their functions, were afterward discussed in a practical manner. The course was closed with simple directions as to the treatment of injuries produced by sudden accidents, falls, wounds, drowning, freezing, fits, &c., during the time which must elapse before medical aid can be procured, or when it is not within reach—a species of knowledge for want of which many a life has doubt-

less been lost, and which is peculiarly important to one who is entrusted with the care of a large number of young persons. Indeed, what more valuable gift could be made to a collection of American teachers than such a course of instruction; a course which every well-informed physician is capable of giving?

Geography.—The course of instruction in geography was designed to point out the best methods of teaching facts already familiar to the audience. Two principles were laid down as fundamental:—1. To commence with giving the pupil distinct ideas of hill, valley, plain, stream, and lake in his own circle, and the characteristics of his own neighborhood; and thus to become familiar with the elements, and to proceed from particular to general views. 2. That the geography of their native country should be made familiar to the pupils of the common school, before they are confused or attracted by the peculiarities and wonders of foreign countries. A course of instruction was described for the canton of Berne in conformity with these principles, and the necessary references given to the authorities from which the teacher should derive his information. As a part of the course, each teacher was required to write an account of the place of his residence; and was taught how he should direct his pupils in the observations and inquiries necessary for this purpose, and fitted to develop the habits of quick and accurate perception and patient research.

History of Switzerland.—It was assumed as a principle, that history should not be taught *as a whole* in common schools; because young minds are incapable of understanding the causes and connection of events which involve the ideas, and plans, and motives of warriors and statesmen. On the other hand it was deemed of great importance to present the *leading events* of history to the young, in order to impress the moral lessons which they furnish, and especially those which belong to their own country. To the teachers, however, it was considered necessary to give a complete view of the history of Switzerland, in order to enable them to select and explain better its individual portions. It was accordingly narrated, so far as the time would admit, in several great divisions: the primitive period, the Roman period, and the period of transition, introduced the Swiss confederation; the heroic or warlike period, the period of political decline, and the period of revolution, (since 1798,) embraced the history of the confederation. This view of the course will be sufficient to show the general principles on which the method of instruction in this subject is founded.

Agriculture.—A course of lectures on agriculture was given to the assembled teachers by Fellenberg himself. The audience were reminded of that wise Omnipotence which presides over the circle of human activity, and of the manner in which it operates incessantly to prepare man for his higher destination, by rendering all his efforts dependent on this parental guidance for their success; and by leading him through all the variety of events in the material world, to that higher moral existence for which we are made. The lecturer pointed out the wisdom of this arrangement, and the defects which would exist in our education, as men, without these external means. He stated that he had assumed it as a part of his task to illustrate, by the evidence of facts, in a rational system of agriculture, that man is called upon to become like God—in governing himself, and in controlling the material world, for the good of his fellow-men; and that he observed constantly more and more the powerful influence of well-conducted plans of agriculture exerted in counteracting the spirit of indolence and habits of idleness. The first subject illustrated, was the power which a knowledge of the great principles of agriculture confers over the operations of nature, by giving a suitable direction to the cares and labors of its possessor; and the wretched slavery of the ignorant to the mere changes of matter, and to those effects of the elements which

the Creator gives us the capacity in some measure to employ for our own benefit. He next considered the best mode of rendering agriculture a means of exciting mental activity in the children and parents of a village, and of forming their character. Many sources of poverty and suffering in Switzerland were pointed out, which arose from the neglect of this subject, and the intimate connection between the improvement of agriculture, and the increase of intelligence and comfort of those who are engaged in it, with the prosperity and the free institutions of the country. Various leading principles of agriculture were then taken up; such as the removal of all the obstacles to vegetation—stones, weeds, excessive water, &c.; the rational preparation and use of manure; the proper form and employment of the plough; and the succession of crops. The influence of these principles, and of the knowledge of the elements that compose the materials employed in cultivating the earth, on the products and the facility of labor, were clearly exhibited, and were illustrated by a reference to the improved fields and increased products of Hofwyl. In short, the great object of this course was, not to teach the science, but to give such general views as should lead the teachers to appreciate and inculcate its importance, to observe and reflect on the prevailing evils and their remedies, and to excite their pupils to observation, as a means of rendering their very labors a source of intellectual and moral improvement.

A brief course of instruction was also given by Fellenberg, *on the constitution of the canton, and the rights and duties of citizens*. It would, of course, be out of place to enter into the details of the Berne constitution; but we can not give a correct view of the spirit of this course of instruction without describing the peculiar manner in which he introduced it.

He observed that the merely material interest of civil and political life forms a foundation too sandy and unstable for the life of the family or the state. A constitution truly free, and fitted to promote the higher moral ends of our existence, can find no firmer basis, no more noble and appropriate means, no higher ends, than in the message of 'peace on earth, and good will to men,' which was brought by our Savior. No book of freedom can better satisfy its true friends than the Bible, with its evangelical complement, if its instructions and its objects are rightly understood. Since I have sought here the sources and objects of a constitution, I have felt a higher value than ever for the Scriptures. The constitution presents the good of all as the great object; and this is the end of the Divine government. It calls upon each citizen to live and die for others—the object of our Savior's instructions and example. The Creator makes no distinction in the birth and death of men; and the constitution only follows his example in giving equal rights to all. The Savior teaches us to regard our fellow-men as members of the same family; the constitution simply enforces and carries out this principle. It acknowledges that 'the welfare or misery of a state depends on the moral and intellectual cultivation of its citizens, and that their sound education is among its first duties, and thus admits the great principle of the Gospel in relation to the affairs of this world.' Such is the spirit which Fellenberg wishes to pervade every course of instruction."

The success of the Normal course of instruction at Hofwyl, in spite of the petty jealousy with which the patriotic and benevolent labors of its founder was followed by the government of Berne, led to the establishment of two Normal Schools in that canton, and of similar institutions in most of the cantons of Switzerland. Fellenberg was elected a member of the Legislative Assembly, on the adoption of the new constitution, in 1831. On his motion the following article was introduced into the fundamental law:

“The welfare or woe of every state depends on the moral worth of its citizens. Without the cultivation of the mind and heart, true freedom is inconceivable, and patriotism is an empty sound. We must labor for our moral elevation, for the highest possible cultivation of the powers we have received from the Creator, if we would partake of the happiness which a free constitution should afford. The zealous promotion of this object is recommended by the Constituent Assembly to all future legislators, as holding a higher place in importance than all other objects.”

Although the teachers of the canton were prohibited by a vote of the Education Department of the canton from attending his Annual Normal Course, a society was formed in 1832, with the name of the “*Cantonal Teachers’ Society of Berne*.” The following account is given by Mr. Woodbridge, in 1834:

BERNE CANTONAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

“This society was formed by the teachers assembled for instruction at Hofwyl in the summer of 1832, and consisted of 154 members, with few exceptions, teachers of ordinary schools. Fellenberg was chosen president; and Vehrli, the excellent teacher of the farm pupils of Hofwyl, vice-president. Its constitution presents, as the great objects of the society, union and co-operation in promoting the education of the people, and elevating the character of the schools. The means proposed were, free communications between its members, consultations concerning the best modes of advancing the cause of schools and improving the condition of teachers, and direct efforts to excite the attention of the people to the defects of present plans and methods of organizing and instructing the common schools of the country.

Among the important topics in the school itself which are proposed by the Society of Berne, to be presented in the meetings of its auxiliary societies, the first named is a careful inquiry into the condition of the pupils of their schools, and the proper means for their moral improvement. For this purpose they urge that every effort be made to give the pupils *constant employment*, and to guard them against the temptations of idleness; to preserve a mild but firm course of discipline; and to promote *fraternal affection* among them. They urge, that every branch of instruction, from the highest to the lowest, be discussed at these meetings; and that there should be a steady effort among the teachers to *advance in knowledge and skill*. Would that the last object could be impressed upon the minds of the multitude of teachers in our country, who wrap themselves up in the consciousness of having attained the *ne plus ultra* of skill and knowledge, or lie down in listless apathy, after their daily task is performed, with no anxiety but to ‘get through’ the business of to-morrow as early as possible.

The second meeting of the Berne Society of Teachers was also held at Hofwyl. It was opened by an interesting address from the president, full of truth and energy, of which we can only give a few opening sentences:—

‘Guardians of the spiritual life, the personal wealth, of the children of our people! we have assembled to ratify our bond. We have pledged ourselves that in our schools shall grow up a noble, well-taught generation of the people; true to the principles of the Gospel, devoted to God, and faithful to men; a people whose characters shall not be unworthy of the scenes of grandeur and beauty which the Creator has assigned as their native land!’

‘In this great object we shall succeed only so far as we follow the Savior’s example, and imbibe the fullness of his love to man, and trust in God, in forming the hearts of those who are committed to us, in extending the influence of the school to every household, and in warming the hearts

of parents as well as children. God will reward such labors, even if they are not rewarded on earth. The God who feeds the ravens and clothes the lilies, will never forsake the faithful guardians of *his* children.'

Among the evils suggested at this meeting of the society, as requiring a remedy, were some familiar to our own schools:—the want of faithful visitation, for which responsible and *paid* officers were considered the only remedy; neglect and difficulties in obtaining suitable teachers; imperfect school-books and means of instruction; the want of a periodical for teachers; the unhappy difficulties arising from the dependence of the teacher on the caprice or convenience of individuals for his scanty pay, and claims of parental dictation often founded upon it.

After the meeting was closed the band of music of the farm pupils of Hofwyl called the assembly to a repast prepared for 360 persons by the liberal founder of Hofwyl. It was opened by him with prayer, acknowledging the favor of God to their association, and intreating his blessing upon their future efforts. A scene of social enjoyment and familiar intercourse then followed, suited to cheer the hearts of these fellow-laborers in an arduous and too often thankless office. Occasional songs, of that elevated and heart-stirring character which we have formerly described, were sung by the farm pupils, and united in by the chorus of teachers. We translate one sentiment given by a teacher, as a specimen of those offered on this occasion:

'There is *one means* of making the happiness, and the delight, which we feel to-day, *universal!* There is one *unfailing means* to convert ruined families into families of joy—to dry up the sources of poverty and misery—and to stem the torrent of overwhelming vice—to secure our liberties, and those of our children, against all the power of treachery,—in short, to secure the purity and the happiness of the people. And this unfailing means is, CHRISTIAN RATIONAL EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE, and especially of the poor. *To all, then, who understand this mighty cry, and put their hands to the holy work, LONG LIFE! HEALTH to all the friends and promoters of rational education of the people, and the poor—far and near! LONG LIFE TO THEM!*

Such animating sentiments were followed and impressed by some of the noble 'männchen,' or hymns for male voices, which the Swiss music furnishes to cherish social, and benevolent, and patriotic, and devotional feeling, in place of the bacchanalian and amatory songs which so often disgrace our social meetings.

During the summer of 1833, a course of instruction was given to teachers, under the immediate direction of Fellenberg. It was closed by an examination, at which a considerable number of persons were present; and the Cantonal Society of Teachers held its third meeting immediately after. It was attended by 200 teachers and friends of education, or *schoolmen*, as they are all styled in simple German, many of whom were new members.

Would that we could witness such a movement in any considerable portion of our own country. Could we see some individual who had the faith to invite, and the influence necessary to collect such a body of teachers to listen to instruction, and consult for the good of their schools, for three months, in any State in the Union, we should expect more benefit to the cause of education than from any amount of school funds; for, important as they are, under proper regulation, they can never supply the place of an intelligent and well-trained body of teachers.

Since the above letter was written, State, County and Town Associations of Teachers have been formed; Teachers' Institutes have been held; and Normal courses of instruction and Normal Schools, established.

NORMAL SCHOOL

AT

KRUITZLINGEN IN THE CANTON OF THURGOVIA.

THE Normal School at Krutzlingen, in the canton of Thurgovia, is under the direction of Vehrli; who for several years had the charge of the school in Fellenberg's establishment at Hofwyl. Under Vehrli's management, this Normal School has attracted much attention, not only in Switzerland, but in France, Germany, and England. The Training School at Battersea, near London, was modeled after this. The following account of a visit to Krutzlingen is taken from Dr. Kay's "*Report on the Training School at Battersea*," in 1841.

The normal school at Krutzlingen is in the summer palace of the former abbot of the convent of that name, on the shore of the Lake of Constance, about one mile from the gate of the city. The pupils are sent thither from the several communes of the canton, to be trained three years by Vehrli, before they take charge of the communal schools. Their expenses are borne in part by the commune, and partly by the council of the canton. We found ninety young men, apparently from eighteen to twenty-four or twenty-six years of age, in the school. Vehrli welcomed us with frankness and simplicity, which at once won our confidence. We joined him at his frugal meal. He pointed to the viands, which were coarse, and said,—“I am a peasant's son. I wish to be no other than I am, the teacher of the sons of the peasantry. You are welcome to my meal: it is coarse and homely, but it is offered cordially.”

We sat down with him. “These potatoes,” he said, “are our own. We won them from the earth, and therefore we need no dainties, for our appetite is gained by labor, and the fruit of our toil is always savory.” This introduced the subject of industry. He told us all the pupils of the normal school labored daily some hours in a garden of several acres attached to the house, and that they performed all the domestic duty of the household. When we walked out with Vehrli, we found them in the garden digging, and carrying on other garden operations, with great assiduity. Others were sawing wood into logs, and chopping it into billets in the court-yard. Some brought in sacks of potatoes on their backs, or baskets of recently gathered vegetables. Others labored in the domestic duties of the household.

After a while the bell rang, and immediately their out-door labors terminated, and they returned in an orderly manner, with all their implements, to the court-yard, where having deposited them, thrown off their frocks, and washed, they reassembled in their respective class-rooms.

We soon followed them. Here we listened to lessons in mathematics, proving that they were well-grounded in the elementary parts of that science. We saw them drawing from models with considerable skill and precision, and heard them instructed in the laws of perspective. We listened to a lecture on the code of the canton, and to instruction in the geography of Europe. We were informed that their instruction extended to the language of the canton, its construction and grammar, and especially to the history of Switzerland; arithmetic; mensuration; such a knowledge of natural philosophy and mechanics as might enable them to explain the chief phenomena of nature and the mechanical forces; some acquaintance with astronomy. They had continual lessons in pedagogy, or the theory of the art of teaching, which they practiced in the neighboring village school. We were assured that their instruction in the Holy Scriptures, and other religious knowledge, was a constant subject of solicitude.

The following extract from Vehrli's address at the first examination of the pupils, in 1837, will best explain the spirit that governs the seminary, and the

attention paid there to what we believe has been too often neglected in this country—the education of the heart and feelings, as distinct from the cultivation of the intellect. It may appear strange to English habits to assign so prominent a place in an educational institution to the following points, but the indication here given of the superior care bestowed in the formation of the character, to what is given to the acquisition of knowledge, forms in our view the chief charm and merit in this and several other Swiss seminaries, and is what we have labored to impress on the institution we have founded. To those who can enter into its spirit, the following extract will not appear tinged with too sanguine views:—

“The course of life in this seminary is three-fold.

“1st.—Life in the home circle, or family life.

“2nd.—Life in the school-room.

“3rd.—Life beyond the walls in the cultivation of the soil.

“I place the family life first, for here the truest education is imparted; here the future teacher can best receive that cultivation of the character and feelings which will fit him to direct those, who are entrusted to his care, in the ways of piety and truth.

“A well-arranged family circle is the place where each member, by participating in the others’ joys and sorrows, pleasures and misfortunes, by teaching, advice, consolation, and example, is inspired with sentiments of single-mindedness, of charity, of mutual confidence, of noble thoughts, of high feelings, and of virtue.

“In such a circle can a true religious sense take the firmest and the deepest root. Here it is that the principles of Christian feeling can best be laid, where opportunity is continually given for the exercise of affection and charity, which are the first virtues that should distinguish a teacher’s mind. Here it is that kindness and earnestness can most surely form the young members to be good and intelligent men, and that each is most willing to learn and receive an impress from his fellow. He who is brought up in such a circle, who thus recognizes all his fellow-men as brothers, serves them with willingness whenever he can, treats all his race as one family, loves them, and God their father above all, how richly does such a one scatter blessings around! What earnestness does he show in all his doings and conduct, what devotion especially does he display in the business of a teacher! How differently from him does that master enter and leave his school, whose feelings are dead to a sense of piety, and whose heart never beats in unison with the joys of family life.

“Where is such a teacher as I have described most pleasantly occupied? In his school amongst his children, with them in the house of God or in the family circle, and wherever he can be giving or receiving instruction. A great man has expressed, perhaps too strongly, ‘I never wish to see a teacher who can not sing.’ With more reason I would maintain, that a teacher to whom a sense of the pleasures of a well-arranged family is wanting, and who fails to recognize in it a well-grounded religious influence, should never enter a school-room.”

As we returned from the garden with the pupils on the evening of the first day, we stood for a few minutes with Vehrli in the court-yard by the shore of the lake. The pupils had ascended into the class-rooms, and the evening being tranquil and warm, the windows were thrown up, and we shortly afterward heard them sing in excellent harmony. As soon as this song had ceased we sent a message to request another, with which we had become familiar in our visits to the Swiss schools; and thus, in succession, we called for song after song of Nageli, imagining that we were only directing them at their usual hour of instruction in vocal music. There was a great charm in this simple but excellent harmony. When we had listened nearly an hour, Vehrli invited us to ascend into the room where the pupils were assembled. We followed him, and on entering the apartment, great was our surprise to discover the whole school, during the period we had listened, had been cheering with songs their evening employment of peeling potatoes, and cutting the stalks from the green vegetables and beans which they had gathered in the garden. As we stood there they renewed their choruses till prayers were announced. Supper had been previously taken. After prayers, Vehrli, walking about the apartment, conversed with them familiarly on the occurrences of the day, mingling with

his conversation such friendly admonition as sprang from the incidents, and then lifting his hands he recommended them to the protection of heaven, and dismissed them to rest.

We spent two days with great interest in this establishment. Vehrli had ever on his lips:—"We are peasant's sons. We would not be ignorant of our duties, but God forbid that knowledge should make us despise the simplicity of our lives. The earth is our mother, and we gather our food from her breast, but while we peasants labor for our daily food, we may learn many lessons from our mother earth. There is no knowledge in books like an immediate converse with nature, and those that dig the soil have nearest communion with her. Believe me, or believe me not, this is the thought that can make a peasant's life sweet, and his toil a luxury. I know it, for see my hands are horny with toil. The lot of men is very equal, and wisdom consists in the discovery of the truth that what is *without* is not the source of sorrow, but that which is within. A peasant may be happier than a prince if his conscience be pure before God, and he learn not only contentment, but joy, in the life of labor which is to prepare him for the life of heaven."

This was the theme always on Vehrli's lips. Expressed with more or less perspicuity, his main thought seemed to be that poverty, rightly understood, was no misfortune. He regarded it as a sphere of human exertion and human trial, preparatory to the change of existence, but offering its own sources of enjoyment as abundantly as any other. "We are all equal," he said, "before God; why should the son of a peasant envy a prince, or the lily an oak; are they not both God's creatures?"

We were greatly charmed in this school by the union of comparatively high intellectual attainments among the scholars, with the utmost simplicity of life, and cheerfulness in the humblest menial labor. Their food was of the coarsest character, consisting chiefly of vegetables, soups, and very brown bread. They rose between four and five, took three meals in the day, the last about six, and retired to rest at nine. They seemed happy in their lot.

Some of the other normal schools of Switzerland are remarkable for the same simplicity in their domestic arrangements, though the students exceed in their intellectual attainments all notions prevalent in England of what should be taught in such schools. Thus in the normal school of the canton of Berne the pupils worked in the fields during eight hours of the day, and spent the rest in intellectual labor. They were clad in the coarsest dresses of the peasantry, wore wooden shoes, and were without stockings. Their intellectual attainments, however, would have enabled them to put to shame the masters of most of our best elementary schools.

Such men, we felt assured, would go forth cheerfully to their humble village homes to spread the doctrine which Vehrli taught of peace and contentment in virtuous exertion; and men similarly trained appeared to us best fitted for the labor of reclaiming the pauper youth of England to the virtues, and restoring them to the happiness, of her best instructed peasantry.

A brother of Dr. Kay, in his "Education of the Poor in England and Europe," thus speaks of Vehrli:

"I saw Vehrli twice. The first time I found him clad in a plain coarse tweed vest, at work upon his fields; and on my second visit, he was busily engaged with his boys in repairing the plain wooden furniture of his house, and the handles, &c., of his farming tools. He said to me, 'You must not expect to find any grandeur in our house; my boys are all to be engaged among our peasants, and I teach them to sympathize with those with whom they must associate hereafter, by accustoming them and myself to simple peasants' lives.' On my first visit I dined with him. The viands were of the plainest possible kind, but Vehrli reminded me that the laborer's fare was no better, and that therefore the laborer's companion and teacher ought to be satisfied. The result of this simple life is, that while in other parts of Switzerland, schoolmasters, who have been admirably instructed at Normal schools, but who have never had the advantage of the excellent discipline of the habits which Vehrli's pupils

receive, often become discontented with the drudgery of a schoolmaster's life, the young men, who have left Vehrli's school, are found to persevere with cheerfulness and Christian enthusiasm in the work of instruction and social reformation.

Throughout Switzerland, Vehrli's school is looked on as the pattern, and in all the other Normal Schools they are gradually adopting his views relative to the education of the teachers.

I have thus particularly noticed the necessity of a great simplicity in the daily life of a pupil-teacher, as I fear this important part of a schoolmaster's training is almost entirely neglected in several of the few Normal schools we at present possess. We seem to imagine that it is a perfectly easy thing for a man, who has acquired habits of life fitting him for the higher circles of society, to associate with the poor, without any previous training. No mistake can be more fatal to the progress of the religious education of the poor. An instructed man, accustomed for several years to the society of intellectual professors and companions, without having any thing to remind him of, still less to habituate him to communication with the humble class among whom he is afterward to live, must feel considerable reluctance, if not decided disgust, when he finds himself called on to associate with the simple, rude, and uneducated poor. To enable him to do this, requires as careful a training as to enable him to teach; and although men are found, whose sense of duty and whose Christian philanthropy triumph over the defects of their education, yet, in the majority of cases, the dissimilarity of tastes between the teacher and his associates, must at least curtail his power of doing good, even if it does not actually cause him to neglect altogether the principal of his duties, from that natural repugnance which he cannot surmount. To teach the poor effectively, we must choose the teachers from among themselves; and during their education we must continually accustom them to the humble character of their former lives, as well as to that of their future associates. The Roman Catholic Church has always clearly understood this truth. She has perceived from the first, with that sagacity which has marked all her worldly policy, that to obtain men who would really understand and sympathize with the poor, and who would feel no disgust for the greatest duty of a priest's life, the visitation of the meanest hovels, she must take her teachers from the poor themselves, and keep their minds continually habituated to a toilsome and humble life, whilst receiving education fitting them to be the religious teachers of the people. The greater part, therefore, of her priests are chosen from the poorer classes. The poor know that these priests can understand their necessities, can sympathize with their sufferings, and can visit their simple firesides without disgust. Whilst, therefore, the Roman Catholic peasant respects his priest for the sacred character of the office he fills and for the education he has received, there is none of that painful sense of separation between them, which exists, where the peasant feels that his religious minister belongs to another class and can never perfectly comprehend the situation, the wants, and the troubles of the poor. Still less does such a religious minister feel any difficulty in his communications with the poor. He visits the meanest hovel without disgust, he associates with the laborer without any danger of exhibiting an insolent air of worldly superiority, and knowing what a laborer's feelings are, he communicates with him without embarrassment, without reserve, and above all, without superciliousness.

In the Catholic cantons of Switzerland the priest is not only the spiritual adviser, but he is also the friend and companion of the laborer, and that too, naturally, without any difficulty to himself, and with infinite advantage to the poor. An Englishman would scarcely believe me, were I

to describe how the priests, in the Catholic cantons, may be seen associating with the peasants.

In this country, where the clergyman is so far separated from the poor man by his station in society, his associations, habits, and education, it becomes doubly important that the schoolmaster of the Church should be a connecting link between the clergyman and his flock. He ought to be the adjutant of the clergyman, capable by his education to be indeed his assistant, and strictly united by his habits to the poor, among whom he ought with cheerfulness to labor.

Deeply grieved am I, then, to see that in some of our Normal schools we have not only abandoned the idea of labor being a necessary part of the discipline of a Normal school, but that we are accustoming the pupil-teachers to manners of dress and living far, far above those of the poor, among whom they must afterward live, and with whom they ought continually to associate. The life of a pupil-teacher in a Normal school ought to be such, that when he leaves it for his village school, he shall find his new position one of greater ease and comfort than the one he has left, and that he may feel no disgust for the laborious drudgery that must fall to his lot in such a situation.

M. Prosper Dumont, in his treatise* on Normal Schools, published in Paris, in 1841, commends the Normal School of Vehrli, "as an excellent model for educating teachers for country schools." So profoundly was he impressed by the character of this practical educator, and the results of his teaching and example, that he regards Vehrli "as a beautiful example of the Normal teacher,—the religious and well-informed laborer, capable of demonstrating, in an unequivocal manner, to working men, that enlightened and elevated sentiments are not incompatible with manual labor. All is here combined to contribute to the education of a country teacher; the example is always placed by the side of the precept; all instruction is mutually connected, and illustrative of each other; the moral, mental, and physical development go along together. The whole atmosphere is pedagogic—the pupil teacher imbibes the spirit of his vocation at every pore. That which strikes most is the happy application of the best principles of education, and the profoundly Christian spirit, without ostentation, which characterizes every portion of the detail."

Vehrli was still laboring in his vocation at Kruitzlingen in 1849, at the age of sixty, with the same simplicity of life, the same singleness of purpose, and the same noble enthusiasm which marked the opening of his career at Hofwyl.

We add a Table exhibiting the allotment of time in each week of the Course of Instruction at Kruitzlingen, in the summer of 1836.

* M. Dumont received the prize offered by the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, in 1838, for the best discussion of the question: "What degree of perfection may the establishment of primary Normal Schools acquire, considering them in their relation to the moral education of youth?"

The title of the work is "De l'Education Populaire et des Ecoles Normales Primaires." Paris, 1841.

NORMAL SCHOOL

AT

KUSSNACHT, IN THE CANTON OF ZURICH.

THE Normal School at Kussnacht is about a league from the town of Zurich, and the buildings are prettily situated on the borders of the lake of the same name. This institution was re-organized in 1836, though the modifications made have been rather in the details than in the general principles. It now consists of a school for teachers, a preparatory school for this seminary, and three primary model schools. It is intended to supply teachers for the different grades of primary schools of the canton, and during a portion of the year lectures are also delivered in the seminary to the older teachers, who are assembled for the purpose in their vacations.

The superintendence and control of the Normal School is vested by the legislative council in the council of education, who appoint a committee of superintendence from their own body. This committee visits the school at least once a month, attends its examinations, and, in general, inspects its management. The executive power is delegated to a director, who has the immediate charge of the school, and arranges the plan of instruction, in subordination to the council of education. He examines the candidates for admission, inspects the classes of the seminary, and of the schools attached to it, and lectures in the school of repetition for the older teachers. He is also responsible for the discipline, and reports half-yearly the state of the institution to the council of education. He is moreover present at the meeting of the committee of superintendence. There are three other teachers, besides a variable number of assistants. These teachers in turn have charge of the pupils of the Normal School in and out of school-hours. There are conferences of all the teachers, at which the director presides. The manners of the people and the purpose of the seminary render the discipline of very trifling amount. The pupils of the Normal School reside in the village of Kussnacht, but spend the greater part of their time at the school, under the direction of its masters. All the time devoted to study, recitation or lecture, and regular exercise, is passed there.

To be admitted as a candidate for the Normal School, a youth must be sixteen years of age, and of suitable morals, intellectual, and physical qualities for the profession of a teacher. He must have spent two years in the higher division of primary instruction (called here secondary) in the model school, or some equivalent one, or have passed through the preparatory department of the Normal School, which gives a preference to the candidate, other qualifications being equal. The examination of candidates takes place once a year, and in presence of the committee of superintendence, or of a deputation from their body. The formal right of admitting to the school is, however, vested alone in the council of education. The subjects of examination are Bible history, speaking and reading, grammar, the elements of history, geography and natural philosophy, arithmetic and the elements of geometry, writing, drawing, and vocal music. The council of education fixes the number of pupils who may be admitted, and the most proficient of the candidates are selected. There are forty stipendiary places, ten of the value of one hundred and sixty Swiss francs, (forty-eight dollars,) and thirty of half that sum.

Natives who are admitted all receive their instruction gratis. If there is room in the school, foreigners may be received, paying twelve dollars per annum for their instruction. The number of pupils at the date of my visit, in the autumn of 1837, was one hundred and ten. The stipendiaries are bound to serve as teachers in the canton two years; a very moderate return for the education received.

There are two grades of courses in the Normal School, one of two years for pupils intending to become teachers in the lower primary schools, the other of three years for the higher primary schools. The courses begin in April, and continue, with seven weeks of vacation, throughout the year. The subjects of instruction are: Religious instruction, German, French, mathematics, history, geography, natural history and philosophy, pedagogy, writing, drawing, and vocal and instrumental music. French is only obligatory upon the students of the three years' course. Gymnastic exercises and swimming are regularly taught and practised.

There is, besides, a lecture of an hour and a half on the art of building, once a week, attended by all the students. Those who learn instrumental music have lessons two hours and a half every week, and two hours of Sunday are occupied with singing in concert. One of the teachers devotes two extra hours every week to the assistance of some of the pupils in their studies, or to repetitions.

At the close of each year there is a public examination, and the pupils are classed according to its results. On leaving the institution, they are arranged in three grades; the first, of those who have gone very satisfactorily through the school, the second, of those who have passed satisfactorily, and the third, of those who have not come up to the standard. Certificates of the first two grades entitle their holders to compete for any vacant primary school.

The courses of practice begin in the second year, when the pupils take regular part in the exercises of the schools attached to the seminary. These are, first, two model schools for children from the ages of six to nine, and from nine to twelve, at which latter age the legal obligation to attend the school ceases. The third, called a secondary school, contains pupils from twelve to sixteen years of age. The system of instruction used in the lower schools is attended with very striking results. The lessons are not divided into distinct branches, studiously kept separate, as in most elementary schools, but are connected, as far as possible, so as to keep the different subjects constantly before the mind. Thus, a lesson of geography is, at the same time, one of history, and incidentally of grammar, natural history, of reading and writing, and so on through the circle of elementary instruction. The Pestalozzian lessons on form are made the basis of writing, and with good success. The lowest class is taught to speak correctly, and to spell by the phonic method, to divide words into syllables, and thus to count. To number the lessons. To make forms and combine them, and thus to write, and through writing to read. The second passes to practical grammar, continues its reading and writing, the lessons in which are made exercises of natural history and grammar. Reading and speaking are combined to produce accuracy in the latter, which is a difficulty where the language has been corrupted into a dialect, as the German has in northern Switzerland. Movable letters are used to give exercises in spelling and reading. The plan of the Pestalozzian exercises in grammar is followed, and when the pupils have learned to write, a whole class, or even two classes, may be kept employed intellectually, as well as mechanically, by one teacher. In reading, the understanding of every thing read is insisted upon, and the class-books are graduated accordingly. I never saw more intelligence and readiness displayed by children than in all these exercises; it affords a

strong contrast to the dullness of schools in which they are taught mechanically. The same principles are carried into the upper classes, and are transplanted into the schools by the young teachers, who act here as assistants. The examination of the second school in Bible history, with its connected geography and grammar lessons; in composition, with special reference to orthography and to the hand-writing; and the music lesson, at all of which the director was so kind as to enable me to be present, were highly creditable.

There are three classes in each of these schools, and the pupils of the Normal Seminary practice as assistant teachers in them at certain periods; the director also gives lessons, which the pupils of the seminary repeat in his presence.

In the highest, or secondary school, the elementary courses are extended, and mathematics and French are added.

The pupils of the preparatory department of the seminary spend two years in teaching in the two model schools, and in receiving instruction in the "secondary school" under the special charge of the director of the seminary. This establishment has furnished, during three years of full activity, two hundred teachers to the cantonal primary schools. These young teachers replace the older ones, who are found by the courses of repetition not able to come up to the present state of instruction, and who receive a retiring pension. The schools must thus be rapidly regenerated throughout the canton, and the education of the people raised to the standard of their wants as republicans.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION
PURSUED IN THE NORMAL SEMINARY AT ZURICH, SWITZERLAND.

	1st Class and 1st School year.	2nd Half year.	1st Half year.	2nd Half year.	3d Class and 3d School year.	1st Half year.	2nd Half year.
Religion and Morals.	1st Half year. Geography of Palestine, Jewish Archaeology, History of the Christian Church.	2nd Half year. Faith and morals, as founded on revelation.	1st Half year. Lectures on the Bible, with questions.	2nd Half year. Lectures on the Bible, with practical illustrations and references.	3d Class and 3d School year. 1st Half year. Deeper and more abstruse points of doctrine, with scriptural proofs and practical illustrations.	1st Half year. Continuation of the above.	2nd Half year. Continuation of the above.
German Language.	Grammar, exercises in reading and recitations, composition.	Grammar, continuation of exercises in reading and recitations, composition of letters and speeches.	Etymology, and logical exercises, recitations, and composition.	Repetitions of the more difficult parts of grammar, more extended compositions, laws of poetry.	The more important peculiarities of the German language, verbal expositions of the written exercises.	View of German literature: poetical exercises.	View of German literature: poetical exercises.
French Language.	Exercises in reading, and translation of easy pieces of French into German, introduction to the grammar, and etymology.	Continuation of the above beginning of the translation of German into French: grammar: vocabulary.	Continued exercises of reading and transl. into German: grammar: syntax: trans. from German into French: speaking.	Continuation of exercises in reading and translation: conclusion of syntax: recitations of easy pieces.	Further expositions of grammar, more difficult translations from & into French and German respectively: composition.	Continuation of the above short sketch of French literature.	Continuation of the above short sketch of French literature.
Arithmetic.	Elementary rules of arithmetic, Vulgar and Decimal Fractions.	Proportion: mental arithmetic.	Continuation of exercises in the elementary rules.	Continuation of exercises in Proportion: Simple Equations.	More difficult applications of the preceding rules.	Quadratic and Cubic Equations: Logarithms, Properties of Numbers: Progression.	Quadratic and Cubic Equations: Logarithms, Properties of Numbers: Progression.
Geometry.	The doctrine of parallel lines, properties of triangles, similar triangles.	Measurement of triangles, and straight line figures, planimetry.	Further exposition of the properties of triangles, and of straight line figures.	The circle: elements of stereometry: easy questions in practical geometry.	Continuation of planimetry: plain and solid angles: projection of straight line figures: questions in the above subjects.	Polygonal figures: elements of trigonometry: practical geometry: projection of bodies with straight or curved surfaces: sections.	Polygonal figures: elements of trigonometry: practical geometry: projection of bodies with straight or curved surfaces: sections.
History.	History from the beginning of the world to the subjection of Greece to the Romans.	From the building of Rome to the Westphalian Peace.	History of Switzerland from the beginning to the Westphalian Peace.	History of Switzerland as it bears on that of the rest of the world to the present period.	General history from 1389 to 1815.	General history from 1815 to the present time.	General history from 1815 to the present time.

Geography.	Introductory explanations, the ocean and continents, with their respective divisions.	Special geography of Europe.	The most important points of mathematical and physical geography.	Geography of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia.	More extended expositions of mathematical and physical geography.	Special geography of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia.
Natural History.	General introduction to natural history, description of elementary bodies, general characteristics of minerals.	Unmetallic minerals, metals, mountains, introduction to botany.	Systems of botany, description of plants, special information on the plants known to the pupils.	Introduction to zoology: classification and descriptions, introduction to the natural history of man.	Natural history of man: further expositions of the natural history of the lower animals.	Introduction to geology: fossils.
Physics.	::	::	The common phenomena arising from the various properties of differently constituted bodies.	Acoustics, optics, heat, magnetism, electricity.	Further exposition of the above subjects.	Further exposition of the above subjects.
Singing.	Elementary exercises of the voice, easy choral exercises.	Melody, religious hymns and choral singing.	Further exercises in Sol Fa, also with words, exercises in solo singing and choral singing.	Continuation of the above, special exposition of the art of teaching music.	Continuation of the above.	Continuation of the above.
Art of Writing.	Exercises in German and Roman character, in legal writing, and in black letter writing, music, and stenography.				::	::
Drawing.	Sketches from objects placed before the pupil, and from nature; special exercises in shading.				::	::
Art of Teaching.	::		Introduction to psychology, methods of instruction.	Further exposition of methods of instruction, and of the cantonal laws and regulations relative to schools, practical teaching in the primary school.	Fundamental principles of the science of teaching.	Practical teaching in the secondary school.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL OF THE CANTON OF VAUD, AT LAUSANNE, DURING THE WINTER OF 1838-1839.

HOURS.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
8	Prayer, reading, and religious instruction (all.)	As on Monday,	Idem,	Idem,	Idem,	Idem.
9	The art of teaching (all.)	General history (all.)	The art of teaching (all.)	Use of globes, first and second classes,	Swiss history (all.)	Instruction in law and in the duties of a citizen, 1, 2, 3.
10	Geometry, 1, 2, 3. The means of improving the health and condition of the people,	Arithmetic, 1, 2, 3. Theme, 3.	Theme, 1, 2, 3. Arithmetic, 3.	Composition, 1, 2, 3. Mental arithmetic, 3.	Arithmetic, 1, 2, 3. Theme, 3.	Theme, 1, 2, 3. Arithmetic, 3.
11	Botany, 1, 2, 3.	Writing, 1, 2, 3.	Chemistry, then Zoology, 1, 2, 3.	Chemistry, then Zoology, 1, 2, 3.	Writing, 1, 2, 3.	Chemistry, &c. 1, 2, 3.
1	Exercises on the physical sciences, 1, 2.	Writing, 3.
2	Grammar, 1, 2, 3.	Drawing, 1, 2; reading, 3.	Grammar, 1, 2, 3.	Drawing, 3; mental arithmetic, 1, 2.	Geometry, 3.	Geometry, 1, 2.
3	Gymnastics, 1, 2.	Drawing, 1, 2.	Gymnastics, 3. Book-keeping, 1.	Drawing, 3; reading, 1, 2.	Composition, 1, 2.	.
4	Geography, 3.	Geography, 1, 2.	Reading, 1, 2. Geometry, 3.	Reading, 3.	Pedagogical exercises in mathematics, 1, 2, 3. Swiss Geography, 1, 2, 3.	.
5	.	Geography, 3.	Singing, 1, 2, 3.	Geography, 1, 2.	Singing, 1, 2, 3.	.
7	.	Singing, 3.	.	Singing, 1, 2.	.	.

N. B.—The figures denote the different classes. The figure 1 being attached to the most advanced class.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL OF THE CANTON OF VAUD AT LAUSANNE, IN THE SUMMER OF 1833.						
HOURS.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
5	Book-keeping (teachers,)* Writing (pupils,) [†]	Geography (teachers.)	Geography (teachers,) Writing (pupils,)	On the method of writing (teachers.)
6	Prayer, reading, and religious instruction,	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday.
7	Composition (older pupils,) Arithmetic, (younger pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers,) A theme (pupils,)	Composition (teachers,) Geometry (pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers,) A theme (pupils,)	Composition (teachers,) Geometry (pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers.) Composition (young pupils.)
8	The art of teaching (all,)	Use of the globes (all,)	Art of teaching (all,)	Instruction in the law and duties of a citizen (all,)	Art of teaching (all,)	Instruction in the law and in the duties of a citizen (all.)
9	Geometry (teachers,) Mental arithmetic (pupils,)	Grammar (teachers,) Geometry (pupils,)	Geometry (teachers,) Grammar (pupils,)	Reading, with analysis of the grammar, structure, and meaning (all,)	Grammar (teachers,) Geography (pupils,)	Geometry (teachers.) Grammar (pupils.)
10	Natural history (all,)	Physics (pupils,)	Natural history (all,)	Natural history (all,)	Pedagogical exercises on the physical sciences (pupils,)	Reading (teachers,) Arithmetic (older pupils.)
11	A theme (teachers,)	Drawing (teachers,) Composition (young pupils,)	A theme (teachers,)	Drawing (pupils,)
2	Gymnastics (pupils,)	Drawing (teachers,) Composition (young pupils,)	Geography of Switzerland (teachers,)	Drawing (pupils,)	Gymnastics (pupils,)
3	Reading (pupils,)	Reading (all,)	Singing (teachers,) Arithmetic (pupils,) Singing (pupils,)	Reading (all,)	Singing (teachers,) Arithmetic (pupils,) Singing (pupils,)	Practical geometry (pupils,)
4	Mental Arithmetic, (teachers,)	Singing (all,)	Singing (pupils,)	Singing (all,)

* Teachers are masters of elementary schools in attendance on the Normal School.

† Pupils are young men who have not had charge of elementary schools, but who are preparing for the duties of schoolmasters.

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION		PURSUED IN THE THREE COURSES, AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY AT LUCERN, SWITZERLAND.					
HOURS.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.	
8 to 9, or $\frac{1}{2}$ past 9,	1st course, Arithmetic, Grammar and school discipline, Arithmetic.	1st and 2d course, Religious instruction, Grammar, Religious instruction.	1st course, Geometry, Composition.	1st and 2d course, Religious instruction, Writing, Religious instruction.	Same as Monday.	1st and 2d course, Religious instruction, Grammar, Religious instruction.	
9, or $\frac{1}{2}$ past 9, to 10 or 11,	Grammar and school discipline,	3d course, Writing, Religious instruction, 2d and 3d course, Composition.	2d and 3d course, Composition, Geometry,	3d course, Writing, Religious instruction, 2d and 3d course, Arithmetic, Composition.	3d course, Geometry, Religious instruction.	
10 to 11,	1st course, Geometry, Composition.	1st course, Composition, Singing.	Arithmetic, Statistics of Switzerland, 2d and 3d course, Singing.	
11 to 12,	Singing.	Singing.	Singing.	
$\frac{1}{2}$ past 1 to 3, 3 to 4,	1st course, Arithmetic, Natural philosophy or history, Geography.	1st course, History, Writing, Geography, Gymnastics.	1st course,	1st, 2d, and 3d course, Drawing, Geography, Gymnastics.	1st course, Arithmetic, School discipline, Gymnastics, Geography.	1st course, History, Arithmetic, Natural philosophy or history, Gymnastics.	
6 to 7,	Gymnastics, Geography.	2d and 3d course, Arithmetic, Natural philosophy, Gymnastics.	2d and 3d course,	1st, 2d, and 3d course,	2d and 3d course, Arithmetic, School discipline, Gymnastics, Geography.	2d and 3d course, Geometry, Natural philosophy or history, Gymnastics.	

HOLLAND.

THE first impulse to improved primary instruction in Holland was given by some benevolent citizens of Groningen, who, in 1784, founded the "Society for the Public Good." They were encouraged and supported by the government, in their efforts to prepare school books, train schoolmasters, and excite attention to the state of schools. In 1806 the various edicts and regulations, published from time to time, were digested into a law, by M. Van der Ende, and were generalized for the guidance of the country at large. The French invasion curtailed the means applied to education; still the Dutch system was, as early as 1812, thought worthy of a special inquiry by Commissioners deputed from the University of Paris, at the head of which was M. Cuvier, who reported with no small admiration respecting it. On the restoration of peace in 1814, the first care of the king was directed to the state of public education, which by the law of that year was restored to the footing of 1806. Every province was divided into educational districts, and a school inspector was appointed to each district. A provincial School Commission was named from among the leading inhabitants of each province to co-operate with the inspectors, and a sum was charged on the budget for the educational outlay, from which the traveling expenses of the commissioners were to be defrayed.

The governments of the towns and provinces were charged with the cost of maintaining the schools, for which they provide in their local budgets. Teachers were classified into four ranks, according to their qualifications and acquirements, and received their appointments from Government. A sum was also destined for the encouragement of associations of teachers, who were to meet to confer on school management, to visit each other's schools, and to study in common the duties incumbent on their profession.

The best known methods of instruction were sought and tried, and a catalogue of the best school books was prepared and published in the course of the year 1814.

In 1825, a prize was offered by the "Society for the Public Good," for the best essay on the advantages and disadvantages of the monitorial system, and the simultaneous or class system of instruction. The prize was awarded to a dissertation by M. Visser, Inspector of Primary Schools in Friesland. In this essay, the system of monitorial instruction is analyzed,

and proved to be unsound on every point which bears upon education in the best sense of that term. This essay was published and widely distributed by the society, and contributed to form and strengthen the opinion which prevails in Holland, against the method of mutual instruction.

In 1816 the Normal School at Haarlem was established, to supply a deficiency which was felt for the training of teachers, through the influence of M. Van der Ende, who is esteemed the father of education in Holland. A similar institution had previously been commenced on a small scale at Groningen, by the Society of Public Good. Up to the establishment of the Normal School at Groningen, teachers had been trained in Holland, by serving a sort of apprenticeship from the age of 14 to 16 or 18, as assistants in the larger schools, during the day, and receiving a course of special instruction, for one hour every evening. This, as far as it goes, is a cheap and excellent mode of professional training. But the experience of fifteen years satisfied her statesmen and educators, that this was not sufficient. It made good schoolmasters, but not inquiring and creative teachers. It produced rather routine than intelligent teaching, and arrested the progress of improvement, by perpetuating only the methods of those schools in which the young teachers had been practiced as assistants. To obviate this tendency, and to give to teachers a broader and firmer basis of attainments and principles, Normal Schools were established. The two modes are now continued together,* and in connection with the stimulus of the severe examination through which all teachers must pass, and of the direct and constant inspection to which all scholars are subjected, they have made the elementary schools of Holland inferior to none other in Europe. President Bache, in his Report on Education in Europe, pronounces them superior to those of the same class in any of the European states.

The attendance of children is not made compulsory on parents, but, what is equivalent to such an enactment, it is provided by law, that outdoor relief shall not be administered to any family, where children are allowed to run wild in the streets, or grow up as vagrants, or are employed in any factory without a previous elementary training.

The schools are not made free to parents by governmental contribution or local taxation, although both of these modes of supporting schools are resorted to. The schools are in the first place made good, by providing for the employment of only well-qualified teachers, and then the schools, thus made good, are open to all parents without exception or distinction, and all are required to pay a tuition fee, which the government provides shall not be large in any case. The result is universal education throughout Holland. In Haarlem, with a population of 21,000 in 1840, there was not a child of ten years of age, and of sound intellect, who could not both read and write, and this is true throughout Holland, according to the testimony of intelligent travelers, and is borne out by the following official table, (page 100,) as to the school attendance in 1846.

* See page 350.

The superiority of public elementary instruction in Holland, is attributed, by her own educators, and by intelligent foreigners, who have visited her schools in the rural districts, as well as in the large towns, to that system of special inspection, combined with specific and enforced preparation of all candidates for the office of teacher, and subsequent gradation of rank and pay, according to character and skill, which has now been in operation nearly half a century, ever since the first school law of the Batavian Republic, in 1806, drawn up by that wise statesman, M. Van der Palm. The following extracts will give at once this testimony, and an intelligent account of the system of inspection.

Baron Cuvier, in his "*Report to the French Government on the establishment of Public Instruction in Holland,*" in 1811, after speaking with special commendation of the system of inspection, remarks :

"The government is authorized to grant to each province a certain sum to meet the compensation, and the expenses of travel, and meeting of the inspectors. The mode of choosing them is excellent; they are taken from clergymen, or laymen of education, who have signalized themselves by their interest in the education of children, and skill in the local management of schools; from the teachers who have distinguished themselves in their vocation; and in the large towns, from the professors of the Universities and higher grade of schools."

Mr. W. E. Hickson, now Principal of the Mechanics Institute in Liverpool, in an "*Account of the Dutch and German Schools,*" published in 1840, remarks :

"In Holland, education is, on the whole, more faithfully carried out than in most of the German States, and we may add that, notwithstanding the numerous Normal Schools of Prussia, (institutions in which Holland, although possessing two, is still deficient,) the Dutch schoolmasters are decidedly superior to the Prussian, and the schools of primary instruction consequently in a more efficient state. This superiority we attribute entirely to a better system of inspection. In Prussia, the inspectors of schools are neither sufficiently numerous, nor are their powers sufficiently extensive. Mr. Streiz, the inspector for the province of Posen, confessed to us the impossibility of personally visiting every one of the 1,635 schools in his district, and admitted that he was obliged, in his returns, to depend to a great extent upon the reports of local school committees. In Holland, inspection is the basis upon which the whole fabric of popular instruction rests.

The constitution of the Board is well worthy of attention; there can be no judges of the qualifications of teachers equal to those whose daily employment consists in visiting schools, and comparing the merits of different plans of instruction. But the power given to the inspector does not end here: by virtue of his office he is a member of every local board, and when vacant situations in schools are to be filled up, a new examination is instituted before him into the merits of the different candidates. It is upon his motion that the appointment is made, and upon his report to the higher authorities a master is suspended or dismissed for misconduct. Through his influence children of more than ordinary capacity in the schools he visits, are transferred, as pupils, to the Normal Schools, in order to be trained for masters; and through his active agency all improved plans or methods of instruction are diffused throughout the various institutions of the country."

M. Cousin, in a Report to the minister of Public Instruction in France, in 1836, "*on the state of Education in Holland*," while giving a preference to the school law of Prussia, in its provision for Normal Schools, and the classification of public schools, and especially for the support of the higher class of primary schools, assigns the palm to Holland, in the matter of school inspection.

"The provincial boards of primary instruction, with their great and various powers, constitute, in my mind, the chief superiority of the Dutch over the Prussian law. They resemble the *Schul-collegium*, which forms a part of every provincial consistory in Prussia; but they are far better, for the *Schul-collegium* is not composed of inspectors. It sends out some of its members to inspect, as occasion requires, but inspection is not its function. It judges from written documents, and not from ocular proof, and is generally obliged to rely upon the sole testimony of the member sent to inspect; whereas in Holland, the board, being both inspectors and judges of inspections, are on the one hand better judges, in consequence of the experience they have acquired in a constant routine of inspection; and, on the other hand, they are better inspectors, by what they learn at the board, when acting as judges and governors, a combination eminently practical, and uniting what is almost every where separated.

* * * * *

Every inspector resides in his own district, and he is bound to inspect every school at least twice a year, and he has jurisdiction over the primary schools of every grade within the district. Without his approval no one can either be a public or a private teacher; and no public or private teacher can retain his situation, or be promoted, or receive any gratuity; for no commissioner has any power in his absence, and he is either the chairman or the influential member of all meetings that are held. He is thus at the head of the whole of the primary instruction in his particular district. He is required to repair three times a year to the chief town of the province, to meet the other district inspectors of the province, and a conference is held, the governor of the province presiding, which lasts for a fortnight or three weeks, during which time each inspector reads a report upon the state of his district, and brings before the meeting all such questions as belong to them. As each province has its own particular code of regulations for its primary schools, founded upon the law and its general regulations, the provincial board examines whether all the proceedings of the several inspectors have been conformable to that particular code; they look to the strict and uniform execution of the code; they pass such measures as belong to them to originate, and they draw up the annual report which is to be presented to the central administration, and submit such amendments as appear to them necessary or useful, and of which the central administration is constituted the judge. Under the Minister of the Interior there is a high functionary, the Inspector-general of Primary Instruction; and from time to time a general meeting is summoned by the government, to be held at the Hague, to which each provincial board sends a deputy; and thus, from the Inspector-general of the Hague, down to the local inspector of the smallest district, the whole of the primary instruction is under the direction of inspectors. Each inspector has charge of his own district, each provincial board has charge of its province; and the general meeting, which may be called the assembly of the states-general of primary instruction, has charge of the whole kingdom. All these authorities are, in their several degrees, analogous in their nature; for all are public functionaries, all are paid and responsible officers. The district-inspector is responsible to the provincial Board of Commissioners; and they are responsible to the Inspector-general and the Minister of the Interior. In this learned and very simple hierarchy the powers of every member are clearly defined and limited."

Mr. George Nicholls, in a "*Report on the condition of the Laboring Poor in Holland and Belgium*," to the Poor Law Commissioners of England, in 1838, remarks:

"The measures adopted in Holland to promote the education of all classes,

have apparently resulted from the conviction that the moral and social character of the people, their intelligence, and their capacity for increasing the resources of the country, must in a great measure depend upon the manner in which they are trained for the fulfillment of their several duties. The state has not rendered education actually obligatory upon the municipalities, neither has it required evidence of the education of the children of the poorer classes by any educational test; for a sense of the importance of education pervades the entire community—it is sought by the poor for their children, with an earnestness similar to that observed in the more wealthy classes in other countries; and in Holland, the direct interference of government is confined to regulating the mode of instruction, by means of an organized system of inspection.

This system, however much it may interfere with the liberty of the subject, has certainly some advantages. The poor, who have no means of judging for themselves, have, in the certificate given to every schoolmaster, some sort of guarantee that the person to whom they send their children is not an ignorant charlatan, professing to teach what he has never learned, and in the next place it secures to those who devote themselves to the profession a much higher rate of remuneration than they would receive if, as with us, every broken-down tradesman could open a school when able to do nothing else. This exclusion of absolute incapacity is also a means, and a very powerful one, of raising the character of the profession in popular estimation. With us, any man can become a schoolmaster, as easily as he can a coal-merchant, by simply putting a brass plate on his door; but in Holland, (and the same system is very general in Germany,) some degree of study is rendered indispensable, and the whole class, therefore, stand out from the rest of the community as men of superior attainments, and enjoy that consideration which men of cultivated minds everywhere command, when not surrounded by coadjutors below rather than above the common level.

In Holland, there is no profession that ranks higher than that of a schoolmaster, and a nobleman would scarcely, if at all, command more respect than is paid to many of those who devote their lives to the instruction of youth. The same personal consideration is extended to the assistant teacher or usher. We were much struck with the difference in the position of persons of this class abroad, from their lot at home, when we were visiting a school for the middle classes at Hesse-Cassel. The school contained 200 children, and was supported partly by the town and the government, and partly by the payments of the scholars. The charge for daily instruction was from 1s. 8d. to 5s. per month. The children were distributed in six classes—to each class a separate master or assistant teacher. We were conducted over the establishment by the head master or director of the school, and the first thing which drew our attention was the extreme ceremony with which we were introduced to each of the assistant masters, and the many apologies made by the professor for interrupting them, although but for a moment, in their important labors. We saw those treated as equals, who are in England often estimated as only on a rank with grooms or upper servants.

The most important branch of administration, as connected with education, is that which relates to school inspection. All who have ever been anxious either to maintain the efficiency of a school, or to improve its character, will appreciate the importance of the frequent periodical visits of persons having a knowledge of what education is, and who are therefore able to estimate correctly the amount and kind of instruction given. Let a school established by voluntary subscriptions be placed to-day upon the best possible footing, if no vigilance be exercised by its founders, and if the master be neither encouraged nor stimulated to exertion by their presence, his salary will speedily be converted into a sinecure, and the school will degenerate to the lowest point of utility."

Professor Bache, in his "*Report on Education in Europe*," in 1838, to the Trustees of Girard College, remarks:

"The system of primary instruction in Holland is particularly interesting to an American, from its organization in an ascending series; beginning with the local school authorities, and terminating, after progressive degrees of representation, as it were, in the highest authority; instead of emanating, as in the centralized systems, from that authority. A fair trial has been given to a system

of inspection which is almost entirely applicable to our country, and which has succeeded with them."

The school system of Holland consists of a brief law, of only twenty-three articles, drawn up by M. Van der Palm, the distinguished Oriental scholar, in 1801, and modified by M. Van der Ende, in 1806, and a series of Regulations drawn up by the state department having charge of this subject, to carry out the provisions of the law. The law was so wisely framed, and was so well adapted to the spirit, customs and habits of the people, that it has survived three great revolutions: first, that which converted the Batavian Republic into a kingdom, at first independent, but afterward incorporated with the French empire; next, that which dethroned Louis, restored the house of Orange, and united Holland and Belgium in one monarchy; and lastly, the revolution which again separated the two countries, and restricted the kingdom of the Netherlands to its former limits. During these thirty years, the law of 1806 was never interfered with; it could only be altered by another law, and when the government, in 1829, in order to please the Belgian liberal party, brought forward a new general law, which made some very objectionable changes in that of 1806, the chambers resisted, and the government were obliged to withdraw the bill.

The following provisions will show the spirit and scope of the law, and general regulations.

IX. "The school inspector of the district is authorized, in concert with the local authorities, to intrust one or more known and respectable persons with a local inspection, subordinate to his own, over the school or schools, and also over all the teachers of both sexes in the place, whether village, hamlet, or otherwise, and for each separately.

X. In all the more considerable towns and places, the parochial authorities, in concert with the school inspector of the district, shall establish a local superintendence of the primary schools, which shall consist of one or more persons, according to local circumstances, but so as each member shall have a particular division, and all the schools in that division shall be confided to him individually. These persons shall collectively constitute, with the school inspector of the district, the local school board.

XVII. No one shall be allowed to become a candidate for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

XXII. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

XXIII. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of the religious community to which they belong; but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

XXX. The provincial* and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps:

*The constitution of Holland is somewhat singular, and would seem at first sight to be founded upon what perhaps may one day be recognized as the true theory of representative government, that of progressive, intermediate elections. The rate-payers elect the *Kiezers*, the *Kiezers* elect the *Raad* or town council, the town council elect a certain proportion of the members of the provincial governments, and the provincial governments elect the lower chamber of the *States General*, or House of Commons.

The *States-General* consist of two chambers. The upper chamber is somewhat of a House of Lords, but not hereditary. The members, fifty in number, receive 250*l.* per annum for traveling ex-

1. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.
2. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year."

REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE EXAMINATION OF THOSE WHO DESIRE TO BECOME
TEACHERS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I. The teachers shall be divided into four classes, or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

VII. In these examinations, the object shall be to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

VIII. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavor to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinions on morals and religion; the sphere of his attainments, both with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

IX. The subjects of examination shall be as follows:

1. Reading from different printed and written characters; and whether with a good pronunciation and a proper and natural accent, and with a knowledge of punctuation.

2. Some words and phrases designedly wrong shall be shown to the candidate, to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.

3. To ascertain his acquaintance with the grammatical structure of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated to him, which he shall analyze, and point out the parts of speech; and he must give proofs of a familiar acquaintance with the declensions and conjugations.

4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle, and small hand, and shall make his own pens.

5. Some questions in arithmetic shall be proposed to him, confining this especially to such as are of common occurrence, and which shall be sufficient to show the dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions. Questions shall be put to him on the theoretical parts, and especially on decimal arithmetic.

6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of singing.

7. Different questions shall be proposed relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as the candidate proposes to teach.

8. A passage in French, or in any other language in which the candidate wishes to be examined, shall be given to him to read and translate. A passage in Dutch shall be dictated to him, to be translated by him, either in writing or *viva voce*, into the language which forms the subject of the examination. He shall be required to give, *de improviso*, in the same language, a composition in the form of a letter or narrative, &c., all for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of acquaintance he possesses with the language in question, in orthography, grammar and punctuation.

penses. The lower chamber, before the Revolution, consisted of 110 members, now but of fifty-five. The provincial governments are:

North Brabant,	42 members.	Friesland,	54 members.
Guederland,	90 "	Overyssel,	53 "
Holland,	90 "	Groningen,	36 "
Zealand,	46 "	Dreuthe,	24 "
Utrecht,	36 "		

The members of these provincial governments are not elected by the town councils, but by the nobility; the town councils, and Kiezers of the country districts, nearly in equal proportions. General business affecting more than one province, is referred to one or other of two committees, or provincial cabinets, elected by the members of the provincial governments. On these committees one member sits for each province.

X. The examination upon the acquirements of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to inquire into his capacity for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children to know the letters, figures, and the first principles; then reading, writing, and arithmetic. They shall then require him to relate some story or portion of history, in order to discover the degree of talent he possesses to present things to children with clearness and precision; care shall be taken, if there be a convenient opportunity, and if it be thought advisable, to have some children present, of different ages, and of different degrees of attainment, in order to ascertain more particularly his skill in practical teaching.

XI. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments; as also in general on the best methods to be adopted, not only to develop and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but most especially to bring them up in the exercise of the Christian virtues.

XII. When the examination is concluded, the examiners shall deliver to the candidate, who desires to obtain a general admission as a master, and has given proof of sufficient ability, a deed of that admission, according to the extent of his ability; and in this shall be stated, as distinctly as possible, the extent and the nature of the talents and of the acquirements of the candidate, as proved by his examination; and it shall declare the rank he has obtained, if it be in the first, second, third, or fourth class, and consequently such a general admission as shall give him a right to apply for the situation of a master, according to the rank which has been assigned to him. Finally, the said deed shall declare the branches of education, and the languages for which he shall have obtained the general admission.

XIII. The schoolmistresses or teachers of languages who shall have passed an examination, and have given sufficient proofs of their ability, shall also receive a deed which shall contain, besides a declaration of the extent and amount of their acquirements and talents, as proved by the examination, a general admission either for the office of schoolmistress or teacher of languages. That deed shall moreover expressly declare the branches of study and the languages which the person examined shall be entitled to teach.

XIV. All the deeds mentioned in the two preceding articles shall be alike throughout the whole extent of the republic, both in the matter and the form. If they are issued by a provincial board of education, they shall be signed by the president and secretary, and the seal of the board shall be affixed to them. The deeds issued by an inspector, or by a local board, shall be signed by the inspector only, or by the secretary of the local board.

XV. The certificates for the first and second class, issued by a provincial board, shall entitle those who obtain them to be masters in all primary schools, public as well as private, of the two classes, in all places throughout the republic, without exception; whereas the deeds issued by a local board shall confer no privilege beyond that locality.

XVI. The certificates for the third class, as well as those for the fourth or lowest class, shall confer the privilege of becoming teachers, except in schools established in places whose wants are proportioned to the rank and capacity of such masters, and which are situated within the jurisdiction of the provincial board.

XVII. In order that the provisions contained in the two preceding articles may be more easily carried into effect, the schools in small towns and less considerable places, more fully described in Art. 9 of regulation A, shall be classed by the different inspectors and by the provincial boards, into higher, middle, and lower schools, upon a principle hereafter provided. This classification, which shall be submitted to the provincial authorities for approval, shall be solely for the purpose of preventing the principal school falling into the hands of incompetent masters; while, at the same time, it leaves the power of placing a very able master over the smallest school.

XVIII. In the towns or places of greatest importance, no master of the fourth or lowest class shall be eligible to either a public or a private school. The local boards are even recommended to take care, as much as possible, that the tuition in the schools of their towns shall not be entrusted to any other than *masters of the first or second class.*

XXIV. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of

the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published in the periodical work entitled 'Bydragen tot den Staat,' &c., (which is still published.)"

It is impossible not to see that the stimulating effect of a series of examinations of this character, before a tribunal composed of qualified judges, must produce a class of teachers for the work of primary instruction unequaled in any other part of the world. But the soul of the whole system is *inspection*, or in other words, active and vigilant superintendence,—intelligent direction, and real responsibility,—all of which are involved in the system of inspection carried out in Holland. Without inspection there can be no competent tribunal for the examination of teachers; without inspection, local school committees and conductors of schools would be irresponsible to public opinion, inert and negligent; without inspection there would be no person constantly at hand sufficiently informed upon the state of education to suggest the measures required for the promotion of its objects; without inspection there would be no diffusion of new ideas, no benefiting by the experience of others, no rivalry in improvement, no progress. The following extracts will show the manner in which the duties of inspection are provided for.

REGULATIONS FOR SCHOOL INSPECTORS, AND FOR THE BOARDS OF EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT PROVINCES.

II. "Each inspector shall make himself acquainted with the number and situations of the primary schools, and also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. It shall be his duty to see that, besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall be a sufficient number of schools for children of tender age, organized in the best possible manner, and also schools of industry. Finally, he shall take care, that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different parishes.

III. He shall make it his business to become personally acquainted with the different masters in his district, and with the extent of their fitness, and shall keep a note thereof.

IV. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose, he shall at fixed periods require a certain number of them to meet him, either at his own house or in other parts of his district, and as frequently as possible.*

V. The inspector shall be bound to *visit twice a year* all the schools in his district, which are directly subject to his supervision. He is hereby exhorted to repeat those visits at different times, either when a particular case calls for it, or for the general good.

VI. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed: and according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen or heard. Every school inspector

* In compliance with the spirit of this article, societies of schoolmasters have been formed, under the auspices of the inspectors, at different times, in the districts of each province, which keep up a rivalry of improvement. They meet at stated times, generally every month.

shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

IX. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year.

XVIII. The ordinary meetings of the boards shall be held in the towns where the provincial authorities reside, at least three times a year; the one during Easter week, the other two in the second week of July and October.

XXIV. At each ordinary meeting, each member shall give in a written report:—

1. Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, stating the time of his visit, and the observations he then made regarding the state of the schools, in all the different particulars.

2. Of the meetings he has held of the schoolmasters for the purpose of communicating with them respecting their duties.

3. Of the examinations which have taken place before him of masters of the lowest class, and of the higher classes.

4. Of the changes and other events which shall have taken place in his district, relative to any school or schoolmaster, since the last meeting, and especially all vacancies of masterships, the delivery of deeds of call, nomination, or special appointment of every degree and of every class, setting forth the most important circumstances connected with them: the appointment of local inspectors in places of minor extent; the changes that may have occurred in the local school boards; the inspection of a new primary school or school of industry; the admission of any teacher of languages; the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of schools; the introduction of school books, other than those contained in the general list of books, in the private schools of both classes; the measures that have been taken to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; the measures that have been taken to secure the schools being uninterruptedly kept open and attended; any difficulties they may have encountered; the encouragement or otherwise which the masters may have met with; and the examinations of pupils in the schools. The inspector shall further point out the particular parts which he wishes to have inserted in the above mentioned monthly publication, (*Bydragen*.)

XXV. From these written documents and other private information, as well as from the written reports of the local school boards, (as mentioned in the following article,) every school inspector shall draw up annually, previous to the meeting held in Easter week, a general report on the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. He shall state therein the reasons why he has not visited, or has not visited more than once, any particular school in the course of the preceding year. He shall state such proposals as appear to him deserving of attention, and which may tend to the improvement of primary instruction.

XXVI. In order that the school inspectors may not omit to mention, in their annual report, any of the particulars stated in the preceding article, the local school boards, or their individual members, in so far as concerns the schools placed under their individual inspection, shall draw up a report in writing, similar to that required from the school inspectors, before the end of February at latest.

XXIX. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting held in Easter week, each board shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within the space of four weeks, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, besides the documents mentioned in the preceding article,

1. One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.

2. The originals of the general reports of the different members of the boards.

3. The originals of the annual written reports of the different local boards.

4. A detailed statement, taken from the report of each of the members, of the proposals which each board shall be desirous of bringing under the consideration of the next annual general meeting, or which it has been resolved to lay before the provincial authorities."

REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE GENERAL ORDER TO BE OBSERVED IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I. "The primary schools shall be open without intermission the whole year, except during the times fixed for the holidays.

II. During the whole time devoted to the lessons, the master shall be present from the beginning to the end; he shall not be engaged in any thing which is unconnected with the teaching, nor absent himself from school, except for reasons of absolute necessity.

III. The master shall take care that the pupils do not unnecessarily go out of school; and especially that they be quiet and attentive; and, when in the playground, that they always conduct themselves in a peaceable, respectable, and modest manner.

IV. When the number of pupils shall exceed seventy, measures shall be taken for providing a second master or an under master.

V. The pupils shall be entered, as much as possible, at fixed terms in the course of the year.

VI. At the opening and at the breaking up of each class, a Christian prayer, solemn, short, and suitable to the occasion, shall be said daily or weekly. At the same time, a hymn, adapted to the circumstances, may be sung.

VII. The pupils shall be divided into three classes, each of which shall have its distinct place; and on every occasion when the school meets, each shall receive the instruction that belongs to it.

VIII. The instruction shall be communicated simultaneously to all the pupils in the same class; and the master shall take care that, during that time, the pupils in the two other classes are usefully employed.

IX. The instruction in the different classes, and in the different branches taught, shall be as much as possible conveyed by the use of the black board.

X. When the master shall think it advisable, he shall reward the most advanced pupils by employing them to teach some parts of the lessons to the beginners.

XI. The master shall take care that the pupils be at all times clean in their dress, well washed and combed, and he shall at the same time pay the strictest attention to every thing that may contribute to their health.

XII. The school-rooms shall be at all times kept in proper order; for that purpose they shall be ventilated in the intervals of school hours, and cleaned out twice a week.

XIII. An examination of each school shall take place at least once a year. Upon that occasion the pupils of a lower class shall be passed to a higher; and as far as circumstances will allow, rewards shall be given to those who have distinguished themselves by their application and good conduct.

XIV. When a pupil at the end of the course of study shall leave the school, if he shall have distinguished himself by the progress he has made and by his good conduct, a certificate of honor shall be presented to him.

XV. A code of regulations shall be drawn up for each particular school, and this, whether written or printed, shall be pasted on a board, hung up in the room, and from time to time read and explained by the master.

XVI. The said codes shall be issued by the authorities over each school; their object shall be, to regulate the hours of teaching and how these shall be divided among the three classes."

As the masters were prohibited from teaching any particular religious doctrine in the schools, the government, through the Secretary of State for the Home Department, addressed a circular letter to the different ecclesiastical bodies in the country, inviting them to take upon themselves, out of school hours, the whole instruction of the young, either by properly-arranged lessons in the catechism, or by any other means. Answers were returned from the Synod of the Dutch Reformed church and other ecclesiastical bodies, assenting to the separation of doctrinal from the other instruction of the schools, and pledging themselves to extend

the former through their ministers of the different religious communions. On the reception of these answers, the government authorized the provincial boards of education :

“To exhort all schoolmasters to hand a complete list, every six months, of the names and residences of their pupils belonging to any religious communion to such as should apply for it; and to take care that their pupils attend to the religious instruction provided for them.

To invite the governors of orphan asylums and workhouses, and similar establishments, to second the measures which the authorities of the communion shall take in reference to religious instruction.

To exhort the school inspectors, and through them the local school boards, to co-operate, as far as possible, with the consistories and ministers in their efforts to give instruction in the doctrines of their religion, so long as they confine themselves to their special province, and do not interfere with the business of the schools or the authority of the persons intrusted with their management by the government.”

Thus did the Batavian Republic provide that the children should be prepared for “*the exercise of all the social and Christian virtues;*” well knowing, that if the schools did no more than impart a knowledge of the material world, there might be profound ignorance of the good and the beautiful, and of the true destiny of human nature.

NUMBER AND ATTENDANCE

OF PUBLIC, PARISH, AND OTHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN HOLLAND IN 1846.

Provinces.	Population Jan. 1st, 1843.	Public Parish Schools.	Scholars.		Schools on Special Foundations.	Scholars.		Private Schools.	Scholars.		Total Schools.	Scholars.		Total.	No. of Inspectors Districts.
			Boys.	Girls.		Boys.	Girls.		Boys.	Girls.		Boys.	Girls.		
North Brabant.	402,353	294	22,063	15,118	12	363	735	73	980	8,213	879	23,406	19,066	42,472	9
Gelderland.	371,877	327	26,461	19,686	19	1,306	926	41	1,349	738	887	29,116	21,850	50,466	10
South Holland.	564,791	254	23,771	19,489	40	3,477	8,167	149	4,364	8,454	443	32,212	26,110	58,322	8
North Holland.	467,733	280	18,943	15,194	36	2,983	2,652	199	5,740	5,423	515	27,666	23,169	50,835	9
Zealand.	159,915	138	10,597	7,377	15	962	556	153	11,559	7,933	19,492	5
Utrecht.	154,419	80	6,479	5,318	23	2,472	1,996	47	1,223	811	150	10,174	8,125	18,229	4
Overysel.	246,837	344	22,010	16,962	3	89	109	11	284	259	358	22,383	17,350	39,713	6
Friesland.	212,040	209	17,627	15,547	7	388	366	15	1,137	809	231	19,152	16,722	35,874	9
Gronngen.	189,714	195	16,347	13,276	19	1,173	911	34	2,325	1,750	248	19,845	15,937	35,782	6
Drenthe.	81,258	128	6,267	5,471	4	54	49	7	170	120	139	6,491	5,640	12,131	4
Limburg.	203,047	161	9,195	7,219	2	217	6	48	1,069	1,278	211	10,481	8,503	18,894	7
	3,053,984	2,410	179,760	140,657	165	12,522	10,917	639	20,203	18,411	8,214	212,485	169,855	*382,370	477

* If to number of children (382,370) attending Public and Private Schools, which are strictly Elementary, there be added 1,300 scholars who were attending the "Latin Schools," and 1,800 scholars who were attending the Universities, we have 385,470 young persons receiving education, or one in every eight of the population.

† Several of these districts are again subdivided, and over each of these districts and subdivisions a permanent Inspector presides, and directs its primary education. So that there are 80 thoroughly efficient Inspectors, who are appointed by the government and paid for their services, and who report annually to the Inspector-General, and through him to the Minister of the Interior.

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL*

AT HAARLEM, IN HOLLAND.

THIS school is peculiar in regard to instruction, practice in teaching, and discipline. It is intended to prepare for at least the second grade among primary teachers, which, it will be remembered, qualifies for the mastership of any primary school, the first class being an honorary grade. The age of admission, the time of continuance, and the courses of instruction, are regulated accordingly.

The director† is the head of the institution, and controls absolutely all its arrangements. His principle, that a teacher in such a place should be left to study the character and dispositions of his pupils, and to adapt his instruction and discipline to them, dispenses with rules and regulations, or constitutes the director the rule.‡ To carry out this principle, requires that the school should not be numerous, and it is accordingly limited to forty pupils. There is an assistant to the director, who shares in the general instruction with him, and upon whom the religious teaching of the pupils specially devolves. The school is visited periodically by the inspector-general, who examines the pupils personally, and notes their general and individual proficiency.

To be admitted, a youth must be over fifteen years of age, and have passed an examination upon the studies of the elementary school, satisfactory to a district-inspector, who recommends him for admission. He is received on probation, and, at the end of three months, if his conduct and proficiency are satisfactory to the director, is recommended to the minister of public instruction, who confirms his appointment.

The course of theory and practice lasts four years in general, though, if a pupil have the third lower grade of public instruction in view, which is attainable at eighteen years of age, he is not required to remain connected with the institution beyond that age, and indeed may leave it, on his own responsibility, before the close of the regular course. The second grade is only attainable at the age of twenty-two, and hence it is not usual for pupils to enter this school as early as the law permits. The theoretical instruction is composed of a review and extension of the elementary branches, as the Dutch language, geography, arithmetic, elementary geometry, the history of the country, natural history, religion, writing, and vocal music, and also of general geography and history, natural philosophy, and the science and art of teaching. This is communicated in the evenings, the pupils meeting at the school for the purpose. During the day they are occupied in receiving practical instruction, by teaching under the inspection of the director in the elementary school already spoken of, attached to the normal school, and occupying its rooms, or in teaching in some other of the elementary schools of the town of Haarlem. They pass through different establishments in turn, so as to see a variety in the character of instruction. The director, as inspector of primary schools in this district, visits frequently those where his pupils are employed, and observes their teaching, and also receives a report from

* From Bache's Education in Europe.

† Mr. Prinsen, one of a class of teachers who adorn this profession in Holland.

‡ When M. Cousin, in his visit to Haarlem, invited Mr. Prinsen to communicate to him the regulations of his school, and then to show him how they were carried out, first the rule, then the results, the director replied, "I am the rule."

the masters. The observations and reports are turned to account in subsequent meetings with his class.

The pupils do not board together in the normal school, but are distributed through the town, in certain families selected by the director. They form a part of these families during their residence with them, being responsible to the head for the time of their absence from the house, their hours, and conduct. They take their meals with the families, and are furnished with a study and sleeping-room, fire, lights, &c. The director pays the moderate sum required for this accommodation from the annual stipend allowed by government.* The efficiency of such a system depends, of course, upon the habits of family life of the country, and upon the locality where the school is established. In Holland and Haarlem the plan succeeds well, and has the advantage that the pupils are constantly, in a degree, their own masters, and must control themselves, and that they are never placed in an artificial state of society or kind of life, which is the case when they are collected in one establishment. The director makes frequent visits to these families, and is informed of the home character of his pupils. The discipline of a normal school is, of course, one of the easiest tasks connected with it, for improprieties or levities of conduct are inconsistent with the future calling of the youth. Admonition by the assistant and by the director are the only coercive means resorted to, previous to dismissal. The director has authority to dismiss a student without consulting the minister, merely reporting the fact and case to him. Though this power may be important in increasing his influence, yet it has been necessary to exercise it but three times in twenty years. There are two vacations of from four to six weeks each, during which the pupils, in general, return to their friends. The school has a lending-library of books relating to teaching, and of miscellaneous works. This useful institution supplies for the primary schools, every year, from eight to twelve well-prepared masters, who propagate throughout the country the excellent methods and principles of teaching here inculcated.

* This annual stipend is ninety dollars. Supposing that a student has an entire bursary, he will require some additional funds to support him while at the school: for his board, lodging, &c., cost two dollars per week, which, for the forty-two weeks of term-time, amounts to eighty-four dollars, leaving him but six dollars for incidental expenses.

BELGIUM.

AT the time of the revolution which separated Belgium from Holland, Belgium was making as rapid progress as any portion of the kingdom of the Netherlands, in organizing and improving public education. But on the breaking up of existing institutions, which the separation caused, education became a party question, the control of the state was relaxed, and schools were left to the sense of parental interest, and benevolent duty. Liberty of education was proclaimed; the right of every parent to do as he pleases in the education of his own children, was asserted and obtained; and the results were, the best schools in the large cities, which had grown up under the fostering care of the government, and the stimulus of constant, vigilant and intelligent inspection, were broken up. The best masters left the public schools, and engaged in other business, or set up private schools. Broken-down tradesmen, and men who had proved their unfitness for other work requiring activity and culture of mind, gained admittance to the public schools, especially to those in the country, because there was no longer any sufficient test of qualification for the work of instruction enforced by government. "In ten years," said one of the most intelligent school directors in Brussels, to Mr. Hickson, "education has gone back in this country, one hundred years." "The contrast between Holland as it now is, and Belgium, in educational matters," remarks an intelligent traveler, in 1842, "is striking; in the latter, there is no central impulse and control, no inspector-general, no provisional commission, no corps of district inspectors, no Normal School, no training of teachers, no association of teachers and friends of education, no ordeal to test capacity. Nothing can be more deplorable than the mockery of education which the people in several localities are satisfied that teachers, or those who profess to be teachers,—the odds and ends of society,—should practice in the rural districts."

So rapidly was Belgium sinking in the scale of European nations, in the condition of education, that the fact arrested the attention of government, and above all, enlisted the well-directed efforts of individuals and associations, to remedy the evil. The first step was to ascertain and proclaim the fact. Mr. Ducpetiaux, one of the warmest and most active friends of popular education in Belgium, published a series of tracts "on the condition of primary instruction, and the necessity of improvement;"

and a larger work, (two octavo volumes,) contrasting the schools in Belgium, with those of Germany, Prussia, Holland, France and Switzerland. M. Vandermaelon, through the aid of individuals and a society of practical teachers, established, in 1839, a Normal course of instruction, in connection with a private seminary, of which he is at the head. In 1842 there were 125 Normal pupils. Stimulated by these efforts, and the well-ascertained, and generally-acknowledged fact, that Belgium had fallen below, and was every year falling still more behind Holland, in the condition of the people, the government have organized anew the system of public instruction, and are now taking steps to establish two Normal Schools, in connection with a system of inspection substantially the same as that which was in operation before the revolution of 1835, and which is still in operation in Holland.

FRANCE.

BEFORE 1789, religious zeal, the spirit of association, the desire of living honorably in the recollection of mankind as the founder of pious or learned institutions, individual enterprise, and to some extent government endowment, had covered France with establishments of higher education, and with men consecrated to their service. This was particularly true with regard to schools for classical education, and the instruction generally of all but the poorer classes of society. In grammar schools and colleges, France was as well provided in 1789, as in 1849. In the upbreak and overthrow of government and society, which took place between 1789 and 1794, and which was, in no small measure, the result of the neglected education of the great mass of the people, these public endowments, many of which had existed for centuries, were destroyed, and these religious and lay congregations, such as the Benedictines, Jesuits, Oratorians, Doctrinaires, Lazaristes, and Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, were abolished, their property confiscated, and most of them were never again re-established. From 1791 to 1794, by various ordinances of the Convention, a system of public schools was projected, in which primary education was to be free to all at the expense of the State. Out of these ordinances sprung the first Normal School in France, and the Polytechnic School in 1794. But the promise of good primary schools was not realized, and the Normal School was abolished in the following year. In 1802 the promise was renewed in a new ordinance, but amid the din of arms, the peculiar fruits of peace could not ripen. In 1808 Napoleon organized the Imperial University, embracing under that designation the governmental control of all the educational institutions of France, primary, secondary, and superior. In one of his decrees, primary instruction (intended for the masses of society) was limited to reading, writing and arithmetic, and the legal authorities were enjoined "to watch that the teachers did not carry their instructions beyond these limits." Under the organization established by Napoleon, and with views of primary education but little expanded beyond the imperial ordinance referred to, and with even these limited views unrealized, the government continued to administer the system of public education till the Revolution of 1830. In the mean time the wants of a more generous and complete system of primary schools had been felt

throughout France, and one of the first steps of the new government was to supply this want, and most considerately and thoroughly was the work accomplished. Not only were steps taken to increase the number and efficiency of the schools already established, by additional appropriations for their support, but the Department of Public Instruction was re-organized. Normal Schools for the education of Teachers were multiplied, and made effective, and the experience of the best educated states in Europe was consulted in reference to the reconstruction of the whole system.

There is nothing in the history of modern civilization more truly sublime than the establishment of the present Law of Primary Instruction in France. As has been justly remarked by an English writer, "Few nations ever suffered more bitter humiliation than the Prussians and French mutually inflicted during the earlier years of the present century; and it was supposed that feelings of exasperation and national antipathy thus engendered by the force of circumstances, were ready, on the match being applied, to burst forth in terrible explosion. At the very time, however, when the elements of mischief were believed to be most active in the breasts of a people jealous of their honor, and peculiarly sensitive to insult, the French ministry, with the consent of the King and Chambers, send one of their ablest and wisest citizens, not to hurl defiance or demand restitution, but to take lessons in the art of training youth to knowledge and virtue, and that too in the capital of the very nation whose troops, sixteen years before, had, on a less peaceful mission, bivouacked in the streets of Paris, and planted their victorious cannon at the passages of her bridges. There are not many facts in the past history of mankind more cheering than this; not many traits of national character more magnanimous, or indicating more strikingly the progress of reason, and the coming of that time when the intercourse between nations will consist not in wars and angry protocols, but in a mutual interchange of good offices."

M. Victor Cousin, one of the most profound and popular writers of the age, in one department of literature, who was sent on this peaceful mission in the summer of 1831, submitted in the course of the year to his government, a "*Report on the condition of Public Instruction in Germany, and particularly in Prussia.*" This able document was published, and in defiance of national self-love, and the strongest national antipathies, it carried conviction throughout France. It demonstrated to the government and the people the immense superiority of all the German States, even the most insignificant duchy, over any and every department of France, in all that concerned institutions of primary and secondary education. The following extracts will indicate the conclusions to which Cousin arrives in reference to the educational wants of his own country. After pronouncing the school law of Prussia "the most comprehensive and perfect legislative measure regarding primary instruction" with which he was acquainted, he thus addresses himself to the minister:

"Without question, in the present state of things, a law concerning primary

instruction is indispensable in France; the question is, how to produce a good one, in a country where there is a total absence of all precedent and all experience in so grave a matter. The education of the people has hitherto been so neglected,—so few trials have been made, or those trials have succeeded so ill, that we are entirely without those universally received notions, those predilections rooted in the habits and the mind of a nation, which are the conditions and the bases of all good legislation. I wish, then, for a law; and at the same time I dread it; for I tremble lest we should plunge into visionary and impracticable projects again, without attending to what actually exists.

The idea of compelling parents to send their children to school is perhaps not sufficiently diffused through the nation to justify the experiment of making it law; but everybody agrees in regarding the establishment of a school in every *commune* as necessary. It is also willingly conceded that the maintenance of this school must rest with the *commune*; always provided that, in case of inability through poverty, the *commune* shall apply to the department, and the department to the state. This point may be assumed as universally admitted, and may therefore become law.

You are likewise aware that many of the councils of departments have felt the necessity of securing a supply of schoolmasters, and a more complete education for them, and have, with this view, established primary Normal Schools in their departments. Indeed, they have often shown rather prodigality than parsimony on this head. This, too, is a most valuable and encouraging indication; and a law ordaining the establishment of a primary Normal School in each department, as well as a primary school in each *commune*, would do little more than confirm and generalize what is now actually doing in almost all parts of the country. Of course this primary Normal School must be more or less considerable according to the resources of each department.

Here we have already two most important points on which the country is almost unanimously agreed. You have also, without doubt, been struck by the petitions of a number of towns, great and small, for the establishment of schools of a class rather higher than the common primary schools; such as, though still inferior in classical and scientific studies to our royal and communal *colleges*, might be more particularly adapted to give that kind of generally useful knowledge indispensable to the large portion of the population which is not intended for the learned professions, but which yet needs more extended and varied acquirements than the class of day-laborers and artisans. Such petitions are almost universal. Several municipal councils have voted considerable funds for the purpose, and have applied to us for the necessary authority, for advice and assistance. It is impossible not to regard this as the symptom of a real want,—the indication of a serious deficiency in our system of public instruction.

You are sufficiently acquainted with my zeal for classical and scientific studies; not only do I think that we must keep up to the plan of study prescribed in our *colleges*, and particularly the philological part of that plan, but I think we ought to raise and extend it, and thus, while we maintain our incontestable superiority in the physical and mathematical sciences, endeavor to rival Germany in the solidity of our classical learning.

Let our royal *colleges* then, and even a great proportion of our communal *colleges*, continue to lead the youth of France into this sanctuary; they will merit the thanks of their country. But can the whole population enter learned schools? or, indeed, is it to be wished that it should? Primary instruction with us, however, is but meager; between that and the *colleges* there is nothing; so that a tradesman, even in the lower ranks of the middle classes, who has the honorable wish of giving his sons a good education, has no resource but to send them to the *college*. Two great evils are the consequence. In general, these boys, who know that they are not destined to any very distinguished career, go through their studies in a negligent manner; they never get beyond mediocrity; and when, at about eighteen, they go back to the habits and the business of their fathers, as there is nothing in their ordinary life to recall or to keep up their studies, a few years obliterate every trace of the little classical learning they acquired. On the other hand, these young men often contract tastes and acquaintances at *college* which render it difficult, nay, almost impossible, for them to return to the humble way of life to which they were born: hence a race of men restless, discontented with their position, with others, and with themselves; enemies of a state of society in which they feel themselves out of their

place; and with some acquirements, some real or imagined talent, and unbribed ambition, ready to rush into any career of servility or of revolt. The question then is, whether we are prepared to make ourselves responsible to the state and society for training up such a race of malcontents? Unquestionably, as I shall take occasion to say elsewhere, a certain number of exhibitions (*bourses*) ought to be given to poor boys who evince remarkable aptness: this is a sacred duty we owe to talent; a duty which must be fulfilled, even at the risk of being sometimes mistaken. These boys, chosen for the promise they give, go through their studies well and thoroughly, and on leaving school experience the same assistance they received on entering. Thus they are enabled, at a later period of life, to display their talents in the learned and liberal professions which are open to them, to the advantage of the state to which they owe their education. As, however, it is impossible for any government to find employment for every body, it ought not to furnish facilities for every body to quit the track in which his fathers have trod. Our *colléges* ought, without doubt, to remain open to all who can pay the expense of them; but we ought by no means to force the lower classes into them; yet this is the inevitable effect of having no intermediate establishments between the primary schools and the *colléges*. Germany and Prussia more especially, are rich in establishments of this kind. You perceive that I allude to the schools called tradesmen's or burghers' schools, or schools for the middle classes, (*Bürgerschulen*,) *écoles bourgeoises*, a name which it is perhaps impossible to transplant into France, but which is accurate and expressive, as contradistinguishing them from the learned schools, (*Gelehrteschulen*,) called in Germany *gymnasia*, and in France *colléges*, (in England, "grammar-schools,") a name, too, honorable to the class for whose especial use and benefit they are provided; honorable to those of a lower class, who by frequenting them can rise to a level with that above them. The burgher schools form the higher step of primary instruction, of which the elementary schools are the lower step. Thus there are but two steps or gradations: 1^o. Elementary schools,—the common basis of all popular instruction in town and country; 2^o. Burgher schools, which, in towns of some size and containing a middle class, furnish an education sufficiently extensive and liberal to all who do not intend to enter the learned professions. The Prussian law, which fixes a minimum of instruction for the elementary schools, likewise fixes a minimum of instruction for the burgher schools; and there are two kinds of examination, extremely distinct, for obtaining the brevet of primary teacher for these two gradations. The elementary instruction must be uniform and invariable, for the primary schools represent the body of the nation, and are destined to nourish and to strengthen the national unity; and, generally speaking, it is not expedient that the limit fixed by the law for elementary instruction should be exceeded: but this is not the case with the burgher schools, for these are designed for a class among whom a great many shades and diversities exist,—the middle class. It is therefore natural and reasonable that it should be susceptible of extension and elevation, in proportion to the importance of the town, and the character of the population for whom it is destined. In Prussia this class of schools has, accordingly, very different gradations, from the minimum fixed by the law, to that point where it becomes closely allied with the gymnasium, properly so called. At this point it sometimes takes the name of Progymnasium, or preparatory gymnasium, in which classical and scientific instruction stops short within certain limits, but in which the middle or trading class may obtain a truly liberal education. In general, the German burgher schools, which are a little inferior to our communal *colléges* in classical and scientific studies, are incomparably superior to them in religious instruction, geography, history, modern languages, music, drawing, and national literature.

In my opinion, it is of the highest importance to create in France, under one name or another, burgher schools, or schools for the middle classes, which give a very varied education; and to convert a certain number of our communal *colléges* into schools of that description. I regard this as an affair of state.

There is a cry raised from one end of France to the other, demanding on behalf of three-fourths of the population, establishments which may fill the middle ground between the simple elementary schools and the *colléges*. The demands are urgent and almost unanimous.

The most difficult point in law on primary instruction is the determination what are the authorities to be employed. Here also let us consult facts. The

French administration is the glory and the masterwork of the imperial government. The organization of France in *maires* and prefectures, with municipal and departmental councils, is the foundation of government and of social order. This foundation has stood firm amidst so much ruin, that prudence and policy seem to point to it as the best and safest prop. Moreover, this organization has just been reformed and vivified by rendering the municipal and departmental councils elective and popular. Thus the French administration unites all that we want, activity and popularity. The administration, then, is what you must call to your aid. Recollect, also, that it is these local councils that pay, and that you can not fairly expect much from them unless they have a large share in the disbursement of the money they have voted. These councils are chosen out of the body of the people, and return to it again; they are incessantly in contact with the people; they *are* the people legally represented, as the *maires* and the prefects are these councils embodied, if I may so say, in one person, for the sake of activity and despatch. I regard, then, as another incontestable point, the necessary intervention of the municipal and departmental councils in the management of public instruction. As there ought to be a school in every *commune*, so there ought to be for every communal school a special committee of superintendence, which ought to be formed out of the municipal council, and presided over by the *maire*. I shall perhaps be told, that men who are fit to conduct the business of the *commune* are not fit to superintend the communal school. I deny it: nothing is wanted for this superintendence but zeal, and fathers of families can not want zeal where their dearest interests are concerned. In Prussia no difficulty is found in this matter, and every parish-school has its *Schulvorstand*, in great part elective. Over the heads of these local committees there ought to be a central committee in the chief town of each department, chosen out of the council of the department, and presided over by the prefect. The committee of each *commune* would correspond with the committee of the department; that is to say, in short, the *maire*, with the prefect. This correspondence would stimulate the zeal of both committees. By it, the departmental committee would know what is the annual supply of schoolmasters required for the whole department, and consequently, the number of masters the Normal School of the department ought to furnish, and consequently, the number of pupils it ought to admit. It would have incessantly to urge on the zeal of the local committees in establishing and improving schools, for the sake of providing as well as possible for the pupils it sends out of its Normal School. Nothing can be more simple than this organization. It is, applied to primary instruction, what takes place in the ordinary administration: I mean, the combined action of the municipal councils and the departmental councils,—of the *maires* and the prefects.

After the administrative authorities, it is unquestionably the clergy who ought to occupy the most important place in the business of popular education. The rational middle course is to put the *cure* or the pastor, *i. e.* the Catholic and the Protestant clergyman—and if need be both, on every communal committee; and the highest dignitary of the church in each department, on the departmental committee. We must neither deliver over our committees into the hands of the clergy, nor exclude them; we must admit them, because they have a right to be there, and to represent the religion of the country. The men of good sense, good manners, and of consideration in their neighborhood, of whom these committees ought to be, and will be, composed, will gradually gain ascendancy over their ecclesiastical colleagues, by treating them with the respect due to their sacred functions. We must have the clergy; we must neglect nothing to bring them into the path toward which every thing urges them to turn; both their obvious interest, and their sacred calling, and the ancient services which their order rendered to the cause of civilization in Europe. But if we wish to have the clergy allied with us in the work of popular instruction, that instruction must not be stripped of morality and religion; for then indeed it would become the duty of the clergy to oppose it, and they would have the sympathy of all virtuous men, of all good fathers of families, and even of the mass of the people, on their side. Thank God, you are too enlightened a statesman to think that true popular instruction can exist without moral education, popular morality without religion, or popular religion without a church.

The proceedings of the communal and departmental committees, the *maires*,

sub-prefects and prefects, ought, like all the other parts of the administration, to refer to one common center, from which a vigorous impulse and a supreme guidance may emanate, and upon whom all the responsibility before the chambers may rest. This center, in France, as in Prussia, is, the ministry and council of public instruction. This is not only according to law, but to nature and reason. It is perfectly consistent to leave primary instruction to the minister who has all the rest of public instruction, as well as ecclesiastical affairs, in his hands; that is to say, the two things with which the education of the people is the most intimately connected. Has any evil resulted from the present order of things? Far from it: every body is agreed that the minister and his council have done a great deal for primary instruction since the revolution of July. As you would have been able to effect nothing without the municipal and departmental councils, the *maires* and prefects, so those authorities acknowledge that they could have done little or nothing without your co-operation and direction. It is you who excited their zeal, who supported and encouraged them; you who, as the enlightened dispenser of the funds placed in your hands by the two chambers, have given vigor to public instruction by giving proportionate aid to necessitous places.

I strongly recommend the creation of a special inspector of primary instruction for each department. Our academical inspectors should be reserved for schools of the second class, which will suffice, and more than suffice, to employ all their powers, and all their diligence. Your natural agents and correspondents for primary instruction are the prefects, who would preside over the departmental committees, and to whom the correspondence of *maires* and communal committees, as well as the report of the departmental inspector, would be addressed.

The prefects would correspond officially with you, as they have hitherto done extra-officially; and there would be a councilor in the central council of public instruction, specially charged with the reports to be made on that portion of the business, as in fact there is now. This machinery is very simple, and would produce quick results; being less complex, it would work more freely. The only thing in which I would employ agents taken from the body of teachers would be, the commission of examination appointed for granting schoolmasters' brevets. No one disputes that professors have peculiar qualifications, and all the necessary impartiality, for that office. I should wish, then, that the examination-commission should be appointed by you, and composed of masters or professors of the royal or the communal *collèges* of the department; adding, for the religious part, a clergyman proposed by the bishop.

As to private teachers, and what people are pleased to call liberty of primary tuition, we must neither oppose it, nor reckon upon it. There are branches of the public service which must be secured against all casualties by the state, and in the first rank of these is primary instruction. It is the bounden duty of government to guarantee it against all caprices of public opinion, and against the variable and uncertain calculations of those who would engage in it as a means of subsistence. On this principle are founded our primary Normal Schools in each department, bound to furnish annually the average number of schoolmasters required by the department. We must rely exclusively on these Normal Schools for the regular supply of communal teachers.

But if, in the face of our primary communal schools, there are persons who, without having passed through the Normal Schools, choose to establish schools at their own risk and peril, it is obvious that they ought not only to be tolerated, but encouraged; just as we rejoice that private institutions and boarding-schools should spring up beside our royal and communal *collèges*. This competition can not be otherwise than useful, in every point of view. If the private schools prosper, so much the better; they are at full liberty to try all sorts of new methods, and to make experiments in teaching, which, on such a scale, can not be very perilous. At all events, there are our Normal Schools. Thus all interests are reconciled; the duties of the state, and the rights of individuals; the claims of experience, and those of innovation. Whoever wishes to set up a private school must be subject to only two conditions, from which no school, public or private, can on any pretext be exempt,—the brevet of capacity, given by the commission of examination, and the supervision of the committee of the *commune* and of the inspector of the department.

All these measures, on which I will not enlarge, are more or less founded on

existing facts; they have the sanction of experience; it would be simply advantageous to add that of law. On all the points concerning which the law is silent, experiments might be made. Among these experiments some would probably be successful; when sufficiently long practice had confirmed them, they might be inserted in a new law; or *ordonnances* and instructions, maturely weighed by the royal council, would convert them into general and official measures. Nothing must pass into a law which has not the warranty of success. Laws are not to be perilous experiments on society; they ought simply to sum up and to generalize the lessons of experience."

On the experience of Prussia as a basis, a great and comprehensive measure of elementary education for France was framed by M. Guizot. The bill was reported in 1832. In introducing the measure to the consideration of the Chamber of Deputies, M. Guizot made a speech as remarkable for its eloquence as for its large and liberal views of popular education, as will be indicated by the following passages:

"In framing this bill, it is experience, and experience alone, that we have taken for our guide. The principles and practices recommended have been supplied to us by facts. There is not one part of the mechanism which has not been worked successfully. We conceive that, on the subject of the education of the people, our business is rather to methodize and improve what exists, than to destroy for the purpose of inventing and renewing upon the faith of dangerous theories. It is by laboring incessantly on these maxims, that the Administration has been enabled to communicate a firm and steady movement to this important branch of the public service; so much so, that we take leave to say, that more has been done for primary education during the last two years, (1831, 1832,) and by the Government of July, than during the forty years preceding, by all the former Governments. The first Revolution was lavish of promises, without troubling itself about the performance. The Imperial Government exhausted itself in efforts to regenerate the higher instruction, called secondary; but did nothing for that of the people. The restored Dynasty, up to 1828, expended no more than 50,000 francs annually upon primary instruction. The Ministry of 1828 obtained from the Chamber a grant of 300,000 francs. Since the Revolution of July, 1830, a million has been voted annually—that is, more in two years than the Restoration in fifteen. Those are the means, and here are the results. All of you are aware that primary instruction depends altogether on the corresponding Normal Schools. The prosperity of these establishments is the measure of *its* progress. The Imperial Government, which first pronounced with effect the words, Normal Schools, left us a legacy of one. The Restoration added five or six. Those, of which some were in their infancy, we have greatly improved within the last two years, and have, at the same time, established thirty new ones; twenty of which are in full operation, forming in each department a vast focus of light, scattering its rays in all directions among the people."

The Bill recognized two degrees of primary instruction, viz. elementary and superior, in speaking of which M. Guizot remarks:

"The first degree of instruction should be common to the country and the towns; it should be met with in the humblest borough, as well as in the largest city, wherever a human being is to be found within our land of France. By the teaching of reading, writing, and accounts, it provides for the most essential wants of life; by that of the legal system of weights and measures, and of the French language, it implants, enlarges, and spreads every where the spirit and unity of the French nationality; finally, by moral and religious instruction, it provides for another class of wants quite as real as the others, and which Providence has placed in the hearts of the poorest, as well as of the richest, in this world, for upholding the dignity of human life and the protection of social order. The first degree of instruction is extensive enough to make a man of him who will receive it, and is, at the same time, sufficiently limited to be every where realized. It is the strict debt of the country toward all its children.

But the law is so framed, that by higher elementary schools, primary in-

struction can be so developed, so varied, as to satisfy the wants of those professions which, though not scientific, yet require to be acquainted with 'the elements of science, as they apply it every day in the office, the workshop, and field.'

On the plan of supervision of schools, which embraced both local and state inspection, the Minister remarks:

"In the first place, this operation demands, at certain times of the year, much more time, application, and patience, than can reasonably be expected from men of the world, like the member of the council of the *arrondissement* and of the department; or from men of business, necessarily confined to their homes, like the members of the municipal council. In the next place, positive and technical knowledge of the various matters on which the examination turns is absolutely necessary; and it is not sufficient to *have* such knowledge, it must have been proved to exist, in order to give to these examinations the requisite weight and authority. For these reasons, the members of these commissions ought to be, in great part, men specially qualified—men familiar with the business of tuition. It is evident that primary instruction rests entirely on these examinations. Suppose a little negligence, a little false indulgence, a little ignorance, and it is all over with primary instruction. It is necessary then, to compose these commissions with the most scrupulous severity, and to appoint only persons versed in the matter."

The necessity of providing for the professional education and training of teachers is thus eloquently set forth:

"All the provisions hitherto described would be of none effect, if we took no pains to procure for the public school thus constituted, an able master, and worthy of the high vocation of instructing the people. It can not be too often repeated, that it is the master that makes the school. And, indeed, what a well-assorted union of qualities is required to constitute a good schoolmaster! A good schoolmaster ought to be a man who knows much more than he is called upon to teach, that he may teach with intelligence and with taste; who is to live in a humble sphere, and yet to have a noble and elevated mind, that he may preserve that dignity of sentiment and of deportment, without which he will never obtain the respect and confidence of families; who possesses a rare mixture of gentleness and firmness; for, inferior though he be in station to many individuals in the *commune*, he ought to be the obsequious servant of none;—a man not ignorant of his rights, but thinking much more of his duties; showing to all a good example, and serving to all as a counselor; not given to change his condition, but satisfied with his situation, because it gives him the power of doing good; and who has made up his mind to live and to die in the service of primary instruction, which to him is the service of God and his fellow-creatures. To rear masters approaching to such a model is a difficult task; and yet we must succeed in it, or else we have done nothing for elementary instruction. A bad schoolmaster, like a bad parish priest, is a scourge to a *commune*; and though we are often obliged to be contented with indifferent ones, we must do our best to improve the average quality. We have, therefore, availed ourselves of a bright thought struck out in the heat of the Revolution, by a decree of the National Convention, in 1794, and afterward applied by Napoleon, in his decree, in 1808, for the organization of the University, to the establishment of his central Normal School at Paris. We carry its application still lower than he did in the social scale, when we propose that no school-master shall be appointed who has not himself been a pupil of the school which instructs in the art of teaching, and who is not certified, after a strict examination, to have profited by the opportunities he has enjoyed."

No statesman of any age or country, has expressed in language at once eloquent and just, a more exalted estimate of the mission of the teacher. Although not uttered in this connection, the following passages will illustrate the views presented above:

"Humble as the career of a schoolmaster may be, and though doomed to pass his whole existence most frequently within the sphere of a small community,

his labors are, nevertheless, felt throughout society at large, and his profession is as important as that of any other public functionary. It is not for any particular parish alone, or merely local interest, that the law demands that every man should acquire, if possible, the knowledge which is indispensable in social life, and without which intelligence often languishes and degenerates; it is for the state itself and the public interest; it is because liberty is certain and steadfast only among people enlightened enough to listen, in every circumstance, to the voice of Reason. Public elementary instruction is one of the guarantees of order and social stability. Doomed to pass his life in discharging the monotonous duties of his vocation, sometimes even in struggling with the injustice or the ingratitude of ignorance, the parish schoolmaster would often repine, and perhaps sink under his afflictions, did he not draw strength and courage from another and higher source than that of immediate and mere personal interest. A deep sense of the moral importance of his duties must support and encourage him; and the austere pleasure of having rendered service to mankind, must become the worthy recompense which his own conscience alone can give. It is his glory to pretend to nothing beyond the sphere of his obscure and laborious condition; to exhaust his strength in sacrifices which are scarcely noticed by those who reap their benefit; to labor, in short, for his fellow-beings, and to look for his reward only to God.

Your first duty is toward the children confided to your care. The teacher is summoned upon by the parent to share his authority; this authority he must exercise with the same vigilance, and almost with the same affection. Not only is the health of the children committed to him, but the cultivation of their affections and intelligence depends almost entirely on him. In all that concerns education, as it is generally understood, you shall want for nothing that can be of service to you; but as to the moral education of the children, I trust especially to you. Nothing can supply for you, the desire of faithfully doing what is right. You must be aware, that, in confiding a child to your care, every family expects that you will send him back an honest man; the country, that he will be made a good citizen. You know that virtue does not always follow in the train of knowledge; and that the lessons received by children might become dangerous to them, were they addressed exclusively to the understanding. Let the teacher, therefore, bestow his first care on the cultivation of the moral qualities of his pupils. He must unceasingly endeavor to propagate and establish those imperishable principles of morality and reason—without which, universal order is in danger; and to sow in the hearts of the young those seeds of virtue and honor, which age, riper years, and the passions, will never destroy. Faith in Divine providence, the sacredness of duty, submission to parental authority, the respect due to the laws, to the king, and to the rights of every one—such are the sentiments which the teacher will strive to develop.

The intercourse between the teacher and parents can not fail of being frequent. Over this, kindness must preside: were a teacher not to possess the respect and sympathy of the parents, his authority over their children would be compromised, and the fruit of his lessons lost; he can not, therefore, be too careful and prudent in regard of these connections. An intimacy inconsiderately formed might injure his independence, and sometimes even mix him up with those local dissensions which frequently distract small communities. While civilly yielding to the reasonable demands of parents, he must, at the same time, be particularly careful not to sacrifice to their capricious exactions his educational principles, and the discipline of the school.

The duties of the teacher toward those in authority are still clearer, and not less important. He is himself an authority in his parish; how then can it be fitting that he give an example of insubordination? Wherefore should he not respect the magistracy, religious authority, and the legal powers, whereby public security is maintained?

The Mayor is the head of the community; the interest, therefore, as well as the duty of the schoolmaster, is to exemplify on every occasion the respect due to him. The vicar and pastor are also entitled to respect, for their mission is in accordance with all that is most elevated in human nature. Nothing, besides, is more desirable than a perfect understanding between the minister of religion and the teacher; both are in possession of moral authority; both require the confidence of families; both can agree in exercising over the children committed to their care, in several ways, a common influence."

With such enlarged views of the scope, and agencies, and ends of primary instruction, the bill was framed and introduced into the Chamber of Deputies and of Peers. It was referred to committees, who reported through M. Renouard in the lower, and M. Cousin in the upper house. These reports are full and elaborate discussions of great principles, and especially that of M. Cousin.

The bill, after going through a protracted examination and discussion of its details, received the sanction of the Chambers and the King, and became a law on the 28th of June, 1833. Under the wise and energetic administration of the department of public instruction, by such men as Guizot, Cousin, Villemain, and Salvandy, the system went into immediate and successful operation, giving a powerful impulse to the progress of popular intelligence throughout the whole domain of France. Experience has brought to light some imperfections and deficiencies, some of which have been remedied or supplied, and others are still under discussion. We must wait till a generation has passed through the course of instruction now provided by law, and come into active life, before we can fully appreciate the wise forecast of the labors of Cousin and Guizot in this long neglected field of primary education.

It should be added, that a private association, called "The Society for Elementary Instruction," was very instrumental in waking up the attention of the people and of government to the condition and improvement of primary schools. This society was formed in 1805, by a number of distinguished philanthropists, and has continued in active operation to the present time. It has been instrumental in establishing infant schools, schools for needle-work, adult schools and classes, reformatory schools, associations for teachers, village libraries in various parts of France, and has a complete series of popular schools under its immediate management, in Paris. The Minister of Public Instruction, in 1835, ascribed to it the honor of having given the first impulse to the present school law. It publishes a monthly journal of its proceedings, and was mainly instrumental in establishing, in 1830, the "Journal de l'Instruction Élémentaire," which is still continued under the title of "Manuel Général de l'Instruction Primaire," and is the official organ of the Minister of Public Instruction. There is also published another educational journal, called "L'Echo des Ecoles Primaires," devoted to the dissemination of improved methods of instruction. It commenced in 1837, and was for several years under the editorship of M. Cousin, assisted by many of the best teachers and educators in France. We noticed articles by Beudant, Willm, Parandix, Philippar, and several directors of Normal Schools, and Inspectors of the Primary Schools. Upward of one hundred volumes on the science and art of education have been published in Paris since 1835; several of these are by men of the best intellect, and large practical and benevolent views.

OUTLINE

OF THE

SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

FRANCE is divided by law for municipal and all administrative purposes, into 86 Departments, 363 Arrondissements, 2,842 Cantons, and 39,381 Communes.

In each department there is appointed by the legal voters a prefect, who is associated with a general council for the department, and a special council for each arrondissement, in the administration of the local affairs of the department; in each canton there is a judicial office, styled *juge de paix*; in each commune, a mayor, with a municipal council, elected by the people.

Since 1808 there has existed in the government a central and special department for the administration of public instruction, for the application of all funds appropriated by the state for educational, scientific or literary purposes. Over this department has presided from time to time, some of the most distinguished scholars and statesmen of France, and no branch of the public service has been regarded, for the last thirty years, with more favor by the Chambers, or the people. Since 1824, the chief of this department has had a seat in the cabinet council of the king, which consists of nine members.

To the supervision of the department of public instruction, as now organized, are assigned all schools, primary, secondary and superior, which together constitute the University of France, and are directed and superintended in its name; all scientific and literary societies to the support of which the government contributes, such as the Institute, the Academy of Medicine, &c.; all public libraries, which the state maintains, or to which it contributes; all institutions having charters prior to 1808, and which were not by royal ordinance incorporated into the University; and all encouragements, by the way of subscription, or publication, to science and letters.

The *Royal University of France* embraces the whole system of national education, and includes all the institutions for imparting instruction which are spread over the whole kingdom, from the lowest schools, up to the highest colleges. The term may thus be considered synonymous with the French national system of education.

The University is placed under the direction of a council of six members, called the "royal council of public instruction," of which the minister of public instruction is the official president. Each councilor has the special charge of one or more divisions of public instruction. Subordinate to this council are the inspectors-general of the University, who are required to examine, once a year, the institutions of every description, each within a certain district assigned to him, and to transmit a report to the council.

The University is composed of twenty-six *Academies*, each of which comprehends two, three, or more of the departments into which the kingdom is divided, and contains one or more royal colleges. The presiding officer of each academy is the rector, who is appointed by the minister of public instruction, and is assisted by two inspectors and a council. The governing body of each academy has the superintendence of all the communal colleges, institutions, *pensions*, (boarding schools,) Normal Schools,

or schools for the education of teachers, and primary schools, within the district which the seminary comprehends.

Besides the superintending body, the academy includes the teaching corps, or faculties; namely, the faculties of letters, science, medicine, law, and theology, all of which, however, do not actually exist in every academy; in some indeed, there is no organization of faculties. The faculties consist of a variable number of professors, one of whom is dean, and a committee of whom examine candidates for degrees. There are, however, some institutions which are not subject to the jurisdiction of the University; as the College of France, the Museum of Natural History, the *Ecole des Chartes*, School of Oriental Languages, the French Institute, and societies of all kinds for the advancement of knowledge.

The royal colleges are supported chiefly by the government, and the salaries of the professors, which are generally from \$400 to \$800, are paid from the budget of the minister of public instruction. The students are divided into two classes, the *internes* and *externes*, or boarders and day-scholars. The communal colleges are supported principally by the communes in which they are situate; some of them have endowments, but the majority depend chiefly for their support on the fees paid by the students. The professors or teachers receive but small salaries, varying from \$200 to \$600.

A distinguishing feature of the system of public instruction in France, is the appointment of all professors in all the colleges and lyceums, and in the faculties of law, medicine, theology, and letters, and all institutions of education above the primary school, by public competition (*les concours*.) A concours may last a few days only, or it may last for months. The months of September and August are the months of vacation in the different colleges, and are usually devoted to the public competition of candidates for any professorship or chair declared to be vacant by the minister of public instruction. The judges are selected from among the most distinguished scholars in France. The mode of conducting the trial varies with the department to be filled. But it embraces every mode by which the accuracy and extent of the attainments of each candidate in the study can be tested, as well as his ability to communicate his knowledge to classes of pupils. Each candidate is subject to the criticism of his competitor. Every professor in all the colleges and great schools of France has passed through this ordeal.

Nearly all the higher schools of learning and science are concentrated in Paris. Almost all the young men who want to complete their studies, whether in letters, law, medicine, or the arts,—in short, in all those preparatory to any learned or liberal career, are forced to live in the capital. This is attended with a disastrous result, in the neglect or discontinuance of all domestic training and discipline, which can not be compensated by any superiority of mental culture, secured by the concentration of able men, and all the means and appliances of superior education at the capital.

There are six faculties of *Catholic theology*, at Aix, Bordeaux, Lyons, Paris, Rouen, and Toulouse; and two of *Protestant theology*, one of the Lutheran or Augsburg confession, at Strasburg, and another of the Calvinist or Helvetic confession, at Montauban, under the academy of Toulouse.

The faculties of law are nine, at Aix, Caen, Dijon, Grenoble, Paris, Poitiers, Rennes, Strasburg, and Toulouse. There are three faculties of medicine, at Grenoble, Paris, and Montpellier; with seventeen secondary schools of medicine.

The faculties of science are nine in number, at Paris, Bordeaux, Strasburg, Caen, Toulouse, Montpellier, Dijon, Lyons, and Grenoble; those of letters or literature, seven, at Paris, Strasburg, Bordeaux, Toulouse, Caen, Dijon, and Besançon.

In order to become a student in law or theology, a person must have taken the degree of bachelor of letters; and a course of three years in either faculty, is requisite to obtain the degree of bachelor; for the degree of doctor, four years; and to obtain the degree of doctor in divinity, the candidate must defend a final and general thesis. Candidates for the degree of doctor in medicine, must have taken the degree of bachelor of letters, and also of sciences, and must complete a course of four years. The faculties of law and medicine at Paris, are greatly distinguished. The former has sixteen professors, and had, in 1836, upward of 3000 students: the latter, twenty-seven professors, and in 1836, about 4000 students.

The law ordains at least one elementary school in every commune, and those communes in which the population exceeds 6000, are required to support one superior primary school, and are aided in opening infant schools, evening schools, classes for adults, and high schools.

Where the number of families of different sects is sufficient, the minister of public instruction is authorized to grant permission, if advisable so to do, to the commune to establish separate schools for the children of each denomination.

By a law passed in March, 1841, the duty of school attendance is made obligatory. No young person below the age of twelve years can be employed in any workshop or manufactory, unless his parents or guardians testify that he actually attends some public or private school within the locality, and all such as were so employed at the date of this law, were required to attend school till the age of twelve. All young persons above the age of twelve can be excused from attending a school, only in case a certificate can be given by the Mayor of their place of residence, that they have received the primary or elementary instruction. To meet the wants of those adults, who have grown up without the advantages of school attendance, evening schools, and classes for adults, are established and provided for, by law.

The central government, the departmental authorities, the municipal authorities, the religious authorities, the heads of families, have each their sphere of action, and their influence in the administration of primary schools.

The local management of a primary school is intrusted to a committee of the commune, consisting of the mayor, the president of the council, the *cure*, or pastor, and one person appointed by the committee of the arrondissement in which the commune is situated.

The general supervision of the schools of each arrondissement is assigned to a committee of the arrondissement, which consists of the mayor of the chief town, of the *juge de paix*, a pastor of each of the recognised religious sects, a professor of a college, or school of secondary instruction, a primary schoolmaster, three members of the council of the arrondissement, and the members of the council-general of the department who reside in the arrondissement.

These committees meet once a month. The communal committees inspect and report the condition of the schools in the commune to the committee of the arrondissement. Some member of the committee of the arrondissement is present at each local inspection, and a report of the whole committee on the state of education in the arrondissement is made annually to the minister of public instruction.

In each department there is a commission of primary education, composed of at least seven members, among which there must be a minister of each of the religious denominations recognized by law, and at least three persons who are at the time, or have been, engaged in teaching public schools of secondary instruction. This committee is charged with the examination of all candidates for the certificate of qualification to

teach primary schools, or to enter the Normal School of the department. These examinations must be public, at a time fixed, and notified by the minister, and in the chief town of the department. The examination is varied according to the grade of school for which the candidate applies. With a certificate of capacity from this commission, the candidate can teach in any commune in the department, without any local examination.

Besides these local committees the minister of public instruction appoints an inspector for every department, with assistant inspectors, when required by the exigencies of the public service. The duty of the inspector is to visit every school in the department, at least once a year, and to inquire into the state of the school-house, the classification, moral character, and methods of discipline and instruction of each school. He must leave a written memorandum of all deficiencies noted in his visit, for the use of the local committee, and report annually to the prefect of the department, and through him to the minister. This stimulates and encourages teachers, as well as communes, and informs the minister of the true wants of different localities, as well as the deficiencies of the law. The inspectors are required to pay particular attention to the Normal Schools in their several departments. The inspector has a salary of two thousand francs, and an allowance of three francs a day for traveling expenses, and one franc for every school visited. In 1843 there were eighty-seven inspectors, and one hundred and fourteen sub-inspectors; and the number of communes visited by them in that year, was 30,081, making 50,986 visits to schools.

The resources of the state, the departments, the communes, and the contributions paid by parents, combine to insure the creation and maintenance of the school. Every commune must provide a school-house and residence for the school-master, and to the first expense of this outfit, the state contributes one third. Every teacher must have a lodging, or its equivalent in money, and a fixed salary of 200 francs, or 400 francs, (from \$40 to \$80,) according to the grade of school, in addition to the monthly fees paid by parents, and collected by the commune. If the commune refuses, or neglects to provide by tax on the property of the commune, the government imposes and collects the same. If the commune, on account of poverty or disaster to crops or depression in business, can not raise its necessary sum, the department to which it belongs must provide it, and if the revenues of the department are not sufficient to supply the deficiencies of all the communes, the deficit must be supplied by the state. In every department, the prefect and general-council, annually draw up in concert a special estimate in which the expense of primary instruction is fixed, and necessary revenue provided. In each commune, the Mayor and municipal council make a special estimate of the same kind; and at the same time fix the monthly tuition-fee to be paid by each parent.

Every department must by itself, or in concert with adjoining departments, support a Normal School, to supply the annual demand for teachers of primary schools. The sum to be expended on a Normal School, for the salaries of teachers, apparatus, and bursaries, or scholarships in aid of poor pupils, is not left with the department to fix, but is regulated by the council of public instruction. The salary of the Director is borne by the state and department combined; that of the assistant teachers by the department. The expense of the normal pupils for board is borne by themselves, unless they enjoy an exhibition or scholarship, founded by the state, department, university, commune, or by individual benevolence. The scholarships are sometimes divided so as to meet, in part, the expense of two or three pupils. In 1816, there were ninety-two Normal Schools, seventy-six of which were for the education of schoolmasters, and sixteen

for the education of schoolmistresses. To fifty-two of these schools enough land is attached to teach agriculture and horticulture.

The course of instruction in these elementary schools, embraces Moral and Religious Instruction, Reading, Writing, the elements of Arithmetic, elements of the French Language, legal system of Weights and Measures, Geography, (particularly of France,) History, (particularly of France,) Linear Drawing, and Singing. In the superior primary schools, or High School, the above course is extended so as to embrace Modern Languages, Book-keeping, Perspective Drawing, Chemistry, and the Mathematics, in their application to the arts. There is a special course of instruction open in evening schools, to those children and youth who can not attend the day school; and in evening classes for adults, whose early education was neglected, or who may wish to pursue particular studies connected with their pursuits as artizans, manufacturers, and master-workmen.

Provision is made to encourage teachers to form associations, and to hold frequent conferences for improvement in their professional knowledge and skill, and to found libraries of books on education.

In each department a fund is accumulating for the relief of aged teachers, and of the widows and children of teachers, who die in the exercise of their important functions. Each master must subscribe one twentieth part of the salary he receives from the commune; and the sum-total which he subscribes, together with the interest upon it, is returned to him when he retires, or to his widow and children, when he dies.

The government awards medals of silver and bronze to those masters who distinguish themselves in the management of their schools. This encourages and stimulates them to continued efforts, and connects them in an honorable way, with the government and the nation.

The whole charge to the State of the department of public instruction, according to the Budget of 1838, was 19,005,673 francs, or nearly \$4,000,000, which was distributed as follows:

	Francs.
Central Administration,	686,623
General Services,	238,000
Department and Academic Administration,	919,900
Superior Instruction, faculties,	1,972,050
Secondary Instruction,	1,655,600
Elementary Instruction, general fund,	1,600,000
do. do. additional,	3,500,000
Primary Normal School,	200,000
Literary and Scientific establishments,	7,676,500
Subscriptions to Literary Works, &c.	557,000
Total,	19,005,673
	or \$3,800,354.

This does not include the sum to be raised in the departments and communes, or contributed by parents.

From the reports of the Minister of Public Instruction, for 1843, it appears that in the ten years, from 1833 to 1843, France expended the sum of £2,565,883 (about \$11,000,000,) on the erection of school-houses, and residences for teachers. In 1843, the expenditure for the current expenses of her educational establishments was a little short of \$4,000,000, independent of the sum paid by the communes, individuals, and parents in school fees, which amount to near \$5,000,000. Even this sum was found insufficient, and since that date the appropriation has been increased. In 1833 there was one person in every eighteen of the population, receiving education, while in 1843, there was one in every ten. But the primary schools are far from reaching the excellence which characterizes the ele-

mentary schools of Germany. Much is yet to be done to carry out the liberal provision of the law.

In a late Report, (1849,) on the state of common school instruction in Germany, to the President of the Society for Elementary Instruction in France, by A. Hennequin, late inspecteur d'academie, the following five questions are all answered in the affirmative, by the author:

- Is the inspection of schools better practised in Germany than in France?
- Are the common schools in Germany superior to ours?
- Are the people in Germany better instructed than in France?
- Are the German teachers superior to the French teachers?
- Are the methods of instruction in Germany better than ours?

A volume of 756 pages was published at Breslau, in 1848, by L. Hahn, on the schools and school-system of France. The author has resided many years in Paris, as a teacher, and has had access to the latest official information. Although much has been done since 1833, to improve the primary schools, the author thinks that their condition in respect to school-houses, attendance of children, universality and quality of instruction given, and the qualifications, social and pecuniary position of the teachers, is far behind that of the same grade of schools in Germany. The Normal Schools are accomplishing much good, but they have not been able yet to supply a majority of the communes with well-trained teachers. The Normal Schools at Versailles, and Strasbourg, are pronounced the best in France, and the latter especially, is regarded as making the nearest approach to the best teachers' seminaries in Germany.

The following tables will exhibit the working of this great system of public instruction in several important particulars.

TABLE I.

EXHIBITING THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS EMBRACED IN THE UNIVERSITY OF FRANCE IN 1837.

Academies.	Departments.	Royal Colleges.	Professors.	Internal Students.	External Students.	Communal Colleges.	Institutions.	Boarding Schools.	Normal Schools.	Primary Schools.
Aix,	4	1	14	160	230	16	5	41	2	1,659
Amiens,	3	1	12	121	180	10	2	50	2	2,697
Angers,	3	1	12	118	110	18	1	17	2	1,212
Besancon,	3	1	12	110	160	15	2	21	—	1,671
Bordeaux,	3	1	13	170	120	7	5	54	2	1,209
Bourges,	3	1	12	129	120	9	1	21	1	532
Caen,	3	1	15	212	290	16	1	25	3	2,340
Cahors,	3	2	22	90	160	9	1	47	2	1,451
Clermont,	4	3	42	287	292	12	—	30	4	1,121
Dijon,	3	1	13	88	150	20	—	36	2	1,855
Donai,	2	1	12	131	110	21	6	43	1	2,643
Grenoble,	3	1	14	133	141	7	4	25	2	1,120
Limoges,	3	1	11	88	220	9	5	18	3	264
Lyons,	3	1	20	276	264	6	10	52	3	1,470
Metz,	2	1	15	190	240	5	1	26	2	1,541
Montpelier,	4	2	23	199	256	17	2	36	—	1,766
Nancy,	3	1	14	110	260	15	—	25	3	2,444
Nimes,	4	3	39	365	226	10	2	26	4	1,594
Orleans,	3	2	24	241	286	5	3	31	2	730
Paris,	7	7	180	1629	3324	19	77	251	5	4,203
Pau,	3	1	12	57	90	10	1	32	—	1,734
Poitiers,	4	1	15	130	201	14	4	34	1	1,536
Rennes,	5	3	33	346	407	18	3	35	2	941
Rouen,	2	1	17	164	491	9	3	68	2	1,712
Strasbourg,	2	1	14	121	203	12	1	15	2	1,543
Toulouse,	4	1	15	112	239	9	6	55	2	1,327
Total.	86	41	626	5779	8870	318	146	1114	54	42,318

TABLE II.

SHOWING THE CONDITION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT COMMUNES, IN 1843.

Number of arrondissements	363
Number of communes	37,038
Population	34,230,178
Number of communes provided with a primary school	34,578
Population of the communes provided with primary schools	33,080,002
Number of communes not yet provided with a primary school	2,460
Population of the communes not yet provided with primary schools	1,150,176
Number of communes who require several primary schools, and who possess only one	23
Number of communes who are required by law to support one superior primary school	290
Number of communes who ought to support superior primary schools, and who do support them	222
Population of these communes	4,177,047
Number of communes who ought to support several superior primary schools, and who support only one	23
Number of communes who are not required by law to support a superior primary school, and who do support one	103
Total number of primary schools, elementary and superior, for boys and girls, established in France in 1843	59,838
Total number of primary schools in the 86 departments of France, visited in 1843 by the 87 inspectors and 113 sub-inspectors	50,936

In addition to these schools for the youth there ought to be added 6,434 classes for the laborers, which are conducted by the primary school teachers in the evenings, after the day's work, or on the Sunday, and in which 95,064 adult laborers received instruction in 1843; and also a great number of infant schools which have been recently opened in the departments, and which are receiving great encouragement and attention from the Government.

TABLE III.

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS BELONGING TO THE DIFFERENT SECTS.

Primary schools specially set apart for the Roman Catholics	Public schools	Boys	33,207	} 40,867	} 56,812
		Girls	7,660		
Private schools	Boys	7,098	} 15,945		
	Girls	8,847			
Primary schools specially set apart for the Protestants	Public schools	Boys	702	} 761	} 1,080
		Girls	59		
Private schools	Boys	163	} 39		
	Girls	156			
Primary schools specially set apart for the Jews	Public schools	Boys	33	} 37	} 115
		Girls	4		
Private schools	Boys	74	} 78		
	Girls	4			
Mixed schools open for all three sects	Public schools	Boys	948	} 1,055	} 1,831
		Girls	107		
Private schools	Boys	326	} 776		
	Girls	450			
Total number of Primary Schools in France, in 1843,					59,838

The number of the Roman Catholic population of France being 33,050,178, it follows, (see Table I.,) that in 1843, there was one primary school for every 581 Roman Catholics.

The number of the Protestant population of France being 1,000,000, it follows, that in 1843, there was one primary school for every 1,018 Protestants. The reason why the proportion of schools for the Protestants to their numbers is so small is, that very many of this sect attend the mixed schools.

The number of Jews being 80,000, it follows, that there was one school for every 695 Jews.

TABLE IV.

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN ATTENDANCE AT THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of Scholars at the Public Elementary Primary		
Schools for Boys,		
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters,	1,699,586	} 1,857,017
“ “ Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies,	157,431	
Number of Scholars at the Public Superior Primary		
Schools for Boys,		
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters,	15,092	} 15,448
“ “ Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies,	356	
Number of Scholars at the Public Schools for Girls,		
Directed by Lay Schoolmistresses,	230,213	} 534,960
“ “ Schoolmistresses, members of Religious Societies,	304,747	
Number of Scholars at the Private Elementary Primary		
Schools for Boys,		
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters,	230,383	} 272,935
“ “ Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies,	42,552	
Number of Scholars at the Private Superior Primary		
Schools for Boys,		
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters,	3,469	} 4,272
“ “ Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies,	803	
Number of Scholars at the Private Primary Schools for		
Girls,		
Directed by Lay Schoolmistresses,	278,637	} 479,665
“ “ Schoolmistresses, members of Religious Societies,	201,028	
Total number of Scholars at all the Primary Schools,		
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters or Schoolmistresses,	2,457,380	} 3,164,297
“ “ Schoolmasters or Schoolmistresses, members of Religious Societies,	706,917	
Total number of children attending the Primary Schools in 1843,		3,164,297
Total number of children admitted gratuitously into the Communal Schools in 1843,		763,820
Total number of children who paid something monthly for their education in 1843,		2,400,447

TABLE V.

SHOWING THE NUMBER AND CONDITION OF THE CLASSES FOR ADULTS, FOR YOUNG GIRLS,
AND FOR YOUNG APPRENTICES IN FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of classes for Adults,		6,434	
“ “ “ Young Girls,		160	
“ “ “ Apprentices,		36	
Number of Infant Schools,			
Public,	685		} 1,489
Private,	804		
Number of Scholars,			
In the classes for Adults,	95,064		} 108,432
“ “ Young Girls,	5,908		
“ Schools for Apprentices,	1,268		
“ Infant Schools,	96,192		
Number of communes in which there are Adult Classes,	6,043		
Number of Adult Classes,			
for Men,		6,266	
“ Women,		168	
Number of persons who frequent them,			
for Men,		9,451	
“ Women,		4,613	
Number of Classes directed by			
Schoolmasters belonging to a Religious Society,		125	
Schoolmistresses, “ “ “ “		51	
Number of Adult Classes in which are taught			
Moral and Religious Instruction,		3,331	
Reading,		5,035	
Writing,		4,483	
Arithmetic,		4,456	
System of Weights and Measures,		3,857	
Linear Drawing,		271	
Vocal Music,		107	
Resources of these Classes,			
Sums furnished by the Communes,	136,836		} France, 201,886
“ “ “ Departments,	38,350		
“ “ “ State,	26,700		

TABLE VI.

SHOWING THE NUMBER AND COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF
FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of Normal Schools thoroughly organized,		78
Number to which a garden is joined for the purpose of teaching the pupils the culture of trees,		52
Number of Professors in these schools,		495
“ “ including the Directors,		573
Number of hours devoted weekly to the different branches of education:		
Moral and Religious Instruction	1st Year. 2d Year. 3d Year.	
Reading,	2½ 3 2	
Writing,	4½ 4½ 4	
Study of the French Language,	6 5½ 4½	
History and Geography,	3½ 4½ 3½	
Arithmetic,	5 3½ 3	
Use of the Globes,	2 2½ 2	
Elements of Practical Geometry,	4 3½ 3½	
Elements of Physics and Natural History,	2½ 2½ 3½	
“ Mechanics,	2 2½ 3	
“ Surveying,	2 2½ 3	
Linear Drawing,	3½ 4 4½	
Methods of teaching,	1½ 1½ 2½	
Vocal Music,	3½ 3½ 3½	
Civil Law,	2 1½ 1½	
Culture of Trees,	1½ 1½ 1½	

HISTORY

OF

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN FRANCE.

THE first movement in France toward the professional training of teachers was made in 1794, by an ordinance of the National Convention, establishing in Paris an institution to furnish professors for colleges and the higher seminaries. In this seminary several of the ablest teachers and men of letters and science gave lectures in the following year, after which the course of instruction was suppressed, and not revived till 1808. In that year Napoleon re-established the school* in the ordinance creating the "Imperial University of France." The ordinance of March 11, 1808, recognizes the necessity of some professional training for teachers of elementary schools, when it enjoins "that measures shall be taken by the University that the art of teaching children to read, write and cipher, is practiced henceforth only by masters capable of communicating easily and accurately the elements of all knowledge necessary to every human being."

In 1810 the first seminary designed for teachers of elementary schools, was established at Strasbourg, through the liberality of Count de Lezai Marnesia, and the co-operation of the Rector of the Academy, and the prefect of the department of the Lower Rhine. It opened in 1811 as a "Normal class of primary school teachers." No pupil was admitted who was under sixteen years of age, or over thirty, or who was not acquainted with the studies pursued in elementary schools. The course embraced four years, and included as wide and thorough range of studies as is now required in the best Normal Schools of France. The number of pupils was limited to sixty, and those who enjoyed the benefit of a bourse, or scholarship, came under obligation to teach at least ten years in the schools of the department. Those scholarships were founded partly by individual liberality, and partly by the department, and by the communes, which sent candidates to the school. Under the organization established in 1810, with such modifications as experience suggested, this school has continued to exert a powerful influence on the cause of popular education through that section of France, and it now ranks not only as the oldest, but one of the best in Europe. The department of Upper Rhine, witnessing the results of this experiment in the neighboring communes, appropriated six thousand francs to found scholarships, for the benefit of a certain number of candidates in the seminary at Strasbourg. According to a Report of M. Guizot to the King, in 1833, it appears that the state of primary education in the two departments constituting the Acad-

* See description of the Paris Normal School, page 120.

emy of Strasbourg, was far in advance of any other section of France. Good schools were more numerous; fewer communes were destitute of schools; and the slow and defective method of individual instruction had given place to more lively and simultaneous methods of class instruction. "In all respects the superiority of the popular schools is striking, and the conviction of the people is as general that this superiority is mainly due to the existence of this Normal School."*

The establishment of two Normal Schools for the departments of Moselle and Meuse, in 1820, was followed by the same results,—the establishment of schools in communes before destitute, and the improvement of schools already in operation, by the introduction of better methods. In 1828 a new impulse was given to educational improvement by public-spirited individuals and teachers' associations in Paris, and other parts of France, which led to the establishment of a fourth Normal School in the department of Vosges, and a fifth in that of Meuth. About the same time a Normal course of instruction was opened in the college of Charleville, for the department of Ardennes, and the foundations of superior Normal Schools were laid at Dijon, Orleans, and Bourges, as well as a Training School for the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine at Rouen. At the close of 1829, there were thirteen Normal Schools in operation. The movement already commenced, received a new impulse in the right direction by the Revolution of 1830, which in this respect was as beneficent as the Revolution of 1791 was disastrous. In the three years immediately following the change of dynasty in 1830, thirty-four new Normal Schools were established in different sections of France, and wherever they were established they contributed to the opening of primary schools in communes before destitute, and of diffusing a knowledge of better methods among teachers who did not resort to these seminaries. But the most auspicious event was the publication of M. Cousin's "*Report on the condition of Public Instruction in several of the States of Germany, and especially in Prussia*," in 1832. A considerable portion of this report was devoted to an account of the best Normal School of Prussia, and to the most emphatic recommendation of the same policy in France. The following valuable suggestions were made on this subject, most of which were subsequently embodied in the Law of Primary Instruction, and the Regulations of the Minister relating to Normal Schools.

"I have already remarked, that as every *commune* must have its primary school, so every department must have its primary Normal School. If the same law which shall render the former imperative on the *communes*, should render the latter equally imperative on the departments, we should have made a great advance. If the law does not go so far as that, you must at all events come at the same results by administrative measures; you must require every council-general of a department, through the medium of the prefect, to vote funds for the establishment of a primary Normal School, under condition of binding yourself to contribute a greater or less portion of the total expenditure, and to take upon

See Course of Instruction in the Normal School at Strasbourg, page 130.

yourself, 1. the salary of the director, whom you would nominate; 2. the books, maps, and instruments necessary for the use of the students. It must be laid down as a principle, that every department must have its Normal School; but that school should be proportioned to the extent and the wealth of the department, and it may, with equal propriety, be small in one and large in another. I take the liberty of referring to a very simple and very economical plan on which a primary Normal School may at first be organized.

Choose the best-conducted primary school in the department, that which is in the hands of the master of the greatest ability and trust-worthiness. Annex to this school a class called Normal, in which this same master shall teach his art to a certain number of young men of the department, who are willing to come to it to form themselves for school-masters. None should be admitted till after an examination, made by a commission appointed by you. This commission must send you the results of its labors; and it would be well that the admission of the students to the primary Normal School should be signed by you, as is the case in the admission of students to the great Normal School for the instruction of the second degree. This small Normal School ought never to be placed in a very large town, the influence of which would be adverse to that spirit of poverty, humility and peace, so necessary to the students. There is no objection to their being day-pupils, provided they are responsible for their conduct out of the house. Nor is it necessary that all should receive exhibitions, or purses, especially whole purses. In all small towns there are families in which a young man may be boarded and lodged for about 300 francs a year, (\$60;) so that 3000 francs, (\$600,) prudently divided into whole, half, and quarter purses, would easily defray the cost of ten or fifteen students. Give the master the title of Director of the Normal School, which would be a real gain to him, inasmuch as it would increase his consideration; and for the additional labor you impose upon him, give him a salary of 700 or 800 francs. Add a yearly allowance of 400 or 500 francs for books, maps, and other things required in teaching; and thus, for 5000 francs, (\$1000,) at the utmost, you have a small Normal School, which will be extremely useful to the department. The pupils should be permitted to leave it if they choose, in a year, provided they be able to go through the examination at quitting, on which depends their obtaining the brevet of primary teacher. Yes, it rests with you, by means of a circular to this effect, addressed to all the prefects of the kingdom, to have in a few months, eighty-four small primary Normal Schools in France. The plan which I propose does not commit you to any future measures, yet it at once covers France with Normal Schools which will supply our first wants. It is for time, zeal, intelligence, and perseverance to do the rest. There must always necessarily be a great difference among the Normal Schools of our eighty-four departments; but the best way is, to go on gradually improving, in proportion as experience shows you what is required. Even with this wise tardiness, three or four years will suffice to improve all these small Normal Schools, and to raise a great number to the rank of complete great Normal Schools.

The difference between a great and a small Normal School consists in this: a small Normal School is only an appendage to a primary school, whilst a great Normal School is an establishment subsisting by and for itself, to which a primary school (and if possible that should comprise both an elementary and a middle school) is annexed.

This difference gives the measure of all other differences. In the small Normal School there are only day-pupils, or at most a few boarders. In the great, the majority may be boarders. In the one, the course may be terminated in a year; in the other, it should extend through two years, as at Bruhl; and even, in time, according to the resources of the

departments and the progress of public education, it might embrace three years, as in most of the great Normal Schools of Prussia,—Potsdam, for example. The departments must be the judges of their resources and of their wants. A department which wants twenty schoolmasters a year, and which has a certain number of middle or burgher schools, as well as many elementary schools, can very well receive twenty pupils a year; which, supposing the course to occupy two or three years, amounts to forty or sixty pupils at a time in the school. Then there must be accommodation for boarding them, a large building, a greater number of masters, more exhibitions, (*bourses*,) more expense of every sort.

In the hope that the few great primary Normal Schools we already possess will soon be succeeded by others, I beg your attention to the following maxims, deduced from general experience, and from all the data I have accumulated here.

I. To begin by giving instructions rather than rules; to confine yourself in these instructions to the establishing of a few essential points, and to leave the rest to the departmental committee. To discuss and decide this small number of points in the royal council; not to multiply them, but inflexibly to enforce their execution. The fewer they are, the more easy will this execution be, and the more susceptible will they be of application to all the Normal Schools of France; so that there would be a common groundwork for all; a unity, which, passing from the Normal Schools into the whole body of popular education, would have a beneficial influence in strengthening the national unity. At the same time, this unity would not be prejudicial to local diversities; for the departmental committee would be desired to apply your general instructions according to the peculiar manners or usages of the department. From the combination of the uniformity of these instructions, with the diversity of arrangements which the prudence and intelligence of the committee, and the experience of each year, will recommend, a set of regulations for each Normal School will gradually arise, more or less definitive, and therefore fit to be made public. The plan of study of the great Normal School at Paris, for the supply of the royal and communal *colleges*, is the fruit of fifteen years' experience. This school, which was founded in 1810, had no written laws till 1815. We made important modifications in those laws at the Revolution of 1830, and it was not till then that we ventured to print them, as the result, nearly definitive, or at least likely to endure for some time, of all the experiments successively tried. Let us imitate this caution, and begin with a simple set of instructions from the minister. Rules for the studies and the discipline will gradually arise. Every year will modify them. The important thing is, to exact an accurate account of the proceedings and results of the year, drawn up by the director, and transmitted to you, together with all the necessary documents, by the departmental committee and the prefect, who will subjoin their own opinion. Then, and then only, you will interpose your authority, with that of the royal council, which will revise this report every year at the vacation, and pronounce on the improvements to be introduced.

II. To attach the greatest possible importance to the choice of a director. It is a principle generally established in Prussia, that the goodness of a Normal School is in exact proportion to the goodness of the director; just as the primary school is what its master is. What constitutes a Normal School is not a fine building; on the contrary, it is not amiss that it should not be over commodious or splendid. It is not even the excellence of the regulations, which, without a faithful and intelligent execution of them, are only a useless bit of paper. A Normal School is what its director is. He is the life and soul of it. If he is a man of ability, he will turn the poorest and humblest elements to account; if he is incapable, the best and most prolific will remain sterile in his hands. Let us by no means

make our directors mere house-stewards. A director ought to be at the head of the most important branches of instruction, and to set an example to all the other masters. He must have long fulfilled the duties of a master; first, in different classes of a Normal course of education, so that he may have a general knowledge of the whole system; secondly, in *several* Normal Schools, so that he may have experience of difficulties of various kinds; lastly, he must not be placed at the head of a Normal School of the highest class, till he has been director of several of an inferior class, so as to graduate promotion according to merit, and thus keep up an honorable emulation.

III. An excellent practice in Germany is, to place the candidates, immediately on their leaving the Normal School, as assistant masters in schools which admit of two. The young men thus go through at least a year of apprenticeship,—a very useful novitiate: they gain age and experience, and their final appointment depends on their conduct as assistant masters. I regard every gradation as extremely useful, and I think a little graduated scale of powers and duties might be advantageously introduced into primary instruction.

1st. Pupil of a Normal School admitted after competition, holding a more or less high rank in the examination list at the end of each year, and quitting the school with such or such a number. 2d. Same pupil promoted to the situation of assistant master. 3d. Schoolmaster successively in different schools rising in salary and in importance. 4th. After distinguished services, master in a primary Normal School. 5th. Lastly, director of a school of that class, with the prospect of gradually rising to be director of a numerous and wealthy Normal School, which would be a post equal to that of professor of a royal *college*. The human soul lives in the future. It is ambitious, because it is infinite. Let us then open to it a progressive career, even in the humblest occupations.

IV. We can not be too deeply impressed with this truth—that paid instruction is better than gratuitous instruction. The entire sum paid for board at a Normal School must be extremely moderate, for the young men of the poorest classes to be able to pay it. We must give only quarter or half exhibitions, (*bourses*,) reserving two or three whole ones for the two or three young men, out of the fifteen admitted annually, who stand first on the list; and even this should not be continued to them the second year, unless their conduct had been irreproachable and their application unremitting.

On the same principle as that laid down above, the elementary school annexed to the Normal School ought not to be entirely gratuitous; it ought to have no other masters than the forwardest pupils of the Normal School, acting under the direction of their masters. The profits of the elementary school for practice would go to diminish the total cost of the Normal School. As for the middle school for practice, it would be contrary to the principle of all middle schools to have it gratuitous.

V. Divide the studies of all Normal Schools into two parts: during the first, the pupils should be considered simply as students, whose acquirements are to be confirmed, extended, and methodized: during the second, as masters, who are to be theoretically and practically taught the art of teaching. If the Normal course only lasts a year, this part of it ought to occupy at least six months; if it lasts two years, it ought to occupy a year; if three years, it would still occupy only a year. The students in this last year would give lessons in the elementary and middle schools annexed to the Normal School.

VI. The examination at quitting ought to be more rigid than that at entering the school. The important thing is to have young men of good capacity, even if they know little; for they will learn rapidly; while some, who might not be deficient in a certain quantity of acquired know-

ledge, but were dull or wrong-headed, could never be made good school-masters. No latitude whatever must be left to the Commission of Examination at departure. Here, intelligence must show itself in positive attainments, since opportunity to acquire them has been given. Nothing but negligence can have stood in their way, and that negligence would be the greatest of all faults. This latter examination, therefore, must be directed to ascertain the acquired, and not the natural fitness. But in the examination on entering, I wish that the Commission should more particularly inquire into the talents and natural bent, and, above all, into the moral character and disposition. A little discretionary power ought to be confided to it. This applies more especially to those Normal Schools, the course of which lasts two or three years. Three years of study will not give intelligence; but they will give all the necessary attainments in abundance.

VII. It is my earnest desire, that conferences* should be formed among the schoolmasters of each canton. I wish it, but have but little hope of it, at least at first. Such conferences suppose both too great a love for their profession, and too great a familiarity with the spirit of association. A thing much more easy to accomplish is, that during the vacations of the primary schools, a certain number of masters should repair to the Normal School of the department to perfect themselves in this or that particular branch, and to receive lessons appropriate to their wants, as is the case in Prussia. This time would be very usefully, and even very agreeably employed; for the young masters would be brought into contact with their old instructors and companions, and would have an opportunity of renewing and cementing old friendships. Here would be an interesting prospect for them every year. For such an object, we must not grudge a little expense for their journey and their residence. I should therefore wish that the vacations of the primary schools, which must be regulated by certain agricultural labors, should always precede those of the primary Normal Schools, in order that the masters of the former might be able to take advantage of the lessons in the latter, and might be present at the parting examinations of the third year, which would be an excellent exercise for the young acting masters.

I am convinced of the utility of having an inspector of primary schools for each department, who would spend the greater part of the year in going from school to school, in stirring up the zeal of the masters, in giving a right direction to that of the communal committees, and in keeping up a general and very beneficial harmony among the *maires* and the *cures*. It is unnecessary for me to say, that this inspector ought always to be some old master of a Normal School, selected for his talents, and still more for his tried character. But if this institution, which is universal in Germany, were not popular among us, nearly the same results might be obtained by authorizing the director, or in default of him, some masters of the Normal School, to visit a certain number of the schools of the department every year, during the vacation of their own school, and to do what would be done by the inspector above named. They would find great facilities from their old habits of intercourse and friendship with most of the masters, over whom they would exercise almost a paternal influence. On the other hand, they would gain by these visits, and would acquire a continually increasing experience, which would turn to the advantage of the Normal Schools. You have seen that in Prussia, besides the visits of the circle-inspectors, the directors of Normal Schools make visitations of this kind, for which they receive some very slender remuneration; for these little journeys are sources of pleasure to them, as well as of utility to the public.

* See notes to Professor Stowe's Essay, page 87.

VIII. Let solidity, rather than extent, be aimed at, in the course of instruction. The young masters must know a few things fundamentally, rather than many things superficially. Vague and superficial attainments must be avoided at any rate. The steady continuous labor which must be gone through to know anything whatsoever thoroughly, is an admirable discipline for the mind. Besides, nothing is so prolific as one thing well known; it is an excellent starting point for a thousand others. The final examinations must be mainly directed to the elements,—they must probe to the bottom, they must keep solidity always in view.

IX. Avoid ambitious methods and exclusive systems: attend, above all, to results, that is to say, to solid acquirements; and, with a view to them, consult experience. Clear explanations on every subject, connectedness and continuity in the lessons, with an ardent love for the business of teaching, are worth all the general rules and methods in the world.

X. A branch of study common to all schools ought to be the French tongue; the just pronunciation of words, and the purity and correctness of language. By this means the national language would insensibly supersede the rude unintelligible dialects and provincialisms. In the Normal Schools where German is still the language of the people, German and French must both be taught, in order not to offend against local attachments, and at the same time to implant the spirit of nationality.

XI. Without neglecting physical science, and the knowledge applicable to the arts of life, we must make moral science, which is of far higher importance, our main object. The mind and the character are what a true master ought, above all, to fashion. We must lay the foundations of moral life in the souls of our young masters, and therefore we must place religious instruction,—that is, to speak distinctly, Christian instruction,—in the first rank in the education of our Normal Schools. Leaving to the *cure*, or to the pastor of the place, the care of instilling the doctrines peculiar to each communion, we must constitute religion a special object of instruction, which must have its place in each year of the Normal course; so that at the end of the entire course, the young masters, without being theologians, may have a clear and precise knowledge of the history, doctrines, and, above all, the moral precepts of Christianity. Without this, the pupils, when they become masters, would be incapable of giving any other religious instruction than the mechanical repetition of the catechism, which would be quite insufficient. I would particularly urge this point, which is the most important and the most delicate of all. Before we can decide on what should constitute a true primary Normal School, we must determine what ought to be the character of a simple elementary school, that is, a humble village school. The popular schools of a nation ought to be imbued with the religious spirit of that nation. Now without going into the question of diversities of doctrine, is Christianity, or is it not, the religion of the people of France? It can not be denied that it is. I ask then, is it our object to respect the religion of the people, or to destroy it? If we mean to set about destroying it, then, I allow, we ought by no means to have it taught in the people's schools. But if the object we propose to ourselves is totally different, we must teach our children that religion which civilized our fathers; that religion whose liberal spirit prepared, and can alone sustain, all the great institutions of modern times. We must also permit the clergy to fulfil their first duty,—the superintendence of religious instruction. But in order to stand the test of this superintendence with honor, the schoolmaster must be enabled to give adequate religious instruction; otherwise parents, in order to be sure that their children receive a good religious education, will require us to appoint ecclesiastics as schoolmasters, which, though assuredly better than having irreligious schoolmasters, would be liable to very serious objections of various kinds. The less we desire our schools to be ecclesiastical, the

more ought they to be Christian. It necessarily follows, that there must be a course of special religious instruction in our Normal Schools. Religion is, in my eyes, the best, perhaps the only, basis of popular education. I know something of Europe, and never have I seen good schools where the spirit of Christian charity was wanting. Primary instruction flourishes in three countries, Holland, Scotland, and Germany; in all it is profoundly religious. It is said to be so in America. The little popular instruction I ever found in Italy came from the priests. In France, with few exceptions, our best schools for the poor are those of the *Freres de la Doctrine Chretienne*, (Brothers of the Christian Doctrine.) These are facts which it is necessary to be incessantly repeating to certain persons. Let them go into the schools of the poor,—let them learn what patience, what resignation, are required to induce a man to persevere in so toilsome an employment. Have better nurses ever been found than those benevolent nuns who bestow on poverty all those attentions we pay to wealth? There are things in human society which can neither be conceived nor accomplished without virtue,—that is to say, when speaking of the mass, without religion. The schools for the middle classes may be an object of speculation; but the country schools, the miserable little schools in the south, in the west, in Brittany, in the mountains of Auvergne, and, without going so far, the lowest schools of our great cities, of Paris itself, will never hold out any adequate inducement to persons seeking a remunerating occupation. There will doubtless be some philosophers inspired with the ardent philanthropy of Saint Vincent de Paule, without his religious enthusiasm, who would devote themselves to this austere vocation; but the question is not to have here and there a master. We have more than forty thousand schools to serve, and it were wise to call religion to the aid of our insufficient means, were it but for the alleviation of the pecuniary burdens of the nation. Either you must lavish the treasures of the state, and the revenues of the *communes*, in order to give high salaries, and even pensions, to that new order of tradesmen called schoolmasters; or you must not imagine you can do without Christian charity, and that spirit of poverty, humility, courageous resignation, and modest dignity, which Christianity, rightly understood and wisely taught, can alone give to the teachers of the people. The more I think of all this, the more I look at the schools in this country, the more I talk with the directors of Normal Schools and councilors of the ministry, the more I am strengthened in the conviction that we must make any efforts or any sacrifices to come to a good understanding with the clergy on the subject of popular education, and to constitute religion a special and very carefully-taught branch of instruction in our primary Normal Schools.

I am not ignorant that this advice will grate on the ears of many persons, and that I shall be thought extremely devout at Paris. Yet it is not from Rome, but from Berlin, that I address you. The man who holds this language to you is a philosopher, formerly disliked, and even persecuted, by the priesthood; but this philosopher has a mind too little affected by the recollection of his own insults, and is too well acquainted with human nature and with history, not to regard religion as an indestructible power: genuine Christianity, as a means of civilization for the people, and a necessary support for those on whom society imposes irksome and humble duties, without the slightest prospect of fortune, without the least gratification of self-love.

I am now arrived at the termination of this long report. May it be of use to you in the important work which now engages your attention! My illustrious colleague, M. Cuvier, has already exhibited to France the organization of primary instruction in Holland. The experience of Germany, and particularly of Prussia, ought not to be lost upon us. National rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place. The true

greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriates.

I am as great an enemy as any one to artificial imitations; but it is mere pusillanimity to reject a thing for no other reason than that it has been thought good by others. With the promptitude and justness of the French understanding, and the indestructible unity of our national character, we may assimilate all that is good in other countries without fear of ceasing to be ourselves. Placed in the center of Europe, possessing every variety of climate, bordering on all civilized nations, and holding up perpetual intercourse with them, France is essentially cosmopolitan; and indeed this is the main source of her great influence. Besides, civilized Europe now forms but one great family. We constantly imitate England in all that concerns outward life, the mechanical arts, and physical refinements; why, then, should we blush to borrow something from kind, honest, pious, learned Germany, in what regards inward life and the nurture of the soul?

For my own part, I avow my high esteem and peculiar affection for the German people; and I am happy that my mission proved to them that the revolution of July,—that revolution, as necessary and as just as the legitimate right of self-defense; that revolution, sprung from the unanimous resistance of a great people to a capricious aggression, an open violation, not of hypothetical rights, but of liberties secured by law,—is not, as its enemies pretend, a return to the impiety, the licentiousness and the corruption of a fatal period; but, on the contrary, the signal for a general improvement in opinion and in morals; since one of the first acts of the new government has been the holy enterprise of the amelioration of public education, of which the instruction of the people is the basis."

With this preparation,—a good beginning already made in several departments, and the long and successful experience of Prussia and other German states before him,—a regulation was framed by M. Guizot, and sanctioned by the Council of Public Instruction, by which, in connection with the law of 1833, a system of Normal Schools has been established and is fast regenerating the elementary instruction in France. The following is an outline of the system:

Each department is obliged, either alone or in conjunction with other neighboring departments, to support one Normal School for the education of its schoolmasters.

The expense of this establishment for building, apparatus, and instruction, is borne mainly by the department, whilst the direction of the education given in it is vested in the Minister of Public Instruction, who is responsible to the Chambers, of both of which he is an *ex officio* member, for the right exercise of his power.

The immediate management of Normal Schools and of the model schools annexed is committed to a Director who is appointed by the Minister, on the presentation of the prefect of the department, and the rector of the academy. These directors are paid wholly or partially from the public funds set apart by the department for public instruction. If the department refuses or neglects to provide sufficient funds, the government enforces the collection of the necessary tax; if the department is overburdened, the government contributes its aid.

To meet the expense of board, the pupils are assisted by gratuities, or bursaries, which the communes, departments, the university, the state, and even individuals, have established for this purpose. These *burses* are usually granted in halves or quarters, the rest of the expense being

borne by the pupils. Of 144 pupil-teachers in 1834, 1308 were bursars of the departments, 118 of the communes, 245 of the state, and 273 were maintained at their own expense.

Every candidate for admission to these institutions, and to the enjoyment of a *bourse*, or any part of one, must bind himself to follow the profession of a parish schoolmaster for ten years at least after quitting the institution; and to reimburse it for the whole expense of his maintenance, if he fail to fulfill his decennial engagement. He must have completed his sixteenth year; and besides the ordinary elementary acquirements, must produce evidence both of good previous character, and of general intelligence and aptitude to learn. Most of the bursaries are adjudged upon a comparative trial among competitors, who are likely to become every year more numerous: and the examination for admission is so well arranged and conducted, that it tends to raise higher and higher the standard of previous acquirement.

The course of instruction and training to which the youth is thus introduced, occupies two years of eleven months each, *i. e.* from the first of October to the first of the ensuing September, and embraces the following objects:—

1st. Moral and religious instruction. The latter, in as far as it is distinct from the former, is given by the clergyman of the particular faith which the pupil happens to profess.

2d. Reading, with the grammar of their own language.

3d. Arithmetic, including an intimate and practical acquaintance with the legal system of weights and measures. This knowledge is made to hold so prominent a part in the program of instruction, as affording the best means of introducing that admirable system into the habits of the French people, among whom, from ignorance and prejudice, it is still far from being generally adopted.

4th. Linear drawing, and construction of diagrams, land-measuring, and other applications of practical geometry.

5th. Elements of physical science, with a special view to the purposes of ordinary life.

6th. Music, taught by the eye as well as by the ear.

7th. Gymnastics.

8th. The elements of general geography and history, and the particular geography and history of France.

9th. The pupils are instructed, and, wherever the locality admits, exercised also, in the rearing of esculent vegetables, and in the pruning and grafting of trees.

10th. They are accustomed to the drawing out of the simpler legal forms and civil deeds.

A library for the use of the pupils is fitted up within the premises; and a sum is set apart every year for the purchase of such works as the Council of Public Instruction may judge likely to be useful to the young schoolmasters.

The course of study is, for the present, limited to two years, instead of three, which is the term ultimately contemplated as the most desirable. During the second of those years, instruction in the principles of the art of teaching is kept constantly in view; and for the last six months, in particular, the pupils are trained to the practical application of the most approved methods, by being employed as assistants in the different classes of the primary schools, which are invariably annexed to the Normal, and form part and parcel of the establishment.

The director, besides general superintendence, is charged with some important branch of the instruction; the rest is devolved on his adjuncts, or assistant masters, who reside in the establishment.

Any graduate of a Normal School can attend any of the courses of in-

struction in the Normal School of the department in which he resides, to learn new methods, or improve his previous acquirements. The departments are authorized to grant assistance to such teachers. The Normal Schools admit pupils of different religious denominations. All sectarian instruction is avoided in the general lessons, and the pupils receive this instruction at times set apart for it from clergymen of their own church. Until a pupil has obtained a certificate of his proficiency in the doctrines of his own religion, from a minister of his own church, he can not officiate as a schoolmaster. Any person who ventures to conduct a public school without having obtained from the departmental committee of examination a certificate of qualification, is liable to a fine of two hundred francs.

The Departmental Committee, or Commission of Examination, is composed of at least seven members appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, upon the recommendation of the rector of the academy. Three members at least must be selected from among those who have already exercised, or are at the time exercising the function of public teachers, and who are most likely to unite ability and integrity. It is recommended that one of the seven be a clergyman. "To act," says the Minister, in a circular addressed to each of the twenty-six rectors,— "to act in concert with the three members belonging to the body of Public Instruction in these *Commissions d'examen*, a minister of religion will doubtless be summoned. The law has put moral and religious instruction in the foremost rank; the teacher, therefore, must give proof of his being able to communicate to the children intrusted to his care, those important ideas which are to be the rule of their lives. Doubtless every functionary of public instruction, every father of a family who shall be placed on this commission by your recommendation, as rector of the academy, will be fully able to appreciate the moral and religious attainments of the candidates; but it is, nevertheless, fit and proper, that the future teachers of youth should exhibit proof of their capacity in this respect, before persons whom their peculiar character and special mission more particularly qualify to be judges in this matter."

The most important of all the duties devolved upon these examining commissions, is that of conferring on the pupil, when he quits the institution, a *brevet de capacité*. Carelessness, partiality, or ignorance, in the discharge of it, would entirely defeat the main object of the law on primary instruction. This *brevet*, certifying the holder's fitness to be a teacher, either in the lower or higher grade of primary schools, constitutes his passport to the labors and honors of his profession. With it, and his certificate of good conduct in his pocket, he may carry his skill and industry to any market he pleases, without further let or impediment.

There are three grades of certificates of qualification for both elementary and superior primary; *tres bien*, (very good,) *bien*, (good,) and *assez bien*, (sufficient,) which infuses a spirit of competition throughout the pupils of the Normal Schools, and the public schools generally.

The system of Normal Schools has remained substantially on this basis to the present time. Every year has extended and consolidated its influence in spite of the interested opposition of old and inefficient teachers, who find themselves less and less appreciated, and the complaint of local committees, who in many instances are disposed to take up with the first teacher who presents himself, whether qualified or not. Their number has increased from forty-three in 1833 to ninety-three in 1849, including ten Institutes belonging to the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, and three for female teachers, under the auspices of an association of Christian Education, on a similar plan. In 1834 there were but 1,044 graduates of

Normal Schools employed in the primary schools; in 1848, this number had increased to 10,545. The expense of this branch of the school system cost in 1841, according to a report of M. Villemain,—

To the State,	164,445 francs.
“ Communes,	23,890
“ Departments,	1,081,348
“ Pupils,	268,520
	<hr/>
Total,	1,538,203

CONFERENCES, OR TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS,

AND TEACHERS' LIBRARIES.

THE suggestion of M. Cousin in his Report* as to the utility of conferences of teachers, was not acted upon by the Council of Public Instruction until 1837. In February of that year, a law was presented by the Minister of this department and passed by the Chambers on this subject. The substance of this law is presented in the following remarks by M. Willm, in his valuable treatise on the Education of the People.

"This law treats, in the first place, of the object of conferences; and then, of their epochs and government. The first article authorizes 'the teachers of one or several districts to assemble, with the sanction of the local authorities, and, under the close inspection of the committee of the department, to confer amongst themselves on the different subjects of their teaching—on the ways and methods they employ—and on the principles which ought to be adopted in the education of children and conduct of masters. Every other subject of discussion must be excluded from these conferences.' In regard to this article, I would observe, that it would not be advantageous for teachers who thus assemble to be very numerous; and that they must avoid coming from too great a distance to the place of meeting. Neither must they be very few in number; because, in that case, there would be too little variety and animation in their labors; but, were they more than twelve or fifteen, each would not be able to take an active part in the proceedings.

The second article reminds teachers that the law has placed at the head of the subject-matters of instruction, moral and religious instruction; and that it is their duty to occupy themselves with it. From this it seems to follow, that teachers belonging to different sects must not assemble together in the same conferences. In Alsace, for example, priests or ministers are generally presidents—which is a stronger reason for teachers of different communions not assembling promiscuously together.

The third article says, that the superior committees will point out to the different assemblies the subjects on which the attention of the teachers ought more especially to be fixed. These committees hitherto have, unfortunately, occupied themselves very little with such conferences; some even have opposed their formation, or given them an organization very different from that recommended by the royal council. Can there be no means of remedying this omnipotence of the committees, and regulating that liberty, in such a way as not to risk anarchy?

According to the fourth article, 'each teacher may beg permission to give an account of what he has read since last meeting, to make observations on the works in connection with primary instruction recently published, to read some essay of his own on the discipline of schools, or on some one of the branches of instruction.' Each may, besides, address to the assembly a verbal communication on the art of teaching, submit to it a doubt or difficulty, which in his daily practice he may have met.

The eighth article says that the president of the conferences must always be appointed by the rector of the academy. The president ought, wherever possible, to be selected from such as are not members of the association; he should be some friend and connoisseur of popular education, without being teacher; he will thus direct the debates and labors of the conference with more authority and a wider range of view; the information which he displays in the discharge

* See page 000.

of his duties will be more varied and profound; and he will be, in the midst of teachers, the interpreter of what the world expects from them.

Every thing will depend on the manner in which their labors are directed, and on the zeal with which the teachers engage in them. One of the principal results of conference ought to be, the exercising them in speaking. Speech is the instrument of the art of teaching. In the management of a school, and in all that concerns the mechanism of teaching, the teacher ought to speak little; his commands ought to be brief; and, in most cases, a word, a gesture, a look will suffice. But in teaching, properly so called, when he is engaged in expounding the first truths of morality and religion, in explaining what has been read by the pupils, in narrating to them the history of the Bible or national history, (sacred or profane history,) in telling them of the wonders of the heavens and the earth—then he must be able to speak with fluency, clearness, and precision, if not eloquently. Children, like men, are fascinated by the charms of speech. The choicest things, badly said, produce on them no impression; and—like arrows, darted by a feeble and trembling hand—glide, so to speak, over the surface of their mind, and never reach its depths.

The essays of the teachers may consist of two kinds. One class may be written on any subjects, but should be analogous to what teachers prescribe to their most advanced pupils—such as some scene of nature or of human life, a grand or useful thought, an historical fact, &c. These essays ought not to be long; and must be written with that correct simplicity, which is as far removed from the inelegancies of a vulgar style, as from the far-fetched phraseology of the Wit. These first essays—exercises in composition and thought—will also be a means of perfecting the teachers in the art of speaking. The other kind of essays, treating of some branch of the pedagogic art, may be more directly useful to them. In composing them, their memory, their own experience, rather than books, ought to be consulted; and simplicity and truth, rather than novelty and originality, ought to be aimed at. The greatest possible clearness, precision, and actual utility ought to be the distinguishing features of these essays.

In some societies of teachers, the same question is offered to the consideration of all the members—thus creating amongst them a species of competition: but as every essay must be read and discussed during the meeting, they would be restricted, in following this mode of procedure, to the composition only of two or three a-year; or obliged to multiply, beyond measure, the number of the meetings; and in both cases the interest would be, inevitably, diminished. It is desirable, however, that at each sitting, the same subject be handled by two members. The two essays would compete with each other, and occasion a discussion; which the president would take care to manage, so that all might speak in rotation, and that no one, while speaking, take undue advantage. Every expression of praise or censure, every observation tending to shock self-esteem or modesty, ought, on all sides, to be prohibited. If, at the termination of the sitting, the majority be not sufficiently instructed, they could commission the president, or another member, to resume the discussion at the next conference.

On other occasions, to vary still farther the proceedings, the author of an essay could address it some days before the meeting, in the form of a letter, to one of his colleagues, requesting his opinion of it. The letter and reply might then be read, and their contents discussed in the ordinary manner. This procedure is preferable, in my opinion, to the practice of several societies in Germany. After the reading of an essay, a member is then enjoined to present a criticism of it at next meeting. This method is accompanied with serious inconveniences. Self-love becomes a willing co-operator. The critic endeavors, by every means, to find cause for controversy, and believes himself, in some sense, obliged to think differently from him whom he has been appointed to judge. In this manner concord and friendship, so necessary to the prosperity of the association, are, without great benefit to truth, seriously compromised.

I would add, that copies of all the essays should be deposited in the library, where every one might consult them.

I have said that each member may demand permission to make to the assembly any communication relative to the art of teaching; to submit to it a question, a doubt, an observation, which his practice may have suggested to him. Such communications add much to the interest and utility of conferences. By means of them, the experience of each becomes, in some sense, the experience

of all. Those who have been occupied many years in teaching will aid their junior fellow-laborers.

In fine, it may happen, and it happens but too often, that, in their relations with the local authorities and the parents, differences arise, to disturb the good understanding—the perfect harmony between them and the teachers. These differences should be submitted in the conferences to the appreciation of their colleagues—to the judgment of their compeers. They will thus be less subject to mistakes and anger; and, when necessary, more undaunted in repelling injustice, and in maintaining their rights.

LIBRARIES FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE.

The fifteenth article of the law of February, 1837, on conferences of teachers, provides for the establishment of libraries for the use of those who attend the conferences. By means of the funds which the parishes or the county have granted for this purpose, or by means of clubbing among the teachers, a library should be formed for those who attend the conferences regularly. The books composing the library should be inserted in a catalogue, which must be verified every year. A copy of said catalogue must be sent to the Minister of Public Instruction.

M. Willm makes the following remarks on the subject :

“Such libraries may be established by teachers who do not assemble in regular conferences, or associate for such a purpose. A distinguished teacher may be conceived to address the following language to his colleagues, to induce them to establish such a society: ‘Two principal objections may be made against this scheme. In the first place, how, with the scanty resources at our disposal, can we establish a library, in the smallest degree, complete; and then, amongst such a host of books, whose number augments every day, will not a proper selection be difficult—even impossible? In replying to these objections, I will, at the same time, let you know my views on the course to be pursued in the acquisition of books. These views are the results of my own experience, and of the counsels which, in former times, I was fortunate to receive.

I do not dissemble the importance of the doubts I am attempting to remove; the first, especially, seems but too well founded. How, indeed, with our trifling resources, can we hope to establish in a few years a library ever so little worthy of the name? We are ten members; each of us will put into the society's strong box, three shillings as entry money, and a shilling per month, or twelve shillings per annum: this is much for us—too much perhaps; and it is to be desired, that, at a later period, this monthly payment be reduced. We will thus have at our disposal, the first year, the sum of one hundred and fifty shillings. Of this sum, fifteen shillings must be spent in purchasing registers, pens, and paper; and, by adding ten shillings for small incidental expenses, our income will be reduced to one hundred and twenty-five shillings. We must become subscribers for two pedagogic journals, which may cost about twenty-five shillings a year. To lay the foundation of our library, about one hundred shillings remain.

To found, with a hundred shillings, a library, appears absurd—impossible. But let us forget for an instant the ambitious name of library, and simply say that we unite together for the purpose of procuring, in one year, ten times more books than each of us singly could purchase, and it will be granted that we are doing a judicious thing, and making an excellent speculation. Will it not be a sufficiently good result of our association, if, instead of one or two works, which perhaps each of us might have purchased, besides what are indispensable, we have at the end of the year from ten to twenty at our disposal? And supposing we continue at this rate for ten years; instead of from ten to twenty, would we not have from one hundred to two hundred, and perhaps more? And could not our collection, then, without too much vanity, be styled a library? Great things have often sprung from small beginnings. If you persevere, you will have the merit of bequeathing to your successors a considerable number of

books; and, after two or three generations, the teachers of our district will have for their use a valuable library. Is, then, the thought of working for the future of no estimation to the good man, and is not even that thought for us, as says Lafontaine, *a fruit which to-day we enjoy?*

But, besides the satisfaction of founding a work for which our successors will bless us, we ourselves will reap from it precious advantages. By associating, we unshackle the means of instruction. The books besides, which after deliberation and common consent we procure, will be better selected, than if each had been left to his own knowledge. And if you adopt my views of the course to be followed in the acquisition of books, if you select them according to fixed principles, agreed to beforehand, they will form, in the very first year, in spite of their fewness, a finished whole. Ten, twenty volumes selected with judgment, according to a certain plan, and which, by referring to each other, mutually complete and explain each other, are—in spite of the variety of their contents and immediate object—more valuable than three or four times as many works, excellent, perhaps, but chosen at random and inconsequently. From this, it follows, that after ten years' association, we might have at our command, not only ten times more books than we would have had, if each had been left to his own resources; but that these books, more judiciously selected, will have a relative value much greater than the same, or double the number of volumes collected at random.

An association affords still another advantage in this respect. There are works composed of several volumes, and whose price is such, that the majority of teachers are incapable of procuring them at their own expense. United, we can acquire, if necessary, even very expensive works, and some of these publications may be indispensable.

We may, besides, entertain the hope that other teachers will soon join us. I cherish another hope; I hope, if we persevere, that the communities of our district, that the higher committee of our parish and the academy, will come to our aid. As we think not of ourselves alone whilst we are endeavoring to enlarge the limits of our instruction, but of our *schools* and of the *future*, we can, without a blush, invoke the assistance of all who are interested in popular education—of the citizens who discover in it a means of public felicity—and of the authorities intrusted with its direction. Works, we do not doubt, will pour in from different sources, and, if we seriously wish it, we will soon have at our disposal a stock of books, sufficiently respectable to constitute the nucleus of a DISTRICT-SCHOOL LIBRARY.

I come to the second objection—the difficulty of making a suitable selection among so many books. This difficulty is serious; but in proportion to the scantiness of our means, we are less liable to be misled. This consideration, far from discouraging us, ought only to impress still more deeply the principles which ought to guide our selection.

The number of works on all subjects, has, for a century especially, prodigiously increased. The science of education, for a long time neglected, and treated by some distinguished writers only at distant intervals, reckons, in our days, its books by hundreds—if we comprehend those addressed especially to childhood and youth. But we must not be frightened by this multitude; this riches, in the main, is but apparent. Many of those works whose titles swell the catalogues of the booksellers, are old and obsolete; many others are but imitations and of little value. Good writers of every kind are not numerous; and even among the good, a selection can be made. The essential point is to know how to select well. As to old books, we will trust to their reputation, which seldom misleads; and as to new books, we will consult enlightened men.

Of the works recognized as good, we will always select the best and the most complete. To read *much* is not the principal point, but to read *well*; and to read often the *best* productions. The fruits which may be reaped from reading, depend as much upon the manner of reading, as upon the excellence of the books read.

Our library will be composed of three kinds of works. In the first rank, we shall place such as treat of the art of education; of teaching in general; of primary instruction in particular. It will not be necessary to secure a great number of books of this class; a few solid and complete treatises, which epitomise the science, will suffice for the commencement. The most essential precepts and the rules universally approved, are found in all good productions of

any length. To good treatises, however, to encyclopedic manuals, which exhibit pedagogy as a whole, and which, faithful to the precept, *prove all things and cleave to what is good*—unite what even the different methods possess of most practical and reasonable—we will add, later works upon the most remarkable special methods. Still later, in a few years, we may be able to admit into our collection a certain number of works already old, which, like Rousseau's *Emile*, have formed an epoch in the history of the art of education; then, to keep pace with the progress of the science, we only have to procure, at distant intervals, some good new treatise.

The second series of works of our future library, should consist of such as expound either the whole or some branch of primary instruction; of manuals of religion and morality; of arithmetic, geography, and general or national history; natural history, physics, hygiene, agriculture, and technology; written expressly for teachers, children, and the people.

Finally, the richest portion of our library might be composed of instructive and rare works, which, while adding to our knowledge, will afford useful relaxation, and the means of infusing into our lessons a wholesome variety; of exciting and sustaining the attention of our pupils, and of throwing an interest around our teaching.

I rank in this third class of books, *first*, extracts or selections from travels in the different quarters of the globe. They will supply the place of the original narratives, too dear, and which include, besides, generally many very useless details, or things already known. There is scarcely any kind of reading more interesting than the history of travels in distant countries, and which furnishes the most useful materials for the instruction of youth.

Secondly, historical works, particularly natural history, selecting, in preference, such as have been composed for the young of schools. We might extract from them, to narrate to our pupils, those traits of magnanimity and devotedness to one's country and humanity, which constitute the beauty and honor of history.

Thirdly, I would place in our library a few religious and national poets; good anthologies; selections and collections of pieces in prose and verse; a few books more especially written for the instruction and amusement of childhood and youth, and which can be read to and by our pupils.

Fourthly, popular works which, addressed directly to the people, in towns and in the country, strive to snatch them from the misery of ignorance, to render them better and happier; and which adapt to their capacity, morality, counsels of prudence, and the most interesting and useful results of science in general. Till each parish possess its own library, we shall form, as it were, an intermediate stage, a connecting link, between science and the people. To explain these books, and to facilitate the comprehension of them, we must ourselves be thoroughly acquainted with them. We will find in them, besides, an abundant source of instruction for ourselves and for our pupils.

In short, my dear Colleagues, our library ought to consist of a small number of works on methods; manuals of all the branches of primary instruction and of the education of the people; and many instructive and popular works. Thus, all works of pure amusement, and such as are not addressed directly either to schools or youth, to the people or to the teachers of the people, must be excluded. By confining ourselves within these limits, our selection will not be difficult; especially if we be guided by men well versed in such matters. Let us begin the work; let us persevere in the prosecution of it; and soon we shall have to congratulate ourselves on having undertaken it, and on having founded, at the expense of a few light sacrifices, an institution of incontestable utility."

MEANS OF IMPROVING

THE

PECUNIARY CONDITION OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE.

THE provisions of the French law respecting Teachers' Conferences and Libraries, and the remarks of M. Willm, are intended to show how teachers, by association, may add to the acquirements of the Normal School, keep pace with new methods and discoveries, clear up the difficulties and supply the wants met with in their particular position, and escape from that meaningless routine of practices, and dull uniformity of character, to which their profession pursued alone exposes them. But the French law aims, although imperfectly, to ameliorate the teacher's condition, and the condition of his family, by guarding against present and future want. On these points M. Willm makes many judicious suggestions from which American teachers may profit.

"If poverty be always an evil, it is especially so to the teacher; because it prevents him from performing efficiently his duty, and enjoying due distinction. His functions will be doubly painful, if the cares of the morrow deprive him of the energy sufficient to accomplish his daily task. I demand not wealth for the teacher: I ask not that he be rich, but beyond the reach of indigence; that he be able to live in honest ease, without being obliged to devote himself to labors foreign to his profession; that he have the power to continue his studies, to support a family, and to enjoy an honorable repose in his old age—if Heaven accord him length of days—or die undisturbed as to the future lot of his children, if carried away from them in the midst of his career.

The condition of the teacher is at present widely different from this. The law of 1833 has undoubtedly bettered his lot;—and it were ungrateful to deny it. It may be said, indeed, that in general, schoolmasters are better paid in France than in most other countries. In Germany there are a considerable number who do not gain the minimum salary of four hundred francs; and even in Prussia, the average—every thing included—is, for a town-teacher, eight hundred francs; for a country teacher, about three hundred francs: and let us remark that, in Prussia, living is much dearer than in France. It is not necessary to reckon up in detail our every-day expenses, to be convinced that, with such a paltry income, it is wholly impossible to maintain housekeeping on the most economical principle; and that a family of industrious laborers has much greater chance of prospering than that of a teacher.

In France, I repeat, teachers are, in general, much better paid. In towns, it is seldom that they do not gain from one thousand to twelve hundred francs; and in several localities their income exceeds this. In the country, there are few whose salary is under five hundred francs; and many gain a great deal more. But five hundred francs and one thousand francs are but poor remuneration for three hundred and sixty-five days' labor; for to gain even that sum, the teacher is most frequently obliged to add to the functions of schoolmaster, those of beadle, organist, and chanter; such a sum is too inconsiderable to support a family; for we always take for granted that the teacher is married, and has a family: and that so he sets a good example, and is rendered more qualified to train men and citizens.

The condition of teachers must therefore be improved; it must be rendered more pleasant, and, at the same time, more respected, not only with a regard to their interests, but especially for the sake of schools, of the people, and of the state itself.

1. Teachers may themselves do much to ameliorate their lot, and raise their condition. They must remember the old proverb—*help yourself, and Heaven will help you*. M. Schlez, a much esteemed German teacher, thinks that a teacher should always follow some trade, avoiding scrupulously, however, every degrading calling, or which might bring him into competition with the inhabitants of the district. He proposes, as compatible with the functions of the teacher of the people, gardening; the cultivation and grafting of trees; the rearing of bees and silk-worms; musical instrument-making; clock-making; bookbinding; bandbox-making; moulding; painting; the art of turning; the construction of barometers and thermometers; the duties of copyist and book-keeper—and, finally, private lessons. But many of these occupations would require too long an apprenticeship, or engage too much time, to render them lucrative; or they would need an outlay beyond the ordinary means of a teacher. Country teachers might find a valuable resource, as well as a noble recreation, in the cultivation of a garden of limited extent, which all districts ought to have at their disposal; and the ground of which, if it could not be purchased, they might almost always find opportunity to rent.

The art of gardening, which includes the grafting of trees, the cultivation of useful plants and of flowers, appears the most compatible with the occupation of teachers; between them are close analogies. That art can be learned at small expense, and in a short time. The teacher who, from his being well paid, needs not devote himself to pursuits foreign to his profession, might follow it simply for amusement; others would find it a means of improving their condition: and the employment would neither be degrading nor fatiguing. I have seen one of these gardens cultivated by a teacher, whose school was a garden blessed to him by Heaven. One division of it furnished kitchen vegetables; another was planted with fruit-trees of the best sorts; a third, was a nursery exceedingly varied, and flowers abounded in every quarter. Often he led to it his select pupils; his garden was at once a source of pleasure and profit to himself, and of instruction to his school. This example ought to be generally imitated. To the cultivation of a garden and orchard, country teachers might join, according to circumstances, the rearing of bees or silk-worms. During winter, study and instruction ought exclusively to occupy them, and nothing should prevent their keeping an evening-school for adults, or for young people from fifteen to twenty years of age, as is done in several districts of Alsace. This evening-school, which might be of great utility, would supplement a little income; and it depends but on the interest they had in it, to induce a great number of their old pupils to take an active part in this additional instruction. Bandbox-making and book-binding, would likewise be suitable occupations, but not very lucrative.

Shall I inform the country teachers that they have in their own power another means of being in less uneasy circumstances, and that this means is rigid economy, a retired and unassuming life? I have scarcely courage to do so, for the majority are indeed forced to be economical. There is, however, a considerable number who frequent inns and coffee-shops; and who are too much engaged in public amusements, little compatible with the moral authority which they ought to exercise, or with the state of their fortune. Without preventing them, on certain occasions, from mingling with public life, and sharing the honest pleasures of society, they ought to be counseled not to be prodigal of themselves, nor to court these occasions; but carefully to avoid whatever may tend to compromise their dignity, or lead them into useless expense.

In several Normal Schools, the pupil-masters are taught to draw up *civil acts*, as a great many of them will one day become registrars at the mayoralty. Such functions very well correspond with those of teachers in small parishes where there are few acts to write, provided the registrar-teacher can abstain from mixing himself up with the *municipal passions*, often very violent in the smallest villages. Some, likewise, compete with the notary, and for a trifling salary, draw out contracts in private.

Land-surveying affords another resource; a very inconsiderable number can be employed in it, and little dependence should be placed on it.

In short, besides a life sober and modest, the cultivation of trees, the rearing of bees and silkworms, a little rural and domestic economy, private lessons, the functions of registrar, land-surveying, and, perhaps, book-binding and bandbox-making, are the methods by which teachers may ameliorate their condition,

without neglecting their duties, or derogating from their dignity. There is, however, still another resource which might be valuable: it is that which teachers may find in the assistance of their partners: if they knew well how to choose—if they chose not such as are rich, but such as are economical, well-educated, good, and intelligent. I know some who are not only good house-keepers, but who render great services to the community by the examples and lessons they give to the young girls of the district.

Teachers' wives, in the absence of sisters or governesses, properly so called, ought to be able to undertake the teaching of needle-work and other similar branches, as well as the management of infant-schools, throughout all the rural districts. Their rank, as mothers, far from being an obstacle, would adapt them still better for the discharge of such functions; and when temporarily prevented from accomplishing them themselves, they would easily find among the young girls they had trained, assistants to supply their place.

2. Communes (corresponding to our parishes, towns and districts) may place at the disposal of the teacher a portion of ground capable for farming, an orchard and garden. To the school-house, which the 12th article of the organic law obliges every parish to provide for the teacher, ought always to be annexed, in the country, a piece of ground for a garden. If it were impossible to purchase such a piece of ground, the parish might secure it on a long lease, or supply its place by an annual indemnification of fifty francs to the teacher. In fine, the parishes that possess the means, should be obliged to supplement the fixed legal salary, in proportion to the increase of their ordinary revenue. Several general councils have voted funds to indemnify teachers who attend *conferences*, and to aid in the maintenance of libraries established by them. This example ought to be generally imitated. Instead of limiting themselves to making up the exact legal salary of teachers, when the revenues of the parishes are deficient, the counties ought to aid such as can not raise the salary of their school-masters to the minimum of five hundred francs, comprising every kind of emolument. The majority of the general councils vote funds for improving the breed of horses and cattle; why could they not establish a few premiums for the amelioration of mankind? Why could they not grant, every year, a few prizes to the best teachers of each district—those whom the reports of the inspectors and the committees recognized as the best? In fine, the parishes—and, they failing, the counties and the state—ought always to provide a moderate retiring provision for deserving teachers; so that they may not dread retiring, when age unfits them for the maintenance of discipline. The higher school authorities,—the departmental and county councils,—could add to the premium now required by law.

3 The nation alone can make thorough provision for the necessary amelioration of teachers, who are now public functionaries, and intrusted with the education of the people. That they may discharge their functions with courage and devotedness, it is necessary, after they have been properly trained in the Normal Schools, and their morality and capacity well attested, to make them a suitable appointment, so as to enable them to devote themselves exclusively to their school-duties; to live honorably, though unostentatiously, and to continue improving themselves. It is necessary, besides, to afford them a pension when old age renders retreat imperative, and to remove from them all apprehensions as to the lot of their families should they die prematurely—victims of their zeal in executing their painful duties.

Let me be permitted to observe, that the law of June, 1833—that law, in other respects, so full of wisdom, which grateful posterity will always quote with respect, and from which dates truly good primary instruction in France—that law, I say, whilst declaring popular schools a public obligation, a social necessity, and raising teachers to the rank of communal and irremovable functionaries, has not done enough to render their condition what it ought to be, nor sufficiently armed the executive for the strict execution of the law.

The twelfth article says, that every parish teacher shall be provided with a locality, properly situated for a habitation and the reception of pupils. I have mentioned, elsewhere, how this order of the law has, in many places, been executed; and in what sense many parishes understand the word *properly*.

The same article guarantees the primary teacher a fixed salary of at least two hundred francs: it is now pretty generally acknowledged, that the minimum should be raised to three hundred francs: it results from calculations made by

the Minister of Public Instruction in his last report, that to raise the minimum to three hundred francs, it would be requisite to add a million to the budget, and that the said sum would fall to the account of the department. I will not ask what is a million amid a budget of a thousand millions, and what is a million portioned out among the eighty-six counties; I know that the resources of France are great: her wants are likewise immense. But I will say, that the country should consider no sacrifice too costly to secure a service so important as that of popular instruction; and that it ought not, in this respect, to be behind any civilized nation.

The monthly fee, which, according to the fourteenth article, ought to be collected by tax-gatherers in the ordinary form, is the principal source of the teachers' income; but the law has left the fixing of it too much to the arbitrary inclination of the municipal councils. An additional paragraph inserted, upon the proposal of M. Antoine Passy, in the third article of the law of receipts, 1841, submits this fee and the number of gratuitous pupils to the approval of the prefects, who, on the advice of the district committees, may fix a minimum rate for the monthly fee, and a maximum one for the number of gratuitous admissions. The faithful execution of this legislative enactment would be a great benefit: let me hope, that in the next report of the minister, the lot of teachers shall appear every where ameliorated by its means. We must not believe, however, that it will be so productive as to exempt the legislature from raising the minimum fixed salary to three hundred francs.

The law has, at the same time, wished to guarantee the future of teachers. Two methods presented themselves for this object. To deduct from their fixed salary five per cent., as is done with the functionaries of the University, and thus to acquire for them a right to a retiring pension, or to establish simply a savings' or provident-box, in every respect like the ordinary ones; with this difference, that the deposits should be obligatory, and that they could not be withdrawn but at the retiring or death of the depositors. The first of these two systems has the disadvantage—in case of the more or less premature death of a teacher—of depriving his family of the amount deducted from his salary in favor of the surviving teachers. The second system, on the contrary, that of savings'-boxes, makes them run no chance of risk; having reached the end of their career, the product of their economy is restored either to themselves when they retire, or to their families, should they die in the discharge of their duties.

It is this last system which the law has sanctioned by establishing savings'-boxes, formed by the annual deduction of a twentieth from the fixed salary of each parish teacher. This system has been found fault with, for producing but a poor resource for a deserving teacher and his family. Indeed, the deduction of a twentieth from a fixed salary of two hundred francs will produce, of capital and interest, at the end of ten years, only a reserve of one hundred and twenty francs, five centimes; at the end of fifteen years, only a reserve of two hundred francs, fifteen centimes; at the end of twenty years, it will produce about three hundred francs; at the end of twenty-five years, a little more than four hundred francs; at the end of thirty years, about five hundred francs; and forty years' service are necessary to save, in this manner, a thousand francs. The same deduction made upon a fixed salary of three hundred francs will produce one hundred and eighty francs, at the end of ten years; four hundred and fifty francs, at the end of twenty years; eight hundred and forty francs, at the end of thirty years; and about one thousand four hundred and twenty-five francs, after forty years' service. A deduction of twenty francs per annum would amount, in ten years, to two hundred and forty francs; in twenty years, to about six hundred francs; in thirty years, to about one thousand one hundred and twenty francs; at the end of forty years, one thousand nine hundred francs.

We see that, in supposing each teacher to deposit twenty francs a year, this system would still leave much scope for improvement; since, after twenty or forty years' hard labor, it guarantees the teacher only from fifty to one hundred francs of revenue.

To render these saving-boxes of great importance, it would be necessary, in my opinion, to make the deduction of a twentieth, not only from their *fixed* salary, but likewise from the *casual* one, from the *monthly fee*; a thing easily done, as this fee must be collected by the ordinary tax-gatherers.

A mixed system would perhaps be preferable—a system that would unite, as

much as possible, the advantage of savings'-boxes and of deductions made from the salaries, to constitute a fund for retiring pensions. For this purpose, it would be necessary to establish in each chief city, a box, which should be both for savings and deductions, to which the teachers, the districts, and the counties should contribute, and which might receive gifts and legacies. I shall leave to more skillful financiers, the task of developing this idea, and of showing how it might be executed; I limit myself to laying its foundation. Let me suppose a county composed of five hundred districts, and reckoning six hundred and fifty public teachers: this is almost the condition of the Lower Rhine. Let me suppose that this county consents to disburse per annum into the schools'-box, the sum of five thousand francs; that, on their part, the five hundred districts pay into it, annually, at an average, ten francs, which is one thousand francs—in fine, that a deduction of fifteen francs is made from the salaries of the six hundred and fifty teachers, which makes annually seven thousand seven hundred and fifty francs; let me suppose farther, that all these payments amount together to twenty thousand francs per annum, and we will have, at the end of ten years, without counting interest, or probable gifts and legacies, a sum of two hundred thousand francs; and, after twenty years, four hundred thousand francs; a capital which, placed at four per cent., would produce sixteen thousand francs of interest. This interest would be divided, according to an understood ratio, between the deserving and infirm teachers, and the widows and orphans of teachers deceased. To have a right to a retiring pension, it should be necessary to give proofs of infirmity, or of at least thirty years' service. Widows would lose their claims on remarrying; and the children would cease to receive their portion at twenty-one years of age. It should be understood that the districts, small in number, which themselves might engage to provide retiring pensions to deserving teachers, should be at liberty to do so, and be exempted from contributing to the county-box.

This box—which should, especially and essentially, be a fund for *pensions*—would be a *savings'-box* only for such teachers as have been obliged, from bad conduct, to resign their functions, or who voluntarily give them up, and without being unwell, before having served thirty years. The amount only of what they had paid in, should, without interest, be restored to them. The same should be done with such as leave for situations elsewhere; their disbursements should be transmitted to the box of the county to which they go.

Every one would gain by realizing this scheme: there would be a loss sustained only by such as abandoned their calling, or by children become majors at the death of their fathers. The enactment, again, might, according to circumstances, stipulate for some succor to the latter, and even in favor of the children of destitute teachers. But to render such a box truly productive, the concurrence of the counties and districts is indispensable. We might hope, likewise, that many friends of popular education would assist it, especially at the commencement. After twenty or twenty-five years, the box would subsist of itself, and without any other fresh contributions, save of those concerned.

In short, what is necessary to render the condition of the teachers comfortable, is, in the first place, a convenient dwelling-house, with a garden in the rural districts; then a fixed salary of at least 300 francs, with a casual salary proportioned to the number of scholars, and resulting from a monthly fee, fixed by the municipal councils, subject to the approval of his prefects, and collected by the tax-gatherers; finally, a county-box for retiring pensions, and for aid to the widows and orphans, supplied by the concurrence of the counties, the districts, and the teachers. Encouragements, premiums adjudged by the counties to the most deserving, and succor granted to the most necessitous districts, would usefully complete this system.

The medals which at our anniversaries are distributed every year can have no real value until their recipients are beyond the reach of want. Honorary distinctions add, besides, to the consideration of such as are the objects of them; and they contribute more to the interests of the body to which they belong, than to those of the men who have been decorated by them. It would, therefore, be very useful, that, from time to time, this *bullion recompense*, to which M. Guizot refers in his beautiful circular, attest to the most experienced and devoted teacher that the *government watches over their services and knows how to honor them*.

NORMAL SCHOOL

OF

THE FRÈRES CHRÉTIENS, OR CHRISTIAN BROTHERS, AT PARIS.

The following sketch is taken from Kay's "*Education of the Poor in England and Europe*," published by J. Hatchard and Son, London, 1846.

"The Frères are a society of men devoted entirely and exclusively to the education of the poor. They take the vow of celibacy, renounce all the pleasures of society and relationship, enter into the brotherhood, and retain only two objects in life,—their own spiritual advancement and the education of the people. But before a young man can be received into the society, he is required to pass an intermediate period of education and trial, during which he is denied all the ordinary pleasures of life, *is accustomed to the humblest and most servile occupations*, and receives an excellent and most liberal education. During this period, which lasts three years, he is carefully instructed in the principles of the Roman Catholic religion, in the sciences, in the French and Latin languages, in history, geography, arithmetic, writing, &c., and at the same time he is required to perform the most humble household duties. The Frères and the young men who are passing through their first novitiate, manage in turn all the household duties, as the cooking, the preparation of the meals, and all the ordinary duties of domestic servants; whilst their simple and perfectly plain costume, their separation from the world and from their friends, who are only permitted to visit them at long intervals, accustom them to the arduous and self-denying life they are called upon afterward to lead in the primary schools.

By these means they form a character admirably fitted for the important office of a schoolmaster.

The Frères never leave the walls of one of their houses except in company. One Frère is not permitted to travel without being accompanied by another; and when a department or commune requires their services in a primary school, three are sent out, one of whom manages their domestic concerns, whilst the other two conduct the school classes. If, however, there is in any town more than one school conducted by Frères, they all live together under the superintendence of an elder Frère, who is styled director.

If at the end of the first novitiate the young man is still willing and desirous of entering the brotherhood, he is admitted by gradual advancement and preparation into the bosom of the society. He is then at the disposition of the principal of the order, who sends him, in company with two brothers, to some district which has demanded a master from them.

What remains of their salaries after defraying the expenses of their frugal table, is returned to the treasury of the society, by which it is expended in the printing of their school-books, in the various expenses of their central establishment, and in works of charity.

Before a Frère is allowed to conduct a primary school, he is obliged to obtain, in like manner as the other teachers, a *brevet de capacité*; government demanding in all cases assurance of the secular education of the teachers, and of the character of the instruction given by them in their schools. All their schools are of course open as well to the inspectors of government, who visit, examine, and report upon them, as to their own, who strictly examine the conduct and progress of the Frères in their different schools, and report to the principal.

The following table will show the number of schools conducted by Frères in 1844, and the number of children educated in them:—

	No. of Schools.	No. of Children.
France,	658	169,501
Belgium,	41	9,535
Savoy,	28	5,110
Piedmont,	30	6,490
Pontifical States,	20	4,199
Canada,	6	1,840
Turkey,	2	580
Switzerland,	2	444
Total,	787	197,699

The education given in their schools is very liberal and the books used very good. The Frères consider that if they *neglect to develop the intellect of their pupils, they can not advance their religious education satisfactorily*; they consequently spare no pains to attain the former development, in order that the latter, which is the great end of their teaching and of all instruction whatsoever, may not be retarded.

The following are among the regulations of the Society:

1. The Institution des Frères des Ecoles Chrétiennes is a society which professes to conduct schools gratuitously. The design of this institution is to give a Christian education to children. With this object in view, the Frères conduct schools where children may be placed under the management of masters from morning until evening, so that the masters may be able to teach them to live honestly and uprightly, by instructing them in the principles of our holy religion, by teaching them Christian precepts, and by giving them suitable and sufficient instruction.

2. The spirit of the institution is a spirit of faith which ought to encourage its members to attribute all to God, to act as continually in the sight of God, and in perfect conformity to His orders and His will. The members of this association should be filled with an ardent zeal for the instruction of children, for their preservation in innocence and the fear of God, and for their entire separation from sin.

3. The institution is directed by a *superior*, who is nominated for life. He has two assistants, who compose his council, and aid him in governing the society. These assistants live in the same house with him, assist at his councils, and render him aid whenever necessary.

4. The superior is elected by ballot by the directors assembled at the principal houses; the two assistants are chosen in the same manner, and these latter hold office ten years, and can then be re-elected.

5. The superior may be deposed, but only by a general chapter, and for grave causes.

6. This chapter is composed of thirty of the oldest Frères, or directors of the principal houses, who assemble by right once every ten years, and whenever it is deemed necessary to convoke an extraordinary meeting.

7. The private houses are governed by Frères-directors, who are appointed for three years, unless it appears advisable to the superior and his assistants to name a shorter period, or to recall them before the end of it.

8. The superior names the visitors. They are appointed for three years, and make a round of visits once every year. They require of the directors an account of their receipts and expenses, and as soon as their visits are completed, they present a report to their superior of the necessary changes and corrections to be made by him.

9. No Frère can take priest's orders, or pretend to any ecclesiastical office, neither can he wear a surplice or serve in the churches, except at daily mass; but they confine themselves to their vocation, and live in silence, in retreat, and in entire devotion to their duties.

10. They are bound to the institution by three simple religious vows, which are taken at first for only three years, as well as by a vow of perseverance and a renouncement of any recompense for the instruction they give. These vows can only be annulled after dispensation granted by the Pope.

11. They are not admitted to take the vows until they have been at least two years in the institution, and until they have passed one year in the novitiate and one year in the school.

12. They are only admitted after a severe examination, and then only by a majority of the votes of the Frères of the house where they have passed their novitiate.

13. There are two novitiates, one where they admit young men between 13 and 16 years of age, the other for older men. But all young men who are admitted below the age of 25 renew their vows every year till they attain that age.

14. They banish from the society every Frère who conducts himself unbecomingly. But this is only done for grave offenses, and by a majority of votes at a general chapter.

15. The same regulation is observed when a Frère desires to leave the society and to obtain a dispensation from his vows.

16. The Frères do not establish themselves in the dioceses without the consent of the bishops, and they acknowledge their authority as their spiritual government, and that of the magistrates as their civil government.

19. The Frères shall instruct their pupils after the method prescribed to them by the institution.

20. They shall teach their scholars to read French and Latin, and to write.

21. They shall teach them also orthography, and arithmetic, the matins and vespers, le Pater, l'Ave Maria, le Credo et le Confiteor, and the French translations of these prayers, the Commandments of God and of the Church, the responses of the holy mass, the Catechism, the duties of a Christian, and the maxims and precepts that our Lord has left us in the holy Testament.

22. They shall teach the Catechism half an hour daily.

27. The Frères shall not receive from the scholars, or their parents, either money or any other present, at any time.

30. They shall exhibit an equal affection for all their poor scholars, and more for the poor than for the rich; because the object of the institution is the instruction of the poor.

31. They shall endeavor to give their pupils, by their conduct and manners, a continual example of modesty, and of all the other virtues which they ought to be taught, and which they ought to practise.

37. The Frères shall take the greatest care that they very rarely punish their children, as they ought to be persuaded that, by refraining as much as possible from punishment, they will best succeed in properly conducting a school, and in establishing order in it.

38. When punishment shall have become absolutely necessary, they shall take the greatest care to punish with the greatest moderation and presence of mind, and never to do it under the influence of a hasty movement, or when they feel irritated.

39. They shall watch over themselves that they never exhibit the least anger or impatience, either in their corrections, or in any of their words or actions; as they ought to be convinced, that if they do not take these precautions the scholars will not profit from their correction, (and the Frères never ought to correct except with the object of benefiting their children) and God will not give the correction his blessing.

40. They shall not at any time give to their scholars any injurious epithet or insulting name.

41. They shall also take the greatest care not to strike their scholars with hand, foot, or stick, nor to push them rudely.

42. They shall take great care not to pull their ears, their hair, or their noses, nor to fling any thing at them; these kinds of corrections ought not to be practised by the Frères, as they are very indecent and opposed to charity and Christian kindness.

43. They shall not correct their scholars during prayers, or at the time of catechising, except when they cannot defer the correction.

They shall not use corporal punishment, except when every other means of correction has failed to produce the right effect.

58. The Frère-director shall be inspector over all the schools in his town; and when more than one inspector is necessary for one house of Frères, the other inspector shall report to the Frère-director twice a week on the conduct of each Frère, on the condition of his class, and on the progress of his scholars.

The following remarks on the Training School of this Brotherhood of Teachers are taken from "the Second Report of J. P. Kay Shuttleworth, on the Schools for the Training of Parochial Schoolmasters at Battersea."

We had frequently visited the schools of the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine in France, and had spent much time in the examination of their *Ecoles-mères*, or Mother-School. Our attention was attracted to these schools by the gentle manners and simple habits which distinguished the Frères; by their sympathy for children, and the religious feeling which pervaded their elementary schools. Their schools are certainly deficient in some of the niceties of organization and method; and there are subjects on which the instruction might be more complete and exact; but each master was, as it were, a parent to the children around him. The school resembled a harmonious family.

The self-denying industry of these pious men was remarkable. The habits of their order would be deemed severe in this country. In the Mother School (where they all reside,) they rise at four. After private meditation, their public devotions in the chapel occupy the early hours of the morning. The domestic drudgery of the household succeeds. They breakfast at seven, and are in the schools of the great cities of France at nine. When the routine of daily school-keeping is at an end, after a short interval for refreshment and exercise, they open their evening schools, where hundreds of the adult population receive instruction, not merely in reading, writing, and the simplest elements of numbers, but in singing, drawing, geography; the mensuration of planes and solids; the history of France, and in religion. Their evening schools do not close till ten. The public expenditure on account of their services is one-third the usual remuneration of an elementary schoolmaster in France, and they devote their lives, constrained by the influence of a religious feeling, under a rule of celibacy, but without a vow, to the education of the poor.

The unquestionable self-denial of such a life; the attachment of the children, and of the adult pupils to their instructors, together with the constant sense of the all-subduing presence of Christian principle, rendered the means adopted by the Christian Brothers, for the training of their novices, a matter of much interest and inquiry.

The Mother School differs in most important respects from a Normal School, but the extent of this difference is not at first sight apparent, and is one of those results of our experience which we wish to submit.

The Mother School is an establishment comprising arrangements for the instruction and training of novices; for the residence of the brothers, who are engaged in the active performance of the duties of their order, as masters of elementary day and evening schools; and it affords an asylum, into which they gradually retire from the fatigues and cares of their public labors, as age approaches, or infirmities accumulate, to spend the period of sickness or decrepitude in the tranquillity of the household provided for them, and amidst the consolations of their brethren. The brothers constitute a family, performing every domestic service, ministering to the sick and infirm, and assembling for devotion daily in their chapel.

Their novices enter about the ages of twelve or fourteen. They at once assume the dress of the order, and enter upon the self-denying routine of the household. The first years of their novitiate are of course devoted to such elementary instruction as is necessary to prepare them for their future duties as teachers of the poor. Their habits are formed, not only in the course of this instruction, but by joining the religious exercises; performing the household duties; and enjoying the benefit of constant intercourse with the elder brethren of the Mother School, who are at once their instructors and friends. In this life of seclusion, the superior of the Mother School has opportunities of observing and ascertaining the minutest traits of character, which indicate their comparative qualifications for the future labors of the order; nor is this vigilance relaxed, but rather increased, when they first quit the private studies of the Mother School, to be gradually initiated in their public labors as instructors of the people.

Such of the novices as are found not to possess the requisite qualifications, especially as respects the moral constitution necessary for the duties of their order, are permitted to leave the Mother School to enter upon other pursuits.

During the period of the novitiate, such instances are not rare, but we have reason to believe, that they seldom occur after the brother has acquired maturity.

As their education in the Mother School proceeds, the period devoted every day to their public labors in the elementary schools is enlarged; and they thus, under the eye of elder brethren, assisted by their example and precepts, gradually emerge from the privacy of their novitiate to their public duties.

In all this there is not much that differs from the life of a young pupil in a Normal School; but, at this point, the resemblance ceases, and a great divergence occurs.

The brother, whose novitiate is at an end, continues a member of the household of the Mother School. He has only advanced to a higher rank. He is surrounded by the same influences. The daily routine which formed his domestic and religious habits continues. His mind is fed, and his purposes are strengthened by the conversation and examples of his brethren, and his conduct is under the paternal eye of his superior. Under such circumstances, personal identity is almost absorbed in the corporate life by which he is surrounded. The strength of the order supports his weakness: the spirit of the order is the pervading principle of his life: he thinks, feels, and acts, by an unconscious inspiration from every thing by which he is surrounded, in a calm atmosphere of devotion and religious labor. All is prescribed; and a pious submission, a humble faith, a patient zeal, and a self-denying activity are his highest duties.

Contrast his condition with that of a young man leaving a Normal School at the age of eighteen or nineteen, after three or four years of comparative seclusion, under a regimen closely resembling that of the Mother School. At this age, it is necessary that he should be put in charge of an elementary school, in order that he may earn an independence.

The most favorable situation in which he can be placed, because remote from the grosser forms of temptation, and therefore least in contrast with his previous position, is the charge of a rural school. For the tranquil and eventless life of the master of a rural school, such a training is not an unfit preparation. His resources are not taxed by the necessity for inventing new means to meet the novel combinations which arise in a more active state of society. His energy is equal to the task of instructing the submissive and tractable, though often dull children of the peasantry; and the gentle manners and quiet demeanor, which are the uniform results of his previous education, are in harmony with the passionless life of the seclusion into which he is plunged. His knowledge and his skill in method are abundantly superior to the necessities of his position, and the unambitious sense of duty which he displays attracts the confidence and wins the regard of the clergyman of the parish and of his intelligent neighbors. For such a life, we have found even the young pupils whom we introduced into the training schools at their foundation well fitted, and we have preferred to settle them, as far as we could, on the estates of our personal friends, where we are assured they have succeeded. Those only who have entered the Normal School at adult age, have been capable of successfully contending with the greater difficulties of town schools.

But we are also led by our experience to say, that such a novitiate does not prepare a youth of tender age to encounter the responsibilities of a large town or village school, in a manufacturing or mining district. Such a position is in the most painful contrast with his previous training. He exchanges the comparative seclusion of his residence in the Normal School for the difficult position of a public instructor, on whom many jealous eyes are fixed. For the first time he is alone in his profession; unaided by the example of his masters; not stimulated by emulation with his fellows; removed from the vigilant eye of the Principal of the school; separated from the powerful influences of that corporate spirit, which impelled his previous career, yet placed amidst difficulties, perplexing even to the most mature experience, and required to tax his invention to meet new circumstances, before he has acquired confidence in the unsustained exercise of his recently developed powers. He has left the training school for the rude contact of a coarse, selfish, and immoral populace, whose gross appetites and manners render the narrow streets in his neighborhood scenes of impurity. He is at once brought face to face with an ignorant and corrupt multitude, to whose children he is to prove a leader and guide.

His difficulties are formidable. His thoughts are fixed on the deformity of

this monstrous condition of society. It is something to have this sense of the extremity of the evil, but to confront it, that conviction should become the spur to persevering exertion. We have witnessed this failure, and we conceive that such difficulties can only be successfully encountered by masters of maturer age and experience.

The situation of the novice of a Mother School, founded in the centre of a great manufacturing city, is in direct contrast with that of the young student, exchanging his secluded training in a Normal School for the unaided charge of a great town school.

If such a Mother School were founded in the midst of one of our largest commercial towns, under the charge of a Principal of elevated character and acquirements; if he had assembled around him devoted and humble men, ready to spend their lives in reclaiming the surrounding population by the foundation and management of schools for the poor; and into this society a youth were introduced at a tender age, instructed, trained, and reared in the habits and duties of his profession; gradually brought into contact with the actual evil, to the healing of which his life was to be devoted; never abandoned to his own comparatively feeble resources, but always feeling himself the missionary of a body able to protect, ready to console, and willing to assist and instruct him: in such a situation, his feebleness would be sustained by the strength of a corporation animated with the vitality of Christian principle.

We are far from recommending the establishment of such a school, to the success of which we think we perceive insurmountable obstacles in this country. The only form in which a similar machinery could exist in England is that of a Town Normal School, in which all the apprentices or pupil teachers of the several elementary schools might lodge, and where, under the superintendence of a Principal, their domestic and religious habits might be formed. The masters of the elementary schools might be associates of the Normal School, and conduct the instruction of the pupil teachers, in the evening or early in the morning, when free from the duties of their schools. The whole body of masters would thus form a society, with the Principal at their head, actively employed in the practical daily duties of managing and instructing schools, and also by their connection with the Town Normal School, keeping in view and contributing to promote the general interests of elementary education, by rearing a body of assistant masters. If a good library were collected in this central institution, and lectures from time to time delivered on appropriate subjects to the whole body of masters and assistants, or, which would be better, if an upper school were founded, which might be attended by the masters and most advanced assistants, every improvement in method would thus be rapidly diffused through the elementary schools of towns.

The following biographical sketch of the founder of this truly Christian society cannot but interest our readers.

The venerable J. B. de la Salle, founder of the Christian Schools, was born at Rheims, on the 30th of April, 1651, of parents who were as exalted by their virtue as by the respectability of their station. Although the eldest son, he consecrated himself at an early age to the service of the altar, and was made canon of Rheims at seventeen, and ordained priest in 1671. Through a motive of zeal, the Abbé de la Salle exchanged his canonry for a parish; the archbishop, however, refused to ratify the proceeding, being unwilling that the chapter of his cathedral should be deprived of a canon of such merit and exemplary piety. Animated with an ardent zeal for the salvation of souls, he attached himself to the instruction of the children of the common people. In June, 1681, he commenced with a few disciples the Institute since known as the Brothers of the Christian Schools, but which has extended itself all over France, and in other parts of Europe. The Abbé de la Salle established schools and taught himself at Rheims, Paris, Marseilles, and Grenoble, and after forty years of labor in the cause of instruction, he died on Good Friday, April 17, 1719, at Rouen, where he had established the chief house of his Institute. He left twenty-two houses, which continued to increase until the Revolution, when they numbered one hundred and twenty-one. The order was re-established in France by an imperial decree, March 17, 1803, and has been approved by all succeeding governments.

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOLS

OF VERSAILLES AND DIJON.

THE Primary Normal School of Versailles is for the Department of Seine and Oise. It comprises within its ample premises* several establishments for the instruction and practice of teachers. The school itself contains eighty pupils under regular instruction throughout the year, and furnishes a two months' course to adult schoolmasters. The establishments for practice begin with the infant school, and rise through the primary to the grade of primary superior. Of the elementary schools, one affords the young teachers an example of the method of mutual, and another of simultaneous instruction. The primary superior school had been recently established, at the date of my visit, in 1837. There is, besides, an evening department for the elementary instruction of adults, taught by the pupils of the Normal School, and also a school of design, which is established here rather for convenience than as properly belonging to the range of the institution.

The whole establishment is under the immediate control of a director (Mr. Le Brun), subject to the authority of a committee, and of the university, the inspectors of which make regular visits. The committee inspect the school by sub-committees once a month, visiting the recitation-rooms of the professors without giving special notice—a plan much to be preferred to that of stated visits. If a member of a committee desires questions to be put upon any particular points, he calls upon the professor to extend his examination, or asks questions himself. The director examines the classes frequently, or is present at the lessons. There are eight professors for the various courses, and two "repeaters" (*répétiteurs*), these latter superintending the pupils when not with the professors, and giving them assistance if required. The repeaters are responsible for the execution of the order of the day in the institution, and for the police, and one of them sleeps in each of the two dormitories. Some of the teachers in the Normal School also give instruction in the model schools, and have charge of the pupils while engaged in the practical exercises. The domestic economy is under the charge of the director, but he is allowed an assistant, who actually discharges the duty of superintendence, and who has brought this department into most excellent order.†

There are a certain number of gratuitous places, to which pupils are admitted by competition, those found best prepared at the examination for admission having the preference. Pay pupils are also received at a very moderate rate,‡ but are exactly on the same footing, in reference to the duties of the institution, with the former. Young men who wish to compete for a place, and are not sufficiently prepared, may enter as pay pupils, and thus receive instruction directly applicable to their object. The age of admission is, by rule, between sixteen and twenty-one, but the former limit is considered too early for profitable entrance. The qualifications for admission consist in a thorough knowledge of the subjects taught in the elementary schools.

The period of instruction is two years. The first year is devoted to the

* Used under a former dynasty to accommodate the hounds of Charles X.

† During the first year of the institution, the fare of each student cost fifty-nine centimes (twelve cents) per day. They had meat twice a day, except on the fasts of the Church.

‡ Five hundred francs, or about one hundred dollars, per annum.

revision of elementary studies, and the second to an extension of them, and to theoretical and practical instruction in the science and art of teaching. The subjects of revision or instruction are, reading, writing, linear drawing, geography, history, the drawing of maps, morals and religion, vocal music, arithmetic, elementary physics, terraculture, and pedagogy.

The religious instruction is given by an ecclesiastic, who is almoner to the school; it includes lessons on the doctrines and history of the church, given twice per week. Protestants are not required to attend these lessons, but receive instruction out of the institution from a minister of their own confession.

Physical education is conducted by means of exercises in gymnastics, by walks, and the practice of gardening. In summer the pupils bathe once a week. The gymnastic exercises are taught by the more expert pupils to the scholars of the model schools, and appear to have taken well among them.

The pupils study in a room common to all, and the degree of attention which they pay, and their conduct, are marked, according to a uniform scale, by the superintending "repeater," and reported daily to the director. Once every month the professor examines these classes on the studies of the past month, and reports the standing. Marks are also given for great proficiency and attention, which are reported with the standing. These marks, and those of the examination, are summed up, and when they amount to a certain number for the month, the pupil is entitled to a premium. The premiums consist of books uniformly bound, and accompanied by a certificate. Report is made of these pupils to the minister of public instruction, and the record may serve them when desirous to secure a particular place. The director assembles the school to hear an account of these monthly reports, and makes such remarks as they may suggest.

Besides the more usual school implements, this institution has a library, a small collection of physical and chemical apparatus, of technological specimens, already of considerable interest, and of models of agricultural implements. There are also two gardens, one of which is laid out to serve the purposes of systematic instruction in horticulture, the other of which contains specimens of agricultural products, and a ground for gymnastic exercises. The pupils work by details of three at a time, under the direction of the gardener, in cultivating flowers, fruits, vegetables, &c. They have the use of a set of carpenters' and joiners' tools, with which they have fitted up their own library in a very creditable way.* In the second year they receive lectures on the science and art of teaching, and in turn give instruction in the schools, under the direction of the teachers. Their performances are subsequently criticised for their improvement.

The order of the day in summer is as follows:

The pupils rise at five, wash, make up their beds, and clean their dormitories, in two divisions, which alternate; meet in the study-hall at half past five for prayers, breakfast, engage in studies or recitation until one; dine and have recreation until two; study or recite until four; have exercises or recreation, sup, study, and engage in religious reading and prayers; and retire at ten, except in special cases. Before meals there is a grace said, and during meals one of the pupils reads aloud.

In distributing the time devoted to study and recitation, an hour of study is made to precede a lesson, when the latter requires specific preparation; when, on the contrary, the lesson requires after-reflection to fix its principles, or consists of a lecture, of which the notes are to be written out, the study hour follows the lesson. The branches of a mechanical nature are inter-

* A carpenter who came to attend the evening classes was found by the director so intelligent, that he advised him to prepare for the school. The young man succeeded in entering, at the annual competition, and subsequently, on leaving the school, received one of the best appointments of his year as a teacher.

persed with the intellectual. The students of the second year are employed, in turn, in teaching, and are relieved from other duties during the hours devoted to the schools of practice.

On Sunday, after the morning service, the pupils are free to leave the walls of the institution. The same is the case on Thursday afternoon. The director has found, however, bad results from these indiscriminate leaves of absence.

The discipline of the school is mild, the age and objects of the pupils being such that the use of coercive means is seldom required. The first step is admonition by a "repeater" or professor, the next a private admonition by the director. If these means prove ineffectual, dismissal follows. The director has great influence, from his personal character, and from the fact that his recommendation can secure a good place* to the pupil immediately on leaving the school. The mode of life in the institution is very simple. The pupils are neatly but roughly dressed, and perform most of the services of police for themselves. The dormitories are very neat. The bedsteads are of wrought-iron, corded at the bottom. During the night the clothes are deposited in small boxes near the beds. The extra articles of clothing are in a common room. Cleanliness of dress and person are carefully enjoined. The fare is plain, but good, and the arrangements connected with the table unexceptionable. There is an infirmary attached to the school, which is, however, but rarely used.

The schools for practice do not require special description, as their organization will be sufficiently understood from what has already been said of primary schools, and they have not been long enough in operation to acquire the improved form which, I cannot doubt, they will receive under the present able director of the Normal School.

The Primary Normal School at Dijon, for the Department of Côte d'Or, in its general organization, is the same as that at Versailles. It differs, however, in one most important particular, which involves other differences of detail. All the instruction, except of religion and music, as well as the superintendence, is under the charge of the director and a single assistant, who, by the aid of the pupils, carry on the schools of practice, as well as the courses of the Normal School. This arrangement limits the amount of instruction, and interferes very materially with the arrangement of the studies. The school is conducted, however, with an excellent spirit. An idea of the plan will be obtained from the order of the day, which also contains an outline of the course of instruction.

From five to six A. M., the pupils say their prayers, wash, &c. From six to seven the higher division has a lesson in French grammar. The lower receives a lesson in geography or history alternately. From seven to eight, the higher division has a lesson in geography or history alternately; the lower division in arithmetic. From eight to half past eight, breakfast and recreation. From half past eight until eleven, a portion of the higher division is employed in the primary schools of practice, and the others are engaged in study. From eleven until one, writing and linear drawing for both divisions. From one until two, dinner and recreation. From two until half past four, as from half past eight to eleven. Recreation until five. From five to six, instruction in instrumental or vocal music for each division alternately. From six to seven, the higher division has a lesson in geometry, or its applications; the lower division in French grammar. From seven until a quarter before eight, supper and recreation. From this time until nine, the higher division has a lesson in physical science or natural history, mechanics, agriculture, and rural economy, or book-keeping; the lower di-

* The best places, in point of emolument, are worth from fifteen to eighteen hundred francs (about \$300 to \$360).

vision in reading. The last quarter of an hour is occupied by both divisions in prayers, after which they retire. This order applies to all the days of the week but Thursday, when, from eight to ten, the pupils receive moral and religious instruction ; from ten to eleven, instruction in the forms of simple, legal, and commercial writings ; and from two to four, engaged in the review of part of the week's studies. On the afternoon of Thursday the schools of practice are not in session.

On Sunday, after the duties following their rising, the pupils are occupied in studying and revising some of the lessons of the week. From nine to ten o'clock, in religious reading, aloud. At ten they go to service in the parish chapel, attended by the director and his assistant. Receive moral and religious instruction, on their return, until dinner-time. After dinner, attend the evening service, and then take a walk. In the evening, assemble for conversation on pedagogical subjects, and for prayers.

NORMAL SCHOOL*

FOR

TEACHERS OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS,

AT PARIS.

THE "Normal School," intended to furnish professors for colleges, was established in 1794, by the same convention which created the polytechnic school. The organization proposed by the law was upon a scale entirely beyond the wants to be supplied; and, notwithstanding the exertions of its eminent professors, the school had but a temporary existence, and ill success, mainly from the unprepared state of the pupils who had entered it, and to whom the kind of instruction was entirely unadapted. There were thirteen courses of lectures, and among the professors were Lagrange, Laplace, Haüy, Monge, Berthollet, Volney, Bernardin St. Pierre, Sicard, and Laharpe. The school was suppressed by a decree of April, 1795, and its pupils dispersed. After the reorganization of the university, in 1806, the expediency of reviving the normal school appears to have been felt, and it was reorganized in 1808. The number of pupils provided for in the new plan was three hundred; but from 1810 to 1826 there were never more than fifty-eight actually in attendance. According to the plan of instruction, lectures were to be attended out of doors, and interrogations and study to take place within the school, under the charge of the elder pupils. The recitations of the pupils to each other were called conferences; a name which is still preserved, being applied to the lessons given by the teachers, who are called masters of conferences. The duration of the course of instruction was limited at first to two years, but subsequently extended to three. The school was a second time suppressed, in 1822; and in 1826 an institution, termed a "preparatory school," was substituted for it, which in its turn was abolished, and the old normal school revived by a decree of the lieutenant-general of the kingdom, on the 6th of August, 1830. A report was made by M. Cousin, Secretary of the Council of Public Instruction, in October, 1830, the recommendations of which were adopted substantially. New regulations for the course of study, the general arrangements and discipline, have been gradually prepared, and the school has commenced a career of usefulness which it bids fair to prosecute with increasing success.

The chief purpose of the normal school is to give its pupils ample opportunities of preparation for the competition for places of adjuncts in the colleges (*cours d'agrégation*), and its arrangements are all subordinate to this object. In this competition, however, the pupils of the school meet on an equal footing, merely, with all other candidates.

The officers, in 1837, were, the director, who did not reside at the school, nor take part in the instruction; the director of studies, the resident head of the establishment; eight masters of conferences for the section of letters; six masters of conferences, and one for the drawing department, for the section of sciences; two preparers (*préparateurs*); a sub-director, charged with a general superintendence of the pupils, and two assistants, called superintending masters. The masters of conferences have, in general, equivalent duties to the professors in the colleges. In 1837 there were eighty pupils in the school, of whom forty-nine were supported entirely by the funds allowed by the government, and eighteen had half their expenses defrayed.

The normal school at present occupies a part of the buildings belonging

* From Bache's Education in Europe.

to the Royal College of Louis-le-Grand, and the college furnishes the food and clothing of the pupils by agreement with the school. This connection has advantages, and among them, that of enabling the pupils to have some practice in teaching; but they are more than counterbalanced by disadvantages, and the friends of the school are earnest in their endeavors to procure a separate domicile for it. The accommodations for lodging, study, instruction, and exercise, as far as the building and its site are concerned, are certainly of a most limited kind.

Admission.—The number of pupils who may be admitted is determined every year by the probable number required to fill the vacancies in secondary instruction. The admissions are made by competition, and for the most successful competitors a limited number of bursaries (bourses) are established, divisible into half bursaries, which are distributed to those who require assistance. The candidates enter their names at the academy nearest to their residence, between the fifteenth of June and of July, every year. Each candidate deposits the following certificates, viz., of the date of birth, showing that he is over seventeen and under twenty-three years of age; of having been vaccinated; of moral conduct; of having completed, or being about to complete, his studies, including philosophy, and, if he intends to become a teacher of science, a course of special mathematics and of physics; a declaration from his parent or guardian, if the candidate is a minor, that he will devote himself for ten years, from the period of admission, to public instruction. These lists are forwarded by the rectors of the several academies, with their remarks, to the council of public instruction, which returns, before the first of August, a list of those persons who may be examined for admission. This examination is made in the several academies, with a view to select the most prominent candidates, whose cases are to be ultimately decided by competition at the school in Paris. It consists of compositions upon subjects which are the same for all the academies, and of interrogations and oral explanations. For the candidates, as future instructors in letters, the written exercises are a dissertation, in French, on some points of philosophy, an essay in Latin, an essay in French, a Latin and Greek version, and Latin verses. The oral examinations turn upon the classical authors read in college, and upon the elements of philosophy, rhetoric, and history. The candidates in science have the same written exercises in philosophy and in Latin versions, and in addition, must solve one or more questions in mathematics and physics. The oral examinations are upon subjects of mathematics, physics, and philosophy, taught in the philosophy class of the colleges. All the written exercises and notes of the oral examinations are forwarded to the minister of public instruction, and submitted severally to a committee of letters and a committee of science, taken from among the masters of the normal school, the director being chairman of each committee. These committees decide whether the candidates are fit to be allowed to present themselves for examination at the school, and those who are deemed worthy, receive a notice to report themselves on or before the fifteenth of October. Previous to this competition the candidates are required to present their diploma of bachelor of letters or of sciences. The masters of the normal school are divided into two committees, one of letters and the other of science, for conducting these examinations, which are oral, and the result of which determines the admission or rejection of the candidate. On admission, the pupil makes an engagement to devote himself to public instruction for ten years.

Instruction.—The present arrangement of the courses of instruction can only be regarded as provisional, improvements being gradually introduced, as observation shows their necessity. The principle declared by the director, M. Cousin, to be that of the school in this respect, is worthy of all commendation. "When," says M. Cousin, in his Report of 1835-6,* "experi-

* Ecole Normale. Règlements, programmes, et rapports. Paris, 1837.

ence shows the necessity or utility of a measure which the fundamental regulations of the school have not provided for, it is by no means proposed at once to the royal council for adoption as an article of the regulations; authority is asked to put it to the test of practice, and it is only when found repeatedly successful that it is deemed prudent to convert it into a regulation." A close observation of the merits and defects of the system is thus made to pave the way for judicious changes.

The full course of the school, at present, occupies three years. The pupils are divided into two sections, that of letters and of science, which pursue separate courses. In the section of letters, the first year is devoted to a revision, and the second to an extension, of the higher courses of the colleges, and the third is especially employed in fitting the pupils to become professors. In fulfilling this object, however, no instruction in the science or art of teaching is given in the establishment, nor is it obligatory upon the pupils to teach, so that, as far as systematic practice goes, they derive no direct benefit from the school; it is a privilege, however, which many enjoy, to be called to give lessons in some of the royal colleges, particularly in that with which the school is now connected by its locality. When the pupil intends to devote himself to teaching in the grammar classes of the colleges, or is found not to have the requisite ability for taking a high rank in the body of instructors, he passes at once from the first year's course to the third, and competes, accordingly, in the examination of adjuncts (*agreges*). The consequences of the low esteem in which the grammar studies are held have been much deplored by the present director of the school,* and a reform in regard to them has been attempted, with partial success.

The courses are conducted by teachers called masters of conferences, who seldom lecture, but question the pupils upon the lessons which have been appointed for them to learn, give explanations, and are present while they interrogate each other, as a kind of practice in the art of teaching. In some cases, the students themselves act as masters of conferences.

The course of letters of the *first year* comprised, in 1836-7,†

1. Greek language and literature, three lessons per week. 2. Latin and French literature, three lessons. 3. Ancient history and antiquities, three lessons. 4. A course of philosophy higher than that of the colleges, three lessons. 5. General physics, one lesson. Chemistry, one lesson, the courses being introduced chiefly to keep up the knowledge of these subjects. 6. German and English language, each one lesson.

The conferences, or lessons on general physics, chemistry, and the modern languages, are by pupils who give instruction and explanations to their comrades.

At the end of the first year there are examinations, according to the result of which the student passes to the courses of the second year, or, in the case before stated, to those of the third year, or leaves the school. These examinations are conducted by inspectors-general of the university, named for the purpose by the minister. Pupils who have passed, may present themselves at the university as candidates for the degree of licentiate of letters.

The *second year's* course of letters does not necessarily include any scientific studies.

The courses of language and philosophy go into the history of these subjects. They consist of—1. Lectures on the history of Greek literature, three lessons per week. 2. On the history of Roman literature, two lessons. 3. On the history of French literature, one lesson. 4. English language, one lesson. 5. On the history of philosophy, two lessons. 6. Continuation of the historical course, two lessons. The recitations are accompanied by suitable written exercises.

* Rapport sur les travaux de l'école normale pendant l'année, 1835-6. Par M. Cousin.

† The distribution of subjects is taken from a manuscript kindly furnished to me by the director of studies, M. Viguier; it does not agree precisely with the plan marked out in the regulations.

At the end of the year the pupils are examined. Those who have not already obtained the degree of licentiate of letters are now required to do so, or to leave the school.

The examinations for this degree consist of compositions in French and Latin prose, on different days. Latin verses and Greek themes. Explanations of selected passages from the second book of Herodotus, the speech of Pericles in Thucydides, the Gorgias of Plato, the speech of Demosthenes against Leptines, the choruses of *Edipus at Colonus*, the *Heeuba* of Euripides, the combat of Hercules and Amycus in Theocritus, the Hymns of Synesius, Cicero de Oratore and de legibus, the German of Tacitus, the Treatise of Seneca de beneficiis, the last two books of Quintilian's Rhetoric, the fifth book of Lucretius de natura rerum, the first book of Horace's Epistles, the second book of Horace's Odes, the Troas of Seneca.

These books are liable to be changed, from time to time, on notice being given. The candidate is expected to answer the questions on philosophy, literature, history, and philology, to which the reading of the author may give rise.

In the *third year* of letters, the courses are special, the divisions corresponding with the courses of the royal colleges, and consisting of grammar, humanities, and rhetoric, history, and philosophy. Each pupil takes his place in one or other of these divisions, and is not required to follow the courses of the others.

The lectures and recitations constituting the entire course of letters of the third year were, during the second half year of 1836-7—1. Latin language and grammar, three lessons. 2. Greek language, two lectures and one lesson. 3. Latin literature, two lectures and one lesson. 4. Greek literature, two lectures and one lesson. 5. Latin eloquence, two lectures. 6. Latin poetry, two lectures. 7. French literature, one lesson. 8. History of the philosophy of the ancients, two lectures. 9. Ancient geography, two lectures. 10. Philosophy, one lesson. The lectures alluded to are those attended by the pupils at the Sorbonne.

The following were the courses of the different years in the section of science during the same term, the lectures being those of the faculty of sciences of the university.

First year. 1. Astronomy, two lessons per week. 2. Descriptive Geometry, two lessons. 3. Chemistry, two lectures, one lesson, and four hours of manipulation. 4. Botany, one lesson. 5. Philosophy, two lessons. 6. German language, one lesson. 7. Drawing, one lesson, during the week, and one on Sunday.

Second year. 1. Physics, two lectures, two lessons, and one hour of manipulation. 2. Chemistry, two lectures. 3. Botany, one lesson. 4. Vegetable physiology, two lectures. 5. Calculus of probabilities, two lectures. 6. Differential and integral calculus, two lectures and two lessons. 7. Drawing, one lesson during the week, and one on Sunday.

Third year. 1. Mechanics, four lectures and two lessons. 2. Chemical analysis, two lectures and one hour of manipulation. 3. Chemistry, one lecture. 4. Natural history, two lessons. 5. Geology, one lesson. 6. Botany, one lesson. 7. Drawing, one lesson. On Sunday, the pupils make botanical and geological excursions into the environs.

The pupils undergo similar examinations to those of the section of letters, and before presenting themselves as candidates for the place of adjunct, they must have taken at least the degree of licentiate of sciences. They are however, specially relieved from the necessity of matriculating in those courses at the university which they attend in the school, and which otherwise would be necessary in order to obtain the degree of licentiate. These are, for the mathematical sciences, the differential and integral calculus and mechanics; for the physical sciences, physics and chemistry; and for the natural sciences, geology, botany, &c. The examination for the degree of licentiate of mathematical science may be made at the end of the second year, by pupils of this section of the normal school, and that for licentiate of physical science at the close of the third year.

The programmes of the several lessons* in both sections are prepared by the masters, and submitted to the council of public instruction every year before the beginning of the course.

Besides these lectures and recitations, the pupils are required to attend such other lectures at the faculty of letters or of sciences of the university, or any other public institution, as may be designated to them. At the termination of the third year's course, in the month of July, they are examined in the school, and present themselves as competitors for the places of adjuncts, according to the special studies which they have pursued.

The courses of the school are arranged in reference to the competition for these places, an account of the examinations for which has already been given in the general description of secondary instruction in France. In this competition they are brought in contact with the best talent which has chosen a different road to preferment from that offered by the normal school. Success in this trial is, of course, not always a fair criterion of the state of the school, but certainly offers, on the average, an idea of the merits of its different departments, and is so used in directing their improvement. It may be of interest, therefore, to give the results of one of these competitions, namely, that for 1836. The judges of the competition for the places of adjuncts in philosophy report ten candidates for the six places; of these, five of the successful ones were from the normal school, but the first was from another institution. For six vacancies in the higher classes of letters there were thirty candidates examined, and of these, two of the successful ones, including the first upon the list, were pupils of the school. For adjuncts in the sciences there were eight places and nineteen candidates, the school furnishing six of the successful competitors, and among them the first on the list. In history and geography there were eight candidates for five places; the institutions from which they came are, however, not stated. In grammar, there were forty-one candidates for eight places; of the successful competitors the school sent five, and among them the first on the list.

The keen nature of this competition, while it excites the pupils of the school to great exertion, produces a most deleterious effect upon the health of the more feeble. Indeed, their general appearance, when compared with those of other young men of the same age, is far from favorable. It is part of a system which is considered adapted to the national character, but which is certainly by no means a necessity for men in general, since the teachers of the German gymnasia are prepared without its severe pressure.

The collections subsidiary to the instruction are—1st. A library of works relating to education and to the courses of study, which is open for two hours every day, and from which the students may receive books. This library is under the charge of the sub-director of studies. The students are, besides, furnished with the books which they use in their classes at the expense of the school, and which, unless injured, are returned by them after use. 2d. A small collection of physical apparatus. 3d. A collection of chemical apparatus connected with a laboratory, for practice in manipulation. The courses of manipulation are not, however, carried out to their due extent, and the study-rooms are common to many individuals. The pupils are divided into two sections for study, each of which is in charge of one of the superintending masters.

Discipline.—Though there are minute regulations for discipline, the age of the pupils and the character of their pursuits and expectations render the exercise of severity but little necessary. At the time of my visit to the school, in 1837, the youngest pupil was seventeen years of age, and there were but four of between eighteen and nineteen connected with it.

Much difference of opinion exists as to whether the frequent permissions to individuals to leave the premises should not be replaced by excursions made by the whole of the pupils, under the supervision of an officer. At

* A series of programmes is given in full in M. Cousin's work, before referred to.

present, Sunday is a day of general leave of absence, and on Thursday afternoon individual permissions are freely granted by the director of studies.

This institution occupies the same rank with those attached to some of the Prussian universities, and intended to prepare masters for the gymnasia. It has an advantage over them in the spirit produced by the greater numbers of its pupils, and by the closer connection with the school, which results from their studying and residing within its walls. It is, in turn, inferior to the seminaries for secondary teachers at Berlin, in the absence of arrangements for practical teaching, and in even a more important respect, namely, the want of that religious motive of action which forms the characteristic of the Prussian system. The deficiencies of this great school, in regard to both religious and practical education, struck me, I must confess, very forcibly.*

* In the general tenor of the foregoing remarks, I have the sanction of M. Cousin, in the preface to his account of the Normal School, already referred to.

IRELAND.

THE checkered experience of Ireland,—its dark and its bright sides,—forms one of the most instructive chapters in the history of popular education. It commences, according to the testimony of the earliest chroniclers, with institutions of learning, not only of earlier origin, but of higher reputation, than any in England or Scotland,—institutions which were resorted to by English youth for instruction, who brought back the use of letters to their ignorant countrymen. According to Bede and William of Malmesbury, this resort commenced even so early as the seventh century, and these youth were not only taught, but maintained without service or reward. The great college of Mayo was called “the Mayo of the Saxons,” because it was dedicated to the exclusive use of English students, who at one time amounted to no fewer than 2000. Bayle, on the authority of the historian of the time, pronounces Ireland “the most civilized country in Europe,* the nursery of the sciences” from the eighth to the thirteenth century, and her own writers are proud of pointing to the monastery of Lindisfarne, the college of Lismore, and the forty literary institutions of Borrisdoyle, as so many illustrative evidences of the early intellectual activity and literary munificence of the nation. But Ireland not only abounded with higher institutions, but there were connected with monasteries and churches, as early as the thirteenth century, teachers expressly set apart “for teaching poor scholars gratis.” When the country was overrun by foreign armies, and torn by civil discord, and governed by new ecclesiastical authorities, set up by the conquerors, and not in harmony with the religion of the people, a change certainly passed over the face of things, and there follows a period of darkness and educational destitution, for which we find no relief in turning to the history of English legislation in behalf of Ireland. Indeed there is not a darker page in the whole history of religious intolerance than that which records the action and legislation of England for two centuries, toward this ill-fated country, in this one particular. Even the statute of Henry VIII., which seems to be framed to carry out a system of elementary education already existing before the new ecclesiastical authorities were imposed upon the country, was intended mainly to convert Irishmen into Englishmen. By that

* These facts are stated on the authority of a speech of Hon. Thomas Wyse, in the House of Commons, in 1835.

statute, every archbishop and bishop was bound to see that every clergyman took an oath "to keep, or cause to be kept, a school to learn English, if any children of his parish came to him to learn the same, taking for the keeping of the said school such convenient stipend or salary as in the said land is accustomed to be taken;" and both higher and lower authorities, archbishops and their beneficed clergymen, are subjected to a fine for neglect of duty. The fatal error in this and in all subsequent legislation and associated effort for education in Ireland, until the last twenty years, was its want of nationality; the schools were English and Protestant, and the people for whom they were established were Irish and Catholics, and every effort, by legislation or education, to convert Irishmen into Englishmen, and Catholics into Protestants, has not only failed, but only helped to sink the poor into ignorance, poverty and barbarism, and bind both rich and poor more closely to their faith and their country.

Every system of education, to be successful, must be adapted to the institutions, habits and convictions of the people. If this principle had been regarded in the statute of Henry VIII., Ireland, which had the same, if not a better foundation in previous habits and existing institutions, than either Scotland or Germany, would have had a system of parochial schools recognized and enforced by the state, but supervised by the clergy. This was the secret of the success of Luther and Knox. What they did was in harmony with the convictions and habits of the people. So strangely was this truth forgotten in Ireland, that until the beginning of this century, Catholics, who constituted four-fifths of the population, were not only not permitted to endow, conduct, or teach schools, but Catholic parents even were not permitted to educate their own children abroad, and it was made an offense, punished by transportation, (and if the party returned it was made high treason,) in a Catholic, to act as a schoolmaster, or assistant to a schoolmaster, or even as a tutor in a private family. Such a law as that in operation for a century, coupled with legal disabilities in every form, and with a system of legislation framed to benefit England at the expense of Ireland, would sink any people into pauperism and barbarism, especially when much, if not most, of the land itself was held in fee by foreigners, or Protestants, and the products of the soil and labor were expended on swarms of church dignitaries, state officials, and absentee landlords. But even when these restrictions on freedom of education and teaching were removed in 1785, the grants of money by the Irish and Imperial Parliaments, down to 1825, were expended in supporting schools exclusively Protestant. Upward of \$7,000,000 were expended on the Protestant Charter Schools, which were supported by a society which originated in 1733, on the alleged ground "that Protestant English schools, in certain counties inhabited by Papists, were absolutely necessary for their conversion." By a by-law of this society, the advantages of the institutions were limited exclusively to the children of Catholic parents. On the schools of the "Society for Discountenancing Vice," which originated in 1792, and which was soon converted into an agency

of proselytism, the government expended, between 1800 and 1827, more than a half million of dollars. In 1814, the schools of the "Kildare Place Society," began to receive grants from the Parliament, which amounted in some years to £50,000, and on an average to \$25,000, and in the aggregate to near \$2,000,000; and yet the regulations of the Society, although more liberal than any which preceded it, were so applied as practically to exclude the children of Catholics, who constituted, in 1830, 6,423,000, out of a population of 7,932,000.

In 1806 commissioners were appointed by Parliament to inquire into the state of all schools, on public or charitable foundations, in Ireland; who made fourteen reports. In their last report, in 1812, they recommend the appointment of a board of commissioners, to receive and dispose of all parliamentary grants, to establish schools, to prepare a sufficient number of well-qualified masters, to prescribe the course and mode of education, to select text-books, and generally to administer a system of national education for Ireland. To obviate the difficulty in the way of religious instruction, the commissioners express a confident conviction that, in the selection of text-books, "it will be found practicable to introduce not only a number of books in which moral principles should be inculcated in such a manner as is likely to make deep and lasting impressions on the youthful mind, but also ample extracts from the Sacred Scriptures themselves, an early acquaintance with which it deems of the utmost importance, and indeed indispensable in forming the mind to just notions of duty and sound principles of conduct; and that the study of such a volume of extracts from the Sacred Writings would form the best preparation for that more particular religious instruction which it would be the duty and inclination of their several ministers of religion to give at proper times, and in other places, to the children of their respective congregations."

In 1824, another commission was instituted to inquire into the nature and extent of the instruction afforded by different schools in Ireland, supported in whole or in part from the public funds, and to report on the best means of extending to all classes of the people the benefit of education. This commission submitted nine reports, concurring generally in the recommendations of the committee of 1805.

In 1828, the reports of the commissioners were referred to a committee of the House of Commons, who made a report in the same year, in which they state their object to be "to discover a mode in which the combined education of Protestant and Catholic might be carried on, resting upon religious instruction, but free from the suspicion of proselytism." The committee therefore recommend the appointment of a board of education, with powers substantially the same as possessed by the former commissioners. The following resolution presents their views on the matter of religious education

"That it is the opinion of this Committee, that for the purpose of carrying into effect the combined literary and the separate religious education of the scholars, the course of study for four fixed days in the week should be exclusively moral and literary; and that, of the two remaining days, the one to be appropriated

solely to the separate religious instruction of the Protestant children, the other to the separate religious instruction of the Roman Catholic children. In each case no literary instruction to be given, or interference allowed on the part of the teachers, but the whole of the separate religious instruction to be given under the superintendence of the clergy of the respective communions. That copies of the New Testament, and of such other religious books as may be printed in the manner hereinafter mentioned, should be provided for the use of the children, to be read in schools, at such times of separate instruction only, and under the direction of the attending clergyman:—the established version for the use of the Protestant scholars, and the version published with the approval of the Roman Catholic bishops for the children of their communion.”

In 1830, the subject was again considered by a select committee of the House on the state of the poor in Ireland, and the hope expressed that no further time would be lost in giving to Ireland the benefit of the expensive and protracted inquiries of the commissioners of 1805 and 1825, and of the committee of 1828. In September, 1831, Mr. Wyse, author of the able volume entitled “Educational Reform,” a member of the House from Ireland, brought in a bill to establish a system of national education for Ireland, but it was not acted upon on account of the adjournment.

In October, 1831, Mr. Stanley, then Secretary for Ireland, announced, in a letter to the Duke of Leinster, Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, the intention of the Government to appoint a Board of Commission of National Education. The Board were soon after appointed, consisting of the Duke of Leinster, the Protestant Archbishop of Dublin, the Catholic Archbishop of Dublin, Rev. Dr. Francis Sadleir, Rt. Hon. A. R. Blake, and R. Holmes, Esq.,—three Protestants, two Catholics, one Presbyterian, and one Unitarian.

The Board of Commissioners have now been in existence about eighteen years. During that time they have encountered bitter opposition from able but ultra zealots in the Protestant and Catholic churches; but, sustained by the Government under the administration of all political parties, they have gone on extending their operations, and accomplishing results which are worthy of the attentive study of every statesman and educator. The fruits of their labors are already visible, but they will be “read of all men” when another generation comes on the stage.

The following are among the results of their measures :

I. The Board have succeeded in establishing a system of National Education, or have made the nearest approach to such a system, which knows no distinction of party or creed in the children to whom it proffers its blessing, and at the same time it guarantees to parents and guardians of all communions, according to the civil rights with which the laws of the land invest them, the power of determining what religious instruction the children over whom they have authority shall receive, and it prohibits all attempts at enforcing any, either on Protestant or Roman Catholic children, to which their parents or guardians object.

“For nearly the whole of the last century, the Government of Ireland labored to promote Protestant education, and tolerated no other. Large grants of public money were voted for having children educated in the Protestant faith, while it was made a transportable offense in a Roman Catholic (and if the party returned, high treason) to act as a schoolmaster, or assistant to a schoolmaster,

or even as a tutor in a private family.* The acts passed for this purpose continued in force from 1709 to 1782. They were then repealed, but Parliament continued to vote money for the support only of schools conducted on principles which were regarded by the great body of the Roman Catholics as exclusively Protestant, until the present system was established."

"The principles on which they were conducted rendered them to a great extent exclusive with respect either to Protestants or to Roman Catholics; Roman Catholic schools being conducted on Roman Catholic principles, were, of course, objectionable generally to Protestants; while Protestant schools, being conducted on Protestant principles, were equally objectionable to Roman Catholics; and being regarded by Roman Catholics as adverse establishments, they tended, when under the patronage of Government, and supported by public money, to excite, in the bulk of the population, feelings of discontent toward the state, and of alienation from it."

"From these defects the National Schools are free. In them the importance of religion is constantly impressed upon the minds of the children, through works calculated to promote good principles, and fill the heart with a love of religion, but which are so compiled as not to clash with the doctrines of any particular class of Christians. The children are thus prepared for those more strict religious exercises which it is the peculiar province of the ministers of religion to superintend or direct, and for which stated times are set apart in each school, so that each class of Christians may thus receive, separately, such religious instruction, and from such persons, as their parents or pastors may approve or appoint."

The following Regulations will show the manner in which the Board have aimed to avoid the difficulty of religious instruction in schools composed of different denominations, as well as the prejudices of political parties:

As to Government of Schools with respect to Attendance and Religious Instruction.

"1. The ordinary school business, during which all children, of whatever denomination they may be, are required to attend, is to embrace a specified number of hours each day.

2. Opportunities are to be afforded to the children of each school for receiving such religious instruction as their parents or guardians approve of.

3. The patrons of the several schools have the right of appointing such religious instruction as they may think proper to be given therein, provided that each school be open to children of all communions; that due regard be had to parental right and authority; that, accordingly, no child be *compelled* to receive, or be present at, any religious instruction to which his parents or guardians object; and that the time for giving it be so fixed, that no child shall be thereby, in effect, excluded, directly or indirectly, from the other advantages which the school affords. Subject to this, religious instruction may be given either during the fixed school-hours or otherwise.

4. In schools, toward the building of which the Commissioners have contributed, and which are, therefore, vested in trustees for the purposes of national education, such pastors or other persons as shall be approved of by the parents or guardians of the children respectively, shall have access to them *in the school-room*, for the purpose of giving them religious instruction there, at convenient times to be appointed for that purpose, whether those pastors or persons shall have signed the original application or otherwise.

5. In schools NOT VESTED, but which receive aid only by way of salary and books, it is for the patrons to determine whether religious instruction shall be given *in the school-room* or not: but if they do not allow it in the school-room, the children whose parents or guardians so desire, must be allowed to absent themselves from the school, at reasonable times, for the purpose of receiving such instruction ELSEWHERE.

6. The reading of the Scriptures, either in the Protestant authorized, or Douay version, as well as the teaching of catechisms, comes within the rule as to religious instruction.

* See 8th Anne, c. 3, and 9th William III. c. 1.

7. The rule as to religious instruction applies to public prayer and to all other religious exercises.

8. The Commissioners do not insist on the Scripture lessons being read in any of the national schools, nor do they allow them to be read during the time of secular or literary instruction, in any school attended by children whose parents or guardians object to their being so read. In such case, the Commissioners prohibit the use of them, except at the times of religious instruction, when the persons giving it may use these lessons or not, as they think proper.

9. Whatever arrangement is made in any school for giving religious instruction, must be *publicly notified* in the school-room, in order that those children, and those only, may be present whose parents or guardians allow them.

10. If any other books than the Holy Scriptures, or the *standard* books of the church to which the children using them belong, are employed in communicating religious instruction, the title of each is to be made known to the Commissioners.

11. The use of the books published by the Commissioners is not compulsory; but the titles of all other books which the conductors of schools intend for the ordinary school business, are to be reported to the Commissioners; and none are to be used to which they object; but they prohibit such only as may appear to them to contain matter objectionable in itself, or objectionable for *common* instruction, as peculiarly belonging to some particular religious denomination.

12. A registry is to be kept in each school of the daily attendance of the scholars, and the average attendance, according to the form furnished by the Commissioners."

II. The Board have done much to improve the literary qualifications, and professional knowledge, and skill of teachers, as well as their pecuniary condition, and by a judicious system of classification in salaries, and rewarding cases of extraordinary fidelity and success, to diffuse a spirit of self-education throughout the whole profession. The main defect in the schools of Ireland at the institution of the Board was the incompetency of the teachers. They were in general extremely poor, many of them were very ignorant, and not capable of teaching well even the mere art of reading and writing; and such of them as could do so much, were for the most part utterly incapable of combining instruction in it with such a training of the mind as could produce general information and improvement. One of the first and main objects of the Board was, and continues to be, to furnish an opportunity to deserving persons of the right character, to qualify themselves properly for teaching, and then, by a fair prospect of remuneration and advancement, to devote themselves to the business for life, with a holy national and catholic spirit. A brief notice of the successive steps by which the present system of training and aiding teachers in Ireland was reached, will be appropriate to the design of this work. The earliest indication of any movement in the educational history of Ireland, for the professional training of teachers, was in 1812.

In their thirteenth annual (for 1812) report, the "Commissioners for inquiring into the state of all schools on public or charitable foundations in Ireland," recommend the appointment of a Board of Commissioners as the first step in a system of National Education, with power to establish a number of additional or supplementary schools to those already in existence, and that they be "directed and required to apply themselves immediately to the preparing a sufficient number of well-qualified masters to undertake the conduct of such supplementary schools as they should from time to time proceed to endow."

"We have already adverted to the deplorable want of such qualification in a great majority of those who now teach in the common schools, and to the pernicious consequences arising from it; their ignorance, we have reason to believe, is not seldom their least disqualification; and the want of proper books often combines with their own opinions and propensities in introducing into their schools such as are of the worst tendency. Even for schools of a superior description, and under better control, there is a general complaint that proper masters can not be procured without much difficulty; and we are persuaded that a more essential service could not be rendered to the State than by carrying into effect a practicable mode of supplying a succession of well-qualified instructors for the children of the lower classes."

The recommendations of the Commission were not acted upon, but annual grants were subsequently made to the Kildare Place School Society, which were applied in establishing two Model Schools in Dublin, in which teachers, intended for their employment, were practised in the mechanism and methods of the particular system of teaching encouraged by that society. The period of instruction, or rather of observation and practice, was brief, and the instruction itself amounted to but little more than a knowledge of the forms and evolutions of the monitorial system of Dr. Bell.

In 1828, R. J. Bryce, Principal of the Belfast Academy, in a pamphlet entitled "*Sketch of a Plan for a System of National Education for Ireland*," pp. 58, presents a very elaborate argument in favor of legislative provision for the education of teachers, as the only sound basis on which a system of public instruction for Ireland could be raised. He sums up his discussion of this branch of the subject in the following manner:

1. It is commonly supposed, that a man who understands a subject must be qualified to teach it, and that the only essential attribute of an instructor is to be himself a good scholar.

2. Even those who are aware that there often exists a difference between two teachers as to their power of communicating, conceive this difference to be of much less importance than it really is; and, if ever they take the trouble to think of its cause, they ascribe it to some mechanical *knack*, or some instinctive predisposition.

3. On the contrary, we maintain, that when a man has acquired the fullest and most profound knowledge of a subject, he is not yet half qualified to teach it. He has to learn how to communicate his knowledge, and how to train the young mind to think for itself. And, as it usually happens that children are placed under the inspection of their instructors, who become in a great measure responsible for their morals, every teacher ought also to know how to govern his pupils, and how to form virtuous habits in their minds. *And this skill in communicating knowledge, and in managing the mind, is by far the most important qualification of a teacher.*

5. Every teacher, before entering on the duties of his profession, ought therefore to make himself acquainted with *the Art * of Education*; that is, with a system of rules for communicating ideas, and forming habits; and ought to ob-

* The author thus refers to an article in No. 54 of the North American Review, devoted to Mr. Carter's Essay, which will be found in another part of this work.

"The necessity of some regular provision for instructing teachers in the Art of Teaching, has begun to be felt by all those who take an enlarged and rational view of the subject of education. The first rude essay was made in the model schools of Bell and Lancaster. But reflecting people soon saw the utter inefficiency of this mere mechanical training, which bears the same relation to a true and rational system of professional education for teachers, that the steam-engine of the Marquis of Worcester bears to the steam-engine of Watt. Hints to this purpose we have met with in various places; but the first regular publication on the subject that we have heard of, is one by Mr. J. G. Carter, an American writer, with which we are acquainted only through a short article in No. LIV. of the North American Review. * * *

In short we recommend the whole of this article to the careful perusal of the friends of *real education* in Britain and Ireland."

tain such a knowledge of the philosophy of mind, as shall enable him to understand the reasons of those rules, and to apply them with judgment and discretion to the great diversity of dispositions with which he will meet in the course of his professional labors.

6. No man is qualified for the delicate and difficult work of managing the youthful mind, unless his own mental faculties have been sharpened and invigorated by the exercise afforded to them in the course of a good general education.

7. Therefore, a legislature *never can succeed* in establishing a good system of national education, without making some provision for insuring a supply of teachers possessed of the qualifications specified in the two last articles; in order to which, it is indispensably necessary, that Professorships of the Art of Teaching be instituted; and that students, placing themselves under the care of such professors, be required to have previously attained a good general education, and, in particular, a competent knowledge of the philosophy of the human mind.

In 1831, the Board of Commissioners of National Education in Ireland was established. In a letter from Hon. E. G. Stanley, Chief Secretary for Ireland, explaining the powers and objects of the Board, one of the objects is declared to be "the establishing and maintaining a Model School in Dublin, and training teachers for country schools," and it is made a condition on which pecuniary aid shall be granted to any teacher, that "he shall have received previous instruction in a Model School to be established in Ireland."

In April, 1833, two Model Schools, one for males and one for females, were established by the Board, and two courses of instruction provided for teachers in each year, to continue three months each. In 1834, steps were taken to extend both the Model Schools and the Training Establishment, as set forth in their Report for 1835.

"If we are furnished with adequate means by the State, not only for training schoolmasters, but for inducing competent persons to become candidates for teacherships, through a fair prospect of remuneration and advancement, we have no doubt whatever that a new class of schoolmasters may be trained, whose conduct and influence must be highly beneficial in promoting morality, harmony, and good order, in the country parts of Ireland.

It is only through such persons that we can hope to render the National Schools successful in improving the general condition of the people. It is not, however, merely through the schools committed to their charge that the beneficial effects of their influence would be felt. Living in friendly habits with the people; not greatly elevated above them, but so provided for as to be able to maintain a respectable station; trained to good habits; identified in interest with the State, and therefore anxious to promote a spirit of obedience to lawful authority; we are confident that they would prove a body of the utmost value and importance in promoting civilization and peace.

Formerly, nothing was attempted in elementary schools further than to communicate the art of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with some knowledge of grammar, geography, and history. Latterly, teachers have made use of the reading lessons to convey information. Writing has been made subservient to the teaching of spelling, grammar, and composition, and also to the fixing of instruction on the memory. Arithmetic, instead of being taught by unexplained rules, has been made the vehicle for conveying the elements of mathematical knowledge, and training the mind to accuracy of thinking and reasoning. Reading-books have latterly been compiled on these principles, the lessons being so selected as to convey the elements of knowledge on a variety of subjects. And this introduction of intellectual exercises into the teaching of these elementary arts, has been found to produce a reflex effect upon the progress of the pupils in learning the arts themselves. Children are found to be more easily taught to read when, while they are learning to pronounce and combine syllables and words into sentences, they are receiving information. Their writing

proceeds better when, while they are learning the mechanical art, they are learning the use of it; and they become better arithmeticians when the principles on which arithmetical operations are founded are gradually developed to them.

To teach upon this principle, it is absolutely necessary that the teacher not only be able to read, and spell, and write well, and be a good practical arithmetician, but that he be a person of general intelligence, having an extensive and accurate knowledge of the subjects treated of in the reading lessons. He must know much more than is expressed in the lessons themselves, or he will be totally unable to explain them familiarly, to correct the mistakes into which his pupils fall, and answer the innumerable questions that will be put to him as soon as the understanding of his pupils begins to be exercised on any subject.

It is therefore necessary that teachers should not merely be able to teach their pupils to read, write, and to conduct schools upon an approved system of discipline, but that they be able to aid in forming the minds of children, and directing their power of reading into a beneficial channel. The power of reading is frequently lost to children, and even becomes a source of corruption and mischief to them, because they have never been directed to the proper use of it; and it is consequently of the highest importance that, while they are taught to read, their thoughts and inclinations should have a beneficial direction given to them. To effect this, manifestly requires a teacher of considerable skill and intelligence.

To secure the services of such persons, it is material that suitable means of instruction should be provided for those who desire to prepare themselves for the office of teaching, and that persons of character and ability should be induced to seek it by the prospect of adequate advantages.

With these views, we propose establishing five Professorships in our training institution. I. Of the art of teaching and conducting schools. The professor of this branch to be the head of the institution. II. Of composition. English literature, history, geography, and political economy. III. Of natural history in all its branches. IV. Of mathematics and mathematical science. V. Of mental philosophy, including the elements of logic and rhetoric. We propose that no person shall be admitted to the training institution, who does not previously undergo a satisfactory examination in an entrance course to be appointed for that purpose; and that each person who may be admitted shall study in it for at least two years before he be declared fit to undertake the charge of a school; that during this time, he shall receive instruction in the different branches of knowledge already specified, and be practised in teaching the model school, under the direction of the professor of teaching.

We are of opinion that, in addition to the general training institution, thirty-two district Model Schools should be established, being a number equal to that of the counties of Ireland; that those Model Schools should be under the direction of teachers chosen for superior attainments, and receiving superior remuneration to those charged with the general or Primary Schools; and that, hereafter, each candidate for admission to the training establishments should undergo a preparatory training in one of them.

We think the salary of the teacher of each Model School should be £100 a year, and that he should have two assistants, having a salary of £50 a year each.

We consider that the teacher of each Primary School should have a certain salary of £25 a year; and that the Commissioners for the time being should be authorized to award annually to each a further sum, not exceeding £5, provided they shall see cause for doing so in the Inspector's report of his general conduct, and the character of the school committed to him. We are also of opinion that each teacher should be furnished with apartments adjoining the school."

By the parliamentary grants of 1835 and 1836, the Board were enabled to proceed with the erection of suitable buildings, and the establishment of the Model School, and Training Department, in Marlborough street, Dublin, which were completed in 1838. To this, in 1839, was added a Model Farm, and School of Agriculture, at Glasnevin, in the neighborhood of Dublin, where the male teachers are lodged, and where they receive a course of instruction in agricultural science and practice.

The training department was at first intended for schoolmasters; but in 1840, through the munificent donation of £1000, by Mrs. Drummond, for this special purpose, and an appropriation of a like amount by the Government, a suitable building was erected in connection with the Model School in Marlborough street, for the training of female teachers. In addition to the ordinary course of instruction in the theory and practice of teaching, schoolmistresses are instructed in plain needlework; in the art of cutting out and making up articles of female wearing apparel, in the arts of domestic economy, such as cottage cookery, washing, ironing, mangling, and other useful branches of household management.

The Commissioners have recently erected in Dublin subsidiary Model Schools, where temporary courses of instruction are given to teachers already connected with National Schools.

In connection with, and in extension of the plan of the central Training Establishment, a system of Primary Model Schools in each district into which the country is divided, is commenced. To several of these schools a residence for the teacher, and land for a Model Farm, are annexed. It is in contemplation to make these District Model Schools the residence of the inspector, and depots for a supply of school books, apparatus, and requisites for the schools of the district. Respecting these Model Schools and Training Department, the Board remark in 1848 :

“Our training establishments continue in a prosperous state. We have trained, during the year, and supported at the public expense, 224 national teachers, of whom 137 were males and 87 were females. We also trained 14 teachers not connected with National Schools, and who maintained themselves during their attendance at the Model Schools. Of the 224 teachers of National Schools trained during the year, 9 were of the Established Church, 37 Presbyterians, 3 Dissenters of other denominations, and 175 Roman Catholics. The total number of male and female teachers trained, from the commencement of our proceedings to the 31st of December, 1847, is 2044. We do not include in this number those teachers who are not connected with National Schools.

With reference to the training of teachers we have to observe, that the experience of each successive year strengthens our conviction of its importance. It is vain to expect that the National Schools, established in all parts of Ireland, will ever be effectively conducted, or the art of communicating knowledge materially improved, until a sufficient number of well-paid masters and mistresses can be supplied, thoroughly qualified, by previous training, to undertake the office of teachers, and feeling a zealous interest in promoting the great objects of their profession.

We have observed, with satisfaction, a marked improvement in the appearance, manners, and attainments of every successive class of teachers, who come up to be trained in our Normal establishment. With reference to the two last classes, we have ascertained that 34 teachers in the last, and 73 in the present, had been originally educated *as pupils* in National Schools. It is from this description of persons, to whom the practice of instructing others has been familiar from their childhood, that we may expect to procure the most intelligent and skillful teachers, to educate the rising generation of Ireland.

It is a gratifying fact, that the good feeling which has always prevailed amongst the teachers of different religious denominations residing together in our training establishment, has suffered no interruption whatever during the last year of extraordinary public excitement.

Whilst every attention has been paid to the improvement of the children in our Model Schools, in the various branches of their secular education, the paramount duty of giving to them, and the teachers in training, religious instruction, has not been neglected by those intrusted with that duty. Upon this subject we deem it expedient to republish the statement made in our Report of last

year, which is as follows:—"The arrangements for the separate religious instruction of the children of all persuasions attending these schools, and also of the teachers in training, continue to be carried into effect every Tuesday, under the respective clergymen, with punctuality and satisfaction. Previously to the arrival of the clergymen, each of the teachers in training is employed in giving catechetical and other religious instruction to a small class of children belonging to his own communion. These teachers attend their respective places of worship on Sundays; and every facility is given, both before and after Divine service, as well as at other times, for their spiritual improvement, under the directions of their clergy."

III. They have not only increased the number of ordinary elementary schools, but they have established and aided a number of special schools of different grades, pre-eminently calculated to benefit the people of Ireland.

1. *Evening Schools.* The experiment was commenced at Dublin, under the direct inspection of the Board, and was conducted to their satisfaction. They thus refer to the subject in their report for 1847:

"The average attendance of the Evening School on our premises in Marlborough street, Dublin, during the past year, was about 200, composed partly of boys who could not attend school during the day, and partly of adults.

The anxiety evinced by boys, and by young men from eighteen to twenty-five years of age, to participate in the advantages afforded by this school, confirms our opinion that such institutions, if well conducted, will be of incalculable benefit to the working classes; and that, if established in large towns, or in populous localities adjoining them, they will form an important step in the education of the artisan between the common National School and the Mechanics' Institution. After the toils of the day, the humble laborer and the tradesman, will find in Evening Schools the means of literary and moral improvement, and a protection against temptations to which, at their age, this class of persons are peculiarly exposed.

We received during the year numerous applications for aid to Evening Schools, the majority of which we rejected, being of opinion that our grants for this purpose should as yet be confined to large towns, in which trade and manufactures are extensively carried on, and where alone we at present possess the means of inspection. We made grants to twelve Evening Schools in the course of the year. It is probable that the number of applications for assistance will gradually increase. Should this be the case, we shall take the necessary steps to ascertain that the Evening Schools are properly conducted, and that the system of education carried on in them, is adapted to the varied occupations of the artisans, mechanics, and others, who are desirous of obtaining the special instruction which their several trades and avocations require."

2. *Workhouse Schools.* The children of families provided for in workhouses, under the Poor Law Commissioners in Ireland, are gathered into schools under the care of the Board. In 1847 there were 104 of these schools, for which the Board propose the following vigorous measures of improvement:

"1. That the minimum rate of salary to male teachers, in addition to apartments and rations, shall be £30 a year; and to female teachers £25, exclusive of any gratuity from the Commissioners of National Education.

2. That no teacher shall be required to undertake the instruction of more than from 80 to 100 children; and that assistant teachers be provided, at lower salaries, when the daily average attendance considerably exceeds 100.

3. That in female schools, when the number of pupils considerably exceeds 100, a work-mistress be engaged, in addition to the principal teacher, to instruct the children in the various branches of plain needlework, and in the art of cutting out, and making up articles of female wearing apparel.

4. That the whole time of the teachers shall be devoted to the literary, moral,

and industrial education of the children, and to the superintendence of them, during the hours of recreation and manual labor.

5. That Evening Schools be opened for the instruction of the adult paupers, and of such of the pupils of the day schools, as it may be practicable and desirable to have in attendance for two hours each evening. The Evening Schools to be conducted by the teachers of the day schools.

6. That the number of children to be accommodated in each school-room be so regulated, as that a space of at least six square feet be allowed for each child.

7. That every Workhouse School, in connection with the Commissioners of National Education, be supplied with suitable furniture and apparatus, according to models to be furnished by them.

8. That each Workhouse School, on its coming into connection with the Commissioners of National Education, be gratuitously supplied with a complete outfit of books, maps, stationery, &c., and that a further supply be granted afterward, at stated periods.

9. That two of the local Guardians be requested to visit the schools weekly, and report once a month to the Board of Guardians. This duty might be rendered less onerous, if undertaken by the members of the Board in rotation.

10. That in order to provide industrial training for pauper-children, a sufficient quantity of land be annexed to each Workhouse, to be cultivated as farms and gardens by the pupils of the schools; and that, for this purpose, Agriculturists be appointed, to the most deserving of whom the Commissioners of National Education will award gratuities not exceeding £15 each.

11. That it is advisable, under particular circumstances, to consolidate two or three Unions, and to establish a Central Agricultural School, to be attended by the children of each."

3. *Industrial Schools.* The Board have extended aid to a class of schools which gather in children who can not ordinarily be induced to attend the regular day schools, and who need special care and training. The results are shown in the following extracts from the Reports of the Inspectors appointed by the Board :

" *Claddah Fishing School, County Galway.*—The attendance has been, sometimes, over 500, and the average for six months has been nearly 400. I regret that the apparatus requisite for giving an extensive course of instruction on practice of navigation has not been provided, and that there are no funds available for this purpose.

Since the opening of the female schools, 36 girls have been employed in the industrial room at spinning and net-making; and in providing materials and making trifling donations to children, £66 1s. 6d. have been nearly expended. The schools are in a much better state than I expected them to be, the merit of which must be attributed to the praiseworthy assiduity and attention of the manager, and rev. gentlemen of the Caddah convent."

4. *Agricultural Schools.* In accordance with the wise policy which has characterized all the measures of the Board, of trying all new experiments under their own inspection, and of exhibiting a working plan, the Board first established a Model Farm and Agricultural School at Glasnevin, in connection with the Training Establishment in Dublin, and afterward attached an ordinary National School to the establishment at Glasnevin, to ascertain to what extent industrial training suited to the wants and circumstances of the locality, could be united with literary instruction. As to the results the Board remark :

"It has proved that literary instruction and practical instruction in gardening, together with some knowledge of agriculture, may be successfully communicated to boys in a National School by one master, provided he be zealous and skillful. No difficulty has been experienced in inducing a limited number of the advanced boys to work in the garden two hours each day, after the ordinary school business. The scholars composing the Industrial class are paid sixpence a week each for their labor; and the produce of the garden is valued to

the Commissioners, at the current market prices, for the use of the teachers and domestics, in the male and female training establishments: an account is kept by the teacher of the receipts as well as of the expenses of cultivation. Our masters in training have thus an opportunity of seeing a model of what a small village school ought to be in a rural district, and how far it is practicable, under one and the same master, to unite literary and industrial education. The boys employed in cultivating the garden attend daily, together with the teachers in training, a course of lectures on the elementary principles of agriculture, as well as of gardening. The practical information they thus acquire, and the habits of industry to which they become accustomed, can not fail to be highly serviceable to them in after life. It will be a subject for future consideration, whether this arrangement for the regulation of the labor of the garden might not be so altered, as to place under each of the pupils a small allotment, which he shall be required to cultivate, being permitted to receive a portion of the profit derived from his industry.

We conceive that no greater boon could be conferred upon Ireland than the establishment of similar schools in every country parish. They would not only be conducive to the improvement of the laboring classes themselves, but would tend materially to remove the prejudices existing amongst many respectable farmers, against the mere literary education of the peasantry. Schools of this description would prove, by the combination of intellectual with industrial training, that not only are the understandings of the young developed by this species of education, but their bodies formed and disciplined to habits of useful and skillful labor."

After training up teachers competent to conduct Agricultural Schools, and showing them a working model of such a school, and also of an ordinary school in which agriculture was introduced as a study and an exercise, the Board proceeded to establish Model Agricultural Schools, publish Agricultural Class Books, and promote the study of agriculture in all the schools under their care, in appropriate situations. In their Report for 1847 they remark:

"We had in operation on the 31st of December, 1847, seven Model Agricultural Schools; and we have made building grants of £200 each to ten others of this class, some of which are in progress. In addition to those schools, there are twelve other Agricultural Schools to which small portions of land are attached; and to the masters of these we pay an additional salary of £5 per annum for their agricultural services; and other emoluments are secured to them by the local managers. Since the commencement of the present year, several applications have been received for aid both to Model and ordinary Agricultural Schools; so that we hope to announce, in our next Report, the establishment of a greater number.

We have published an Agricultural Class Book for the use of the advanced pupils attending the National Schools, which it is intended shall be read by all the pupils capable of understanding its contents. The object of this little work is to explain, in as simple language as possible, the best mode of managing a small farm and kitchen garden. Appended to it are introductory exercises, in which the scholars should be examined by the teachers. In order to render the lessons attractive, they have been thrown into the form of a narrative, calculated to arrest the attention of young readers. This reading book is not, however, designed as an agricultural manual for our teachers. We propose to supply this want by the publication of a series of agricultural works, rising from the simplest elementary book, to scientific teaching of a high character, and comprehending various branches of practical knowledge, bearing upon the subject of agricultural instruction. We distributed last year, amongst our teachers, a variety of cheap and useful tracts, relating to the best modes of cultivating the soil, and providing against the dearth of food; and we are now engaged in circulating, amongst our masters, several other elementary treatises on husbandry, recently published under the direction of the Royal Agricultural Society, and containing much valuable information.

In a limited number of *large* National Schools, situated in rural districts, we intend to introduce agricultural instruction, subject to the following conditions:

If the manager of a National School of this description, or any respectable person of whom he approves, shall annex to it a farm of eight or ten acres, and erect the necessary farm buildings thereon, without requiring any grant from us toward building, repairs, the purchase of stock, or the payment of rent, we propose in such cases to pay the Agricultural teacher a salary not exceeding £30 per annum.

We shall leave the appointment of the teacher and the superintendence of the farm to the proprietor of the land, or to the manager of the school, should he also be the owner of the land. All we shall require will be, that the teacher be competent, in the opinion of our Agricultural Inspector, to manage the farm according to the most improved system; and that he shall instruct daily, in the theory and practice of agriculture, a sufficient number of advanced boys, who shall be in attendance at the adjoining National School. Our Agricultural Inspector will be required to report half-yearly whether the farm has been conducted to his satisfaction, and whether the regulations which we shall prescribe for the agricultural instruction of the pupils have been strictly adhered to.

*The plan we have now explained can not be effectually worked by our ordinary inspectors. It will be necessary, therefore, that our Agricultural Schools, including our Model Farm at Glasnevin, should be under the superintendence of a person, practically conversant with agricultural operations, with plans of farm buildings, and the best method of keeping farming accounts; and who shall be competent to examine and report on the system of agricultural instruction adopted in schools of this description. We have, accordingly, determined upon appointing an officer to discharge those important duties. With his assistance, we shall in future be able to make full and satisfactory reports to Parliament of the agricultural branch of our system.

In order to supply the demand for persons qualified to conduct farms and Agricultural Schools, we have resolved upon increasing, from twelve to twenty-four, the number of agricultural pupils, who compose the free class, at our Model Farm, Glasnevin; also, upon increasing to the same extent the number of agricultural teachers at our training establishment there. We shall thus have a total of forty-eight pupils and teachers, who will be all under instruction at the same time.

Our agricultural pupils are selected from the best qualified of our pupils attending our several Agricultural Schools throughout Ireland; and our agricultural teachers who come up to be trained, are chosen from among the masters of ordinary National Schools. This arrangement is calculated to accelerate the diffusion of agricultural instruction throughout our schools, and, generally, amongst our teachers.

Though convinced that, by means of these and other arrangements, we may become instrumental in promoting the cause of Agricultural Education in Ireland, we feel bound to state that we can accomplish little, unless our efforts be cordially sustained by the co-operation of the landed proprietors of the country. The Agricultural Schools must, in almost all cases, be created by them, and conducted under their directions. It will be necessary for them to expend much money, and bestow constant care upon them. The salaries, training, and inspection, furnished by the state, are indispensable; but they will be unavailing if local expenditure and exertions do not supply the groundwork upon which the assistance of Government is to be brought into operation."

5. *School Libraries.* From the following extracts, it will be seen that the Board are about to adopt the educational policy of New York and Massachusetts in extending the means of self-education out of school hours, and beyond the period of school attendance.

"The want of School Libraries for the use of the children attending our schools has been long felt. To compile a series of instructive and entertaining works adapted to this purpose, would occupy a very considerable time, and require the assistance of many individuals well qualified for compiling books suited to the minds of children. Under these circumstances, we have adopted the necessary steps for the selection of a sufficient number from those already published. Care will be taken that they are unobjectionable in all respects, to the members of every religious denomination. We shall buy them from the publishers at the lowest cost, and sell them at reduced prices to such of the

managers of our schools as may approve of their being lent to their pupils. We shall also frame regulations for managing the School Libraries when formed, which will insure a regular delivery and return of the books."

IV. The Board have aided in the erection and fitting up of more than 3000 school-houses in different parts of Ireland, by contributing an amount, not more in any case than two-thirds of the sum actually expended. The expenditure in Ireland for school-houses, in connection with the Board, up to 1850, has been estimated at \$2,500,000. The Commissioners must be satisfied as to the site, size, furniture, material, and workmanlike manner of the work done, before the payment of any grant.

V. The Board have succeeded in publishing and introducing a valuable series of text books, maps and school requisites, prepared with great care, and furnished for a first supply, and at the end of every four years *gratuitously* to each school, and at other times *below cost*. Great pains have been taken to exclude from all books published or sanctioned by them, every thing of a sectarian or party character, the upper and the nether millstone between which Ireland has been for two centuries crushed. The publication of this "Irish National Series of School Books," has had the effect already to reduce the price of all school books in England and Scotland, and to lead to the revision of most of the standing text books, in order to compete with this new competitor in the market. In their Fourteenth Report (for 1847) the Board remark :

"We have the gratification to state that the demand for our school-books, in England and Scotland, is progressively increasing. Many of our colonies, too, have been supplied during the year with large quantities; and in some of them a system of public instruction for the poor, similar in its general character to that of the national system in Ireland, as being equally adapted to a population of a mixed character as to their religious persuasions, is likely to be established. We have sent books and requisites to Australia, British Guiana, Canada, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Gibraltar, and Malta. A complete series of our National school-books was also sent to Lord Seaton, the Governor of Corfu; and it is not improbable that they will be translated, at no distant period, into the Greek language, for the use of children attending schools in the Ionian Islands."

VI. The Board have subjected their schools to a system of thorough, periodical and intelligent inspection, by which all abuses and deficiencies are detected, and at once corrected or supplied, and a stimulus of the most powerful character is brought to bear on all of the teachers in any way aided by the Commissioners.

Besides three head inspectors residing at Dublin, for local duties and special business abroad, there are thirty-four district inspectors, who devote their whole time to the services of the Board, under the following regulations :

"1. The commissioners do not take the control or regulation of any school, except their own model schools, directly into their own hands, but leave all schools aided by them under the authority of the local conductors. The inspectors, therefore, are not to give direct orders, as on the part of the Board, respecting any necessary regulations, but to point out such regulations to the conductors of the school, that *they* may give the requisite orders.

2. The commissioners require that every National School be inspected by the *inspector of the district*, at least three times in each year.

3. The district inspector, on each inspection, is to communicate with the patron or correspondent, for the purpose of affording information concerning the general state of the school, and pointing out such violations of rule, or defects, if any, as he may have observed; and he is to make such suggestions as he may deem necessary.

4. He is to examine the visitors' book, or daily report book, and to transmit to the commissioners copies of any observations made therein which he may consider to be of importance.

5. He is not to make any observation in the book except the date of his visit, the time occupied in the inspection of the school, showing the precise time at which it commenced and the precise time at which it terminated; and also the number of scholars present.

6. Upon ordinary occasions, he is not to give any intimation of his intended visit; but during the middle term of the year, from the 1st of May to the 31st of August, when the inspection is to be public, he is to make such previous arrangements with the local managers, as will facilitate the attendance of the parents of the children, and other persons interested in the welfare of the schools.

7. He is to report to the commissioners the result of each visit, and to use every means to obtain accurate information as to the discipline, management, and methods of instruction pursued in the school.

8. He is to examine all the classes in succession, in their different branches of study, so as to enable him to ascertain the degree and efficiency of the instruction imparted.

9. He is to examine the class rolls, register, and daily report book; and to report with accuracy what is the actual number of children receiving instruction at the school, and what is the daily average attendance.

10. He is to receive a monthly report from the teacher of each school, and also to make one quarterly himself to the commissioners, in addition to his ordinary report upon the school after each visit.

11. He is also to supply the commissioners with such local information as they may from time to time require from him, and to act as their agent in all matters in which they may employ him; but he is not invested with authority to decide upon any question affecting a National School, or the general business of the commissioners, without their direction.

12. When applications for aid are referred to the district inspector, he is to communicate with the applicant so as to insure an interview, and also with the clergymen of the different denominations in the neighborhood, with the view of ascertaining their sentiments on the case, and whether they have any, and what, objections thereto. He is also to communicate personally, if necessary, with any other individuals in the neighborhood.

13. The district inspector is to avoid all discussions of a religious or political nature; he is to exhibit a courteous and conciliatory demeanor toward all persons with whom he is to communicate, and to pursue such a line of conduct as will tend to uphold the just influence and authority both of managers and teachers.

VII. They have, by their wise and successful measures, induced the British Parliament to increase their annual appropriation in aid of National Education in Ireland. The sum appropriated in 1831 was £4,328; in 1835, £35,000; in 1840, £50,000; and in 1847, £90,000. The whole sum expended by the Board in 1847 was £102,318. To the amount received from the Treasury was added the sum of £8,500, realized from the sale of books, published by the Board. The sum appropriated by the Board is made the condition and inducement of a still larger sum being raised by local and parental effort. The following account of the expenditures of the Board for 1847, will indicate the objects which they aimed to accomplish:

THE DISCHARGE.		£. s. d.	£. s. d.
NORMAL ESTABLISHMENT:			
Salaries and Wages,		861 0 0	
General Expenditure,		23 9 10	
MALE TRAINING DEPARTMENT, GLASNEVIN:			
Salaries and Wages,		126 2 4	
Maintenance and Traveling,		1,218 15 5	
General Expenditure,		312 16 8	
MALE TRAINING DEPARTMENT, GREAT GEORGE'S-STREET:			
Salaries and Wages,		119 7 8	
Maintenance and Traveling,		928 12 9	
General Expenditure,		248 7 5	
MALE TEMPORARY DEPARTMENT, 27, MARLBOROUGH-STREET, .			
FEMALE TRAINING DEPARTMENT;			
Salaries and Wages,		183 0 0	
Maintenance and Traveling,		1,139 0 8	
General Expenditure,		306 1 8	
MODEL SCHOOL DEPARTMENT,			
EVENING SCHOOL, MARLBOROUGH-STREET,			
MODEL FARM DEPARTMENT, including the Board and Lodg- ing of Agricultural Pupils and Teachers, Rent, Permanent Improvements, Salaries, Wages, &c.,			
Purchase of Farm Stock and Agricultural Implements, from Mr. Skilling, in November,		921 19 8	
GLASNEVIN NATIONAL SCHOOL:—Completion of Building, Fit- ting-up, &c.		916 2 7	
GLASNEVIN EVENING SCHOOL,		744 18 9	
		21 16 6	
BUILDING, FITTING-UP, REPAIRING, &c., SCHOOL-HOUSES, . .		3,956 7 10	9,333 17 7
Do. Do. AGRICULTURAL, INDUSTRIAL AND OTH- ER SCHOOLS,		399 8 9	
SALARIES TO TEACHERS AND MONITORS,		—	4,355 16 7
DISTRICT MODEL SCHOOLS:—			50,209 6 1
Purchase, Rent, toward Building, Furnishing, &c.,		520 0 0	
Salaries and Allowances to teachers,			
General Expenditure,		232 13 0	
			752 13 0
INSPECTION,		—	9,322 1 7
BOOK DEPARTMENT:—			
Her Majesty's Stationery Office, for one year ending 31st March, 1847, for Paper, Printing, Binding of National School Books, including Slates, Pencils, and other School Requisites,		14,064 8 5	
For Books and Requisites purchased from Publishers, and sold to the National Schools at reduced prices, Salaries, &c.,		3,339 4 9	
			17,403 13 2
OFFICIAL ESTABLISHMENT IN MARLBOROUGH-STREET,		—	4,961 3 8
REPAIRS AND WORKS AT MARLBOROUGH-STREET, including Pur- chase of ground in Rere, for New Male Training Establishment, Building and Fitting-up New Book Stores,		1,100 0 0	
Sundry Repairs and Alterations in various Departments,		1,500 0 0	
		1,412 4 2	
			4,012 4 2
MISCELLANEOUS:—			
Rates, Taxes, and Insurance,		301 11 6	
Coals, Candles, Gas, &c.,		435 9 0	
Postage,		380 5 0	
Stamps,		136 15 0	
Incidents, { Law Costs, £424 13 2 }		589 15 5	
{ Sundries, 165 2 3 }			
Gratuities to Monitors, from Model School Fund,			1,843 15 11
			124 2 8
JAMES CLARIDGE, Accountant.			102,318 14 5

VIII. The success which has attended the efforts of the Board even under the extraordinary and peculiarly difficult circumstances of Ireland, has had a powerful influence on the cause of educational improvement in England, and other parts of the British Empire.

Much has been done within five years past, and more is now doing in the Province of Upper Canada, by the Government, to establish a system of common schools than in any one of the American States, not excepting even New York, or Massachusetts. The action of the enlightened and indefatigable superintendent of schools, the Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D. D., has been guided more by the experience of the National Board of Ireland than that of any other State.

The following notices of two Industrial Schools, aided by the Board, should have been inserted on page 280.

Ballymena Industrial School.—"This School was established for the purpose of feeding and employing, as well as educating, the children of the lowest and most destitute class.

Eighty children have been admitted up to the present time; the average for the last six months was 55, (27 males and 28 females;) the attendance at present, 52, (26 males and 26 females;) the average ages, from 9 to 12. It is intended to increase the number in actual attendance to 60.

The schools differ from others in providing food for the children, and in requiring *all* to work for a stated time daily. In summer the schools open at 7, and close at 5—four hours are given to lessons, &c., four to work, and two for meals and exercise; in winter they open at 8, and close at 4, and the time for meals is somewhat curtailed."

Belfast Industrial School.—"This Establishment is for girls exclusively. The number admitted is 95; the number present on the 8th of May, 81. Every child admitted into this school is taught, in addition to the usual literary branches, knitting and sewing—the kind and quality of the work varying according to the knowledge of the pupil. The industrial occupations are, therefore, principally knitting, sewing, making up plain clothing, and mending clothes. In addition to these branches of instruction, the elder girls are taken in turn to the kitchen, laundry, &c., where they are instructed in cooking, washing clothes, ironing, cleaning rooms, &c. The time devoted to the literary branches is from 3 o'clock, P. M., to 6 o'clock, P. M., on each week day. The hours from 10 o'clock, A. M., to 2 o'clock, P. M., are for industrial branches. The 'classes of children that are eligible' for admission into the institution are:—

1. Orphans provided with shelter, for the night only, at the house of some friend.
2. Children of destitute widows.
3. Neglected children.
4. Special cases of poverty, from sickness or other causes.

Some of the results are:—that the orphan *obliged to beg for food*, though provided with shelter for the night by a friend, has been saved from the vice and misery entailed on the young mendicant.

The child of the destitute widow, obliged to work for a stranger for her support, has been provided a safe asylum during her mother's absence.

The child neglected by a drunken father or mother, has met with a comfortable home during the day.

The honest man or woman who has been stricken by sickness, unable to support his family, has had them carefully tended.

The Committee of this valuable Institution have published their First Annual Report, which enters into more minute details respecting the food given to the children, and the general domestic arrangements.

Besides the Industrial School, there is, under the management of the ladies' committee, an Infant School, of which the arrangements are entirely different. The children receive no food in the establishment, and each pupil, generally, pays a penny a week for tuition."

TRAINING DEPARTMENT AND MODEL SCHOOLS

OF THE

COMMISSIONERS OF NATIONAL EDUCATION FOR IRELAND.

THE Commissioners for National Education in Ireland, provided in 1839, in Marlborough street, Dublin, a Normal Establishment for training teachers, and educating persons who are intended to undertake the charge of schools.

The establishment consists of spacious accommodations for class and lecture-rooms for the Normal pupils, school-rooms for three model schools in Marlborough street for the instruction of 800 pupils, and a boarding-house and model farm at Glasnevin, in the neighborhood of Dublin.

The following extracts from the Regulations of the Board regarding the appointment and classification of teachers, the course of instruction, &c., will give a good idea of the establishment, and at the same time suggest many useful hints to the friends of educational improvement at home.

ADMISSION OF PUPILS INTO THE MODEL SCHOOLS.

Parents are requested to observe the following rules :

1. Parents wishing their children to be admitted into these schools must apply to the head teacher of the respective schools, on any morning of the week, except Monday, from half-past nine till ten o'clock. The names, residences, &c. of the children will then be registered in a book kept for the purpose, and as vacancies occur, they will be sent for in the strict order of their respective applications ; *except in the case of pupils who have been dismissed for irregularity of attendance, who are not to be received again till after all the other applicants shall have been admitted.*

2. The doors are closed every morning precisely at ten o'clock, and the children are dismissed at three, except on Saturdays, when the schools close at twelve o'clock.

An opportunity for separate religious instruction is afforded every Tuesday, from ten till half-past twelve o'clock.

4. If a child be absent on any day, he must bring a ticket to school, as a token that the absence was unavoidable, and by the consent of the parents. Three *Absence* tickets will be given to the parents on application to the heads of the respective schools.

5. If any child be frequently absent, or absent five days successively, and the cause be not made known to the teachers before the expiration of the five days, such child will be discharged from the school. If the parents wish the child to be re-admitted, they must get the name entered in the application book as at first ; *and wait till after all the children who have applied for the first time shall have been admitted.*

6. The payment is a penny per week, to be paid the first day in each week the child attends ; and should any child be unavoidably absent, the penny must nevertheless be paid weekly so long as the parent wishes the name of the child to remain on the roll.

GENERAL LESSONS TO BE INCULCATED IN THE MODEL SCHOOLS AND TRAINING DEPARTMENT, AND IN ALL SCHOOLS OF THE BOARD.

Christians should endeavor, as the Apostle Paul commands them, to "live peaceably with all men," (Rom. ch. xii. v. 18,) even with those of a different religious persuasion.

Our Savior, Christ, commanded his disciples to "love one another;" he taught them to love even their enemies, to bless those that cursed them, and to pray for those who persecuted them. He himself prayed for his murderers.

Many men hold erroneous doctrines, but we ought not to hate or persecute them. We ought to seek for the truth, and to hold fast what we are convinced is the truth; but not to treat harshly those who are in error. Jesus Christ did not intend his religion to be forced on men by violent means. He would not allow his disciples to fight for him.

If any person treats us unkindly, we must not do the same to them; for Christ and his apostles have taught us not to return evil for evil. If we would obey Christ, we must do to others, not as they do to us, but as we should wish them to do to us.

Quarreling with our neighbors, and abusing them, is not the way to convince them that we are in the right, and they in the wrong. It is more likely to convince them that we have not a Christian spirit.

We ought to show ourselves followers of Christ, "who, when he was reviled, reviled not again," (1 Pet. ch. ii. v. 23,) by behaving gently and kindly to every one.

TEN PRACTICAL RULES FOR THE TEACHERS OF NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

I. To keep at least one copy of the GENERAL LESSON, or a LESSON of similar import, suspended conspicuously in the school-room, and to inculcate the principles contained in it on the minds of their pupils.

II. To exclude from the school, except at the hours set apart for religious instruction, all catechisms and books inculcating peculiar religious opinions.

III. To avoid fairs, markets, and meetings—but above all, POLITICAL meetings, of every kind; and to do nothing either in or out of school which might have a tendency to confine it to any one denomination of children.

IV. To keep the register, report book, and class lists, accurately and neatly, and according to the precise forms prescribed by the Board.

V. To classify the children according to the national school books; to study those books themselves; and to teach according to the improved methods, as pointed out in their several prefaces.

VI. To observe themselves, and to impress upon the minds of their pupils, the great rule of regularity and order—A TIME AND A PLACE FOR EVERY THING, AND EVERY THING IN ITS PROPER TIME AND PLACE.

VII. To promote, both by precept and example, CLEANLINESS, NEATNESS, and DECENCY. To effect this, the teachers should set an example of cleanliness and neatness in their own persons, and in the state and general appearance of their schools. They should also satisfy themselves, by personal inspection every morning, that the children have had their hands and faces washed, their hair combed, and clothes cleaned, and, when necessary, mended. The school apartments, too, should be swept and dusted every evening; and white-washed at least once a year.

VIII. To pay the strictest attention to the morals and general conduct of their pupils; and to omit no opportunity of inculcating the principles of TRUTH and HONESTY; the duties of respect to superiors, and obedience to all persons placed in authority over them.

IX. To evince a regard for the improvement and general welfare of their pupils; to treat them with kindness combined with firmness; and to aim at governing them by their affections and reason, rather than by harshness and severity.

X. To cultivate kindly and affectionate feelings among their pupils; to discountenance quarreling, cruelty to animals, and every approach to vice.

ADMISSION TO TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

1. The appointment of teachers rests with the Local Patrons and Committees of Schools. But the Commissioners are to be satisfied of the fitness of each, both as to character and general qualification. He should be a person of Christian sentiment, of calm temper, and discretion; he should be imbued with a spirit of peace, of obedience to the law, and of loyalty to his sovereign; he should not only possess the art of communicating knowledge, but be capable of moulding the mind of youth, and of giving to the power which education

confers a useful direction. These are the qualities for which patrons of schools, when making choice of teachers, should anxiously look. They are those which the Commissioners are anxious to find, to encourage, and to reward.

2. The Commissioners have provided a Normal Establishment in Marlborough street, Dublin, for training teachers and educating persons who are intended to undertake the charge of schools; and they do not sanction the appointment of a teacher to any school, unless he shall have been previously trained at the Normal Establishment; or shall have been pronounced duly qualified by the Superintendent of the district in which the school is situated.

3. Teachers selected by the Commissioners for admission to the Normal Establishment must produce a certificate of good character from the officiating clergyman of the communion to which they belong. They are to be boarded and lodged at an establishment provided by the Board for the purpose at Glasnevin, in the immediate neighborhood of Dublin, to which an agricultural department is attached. They are to receive religious instructions from their respective pastors, who attend on Thursdays at the Normal Establishment; and on Sundays they are required to attend their respective places of worship; and a vigilant superintendence is at all times exercised over their moral conduct.

4. They are to attend upon five days in the week at the training and model schools, where lectures are delivered on different branches of knowledge, and where they are practised in the art of teaching. They are to receive instruction at Glasnevin, particularly in agriculture, daily, and they attend on Saturdays at the farm, which is conducted under the direction of the Commissioners, and where they see theory reduced to practice. They undergo a final examination at the close of their course, and each will then receive a certificate according to his deserts. The course of training at present occupies a period of four months and a half, and for a considerable time previous to their being summoned, they are required to prepare themselves for the course.

5. Teachers of schools unconnected with the National Board, if properly recommended, are also admitted to attend the Normal Establishment, as day pupils, without any charge for tuition; but such persons maintain themselves at their own expense.

DAILY OCCUPATION IN THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

The Lectures of the PROFESSORS commence in the first week of February and August in each year, and continue for between four and five months.

DAILY OCCUPATION OF THE TEACHERS' TIME AND SUBJECTS TAUGHT.

Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays.

- 10 to 11 Mr. SULLIVAN—Principles of Teaching; Systems of Popular Education and Lectures on School-keeping.
- 11 to 12 Mr. M'GAULEY—Arithmetic, Elements of Algebra, Geometry, and Mechanics.
- 12 to 12½ HULLAH's System of Singing, under Mr. GASKIN, in the Gallery.
- 12½ to 1 Relaxation in Play-ground, under Mr. RINTOUL.
- 1 to 1½ Mr. SULLIVAN—Recapitulation and Examination.
- 1½ to 2 Mr. M'GAULEY—Steam Engine, Elements of Chemistry, and subjects connected with them.
- 2 to 3 Practice of Teaching in Model School under Mr. RINTOUL, Mr. KEENAN, and superintendence of the Professors.*
- 3 to 4 Lecture on Agriculture from Mr. DONAGHY.

Tuesdays.

- 10 to 11 HULLAH's System of Singing under Mr. GASKIN, in the Gallery.
- 11 to 12½ Religious Instruction, under their respective Clergymen.
- 12½ to 1 Relaxation in Play-ground, under Mr. RINTOUL.
- 1 to 2 Mr. SULLIVAN—Books of the Board, Grammar, Easy Lessons on Reasoning, and Elements of Political Economy; taking Archbishop Whateley's "Easy Lessons on Money Matters" as the basis; and touching only on those topics which are *plain, practical, and corrective of popular prejudices.*
- 2 to 3 Mr. M'GAULEY—Same as early Lecture on Mondays.
- 3 to 4 Lecture on Agriculture from Mr. DONAGHY.

* During these hours a portion of the teachers in rotation attend the Infant Model School under Mr. Young.

Thursdays.

- 10 to 11 Mr. SULLIVAN—Geography, and Elements of Astronomy.
 11 to 12 Mr. M'GAULEY—Same subjects as early Lecture on preceding days.
 12 to 12½ HULLAH's System of Singing, under Mr. GASKIN.
 12½ to 1 Relaxation in Play-ground, under Mr. RINTOUL.
 1 to 2 Mr. RINTOUL—Preparation for Teaching in the Model School.
 2 to 3 Practice of Teaching in Model School, under Mr. RINTOUL, Mr. KEENAN, and superintendence of the Professors.*
 3 to 4 Lecture on Agriculture from Mr. DONAGHY.

Saturdays.

- 10 to 12 Mr. DONAGHY—At the farm for practical instruction in Agriculture.
 12 to 2 Mr. GILSON—Surveying.
 2 to 3 Mr. CAMPBELL—Horticulture.

SPECIAL CLASS.

* * * The *Junior* Division attend with the General or Ordinary Class, as above.

The Senior Division, or those who have attended two courses of Lectures, are employed in the Model School, under Mr. KEENAN, except at the periods in which the General Class learn the practice of Teaching under Mr. RINTOUL. At these periods the Special Class receive extra and special instruction from one of the Professors. For the present, Mr. M'GAULEY will take them on *Thursdays*, at the hour in which the men will be in the Model Schools for the practice of Teaching; and also, from 2 till half-past 2 o'clock on *Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays*: Mr. RINTOUL will also give them special instruction on *Tuesdays*, from 10 till 11 o'clock; and Mr. SULLIVAN will mark out a course of reading for them, and examine them from half-past nine to 10 o'clock on *Tuesdays*, on the books recommended; he will also give them exercises to write on the subject of Education and School-keeping.

FEMALE CLASS OF TEACHERS IN TRAINING.

Mondays, Wednesdays, Thursdays and Fridays.

- 9¼ to 10½ Mr. RINTOUL—Writing, Arithmetic, Elocution, and Writing and Spelling, by Dictation.
 11 to 12 Mr. SULLIVAN—Geography, Grammar, Principles of Teaching, and Lectures on School-keeping.†
 12 to 12½ Relaxation in Play-ground.
 12½ to 3 Female Model and Infant Schools.
 3 to 4 Miss BYRNE—For Singing.

Tuesdays.

- 9¼ to 10½ Mr. RINTOUL—Same subjects as on *Mondays*.
 10 to 12½ Separate Religious Instruction.
 12½ to 1 Relaxation in Play-ground.
 1 to 2 Mr. M'GAULEY—Arithmetic.
 2 to 3 Mr. RINTOUL—Practice of Teaching.
 3 to 4 Miss BYRNE—For Singing.

Saturdays.

- 10 to 12 Female Model School.
 12 to 12½ Miss BYRNE—For Singing.

CLASSIFICATION AND SALARIES OF TEACHERS.

Teachers of national schools are divided into three classes, to which the following salaries are attached:

First Class. First Division: males, £30; females, £24. Second Division: males, £25; females, £20. Third Division: males, £23; females £18 per annum.

Second Class. First Division: males, £20; females, £15. Second Division: males, £18; females, £14 per annum.

Third Class. First Division: males, £16; females, £13. Second Division: males, £14; females, £12 per annum.

Probationary Teachers. Males, £10; females, £9 per annum.

Assistant Teachers. Males, £10; females, £9 per annum.

Mis'tresses to teach Needle Work. £6 per annum.

* In order that the teachers in training may see the Model School in all its phases, we change the hours of our Lectures every Thursday, so as to enable them to attend the first Thursday in the course from 10 to 11 o'clock, the second from 11 to 12, and so on.

† Except from 11 till 12 o'clock on Thursdays, which they spend in the Female Model School.

Masters of agricultural model schools, with farms of eight or ten acres annexed, who are competent to conduct both the literary and agricultural departments, are to receive £10 per annum, in addition to the salary of the class in which they may be placed.

Masters of national schools, with a small portion of land annexed, consisting of from two to three acres, for the purpose of affording agricultural instruction, will receive £5 per annum, in addition to the salary of their class, provided they are competent to conduct both the literary and agricultural departments, and that the commissioners shall have previously approved of agriculture being taught in the school.

The commissioners will not grant salary to an assistant teacher, or to a teacher of needlework, unless they are satisfied that the appointment is necessary; and such teachers, even though they may be classed, will not be paid any higher rate of salary than the amount awarded to them as assistant teachers, or teachers of needlework, until promoted to the rank of principal teacher, with the sanction of the commissioners.

The commissioners have determined upon a course of study for each class, in which the teachers are to be examined as a test of their fitness for promotion; but their general conduct, the condition of their respective schools, their method of conducting them, and the daily average attendance of pupils, will also be taken into consideration.

Every national teacher will be furnished with a copy of the program of the course of study above referred to.

The commissioners require that a further income to the teachers be secured, either by local subscriptions or school fees. This rule will be strictly enforced.

SALARIES PAID TO MONITORS.

Males and Females.—For the first year, £4; for the second year, £5; for the third year, £6; for the fourth year, £7.

For the present the number of paid monitors is limited to four males and two females in each district, selected from among the best pupils in the national schools, and appointed upon the recommendation of the district inspectors.

When the district model schools are established, candidates for the office of paid monitor must undergo a public examination by the inspectors, in a prescribed course, to be held in those schools.

GENERAL CONDITIONS FOR PROMOTIONS.

All newly appointed teachers, who have not previously conducted national schools, are considered as *Probationers*, and must remain as such for at least *one year*, at the expiration of which time, they will be eligible for classification, and may be promoted, even before being trained, to any class *except the first*: if promoted, they will receive the *full amount of salary to which they may become entitled, from the commencement of the second year of their service under the Board.*

All teachers must remain at least one year in a lower division of any class, before they are eligible for promotion to a higher division of the same; and they must remain two years in a lower class before they are eligible for promotion to a higher class.

This regulation does not apply to probationary teachers, nor to teachers who may be promoted on the recommendation of the professors at the termination of the course of training.

None but teachers trained at the Normal School of the commissioners are eligible for promotion to *any division of the first class*, and only upon the recommendation of the professors, or of a board of inspectors.

Examinations are to be held, at specified times, by the inspectors, with the view of promoting meritorious teachers, or of depressing others who may have conducted themselves improperly, or in whose schools the attendance has considerably decreased.

No teacher will be admitted to examination with a view to promotion, on whose school a decidedly unfavorable report has been made by the district inspector within the previous year.

Teachers will not be eligible for promotion unless, in addition to satisfactory answering in the course prescribed for the class to which they aspire, it appears from the reports of their respective district inspectors that their schools are pro-

perly organized and well conducted; that adequate exertions have been made by them to keep up a sufficient average attendance; that their junior classes are carefully taught, and that a fair proportion of the pupils of the higher classes, besides being proficient in the ordinary branches of reading, spelling and writing, are possessed of a respectable amount of knowledge in, at least, grammar, geography, and arithmetic. In female schools it will be further requisite that instruction in plain needlework, including sewing, knitting, and cutting-out, be given to all girls capable of receiving it, and that they exhibit a due proficiency in this department.

It must also appear from the reports of their inspectors, that their school accounts have been regularly and correctly kept, that their schools and school premises have been preserved with neatness and order, and that cleanliness in person and habits has been enforced on the children attending them.

None can be appointed as assistant teachers whose qualifications are not equal to those required of probationers.

Satisfactory certificates of character and conduct will be required of all candidates.

SCALE OF PREMIUMS TO THE MASTERS AND MISTRESSES OF NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

The sum of £10 to be allocated to each of the school districts, to be divided into six premiums—one of £3; one of £2; two of £1 10s. each, £3; two of £1 each, £2.—£10.

These premiums are to be awarded annually on the recommendation of the district inspector, and paid at the end of the year to the masters and mistresses who are most distinguished by the order, neatness, and cleanliness observable in themselves, their pupils, and in the school-houses.

No distinction to be made between vested and non-vested schools.

No teacher eligible for these premiums for more than two years in succession.

These premiums will be awarded without reference to the class in which the teachers may be ranked; but none will be deemed eligible to receive such premiums against whom there may be any well-founded charge of neglect in the performance of their duties, of impropriety in their conduct, or whose schools are not conducted in a satisfactory manner.

MODEL FARM AND AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL AT GLASNEVIN.

The following notice of the Model Farm at Glasnevin, where the Normal pupils are required to take practical lessons in agriculture, is taken from Colman's "*European Agriculture and Rural Economy*."

"It is considered (by the Commissioners of National Education) and with good reason, that the great want, among the people, is a want of knowledge in applying and using the means of subsistence within their reach; that there is no indisposition on their part to labor; that there is as yet an ample extent of uncultivated land capable of being redeemed and rendered productive; and that a principal source of the wretchedness, and want, and starvation, which prevail in some parts of this country, often to a fearful extent, is attributable to the gross ignorance of the laboring classes of the best modes of agriculture and of rural economy. With this conviction upon their minds, the commissioners have determined to connect with all their rural schools a course of teaching in scientific and practical agriculture, communicating a knowledge of the simple elements of agricultural chemistry; of the best modes and operations of husbandry which have been adopted in any country; of the nature, and character, and uses, of the vegetables and plants necessary or useful to man or beast; of the improved kinds of live stock, and of the construction and use of the most improved and most approved farming implements and machinery. With these views, it is their intention to train their schoolmasters, and to send out such men as are apt and qualified to teach these most useful branches. For this purpose the government have established this model farm, which was begun in 1838, and which has already, in a greater or less measure, qualified and sent out seven hundred teachers. To my mind it seems destined to confer the most important benefits upon Ireland, and I may add upon the world; for so it hap-

pens under the benignant arrangements of the Divine Providence, the benefits of every good measure or effort for the improvement of mankind proceed, by a sort of reduplication, to an unlimited extent; these teachers shall instruct their pupils, and these pupils become in their turn the teachers of others; and the good seed, thus sown and widely scattered, go on yielding its constantly-increasing products, to an extent which no human imagination can measure. Three thousand schoolmasters are at this moment demanded for Ireland, and the government are determined to supply them. Happy is it for a country, and honorable to human nature, when, instead of schemes of avarice, and dreams of ambition, and visions of conquest, at the dreadful expense of the comfort, and liberty, and lives, of the powerless and unprotected, the attention of those who hold the destinies of their fellow-beings in their hands is turned to their improvement, their elevation, their comfort, and their substantial welfare.

The Model Farm and Agricultural School is at a place called Glasnevin, about three miles from Dublin, on a good soil. The situation is elevated and salubrious, embracing a wide extent of prospect of sea and land, of plain and mountain, of city and country, combining the busy haunts of men, and the highest improvements of art and science, with what is most picturesque and charming in rural scenery, presenting itself in its bold mountains and deep glens, in its beautiful plantations, its cultivated fields, and its wide and glittering expanse of ocean. The scenery in the neighborhood of Dublin, with its fertile valleys, and the mountains of Wicklow, of singularly grand and beautiful formation, bounding the prospect for a considerable extent, is among the richest which the eye can take in; and at the going down of the sun in a fine summer evening, when the long ridge of the mountains seemed bordered with a fringe of golden fire, it carried my imagination back, with an emotion which those only who feel it can understand, to the most beautiful and picturesque parts of Vermont, in the neighborhood of Lake Champlain. I have a strong conviction of the powerful and beneficial influence of fine natural scenery, where there is a due measure of the endowment of ideality, upon the intellectual and moral character; and I would, if possible, surround a place of education with those objects in nature best suited to elevate and enlarge the mind, and stir the soul of man from its lowest depths. It is at the shrine of nature, in the temple pillared by the lofty mountains, and whose glowing arches are resplendent with inextinguishable fires, that the human heart is most profoundly impressed with the unutterable grandeur of the great object of worship. It is in fields radiant with their golden harvests, and every where offering, in their rich fruits and products, an unstinted compensation to human toil, and the most liberal provisions for human subsistence and comfort, and in pastures and groves animated with the expressive tokens of enjoyment, and vocal with the grateful hymns of ecstasy, among the animal creation, that man gathers up those evidences of the faithful, unceasing, and unbounded goodness of the Divine Providence, which most deeply touch, and often overwhelm the heart. The Model Farm and School, at Glasnevin, has connected with it fifty-two English acres of land, the whole of which, with the exception of an acre occupied by the farm buildings, is under cultivation, and a perfect system of rotation of crops. The master of the school pays for this land a rent of five pounds per acre, and taxes and expenses carry the rent to eight pounds per acre. Twelve poor boys, or lads, live constantly with him, for whose education and board, besides their labor, he receives eight shillings sterling per week. They work, as well as I could understand, about six hours a day, and devote the rest of the time to study, or learning. The course of studies is not extensive, but embraces the most common and useful branches of education, such as arithmetic, geography, natural philosophy, and agriculture, in all its scientific and practical details. They have an agricultural examination, or lecture, every day. I had the gratification of listening to an examination of fourteen of these young men, brought out of the field from their labor; and cheerfully admit that it was eminently successful, and in the highest degree creditable both to master and pupil. Besides these young men, who live on the farm, the young men in Dublin, at the Normal School, who are preparing themselves for teachers of the national schools, are required to attend at the farm and assist in its labors a portion of the time, that they may become thoroughly acquainted with scientific and practical agriculture in all its branches, and be able to teach it; the government being determined that it shall form an indispensable part of the school instruction through-

out the island. The great objects, then, of the establishment, are to qualify these young men for teachers by a thorough and practical education in the science, so far as it has reached that character, and in the most improved methods and operations of agriculture. Besides this, it is intended to furnish an opportunity to the sons of men of wealth, who may be placed here as pupils, to acquire a practical knowledge of, and a familiar insight into, all the details of farming. This must prove of the highest importance to them in the management of their own estates."

LIST OF LECTURES AT GLASNEVIN.

1. The rudiments of agricultural chemistry, geology, mineralogy, botany, and vegetable physiology, so far as they have a practical application to agriculture.
2. The nature and improvement of soils.
3. The nature, properties, and application of the several manures.
4. The effects of heat, light, and water on soils, manures, animal and vegetable life.
5. The nature, situation, and properties of farms in general.
6. The proper division of farms, with the crops suitable, according to soil and situation.
7. The situation and construction of farm buildings.
8. Rotations of crops, fencing and draining, according to the most approved principles.
9. The scientific principles of ploughing, and the general construction and use of farm implements.
10. The cultivation of green and grain crops, proper quantity of seeds, and best mode of culture.
11. Haymaking and harvesting.
12. Animal physiology and veterinary practice, and general management of horses.
13. Cattle, their several breeds, management, diseases, and modes of cure; also of sheep and swine.
14. Horse-feeding and fattening of cattle, with the improved modes of dairy management.
15. Practical gardening, under the direction of Mr. Campbell.

The results of this course of training with the teachers, are best seen in the following notice of the National School, at Larne,—an ordinary school in which agricultural chemistry and practical agriculture are provided for in the course of study.

"This is not, properly speaking, an agricultural school, but a national school, where the common branches of education are taught; and there is connected with it a department or class of agricultural study, and a small piece of land, which the boys cultivate, and on which, in the way of experiment, the principles of agriculture, and its general practice, are, within a very limited extent, illustrated and tested. The examination was eminently successful, and creditable alike to the teacher and the pupils. It was from this establishment that a detachment of five pupils was sent for examination to the great meeting of the Agricultural Society of Scotland the last autumn, where their attainments created a great sensation, and produced an impression, on the subject of the importance of agricultural education, which is likely to lead to the adoption of some universal system on the subject.

I shall transcribe the account given of the occasion: 'Five boys from the school at Larne were introduced to the meeting, headed by their teacher. They seemed to belong to the better class of peasantry, being clad in homely garbs; and they appeared to be from twelve to fifteen years of age. They were examined, in the first instance, by the inspector of schools, in grammar, geography, and arithmetic; and scarcely a single question did they fail to answer correctly. They were then examined, by an agricultural professor, in the scientific branches, and by two practical farmers in the practical departments of agriculture. Their acquaintance with these was alike delightful and astonishing. They detailed the chemical constitution of the soil and the effect of manures,

the land best fitted for green crops, the different kinds of grain, the dairy, and the system of rotation of crops. Many of these answers required considerable exercise of reflection; and as previous concert between themselves and the gentlemen who examined them was out of the question, their acquirements seemed to take the meeting by surprise; at the same time they afforded it the utmost satisfaction, as evincing how much could be done by a proper system of training.'

I confess the establishment at Larne afforded me, in this respect, very high gratification. The agricultural studies are not made compulsory, but voluntary; and one hour per day is devoted to agricultural labor. The Board of Education in Ireland have now under their control three thousand teachers; and it is proposed, wherever it may be deemed useful, to make agriculture a standard branch of common school education. They already have seven agricultural training establishments; and it is in contemplation to have twenty-five, with which it is proposed shall be connected small model farms, so that every where, besides furnishing this most valuable instruction to the pupils of the schools, the farmers in the vicinity may be excited and instructed to improve their cultivation. Thus diffusive is the nature of all beneficence. A good deed, like a stone thrown into the water, is sure to agitate the whole mass. Its strongest effects will be felt where the blow is given; but the concentric circles are seen extending themselves on every side, and reach much farther than the eye can follow them. In the moral as well as physical world, the condition of mutual attraction and dependence is universal and indissoluble. We have reason to hope that no good seed is ever sown in vain, but will sooner or later germinate and yield its proper fruits.

These establishments do certainly the highest honor and credit to the intelligence and philanthropy of Ireland, and their beneficent effects must presently be seen in alleviating the indescribable amount of wretchedness under which this beautiful country and fine-spirited people have been so long crushed to the earth—a wretchedness which, to be understood, must be seen."

ENGLAND.

England is well supplied with institutions for secondary and superior education, and for the promotion of science, literature and the arts. The ancient endowments of grammar schools, colleges and universities, exceed in amount those of any other country, although the institutions are isolated, independent of popular control, and not subjected to that publicity which regular governmental visitation would secure. But there is a dense mass of popular ignorance upon which these institutions shed no light, except to make the darkness more visible by contrast. The breaking up of the old ecclesiastical foundations, and diversions of funds set apart by the piety of the Catholic Church in part for charitable and educational purposes among the poor, to mere secular and private uses, by Henry VIII. and his predecessors, was followed by a rapid development of unrelieved pauperism and ignorance. For the support of the poor the State undertook to make provision by a system of rates which, combined with the utter neglect of elementary institutions having a sound religious basis and spirit, that great preventive of pauperism, has filled England with the most brutal and ignorant populace in Europe. The charitable bequests of individuals, destined to free elementary education, owing to their insufficient extent, defective character, and constant abuse, for which tardy and expensive appeals to the Court of Chancery afford no relief, scarcely benefited the laboring classes of England and Wales, until the attention of benevolent and patriotic men was awakened to this subject by a missionary spirit towards the close of the last century.

The Sunday Schools were the first silent but powerful engine employed to break into the matted sward of ages of ignorance and degradation, and yet these date their establishment in England only from the labors of Robert Raikes and Rev. Mr. Stock, at Gloucester, in 1781. The Society for the support and management of Sunday Schools throughout the British Dominions, was instituted 1785; and the Sunday School Union only in 1803.

The day schooling of the same classes is of yet more recent origin; for

it cannot date earlier than 1798, when Dr. Bell published his "Experiment on Education," made at the Male Asylum at Madras, and Joseph Lancaster began practically to develop the same principle in the very schools, which are now in successful operation in the Borough Road, London. Nor was it until 1808 that the British School Society was founded on its present basis, nor until 1811, that the National Society was organized.

The British and Foreign School Society regard exertion for the Christian Education of the children of the poor to be not merely a denominational, but a social duty of christian citizens, in which the members of different churches are morally bound to cooperate to the extent that corporation promises to be more efficient than separate action. The introduction of the Bible without note or comment in the authorized English version, to the exclusion of the formularies of any particular church, has been from the first a fundamental rule in all the schools of this Society.

The National Society, has from the beginning, recognized in its Schools, no religious instruction which dispensed with the catechism of the Established Church, to which they have always been an appendage under the immediate control of the clergy.

The establishment of Infant Schools in 1818, was the next great step in the progress of popular education in England, and the organization of the "Home and Colonial Infant School Society" in 1836 has given great extension to the system of organization, discipline, and modes of instruction adapted to very young children.

The steps taken to improve the training of pauper children (50,000) in schools connected with the various workhouses of England, and particularly in converting these schools into industrial institutions, and the establishment of similar institutions by Lady Byron and other benevolent individuals, for the reformation of juvenile criminals, has led to many improvements both in the quality and quantity of elementary education in schools designed for other classes in the community.

The opening of Evening Schools and Ragged Schools in Aberdeen, London, and other large cities and manufacturing villages of England and Scotland for neglected, vagrant and vicious children, in 1841, mark a new era in popular education in England.

But the most important event in the history of Education in England was the appropriation by Parliament of the sum of £20,000 in 1831, in aid of the British and Foreign School Society.

In 1839, the Government undertook the administration of this grant through the Committee of Council. It was increased annually in amount, —voluntary efforts for the extension of education to meet the public grants being greatly increased by this offer of assistance,—but it continued to be limited to the original object of the building of schools, until the year 1846. Under the authority of a minute of Council of that date, it was then applied to various other objects. *

* The following account is taken from a recent number of the Edinburgh Review.

What—and how extensive—these measures of Government for the advancement of education really are, is not, we believe, generally known; we have therefore collected the following particulars in respect to them from the volume of Minutes for the years 1848-9-50, which is now before us. They appear to be framed with a due regard to the rights of conscience and the diversities of religious opinion; and, with a wise and statesman-like precaution on the part of the Government, to avail itself of local sympathies, and to stimulate voluntary contributions.

1. Aid is offered by these minutes towards the erection of school buildings; and since the year 1839 Government has contributed under this head an aggregate sum of £470,854, towards the erection of 3782 school-houses, drawing out, thereby, voluntary contributions to, probably, four times that amount, and affording space for the instruction of 709,000 more children than could before be taught. These grants have been distributed as follows:—

	Amount of Grant.	Number of Schools aided.	Number of Children for whom Accommodation is Provided.
England.....	£399,368	3255	622,823
Scotland	41,563	302	47,814
Wales	27,418	198	33,198
The Islands.....	2,505	27	5,165

Eighty-two per cent. of the whole amount granted under this head has been paid to Church-of-England schools.

2. Aid is offered toward the erection of normal schools for the training of teachers or for the improvement of the buildings of such schools; and the total amount thus granted in aid of eighteen normal schools, is £66,450; of which £35,950 is to the Church of England; £12,000 to the British and Foreign School Society and the Wesleyan body; and the rest to the Scotch Church.

3. Aid is offered towards the *maintenance* of such students in these normal schools, as shall appear, on examination, to possess the qualities and attainments likely to make them good teachers, in sums varying from £20 to £30 annually for each student. The total sums so contributed to thirteen training schools were, in the year 1847, £1705; in 1848, £2138; in 1849, £2373.

4. Annual grants are paid in augmentation of the salaries of such teachers of elementary schools as, upon examination, have been judged worthy to receive certificates of merit, such certificates being of three different classes, and the augmentations varying from £15 to £30. The number of teachers so certificated is 681, and the total amount payable annually in augmentation of their salaries £6133.

5. Stipends are allowed to apprentices to the office of teacher, increasing during the five years of their apprenticeship from £10 to £18. The number of schools in which such apprentices have been appointed being 1361, and the number of apprentices, 3581.

6. Provision is made for the instruction of these apprentices by annual payments to the teachers to whom they are apprenticed, being at the rate of £5 annually for one, and £4 for every additional apprentice, their competency to instruct them being tested by annual examinations. The sums payable under the three last heads are stated in the following table:—

Denomination of School.	Number of Schools.	Number of Certificated Teachers.	Number of Apprentices.			Amount conditionally awarded for year ending 31 Oct. 1850.
			Boys.	Girls.	Total.	
National, or Church of England Schools. .	973	482	1,638	910	2,593	£ 49,472 s. 10 d. 0
British, Wesleyan, and other Protestant Schools, not connected with the Church of England.	181	69	434	159	593	10,356 10 0
Rom. Cath. Schools. .	32	10	46	33	79	1,323 10 0
Schools in Scotland, connected with the established Church.	82	39	161	28	189	3,492 0 0
Schools in Scotland, not connected with the Estab. Church.	93	81	100	27	127	3,467 0 0
Total	1,361	681	2,424	1,157	3,581	68,111 10 0

7. They offer supplies of books, apparatus, and school fittings, at reduced rates, the reduction being effected by the purchase of large quantities at wholesale prices; and by grants to the extent of one-third of these reduced prices. The total reduction thus effected averages sixty-two per cent. on the retail price: and, the total amount of the grants so made by the Government being £6664, it is probable that the retail price of the books, maps, &c., so distributed, is not less than £17,500.

8. They provide for the annual inspection of normal schools, and of all elementary schools in which apprentices are appointed, or which are taught by certificated teachers. Also for the annual examination of apprentices and of candidates for the office of apprentice, and of teachers who are candidates for certificates of merit.

For this purpose they maintain a staff of twenty-one inspectors of schools, —of whom eleven are inspectors of church schools; two of British and Foreign, and Dissenters' schools; and two of Scotch schools; one of Roman Catholic, and five of Workhouse schools. The cost of this inspection, in 1849, for salaries and travelling expenses, was £16,826. The schools at present liable to inspection are 12 normal schools, 4296 elementary schools, and about 700 workhouse schools.

The general result of this action of the Government on the education of the country, *in respect to quantity*, may be gathered from the fact, that in the ten years from 1837 to 1847, the number of children under education in Church schools had increased from 558,180 to 955,865, being an increase of eight elevenths.

It was not, however, so much in respect to the *quantity* of the education of the country, as in regard to its *quality*, that an alteration was needed: and it is in this respect that most has been done. The two questions of quality and quantity have, however, a relation to one another, for a good school is almost always a full one. This relation of the number of the scholars to the quality of the school is strikingly illustrated in the returns made from schools in which certificated teachers and apprentices have been appointed, and which are, therefore, regularly inspected. These schools may be reasonably supposed to have improved from year to year: and it appears that the numbers of children who attend them have, in like manner, steadily advanced. In the first year after these measures came into

operation, 1847-8, the total number had thus increased 74·5 per cent. ; in the second year, 16·66 per cent. No third year's apprenticeships are yet completed.

The whole question of the quality of the instruction, after all that regulations can do, will be found to be involved in the character of the teacher: for such as is the teacher, such invariably is the school. The first step towards the formation of a more efficient body of teachers was taken by Sir J. P. Kay Shuttleworth and Mr. E. Carleton Tuffnell, when, in the year 1840, they founded a school at Battersea for training Masters for the schools of pauper children,—maintaining it at their private cost, aided by some of their friends. That no personal exertions might be wanting to its success, Sir J. P. Kay Shuttleworth went to reside in it; adding to his duties as Secretary to the Committee of Council on Education the cares and difficulties of a position, in which, surrounded by youths but recently the inmates of workhouses, he sought to lay the foundation of a new and improved state of education throughout the country. This honorable example of private benevolence has been followed by various public bodies. The National Society soon afterwards established St. Mark's College, Chelsea,—an institution for the training of a superior class of Church schoolmasters,—and Whiteland's House School, for the training of mistresses: And within four years of that time there had sprung up no less than seventeen diocesan schools for the training of teachers of Church schools. These are now increased to twenty, of which Chester, York, Durham, Cheltenham, and Caermarthen are the principal. The Battersea school having been transferred to the National Society in 1844, there are now twenty-three or twenty-four training schools in the country for the education of Church schoolmasters.

The existence of these training schools, the people of England and the Church of England owe to the Committee of Council. Their importance is not to be measured by the amount of good they have been able up to this time to do, or are now doing. They are poorly supported; the number of students who attend them is small, not exceeding in the whole from four to five hundred, and the education pursued in them at present appears to be but imperfectly adapted to the formation of the character of the teacher. But our conception of that character is as yet very imperfect in England: and in all that concerns the formation and development of it, we have no experience to guide us. Each of the training schools admits of development; and the State would do well to lend its aid to this end with a more liberal hand (we should say a less sparing hand) than it has hitherto attempted;—respecting, as far as is consistent with guarantees for the proper application of its aid, the independence of each, and allowing them to manifest themselves under that distinctive character towards which they may severally tend. Each, taken with its individuality, might thus become a depository of local educational sympathies and a centre of local action. And looking to the progress which the whole question of education is making, and to the fact that, whenever the country is properly supplied with parish schools, not less than 2000 students will, probably, require to be kept within the walls of these training schools to supply the vacancies for teachers which will annually arise in Church schools alone, there can be no doubt of the importance of this part of the system.

Far more important, however, than any aid which the Government has yet given to the establishment and maintenance of training schools, is that which it has rendered in providing that candidates shall be properly educated and prepared for admission to them. Nothing has so interfered with the success of such institutions as the impossibility of finding a sufficient number of qualified candidates. The office of the national schoolmaster is

but little in repute; and but few persons have, hitherto, been accustomed to seek it, except such as, for the want of sufficient ability, or energy, or industry, have been unsuccessful in other callings, or who labor under infirm health or bodily deformities. These were considered indeed good enough for the purpose; until that inveterate prejudice was got rid of, that education is a privilege of men's social condition, and to be graduated according to it. It is a legitimate deduction from this principle, that a teacher of the lowest standard in attainments and skill is competent to the instruction of children of the lowest class. The converse proposition is to rule the future of education. The education of those children who are the most degraded, intellectually and morally, being the most difficult task,—is to have the highest qualities of the teacher brought to bear upon it.

The three or four thousand pupil teachers, having been selected as the most promising children in the schools in which they have been brought up, and having been apprenticed to the work of the school for five years, and educated under the careful superintendence of the clergy and the inspectors of schools, will when they have completed their apprenticeship, present themselves for admission to the training schools. So selected and so trained from an early age, they cannot fail, after two or three years' residence in them, to form a body of teachers such as have never before entered the field of elementary education in England. The *worst* training of the normal schools cannot mar this result; and we have reason to hope for the *best*. This, then, is the bright future of education. If the apprenticeship of new pupil teachers is continued at the same rate as heretofore, from 1000 to 1500 will annually complete their apprenticeship; and nearly as many will complete annually their training in the normal schools; so that nearly that number of teachers will every year be prepared to enter on the charge of elementary schools.

The following are the conditions annexed to grants:—

1. In respect to grants for the *building* of schools, it is stipulated that the site shall be legally conveyed to trustees, to be used for ever for the purposes of a school.

2. That the buildings should be substantial and well adapted to the uses of a school.

3. That the State, by its inspector, shall have access to the school, to examine and report whether the instruction of the children is duly cared for.

4. To these conditions there have been added, since the year 1848, certain others, well known as 'the Management Clauses;' having for their object to secure to the laity, in all practicable cases, what appears to be a due share in the management of the schools.

5. To grants for the augmentation of teachers' salaries, and for the stipends of pupil teachers, it is made a condition that certain examinations shall be passed, the subjects of examination being specified beforehand. These subjects include, with secular instruction, a detailed course of elementary religious instruction, to be conducted in Church schools in strict accordance with the formularies of the Church of England.

6. To grants for apparatus and books, no other conditions are annexed than that the Committee of Council shall be certified on the report of one of its inspectors, that the assistance is needed; that the books and apparatus sought are proper to the use of the school; and that the teachers are competent to make the proper use of them.

These measures of the Committee of Council appear excellently calculated to promote the interests of education. But the best measures depend for their success upon their execution; and these have been so administered as to secure the cordial acceptance of the various parties locally interested in schools.

NORMAL SCHOOL

OF THE

BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY, BOROUGH ROAD, LONDON.

The following account of the Borough Road Normal School of the British and Foreign School Society is compiled from a report of Joseph Fletcher, Esq., one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, to the Committee of Council on Education, submitted April 7, 1847, and from documents published in the Annual Reports of the Society.

The Normal establishment of the British and Foreign School Society is situated in Borough Road, at the corner of Great Union Street, London, and consists of two Normal Schools, one for male, and the other for female teachers, and two large model schools, one for boys and the other for girls, in which one thousand pupils are daily under instruction, on the monitorial system. These latter schools, while incidentally benefiting the neighborhood in which they are situated, are mainly sustained for the purpose of exhibiting in actual practice the most improved methods of instruction, and as a means of training in the art of teaching, and in the management of children the various classes of persons who enter the institution for this purpose. This was the leading object of the school, the nucleus of the present establishment, originally organized by Joseph Lancaster, near the present site, in 1798. At first it was attempted to raise a number of monitors into pupil teachers, and in 1805 the sum of \$400 was raised, by donations, expressly as a capital "for training school masters" by boarding youths of the right character, at the institution. This was the germ of all subsequent normal schools for training elementary teachers in England. The attempt to erect a plain building to accommodate the young men and lads, whom Mr. Lancaster undertook to qualify for schoolmasters, led to a series of embarrassments, from which he was relieved in 1808 by the generous subscription of Joseph Fox, and others, who organized, for this purpose, (including the King and Royal Family,) an association called the "Royal Lancasterian Institution for promoting the Education of the Poor," which was afterwards changed to the "British and Foreign School Society," as more descriptive of its widening aim and influence. Regarding the instruction of the people as a national object, it has always maintained that it ought to be treated nationally, as belonging to towns rather than to churches, to districts rather than to congregations. So early as 1808 the cardinal object of the society is thus set forth in one of its rules.

The institution shall maintain a school on an extensive scale to educate children. It shall support and train up young persons of both sexes for supplying properly instructed teachers to the inhabitants of such places in the British dominions, at home and abroad, as shall be desirous of establishing schools on the British system. It shall instruct all persons, whether natives or foreigners, who may be sent from time to time for the purpose of being qualified as teachers in this or any other country.

Every year, from the enactment of this rule, persons were admitted to the school for a longer or a shorter period of time, to observe, learn, and practice the methods of classification and instruction pursued therein. In 1818, forty-four teachers were trained, and subsequently recommended to schools; in 1828, the number had increased to eighty-seven; in 1838, it amounted to one hundred and eighty-three, and in 1846, it was over two hundred.

The committee of the society were painfully conscious that many teachers who resorted to the school, were but poorly prepared in energy of character, tact, and christian spirit, to make good teachers; or if qualified in these respects, would stay long enough in training to acquire the requisite attainment and practical skill. "For such persons a period of *two years*, rather than *three months*, is required; and until this can be afforded, the quality of the instruction imparted in country schools, must of necessity be very unsatisfactory. In the absence of better provision, however, these considerations only enhance the importance of that which has been already affected; and afford additional reasons for sustaining and enlarging, as far as may be practicable, the facilities which are now afforded by your training department for the preparation of teachers."

In 1849, the Committee of Council on Education was formed, and in the course of the year, they proffered to both the National Society, and the British and Foreign School Society, a grant of £5000 towards the erection of two Normal Schools. This society therefore resolved to improve an opportunity which presented itself for the purchase of land adjoining to their premises in the Borough Road; and having obtained from the Corporation of the City of London an extension of the ground lease, which was cheerfully accorded on the most liberal terms, they determined to erect, thereupon, buildings capable of accommodating at least sixty resident candidates, together with libraries and lecture-rooms sufficiently extensive for the instruction of a much larger number, so that fifty or sixty more may, if it should be found desirable, lodge and board in the neighborhood, and attend as out-door pupils.

The new normal schools were completed in 1842, at an expense of £21,433 7s. 9d. defrayed by £5000 from Government, £1000 from the Corporation of London, £14,716 10s. 10d. from the friends of the institution generally, £276 15s. an offering from British School teachers who had been trained in it, and the remaining £440 1s. 11d., from the sale of old materials. The new buildings were opened on the 29th of June in the same year, when Lord John Russell presided at an examination of the model schools, and a report was read, which concluded by saying that, "To state in detail the precise course of instruction to be pursued in this new building, would as yet be premature. It may at present be sufficient to state, that it is intended that the course of instruction shall be very considerably enlarged, that additional teachers shall be engaged, that the time now devoted by candidates to preparatory training, shall be extended to the utmost practicable limit, that facilities shall be afforded for the attendance and instruction of the teachers of country schools, during a portion of their vacations, and that, as heretofore, every improvement in education which may be introduced either at home or abroad, shall receive immediate attention, be fairly subjected to the test of experiment, and if found really valuable, at once adopted."

This great establishment is divided into two entirely distinct portions, forming respectively the male and female departments; the former occupying the eastern, and the latter the western portion of the buildings, between which there is no direct means of communication whatever, except by a private door, opened once a-day, to permit the young women to take their seats in the back part of the theatre, during the daily conversational lecture of the principal of the normal school on the art of teaching and governing in a school. Each department, again, has its respective normal and model school; and each of the normal schools is divided into two classes, forming respectively the senior and junior divisions of the young persons under training. The whole is under the constant general supervision of the Committees, meeting on the premises, and of the Secretary,

resident in them ; but the whole of their active management devolves upon the officers hereinafter named.

The following are considered as the general and primary QUALIFICATIONS REQUIRED IN ALL CANDIDATES, whether male or female :—

1. *Religious Principle.*—Whilst the Committee would disclaim anything approaching to a sectarian spirit, they consider it indispensable that persons to whom the moral and religious instruction of youth is confided should exemplify in their lives the Christian character, and be conscientiously concerned to train up their youthful charge “in the nurture and admonition of the Lord.” In requiring the most explicit testimonials on this important point, the Committee feel that they are only fulfilling the wishes of their constituents ; an opinion which is confirmed by the fact, that in almost all the applications they receive for teachers, it is expressly stipulated that they must be persons of decided piety, and that no others will be accepted.

2. *Activity and Energy.*—These are essential. An indolent or inactive person can never make an efficient schoolmaster or schoolmistress. The arrangements of a school on the British system, when well conducted, considerably diminish the amount of labor required from the teacher ; but it is a system which peculiarly demands liveliness and activity both of body and mind.

3. *A competent share of Talent and Information.*—The Committee have no desire to change in any respect the great principle on which they first set out—that of imparting to the laboring classes elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic ; but the present state of society requires that a teacher should possess the ability to give instruction in higher branches of knowledge. Indeed, if teachers are to exercise any valuable influence over their pupils, they must themselves be intelligent ; they must be able to inform and interest children generally, and to draw out and strengthen their feeble powers.

In addition to these qualifications, the Committee esteem it desirable that the candidate should possess kindness, and great firmness of mind, combined with good temper ; in short, those dispositions of heart which gain so much on the affections of the young. The age of the applicant should not be less than twenty, nor more than thirty ; and all candidates receive the following “general notices :”—

1. Candidates received into the Institution *on the reduced terms*, are understood to pledge themselves to act (as far as practicable) on the great leading principles adopted by the Society.

2. Candidates who do not subject the Society to any cost on their behalf, are considered at liberty to engage themselves as teachers of schools connected with other educational bodies, or attached to particular denominations of Christians.

3. All persons, on completing the term for which they are accepted, must withdraw from the Institution ; and (if candidates for schools under the Society) must reside with their friends until suitable openings occur.

Normal School for Young Men.

The officers of the male department are, for the

Normal School—A Principal—Vice-Principal and Teacher of Drawing and Music.

Model School.—A Superintendent and Assistant.

Household.—A Curator and Housekeeper.

The *domestic* arrangements (subject to the oversight of a sub-Committee) are placed under the care of the housekeeper and the curator.

The duty of the housekeeper is to direct and control all matters relating to the board and lodging of the young men. She is required to provide the requisite food, to engage the domestic servants, and to secure at all times order, cleanliness, and punctuality in those portions of the establishment which fall under her supervision. All accounts of disbursements are transmitted to the accountant for examination monthly.

The duty of curator embraces all matters connected with the daily and hourly supervision of the students, and the maintenance of order, cleanliness, and harmony throughout the establishment. He is—

1. To keep a record of all persons entering or leaving the establishment, or attending any of the classes.

2. To see that all the rooms used by the students, or their teachers, are always clean, and well ventilated.

3. To preside with the housekeeper at all meals ; to conduct family reading morning and evening ; and to be responsible for the adherence of every student to all the regulations laid down for his guidance while in the institution.

He is further to give a *daily written report* to the secretary, whose private apartments, though distinct from the general establishment, are within the building, and through whom, in case of irregularity, appeal can at once be made to the Committee.

The *dietary* provided for the students is plain, but varied, substantial, and abundant.

A medical practitioner, residing in the immediate neighborhood, is called in (free of cost to the student) on the first appearance of indisposition.

There are dormitories in the male department for only 45 students; 27 in separate rooms, and 18 in nine larger rooms, with two beds in each. The remainder of the 66 pupils in this department, on the day of my general examination, were occupying apartments in the neighborhood, in houses of respectability, in which it is proposed that hereafter they shall be hired for them by the officers of the Institution. All, however, board in the house. The principal and vice-principal of the normal school and the superintendent of the model school are respectively charged with the proper occupation of the students' time, according to the Tables hereafter given; and at all intervening periods their employments are under the general superintendence of the curator, who marks lists to check their employment of the time assigned to private study, whether individually or under mutual monitors, and has charge of the manners and conduct of the young men generally, enlisting the aid of the two senior students for the time being. The young men perform no household services, beyond cleaning their own shoes and brushing their own clothes; for the time of their stay is too short to justify the sacrifice of any portion of it to industrial occupations. Indeed, most of them have already had a complete course of industrial education in the trades and occupations from which they have respectively come.

Rules to which every Student is expected rigidly to conform.

*I. Relating to Sleeping Apartments:—*1. To rise every morning at 6 o'clock when the bell rings.

2. Before leaving the room to uncover the bed-clothes, and to see that all books, articles of dress, &c., are placed in the drawers. For every article found in the room a fine will be enforced.

3. On no occasion whatever, without special permission, to have a candle, match, or other light in the room. (As the violation of this rule will endanger the safety of the building, any offender will be specially reported to the Committee, and probably directed to leave the institution.)

4. Every student is to confine himself to his own bed-room, and to have no communication with any other, conversation not being allowed after retiring for the night.

5. All washing and cleaning the person to be performed in the respective rooms; the troughs on the landing never to be used for that purpose.

6. The bed-rooms to be finally vacated for the day at five minutes to nine, and under no pretence whatever is any student to visit them again until bed-time. At no period will he be allowed to go up stairs in shoes worn during the day.

*II. Relating to the Classes:—*1. To be present in the school of design at half-past 6 o'clock in the morning to answer to the roll, and then to proceed to the classes.

2. To be present at the additional roll-calls at the undermentioned times, viz., five minutes to nine, five minutes to two, and half-past nine in the evening.

3. To attend all the classes during the day at the precise time. From twelve to one to be invariably devoted to exercise in the open air. If no letters or parcels have to be delivered, the time to be occupied in walking out.

4. From half-past eight to half-past nine in the evening to be devoted to the preparations of the studies. The students who have finished will be required to maintain order and silence, that no interruption may be occasioned to those who are studying.

*III. Relating to Meals:—*1. To be ready for breakfast punctually at a quarter past eight; dinner at a quarter past one; tea at a quarter past five; and supper at half-past eight; at which hours the bell will ring.

2. On entering the dining-room for any meal, every student to remain standing in his place until the housekeeper and curator have entered and taken their seats; and on the housekeeper rising to leave the room (which sign indicates the conclusion of the meal), every student will be expected to rise, and the one nearest to the door to open it.

3. During meals no reading will be allowed; silence must be observed, and the strictest propriety of behavior maintained, rudeness, selfish eagerness to be assisted before others, or indecorum of any kind, will be noticed, and expose the parties to merited rebuke.

*IV. Relating to other Periods of Time:—*1. No singing, loud talking, or unnecessary noise in the passages, or in any part of the building, will be tolerated. No throwing of ink, or other careless or filthy habit, will on any account be suffered. Parties offending will be specially reported to the Committee.

2. No book, paper, article of dress or of other use, will be allowed, under any pretext, to lie about any of the rooms or passages; a place being appointed for everything, everything must be in its place. For every offence a fine will be enforced, and the article detained until it is paid.

3. No student is to be absent from the premises without the permission of the curator, or (if in

class hours) of the teacher of the class from which he wishes to be absent; and he is never to be out later than half-past nine.

4. On Sunday he will be expected to attend twice at his accustomed place of worship, and to spend the remainder of the day in quietness and propriety.

5. Never to enter the depository except on business.

In order to carry the above regulations into effect the curator is strictly charged by the Committee to impound all articles left about, and on no account to return them to the owners without payment of the fine; and, further, never to allow any violation of these rules to pass without severe rebuke.

As, however, many offences may be committed where the guilty party cannot be discovered, the two senior students (for the time being) will be held responsible for all such misdemeanors. If injury be done to any part of the rooms, or unnecessary dirt brought in, it will be their duty to find out and report on the offender; in which case he will be required to remove or repair it.

All fines to be spent in books for the library.

The following is the official outline of the Normal School of Young Men:—

I. Persons eligible.—Subject to the general qualifications already enumerated, five classes of persons are eligible for admission.

Class A.—Young men desirous of becoming teachers, who wish to be introduced to a school by the Committee, and are prepared to remain in the institution twelve months.

Class B.—Young men desirous of becoming teachers, who wish to be introduced to a school by the Committee, but are unable to remain longer than six months.

Class C.—Youths and other persons who desire to adopt the profession of a teacher, but wish subsequently to be at their own disposal. These are considered as private teachers, and are required to pay the fees attached to each class.

Class D.—Teachers elected to schools, or already conducting them, but desirous of attending, for some limited period, any of the classes, with a view to farther improvement.

Class E.—Missionaries or other persons proceeding abroad, with a view to the promotion of education in foreign parts.

II. Times of Admission.—Class A.—January and July.

Class B.—January, April, July, and October.

Classes C, D, and E.—Monthly, by special correspondence with the Secretary.

Classes A and B are expected to board in the establishment. Reduced charge, 6s. a week; the whole sum to be paid in advance.

Class C cannot be admitted to board or lodge. They must also pay in advance the fee required on entering each class.

Classes D and E may be admitted to board by special arrangement.

III. Mode of Application.—The first step to be taken by the candidate is to write a letter to the Secretary, stating briefly his age, state of health, and present employment; also whether he is married or single, and, if married, what family he has.

Secondly, he should mention, generally, the amount of his attainments, and state the length of time he could devote to the work of preparation.

Thirdly, whether he has had any practice in communicating instruction to children, either in day or Sunday schools; whether he has ever been engaged in benevolent efforts for the improvement of the poor; and whether he has been in the habit of attending any means of general or religious instruction beyond the ordinances of public worship.

This letter, which should be as brief as circumstances will admit, should be accompanied by *explicit testimonials* from the clergyman or minister of the church or congregation with which the candidate may be connected, and from one or more persons to whom he may be known, as to his possession of the qualifications already mentioned as indispensable.

On receipt of these communications, the Secretary will bring the application before the Committee at their first meeting, and afterwards communicate further with the candidate.

The sub-Committee appointed to investigate the testimonials of candidates meets at the house of the Institution, in the Borough Road, on the first Monday in every month, at 10 o'clock in the forenoon.

If the candidate reside in or near London, he should attend the Committee at this time, *but not unless he has had on some previous day a personal interview with the Secretary.*

Supposing the Committee to be satisfied with the letter and testimonials, the candidate will be informed when he is to present himself for preliminary examination, on the following points:—

1. *As to his Health.*—It will be required that persons admitted into the Institution shall be in good health, and free from any serious physical defect; and that they shall either have had the small-pox or have been vaccinated.

2. *As to the Amount of his Knowledge.*—He must read fluently and without unpleasant tones; he must write a fair hand, spell correctly, be well acquainted with the first four rules of arithmetic, and have some general acquaintance with geography and history.

If the result of this examination be on the whole satisfactory, the candidate (having paid the amount required) receives a certificate, on delivery of which to the Curator he is presented with a copy of the rules of the establishment, and either received into the house or introduced to the classes he wishes to attend. If the result be unsatisfactory, a written report to that effect is made to the Secretary, who will then communicate with the Committee, and with the candidate or his friends.

By these preliminary inquiries and investigations, it is hoped that in the majority of cases subsequent disappointment may be prevented; but as it is impossible to decide, *prior to actual experiment*, whether any person has or has not that peculiar tact in the management and control of children, and those powers of arrangement, as applied to numbers, without which no teacher can successfully carry out the combinations of a British school,—every candidate is required to

hold himself ready to withdraw from the Institution should he be found thoroughly deficient in the art of managing, interesting, and controlling children.

The Committee do not in any case *pledge themselves* to furnish candidates with situations; but as hitherto they have been in the habit of receiving applications for teachers from the numerous friends of education in different parts of the country, they have reason to hope that it will generally be in their power to recommend the candidates they may train to parties thus applying.

IV.—Vacations.—Midsummer.—Four weeks from the Friday preceding Midsummer day.

Christmas.—One week from the Friday preceding Christmas-day.

Easter.—From the Thursday preceding Good Friday to the Wednesday in the ensuing week.

At the Midsummer vacation every student is required to leave the Institution, and to provide himself with board and lodging during that period.

V.—Table of Classes.—Class I.—*Grammar and English Composition*:—Students of Six Months.—A course of English Grammar, including the chief roots (especially the Anglo-Saxon,) and derivatives of the language. *Composition.*—Forms of letters, notes, &c. Abstracts of remarks and lectures will be looked over, with a view to the correction of errors in orthography or composition.

Students of Twelve Months.—An extended course in the construction of the English language. So much of comparative grammar as may be understood by those assumed to know only one language. *Composition.*—A systematic course. Essays on some branches of teaching.

Class II.—*Elocution : Readings in Prose and Poetry*:—In this class the pieces read are selected from the Third Lesson Book, and are accompanied by systematic interrogation from the notes. The pupils are also required to interrogate one another.

Class III.—*Arithmetic and Mathematics*:—This class includes—

1. *Arithmetic.*—Principles from De Morgan.
2. *Geometry.*—Books ii. iii. iv. v. vi. of Euclid's Elements.
3. Elements of algebra and trigonometry.

Class IV.—*Model Lessons in Natural Philosophy, Natural History, Botany, and Chemistry*:—The object of these lessons (which, with the aid of suitable books of reference, are prepared by the pupils before breakfast) is twofold; *first*, to render them sufficiently acquainted with the various subjects treated in the Fourth Lesson Book, to enable them to teach that book intelligently; and, *secondly*, to exhibit to the tutor the extent of their knowledge, and the degree of ability possessed for imparting the same to children. The instruction given in natural philosophy is of a popular kind, suited to the acquirements of students, some of whom may be acquainted only with the elementary parts of pure mathematics.

Class V.—*Art of Teaching*.—This class, at which all the teachers in training (both male and female) are required to attend, is held in the lecture-room of the institution.

The time is occupied in criticism on the gallery lesson of the day, in a conversational lecture on some topic connected with the principles or practice of teaching, and in the examination of written notes.

The course consists of 60 lectures, and is completed in 12 weeks.

Class VI.—*Practical Simultaneous Lessons.*—This class (at which all attend) is conducted in the gallery class-rooms, where the teachers in turn are required to give collective lessons; after which, the criticisms of the teachers who have been spectators are required to be given in the lecture-room. The tutor then comments on various defects and merits in the lessons.

Class VII.—*Bible Lesson*.—This class is conducted in the model school, each teacher being required to instruct and question a draft of 10 or 12 children, on a given subject, under the inspection of the tutor and the superintendent of the school.

Class VIII.—*School of Design.*—This class is separated into two divisions, upper and lower. In the upper, drawing is taught, in the following order:—

1. Maps and charts.
 2. Machinery
 3. Architecture
 4. Figures and landscapes
- } with and without models.

In the lower division, writing is taught, and then simple geometrical figures, and outlines of maps.

Class IX.—*Geography and History.—Geography.*—Geography of the chief countries of the globe, including their main natural features, towns, manufactures, government, population, and social condition. Connexion between the political and physical geography of countries. Leading features of mathematical geography.

History.—General history, ancient and modern.

Class X.—*Arithmetic (Lower Class).*

Arithmetic.—Written and mental.

Geometry.—A course of practical geometry. The first book of Euclid's Elements.

Mensuration.—An elementary course.

Class XI.—*Elements of Physics.*—This class is simply intended to furnish the required information for the ordinary teaching of the Fourth Lesson Book.

Class XII.—*Vocal Music.*—This class is maintained by a separate voluntary subscription, and attendance is optional on the part of the students. The methods and books both of Mr. Hickson and Hullah are adopted.

*** The books required for each class, which are few and inexpensive, must be purchased by the student.

VI.—*Examinations.—Weekly Examinations.*—Every candidate will undergo a strict exa-

munication as to the amount of work performed during each week; he is required to record in a journal his labors and progress; and it is then ascertained, by a series of questions, whether that which he supposes himself to have acquired be thoroughly understood and digested. He is also examined as to the mode in which he would communicate to others the knowledge he has gained.

Half-Yearly Examinations:—

Examiners.—Professor—————Coll.
 Professor—————Coll.

Certificates of proficiency will be granted at the discretion of the examiners.

Any schoolmaster who has been instructed by the Society, or who may be engaged in conducting any school in connexion with it, may (by previous notice to the Secretary) offer himself for examination, in order to obtain a certificate of proficiency.

The lower class examination will embrace—

Reading; writing; arithmetic (written and mental); grammar; geography; English history; knowledge of the Scriptures; elements of geometry, drawing, and music; and the art of teaching.

The higher class (in addition) practical geometry; mensuration; the elements of algebra and trigonometry; natural philosophy; an extended course of mathematical and physical geography; construction of maps; and drawing, as applied to mechanics and architecture.

As the object of the Society is to prepare teachers, and not merely to improve students, the books used as text-books are, as far as practicable, those used in the schools, and the examinations will be conducted with special reference to the ultimate object in view, viz, effective teaching.

The male department is, in effect, subdivided into distinct sections, placed respectively under the principal of the normal school, making the preliminary examinations, conducting the studies of the senior class, and giving three-fifths of the lectures to the whole in "pedagogy," or the art of teaching and governing in a school; under the vice-principal of the normal school, conducting the studies of the junior class as well as those of the morning classes of the female students, and likewise conveying the other two-fifths of the instruction in "pedagogy;" and under the superintendent of the model school, who has the entire disposal of that section, and the arrangement of the students' exercises in it. The junior class consists, in the main, of those whose stay in the institution has not exceeded three months; the senior class, of those whose stay has exceeded that term.

Amongst those admitted as students, very great variety obtains in respect to attainments and capacity. Hence classification, at first, is almost impracticable. This, added to the difficulty occasioned by the entrance of new students at every period of the quarter, creates no little embarrassment in the management of the junior class, especially when the numbers are so large. Almost every one, on his entrance, is totally ignorant of some one or more of the branches of study pursued; hence it becomes necessary to adopt, to a great extent, the tedious and distracting plan of individual instruction. Very few of them can read *well*, that is, with intelligence and correctness of pronunciation, while the monotonous tones of some, and the almost inveterate provincialisms of others, require much time and attention to correct. Besides, unhappily, many of those whose *general acquirements* are of a fair average character, have comparatively neglected orthography and reading, and consequently very much of their time during their stay in the class is necessarily devoted to these elementary studies. Some again, have made apparently fair progress in arithmetic, grammar, &c., previous to admission; but though able to perform the operations in one science, and give definitions or parse sentences in the other, it is found, on examination, that their knowledge is merely by rote, and that the principles in both cases are not at all understood: they know that the thing is so and so, but they cannot tell why. Again, some who are, to some extent acquainted with principles, are quite unable to communicate their information to others, especially to children, and their efforts rather resemble awkward attempts at lecturing than intelligent teaching. All the time that can be spared from learning and practising the art of teaching has to be employed by this junior class in a vigorous effort to repair the deficiencies of their own elementary education. For this purpose they form a very interesting school of primary instruction under the Vice-Principal.

The following is the course of study of the junior class during the quarter ended 31st March, 1847, as described by its tutor, Mr. Saunders:—

Grammar.—The parts of Speech, and the Exercises upon them in Allen and Cornwell's Grammar, using also the Latin Roots there given; and the first part of Cornwell's Young Composer.

Geography.—General principles, Mathematical and Physical—Varieties of the Human Race—General features and divisions of Europe—Physical Geography of England—Text-book: Cornwell's Geography.

Natural History.—The great divisions of the Animal Kingdom—Radiata in detail—Text-book: Mrs. Lee's Introduction to Natural History, and Cuvier.

Writing.—Improvement of the style in four hands.

Arithmetic.—Principles and practice from Notation to Compound Proportion inclusive—and Square and Cube Roots.—Text-books: Crossley's Calculator and Thompson's Arithmetic.

Arithmetic (Mental).—All the Rules in Crossley's Intellectual Calculator.

Linear Drawing.—Geometrical Figures in Dyce's Designs, and in Francœur's Linear Drawing.

History.—Roman and Saxon England in Outline—Norman period with the Feudal System and the Crusades in detail—Text-books: Pinnock's Goldsmith, revised by Dr. Taylor, and Macintosh's History of England.

Natural Philosophy.—General Divisions—Properties of Matter and Laws of Motion—Text-books: Peschell's Physics and Moseley's Illustrations.

Mensuration and Geometry.—Plane Figures—Text-books: Pasley's Practical Geometry, and Elliot's Geometry and Mensuration.

Elocution.—A series of 24 lessons in prose and poetry—Text-books: the Society's Lesson Books, and Allen's English Poetry.

Scripture.—Geography and History of Canaan from the call of Abraham to the present time—Text-book: Horne's Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures.

Various other works are used as sources of illustration, and the students are referred to them for further information, in their future hours of leisure.

The junior class is assembled on five evenings in the week, for two hours and a half, from 6 to half-past 8 o'clock, and on the morning of Saturday for four hours, from 9 to 1 P.M. The evening of *Monday* is occupied by devoting one hour to English Grammar, one hour to Geography, and half an hour to the elements of Physics. The lessons having been previously prepared during the period allotted to study in the morning, one of the students is selected by the tutor to examine the class in the lesson on grammar appointed for the evening. His questions are addressed to the members of the class individually, and on the failure of any one to reply to the question proposed, it is put to another, and another. This is required to be done with as much rapidity and precision as possible, and should every one in the class fail to reply satisfactorily, the interrogator must then explain the subject to them, and examine them again. "The exercises on the different rules of grammar, as corrected by themselves, are read from their exercise books, every exercise being written before a lesson is considered as past, and a record of it is then made in their journals. During the whole of this time the tutor is with them, occasionally asking questions on the lesson under consideration, pointing out to the class the errors of the questioner and their own. At the close of each lesson the students are required to mention anything which to them may seem objectionable in the manner in which the questions are put, or in errors of pronunciation, or any other which they may have observed; and yet further to show how they would have proceeded under the same circumstances. This plan of friendly but searching criticism is carried on with every lesson superintended by one of the students. The geographical lesson is given by one of the students, previously appointed, much in the same manner as the simultaneous or gallery lessons are given in the model school—that is, he furnishes them with information on the particular country or countries beyond what they may already possess; having ascertained the latter by questions at the commencement of the lesson. About half an hour is occupied in this manner, and then another half hour by another of the students in interrogation on the same subject; thus it is speedily ascertained if the information has been received by them, and also whether

their notions are clear and distinct. In physics the same course is pursued, and, when requisite and practicable, experiments are introduced, drawings and diagrams used, and objects exhibited."

The evening of *Tuesday* is occupied for the first hour in writing in copy-books, each copy being submitted to the tutor; the errors are pointed out, and a line written by him with special reference to those errors; the student is thus furnished with a copy precisely adapted to his wants. The next hour is devoted to drawing. In this, as in writing, the measure of success depends mainly on individual practice, and therefore the teaching is individual rather than simultaneous. Very few have practiced even drawing from copies before they came to the institution. Those who have, possess the facility of hand and eye which the preliminary exercises in this class are chiefly designed to convey. But the greater number require very careful introduction to the first notions and habits of representing forms on a plane surface, or even of drawing straight lines, and measuring them into relative lengths, without which they are quite unprepared to use the models which are introduced in the senior drawing classes. They make these first sketches in charcoal, so as to admit of correction, chiefly from simple geometrical figures in the published books of the Government School of Design, or from enlarged copies of those contained in Francœur's "Linear Drawing," prepared for the schools of France, organized on the Lancasterian system. This hour is the only one in the week devoted to drawing by those who are under the instruction of Mr. Saunders; but it suffices to give a habit of using the eye and the crayon. Mental Arithmetic occupies the next half hour; and as mental calculations depend so much on the ability to combine numbers rapidly and to detect their relations, much of the time devoted to them is occupied by tables and analyses of numbers, forming a firm basis on which to build up rapid and correct calculations.

On *Wednesday* evening the first hour and the last half hour are occupied in the same manner as on Monday, but the hour from 7 to 8 is devoted to the History of England; the lesson being treated precisely in the same manner as the geography.

On *Thursday* evening the first hour is devoted to Elocution. The members of the class standing in a circle in the School of Design, the tutor reads about a page in the style and spirit which he wishes should characterize their reading. The students then read in turn: at the close of the reading of each, observations on the excellences or defects of the reader are elicited from his companions; the teacher makes his own remarks on these observations and on the reading itself; and the pupil who sits next in rotation resumes the text. The next hour is devoted to Practical Geometry, for their exercises in which the students occupy seats at the desks in the School of Design, and each is furnished with a slate, compasses, triangle, and ruler. The problem to be executed is then distinctly enunciated by the tutor; the first step in its performance is explained and exhibited on a large black board, each copying it on his slate by means of instruments; the second step is then explained and illustrated in like manner. When completed, the question occurs, "What have you done?" And if the answer does not agree with the conditions of the problem, the discrepancy is pointed out and corrected. If the performance is correct and the reply satisfactory, the figure described is obliterated from the board and the slates, and the problem has to be executed again without any direction whatever. If this can be done, the next is proceeded with, and so on. As most of the students on entering are altogether ignorant of geometry, no very great amount of progress can be made: but a good foundation may be laid for future improvement. The text-book used is one well adapted to

the age of the students, combined with their want of early practice. It is Pasley's "Complete Course of Practical Geometry and Plan Drawing." It is employed to illustrate their practice in drawing from copies of geometrical figures, and simple problems in mensuration are pertinently introduced. The remaining half hour of Thursday evening is devoted to written arithmetic, or, in the conventional phrase of the schools, to "slate arithmetic." It is applied to the development of principles, or the application of them to practice, as may be required. In either case the students themselves are called upon to explain to their fellows the lesson received from the tutor, and to exhibit illustrations of it on the black board.

The first hour of *Friday*, as of *Tuesday*, evening, is devoted to Writing. The second hour to Elocution or Reading, in like manner as the first hour of the preceding evening; and the concluding half hour is employed in a lesson in Physics, as on *Monday* and *Wednesday*.

On *Saturday* morning the first hour is devoted to Modern History and Geography; the second to examinations in Arithmetic, especially in principles; the third to examinations in Grammar and Etymology, particularly Greek and Latin roots; and the fourth to Scripture Geography and History; all of them conducted in the same manner as the lessons already described.

"It should be observed that one of the lessons for each evening is given by the tutor as a model for imitation by the students, all the subjects being taken by him in turn, and attention particularly directed to the points of failure on the part of the students, and the errors into which they are most likely to fall. It might perhaps be supposed that, from remarks being freely made on each other's performances, some exhibitions of ill-feeling might be produced, but I believe myself fully justified in saying that no one instance of the kind has occurred. One advantage gained by these friendly criticisms is, that in very many instances the fault which passes unnoticed when committed by the student himself is apparent to him in another; and hence his correction is applied to his companion and himself at the same time.

"The number of exercises which they are required to write gives them much practice in orthography; but besides this, an hour of one morning in each week is devoted exclusively to writing from dictation; the exercises being examined afterwards by two students appointed to that office by the tutor, who also afterwards examines them again himself. In addition to this, each one in the class is required to write a letter once a week to the tutor, the writer being allowed to select his own subject: this exercise is of great service, as displaying the mental peculiarities of the writer, and affording a medium of private and confidential communication. In the examination of these letters attention is devoted to the most minute points, such as the mode of address, manner of folding, &c.

The members of this junior class also attend, with those of the senior class, the course of 60 lectures on teaching, &c., delivered by the Principal and Vice-Principal of the normal school; making rough notes while the lecture is being given, and writing out afterwards a fair abstract of it in a book furnished to them for that purpose; these abstracts also are examined and corrected by the tutor. During four hours and a half (from 9 till 12, and from 2 till half-past 3) of every day, the students are engaged in teaching classes of boys in the model school "under the close observation of the tutors, one of whom is always present, for the purpose of noticing and pointing out to them their defects, and the mode of supplying them; thus the lessons learned in the normal school are carried into practice in the model school, and the application of theory to practice conducted under strict supervision." Such is the course contemplated; but there appeared to me to be great room for improvement in the practical employment of

this valuable portion of time; improvement connected with an economy of opportunities in other departments of the training in this institution, in describing which it will be convenient again to revert to the labors of the model school.

During the past year an additional Bible class to the one mentioned in the Time Table has been established at the request of the students, the time of meeting being from 9 to 10 on the Sunday morning, and though their being present is perfectly voluntary, almost every one of them has been regular and constant in attendance; and the anxiety of many who have left the institution to have copies of the notes of the subjects taken up in the class, since their removal, affords an evidence of the value they set on the instruction communicated.

At the close of the first three months of their stay, the members of this class are put through another general examination by the Vice-Principal, in the presence of the Committee; and from among them the numbers in the upper class are then filled up, so as to leave behind only the few who are yet unprepared to proceed with the rest to any profitable result.

Upper Class in Normal School.

"The upper class," states the Principal of the normal school, "consists of students of not less than three months' standing. Their attention has been directed to the following subjects:—the English Language, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, and Natural History. These studies have been pursued with me from 6 till half-past 8 during three evenings in the week.* The course, as to method, has been uniform, the instruction having been given in the form of conversational lectures, based, as far as possible, upon the lesson-books of the Society as text-books. As much information has been thus afforded as the students have been supposed to be able to master by study in the early morning of the following day, either privately or in class; and the consciousness that the next time the subject should be taken up it would be commenced by a searching interrogation as to what is known of the last given lesson, has acted as a sufficient stimulus to persevering industry.

"*The English Language.*—This has been treated under three distinct heads. First, that which is ordinarily called *Grammar*, viz., the distinctions in the nature of words, the inflectional changes they undergo, their relations to each other, and the influence they exert in consequence of those relations. In short, syntax and etymology, exclusive of derivation. The aim has been never to give any term, definition, or rule, except as the representative of an idea,—to supply the notion before the words that express it. The *general* principles of language have been given, too, as far as they could be understood by those not having the power of comparison from the want of acquaintance with two languages. Thus the universal fact has been taught, that languages have a tendency to get rid of their inflectional forms, and to express their relations by particles and position; and hence has the reason been shown why the rules of position are so much more important in a language in its recent than in its earlier condition. English and Anglo-Saxon have, perhaps, been instanced.

"The second direct study of English has been the *Formation and Derivation of Words*. These have been taught from lists of Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek primitives found in the grammar. Etymologies have been explained, too, incidentally in connexion with the reading, and the various scientific terms from time to time occurring. In this study extreme accuracy has been insisted on, as it has been felt that persons not unfre-

* Two whole evenings in each week are devoted to Drawing and Music, under the teacher of those branches.

quently render themselves ridiculous, by dabbling in a foreign language with which they have not a correct acquaintance as far as it goes.

"*Composition* is the third means that has been employed for teaching the English language. It has been felt to be important that a teacher should be able to express his thoughts in suitable language and in a proper order. In the exercises, importance has been attached to neatness of writing and unaffectedness of style. Considerable advantages have attended this employment. It has been so pursued as to form a new study of English, showing the structure of the language and not of the words, logical and not grammatical relations. Truer, because more extensive views of the nature of their mother-tongue have thus been obtained, than could have been secured had the same time been devoted to the mere study of grammar. I regret to say that in a few instances, too (especially in the teachers selected by local committees), it has not been without its advantages even in regard to orthography.

"We have not yet found time for a systematic course on *English Literature*. It has not, however, been entirely neglected, but has been taken up incidentally in connexion with the composition. For as the exercises found in the text-book are for the most part selections from our best classic authors, fitting opportunities have been afforded, as each came under observation, for giving a slight biographical notice, the characteristics of his style, his principal works, and the recommendation of those deemed most valuable.

"*Geography*.—A good deal of attention has been given to geography. It is attempted to make this an *inductive study*; certain conditions are given, from which certain consequences are to be inferred. Thus the students are expected to discover that the currents of the rivers of Eastern Europe are slow, and of Western Europe rapid; after having been told that the former have their rise at a slight elevation and have a lengthened course, and the latter originate in the high land of Central Europe, at no great distance from the sea. Political and social geography are thus shown to be in a great degree dependent on physical geography; the reason is seen why one nation is agricultural and another commercial; why a certain manufacture should be carried on in a particular locality in preference to every other; and why an alteration in the mode of manufacture should involve a change in its seat. Thus that Holland is agricultural and England manufacturing; that our cotton manufacture is carried on in South Lancashire and the edges of the neighboring counties, and not in Lincolnshire; that our manufactures generally are travelling north and west; and that iron, which was once largely manufactured in Kent and Sussex, is now only smelted on the great coalfields, are not merely so many facts, but highly interesting facts; interesting, because regarded as effects, the causes of which are perceived, and have probably been discovered, by the student himself.

"The *Etymology* of geographical names forms an important feature in this branch of knowledge. The name of a place often tells its condition or history; and the explanation of the same by calling into exercise the power of association, increases the probability of its being remembered. Thus the name *Buenos Ayres*, still shows the *salubrity* of the air of that town; *Sierra*, the Spanish name for a range of hills, the *saw-like* appearance which it presents; *New York* tells us that it was once a colony of England, and those who know that it was first called *New Amsterdam*, know, too, that it was founded by the *Dutch*; *Virginia*, shows that it was colonized in the reign of our *virgin* queen, Elizabeth; *Carolina*, during that of Charles (*Carolus*). The term *fell*, applied to mountains in the north of England, the south of Scotland, and in the islands of the north

and west, shows that these parts of the country were occupied by some tribe or tribes of Scandinavian origin; while *ben* or *pen* found in the most mountainous regions, confirms the facts of history, that these high grounds were unconquered by the northern invaders, and continued in the possession of the original Celtic inhabitants. In thus finding out the cause of the fact, and the cause of the name, the reason has been exercised and the study rendered highly philosophical; and a science which has often been thought to consist only of lists of hard unmeaning words, has been made attractive in a more than usual degree.

"*History*.—This study has been almost exclusively confined to the few great prominent events which have distinguished the history of any country. These have been a good deal amplified—traced to their causes, and pursued to their consequences. Shortness of time necessitates such a method. But irrespective of this, it is considered the best for a first course; for, as these salient events are only the visible development of principles, an acquaintance with these affords a key, as it were, to most of the subordinate intermediate occurrences. The events of English history receive by far the most attention, as do also those nearer our own times, compared with the more remote. In considering the events of other countries, constant reference is made to what was going on at the same time in England. It is thus frequently seen, that the same principle is developing itself at different places at the same time: *e. g.* the struggle between ecclesiastical and kingly power in France and Germany, at the time of our Henry II. and his Archbishop Becket.

"*Mathematics*.—A full and systematic explanation of the *principles of Arithmetic* has formed a part of this study, and has been productive of great advantage to the teachers. Some who have entered the institution as good mathematicians, have been found to be unable to give a reason for the mode of performing the elementary parts of arithmetic. An acquaintance with rules by no means includes a knowledge of principles; but he who understands principles can make rules for himself. A strong interest has been excited, as the principles involved in the most ordinary operations have been evolved, and the effect of this has shown itself remarkably in the different manner of teaching a class of boys in the model school before and after such explanation; dulness on the part of the teacher has been succeeded by spirit, and lassitude on that of the boys by the most lively attention.

"*Demonstrative Geometry* has been pursued, but for the most part by each student independently, such being, in my opinion, the only way in which the advantages attendant on its pursuit are to be realized in the highest degree. The acquirements have, consequently, been very various, from only a few propositions to several books, according to ability and previous attainments. In all cases, however, though not equally, the great object has been secured—*mental drilling*.

"Only the elements of *Algebra* and *Trigonometry* have been taught, and these not systematically. The first has been introduced in connexion with the explanation of the principles of arithmetic, the algebraic formulæ being given as the representatives of *general* truths. Trigonometry has been required for the explanation of certain facts of natural philosophy, especially those of astronomy, and has been then introduced.

"*Natural Philosophy*.—It has been attempted to teach this branch of knowledge so as to combine the popular with the scientific. It has been made *popular* by drawing the illustrations from those phenomena which are every day before our eyes; and, fortunately, the great truths of physics are almost always capable of such illustration. But the *merely* popular has been avoided, by directing attention, not only to results, but to the methods

by which such results have been obtained. There are some truths, of course, only to be demonstrated by the higher mathematics. These are quite beyond our reach, and are either entirely omitted or explained by the nearest analogical approximation. But in numerous instances, perhaps most, the principle of a method admits of illustration by means of very elementary mathematical knowledge. Thus the students learn, not only that the sun and planets are at such a distance, but the manner in which such results are obtained is given, and shown to involve only the same principles as are employed in the simplest land surveying.

Natural History.—Up to the present time only zoology has been considered. Subsequent to the lectures on this subject, visits have been made, with great advantage, to the Regent's Park Zoological Gardens and the rooms of the British Museum containing the specimens of natural history.

"In the case of the few students who remain with us more than six months, the afternoons of Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, from 2 to half-past 3, are devoted to the further study of mathematics, original composition, and Latin. As regards the latter subject, the progress made is small indeed. It amounts to little more than removing some of the initiatory difficulties attendant on the study of a new language, and showing the student how he may hereafter pursue it with the best prospect of success. Yet slight as is the amount of knowledge obtained, it has not been without its value as affording a glimpse into the nature of language in general, which is not to be obtained by the individual who has no acquaintance with any but his own."

Drawing and Music.—Two whole evenings in every week, those of Monday and Wednesday, are devoted by the senior class to drawing; and three-quarters of an hour is given at the close of every day to singing. The course adopted in the scheme of drawing lessons is, in the first instance, to convey to the students, in a series of familiar explanations, such principles of perspective as may be sufficient to enable them to delineate correctly simple lines in various positions. This is done on the black board with chalk; and when the class has evinced a degree of proficiency in such exercises, our next step is to introduce solid forms, involving a further acquaintance with principles which are then progressively laid down. As soon as practicable, the mere outlines on board are superseded by the use of paper, which is continued to the end of the course. The models in use in the classes are the series published under the sanction of the Committee of Council on Education; and we have also, as time and the skill of the student would permit, introduced many simple objects for exercise, such as articles of furniture.

The time devoted to vocal music is necessarily limited; and the lessons are given at the close of the day, to prevent interference with any of the more important studies. The elementary lessons are based on Wilhem's system, as improved by Mr. Hullah; but one lesson in each week is devoted to the practice of simple school-pieces, published in "The Singing Master" of Mr. W. E. Hickson, which is found to be of considerable use in creating an air of cheerfulness, and relieving the more serious exercises.

Art of Teaching and Governing in a School.

The *theory* of teaching and governing, is given in a series of lectures on pedagogy, which are delivered every day in the theatre of the institution, the course running through three months. Of these lectures the students are required to make abstracts. Among these, is a series on mental philosophy; it being deemed of importance, that those who have to influence mind, through the agency of mind, should know something of its operations. Through these lectures the *science of education* is generally understood.

But education is an *art* as well as a science, and as in every other art, perfection is to be obtained only by practice. This practice is secured by the attendance of *all the students in the model school* for four hours and a half during each day. They pass, step by step, through all the parts of the school, commencing with the lowest draft of boys, and ending with the charge of the whole. During this time, they are always under observation; and when any one manifests a want of skill in teaching or government, he is requested to leave the draft, his error is privately pointed out to him, and such directions are given as are considered proper to obviate it. Should the error be of a kind likely to characterize more than the individual, it is noted down and made the subject of observation to all the students when together in the theatre.

The second method of improving the practice is, to assemble all the students in one of the gallery class-rooms, and then to require one of them, who has been previously appointed and furnished with a subject, to give a collective lesson to about a hundred boys. Every one is then engaged in noting down what he considers the defects or merits of the lesson, embracing points of grammar, manner, knowledge, government, &c. At the conclusion of the lesson, all the teachers adjourn to the theatre of the institution, and in turns give their opinions of the lesson. When all have finished, observations are made by myself, first on the criticisms of the observers and then on the general points of excellence or defect which have characterized the lesson.

The third mode of improving the practice is by means of lessons given by the students in turn to all the rest. The chief difference between this method and the last is, that errors are checked as they arise. There is no noting down deficiencies; but as soon as one is observed, the teacher is stopped, the defect pointed out, and he is at once required to rectify it. Before boys, this method would be obviously improper, as the moral influence of the teachers would be destroyed by it. But, among themselves, it is found to work very amicably. Indeed, it has been gratifying to me to witness the good temper with which the criticisms have been all but universally given and received. On the entrance of some students, the observations have been rather intended to show the acuteness of the speaker than to benefit the teacher who has given the lesson. But this has soon righted itself, and almost always without the necessity of intervention on my part.

The following is a list of the Conversational Readings to the whole of the students on the art of teaching and governing in a school, which form the quarter's course; five being delivered on five several days in each of twelve weeks, three by the Principal, and two by the Vice-principal. The first 36 form the course given by the Principal, and the remaining 24, that by the Vice-principal. At the commencement of each quarter these courses are begun again.

1. On the objects which a teacher should have in view in adopting his profession.
2. On the circumstances which make a teacher happy in a school.
3. On some of the essential moral qualifications of a teacher.
4. On the essential intellectual qualifications of a teacher.
5. On the establishment of authority.
6. On gaining ascendancy over the minds of children.
7. On combination and arrangement.
8. On routines of instruction and formation of plans.
9. On the monitorial system—its use and abuse.
10. On the selection of monitors.
11. On the training of monitors.
12. On the collective or simultaneous system.
13. On the art of teaching the elements of reading to very young children.
14. Illustrations of the mode of using the First Lesson Book.
15. On various methods of teaching spelling.
16. On the mode of using the Second Lesson Book.
17. On object-lessons for young children.

18. On the interrogative system, with illustrations.
19. On analytical teaching generally, with illustrations from the Third Lesson Book.
20. On synthetical teaching; illustrations from the Third Lesson Book.
21. On the art of reading with animation and expression.
22. On Scripture questioning, generally; on Scripture geography, and methods of teaching it.
23. On teaching writing.
24. On the use and nature of numbers.
25. On teaching arithmetic.
26. On the mode of using the Fourth Lesson Book.
27. On teaching geography.
28. On teaching grammar.
29. On teaching drawing.
30. On teaching vocal music.
31. On the philosophy of the human mind as applicable to education.
32. On attention and memory
33. On association.
34. On conception.
35. On imagination.
36. On the principal writers on education.
37. On rewards and punishments.
38. On emulation.
39. On common errors relating to punishments, and on corporeal punishments.
40. On moral and religious influence generally.
41. On the promotion of a love of truth, honesty, benevolence, and other virtues, among children.
42. On cleanliness and neatness, kindness to animals, and gentleness.
43. On promoting obedience to parents, respectful demeanor to elders, and general submission to authority.
44. On the private studies of a teacher.
45. On the course to be pursued in organizing a new school.
46. On keeping the various registers of attendance and progress.
47. On the ventilation of school-rooms and dwellings.
48. On school furniture generally.
49. On some of the circumstances which affect the condition of the laboring classes.
50. On the elements of political economy.
51. On machinery and its results.
52. On cottage economy and savings' banks.
53. On the duties of the teacher to the parents of the children, and to the Committee.
54. On the formation of museums and collections of apparatus, and the management of school libraries.
55. On keeping up a connexion with old scholars.
56. On the *order* in which a teacher should attempt to accomplish the various objects he has in view.
57. On school examinations generally.
58. On raising and filling a school, and on the circumstances which make a school popular.
59. On the various ways in which a teacher may co-operate with other benevolent efforts, such as temperance societies and Sabbath schools.
60. Brief summary of the teacher's duties *in* school, *out of* school, and in relation to the children, their parents, the Committee, and to society at large.

The $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours devoted to daily practice by the students in the monitorial labors of the model school, with an occasional gallery lesson, has already been described; and several times a week the Principal casts a careful glance around their drafts, and makes notes of the defects observable in them, to form the subject of observations in the conversational lecture of the evening. If the students were staying, as they ought to stay, for two years, instead of six months, this amount of time spent in the model school would be in excess; and the actual amount of valuable time devoted to its labors, is a sacrifice which challenges a vigilant superintendence and an amount of ambulatory instruction which shall turn it to the best account. The practice in gallery teaching is necessarily unfrequent, where there are only three classes placed under it every morning; but over this, also, the same eye is extended at like intervals: and every afternoon, at half-past three o'clock, occurs the gallery lesson, by a student teacher, in the presence of the Principal or the Vice-principal and the whole body of the students, expressly to form the subject of mutual criticism, and of a final critique by Mr. Cornwell, on adjourning to the theatre at 4. In the theatre, after taking the criticisms of the students on the lesson just delivered, which seem generally to be limited to the superficial defects of grammar, pronunciation, or want of order in the gallery, the Principal or Vice-principal makes a far more searching exposure of its essential defects,

which are carefully analyzed; and concludes by throwing in the remarks required by his miscellaneous notes on the class and gallery teaching of the day. He then proceeds with the conversational lecture for the day, into each of which the student's limited period of residence compels him to throw a large amount of instruction, so tersely expressed, and yet so condensed, as to require all the earnestness of the young men at once to seize and assimilate it. No one, however, can be present at one of these conversational lectures without being struck by the weightiness of the matter which it contains, and the aphoristic vigor with which it is endeavored, not merely to lay it before, but to engrave it into the minds of the hearers.

The tenor of the course may be gathered from the results contemplated in the following set of queries, drawn up by the Principal, and contained in the Society's "Manual:"

Questions to test a School.

The following questions have been drawn up for the use alike of Committees and teachers. They indicate the points to which a teacher should direct his attention, and the course a Committee should take in order to ascertain the condition of a school. The questions are supposed to be put to the teacher:

Reading:

Do you *define* and *limit* the portion to be read? Is the portion assigned of such *moderate length* as to allow of its being read three or four times?

Do your monitors question readily on the lessons that have been read?

Have you the *specimens, models, or diagrams*, that are necessary to illustrate such lesson?

Do you rest satisfied if one boy is reading in the draft, or do you see that *every child is attentive* while one is reading? Do you also forbid the monitors approaching the boy who is reading, and require him always to stand where he has a view of the whole draft?

Do you pay attention to the *style* of reading, particularly with the elder boys?

Do you correct a bad style by having very *familiar* sentences read?

By requiring the boys to *tell* you something, to write it down, and then to read it from *their own writing*?

Do you teach the *meanings* of words in connexion with the reading, as found in *sentences*, rather than with the *spelling* in which the arrangements must be arbitrary?

Do you point out on the map all the places occurring in the lesson read?

Do the boys exhibit seriousness of manner while reading the Bible?

Spelling:

Do you sometimes teach and test spelling by the *dictation* of sentences to be written?

Do the elder boys sometimes *copy* pieces of poetry and the exercises in grammar, with a view to improvement in spelling?

Do you have the more difficult words that occur in your collective lessons spelt?

Interrogation:

Do you or your monitors, question on every *subject* taught?

Do you occasionally require *mutual* questioning on the part of the elder boys?

Does your questioning include the *three* different stages? 1. During reading, the explanation of such words or allusions as are necessary to *understanding* the lesson? 2. After the books are closed, with a view to *impressing* the facts of the lesson on the memory? 3. The explanation of the *etymologies* of words and the imparting such *incidental* information as is naturally associated with it?

Do you avoid indefinite questions, and such as by admitting of only "Yes!" or "No!" encourage guessing?

Writing:

Are the books kept clean, free from blots, and without the corners being turned down? *

Do you furnish the boys with good copies, avoiding those which have improper contractions?

Have you a black board on which you write in chalk a copy for the lower boys who are unable to write?

Arithmetic:

Do you teach arithmetic by the black board? Have you one in each draft?

Do you in teaching arithmetic commence with and constantly refer to *sensible objects*?

Are the numbers in your *lower* classes always those of *little value*?

Do you invariably insist on every number being *read* to ascertain whether its value is understood?

Do your monitors *question* at every step in the process of a sum? *e. g.* Why do you carry only one when you borrow ten?

Are the *terms* and *marks* explained? *e. g.* What do *£. s. d.* mean? Why is the rule called compound subtraction? What are these "marks" used for?

* The books may be kept smooth by tying them up between two pieces of board.

Do you connect the book knowledge of the more advanced boys with the objects around them? *e. g.* What is the quantity of timber in the trunk of a tree whose height and girth, both at the root and part where it branches off, have been measured by themselves? The number of gallons the school water-butts will hold? The contents of a field, whose shape and sides they have ascertained?

Grammar :

Do you *explain* every definition, rule, &c., *before* allowing the boys to commit them to memory? Do you make your boys understand that language determines grammar, and not grammar language? That the rules of grammar are only the recognized usages of language? In explaining the etymologies of words are you extremely careful to give the right *quantities* and *terminations* of the roots?

Geography :

Do you teach the *physical* features of any district first? Do you make the boys acquainted with their own *neighborhood* and *country* before attending to more distant parts? Have you a map of the neighborhood in the school? In commencing geography do you require the boys to make a map of the play-ground, or some well-known part? Do you explain latitude and longitude by a reference to this map? Do you require the boys occasionally to point towards the place under consideration? *e. g.* When Dublin has been pointed out on the map, do you say, *Now point to Dublin itself?*

Drawing :

Do you commence with *chalk* drawing on the black board? Are your monitors so proficient as to be able to *sketch off* any object illustrative of their lesson?

Collective Teaching :

Do you abstain from teaching collectively those subjects which depend for their improvement on the amount of *individual practice*, as reading, spelling, &c.? Do you test the *efficiency* of your collective teaching by *individual questions*? Do you sometimes require the elder boys to make a written *abstract* of their lesson? Is this looked over with a view to the spelling among other things? Do you make use of *e lipses*? the *number* varying inversely as the age of the child? Are your collective lessons to the *whole* school especially devoted to subjects connected with *manners, morals* and *religion*? Do those to the *younger* boys relate to the various familiar objects, utensils, and operations about them? Are those to the elder boys given *systematically*? *i. e.* Is each lesson part of a system of knowledge? Is your collective teaching especially characterized by *simplicity* both of language and illustration, and by *animation*?* In using numbers do you make them intelligible by referring them to *known standards*? *e. g.* If you were stating that some trees are near 300 feet high, would you say that they were twice, three or four times, as the case may be, as high as some well-known object?

Monitors :

Do you devote an *hour a day* specially to the training of your monitors? Is it your prime object in this training to give your monitors the *art of teaching*, and do you make the impartation of knowledge subservient to this? Do you train every monitor in the *very lessons* he has to teach? Is the mass of your school employed in some *quiet* exercise, as writing, while you are engaged with the monitors? Have you a good general monitor to whom you can intrust the mass of the school during your training of the monitors? Do you require the same monitor to teach the *same lesson* that he may be thoroughly competent to that lesson? Have you a *double set* of monitors, that while one set is teaching the other is learning? Do you from time to time, add to your monitor's class, to act as *auxiliaries*, in the absence of the regular monitors, such boys as you deem likely to be suited to the office? Do you associate with the office of monitor as many *pleasing* circumstances as you can? Do you pay them? Have they as such the use of the school library? Do you treat them with marked consideration? Do you occasionally accompany them in little excursions, to places in your neighborhood distinguished in history, or for beautiful scenery, or to museums, gardens, &c.? Do you impress on your monitors that they should correct no mistake till they have ascertained that none of the boys in their draft can? Do you exemplify this in your own teaching?

Discipline :

Is order the *habit* of your school? Have you perfect *quietness* during writing? Do you *drill* your boys occasionally, with a view to securing habits of prompt obedience? Do you have the movements to and from the desks made in an orderly way? Do you generally have the tables *repeated* or sung simultaneously at this time? Do you sometimes have the movements made with perfect quietness, as a means of discipline? Are all the exercises conducted as *quietly* as is consistent with the full development of the powers of the children? Do you have all those subjects which depend for their improvement upon *practice*, such as reading, spelling, &c., taught *individually*? Is every exercise conducted *under observation*, that the boys may feel that any inattention or disorder is certain of detection?

* Many of the points suggested here are as important in connexion with other kinds of teaching as in collective; but as the evils of neglecting them would be increased in proportion to the number taught, it has been deemed advisable to throw them under this head.

Have all the children at all times something to do, and a motive for doing it?

Do you abstain from giving a second command till the *first* has been obeyed?

Do you abstain from *calling out*, except on quite necessary occasions?

In stopping or directing the whole school, do you give your commands so loud as to be heard by all, and no louder?

Are you *strict*, without being *severe*?

If you find the general discipline becoming at all lax, do you have those exercises which are most faulty, gone through as you wish them, *after* the regular school hours?

Habits of the School :

Is your room *clean*?

Do you have it well *swept*, and *dusted* every day?

Do you see all the school *furniture* put in its proper place, before you leave the school-room?

Is your room well *ventilated*?

Do the boys exhibit *subdued* and *gentle manners* in their intercourse with each other?

Are the boys generally *clean* in their *persons* and *dress*?

Do you carefully prevent *idling* about the school, or in or near the gates, &c., or in the playground?

Are your boys orderly and *respectful* to their superiors?

Do you discourage *tale-telling*, except in reference to very serious faults?

Do you keep your drafts of about a *uniform size*, not less than nine, nor more than twelve?

Do you take care that boys of the same class are of about the same *attainments*, and in a collective lesson of the same *mental capacity*?

Have you the *form* of the drafts distinctly *marked* on the floor, by cutting into it, painting it, or letting a wire into it?

Examinations :

Have you *stated periods* of examination, in order to the removal of the competent to higher classes?

Do the children *know* these *periods*, that they may work with a view to them?

Are the intervals between these periods of such *moderate length* in a child's estimation, as to influence his exertions?

Have the parents any means of knowing when their children are advanced?

Have you an evening examination, at least once a year, for the parents and friends of the children?

General :

Do you require every *error* to be *corrected* by the boy *making it*, after it has been corrected by another?

Is every matter *explained before* it is committed to memory?

Do you keep up your connexion with the *old scholars*, by occasional meetings, or in any other way? Are they allowed the use of the school library?

Do your children *love* you? Have you a strong *sympathy* for children, and pleasure in their company?

Is your teaching *intellectual*? Do the children really *understand* what they are learning? Do you make every subject taught a means of *intellectual development*?

Do your children come to school *regularly* and in time?

Do you give time and attention to subjects according to their *relative importance*? e. g. Reading above every thing, the history and circumstances of your own town or locality in preference to more distant parts?

Do you rather aim at giving the boys a *good* acquaintance with a *few* subjects, than a very superficial acquaintance with many?

Are your exercises generally characterized by *little repeating* and *much questioning*?

Do you keep a *register* of the *attendances* of the children, and of their school *payments*?

Do you rest satisfied if you obtain an *answer* to a question *from one*, or do you repeat and remodel the question till the matter is *understood by all*? Do you impress this maxim upon your monitors, *that all teaching is for the whole class*?

Model School.

The "Boys' School" connected with this establishment probably stands unrivalled in England, as a model of order and discipline, and of the collective instruction of a large number of children on the monitorial system. It is composed of 760 boys, from the age of six to twelve or thirteen years. The register is always full, and the attendance is regular and punctual, (averaging daily 700,) although the children are gathered from one of the poorest neighborhoods of the city. The school is not free, (except when there are more than two from the same family,) and yet being *good*, there is no difficulty in collecting in advance the fee of 2*d.* per week. On account of the large number of classes into which the school is divided the normal pupils enjoy unrivalled opportunities, both of observation and practice of the method of instruction pursued, which are not exclusively

monitorial, but a mixed system of the monitorial and simultaneous, in which, however, the monitorial is the ground-work of the whole.

Female Department of the Normal School.

The mode of obtaining admission, conditions, organization and instruction of this department are substantially the same as those in the male department. The immediate class instruction and practice are conducted under female teachers, while the pupils of this department attend daily in the theatre, or lecture hall on the lectures on the art of teaching given to the young men. In addition to, or modification of the course pursued by the young men, the female Normal pupils are instructed in the art of teaching needle-work; in the best method of training girls to household duties; and especially in those methods of communicating religious knowledge, which, under the blessing of God, are most likely not only to make the young acquainted with, and interested in Holy Scripture, but to bring them practically under the influence of its sacred truths.

Mr. Fletcher, in his Report describes a peculiar practice of the Model Girls' School:—

Nor must I omit from express notice the perfect system of industrial instruction in needlework, and the economy of clothing, through which the whole school is passed. The outline of it given in the Society's "Manual of the System of Teaching in the Model Girls' School," is no paper theory, but a simple description of a well-ordered and vigorous set of classes, embracing the whole school, for an hour and a half every morning. "When at needlework the children are seated at desks, arranged in classes, according to their proficiency. The first or lowest class is seated further from the platform, and the others, in numerical order, in front of it. The number of classes depends on the different kinds of work taught in the school, each kind occupying a separate class. The number in general use is 11. From the higher classes the best workers are selected for monitors; two are appointed for each class. One instructs for one week, whilst the other is at work under the direction of her monitor; consequently each superintends the class and works alternately; and each monitor continues at the same desk until she is appointed monitor to a higher class. Every girl continues to sit at the same desk while she remains in the class. There are also two platform monitors, who alternately superintend and work one week. But all the monitors of classes, and the girls under their care, are under the superintendence of the general monitor. Every Friday morning the girls are allowed to bring their own work.

The children in the higher classes are provided with lap-bags, made of brown holland. These are marked 1, 2, 3, &c., for as many as the desk contains. The number of the desk is also marked upon them; thus 5 signifies that the bag belongs to the fifth girl in the eighth desk. Before the children take their seats, the bags are placed by the platform monitor on the class monitor's desks, and by them given to their girls. The class work and all garments in hand, are collected by the class monitors, and placed on the ends of the desks ready for the platform monitor to deliver to the mistress. The monitor of each desk is furnished with a pair of scissors, thread-paper, needle-case, and a bag large enough to contain all the implements that belong to her desk. They are also supplied with a few thimbles and needles, for which they are responsible to the platform monitor. The children in the lower classes use colored cotton for the class work, as it renders the stitches more conspicuous, and consequently facilitates general inspection. It also excites an interest, as the promise of a choice of some pretty color is a strong inducement to a child to perform her work neatly.

At the time assigned for closing the labor of the morning reading drafts,

viz., at a quarter past 10 o'clock, the general monitor rings the bell as a signal for the business of the drafts to cease; and, after a pause, the command is given for the girls to turn to the right or to the left, as the order may be. The order is then given, and the whole of the children walk in a line along the passage round the school, and each girl, as she comes to the end of it, steps in behind the desk to which she belongs, and goes to her proper place at the desk. Each monitor does the same, taking her place at the head of the desk. Each child being now opposite to her own slate, a command is given to take their seats, which they do instantly.

A signal is now given for the monitors to distribute the bags, after which they return to their seats, and another signal is given for each girl to tie her own bag to the desk before her. A signal is again given for the monitors to examine their girls' hands to see if they are clean, and that each is provided with a needle and thimble. The platform monitor now supplies the class monitors with any additional work they may require for their girls, which the class monitors give out; also a needleful of cotton to each child, and then return to their seats. A command is now given for the whole school to show work, that is, to hold it up in their left hand to see that each is furnished with work. The bell is then rung, each child holds down her work and immediately begins; and the monitors pass down the desks to instruct them. When a child wants work she holds up her left hand as an intimation to her monitor, who steps forward and supplies her. If a monitor wants a fresh supply she makes a like signal to the platform monitor. When a girl wants thread she holds up her right hand, and her monitor supplies her. If a monitor wants a fresh supply she makes a like signal to the platform monitor. At half past 11 o'clock the mistress examines the work of each child; those who merit rewards have a ticket, and those who have been careless and inattentive forfeit one, or are confined after school.

At a quarter before 12 the bell rings for the girls to show work, and the monitors to pass down the desks and collect the needles and thimbles. An order is then given for the children to put the class work into the bags, and the monitors to collect all articles in hand, and deliver them to the platform monitor, who takes them to the platform. The monitors then take their seats. The order is now given to untie bags, when each child unties her own; a second order is given to take them off; and a third, to fold them up. Each child folds her own neatly, with the number in view, places it on the desk before her, and puts her hands behind her. The bell then rings for the monitors to collect bags, which they do, placing them one on the other in order; they then put them neatly into the bag belonging to their desk; also their scissors, thread-papers, needles and thimbles. The monitors are then ordered to the platform with their bags, where they deliver them to the platform monitor. They then return to their seats, and the report of the good and inattentive girls is read aloud by the monitor-general; the good receive tickets, and the negligent must either forfeit tickets or stay in after school hours. As soon as the reports are taken, all the children are exercised out of their seats, to stand each opposite to her own slate, with her hands behind her. A signal is given for the girls to turn, when they are dismissed in order, one class following the other in a line along the sides of the school."

For the details of the instruction in each class, I must refer you to the "Manual." The first class is for hemming, in two divisions, one composed of those who have not learned to fix a hem, and who are taught on waste paper, as being less expensive than linen or cotton, and answering the purpose just as well; and a second, in which they practice hemming on small pieces of calico. The second class, also in two divisions, is for

sewing and felling, and running and felling; first division learning to fix their work in paper, and the second to execute it. The third class is for drawing threads and stitching; the fourth for gathering and fixing gathers; the fifth, for button-holes; the sixth, for making buttons and sewing them on; the seventh, for herring-bone stitching; the eighth, for darning; the ninth, for making tucks, and whipping; and the tenth, for marking. The eleventh is the finishing class. There is at present no knitting or netting class; and fancy work is expressly excluded and discouraged.

"As it is highly desirable that the children, as soon as they have learned to work, should be employed in something useful, this class comprises the girls who have passed through the preceding, and are here engaged in making and completing garments. The children in this class are taught economy in purchasing, cutting out, and repairing various articles of wearing apparel; they are made acquainted with the waste occasioned by the want of proper consideration and exactness in domestic arrangements, and the miseries frequently produced by mismanagement and inattention. In order to impress upon their minds this useful branch of female instruction, they are interrogated, in various ways, on the common concerns of life. When the teacher proposes a question, she waits until each child in the class has had an opportunity of returning an answer, according to the knowledge she possesses. She then comments upon each of these answers in a way that will enable the *children* to decide which is the most suitable course. To assist the teachers in these exercises, they are furnished with a few examples of questions and answers, which they may carry out to a much greater extent." These also will be found in the "Manual," together with engraved patterns for cutting out the commonest garments. The highest industrial section of the school forms in fact a class for collective teaching of the most practical and improving kind, including as many ideas on household management generally as can be conveyed. Specimens of needlework, made up in portfolios for the use of teachers, and arranged in the order of the above classes, are sold at the Society's Depository; and the beautiful patterns of every variety of garment, made up in tissue paper by the finishing class against the time of the annual meeting, are quite little works of art.

The propriety and industry exhibited throughout these industrial classes is as perfect as their system; and a student teacher in each class has the advantage of co-operating in, and doing as much as she can of, the work of superintending each successive class, from the lowest upwards; the sewing classes, in this respect, presenting no peculiarity distinguishing them from those devoted to other exercises. The discipline and moral tone of this school present throughout a standard well worthy of its exemplar character. It has a library of above 250 carefully selected volumes, besides a small library of reference for its monitors. Great advantage, too, must arise from a certain small proportion of the children being retained in connexion with the institution until a riper age, and even then not giving up their intercourse with it. In fact, the whole department is a family as much as a school; and no higher praise can possibly be bestowed upon it.

Art of Teaching and Governing a School.

Three hours and a half each day are devoted by the female students to practice in monitorial or gallery teaching in the Girls' Model School; and in alternate weeks another hour and a half is given daily, by each of the two classes, to the practical labors of the needlework drafts. At the close of the afternoon's gallery lesson, they all adjourn to the theatre, on the back seats of which they take their places to hear the criticism on the gallery lesson which has been given by one of the young men, followed by the lecture on "pedagogy" for the day, in the course already described.

A like criticism of the afternoon's gallery teaching, and of the draft teaching for the day, in the model girls' school, is taken on the opening of the evening classes. It is conducted with some spirit, and the concluding remarks of the normal school teacher, Miss Drew, are exceedingly acute and judicious. A weekly conversational lecture occupies two hours of every Saturday morning, and is given by the experienced superintendent, Mrs. Mac Rae, to the whole of the female student teachers, seated at their needlework in the gallery. The following are the heads of her course :—

1. On the various motives for entering on the profession of a teacher.
2. On some of the essential moral qualifications of a teacher.
3. On the selection of monitors.
4. On organizing a new school.
5. On training monitors.
6. On teaching the elements of reading, with illustrations of the method of using the First Lesson Book.
7. On the various methods of teaching spelling, with illustrations.
8. On training suitable monitors to assist in teaching needlework.
9. On teaching arithmetic.
10. On domestic economy and orderly habits.
11. On school furniture, and the order of a school-room.
12. On the cleanliness of a school-room, and ventilation.
13. On the duties of monitors.
14. On the various offices in the school.
15. On improving an old school.
16. On the judicious treatment of the monitors.
17. On the duties of a teacher to the committee, and to the parents of the children.
18. On a week's occupation in the model school, and the advantages of cultivating a spirit of inquiry.

These lessons of the superintendent, *applying* all which the students are learning in the normal school, to the circumstances into which they are about to be introduced, are highly interesting, vividly instructive, and imbued with a truly Christian spirit. Drawing from the experiences of a quick and refined perception, they embody indeed practical lessons of adherence, to unflinching truth and untiring patience, from which others than teachers might profit. The following is the Examination Paper on the Art of Teaching and Governing in a School, answered by Ann Inglefield, 25th March, 1837 :—

1. How will a teacher best establish her authority in a school?—By firmness, joined with kindness of manner and impartiality in all her conduct; giving her commands clearly and definitely; expecting prompt and cheerful obedience; let the children see that principle governs her conduct; this, with good information and a pleasing manner of communicating, are not likely to fail of success in establishing the authority of a teacher in her school.
2. What will especially demand your vigilance in giving a collective lesson?—That the attention of the children be kept alive by the interesting information and manner of the teacher; that the supervision be constant, and the order preserved.
3. How will you endeavor to have good monitors?—By efficient training and interesting them in the work, imparting to them superior information, and reposing confidence in them when found worthy.
4. State some of the uses of the monitorial system, and of the defects which may be indulged under it?—A greater number of children can be instructed at one time than by one individual. The monitors acquire the art of communicating the information they gain; they must be examples to their drafts; and by these means they are likely to prove, as they grow up, more useful members of society.
- The defect would arise from the mistress indulging self-ease and neglecting her monitors, or leaving too much of the school duties to them.
5. How will you endeavor to get good reading in a school?—By attending to the punctuation, emphasis, rising and falling inflection, aspirates and non-aspirates, and tones of the voice.
6. What will demand especial attention in the arithmetic classes?—That the children perfectly understand the rules and their uses.
7. How will you convey to children the first notions of geography?—By illustration, as describing the earth by an orange.
8. What powers of the mind should an object lesson be directed to cultivate?—Observation, attention, reflection.

It is difficult to imagine a combination of advantages greater than that enjoyed by the student teachers in the female department of this institution, including, as it does, the animated and faithful instruction of the principal

teacher of the normal school and the vice-principal of the companion department, the lectures on teaching and governing in a school, delivered to the students in both departments by the principal and vice-principal of the normal school for young men, an admirable model school, and the faithful counsels conveyed by the superintendent in her daily management and weekly addresses. The effect of this combination is indeed very marked, if the superior activity and orderliness of mind shown by the senior over the junior section, during my presence in the school, afford any fair measure of its amount. Considering however, that the female students, though as much instructed as the male students, and possessed of superior manners, are yet not generally equal to them in physical resources, and in the enthusiastic energy which brings a considerable proportion of the latter into the field of instruction, it is not less to be regretted in their case than in the male department, that the young teachers have not the advantages of a longer stay to strengthen their acquirements, their capacities of teaching, and, I might even add, their general character, before they enter upon the arduous duties of their very responsible situations. The time of their stay is far too short to accomplish all that is desirable in these respects; although the means provided are, I sincerely believe, sufficient, with God's blessing, to render them able, modest, and Christian teachers. Among the circumstances incidentally conducive to this result, I would recall especial attention to the fair proportion of *pupil* teachers to be found in the model school, at the head of the monitor's class, giving a moral firmness, as well as intellectual strength, to its organization, eminently beneficial to the *student* teachers, at the same time that they enjoy the further advantage of the head teachers of the normal and model schools themselves daily superintending, correcting, and teaching in the classes.

It is a leading object in the management of this institution to train up a race of teachers who shall not only elevate the office by the respectability of their attainments, but adorn it by the fervor of their poetry. Each candidate is presented, on admission, with a copy of the following hints, accompanying the regulations to which he will be expected to attend :

I. *Let your mind frequently and seriously revert to the OBJECTS which are to be obtained by your residence in the Society's House.*—You have at once to acquire and to communicate, to learn and to teach, to govern and to submit to government; and you have to do this, not in relation to one mind only, but to many minds,—of different quality, under varying circumstances,—as an exemplar, and as subordinate to others. You have MUCH to do. Therefore—

II. *Redeem your Time.*—Do not think it sufficient to attend regularly and diligently to *appointed* studies, but improve the intervals of time which will necessarily elapse between these stated employments. Secure the minutes, for minutes compose hours. Ten minutes, diligently improved every day, will amount to an hour in the course of a week; and an hour thus redeemed every day, will be equal in value to no small portion of a year.

III. *Cultivate Habits of Order.*—Avoid negligence in personal appearance. Be always neat and clean in your apparel. Let those pursuits which are most important in reference to your expected engagements receive the greatest share of your attention; and never suffer these to be interrupted or superseded by others of a more general nature. Do not allow levity and trifling to usurp the place of rational cheerfulness. "Avoid the very appearance of evil." Attend to all established regulations. He who wilfully breaks rules which are calculated to promote the welfare of the community to which he belongs, is the common enemy of all.

IV. *Cherish a kind and friendly disposition towards your Associates.*—Let this be shown by a general spirit of courtesy,—a willingness to assist where help may be needed, and especially by the communication to others of any knowledge you may exclusively possess. Manifest a decided disapprobation of unbecoming conduct wherever you observe it; and, jealous for the honor of the body to which you belong, endeavor to stimulate every pupil to diligence and zeal in the pursuit of those great objects for the attainment of which all are alike receiving the countenance and aid of the Society.

V. *Exercise a constant Spirit of "Watchfulness unto Prayer.*—Remembering that you are responsible to God for the right improvement of the advantages you enjoy, the talents you possess, and the time placed at your disposal; seek daily for "the wisdom which cometh from above," and "the grace which bringeth salvation." Be yourself a diligent and devotional student of that book you are emphatically to teach; and never forget that "all Scripture is given by inspiration of God, and is profitable for doctrine, for reproof, for correction, for instruction in righteousness; that the man of God may be perfect, thoroughly furnished unto good works." (2 Tim. iii. 16, 17.)

Periodical examinations of the student teachers take place in the pre-

sence of the Committee, and upon the results of these examinations its members appear to base their assertion, that by the efforts of the Society, restricted as those efforts may ever have been by external obstacles and internal want of resources, "more elevated views of the teacher's office and duty have been promulgated; a greater moral power has been given to popular instruction; and, as a necessary consequence, the school-master has been in some measure raised in public estimation, though not by any means so much as the importance of the office deserves. Letters from all parts of the country have borne testimony to the patience, diligence, and piety of many of the laborers whom the Society have sent forth. The best evidence, however, of the general satisfaction which has been given, is to be found in the increasing applications for teachers, which pour in from all quarters; a demand largely exceeding the ability of the Committee to supply."

If by any means its resources could be so augmented, and its duties so shared with supplemental institutions, that it could retain its student teachers on terms consistent with their interests and those of the schools to be supplied, for quadruple the time of their present stay,—for two years instead of six months,—such an arrangement alone would ultimately be productive of incalculable advantage to that great branch of the popular education of England which comes under its influence.

The teachers trained in the institution, resident in and near the metropolis, enjoy the advantage of periodical meetings in the theatre of the institution for professional discussions; as likewise of attendance at a course of lectures provided by the Society each winter since 1837, for their gratification and instruction. During the summer vacation a number of male teachers of British schools, from various parts of the country, known to the Committee through their inspectors, as persons who would really profit by such an opportunity for supplemental study, are invited to a rapid course of instruction in the art of teaching and governing in a school, and to take up their residence in the Society's house during its continuance. This opportunity of revising and improving upon their actual methods is of great value; and those who have enjoyed the advantages of it are warm in acknowledging them. Indeed, the British school teachers throughout the kingdom generally, maintain relations with the parent Society, because it is the centre of all applications for new teachers, and, therefore, the principal source of promotion.



NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS,

OF THE

HOME AND COLONIAL INFANT AND JUVENILE SCHOOL SOCIETY.

The Home and Colonial Infant and Juvenile School Society, under whose auspices the Normal and Model Schools described below are conducted, was founded in 1836, and has since that time educated upwards of two thousand teachers for Infant and Juvenile Schools. The Committee in their first Report, made in February, 1837, state with much force the reasons that suggested the formation of the Society. "The Committee may without fear of contradiction assert, that few situations in life require so much discretion, so much energy, so much tenderness, so much self-control, and love, as that of a teacher of babes; that to guide and govern an infant-school well calls for wisdom to discern, versatility to modify, firmness to persevere, judgment to decide; and they may add that no uneducated or undisciplined mind can supply the incessant care, the watchful diligence, the unwearied patience necessary to manage young children."

One of the first duties of the Committee of the Society was to reduce infant instruction to a system, the necessity for which must have been obvious to all who have observed the trifling desultory way in which infant schools were too often conducted by untrained teachers. For this purpose it was absolutely necessary to found a model infant-school, and also to prepare a set of text-books for the use of teachers. Both these objects were carried out, and the Society having constantly kept in view the necessity of improving their system, now possess an admirable Model Infant School, a Juvenile School for children between six and ten years, in which the plan adopted with the infants is carried out in its development with those of riper years; and have published a series of text-books for the use of infant-teachers, obviously drawn up with the utmost care, and excellently fitted for the purpose in view.

The establishment is located in Grays Inn Road, and contains accommodation for a Model Infant School for children between the ages of two and six; for a Juvenile Model School for children between the age of six and sixteen, and for sixty persons sent to be trained as teachers. The following documents, published by the Society, exhibit the qualifications of candidates, and the course of instruction pursued in both the Model School, and the Training Department.

Qualifications of Candidates who enter the Institution to be recommended by the Committee to Schools, and the Conditions under which they are admitted.

The Committee receive into their Institution, in Gray's Inn Road, near King's Cross, for a limited period, persons either desirous to enter for the first time upon the work, or those who, having engaged in it, feel their own deficiency, and are anxious for improvement.

In order to prevent disappointment and mistakes, the Committee think it necessary to state what they consider the necessary qualifications of candidates, and the conditions under which they are received.

Qualifications.—1. *Religious and Moral Principles.*—As the primary object of early education is to cultivate religious principles and moral sentiments; to awaken the tender mind to a sense of its evil dispositions and habitual failings, before it is become callous by its daily intercourse with vice; and to lead it to that Saviour who so tenderly received such little ones, and blessed them; to accustom them to trace the hand of their heavenly Father in his works of providence and grace; and to be impressed with the truth that his eye is ever upon them; since such is the *primary object*, an object which if unattempted, early education is valueless; the Committee consider that, in addition to an unimpeachable and moral character, *decided piety* is indispensable, and that without it no teacher can be fitted for the work.

2. *Natural Disposition and Abilities.*—There are certain qualifications of temper looked for in the teacher of young children. The power of sympathy is felt by all, but its effect upon children is almost incalculable; on this account an animated lively manner, tempered by self-possession, and a cheerful good humor, combined with gentle firmness, are very important. To these should be added, that natural fondness for children which leads to a participation in all their little pleasures and pains, and bears patiently with their infirmities and ill humors. It is also particularly necessary that *infant* school teachers should possess an aptitude to teach, the ability of drawing out and directing the powers of children, a quickness of perception to see the effect of the instruction they are giving, and a readiness in availing themselves of accidental circumstances to awaken moral sentiment, or draw out some intellectual faculty.

Acquirements.—It would be desirable that a candidate should be able to read, to write a tolerable hand, to sing, should know the simple rules of arithmetic, be well acquainted with the Word of God, and possess some information in grammar, geography, and natural history.

It will be seen that they think the office of teacher requires certain indispensable natural qualifications and some attainments; and, having this opinion, the Committee would earnestly entreat those interested in the cause of early education to patronize only such persons as their judgment can fully approve, every facility for the improvement of those who devote themselves to the work being now afforded on reasonable terms.

Conditions.—1. The Committee receive candidates in the first instance on probation; and on or before the expiration of a month, their qualifications are reported on by the superintendent in communication with the master of the model school; and if the report be satisfactory, they are allowed to continue; if not, they leave the Institution.

2. All candidates who are to be recommended to schools are to remain twenty-four weeks in the house, and the Committee can not receive any who will not come in for that time. The wives of married candidates remain such time as the Committee decide in each case, if they can not remain—as it is much to be desired that they should—the whole time.

3. The charge is reduced to 7s. a week, making £8 8s. for the twenty-four weeks, which includes every expense, except washing.

4. Married men are now admitted to be trained as teachers of juvenile schools, without their wives, on the above terms, viz. 7s. a week, for twenty-four weeks, finding their own lodgings.

5. Unmarried men are not trained in the Institution.

6. Six young females, not exceeding seventeen years of age, are received as pupil teachers for one, two, or three years, according to their age, at an annual charge of £25, which includes washing and books.

7. The admission of teachers for short periods having been found very inconvenient to the arrangements of the Institution, and attended with comparatively little benefit, the Committee do not receive teachers for less than six weeks, unless they have actually the care of schools, and are, in consequence, unable to remain for that time.

8. The return of teachers to the Institution contributing greatly to their improvement, the Committee agree to allow all teachers who have been regularly trained there to re-enter for one month, at a charge of £1 only, or six weeks for £1 10s., whether the money is paid by the teachers or from school funds.

COURSE of INSTRUCTION for the TEACHERS in training at the HOME and COLONIAL INFANT and JUVENILE SCHOOL SOCIETY.

I. SCRIPTURE.—The authenticity of the Bible and the evidences of Christianity; a general view of the different books of the Bible; a daily Scripture text with remarks, chiefly of a practical nature; instruction in the most important doctrines of the Bible to promote real religion, the lessons especially bearing upon the duties and trials of teachers.

II. WRITING AND SPELLING.

III. LANGUAGE.—Grammar; etymology; composition.

IV. NUMBER.—Mental arithmetic; ciphering.

V. FORM.—Lines and angles; superficies; solids.

VI. NATURAL HISTORY.—Mammals; birds; plants.

VII. ELEMENTARY DRAWING.—For the cultivation of taste and invention; as an imitative art.

VIII. VOCAL MUSIC.—Singing; the notation of music.

IX. GEOGRAPHY.—A general view of the world; England and its colonies; Palestine.

X. OBJECTS.—The parts, qualities, and uses of common objects; the essential properties of matter.

XI.—EDUCATIONAL LESSONS.—Principles of education as founded on the nature of children; on the government of children, and moral training; on subjects for lessons; on graduated instruction; on methods of teaching; on writing and giving lessons.

XII. PHYSICAL EXERCISES.

First or Lowest Class.—Six Weeks.

The students in this class are chiefly occupied in receiving instruction for their own improvement, with a view to their future training.

H. M.

Morning.

8 15. The business of the day is commenced with a text from Scripture, and remarks. This is followed by an educational motto, setting forth some principle or practice of education, on which a few remarks are also made.

8 30. A lesson on Scripture.

9 15. Practice in singing pieces from "Hymns and Poetry."

9 30. A lesson on objects, or the properties of matter.

10 30. Recreation.

10 45. Observing a lesson given to the children in one of the practicing schools by the superintendent of those schools.

11 30. A lesson on language.

12 30. Dismissal.

Afternoon.

2 0. A lesson previously given in the preparatory or practising schools, examined as to its object, and the method of giving it.

3 0. A lesson on number.

4 0. A lesson in singing and the notation of music, or in drawing, for the cultivation of taste and invention.

5 0. Walking exercise on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

5 30. Dismissal on Tuesday and Thursday.

Evening.

6 30. Scripture instruction, or analyzing lessons in "Model Lessons."

7 30. Entering heads of lessons in note-books.

9 15. Dismissal.

Saturday.

8 15. A Scripture text and educational motto, as on the previous days.

8 30. Scripture instruction.

9 30. Gymnastics, under a drill-sergeant.

10 30. Scripture instruction.

11 30. Entering heads of lessons in note-books.

Note.—The afternoon of Saturday is a holiday for all the teachers in the Institution.

Second Class.—Twelve Weeks.

As the students now begin what may properly be called their *training*, more time is appropriated to the principles and practice of early education.

H. M.

Morning.

8 15. A Scripture text and educational motto as to the lowest class.

8 30. A lesson to the upper section of the class in geography, or on the principles and practice of early education, and to the lower section on Scripture.

9 15. A lesson on number or drawing as an imitative art.

10 0. In charge of classes of children in the schools, or a continuation of the lesson on drawing.

10 45. A lesson on the principles and practice of early education.

11 30. Attending and remarking on gallery lessons given by students of the class.

12 30. Dismissal.

H. M.	Afternoon.
2	0. In charge of classes of children in the schools.
2	30. Observing a lesson given to the children by the mistress of the infant school.
3	0. Drawing up sketches of lessons, or analyzing lessons in "Model Lessons," or other exercises of the same kind.
4	0. Notation of music, or practising drawing.
5	0. Walking exercise on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.
	Evening.
6	30. A lesson on Scripture, or natural history.
7	30. Entering notes in daily journals.*
9	15. Dismissal.
	Saturday.
8	15. A Scripture text and educational motto, as in the other days of the week.
8	30. A lesson to the upper section of the class on geography, and to the lower section on Scripture.
9	30. Gymnastics.
10	30. A lesson on Scripture.
11	30. Entering notes in daily journals.

Third Class.—Six Weeks.

The previous instruction and practice of the students is now brought to bear upon the government of large numbers of children, and the time is chiefly employed as assistants in the schools, or in taking the entire management of one of the small practicing schools. When they are not so employed, their time is occupied as follows, viz. :

H. M.	Morning.
8	15. A Scripture text and educational motto.
8	30. A lesson on the principles and practice of early education, or on geography.
9	15. In the schools employed as general assistants.
12	30. Dismissal.
	Afternoon.
2	0. In the schools as before.
5	0. Dismissal.
	Evening.
6	30. A lesson on natural history or Scripture.
7	30. Entering notes in daily journals.
9	15. Dismissal.
	Saturday.
8	15. A Scripture text and educational motto.
8	30. A lesson on geography.
9	30. Gymnastics.
10	30. A Scripture lesson.
11	30. Entering notes in daily journals.

Time allotted to each subject of study.

The following table exhibits the time weekly allotted in the different classes to each subject of study, and also the average weekly time.

	First or Lowest Class.		Second Class.		Third Class.		Average Weekly	
	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	
I. General Improvement :—Scripture	8	30	7	0	7	0	3	45
Writing and spelling, reports of lessons, &c.	10	30	12	30	12	30	10	30
Language	6	15	2	15	0	0	0	0
Number and form	5	0	0	0	2	15	0	0
Natural history	0	0	3	0	3	0	3	0
Geography, including the Holy Land	0	0	1	0	1	15	2	30
Objects	6	15	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vocal music	4	15	3	0	3	0	0	0
Drawing	3	0	5	0	5	0	0	0
Gymnastics and walking exercise	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
II. Lessons on the principles and practice of early education	11	15	12	30	12	45	3	0
III. Practice in the Schools :—Taking charge of classes, and afterwards of galleries of children	0	0	4	0	4	0	0	0
Giving an opinion on the lessons of other teachers, Giving lessons publicly	0	0	4	30	4	30	0	0
Attending as assistants in the schools	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	15
Having the sole charge of schools under inspection	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Recapitulation :—General improvement	44	45	35	0	31	45	23	45
Principles and practice of education	11	15	12	30	12	45	3	0
School practice	0	0	8	30	8	30	32	15
Total number of hours weekly	56	0	56	0	56	0	56	0

* Much time and attention are given to these journals, both by the students and those who instruct them, as well as by the ladies of the Committee, to whom they are sent for examination.

It is deemed unnecessary to give any syllabus of the courses of ordinary instruction, but the following syllabus of lessons on the principles and practice of early education, is annexed, as it shows what is in some degree peculiar to this institution.

First Course.

It is a distinctive feature at this course that the ideas are chiefly gained from examples presented to the students. The lessons are mainly explanatory of the examples.

I. Lesson on the daily routine of employment in the Institution. The instructions by the committee for students. General rules and regulations.

II. Examination and analysis of lessons from "Model Lessons," viz.:-

- Lessons on objects, Part I. p. 51-93.
- " color, Part I. p. 149-157.
- " animals, Part I. p. 160-165.
- " number, Part I. p. 103-140.
- Scripture Lessons, Part III. p. 1-28.

III. Drawing out sketches of lessons on various subjects, after the example of those analyzed.

I.—*On Objects.*

- 1. On a shell or leaf, according to the model of a lesson on a feather.
- 2. Copper or iron " " lead.
- 3. Tea or sealing wax " " loaf sugar.
- 4. Vinegar or ink " " milk
- 5. Recapitulation.
- 6. Parchment " " paper.
- 7. Cloth " " leather.
- 8. Pipeclay " " chalk.
- 9. Wood or rice " " coal
- 10. Recapitulation.
- 11. A candle or hammer " " lead.
- 12. A turnip or acorn " " a rose-leaf.
- 13. An egg " " honeycomb.
- 14. A bird or bee " " a butterfly.
- 15. Recapitulation.

II.—*On Animals.*

- 1. Sheep . model—hare.
- 2. Goat . model—cow.

III.—*On Color.*

- 1. The color blue . model—red.
- 2. Color yellow . model—green.

IV. Lessons in which "Practical Remarks" form the text-book.

V. On the art of questioning children, and on the different methods of giving lessons.

The students afterwards draw out lessons in full, according to models given.

VI. On the best method of drawing out children's observation upon the objects around them, and upon the circumstances in which they are placed, and on fixing the knowledge so gained in the mind.

VII. The characteristics of young children that must be kept in view and acted upon, in order to secure their attention, to interest them in their lessons, and to gain ascendancy over them.

- 1. Love of activity.
- 2. Love of imitation.
- 3. Curiosity, or love of knowledge.
- 4. Susceptibility to kindness and sympathy.
- 5. Deficiency in the power of attention.
- 6. The love of frequent change.
- 7. The force of early association.
- 8. Disposition to repeat the means by which they have once attained their ends.

VIII. On the senses, and the use to be made of them in early education.

IX. The gallery lessons given to the children of the preparatory or practicing schools, as to the subjects, the manner of treating them, and their bearing upon the education of the children.

First Preparatory School.—1. Form—1st step.

2. Color—1st and 2nd step.
3. Size—1st step.
4. Actions—1st step.
5. Human body—1st step.
6. Objects—1st step.
7. Number—1st step.
8. Religious instruction—1st step.
9. Sounds—1st step.

Second Preparatory School.—1. Form—2nd step.

2. Color—3rd and 4th step.
3. Size—2nd step.
4. Actions—2nd step.
5. Place—1st step.
6. Objects—2nd step.
7. Animals—2nd step.
8. Number—2nd and 3rd step.
9. Moral instruction—2nd step.
10. Religious instruction—2nd step.
11. Sounds—2nd step.

X. A general view of the different subjects of instruction in the preparatory schools, with a view to lead the students to draw from them principles and plans of teaching.

Second Course.

I. Instructions on familiar or conversational lessons, and on the subjects chosen for these lessons, in the preparatory schools.

II. Analysis of lessons in "Model Lessons."

1. Form, Part II. p. 150-226.
2. The human body, Part I. p. 24-50.
3. A flower, Part II. p. 65-76.
4. Scripture lessons, Part II. p. 1-21.
5. Bible examination, Part II. p. 125-132.

III. Drawing up sketches of lessons in writing, according to a given model, first, singly, and then in a series or course.

Objects.

1. On sugar, after the model of the lesson on bread.
2. Spices and liquids " " corns.
3. Leather and silk " " cotton.

Animals.

1. On a tiger Model—A pheasant
2. The elephant and the cat " A pig.
3. Different kinds of teeth " Different kinds of feet of animals.
4. Comparison of parts of a quadruped and bird. " Hand and foot.

Scripture Illustrations.

1. The sun and the dew. Model—The rainbow.
2. Sheep—lion " The vine.
3. Fishermen of Galilee " The shepherds of Judæa.

Scripture Narratives.

1. On the Prodigal Son, and on } Model—Joseph's forgiveness
2. The Brazen Serpent } of his brethren.

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| 3. David's Veneration for his King | " | Solomon's respect for his mother. |
| 4. The Nobleman's Son. | " | Mark x. 46 to 52. |

In Series or Course.

1. A variety of sketches, after the model of the lesson on water.
2. A series of sketches on a given subject " on prayer, &c., as in "Model Lessons," Part III. p. 24, &c.
3. A graduated series of sketches on the " on a same subject. straw, a cat, &c.
4. On the subjects appointed for lessons weekly at the different galleries.

IV. Writing out lessons in full on specified subjects—As

1. To develop the idea of Inodorous.
2. " " Pliable.
3. " " Tasteless.
4. " " Soluble and fusible.
5. " " Semitransparent.
6. " " Elastic.
7. " " Aromatic.
8. " " Natural and artificial.
9. " " Lesson on an elephant.
10. " " Comparison of the cow and pig.
11. " " A piece of poetry.
12. " " The rainbow.
13. " " The addition or subtraction of 8.
14. " " Explanation of the terms—sum, remainder, product, quotient.
15. " " Substance of lesson X. in Reiner's "Lessons on Form."
16. " " On the illustration of the general truth, "God is angry with the wicked every day."

Note.—The number of sketches and lessons which the students are enabled to draw out during their training of course depends upon their ability and upon the previous education they have received. Some of these lessons are examined publicly, that their excellencies or errors may be pointed out for the improvement of the class, the name of the writer being withheld.

V.—*Gallery Lessons.*—With reference to the Gallery Lessons, instructions are given on the following points:—

1. The sketch.
2. The subject-matter.
3. The summary.
4. The application of a moral subject.
5. On maintaining order and interest.
6. The exercise of the minds of the children, and the knowledge gained.
7. The manner of the teacher.
8. Voice—pronunciation.
9. Importance of attention to the whole gallery of children.
10. On the use to be made of incidental circumstances.
11. On the questions to the children.
12. Mechanical plans.

VI.—On the subjects taught in the schools, their suitability to the children, and the mode of treating them:—

1. Color.
2. Form.
3. Size.
4. Weight.
5. Physical actions and operations.

6. Number.
7. Place, as preparatory to geography.
8. Sounds, as preparatory to singing and the notation of music.
9. Objects, including models of common utensils.
10. Teaching by pictures of common objects, and drawing objects before children.
11. The human body.
12. Animals.
13. Moral instruction.
14. Religious instruction.
15. Teaching pieces of poetry.
16. Drawing and writing.
17. Reading and spelling.
18. Language, including composition, grammar, and the explanation of words.
19. Number, form and language, as the elements of intellectual instruction.
20. Summary of the principles learnt in considering the subjects of lessons for infants.
21. Drawing out sketches of the different methods of giving lessons, and the uses to be made of them, showing which are bad and which are good, and those suitable to different subjects.

VII.—Miscellaneous:—

1. A course of educational mottoes.
2. On intuitive knowledge and early development.
3. On principles and plans of education.
4. Anecdotes of occurrences in the school, brought forward with a view to form right principles of moral training and intellectual development.
5. On the play-ground, especially in reference to its influence in the intellectual and moral training of children.

Third Course.

I.—The practice of the school-room, and the principles on which it should be regulated:—

The school-room and its apparatus, including library, collection of objects &c.

The opening and general arrangements of a school.

Attendance, and the best method of raising and filling a school.

Admission payment, and first treatment of children.

General order and quietness.

The physical state of the children, health, cleanliness, neatness.

The exercises of the school-room and play-ground.

The division of time, and the subjects of lessons in a school.

Modes of leading elder scholars to work, independently of the master's direct teaching.

The government of a school with respect to its spirit and plans.

The influence of numbers in teaching and moral training.

Rewards, punishments, emulation.

Assistance, including paid assistants and monitors; the monitorial system.

The defects and advantages of the individual, and simultaneous methods of instruction, and the use of the ellipses.

Examinations by the teacher, for parents and for subscribers.

Holidays.

II.—Points respecting teachers:—

The intellectual and moral qualifications of a teacher, and the circumstances which affect him in his labors.

The conduct of teachers to parents, committees, inspectors, and the public.

The means by which teachers may carry on their own improvement.

III.—On the mental and moral constitution of children with reference to the principles on which education should be based :—

Mental.

- The various operations of the mind, intellectual and moral, and the wisdom and goodness of God which they display.
- The dependence of one intellectual faculty upon another, and the necessity for the orderly and progressive development of the whole.
- The intellectual diversities of children, and the method of treating each variety of character.

Moral.

- The importance of moral training on a religious basis, showing how the Bible should be our guide.
- Diversities in the moral character of children, and the method of treating each, viz.,
 - Attachments of children.
 - Anger, and the treatment of passionate children.
 - Quarrelsome children.
 - Children disposed to injure and destroy.
 - Cunning children.
 - Covetous children.
 - Fear, and its use and abuse, as a means of discipline with children.
 - Firmness, and its tendency to become obstinacy.
 - The love of distinction and applause.
 - The cultivation of benevolence.
 - The sense of right and wrong.
 - Respect.
 - Obedience.

IV.—General truths respecting the operations of the minds and moral feelings, and the uses to be made of them in the education of children.

The Graduated Course of Instruction pursued in the Model Schools.

I. RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.—1st step : Moral Impressions.—The children of this gallery are very young, direct religious instruction can scarcely be attempted at first, but their moral sense is to be cultivated, and moral habits formed. For instance, little acts of obedience are to be required from them—their conduct towards each other regulated, and little conversational lessons are to be given upon the kindness of their parents and teachers, with a view to develop the feeling of love, and to instruct them in their duties.

2nd step : First Ideas of God.—The object, as the children advance, is to produce the first impressions of their Heavenly Father—to lead them to feel somewhat of his power from its manifestation in those works of his with which they are familiar; and somewhat of his benevolence, by comparing it with the love shown them by their parents and friends.

3rd step : A Scripture Print.—The story to be gathered from the picture, by directing the attention of the children to it, and by questioning them. A portion of the Scripture should be given, that the children may connect the narrative with the Bible, and receive it as Divine instruction. The children should also be encouraged to make their remarks, by which the teacher may ascertain how far their ideas are correct. The object of the lesson should be to make a religious and moral impression.

4th step : Scripture Narratives.—The incidents or characters should be chose with a view to inculcate some important truth or influential precept. Elliptical teaching should be introduced to help the children to receive the story as a whole, and to sum up the lesson. In giving these lessons, the story itself should be either read from the Bible, or partly read and partly narrated, and pictures only used occasionally, to illustrate and throw interest into the subject. Teachers ought well to consider the different positions that pictures should occupy in the different stages of instruction.

5th step : Scripture Illustrations of Doctrines and Precepts.—Narratives, chosen with a view to inculcate some of the most simple and fundamental doc-

trines of Christianity. For instance, sin, its nature, introduction into the world, its consequences, and the remedy provided for it in the sacrifice of the Saviour. As the children advance, some lessons to be given to illustrate the natural history of the Bible.

NOTE.—In the first or early lessons on Scripture narratives, the truth or precept should be drawn from the story by the children. In the later lessons, the precept or religious truth or duty may be stated as the subject of the lesson, and the children required to discover what Scripture narratives illustrate the truth or precept they are considering.

6th step.—A course from the Bible, or a course on the Natural History of the Bible. On Monday, Scripture geography.

II. OBJECTS.—1st step.—Distinguishing or naming three or four common objects, and telling their uses; or distinguishing and naming the parts of common objects, and stating their uses.

2nd step.—One Object chosen that exhibits in a remarkable degree some particular quality, that the idea of that quality may be developed. Another, having distinct parts, which the children are to discover, and of which they are told the names.

3rd step: One Object.—The children to find out the qualities that can be discovered by the senses alone; also to distinguish and name the parts.

4th step: Miscellaneous Objects, Metals, Earths, Liquids, &c. One Object.—The children to extend their observations to qualities, beyond those which are immediately discoverable by the senses. A little simple information to be given at this stage on the natural history or manufacture of the object, after the children's observation has been called out.

5th step: Several objects.—The children to compare them, and point out their points of resemblance and difference.

III. TOYS.—Model toys of kitchen utensils, common carpenters' tools, &c., naming them, and telling or showing their uses.

IV. PICTURES.—1st step.—Groups of objects or single figures,—naming and talking about them.

2nd step.—Part of the lesson to be on the recollection of a picture used in a former lesson—part on a picture of common objects.

V. HUMAN BODY.—1st step.—Distinguishing the principal parts of the human body, the teacher naming them; or the children exercising any part of the body as directed. This lesson should be accompanied with considerable action, to animate the children.

2nd step.—Distinguishing the secondary parts of the body. This lesson to be extended to the parts of the principal parts of the human body, the teacher continuing to name them: a good deal of action still to be used.

3rd step.—Distinguishing the parts of the principal parts of the human body—the children naming them, and telling their uses.

VI. FORM.—1st step.—Distinguishing the patterns of shapes for the purpose of developing the idea of form—the children to distinguish them—no names being used.

2nd step.—The children continuing to select the patterns of shapes, according to the one shown; when perfect in this, they may select all those that have the same number and kind of edges, and the same number of corners.

3rd step.—The children to determine the number of sides and corners in planes, whether the sides are straight or curved; also to learn the names of the planes.

4th step.—A solid is shown, and the children select all those that resemble it in some points; the names of the solids are not to be given. The letters of the alphabet to be examined, and the number and direction of their lines to be determined.

5th step.—To determine the length of different measures, learn their names, and practice the introductory lessons on Form in "Model Lessons," part II.

6th step.—The course of lessons on Form in "Model Lessons," part II.

VII. ANIMALS.—1st step: A Domestic Animal.—A picture or a stuffed specimen may be shown. The children to be encouraged in talking about it, to say

what they observe or know, without reference to any arrangement, the aim of the instruction being to elicit observation, to cultivate the power of expression, and especially to encourage humane and benevolent feelings towards the inferior creation. At this stage it is well sometimes to allow the children themselves to propose the animal that they are to talk about.

2nd step: A Domestic Animal.—Children to name its parts, color, size, and appearance. An attempt should be made in this stage, at a little arrangement of the subject, but it should not be too rigidly required. One principal object should be to encourage humane and benevolent feelings towards the lower animals.

3rd step: A Domestic Animal.—Children to describe the uses of domestic animals, their different actions, and with what limb they perform any action, the sounds they make, our duties with respect to them, &c. These alternate weekly with

4th step: Animals and Human Body.—The children to describe where the different parts of the human body are situated, and to compare those parts with the parts of animals, pointing out in what they are alike, in what they differ, and how fitted to the habits and wants of man, or of the different animals. See course in "Model Lessons," part I.

5th step: Wild Animals.—Children to tell their parts, color, size, and appearance; to point out how particularly distinguished, and to learn something of their habits and residence; being led to perceive how the animal is fitted by the Almighty for its habits and locality.

VIII. PLANTS.—*1st step.*—Naming the parts of plants, and telling their uses to man as food, &c.

2nd step.—See course in "Model Lessons," part II.

IX. NUMBER.—*1st step: First Idea of Number.*—The idea of the numbers from 1 to 5 or 6, to be developed by the use of the ball frame and miscellaneous objects, as exemplified in Reiner's introductory lesson, "Lessons on Number," reprinted, by permission of the author, for the use of the teachers of the institution, in "Papers on Arithmetic;" to which may be added many additional exercises, such as those in the 1st and 2nd sections of "Arithmetic for young Children," &c.

2nd step: First Idea of Number.—The idea of the numbers from 6 to 10 to be developed by the use of the ball frame, as before; also the first and second exercises in "Model Lessons," part i., to be used as directed in that work.

3rd step: Addition and Subtraction.—The remaining exercise under section I., also the whole of the exercises on subtraction in the same work.

4th step.—The more difficult exercises in "Model Lessons," part i., &c., accompanied by selected exercises from "Arithmetic for Children."

5th step: The Four Simple Rules.—Exercises on the four simple rules, in number from 10 to 100, from "Papers on Arithmetic," and "Lessons on Number;" also simple explanations of the rules, leading the children to think of the operation they have been performing; also, by numerous exercises, to lead them to perceive some of the general properties of number.

X. COLOR.—*1st step.*—Selecting colors according to a pattern shown, and arranging colors, no names being used.

2nd step.—Learning the names of the different colors, and selecting them when called for by name.

3rd step.—Distinguishing and naming colors and shades of colors, and producing examples from surrounding objects; with exercises on beads of different colors.

4th step.—Distinguishing and naming shades of color, and producing examples from memory.

5th step.—The lessons in this step to be given on a specific color; the children are also to learn from seeing them mixed, how the secondary colors are produced from the primary.

XI. DRAWING.—From the age of the juveniles, and also from drawing not coming under the head of "Gallery Lessons," the following course of exercises cannot be so well arranged into stages for the various schools. It is also thought desirable that one of the courses of lessons should be presented in a continuous

form, that the extent and variety of exercise which they are intended to give to the mind may be observed. The courses form two series of exercises, commenced in the infant-school, and completed in the juvenile-school.

First Series—To Exercise the Eye alone.

Measuring relatively.—Let the children determine the relative length of lines drawn in the same direction on the slate, *i. e.*, which is longest, which is shortest, &c. Whenever there is a difference of opinion, prove who is correct, by measuring.

Determine the relative length of lines drawn in different directions on the slate.

Determine the relative distances between dots made on the slate.

Determine the relative difference of the distances between different parallel lines.

Determine the relative size of angles.

Determine the relative degree of inclination of lines from the perpendicular—first, by comparing them with a perpendicular line, drawn on another part of the slate—and afterwards without this assistance.

The same exercise with horizontal lines.

Determine the relative size of circles, and then of portions of circles.

Children called out to divide straight lines, drawn in different directions, into 2, 3, 4, &c., equal or given parts, the others to state their opinions as to the correctness with which the operation has been done.

The above exercise repeated with curved lines in different directions.

NOTE.—Several of the above exercises may be applied to the lengths, &c., of the objects and pictures in the room.

Measuring by current Standards.—The teacher to give the children the idea of an inch, nail, quarter of a yard, foot, half a yard, and yard, which, at first, should be drawn in a conspicuous place, for the whole class to see.

To decide the length of lines.—First practice the children upon the inch, then upon the nail, and so on up to the yard; continually referring to the standard measures.

NOTE.—These exercises should be continued until the eye can decide with tolerable accuracy.

Determining the length of lines combined in various rectilinear geometrical figures.

Determining the circumference or girth of various objects.

Determining distances of greater extent, such as the floor and walls of the room, the play-ground, &c., &c.

Measuring by any given Standard.—Measuring sizes, heights, lengths, &c., by any given standard.

How often a given standard will occupy any given space, with respect to superficies.

Second Series—To Exercise both the Eye and Hand.

Before commencing these exercises, it would be advisable to give the children instruction (in a class around the large slate) with regard to the manner of holding the pencil, the position of the hand in drawing lines in various directions. This will be found to diminish the labor of attending to each individual separately. Instruction as to the position of the body may be left till the children are placed at the desks.

NOTE.—The standard measures, used previously, should be painted on the walls, or placed conspicuously before the class in some manner, both horizontally and perpendicularly, in order to accustom the children to them.

The children to practice drawing straight lines in different directions, gradually increasing them in length. First perpendicular, second horizontal, third right oblique, fourth left oblique.

To draw lines of given lengths and directions.

To divide the lines they draw into given parts.

To draw curved lines in different directions, gradually increasing in size.

To try how many angles they can make with 2, 3, 4, &c., lines.

To try what they can make of 2, 3, 4, &c., curved lines. Then proceeding to copies; first copying those formed of straight lines, then those of curved lines.

To draw from copies.

NOTE.—In the course of forming figures out of straight and curved lines, the children should be taught to make the letters of the alphabet.

XII. GEOGRAPHY.—*1st step.*—The course consists of the following series of lessons: 1. The cardinal points. 2. The semi-cardinal points. 3. The necessity of having fixed points. 4. The relative position of objects. 5. The boundaries of the school-room. 6. The boundaries of the play-ground. 7. The relative distances of the parts and objects of the school-room. 8. The relative distances of the parts and furniture of the school-room marked on a map, drawn on the large slate or black board with chalk, before the children. 9. The scale of a map. 10. The relative positions and distances of different places on a map of the neighborhood. 11. The map of England. 12. The map of the Holy Land.

TRAINING ESTABLISHMENT

FOR MASTERS FOR THE NATIONAL SOCIETY.

THE following account of St. Mark's College is drawn from the Annual Reports of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, from 1843 to 1846, and from publications of the Principal, Rev. Derwent Coleridge, addressed to the Secretary of the National Society:—

The principal Normal School, or training establishment for masters for schools under the charge of the National Society, is located in the parish of Chelsea, on the Fulham Road, about two and a half miles from Hyde Park Corner. It is called St. Mark's College, and the place is frequently designated as Stanley Grove.

Site and Buildings.—The site of the institution consists of eleven acres of land, perfectly healthy, and surrounded by a wall; of the eleven acres of land, about three acres and a half are occupied as gardens and potato-ground, three acres as meadow-land, two acres and a half as pleasure-ground and shrubberies, leaving about two acres for the farm and laundry buildings, the college, practicing school, and chapel. The whole of the grounds, whether laid out as meadow-land, garden-ground, or shrubberies, may be considered, and really are, practically useful for the industrial purposes of the college. Formerly the estate belonged to Mr. Hamilton, whose commodious mansion near the southern side of the property affords, in addition to an excellent residence for the principal, a committee-room, a spacious and lofty lecture-room, having an area of 1,070 feet, the walls of which were fitted by the late owner with handsome bookcases, above which are casts from the Elgia marbles, a dining-hall (area 450½ feet), and offices.

Attached to this has been erected, in one of the Italian styles, a chapel, &c., a quadrangle, in which are situate the dormitories of the pupils, a separate bed-room (area 52¼ feet) being appropriated to each. The quadrangles are two stories, containing each 22 small sleeping-rooms, together with the towers at the two outer angles, each of which contains a sitting-room, a master's bed-room, and three smaller chambers for boys, thus providing accommodation for fifty students and two masters. Underneath are coal-chambers, workshops fitted up with carpenters' benches, a shoe and knife room, &c. The laundry is a separate building; one end of this has been fitted up as an infirmary, and in the center are store-rooms for potatoes and apples, and other products of the farm and garden.*

The practicing school is situate near the chapel, on the north side of the grounds. It is an octagonal building, affording accommodation for six classes, in addition to those that may be arranged on the gallery. In the center is the fireplace, and over this, on the sides of the brick-work forming the ventilating apparatus and the chimneys, have been fitted black-boards and conveniences for suspending maps and musical tablets, so as that they may be seen by the classes opposite. Independently of the central square area, each side of which measures 20 feet, the recesses provide accommodation for 260 children. A cottage on the premises, situated near the practicing school, has been fitted up during the present year for the accommodation of the two higher classes, in separate rooms, the area of each being about 259 feet.

* Report, National Society, 1842, p. 75.

The teachers and masters of the training establishment consist of a principal, a vice-principal, a head master, a teacher of music, a teacher of drawing, and an industrial master or steward. The principal is the Rev. Derwent Coleridge, nephew of the eminent poet and metaphysician, Samuel T. Coleridge, who has impressed his own views on the general scope and details of the institution. Of him, Mr. Moseley, one of the Inspectors, speaks thus:—

“Those persons whose privilege it is to be acquainted with Mr. Coleridge, will appreciate his many and eminent qualifications as an instructor, and they will readily understand the ascendancy which is given to him over the minds of the students, not less by that kindly and persuasive manner which is peculiar to him, and that colloquial eloquence which is his patrimony, than by the generosity of his purposes and the moral elevation of his principles of action. In the union of qualities such as these, with an abiding sense of the importance of the objects he has proposed to himself, absolute dedication to them, and entire faith in the means he has adopted for accomplishing them, he has succeeded in creating around him an institution which has probably outrun the hopes and expectations of its earlier friends, not less in the scale of its operations than in the character of the results which it contemplates,—an institution which claims, at an humble distance, to take its place among the collegiate establishments of the country—which has enlisted the sympathies of a large portion of the clergy in its favor, and contributed not a little to raise the standard affixed by public opinion to the office of an elementary schoolmaster.”

The general scope and design of the institution, as gathered from Mr. Coleridge's own writings, may be thus summed up in the language of one of the inspectors:—

“Resting upon the ground that it is the duty, and by consequence the right and privilege of the Church to be the teacher of the nation, Mr. Coleridge's efforts have been mainly directed to form the character of his pupils in accordance with Church principles—to raise up a body of teachers, who might appreciate the Scriptural character of the English Church, and who should feel themselves to be living, intelligent, and responsible agents in the carrying out of her system. For such an end, they must prove (so far as such a result can be secured by any system of training within the reach of man) capable of communicating that entire preparation of heart and mind by which, with the help of God's Holy Spirit, the due reception and effectual working of the gospel message may be secured. Accounting it to be the peculiar aim of Protestantism, contemplated as an awakened energy of the Church, to enable each man for himself, according to his measure, to give a reason for the faith that is in him, and to ground that faith on Holy Scripture. Mr. Coleridge trusts that the teachers educated in this institution will be skilled to cultivate the best fruits of the English Reformation, as that which would substitute a religion of light for the darkness of superstition.

“The Church being regarded as the teacher of the nation, she can have no end in view short of, or wholly apart from, the training of the young in the principles of true religion. At her hands they are to be enabled, as far as human instruction might avail, to profit by the reading of Holy Scripture. No school knowledge can be recognized as useful which may not, directly or indirectly, contribute to this end. To bring up a child in the way in which he should go, and to furnish him with the weapons of his heavenly warfare—this is not a *part* of his education, rather it is the sum and substance of the whole; for whatever secular knowledge is really desirable as a part of early and general education, is either included in such a description, or may with facility be added to it—cannot fitly be taught apart from it. Language, with all its uses—history, in all its branches—science itself, considered in its noblest aspect, as an organ of reason and exercise of the mental faculties—these and every other study, not merely technical, attain their highest value when connected with religious truth, and degenerate into falsehood when pursued in any other connection.

“Mr. Coleridge feels strongly that no number of attainments, nor any facility in communicating them, can of themselves qualify a schoolmaster for his arduous office, and that before we inquire into the special fitness of a teacher, there is

needed, as an essential prerequisite, a sound, and, to a considerable extent, a cultivated understanding—a certain moral power, the growth of religious principles, but developed by intellectual culture. And as the parochial schoolmaster has to supply all the indirect teaching to which the children of the better-provided classes owe much, and perhaps the best, of what they know, in those children of the poor likely to be intrusted to him, he will have to cultivate good habits in the ground of self-respect—habits of regular industry and self-control, of kindness and forbearance, of personal and domestic cleanliness, of decency and order; he will have to awaken in them the faculties of attention and memory, of reflection and judgment; he will have not merely to instill knowledge, or supply the materials of thought, but to elicit and exercise the powers of thinking,—to seek with the first dawning of reason to awaken a faculty by which truth may be indeed discerned—a faculty which he cannot give, but which he will assuredly find, and to which, by continually presenting its proper counterpart, he will ground knowledge upon faith, and give to religious truth an evidence approaching to intuition. Wherefore he especially needs to be not simply a seriously-minded Christian, but an educated man; and while to teach letters, in however humble a capacity, is not a mechanical employment, the occupation of the schoolmaster of the poor, when regarded from the proper point of view, is as truly liberal as any in the commonwealth.”

The following passages are in the language of Mr. Coleridge:—

“The truth is, that the education given in our schools (I speak of those open to the poor for cheap or gratuitous instruction, but the remark might be expanded much more widely) is too often little more than nominal, imparting, it may be, a little knowledge—sometimes hardly this—but leaving the mental powers wholly undeveloped, and the heart even less affected than the mind. Of course there are exceptions and limitations to this statement. It does not apply to every school, and is less true of some districts than of others; but the fact, as a whole, stands upon what may be called statistical evidence. Is this owing to an accidental or to an inherent defect? Are the means employed inadequate merely, or essentially unfit? If the former, we may trust to time and gradual improvement. We may proceed, if possible, more carefully, but in the old way. If the latter, a different course must be pursued; we must do something else. I venture to take the latter position.

“To what end do we seek to educate the poor man's child? Is it not to give him just views of his moral and religious obligations—his true interests for time and for eternity; while, at the same time, we prepare him for the successful discharge of his civil duties—duties for which, however humble, there is surely some appropriate instruction? Is it not to cultivate good habits in a ground of self-respect?—habits of regular industry and self-control, of kindness and forbearance, of personal and domestic cleanliness, of decency and order? Is it not to awaken in him the faculties of attention and memory, of reflection and judgment?—not merely to instill knowledge, or supply the materials of thought, but to elicit and to exercise the powers of thinking? Is it not to train him in the use of language, the organ of reason, and the symbol of his humanity? And while we thus place the child in a condition to look onward and upward—while we teach him his relationship to the eternal and the heavenly, and encourage him to live by this faith, do we not also hope to place him on a vantage-ground with respect to his earthly calling?—to give to labor the interest of intelligence and the elevation of duty, and disarm those temptations by which the poor man's leisure is so fearfully beset, and to which mental vacuity offers no resistance?

“But is this an easy task? Can we hope that it will be duly performed for less than laborers' wages, without present estimation or hope of preferment, by the first rustic, broken-down tradesman, or artisan out of employment, whom necessity, or perhaps indolence, brings to the office? Not to put an aggravated case, however common, can any half-educated man from the working classes (and the majority of those who seek to be schoolmasters are all but uneducated) be safely intrusted with duties, the very nature of which it would be impossible to make him understand? Almost uninstructed, and utterly untrained—with little general fitness for his calling, and no special apprenticeship—he may teach a little, and this not well, but he cannot educate at all. But will not a little prep-

aration suffice? May he not be taught a system? He may indeed be taught a system, but surely it will not suffice. He wants the first conditions of a teacher. He cannot teach what he does not know. He cannot explain what he does not understand. He may learn a particular method, but not how to apply it. The best preparation which he can receive, short of a complete course of training, is superficial and formal. He must himself be educated before he can educate others. Morally and religiously considered, the case is still worse. He cannot suggest motives, or inspire feelings, of which he is himself unconscious. If he be a pious man, it is indeed much; yet his principles, or at least his mode of explaining them, will be uncertain.

* * * * *

"Here, then, I think we have the root of the evil. The object on which so much zeal and ingenuity have been bestowed, has been, not to procure proper masters, but to do without them. The attempt has been to educate by systems, not by men. School-rooms have been built, school-books provided, and methods of instruction devised. The monitorial, the simultaneous, the circulating, the interrogative, the suggestive systems, have each been advocated, separately or in combination. Meanwhile, the great need of all, without which all this apparatus is useless, and in comparison with which it is unimportant, has been all but overlooked. It has been taken for granted that the machinery of education would work itself, as if there had been a living spirit in the wheels. The guiding mind, by which even an imperfect mechanism might have been controlled to good effect, was to be superseded; nay, the conditions under which alone it can be provided—adequate support and just estimation—have been regarded as not merely unattainable, but as positively objectionable. The result is exactly what might have been anticipated. Each successive system, so long as it has been carried on under the eye of the author—that is, in effect, by an educated man, or by any really competent teachers—has been more or less successful; and in every case the merit of the workman has been transferred to his tools; and when, in other hands, these prove unserviceable, or even mischievous, they not merely lose a credit to which they were not entitled, but are charged with a fault which lies, perhaps, mainly in the handling. I say mischievous; for in education, as in other arts, the most effective implements may chance to require the most dexterous management. Let me not be thought to undervalue even the slightest helps by which the communication of knowledge may be facilitated. There is an art as well as a science of education; and every art has its methods, of which some may be better than others. But method itself supposes intelligence, adaptation, choice; when traveled blindly, it is a mere routine. And if this be true in the domain of matter—if no method can exempt the ship-builder or the engineer from the necessity of ever-varying contrivance—nay, if some faculty of this sort be required to enable the bird to construct its nest, or the bee its cells—how shall it be dispensed with, how shall we hope that its place can be supplied by forms, and practices, and rules, when that upon which we have to work is the mind of man? Even an educated teacher who trusts to mechanical arrangements, must expect a mechanical result. Phidias himself could not have produced the semblance of life, "the image of a man, according to the beauty of a man," had he employed any but the most simple tools. The mental statuary must, in like manner, leave upon his work the touches of his own hand: he must model with his own fingers. Every child is an individual, thinking and feeling for himself. He must be dealt with accordingly. The influence of the master must, as far as possible, be personal. Whatever intermediate agency is employed must be, for the same reason, intelligent; for mind can only be affected by mind, the inferior by the superior. To procure this without extra cost; to create a number of teachers who shall continue learners, exercising in the former capacity a certain freedom of action, without losing their own docility and dependence—in a word, to reconcile an intelligent agency with general regulation and unity of purpose, is a problem for which, perhaps, no general solution can be offered. In practice, every national schoolmaster must solve it for himself; and the success of his attempt will be the test of his efficiency.

"I have described the education of a poor man's child with a reference to the ends for which I suppose it to be given; and I have contended that this education cannot be given through the instrumentality of such men as are commonly

employed for that purpose. The educator must himself have been both sufficiently and suitably educated. This will be denied by none, but every one will affix his own meaning to the words. I say further, to teach letters, in however humble a capacity, is not a mechanical employment: to educate, in the full sense of the word, is as liberal an occupation as any in the commonwealth. In plain terms, then, and in old-fashioned language, my conclusion is, that the schoolmaster must be an educated man. Thus stated, the proposition has a more startling sound; but the import is the same. I speak of the thing, not of the accidents with which it may be accompanied. I do not speak of birth, or social position, or habits of life, or manners, or appearance, but of a certain condition of the mental faculties, as well moral as intellectual; of that which constitutes education, contemplated as a result—not of the dress by which, in this country and in modern times, it is commonly distinguished. Of the social relations and outward bearing which education must necessarily assume, I may say a few words hereafter; at present I speak of the thing itself. With this explanation, I do not fear to affirm that the schoolmaster must be an educated man. And this necessity is not at all affected by the class of children which he has to train. The amount of acquirement may differ; but this is the least thing to be considered. I am utterly opposed—I had almost said hostile—to the notion that any number of attainments, or any facility in teaching them, can qualify a schoolmaster for his arduous office. Attainments may make a particular teacher—a professor, as such teachers affect to call themselves—but a mere teacher has much to learn before he can undertake to educate. A sound, and, to a considerable extent, a cultivated understanding—a certain moral power, the growth of religious principles, but developed by intellectual culture—surely this is an essential prerequisite in every educator, every schoolmaster, before we inquire into his special fitness for the class of children of which his school may be composed. And let it not be assumed that this is less requisite in the teacher of the poor than of the rich. The parochial schoolmaster, in which term I include the master of every church-school for the poor, is encompassed with difficulties to which an ordinary commercial or grammar school offers no parallel. Not merely has he a greater number of children to instruct, with less assistance and in a less time—children, for the most part, of tenderer years, and less prepared by previous instruction and home-training—but he has more to do for them. They are more dependent upon him for their education. His scholars have, in a manner, to be taught not merely to think, but to speak, if they would express any thing beyond animal passions and animal wants. He has to supply all the indirect teaching to which the children of the better-provided classes owe much, and perhaps the best, of what they know. And when to this we add the moral training which they require; when we take into account the actual position of the church in this country, and remember that on the parochial schoolmaster the children of the poor are too often dependent, not merely for catechetical instruction, but for the first implantation of religious sentiment—that he has too often to give that first presumption in favor of holy things, as they are set forth in the church of our fathers, of which there should be no memorable beginning—that he has to interpret that sound of Sabbath-bells, which ought to have a meaning to the ears of earliest childhood, as often as it carries to the cottage its message of peace; when, lastly, we add to this the influence for good which the honored teacher may and ought to exercise over the youth long after he has quitted the school—an influence which he can only maintain by the ability to direct and assist him after he has ceased to be a child; in a word, when we see that the church schoolmaster has not merely to minister to the clergyman in some of his most arduous and important functions—the instruction of childhood and the guidance of youth—but to make up much that is wanting, and correct much that is perverse, in the circumstances and tendencies of humble life; shall it be said that I have overstrained the point, and contend for too high a standard? But if this be a just picture of what we want, then look at what we have, and be my earnestness forgiven!

“At all events, it is better to strive for too high, than to be content with too low a standard. Do I describe an impossible perfection? Let us at least set out with our faces toward it; we are then in the right direction, though we advance but a little way. Let us set out with faith, and the resolution that it engenders, and perhaps we may advance further than we think.

"I have described the qualifications of a schoolmaster implicitly by a reference to his work. How, it will be asked, are these to be commanded? Not, assuredly, by any cheap or summary method. Not, let me venture to urge, by courses of lectures, or lessons in pedagogic. Rather than so, let the clergyman take the first thoughtful man, no matter what his acquirements, of whose piety he is assured, and prepare him for his work, as he walks with him in the fields, or in the streets. I do not say that this is enough: far from it. I do not say that it is easy to meet with a man of good sense and right feeling, putting aside acquirement, to whom the oversight of children may be committed. I believe it will be found very difficult. But something in this way might be done—some fatherly discipline established—some lessons of humble wisdom imparted. From the other mode nothing, in the long run, but mischief can ensue. Wherever mere attainment is made a principal consideration, there will be a perpetual mistaking of means for ends, and of semblance for reality. A little superficial knowledge, and a showy, self-sufficient cleverness, will be the product, the spirit and flavor of which will quickly evaporate, leaving behind either a mere *caput mortuum*, or a fermenting mass of restlessness, petulance, and discontent. Yet let me not be misunderstood. My objection is not to lectures, or any other mode of facilitating acquirement; still less to the acquirement itself. The former may be most useful, the latter most desirable. What I resist is, the notion that either is sufficient—the one as a means, the other as a result. Normal education is not satisfied with a superstructure of faculties—it must lay a basis of character; and the latter is the longer and the more difficult process. Not what a teacher knows, but what he is, should ever be the first point considered."

Admission of Pupils.—Every applicant for admission must be at least fifteen years of age, and must submit the following testimonials: 1, a certificate of baptism; 2, a declaration from the parents or guardians of the youth, stating that he has attended the services of the Church of England, with their consent and approbation, for the space of at least one twelve-month previous to the date of the application; 3, a medical certificate, according to a printed form; 4, a recommendation from a clergyman, who is requested to state, as particularly as possible, the grounds on which it is given, as well for the satisfaction of the National Society as to prevent dis-appointment and needless expense on the part of the youth and his friends. Good moral character, amiability, truthfulness, and diligence, are indispensable requisites. Further information is solicited as to the youth's temper and disposition, his abilities and attainments, his tastes and habits, his age, size, and physical strength, and as to any other matters from which his general fitness for the office of schoolmaster may be inferred. A certain degree of bodily as well as mental vigor is deemed indispensable. A strong, healthy, well-grown lad, of amiable disposition and promising talents, who shows an evident desire of knowledge, and has made a good use of the opportunities which he has already enjoyed, though these may not have been great, is considered to be the description of youth best fitted to fulfill the designs of the institution.

The examination of each student for admission is preceded by the other inquiries specified in the following paragraph, which are to be answered in his own words, and in his own handwriting, in the presence of the clergyman by whom he is recommended, or some other trustworthy person:—

"State your name and age the last birth-day; when and where you were baptized; whether you have been confirmed, and by whom; whether you have taken the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, and if so, whether you are a regular communicant? At what schools have you been educated, and for how long a time, and in what subjects have you been instructed? Are you sincerely desirous of becoming a schoolmaster, and do you seek admission into the National Society's Training College expressly to be fitted for that difficult and responsible office? Are you prepared to lead in the College a simple and laborious life; working with your hands as well as acquiring book-knowledge, and rendering an exact obedience to the discipline of the place? Are you aware that your path of duty on leaving the College will be principally, if not entirely, among the poor? And are you willing to apprentice yourself to the Society on that understanding?"

* *Mode of Admission.*—These certificates having been received and approved.

the youth is directed to present himself for examination at the college. He is expected to read English prose with propriety, to spell correctly from dictation, to write a good hand, to be well acquainted with the outlines of Scripture history, and to show considerable readiness in working the fundamental rules of arithmetic. Any further knowledge which he may possess, of whatever kind, is in his favor, not only, or so much, for its own sake, as on account of the studious turn of mind and aptness for receiving instruction which it may appear to indicate. A talent for vocal music and drawing is particularly desirable.

In the event of his passing this examination with credit, he is received into the college, and remains there on probation for the first three months; after which, if his conduct shall have been satisfactory and he shall be found to possess the necessary qualifications, he is apprenticed to the National Society. From this period till the age of 21, the society is responsible for his education, clothing, and maintenance, being at liberty to make use of his services as a schoolmaster at any time and in any way that may be thought proper. In general, the period during which the apprentices are expected to remain under instruction at the college is three years, after which time they are to be placed in situations either as the masters of small schools, or more commonly as assistants in large ones.

The Principal, in his Report, complains that many of the students admitted are deficient in the requisite preparation for the course of instruction pursued in this institution.

“Of those now on probation, or recently apprenticed, a fair proportion are intelligent lads, of suitable temper and disposition; but even of these, comparatively few are properly prepared for the institution. Against this difficulty it is impossible to provide by mere exclusion, without reducing the numbers admitted to an extent incompatible with the welfare, or indeed the existence, of the institution. Not many of those recommended possess even that modicum of acquirement which might fairly be expected from a promising boy of twelve, not to say fifteen, years old. They cannot ‘read well, that is, with intelligence, nor write correctly from dictation.’ I do not allude to slight and casual inaccuracies, but to a general deficiency, the result of bad teaching. They are, for the most part, quite ignorant of grammar; and, what is worst of all, they are not sufficiently acquainted with the vocabulary of their own language to profit even by oral teaching of a kind suitable to the college, much less to gain information for themselves from books. Of geography, not to say history, they are, for the most part, wholly ignorant, many having never seen a map. This description applies to different individuals in different degrees, and there are some to whom it does not apply at all; but in a majority of cases it is necessary to ground the probationers afresh in the simplest rudiments of learning—to go over again the work of an elementary school—with what loss to the pupils and disadvantage to the college, need not be told.”

Studies and Training of the Pupils.—The subjects of instruction include Scriptural knowledge, and Bible literature, the doctrines of the Church and Church History, Latin, Music, English Grammar, General History, English Literature, Geography, Algebra, Geometry, Mechanics, Arithmetic, Drawing, and the art of Teaching under the designation of Normal lessons.

The pupils leave their beds at half past 5 in the morning, and are again in bed at 10 at night, when the dormitory lights are extinguished by one of the elder youths; two of whom, under the inspection and control of the industrial teacher, are intrusted with the duty of lighting, regulating, and extinguishing the gas-lights throughout the establishment. This gives seven hours and a half for sleep. The remaining 16 hours and a half are thus divided:—they are allowed to remain,—

One hour in their bed-rooms, half an hour in the morning, and the same time in the evening. This, however, includes the time spent in coming and going, &c. Habits of personal cleanliness, neatness, and order, are care-

fully enforced. It is with this view, as well as for the purpose of private devotion, that a separate bed-room has been allotted to each youth.

Four hours and a half are assigned to industrial occupations, of which half an hour is consumed in coming and going, getting out and putting by their tools, washing their hands, &c.

The studies of the college commence at a quarter before 7, with the reading of a collect from the Prayer-Book. The period of time allotted to study and united devotion amounts to about 8 hours.

Half an hour is allowed for each of the three meals, including the laying and removing of the cloth, &c. They breakfast at 8, dine at 1, and drink tea at 7. Before tea they sing for an hour.

Two hours and a quarter are reserved for voluntary study and recreation, viz. the half hour before and after dinner, the half hour after tea, which is spent in family devotion, and an hour before bed-time, when the repetitions are learnt which are to be said next morning.

The number of hours devoted weekly to each occupation is stated in the table subjoined. It will be observed that the greatest periods of time are given to Music and Latin, and the least to Arithmetic:—

Number of Hours devoted Weekly to each Occupation of the Students.

OCCUPATION.	Division I.	Division II.		Division III.	
		1st Section.	2d Section.	1st Section.	2d Section.
Chapel	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0
Evening Worship.....	3 30	3 30	3 30	3 30	3 30
Scriptural Knowledge and Christian Doctrines (i. e. Articles)	2 5	3 0	3 25	1 50	3 40
Church History and Bible Literature.....	2 20	2 0	2 0	2 40	2 40
Latin.....	6 15	6 0	6 0	5 0	6 0
English Grammar, English Literature, and History.....	7 10	2 45	5 20	6 0	3 50
Geography.....	2 30	2 30	1 20	4 0	5 20
Writing.....	0 30	1 20	1 20	2 40	4 0
Arithmetic.....	0 20	0 35	1 10	0 40	3 30
Geometry.....	2 50	1 20	2 25
Algebra and Trigonometry.....	2 20	5 40	2 40	2 40	..
Mechanics and Natural Philosophy.....	2 0	0 35
Music.....	7 10	7 10	7 10	7 10	7 10
Drawing.....	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0
Normal Lessons.....	3 0
Private Reading.....	1 30
Preparing Lessons.....	..	9 0	9 0	9 0	9 0
Meals.....	8 45	8 45	8 45	8 45	8 45
Leisure.....	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0

In addition to the seven hours devoted to musical instruction in each week, six hours more are allotted to the practice of the Chapel service. On this point, Mr. Coleridge observes:—

“If, however, the choral service, as performed in the chapel of St. Mark's College, be in itself unobjectionable; if, in truth, it have been adopted from a sense of its superior beauty and fitness under the circumstances of the case—it may be mentioned, as a further recommendation, that it furnishes the best, if not the only means, compatible with other exigencies, of imparting to the students of this institution that skill in the art of singing which is now so generally desired, if not expected, in a parochial schoolmaster. No system of teaching vocal music, however excellent, can dispense with the necessity of long and continuous practice; time for which could not have been afforded in this college, if it had not been found possible to unite the acquirement of this art with its best and principal use. As it is, the seed-time and harvest of instruction are to a certain extent combined, the grain being sown and the sheaves gathered by the same process and at the same time. In plain terms, the musical skill required for the

performance of the choral service is supplied, in some considerable measure, by the service itself; and, indeed, as these youths have not been selected, generally speaking, with any reference to musical capacity, and are not destined for the exclusive or gainful exercise of the musical profession, it would, I believe, have been found difficult to exact from them that close and unremitting attention to this study which it indispensably requires, and which they now bestow upon it, were it not for the pressure of a motive at once so sacred and so stimulating, coupled with the guidance and encouragement of a teacher who, to a practical acquaintance with Church music, such as could be looked for only in a master of the art, adds the authority derived from his position as vice-principal of the college."

"It is not, indeed, intimated that any opportunity for the *practice* of singing, however favorable, can dispense with the necessity of regular elementary instruction in the principles of music. It is a great advantage to acquire a foreign language in the country where it is spoken; but it will be proper, nevertheless, to acquire it *grammatically*. Now the services of the chapel render music, as it were, a living language in this college, which the youths catch up insensibly by hearing and imitation—a language, moreover, heard only in its purest and noblest form, by which the taste of the student is cultivated, together with his powers of execution. And when it is remembered how much the success of a singer depends upon mechanical proficiency, apart from the interesting science which gives to the study its intellectual character, it will not be thought that too much stress is laid upon that training of the ear and voice which the students go through, independently of any course of lessons. On the other hand, it is felt that, without the intellectual character above alluded to, the study, or, to speak more properly, the *pursuit*, of vocal music would not merely be imperfect, but of doubtful benefit, taken as a branch of general education. And if it should be said, that all the theoretical knowledge necessary to a vocalist will come in the end by an analytical as opposed to the usual elementary methods (a result which can only be expected in the most favorable cases), it would yet be necessary that those who learn in order that they may teach, should be made acquainted with some *system of instruction*, capable of easy and general application. In adopting that which owes so much to the peculiar genius of Mr. Hullah, regard has been had both to the intrinsic excellence of the method itself, and to the ready machinery with which it is supplied.

"It thus appears that there are two kinds of musical instruction always going on together, and mutually assisting each other. The art of reading music, with the requisite knowledge of musical notation, is conveyed through the medium of Mr. Hullah's 'Grammar of Vocal Music,' under the very able superintendence of Mr. May; one division of the students being under his own tuition, while a junior class is carried through the earlier portion of the course by one of the pupils. A third section, more advanced than either of the preceding, has the further advantage of lectures on harmony and counterpoint from Mr. Hullah himself. These three divisions correspond generally to the three years of residence—an arrangement by which every branch of study in the college is more or less regulated. An exact correspondence is obviously impracticable—some youths bringing with them a larger amount of musical knowledge and proficiency than others can be expected to attain at any period of their lives. Much, it is true, has been done to produce a respectable mediocrity; but excellence will depend, after all, on individual qualifications."

The reasons for embracing the study of Latin in the scheme of instruction are thus set forth:—

As it is considered a leading object of national education, as viewed in connection with the church to raise the speech, and by implication the understanding of the people to the level of the liturgy, the uses of language, that priceless talent of reading the thoughts of others and of communicating our own in writing, has been kept prominently in view as one of those first principles by which the studies of the college should be regulated; and in conformity with these notions Latin is taught (so far as may be necessary to lay the foundations of a sound acquaintance with the accidence, syntax,

and etymology of that language), as an essential part of the course. This knowledge has been considered, if not necessary for the teacher of English, to be, at least, in the highest degree useful. The majority of the pupils are not carried beyond the accidence of the Eton Latin Grammar and Arnold's third Latin exercise book; a few who, previously to their admission, had acquired the rudiments, have been carried further, and some five or six who have attained a knowledge of Greek, apart from the teaching of the institution, are encouraged by the principal in its cultivation, so far as may conduce to the understanding of the original text of the New Testament, on the express provision, however, that these and the like studies do not in the slightest degree interfere with the more immediate objects of the institution, or with the due performance of its humblest duties.

Industrial Occupations.—The industrial occupations of the students consist in the labors of the farm, the garden, the house, lithography, and book-binding.

“The advantages, I had almost said the necessity, of balancing the intellectual pursuits of the students by manual labor, scarcely need to be further insisted on. It is, in the first place, the only way in which such an institution could be supported, except at an enormous expense; but this is the least consideration. It is almost the only mode in which the hours not occupied in study could be profitably and innocently passed by a promiscuous assemblage of youths, almost all of whom have so much both to learn and to unlearn. Above all, that which is learned in this way is itself a most valuable acquirement, more especially to the schoolmaster of the poor. Not merely will it enable him to increase his own comforts without cost, but it will make him practically acquainted with the occupations of those whom he has to instruct, and thus procure him an additional title to their confidence when he comes to act among them, not merely as their teacher, but as their adviser and friend.”

“Hitherto the difficulty has been to perform the necessary work of the establishment in a satisfactory manner without encroaching on the hours of study—nothing being so much to be avoided as a hasty, imperfect, or slovenly performance. The method pursued is as follows:—The several duties—whether of the house, the farm, or the garden—are assigned to different parties, varying in number according to the need, which are changed at stated periods, generally weekly. Over each of these parties a monitor is appointed, care being taken so to sort the parties that the influence of the older and steadier youths may be continually exerted over their younger or less experienced associates. One youth, the eldest of those first admitted, is over the whole. It is his duty to arrange the labors of the day, under the superintendence of the industrial master, and to inspect the different working-parties when needful. He is also expected to hear complaints, and to settle any trifling difference which may have arisen. The monitor of each party is expected to maintain order among those whose labors he directs; and, to speak generally, the discipline of the place is, as far as possible, carried on by the moral influence of the youths over each other, a most watchful supervision being maintained by the masters. The direct interference of the principal is not resorted to except in cases of necessity. Faults are corrected by admonition, and, if need be, by rebuke, either private or public, as the case may seem to require. It is sometimes advisable to make the admonition general, without naming those for whom it is specially intended. A journal of conduct is also kept, which will, it is hoped, have a beneficial effect; and every youth is occasionally reminded that his prospects when he shall have left the institution, depend upon his conduct while in it. No prominence, however, is given to this or to any other secondary motive. Good conduct can only be produced, in the long run, by a sense of duty, or by the habit which it produces when it becomes a matter of course; and this habitual sense of duty is best encouraged by a mode of treatment from which every appeal to motive, strictly so called, is excluded. I believe this to be not merely the highest, but the most practical view of the question; and although in such a matter the utmost that can without presumption be expected, is a partial, and, under the Divine blessing, a growing success, yet it may with some degree of confidence be affirmed,

that it has been already borne out by facts. The particular methods by which cheerful obedience, regularity, diligence, and general good conduct are to be preserved in a training establishment, more especially in the industrial department, cannot be detailed within the limits of this report. They vary with the exigency, and are suggested in each case by the judgment, experience, good-feeling, and educational tact of those by whom the establishment is conducted. It will be understood that the whole rests upon a religious basis, and is referred constantly, and expressly, yet not obtrusively, to a religious standard; care being taken to prevent phrases and professions from anticipating the growth of real feelings.

"The business of the house is partly performed by the students, and partly by female servants. The former clean all the shoes, and knives, &c., lay the cloth, &c., and wait at meals, sweep and dust the school-rooms, keep the courts clean, light and attend to all the fires except those in the kitchen department, regulate the gas-lights, keep up a constant supply of water throughout the college by means of a forcing-pump, and attend to the drainage, which is also effected by means of a pump. It has not been thought advisable that they should make their beds or wash the floors. It is not likely that they will ever be called upon to perform these offices when they leave the college, while the loss of time, and the injury done to their clothes, more than counterbalance any pecuniary saving which could in this way be effected.

"The labors of the farm are principally confined to the care of domestic animals—cows and pigs, and poultry of various kinds. The cows are milked by the youths, and an accurate account kept of the produce of the farm and dairy, which is consumed almost entirely in the establishment. The utility of this part of the establishment is too evident to require a comment.

"The gardens, lawns, and shrubberies furnish abundant employment for those not otherwise engaged; and though a considerable portion of time and attention is necessarily allotted to ornamental horticulture, yet this will be found by no means the least useful or the least appropriate feature of the scheme. There is perhaps no form in which habits of manual industry can be encouraged more easily or more beneficially, either with a view to the immediate or to the ulterior effect, than by the occupations of the garden. Not to mention their effect upon the health and happiness of the youths, or the lessons which they teach of patience, order, and neatness, they are decidedly favorable to the growth of intelligence, and this of the best kind—more particularly when connected with the study of botany, which may with peculiar propriety be called the poor man's science. When studied on physiological principles, its close connection with the best and holiest truths give it a yet higher claim to our attention.

"Looking forward to the future position of our students, almost every country schoolmaster might be, with much advantage, both to himself and to his neighborhood, a gardener and a florist. The encouragement lately afforded to cottage gardening has been already attended with the most pleasing results. The parochial schoolmaster who shall be able to assist by example and precept in fostering a taste so favorable to the domestic happiness, and, in fact, to the domestic virtues of a rustic population—a taste by which an air of comfort is communicated to the rudest dwelling, and a certain grace thrown over the simplest forms of humble life—will, it is trusted, in this as in so many other ways, be made an instrument of good, and an efficient assistant to the parochial clergyman."

In connection with the moral purposes of the industrial occupations of the students, the office of the industrial master is considered of the highest importance.

"It is his duty to maintain order and enforce discipline—not, however, by mere drill, however skillfully organized or efficiently conducted, but by the influence of his example and the force of his character; to live among them, and to lead them on, as well by precept as by occasionally sharing in their occupations, to simple, industrious, and strictly regular habits; to settle disputes and allay jealousies; to correct personal conceit and every the least approach to a love of show and finery; to recommend (and this not by words only) an humble and dutiful industriousness, setting forth the religious obligation and beneficial tendency, not merely of labor in general, but of bodily labor in particular, as a

blessing growing out of, and, in the case of those by whom it is rightly used, superseding, if I may so speak, the penal character of toil, through Him by whom, after an ineffable manner, it has been rendered holy, honorable, and of good report in the Church;—all this with a reference to the special aim of the institution, as an instrument for elevating and ameliorating the lot of the laboring poor.”

Schools of Practice.—Opportunities for practice in teaching and conducting school are afforded in a Practicing or Model School, on the premises, and the Chelsea Parochial School. The Model School is composed of 142 children, of whom a certain number are admitted upon the free list, and the rest pay a fee of 4*d.* per week, or 3*s.* per quarter. The latter are principally children of respectable mechanics, market-gardeners, and working-people. Mr. Coleridge thus characterizes them:—

“There are among them many very promising lads, in whom a toward nature, and perhaps some home-training, must share whatever praise may be thought due to their actual character and attainments. It is from these and such as these, wherever they may be found, that I would select our future teachers. Many of them come from a considerable distance—as much as two or even three miles—bringing their dinners with them, which they eat in the school-room, under the eye of a teacher; the same attention being paid to the propriety of their behavior as if they were boarders. Their little hymn of praise is sung by themselves at the beginning and conclusion of their simple meal, the materials of which in most cases indicate but a scanty competence at home; while the sum paid for their schooling, as well as the punctuality of their attendance, are each of them—the latter, perhaps, not less than the former—a proof that considerable efforts, and even sacrifices, will be made by respectable persons of this class to procure what they consider good instruction for their children.”

It having been considered expedient to extend yet further the facilities for practice in the art of teaching supplied to the students, and to make them familiar with it in its application to schools more nearly of the same class with those the charge of which will ultimately devolve upon them, an arrangement has been made by which a certain number of them are employed daily in the Chelsea Parochial School. To facilitate the details of this arrangement, one of the students, whose term of training has expired, has been appointed to the office of master of that school, with permission to reside in the college, from whence the students accompany him daily to the school. Mr. Coleridge thus speaks of the connection of this school with the institution:—

“If the practicing school should be thought not to prepare the young men for the difficulties of their vocation—the children being of a better sort, or taught under greater advantages, than they can expect to find hereafter—no such objection lies against the parochial school. Nothing can be more humble—I might almost say, abject—than the domestic condition, generally speaking, of the poor children, who are here provided, not merely with instruction, but with the motive to seek it—with the clothes without which many would not, and others could not, come to school at all. Some, indeed, of the children pay a penny a week; but the greater number are taught gratuitously, and of these as many are comfortably clothed as the funds at the command of the committee will permit. The benevolence of the directors, and in particular of the rector of the parish, is specially directed toward the children of the very poor—attracted by the misery, undeterred by the vice and self-abandonment with which the lowest estate of poverty is too often attended. Hence they have been unwilling to raise the character of the school by any means inconsistent with this charitable object, and would rather do a little good to those who want it so much, than seem to do more to those who want it less. But, as intimated above, the very difficulties by which the school is embarrassed—whether from the character of the children or any other cause—enhance the value of the experience which may be gained in it by the teachers; and although some time must elapse before the

effects of the present management upon the welfare of the school can appear, yet it is hoped that an improvement has already taken place beneath the surface. This connection—with the results of which, so far as they have gone, I am authorized to state that the rector of the parish is fully satisfied—will relieve the funds of the school to a certain extent, without burdening those of the National Society.”

Mr. Moseley, the Inspector, submits the following remarks at the close of his Report, on the condition of this Institution in 1846:—

“No purpose of such an institution is obviously of equal importance with that which proposes to itself the formation of the religious character of the students, in the true and comprehensive sense of that term; and it is with heartfelt pleasure that I bear testimony to the impression left upon my mind by my visits to St. Mark's College, of the success with which religious influences have, under the blessing of God, been made to operate there.

“If the moral aspect of the institution be that in which it is most grateful to contemplate it; if in the cheerful conformity of the students to the rules of its discipline, in their submissive deportment toward their superiors, and their steady pursuit of an arduous path of duty, there be evidence of a dedicated and a chastened spirit; if their intercourse with the children whose education is intrusted to their charge, be characterized not less by that kindly tone and that humanized demeanor, than by that more just recognition of their social position and truer self-respect, which are usually associated with a gentler birth than theirs, and a more careful nurture; all these advantages, so inestimable in themselves, and in their relation to the purposes of the institution, are the legitimate fruits of the formation of a religious character, and are evidences of its existence. To the formation of such a character, the prominence given in the system of the institution to the services of the college chapel, cannot but contribute in an eminent degree; and in assigning to them the first place among those characteristic features of the system which I am desirous to bring under your lordships' notice, I am not only following the order in which they came under my own observation, but assigning to them their due place and their relative importance. The chapel is, in Mr. Coleridge's system, ‘the key-stone to the arch.’”

* * * * *

Passing to the subject of secular instruction, I am desirous to record my entire adhesion, in a general sense, to the views entertained by Mr. Coleridge on the relative importance of literature and science, as proper elements of a course of secular instruction in its adaptation to the purposes of this institution. These views are set forth in the following paragraphs of his last letter:—

“What these lads want is power of thought and language. Their verbal memory is dormant; they are incapable of the simplest abstraction. Till this be remedied, they can neither classify nor analyze; they cannot vary the form without changing the matter; they cannot illustrate—they cannot explain; in a word, they cannot teach. They have learned a certain number of facts—or rather, perhaps, a form of words in which facts are recounted—and might easily be taught a great many more in the same way; but they cannot combine or employ them, or so much as recognize them in an altered dress.” * *

“Science, however valuable in itself as a discipline of the mind, and however useful in its application to the mechanic arts, is of no avail for the purposes above mentioned. It will not enable an ignorant boy to express himself with common propriety; it will not furnish him with the machinery of thought, or prepare him for the acquisition of knowledge in general. It will indeed strengthen his faculties, and raise him intellectually in the scale of being, but it will not serve as a foundation. Again, from whatever cause, it is not found to have the same effect as studies of another description in softening and refining the character; and though this may be easily carried to excess, yet to humanize the coarse, rude natures, common in a greater or less degree to all uneducated boys, and in this way to gentle their condition, is among the most important ends of the institution.”

Whatever difference of opinion there may be as to some of those considerations by which Mr. Coleridge has thus sought to define the respective provinces of science and literature, there can, in my opinion, be none as to the general

result at which he has arrived. I believe that he has assigned to each its due importance, and that each actually holds, in the system of the institution, its legitimate place, and receives its due share of attention.

* * * * *

There is, however, a second stage in the education of a schoolmaster. He must not only have acquired the knowledge which he has to communicate, but be acquainted with the best methods of communicating it, and thoroughly practiced in the use of those methods. All the elements of education hitherto spoken of, are common to him and to every other educated man, and are not peculiar to a training college: the functions of such a college are not discharged until a professional education is superadded.

It is in the experience of every teacher, that to embrace a truth one's self, and to be able to present it under the simplest form to the mind of another, are essentially different things: the one is a condition *necessary*, but not *sufficient* to the realization of the other.

I am not urging the claims of any of the particular schemes, or methods of instruction, which may at any time have been propounded, although I believe that the students in such an institution should be conversant with all of them; I am simply insisting on the necessity of making teaching, as *an art*, the subject of study in a training college, in respect to *each subject* taught; of viewing each such subject under a double aspect, as that which is to become an element of the student's own knowledge, and as that which he is to be made capable of presenting under so simple a form, that it may become an element of the knowledge of a child. If it be said that such knowledge will be given by that practice of the art of teaching which will form the occupation of the student's future life, I ask whether it is not in the experience of every person conversant with education, that a master may be possessed of all the knowledge he is called upon to teach; and far more than it—he may, in the ordinary sense of the word, and even in its highest sense, be an educated man; and to these qualifications he may add the experience of a whole life spent in tuition, and yet never have become a skillful teacher.

Appealing to my own experience as an inspector, I can bear testimony to the fact that among the schools of which my opinion is recorded the least favorably, are some, whose demerits are not to be attributed to any want of education or of general intelligence in their masters, or of a character formed upon Christian principles, but simply to *ignorance of the art of teaching*.

If I were asked (supposing the requisite knowledge of the subject taught) what constituted a good teacher? I should say, an habitual study of the best methods, and of the art of teaching. And if it were inquired of me why so few good teachers were to be found? I should say, because so few *study* it—or look upon it, indeed, at all in the light of a proper subject of study.

It is true that, as in all other branches of practical knowledge, some possess greater natural advantages for the acquisition of the art of teaching than others, and, by the prompting of these, being led to the study of it, become self-taught in it. And, in like manner, if any other branch of knowledge, now the subject of ordinary instruction, had never been analyzed and simplified for that purpose, or taught systematically—and if all men were, under these circumstances, left to their own resources in the acquisition of it, and to their own choice whether they would acquire it or not—yet some, incited and encouraged to the pursuit of it by the bent of what is called genius, would find out for themselves the path which leads to it, overleap the intervening difficulties, and attain it.

I believe it to be thus with the art of teaching. Some few, by dint of natural qualifications, acquire that skill which a systematic course of instruction would make in a great degree common to all; and thus the false opinion has grown up that no man can become a good schoolmaster who is not endowed naturally with peculiar qualifications for the office.

It is to be borne in mind that the work of the elementary schoolmaster is one of no ordinary difficulty. A crowd of poor children is brought to him, in whom the moral sense is in abeyance—who have never been taught to think—who have little or no knowledge which may form the subject of thought, and are without the means of acquiring that knowledge. He must teach them to read, to write, to cipher, and impart to them the elements of religious knowledge: but this is

not all: he will fail of the really valuable results of education if he do not further teach them to think and to understand—store their minds with legitimate subjects of thought, and cultivate the habit of self-instruction.

For the accomplishment of these objects, the time allowed to him is short, the means limited, and often inadequate.

If he have beforehand weighed the difficulties and discouragements of his work, carefully and systematically studied the best methods of encountering them, considered the various circumstances of the application of those methods, and the modifications thereby rendered proper to them, and practiced himself in the use of them; and if, actuated by the highest motives—in reliance on the Divine blessing—strong in the requisite preparation, but without extravagant hopes of the result—he then give his heart to the work, and pursue it hopefully, cheerfully, and perseveringly—it will prosper in his hands.

Without such a preparation, his first impulse will be to sit down and weep; his second, in despair of any useful result, to shrink into the mere mechanical discharge of his school duties.

The elementary schoolmaster must be a man of *action*: his functions are *aggressive*, and call for the exercise of decision of character, a prompt judgment, a ready skill, and a facile intelligence. A passive, impressible, abstracted, and exclusively literary character, however pleasing as the subject of speculation, in connection with the office of a village schoolmaster, is foreign to the business of a great school.

I can imagine no concurrence of circumstances better calculated to form an efficient schoolmaster, than a previous course of professional instruction, subdued in every phase and form of its development to that one object; assigning not to a single teacher the realization of that object, but concentrating the labors of all—each in his own department—upon it. To youths who had enjoyed the advantages of a course of instruction like this, the duties of a schoolmaster's life, and its responsibilities, would have become, in some sort, a second nature. That ambition which receives so early its impulse, would, in minds thus preoccupied, obtain its legitimate direction, and the labor of their office would become less irksome to them when looked upon in the light of an exercise of *skill* not less than a duty.

The following remarks on the results of the methods pursued in this Institution, and, incidentally, in other Institutions of the same kind, are taken from the Report of Mr. Moseley, in 1847:—

If, with reference to its professional bearings, there be any defect in the prescribed course, it does not appear to lie in this, that it aims at too high a standard of attainment in every subject to which the attention of the students is directed.

It is not to be supposed that, to become good teachers, they can know too much of the subjects they have to teach. Of the elementary lessons it has been my duty to listen to and to pass a judgment upon, here and elsewhere, the prevailing and characteristic defect has been, not too much knowledge, but too little. Had the teacher known more of the subject of his lesson, it has been my constant observation, that he would have been able to select from it things better adapted for the instruction of children. Had his mind been more highly cultivated, and the resources of his intellect brought by education more fully under his control, he would have been able to place them under simpler forms, and in a better manner to adapt the examination founded upon them to the individual capacities of the children he had to teach. *Accordingly, the simplest lessons I have listened to in training schools, have commonly been those delivered by the ablest and best-instructed students.*

It is not the fact, that the teacher knows too much, which makes him unintelligible to the child, but, that he knows nothing which the child can comprehend, or that he has never studied what he has to teach in the light in which a child can be made to comprehend it.

That fullness of knowledge on the part of the teacher, of which my experience has led me to appreciate the importance, is a fullness of the knowledge of things adapted to the instruction of children, *studied* under the forms in which they are

most readily intelligible to them; of things learned in the light in which they are also to be taught. It includes, notwithstanding, the knowledge of many things which a child can never be expected to know. That the teacher may be able to present the subject under its most elementary form to the mind of the child, he must himself have gone to the root of it. That he may exhaust it of *all* that it is capable of yielding for the child's instruction, he must have compassed the whole of it.

In his preparation for the discharge of functions such as these, even with respect to that limited number of subjects which enter into the business of elementary instruction, there is ample room, and verge enough, for a long course of study, which, whilst on the one hand it is strictly professional in its bearings, yields to no other, as a means of accomplishing the highest objects of a general education.

It is not, however, to be denied, that in that function of a training school which is directed to the simple acquisition of knowledge separated from, or exercised out of the view of, that other which contemplates the imparting of it, there is a tendency to defeat the object for which such institutions have been established.

Every man must be conscious of a separation made by education, between his own mind and that of a less educated man; a separation which enlarges with each step of his intellectual progress, and which is widened to its utmost conceivable limits, when the relation is that of a poor ignorant child to a teacher otherwise highly instructed, but who knows nothing likely to interest the child, or has been accustomed to study nothing in the light in which it may be made intelligible to the child. Their intercourse, under these circumstances, cannot but be mutually distasteful, and the school must be to both equally a place of bondage; the child neither benefiting by it as a learner, nor the master as a teacher.

Every thing which I have observed leads to the conclusion, that the course of the training school, to be successful, must not be limited to the one function of giving the student the learning he may require; the other, that which concerns the art of teaching, being left to self-instruction and to practice.

One of those results of the recent examination of the Battersea Training School, which appeared to me the most important, was the progress the schoolmasters who came up for examination had obviously made, *as teachers*, since they left the Institution, placing them in this respect greatly in advance of the resident students. I have not observed the same result in institutions where the importance of the study of the art of teaching is not to the same extent felt, and where the relation of the elementary school to the training college is not so constantly kept in view.

It struck me as remarkable, in the lessons delivered by the candidates for certificates in the model-school at St. Mark's, that there was no attempt made to transfer the knowledge to be communicated directly from the mind of the teacher to the minds of the children.

Their idea of an oral lesson seemed to be comprised in an *examination*. Nor was it a *questioning* of knowledge from their own minds to those of the children, by that process which is called the interrogative method, but, simply, a *vivâ voce* examination into what the children actually knew, limited for the most part to the subject-matter of some lesson which they had previously read; and as it did not thus enter apparently into the teacher's idea of an oral lesson that the children should know any thing more when it was completed than when it began, so did this seem to be the result.

In the printed form of report on the qualifications of candidates for certificates, one of the questions we are instructed to answer has reference to the character of the "Exposition" of the candidate in teaching, whether it be fluent or not. The answer recorded to this question in almost every case which came under our observation at St. Mark's is, "No exposition." With reference to the same question at Battersea, we have recorded that, in the lessons we listened to there, there was too much exposition, and too little examination. At Chester the two seemed to be more judiciously united in the proportions of a good lesson. There was this feature, moreover, worthy of observation in the lessons delivered in the Chester School, that the teacher broke up his lesson into parts, teaching by the way of exposition, only so long at one time as not to weary the attention of the

children, and overburden their memories, then examining upon that portion, afterward taking up the subject where he had left it off, and thus continuing the process until the lesson was completed, when he examined upon the whole of it.

Oral teaching requires, more than any other, constant *self-teaching* on the part of the master. It is a method which will be adopted by no master who is not of a dedicated spirit and fond of his work. Besides, however, that satisfaction which he will derive from it in the *success* of his school, he will not fail to experience this other, that whatever, for this object, he teaches himself, will be fixed more firmly in his mind, and that his knowledge of it will receive a character of clearness and precision not, perhaps, otherwise to be gained.

In the teaching of the students of all the Training Institutions I have observed, and it was perhaps to be expected, a perpetual tendency to travel out of the sphere of the intelligence of the children, and out of the limits of that kind of knowledge which is likely to interest or to benefit them; but nowhere does there appear to be less effort made to subdue this tendency, and systematically to subject the lesson, both as to the matter and the manner of it, to the exigencies of the child, than at St. Mark's College. Nothing would tend so effectually to correct this evil as the addition to the staff of the Institution of a model elementary teacher, on whose efforts those of the students might, with advantage, be formed, and to which they might be encouraged to refer them as a standard.

NORMAL SCHOOL

FOR THE TRAINING OF PAROCHIAL SCHOOLMASTERS,

AT BATTERSEA, ENGLAND.

THE Battersca Training Establishment is the most interesting institution in England for the professional education of teachers. It was founded in 1839, by James Phillips Kay* (now Sir James Kay Shuttleworth), Secretary of the Committee of Council on Education, and E. C. Tufnel, Esq., Assistant Poor-Law Commissioner, with two distinguishing objects:—

1. To give an example of normal education for schoolmasters, comprising the formation of character, the development of the intelligence, appropriate technical instruction, and the acquisition of method and practical skill in conducting an elementary school.

2. To illustrate the truth that, without violating the rights of conscience, masters trained in a spirit of Christian charity, and instructed in the discipline and doctrines of the Church, might be employed in the mixed schools necessarily connected with public establishments, and in which children of persons of all shades of religious opinion are assembled.

It was founded as a private enterprise, and at an expense of \$12,000 to the individuals named, in the hope that it might be employed, if the experiment should prove successful, by the Government, in supplying teachers for schools of industry for pauper children, like those at Norwood, Manchester, Liverpool, and elsewhere; for reformatory institutions for juvenile criminals; for "ragged schools" for neglected and vagrant children in large cities; and for schools of royal foundation at dock-yards and in men-of-war. The original constitution impressed upon the normal school was conceived in this view. But, in 1843, the institution, having proved successful, and it being no longer convenient for its founders personally to superintend its operations, was transferred to the management of the National Society, for the purpose of being also instrumental in spreading a truly Christian civilization through the masses of the people in manufacturing districts. In announcing this fact, the founders, in their Report in 1843, remark:—

Our personal experience had made us early acquainted with the absence of a growth in the spiritual and intellectual life of the masses, corresponding with the vast material prosperity of the manufacturing districts.

We had witnessed the failure of efforts to found a scheme of combined education on the emancipation of infants from the slavery into which the necessities and ignorance of their parents, and the intensity of commercial competition, had sold them.

To arrest the progress of degeneracy toward materialism and sensuality, appeared to us to be the task most worthy of citizens in a nation threatened by corruption from the consequences of ignorance and excessive labor among her lower orders.

It is impossible that the legislature should, year after year, receive and publish such accounts of the condition of the people as are contained in the Reports

* Mr. Kay in 1813 assumed the name of Shuttleworth, in consequence of receiving a legacy from a person of that name; and in 1843 was knighted by the queen, for his services to the cause of elementary instruction.

of the Hand-loom Weavers' Commission, or of the Commission on the Employment of Women and Children, or that on the Dwellings of the Poor and on the Sanitary Condition of Large Towns, without resolving to confer on the poor some great reward of patience, by offering national security for their future welfare.

These considerations have a general relation, but the state of the manufacturing poor is that which awakens the greatest apprehension. The labor which they undergo is excessive, and they sacrifice their wives and infants to the claims of their poverty, and to the demands of the intense competition of trade. Almost every thing around them tends to materialize and inflame them.

They are assembled in masses,—they are exposed to the physical evils arising from the neglect of sanitary precautions, and to the moral contamination of towns,—they are accustomed to combine in trades-unions and political associations,—they are more accessible by agitators, and more readily excited by them.

The time for inquiry into their condition is past, the period for the interference of a sagacious national forethought is at hand. We therefore felt that the imminent risks attending this condition of the manufacturing poor established the largest claim on an institution founded to educate Christian teachers for the people.

No material change has been made in the plan of the school in consequence of this transfer of management, or enlargement of the design; and the history of its establishment and original constitution will therefore be both appropriate and profitable to an understanding of its present operations. The following account is drawn from* the "*First and Second Reports on the Training School at Battersea, to the Poor-Law Commissioners,*" published in a volume entitled "Reports on the Training of Pauper Children. 1841."

The training of pauper children in a workhouse or district school cannot be successful unless the teacher be moved by Christian charity to the work of rearing in religion and industry the outcast and orphan children of our rural and city population. The difficulty of redeeming by education the mischief wrought in generations of a vicious parentage, can be estimated only by those who know how degenerate these children are.

The pauper children assembled at Norwood, from the garrets, cellars, and wretched rooms of alleys and courts in the dense parts of London, are often sent thither in a low stage of destitution, covered only with rags and vermin; often the victims of chronic disease; almost universally stunted in their growth; and sometimes emaciated with want. The low-browed and inexpressive physiognomy or malign aspect of the boys is a true index to the mental darkness, the stubborn tempers, the hopeless spirits, and the vicious habits on which the master has to work. He needs no small support from Christian faith and charity for the successful prosecution of such a labor; and no quality can compensate for the want of that spirit of self-sacrifice and tender concern for the well-being of these children, without which their instruction would be any thing but a labor of love. A baker, or a shoemaker, or a shop apprentice, or commercial clerk, cannot be expected to be imbued with this spirit, during a residence of six months in the neighborhood of a model-school, if he has not imbibed it previously at its source.

The men who undertake this work should not set about it in the spirit of hirelings, taking the speediest means to procure a maintenance with the least amount of trouble. A commercial country will always offer irresistible temptations to desert such a profession, to those to whom the annual stipend is the chief if not sole motive to exertion. The outcast must remain neglected, if there be no principle which, even in the midst of a commercial people, will enable men to devote themselves to this vocation from higher motives than the mere love of money.

Experience of the motives by which the class of schoolmasters now plying their trade in this country are commonly actuated, is a graver source of want of

confidence in their ability to engage in this labor, than the absence of skill in their profession. A great number of them undertake these duties either because they are incapacitated by age or infirmity for any other, or because they have failed in all other attempts to procure a livelihood, or because, in the absence of well-qualified competitors, the least amount of exertion and talent enables the most indolent schoolmasters to present average claims on public confidence and support. Rare indeed are the examples in which skill and principle are combined in the agents employed in this most important sphere of national self-government. Other men will not enable you to restore the children of vagabonds and criminals to society, purged of the taint of their parents' vices, and prepared to perform their duties as useful citizens in an humble sphere.

The peculiarities of the character and condition of the pauper children demand the use of appropriate means for their improvement. The general principles on which the education of children of all classes should be conducted are doubtless fundamentally the same; but for each class specific modifications are requisite, not only in the methods, but in the matter of instruction.

The discipline, management, and methods of instruction in elementary schools for the poor, differ widely from those which ought to characterize schools for the middle or upper classes of society. The instruction of the blind, of the deaf and dumb, of criminals, of paupers, and of children in towns and in rural districts, renders necessary the use of a variety of distinct methods in order to attain the desired end.

The peculiarity of the pauper child's condition is, that his parents, either from misfortune, or indolence, or vice, have sunk into destitution. In many instances children descend from generations of paupers. They have been born in the worst purlieus of a great city, or in the most wretched hovels on the parish waste. They have suffered privation of every kind. Perhaps they have wandered about the country in beggary, or have been taught the arts of petty thieving in the towns. They have lived with brutal and cruel men and women, and have suffered from their caprice and mismanagement. They have seen much of vice and wretchedness, and have known neither comfort, kindness, nor virtue.

If they are sent very young to the work-house, their entire training in religious knowledge, and in all the habits of life, devolves on the schoolmaster. If they come under his care at a later period, his task is difficult in proportion to the vicious propensities he has to encounter.

The children to whose improvement Pestalozzi devoted his life were of a similar class,—equally ignorant, and perhaps equally demoralized, in consequence of the internal discords attendant on the revolutionary wars which, at the period when his labors commenced, had left Switzerland in ruin.

The class of children which De Fellenberg placed under the charge of Vehrli at Hofwyl were in like manner picked up on the roads of the canton—they were the outcasts of Berne.

These circumstances are among the motives which led us to a careful examination of the schools of industry and normal schools of the cantons of Switzerland. These schools are more or less under the influence of the lessons which Pestalozzi and De Fellenberg have taught that country. They differ in some important particulars from those which exist in England, and the experience of Switzerland in this peculiar department of elementary instruction appears pre-eminently worthy of attention.

These orphan and normal schools of Switzerland, which have paid the deference due to the lessons of Pestalozzi and De Fellenberg, are remarkable for the gentleness and simplicity of the intercourse between the scholar and his master. The formation of character is always kept in mind as the great aim of education. The intelligence is enlightened, in order that it may inform the conscience, and that the conscience, looking forth through this intelligence, may behold a wider sphere of duty, and have at its command a greater capacity for action. The capacity for action is determined by the cultivation of habits appropriate to the duties of the station which the child must occupy.

Among the laboring class, no habit is more essential to virtuous conduct than that of steady and persevering labor. Manual skill connects the intelligence

with the brute force with which we are endued. The instruction in elementary schools should be so conducted as not only to assist the laborer in acquiring mechanical dexterity, but in bringing his intelligence to aid the labors of his hands, whether by a knowledge of the principles of form or numbers, or of the properties of natural objects, and the nature of the phenomena by which his labors are likely to be affected. In a commercial country, it is pre-eminently important to give him such an acquaintance with geography as may stimulate enterprise at home, or may tend to swell the stream of colonization which is daily extending the dominion of British commerce and civilization. Labor which brings the sweat upon the brows requires relaxation, and the child should therefore learn to repose from toil among innocent enjoyments, and to avoid those vicious indulgences which waste the laborer's strength, rob his house of comfort, and must sooner or later be the source of sorrow. There is a dignity in the lot of man in every sphere, if it be not cast away. The honor and the joy of successful toil should fill the laborer's songs in his hour of repose. From religion man learns that all the artificial distinctions of society are as nothing before that God who searcheth the heart. Religion, therefore, raises the laborer to the highest dignity of human existence, the knowledge of the will and the enjoyment of the favor of God. Instructed by religion, the laborer knows how in daily toil he fulfills the duties and satisfies the moral and natural necessities of his existence, while the outward garb of mortality is gradually wearing off, and the spirit preparing for emancipation.

An education guided by the principles described in this brief sketch, appears to us appropriate to the preparation of the outcast and orphan children for the great work of a Christian's life. * * *

That which seemed most important was the preparation of a class of teachers, who would cheerfully devote themselves, and, with anxious and tender solicitude, to rear these children, abandoned by all natural sympathies, as a wise and affectionate parent would prepare them for the duties of life.

To so grave a task as an attempt to devise the means of training these teachers, it was necessary to bring a patient and humble spirit, in order that the results of experience in this department might be examined, and that none that were useful might be hastily thrown aside. Our examination of the Continental schools was undertaken with this view. A visit was made to Holland at two successive periods, on the last of which we took one of Dr. Kay's most experienced schoolmasters with us, in order that he might improve himself by an examination of the methods of instruction in the Dutch schools, all the most remarkable of which were minutely inspected. A visit has been paid to Prussia and Saxony, in which several of the chief schools have been examined with a similar design. Two visits were paid to Paris, in which the normal school at Versailles, the Maison Mere, and Novitiate of the Brothers of the Order of the Christian Doctrine, and a great number of the elementary schools of Paris and the vicinity, were examined. The normal school at Dijon was especially recommended to our attention by M. Cousin and M. Villenain, and we spent a day in that school. Our attention was directed with peculiar interest to the schools of Switzerland, in the examination of which we spent several weeks uninterruptedly. During this period we daily inspected one or more schools, and conversed with the authorities of the several cantons, with the directors of the normal schools, and with individuals distinguished by their knowledge of the science of elementary instruction. The occasional leave of absence from our home duties which you have kindly granted us in the last three years respectively, was mainly solicited with the view, and devoted to the purpose, of examining the method of instruction adopted in the schools for the poorer classes on the Continent.

This report is not intended to convey to you the results of our inquiries. It may suffice to describe the chief places visited, and the objects to which our attention was directed, in order that you may know the sources whence we have derived the information by which our subsequent labors have been guided. We entered Switzerland by the Jura, descending at Geneva, and, having obtained the sanction of the authorities, were accompanied by some members of the council in our visit to the schools of the town and neighborhood. Thence we proceeded to the Canton de Vaud, inspecting certain rural schools, and the schools of the towns on the borders of the lake, on our way to Lausanne. Here

we spent two days, in company with M. Gauthey, the director of the normal school of the canton, whose valuable report has been translated by Sir John Boileau, our fellow-traveler in this part of our journey.

At Lausanne we attended the lectures, and examined the classes in the normal school and the town schools, and enjoyed much useful and instructive conversation with M. Gauthey, who appeared eminently well qualified for his important labors.

At Fribourg we spent some time in the convent of the Capuchin friars, where we found the venerable Pere Girard officiating at a religious festival, but he belongs to the Dominican order. The Pere Girard has a European reputation among those who have labored to raise the elementary instruction of the poorer classes, consequent on his pious labors among the poor of Fribourg; and the success of his schools appeared to us chiefly attributable,—first, to the skill and assiduity with which the monitors had been instructed in the evening by the father and his assistants, by which they had been raised to the level of the pupil teachers of Holland; and secondly, to the skillful manner in which Pere Girard and his assistants had infused a moral lesson into every incident of the instruction, and had bent the whole force of their minds to the formation of the characters of the children. It was, at the period of our visit, the intention of Pere Girard to publish a series of works of elementary instruction at Paris, for which we have since waited in vain.

At Berne, we spent much time in conversation with M. De Fellenberg, at Hofwyl. We visited his great establishment for education there, as well as the normal school at Munchen Buchsee, in which visit we were accompanied by M. De Fellenberg. What we learned from the conversation of this patriotic and high-minded man we cannot find space here to say. His words are better read in the establishments which he has founded, and which he superintends, and in the influence which his example and his precepts have had on the rest of Switzerland, and on other parts of Europe. The town schools of Berne and other parts of the canton merited, and received our attention.

At Lucerne we carefully examined the normal and orphan schools. Thence we proceeded through Schweitz, with the intention of visiting the colony of the Linth, in Glarus, but failed, from the state of the mountain roads. Crossing the Lake of Zurich at Rapperschwyl, we successively visited St. Gall and Appenzell, examining some of the most interesting orphan schools in the mountains, particularly one kept by a pupil of De Fellenberg at Teuffen, the normal school at Gais (Kruisi, the director of which is a pupil of Pestalozzi), and the orphan school of M. Zeltveger at Appenzell.

Descending from the mountains, we crossed the lake to Constance, where we found Vehrli, who had many years conducted the poor-school of De Fellenberg at Hofwyl, now in charge of the normal school of the canton of Thurgovia, in a large mansion once connected with the convent of Kruitlingen. Here we spent two days in constant communication with Vehrli and his pupils, in the examination of his classes, and deriving from him much information respecting his labors. From Constance we traveled to Zurich, where we carefully examined the normal and model schools, both at that time considerably shaken by the recent revolution.

At Lenzberg we had much useful conversation with the director of the normal school of the canton of Aargovia; thence we traveled to Basle, where we visited the orphan house of the town, and also that at Beuggen, as well as other schools of repute.

We have ventured to give this sketch of our journey in Switzerland, as some apology for the strength of the opinion we have formed on the necessity which exists for the establishment of a training school for the teachers of pauper children in this country. Our inquiries were not confined to this object; but both here, at Paris, in Holland, and in Germany, we bought every book which we thought might be useful in our future labors; and in every canton we were careful to collect all the laws relating to education, the regulations of the normal and elementary schools, and the by-laws by which these institutions were governed.

In the orphan schools which have emanated from Pestalozzi and De Fellenberg, we found the type which has assisted us in our subsequent labors. In

walking with M. De Fellenberg through Hofwyl, we listened to the precepts which we think most applicable to the education of the pauper class. In the normal school of the canton of Thurgovia, and in the orphan schools of St. Gall and Appenzell, we found the development of those principles so far successful as to assure us of their practical utility. * * *

We were anxious that a work of such importance should be undertaken by the authorities most competent to carry it into execution successfully, and we painfully felt how inadequate our own resources and experience were for the management of such an experiment; but after various inquiries, which were attended with few encouraging results, we thought that as a last resort we should not incur the charge of presumption, if, in private and unaided, we endeavored to work out the first steps of the establishment of an institution for the training of teachers, which we hoped might afterward be intrusted to abler hands. We determined, therefore, to devote a certain portion of our own means to this object, believing that when the scheme of the institution was sufficiently mature to enable us to speak of results rather than of anticipations, the well-being of 50,000 pauper children would plead its own cause with the government and the public, so as to secure the future prosperity of the establishment.

The task proposed was, to reconcile a simplicity of life not remote from the habits of the humbler classes, with such proficiency in intellectual attainments, such a knowledge of method, and such skill in the art of teaching, as would enable the pupils selected to become efficient masters of elementary schools. We hoped to inspire them with a large sympathy for their own class; to implant in their minds the thought that their chief honor would be to aid in rescuing that class from the misery of ignorance and its attendant vices; to wean them from the influence of that personal competition in a commercial society which leads to sordid aims; to place before them the unsatisfied want of the uneasy and distressed multitude; and to breathe into them the charity which seeks to heal its mental and moral diseases.

We were led to select premises at Battersea, chiefly on account of the very frank and cordial welcome with which the suggestion of our plans was received by the Hon. and Rev. Robert Eden, the vicar of Battersea. Mr. Eden offered the use of his village schools in aid of the training school, as the sphere in which the pupils might obtain a practical acquaintance with the art of instruction. He also undertook to superintend the training school in all that related to religion.

We therefore chose a spacious manor-house close to the Thames, surrounded by a garden of five acres. This house was altered and divided so as to afford a good separate residence to Dr. Kay,* who undertook to superintend the progress of the establishment for a limited period, within which it was hoped that the principles on which the training school was to be conducted would be so far developed as to be in course of prosperous execution, and not likely to perish by being confided to other hands.

In the month of January, 1840, the class-rooms were fitted up with desks on the plan described on the minutes of the Committee of Council, and we furnished the school-house. About the beginning of February some boys were removed from the School of Industry at Norwood, whose conduct had given us confidence in their characters, and who had made a certain proficiency in the elementary instruction of that school.

These boys were chiefly orphans, of little more than thirteen years of age, intended to form a class of apprentices. These apprentices would be bound from the age of fourteen to that of twenty-one, to pursue, under the guidance and direction of the Poor-Law Commission, the vocation of assistant teachers in elementary schools. For this purpose they were to receive instruction at least three years in the training school, and to be employed as pupil teachers for two years at least in the Battersea village school during three hours of every day.

At the termination of this probationary period (if they were able satisfactorily to pass a certain examination) they were to receive a certificate, and to be employed as assistant teachers, under the guidance of experienced and well-conducted masters, in some of the schools of industry for pauper children. They were at

* For which he paid half the rent and taxes, in addition to his share of the expenses of the school.

this period to be rewarded with a certain remuneration, increasing from year to year, and secured to them by the form of the indenture.

If they were unable to satisfy the examiners of their proficiency in every department of elementary instruction, and thus failed in obtaining their certificate, they would continue to receive instruction at Battersea until they had acquired the requisite accomplishments.

The number of pupil teachers of this class has been gradually increased, during the period which has since elapsed, to twenty-four. But it seemed essential to the success of the school that the numbers should increase slowly. Its existence was disclosed only to the immediate circles of our acquaintance, by whom some boys were sent to the school, besides those whom we supported at our own expense. For the clothing, board and lodging, and education of each of these boys, who were confided to our care by certain of our friends, we consented to receive £20 per annum toward the general expenses of the schools.

Besides the class of pupil teachers, we consented to receive young men, to remain at least one year in the establishment, either recommended by our personal friends, or to be trained for the schools of gentlemen with whom we were acquainted. These young men have generally been from twenty to thirty years of age.

The course of instruction, and the nature of the discipline adopted for the training of these young men, will be described in detail. This class now amounts to nine, a number accumulated only by very gradual accessions, as we were by no means desirous to attract many students until our plans were more mature, and the instruments of our labor were tried and approved.

The domestic arrangements were conducted with great simplicity, because it was desirable that the pupils should be prepared for a life of self-denial. A sphere of great usefulness might require the labors of a man ready to live among the peasantry on their own level,—to mingle with them in their habitations,—to partake their frugal or even coarse meals,—and to seem their equal only, though their instructor and guide. It was desirable, therefore, that the diet should be as frugal as was consistent with constant activity of mind, and some hours of steady and vigorous labor, and that it should not pamper the appetite by its quality or its variety.

The whole household-work was committed to the charge of the boys and young men; and for this purpose the duties of each were appointed every fortnight, in order that they might be equally shared by all. The young men above twenty years of age did not aid in the scouring of the floors and stairs, nor clean the shoes, grates, and yards, nor assist in the serving and waiting at meals, the preparation of vegetables and other garden-stuff for the cook. But the making of beds and all other domestic duty was a common lot; and the young men acted as superintendents of the other work.

This was performed with cheerfulness, though it was some time before the requisite skill was attained; and perfect order and cleanliness have been found among the habits most difficult to secure. The pupils and students were carefully informed, that these arrangements were intended to prepare them for the discharge of serious duties in a humble sphere, and to nerve their minds for the trials and vicissitudes of life.

The masters partook the same diet as the pupils, sitting in the center of the room, and assisting in the carving. They encouraged familiar conversation (avoiding the extremes of levity or seriousness) at the meals, but on equal terms with their scholars, with the exception only of the respect involuntarily paid them.

After a short time a cow was bought, and committed to the charge of one of the elder boys. Three pigs were afterward added to the stock, then three goats, and subsequently poultry and a second cow. These animals were all fed and tended, and the cows were daily milked, by the pupil teachers. It seemed important that they should learn to tend animals with care and gentleness; that they should understand the habits and the mode of managing these particular animals, because the schoolmaster in a rural parish often has a common or forest-right of pasture for his cow, and a forest-run for his pig or goat, and might thus, with a little skill, be provided with the means of healthful occupation in his hours of leisure, and of providing for the comfort of his family.

Moreover, such employments were deemed important, as giving the pupils, by actual experience, some knowledge of a peasant's life, and, therefore, truer and closer sympathy with his lot. They would be able to render their teaching instructive, by adapting it to the actual condition and associations of those to whom it would be addressed. They would be in less danger of despising the laborer's daily toil in comparison with intellectual pursuits, and of being led by their own attainments to form a false estimate of their position in relation to the class to which they belonged, and which they were destined to instruct. The teacher of the peasant's child occupies, as it were, the father's place, in the performance of duties from which the father is separated by his daily toil, and unhappily, at present, by his want of knowledge and skill. But the schoolmaster ought to be prepared in thought and feeling to do the peasant-father's duty, by having sentiments in common with him, and among these an honest pride in the labor of his hands, in his strength, his manual skill, his robust health, and the manly vigor of his body and mind.

At first, four hours were devoted every day to labor in the garden. The whole school rose at half past five. The household-work occupied the pupil teachers altogether, and the students partially, till a quarter to seven o'clock. At a quarter to seven they marched into the garden, and worked till a quarter to eight, when they were summoned to prayers. They then marched to the tool-house, deposited their implements, washed, and assembled at prayers at eight o'clock. At half past eight they breakfasted. From nine to twelve they were in school. They worked at the garden from twelve to one, when they dined. They resumed their labor in the garden at two, and returned to their classes at three, where they were engaged till five, when they worked another hour in the garden. At six they supped, and spent from seven to nine in their classes. At nine, evening prayers were read, and immediately afterward they retired to rest. * * *

In these labors the pupils and students rapidly gained strength. They almost all soon wore the hue of health. Their food was frugal, and they returned to it with appetites which were not easily satisfied. The most delicate soon lost all their ailments. * * *

The gymnastic frame and the horizontal and parallel bars were not erected until the constitutional and muscular powers of the pupils and students had been invigorated by labor. After a few months' daily work in the garden, the drill was substituted for garden-work during one hour daily. The marching exercise and extension movements were practiced for several weeks; then the gymnastic apparatus was erected, and the drill and gymnastic exercise succeeded each other on alternate evenings. The knowledge of the marching exercise is very useful in enabling a teacher to secure precision and order in the movements of the classes, or of his entire school, and to pay a due regard to the carriage of each child. A slouching gait is at least a sign of vulgarity, if it be not a proof of careless habits—of an inattention to the decencies and proprieties of life, which in other matters occasion discomfort in the laborer's household. Habits of cleanliness, punctuality, and promptitude are not very compatible with indolence, nor with that careless lounging which frequently squanders not only the laborer's time, but his means, and leads his awkward steps to the village tavern. In giving the child an erect and manly gait, a firm and regular step, precision and rapidity in his movements, promptitude in obedience to commands, and particularly neatness in his apparel and person, we are insensibly laying the foundation of moral habits, most intimately connected with the personal comfort and the happiness of the future laborer's family. We are giving a practical moral lesson, perhaps more powerful than the precepts which are inculcated by words. Those who are accustomed to the management of large schools know of how much importance such lessons are to the establishment of that order and quiet which is the characteristic of the Dutch schools, and which is essential to great success in large schools.

The gymnastic exercises were intended, in like manner, to prepare the teachers to superintend the exercises and amusements of the school play-ground; to instruct the children systematically in those graduated trials of strength, activity, and adroitness, by which the muscles are developed and the frame is prepared

for sustaining prolonged or sudden efforts. The play-ground of the school is so important a means of separating the children from the vicious companions and evil example of the street or lane, and of prolonging the moral influence of the master over the habits and thoughts of his scholars, that expedients which increase its attractions are important, and especially those which enable the master to mingle with his scholars usefully and cheerfully. The schools of the Canton de Vaud are generally furnished with the proper apparatus for this purpose, and we frequently observed it in France and Germany.

The physical training of our charge was not confined to these labors and exercises. Occasionally Dr. Kay accompanied them in long walking excursions into the country, in which they spent the whole day in visiting some distant school, or remarkable building connected with historical associations, or some scene replete with other forms of instruction. In those excursions their habits of observation were cultivated, their attention was directed to what was most remarkable, and to such facts and objects as might have escaped observation from their comparative obscurity. Their strength was taxed by the length of the excursion, as far as was deemed prudent; and after their return home they were requested to write an account of what they had seen, in order to afford evidence of the nature of the impressions which the excursion had produced.

Such excursions usefully interrupted the ordinary routine of the school, and afforded a pleasing variety in the intercourse between ourselves and the teachers and pupils. They spurred the physical activity of the students, and taught them habits of endurance, as they seldom returned without being considerably fatigued.

Such excursions are common to the best normal schools of Switzerland. It is very evident to the educators of Switzerland that to neglect to take their pupils forth to read the great truths left on record on every side of them in the extraordinary features of that country, would betray an indifference to nature, and to its influence on the development of the human intelligence, proving that the educator had most limited views of his mission, and of the means by which its high purposes were to be accomplished.

The great natural records of Switzerland, and its historical recollections, abound with subjects for instructive commentary, of which the professors of the normal schools avail themselves in their autumnal excursions with their pupils. The natural features of the country; its drainage, soils, agriculture; the causes which have affected the settlement of its inhabitants and its institutions; the circumstances which have assisted in the formation of the national character, and have thus made the history of their country, are more clearly apprehended by lessons gathered in the presence of facts typical of other facts scattered over hill and valley. England is so rich in historical recollections, and in the monuments by which the former periods of her history are linked with the present time, that it would seem to be a not unimportant duty of the educator to avail himself of such facts as lie within the range of his observation, in order that the historical knowledge of his scholar may be associated with these records, marking the progress of civilization in his native country. Few schools are placed beyond the reach of such means of instruction. Where they do not exist, the country must present some natural features worthy of being perused. These should not be neglected. In book-learning there is always a danger that the thing signified may not be discerned through the sign. The child may acquire words instead of thoughts. To have a clear and earnest conviction of the reality of the things signified, the object of the child's instruction should as frequently as possible be brought under its eye. Thus, Pestalozzi was careful to devise lessons on objects in which, by actual contact with the sense, the children were led to discern qualities which they afterward described in words. Such lessons have no meaning to persons who are satisfied with instruction by rote.

The excursions of the directors of the Swiss normal schools also serve the purpose of breaking for a time an almost conventual seclusion, which forms a characteristic of establishments in which the education of the habits, as well as the instruction of the intelligence, is kept in view. These excursions in Switzerland extend to several days, and even longer, in schools of the more wealthy classes. The pupils are thus thrown in contact with actual society; their resources are taxed by the incidents of each day; their moral qualities are some-

times tried, and they obtain a glimpse of the perspective of their future life. It is not only important in this way to know what the condition of society is before the pupil is required to enter it, but it is also necessary to keep constantly before his eye the end and aim of education—that it is a preparation for the duties of his future life, and to understand in what respect each department of his studies is adapted to prepare him for the actual performance of those duties. For each class of society there is an appropriate education. The normal schools of Switzerland are founded on this principle. None are admitted who are not devoted to the vocation of masters of elementary schools. The three or four years of their residence in the school are considered all too short for a complete preparation for these functions. The time, therefore, is consumed in appropriate studies, care being taken that these studies are so conducted as to discipline and develop the intelligence; to form habits of thought and action; and to inspire the pupil with principles on which he may repose in the discharge of his duties.

Among these studies and objects, the actual condition of the laboring class, its necessities, resources, and intelligence, form a most important element. The teachers go forth to observe for themselves; they come back to receive further instruction from their master. They are led to anticipate their own relations to the commune or parish in which their future school will be placed. They are prepared by instruction to fulfill certain of the communal duties which may usefully devolve upon them; such as registrar, precentor, or leader of the church choir, and clerk to the associations of the village. They receive familiar expositions of the law affecting the fulfillment of these duties.

The benefits derived from these arrangements are great; not only in furnishing these rural communes with men competent to the discharge of their duties, but the anticipations of future utility, and the conviction that their present studies infold the germ of their future life, give an interest to their pursuits, which it would be difficult to communicate, if the sense of their importance were more vague and indistinct.

To this end, in the excursions from Battersea we have been careful to enter the schools on our route, and lessons have been given on the duties attaching to the offices which may be properly discharged by a village schoolmaster, in connection with his duty of instructing the young.

This general sketch may suffice to give an idea of the external relations of the life of a student in the training school, with the important exception of that portion of his time devoted to the acquirement of a practical knowledge of the duties of a schoolmaster in the village school. This may be more conveniently considered in connection with the intellectual pursuits of the school. We now proceed to regard the school as a *household*, and to give a brief sketch of its familiar relations.

The most obvious truth lay at the threshold—a family can only subsist harmoniously by mutual love confidence, and respect. We did not seek to put the tutors into situations of inaccessible authority, but to place them in the parental seat, to receive the willing respect and obedience of their pupils, and to act as the elder brothers of the young men. The residence of one of us for a certain period, in near connection with them, appeared necessary to give that tone to the familiar intercourse which would enable the tutors to conduct the instruction, and to maintain the discipline, so as to be at once the friends and guides of their charge.

It was desirable that the tutors should reside in the house. They rose at the same hours with the scholars (except when prevented by sickness), and superintended more or less the general routine. Since the numbers have become greater, and the duties more laborious, it has been found necessary that the superintendence of the periods of labor should be committed to each tutor alternately. They have set the example in working, frequently giving assistance in the severest labor, or that which was least attractive.

In the autumn, some extensive alterations of the premises were to a large extent effected by the assistance of the entire school. The tutors not only superintended, but assisted in the work. Mr. Tate contributed his mechanical knowledge, and Mr. Horne assisted in the execution of the details. In the cheerful industry displayed on this and on other similar occasions, we have witnessed

with satisfaction one of the best fruits of the discipline of the school. The conceit of the pedagogue is not likely to arise among either students or masters who cheerfully handle the trowel, the saw, or carry mortar in a hod to the top of the building; such simplicity of life is not very consistent with that vanity which occasions insincerity. But freedom from this vice is essential to that harmonious interchange of kind offices and mutual respect which we were anxious to preserve.

The diet of the household is simple. The fruits and vegetables of the garden afford the chief variety, without luxury. The teachers sit in the midst of their scholars. The familiar intercourse of the meals is intended to be a means of cultivating kindly affections, and of insuring that the example of the master shall insensibly form the habits of the scholar. Every day confirms the growing importance of these arrangements.

It has been an object of especial care that the morning and evening prayers should be conducted with solemnity. A hall has been prepared for this service, which is conducted at seven o'clock every morning in that place. A passage of Scripture having been read, a portion of a psalm is chanted, or they sing a hymn; and prayers follow, generally from the family selection prepared by the Bishop of London. The evening service is conducted in a similar manner. The solemnity of the music, which is performed in four parts, is an important means of rendering the family devotion impressive. We trust that the benefits derived from these services may not be transient, but that the masters reared in this school will remember the household devotions, and will maintain in their own dwellings and schools the family rite with equal care.

Quiet has been enjoined on the pupils in retiring to rest.

The Sunday has been partially occupied by its appropriate studies. The services of the church have been attended morning and evening; and, besides a certain period devoted to the study of the formularies, the evening has been spent in writing out from memory a copious abstract of one of the sermons. At eight o'clock these compositions have been read and commented upon in the presence of the whole school: and a most useful opportunity has been afforded for religious instruction, besides the daily instruction in the Bible. Mr. Eden has likewise attended the school on Friday, and examined the classes in their acquaintance with the Holy Scriptures and formularies of the church. The religious department, generally, is under his superintendence.

The household and external life of the school are so interwoven with the lessons, that it becomes necessary to consider some of their details together, before the intellectual instruction is separately treated.

With pupils and students alike, it was found necessary to commence at an early stage of instruction, and to furnish them with the humblest elements of knowledge. The time which has elapsed since the school has opened ought, therefore, to be regarded as a preparatory period, similar to that which, in Germany, is spent from the time of leaving the primary school to sixteen, the period of entering the normal school, in what is called a preparatory training school.

As such preparatory schools do not exist in this country, we had no alternative. We selected the boys of the most promising character, and determined to wade through the period of preparation, and ultimately to create a preparatory class in the school itself. Our design was to examine the pupils of this class at the end of the first year, and to grant to such of them as gave proof of a certain degree of proficiency a certificate as *Candidates* of the training school. At the end of the second year's course of instruction, it is intended that a second examination shall occur, in which proficient students may obtain the certificate of *Scholar*; and at the close of the ordinary course, in the third year, another examination is to be held, in which the certificate of *Master* will be conferred on those who have attained a certain rank intellectually, and who support their claims by a correct moral deportment.

Training schools, developed on this design, would therefore consist of—

1. Preparatory classes of students and pupils.
2. A class of *Candidates*.
3. A class of *Scholars*. And some students, who had obtained the certificate of *Master*, might remain in the school in preparation for special duties as the *Mas-*

ters of important *district schools*, or as Tutors in other training schools. These students would constitute—4. A class of Masters.

As soon as the attainments of the students and pupils appeared to warrant the experiment, an hour was daily appropriated to examination by means of questions written on the board before the class, the replies to which were worked on paper, in silence, in the presence of one of the tutors. This hour is, on successive days of the week, appropriated to different subjects, viz.: grammar, etymology, arithmetic, mensuration, algebra, mechanics, geography, and biblical knowledge. The examination papers are then carefully examined by the tutor to whose department they belong, in order that the value of the reply to each question may be determined in reference to mean numbers, 3, 4, 5, and 6. These mean numbers are used to express the comparative difficulty of every question, and the greatest merit of each reply is expressed by the numbers 6, 8, and 10 and 12 respectively, the lowest degree of merit being indicated by 1.

The sum of the numbers thus attached to each answer is entered in the examination-book, opposite to the name of each pupil. These numbers are added up at the end of the week, and reduced to an average by dividing them by the number of days of examination which have occurred in the week. In a similar manner, at the end of the month, the sum of the weekly averages is, for the sake of convenience, reduced by dividing them by four; and a convenient number is thus obtained, expressing the intellectual progress of each boy. These numbers are not published in the school, but are reserved as an element by which we may be enabled to award the certificates of Candidate, Scholar, and Master.

The examination for the quarterly certificates will necessarily also include the inspection of the writing, drawings, abstracts, and compositions. Oral examination will be required to ascertain the degree of promptitude and ease in expression of each pupil. They will likewise be required to give demonstrations of problems in arithmetic, algebra, and mechanics, on the blackboard; to describe the geography of a district in the form of a lecture, and to conduct a class before us, ere we award the certificates.

The examination of the pupils will gradually rise in importance, and the quarterly examinations will be marked by a progressive character, leading to the three chief examinations for the certificates of Candidate, Scholar, and Master, which will be distinguished from each other, both as respects the nature and number of the acquirements, and by the degree of proficiency required in some branches which will be common to the three periods of study.

In another department of registration we have thought it important to avoid certain errors of principle to which such registers appear to be liable. We have been anxious to have a record of some parts of moral conduct connected with habits formed in the school, but we have not attempted to register *moral merit*. Such registers are at best very difficult to keep. They occasion rivalry, and often hypocrisy. On this account we did not deem it advisable to require that they should be kept; but it was important that we should be informed of certain errors interfering with the formation of habits of punctuality, industry, cleanliness, order, and subordination; and registers were devised for noting deviations from propriety in these respects. First, a *time-book* is directed to be kept, in which the observance of the hour of rising, and of the successive periods marked in the routine of the school is noted, in order that any general cause of aberration may meet the eye at once. Secondly, one book is kept by the superintendents appointed from among the students to inspect the *household work above stairs*, another in relation to the *household work below stairs*, and a third by the tutor having charge of *out-door labor*. In these books the duties assigned to each pupil are entered opposite to his name. The superintendent, at the expiration of the period allotted to the work, marks in columns under each of the following heads,—Subordination, Industry, Cleanliness, Order,—the extent of deviation from propriety of conduct by numbers varying from 1 to 4.

The register of punctuality in classes is kept by writing opposite to each pupil's name the number of minutes which elapse after the proper period before he enters the class. The sum of the numbers recorded in these books denotes the extent of errors in habits and manners into which any of the pupils fall, and directs our attention to the fact. Such records would, in connection with the re-

sults of the examinations, enable us to determine whether, in reference to each period, a certificate of *Candidate*, *Scholar*, or *Master*, of the *first*, *second*, or *third* degree, should be granted.

The reports of the superintendents are presented to Dr. Kay immediately after morning prayers. The record is read in the presence of the school, and any appeal against the entry heard. At this period the relation which the entire discipline holds to the future pursuits of the pupils is from time to time made familiar to them by simple expositions of the principles by which it is regulated. * * *

This is the *household life* of the school. Brief hints only of the principles which have determined and regulated the preparatory course can find a place in the remarks we have to offer on the preparatory course.

The students have been stimulated in their application by a constant sense of the practical utility of their intellectual labors. After morning prayers, they are from day to day reminded of the connection between their present and future pursuits, and informed how every part of the discipline and study has a direct relation to the duties of a schoolmaster. The conviction thus created becomes a powerful incentive to exertion, which might be wanting if those studies were selected only because they were important as a discipline of the mind.

The sense of practical utility seems as important to the earnestness of the student as the lively conviction attending object teaching in the early and simplest form of elementary instruction. In the earliest steps an acquaintance with the real is necessary to lively conceptions of truth, and at a later period a sense of the value of knowledge resulting from *experience* inspires the strongest conviction of the dignity and importance of all truth, where its immediate practical utility is not obvious.

Far, therefore, from fearing that the sense of the practical utility of these studies will lead the students to measure the value of all truth by a low standard, their pursuits have been regulated by the conviction, that the most certain method of attaining a strong sense of the value of truths, not readily applicable to immediate use, is to ascertain by experience the importance of those which can be readily measured by the standard of practical utility. Thus we approach the conception of the momentum of a planet moving in its orbit, from ascertaining the momentum of bodies whose weight and velocity we can measure by the simplest observations. From the level of the experience of the practical utility of certain common truths, the mind gradually ascends to the more abstract, whose importance hence becomes more easily apparent, though their present application is not obvious, and in this way the thoughts most safely approach the most difficult abstractions.

In the humble pursuits of the preparatory course, a lively sense of the utility of their studies has likewise been maintained by the method of instruction adopted. Nothing has been taught *dogmatically*, but every thing by the combination of the simplest elements, i. e. the course which a discoverer must have trod has been followed, and the way in which truths have been ascertained pointed out by a synthetical demonstration of each successive step. The labor of the previous analysis of the subject is the duty of the teacher, and is thus removed from the child.

Having ascertained what the pupil knows, the teacher endeavors to lead him by gentle and easy steps from the known to the unknown. The instruction, in the whole preparatory course, is chiefly oral, and is illustrated, as much as possible, by appeals to nature, and by demonstrations. Books are not resorted to until the teacher is convinced that the mind of his pupil is in a state of healthful activity; that there has been awakened in him a lively interest in truth, and that he has become acquainted practically with the inductive method of acquiring knowledge. At this stage the rules, the principles of which have been orally communicated, and with whose application he is familiar, are committed to memory from books, to serve as a means of recalling more readily the knowledge and skill thus attained. This course is Pestalozzian, and, it will be perceived, is the reverse of the method usually followed, which consists in giving the pupil the rule first. Experience, however, has confirmed us in the superiority of the plan we have pursued. Sometimes a book, as for example a work on Physical Geography, is put into his hands, in order that it may be carefully read, and that the

student may prepare himself to give before the class a verbal abstract of the chapter selected for this purpose, and to answer such questions as may be proposed to him, either by the tutor or by his fellows. During the preparatory course exercises of this kind have not been so numerous as they will be in the more advanced stages of instruction. Until habits of attention and steady application had been formed, it seemed undesirable to allow to the pupils hours for self-sustained study, or voluntary occupation. Constant superintendence is necessary to the formation of correct habits, in these and in all other respects, in the preparatory course. The entire day is, therefore, occupied with a succession of engagements in household work and out-door labor, devotional exercises, meals, and instruction. Recreation is sought in change of employment. These changes afford such pleasure, and the sense of utility and duty is so constantly maintained, that recreation in the ordinary sense is not needed. Leisure from such occupations is never sought excepting to write a letter to a friend, or occasionally to visit some near relative. The pupils all present an air of cheerfulness. They proceed from one lesson to another, and to their several occupations, with an elasticity of mind which affords the best proof that the mental and physical effects of the training are auspicious.

In the early steps toward the formation of correct habits, it is necessary that (until the power of self-guidance is obtained) the pupil should be constantly under the eye of a master, not disposed to exercise authority so much as to give assistance and advice. Before the habit of self-direction is formed, it is therefore pernicious to leave much time at the disposal of the pupil. Proper intellectual and moral aims must be inspired, and the pupil must attain a knowledge of the mode of employing his time with skill, usefully, and under the guidance of right motives, ere he can be properly left to the spontaneous suggestions of his own mind. Here, therefore, the moral and the intellectual training are in the closest harmony. The formation of correct habits, and the growth of right sentiments, ought to precede such confidence in the pupil's powers of self-direction, as is implied in leaving him either much time unoccupied, or in which his labors are not under the immediate superintendence of his teacher.

In the preparatory course, therefore, the whole time is employed under superintendence, but toward the close of the course a gradual trial of the pupil's powers of self-guidance is commenced; first, by intrusting him with certain studies unassisted by the teacher. Those who zealously and successfully employ their time will, by degrees, be intrusted with a greater period for self-sustained intellectual or physical exertion. Further evidence of the existence of the proper qualities will lead to a more liberal confidence, until habits of application and the power of pursuing their studies successfully, and without assistance, are attained.

The subjects of the preparatory course were strictly rudimental. It will be found that the knowledge obtained in the elementary schools now in existence is a very meager preparation for the studies of a training school for teachers. Until the elementary schools are improved, it will be found necessary to go to the very roots of all knowledge, and to rearrange such knowledge as the pupils have attained, in harmony with the principles on which they must ultimately communicate it to others. Many of our pupils enter the school with the broadest provincial dialect, scarcely able to read with fluency and precision, much less with ease and expression. Some were ill furnished with the commonest rules of arithmetic, and wrote clumsily and slowly.

They have been made acquainted with the *phonic* method of teaching to read practiced in Germany. Their defects of pronunciation have been corrected to a large extent by the adoption of this method, and by means of deliberate and emphatic syllabic reading, in a well-sustained and correct tone. The principles on which the *laut* or *phonic* method depends have been explained at considerable length as a part of the course of lessons on method.

We have deemed it of paramount importance that they should acquire a thorough knowledge of the elements and structure of the English language. The lessons in reading were in the first place made the means of leading them to an examination of the structure of sentences, and practical oral lessons were given on grammar and etymology according to the method pursued by Mr. Wood in the Edinburgh Sessional School. The results of these exercises were tested by

the lessons of dictation and of composition which accompanied the early stages of this course, and by which a timely sense of the utility of a knowledge of grammatical construction and of the etymological relations of words was developed. As soon as this feeling was created, the oral instruction in grammar assumed a more positive form. The theory on which the rules were founded was explained, and the several laws, when well understood, were dictated in the least exceptionable formulæ, and were written out and committed to memory. In this way they proceeded through the whole of the theory and rules of grammar before they were intrusted with any book on the subject, lest they should depend for their knowledge on a mere effort of the memory to retain a formulæ not well understood.

At each stage of their advance, corresponding exercises were resorted to, in order to familiarize them with the application of the rules.

When they had in this way passed through the ordinary course of grammatical instruction, they were intrusted with books to enable them to give the last degree of precision to their conceptions.

In etymology the lessons were in like manner practical and oral. They were first derived from the reading-lessons of the day, and applied to the exercises and examinations accompanying the course, and, after a certain progress had been made, their further advance was insured by systematic lessons from books.

A course of reading in English literature, by which the taste may be refined by an acquaintance with the best models of style, and with those authors whose works have exercised the most beneficial influence on the mind of this nation, has necessarily been postponed to another part of the course. It, however, forms one of the most important elements in the conception of the objects to be attained in a training school, that the teacher should be inspired with a discriminating but earnest admiration for those gifts of great minds to English literature which are alike the property of the peasant and the peer; national treasures which are among the most legitimate sources of national feelings.

Those who have had close intercourse with the laboring classes well know with what difficulty they comprehend words not of a Saxon origin, and how frequently addresses to them are unintelligible from the continual use of terms of a Latin or Greek derivation; yet the daily language of the middling and upper classes abounds with such words—many of the formularies of our church are full of them, and hardly a sermon is preached which does not in every page contain numerous examples of their use. Phrases of this sort are so naturalized in the language of the educated classes, that entirely to omit them has the appearance of pedantry and baldness, and even disgusts persons of taste and refinement. Therefore, in addressing a mixed congregation, it seems impossible to avoid using them, and the only mode of meeting the inconvenience alluded to is to instruct the humbler classes in their meaning. The method we have adopted for this purpose has been copied from that first introduced in the Edinburgh Sessional Schools; every compound word is analyzed, and the separate meaning of each member pointed out, so that, at present, there are few words in the English language which our pupils cannot thoroughly comprehend, and from their acquaintance with the common roots and principles of etymology, the new compound terms, which the demands of civilization are daily introducing, are almost immediately understood by them. We believe that there are few acquirements more conducive to clearness of thought, or that can be more usefully introduced into common schools, than a thorough knowledge of the English language, and that the absence of it gives power to the illiterate teacher and demagogue, and deprives the lettered man of his just influence.

Similar remarks might be extended to style. It is equally obvious that the educated use sentences of a construction presenting difficulties to the vulgar which are frequently almost insurmountable. It is, therefore, not only necessary that the meaning of words should be taught on a logical system in our elementary schools, but that the children should be made familiar with extracts from our best authors on subjects suited to their capacity. It cannot be permitted to remain the opprobrium of this country that its greatest minds have bequeathed their thoughts to the nation in a style at once pure and simple, but still inaccessible to the intelligence of the great body of the people.

In *writing*, they were trained, as soon as the various books could be prepared, according to the method* of Mulhauser, which was translated and placed in the hands of the teachers for that purpose.

In like manner, in *arithmetic*, it has been deemed desirable to put them in possession of the pre-eminently synthetical method of Pestalozzi. As soon as the requisite tables and series of lessons, analyzed to the simplest elements, could be procured, the principles on which complex numerical combinations rest were rendered familiar to them, by leading the pupils through the earlier course of Pestalozzi's lessons on numbers, from simple unity to compound fractional quantities; connecting with them the series of exercises in mental arithmetic which they are so well calculated to introduce and to illustrate. The use of such a method dispels the gloom which might attend the most expert use of the common rules of arithmetic, and which commonly afford the pupil little light to guide his steps off the beaten path illuminated by the rule.

While these lessons have been in progress, the common rules of arithmetic have been examined by the light of this method. Their theory has been explained, and by constant practice the pupils have been led to acquire expertness in them, as well as to pursue the common principles on which they rest, and to ascertain the practical range within which each rule ought to be employed. The ordinary lessons on mental arithmetic have taken their place in the course of instruction separately from the peculiar rules which belong to Pestalozzi's series.

These lessons also prepared the pupils for proceeding at an early period in a similar manner with the elements of algebra, and with practical lessons in mensuration and land-surveying.

These last subjects were considered of peculiar importance, as comprising one of the most useful industrial developments of a knowledge of the laws of number. Unless, in elementary schools, the instruction proceed beyond the knowledge of abstract rules, to their actual application to the practical necessities of life, the scholar will have little interest in his studies, because he will not perceive their importance; and moreover, when he leaves the school, they will be of little use, because he has not learned to apply his knowledge to any purpose. On this account, boys who have been educated in common elementary schools, are frequently found, in a few years after they have left, to have forgotten the greater part even of the slender amount of knowledge they had acquired.

The use of arithmetic to the carpenter, the builder, the laborer, and artisan, ought to be developed by teaching mensuration and land-surveying in elementary schools. If the scholars do not remain long enough to attain so high a range, the same principle should be applied to every step of their progress. The practical application of the simplest rules should be shown by familiar examples. As soon as the child can count, he should be made to count objects, such as money, the figures on the face of a clock, &c. When he can add, he should have before him shop-bills, accounts of the expenditure of earnings, accounts of wages. In every arithmetical rule similar useful exercises are a part of the art of a teacher, whose sincere desire is to fit his pupil for the application of his knowledge to the duties of life, the preparation for which should be always suggested to the pupil's mind as a powerful incentive to action. These future duties should be always placed in a cheering and hopeful point of view. The mere repetition of a table of numbers has less of education in it than a drill in the *balance-step*.

Practical instruction in the *book-keeping* necessary for the management of the household was for these reasons given to those who acted as stewards; accounts were kept of the seeds, manure, and garden produce, &c., as preparatory to a course of book-keeping, which will follow.

† The recently rapid development of the industry and commerce of this

* See a description of Mulhauser's method, p. 250.

† It is somewhat remarkable that since this paragraph was written I should have received a letter from one of the principal directors of a railway company, in which he informs me that the frequent recurrence of accidents had induced the directors of the railway to make a careful examination into their causes. The directors rose from this inquiry convinced that these accidents were, to a large extent, attributable to the ignorance of the men whom they had been obliged to

country by machinery, creates a want for well-instructed mechanics, which, in the present state of education, it will be difficult adequately to supply. The steam-engines which drain our coal-fields and mineral veins and beds; which whirl toils on every railroad; which toil on the surface of every river, and issue from every estuary, are committed to the charge of men of some practical skill, but of mean education. The mental resources of the classes who are practically intrusted with the guidance of this great development of national power should not be left uncultivated. This new force has grown rapidly, in consequence of the genius of the people, and the natural resources of this island, and in spite of their ignorance. But our supremacy at sea, and our manufacturing and commercial prosperity (inseparable elements), depend on the successful progress of those arts by which our present position has been attained.

On this account, we have deemed inseparable from the education of a schoolmaster a knowledge of the *elements of mechanics* and of the laws of heat, sufficient to enable him to explain the structure of the various kinds of steam-engines in use in this country. This instruction has proved one of the chief features even of the preparatory course, as we feared that some of the young men might leave the establishment as soon as they had obtained the certificates of candidates, and we were unwilling that they should go forth without some knowledge at least of one of the chief elements of our national prosperity, or altogether without power to make the workingman acquainted with the great agent which has had more influence on the destiny of the working classes than any other single fact in our history, and which is probably destined to work still greater changes.

Knowledge and national prosperity are here in strict alliance. Not only do the arts of peace—the success of our trade—our power to compete with foreign rivals—our safety on our railways and in our steam-ships—depend on the spread of this knowledge, but the future defense of this country from foreign aggression can only result from our being superior to every nation in those arts. The schoolmaster is an agent despised at present, but whose importance for the attainment of this end will, by the results of a few years, be placed in bold relief before the public.

The tutor to whom the duty of communicating to the pupils a knowledge of the laws of motion, of the mechanical powers and contrivances, and of the laws of heat, was committed, was selected because he was a self-educated man, and was willing to avail himself of the more popular methods of demonstration, and to postpone the application of his valuable and extensive mathematical acquirements. By his assistance the pupils and students have been led through a series of demonstrations of mechanical combinations, until they were prepared to consider the several parts of the steam-engine, first separately, and in their successive developments and applications, and they are at present acquainted with the more complex combinations in the steam-engines now in use, and with the principles involved in their construction and action.

In *geography*, it has been deemed important that the tutors should proceed by a similar method. The lessons on land-surveying have familiarized the pupils with the nature and uses of maps. As one development of the art of drawing, they have been practiced in map-drawing. For this purpose, among other expedients, the walls of one class-room have been prepared with mastic, in order that bold projections of maps might be made on a great scale.

employ as engineers, for the want of better; and to the low habits of these men, who, though they do not subject themselves to dismissal by such a defiance of regulations as to be found "*drunk*," are in the habit of stupefying themselves with dram-drinking! The directors of the company had determined that the proper remedy for these evils was to provide amusement and instruction for their men at night, and application has since been made to Mr. Tate, the tutor in mechanics, &c., in the training school, to afford his assistance in delivering lectures on mechanics to the engineers, stokers, and other servants of the company. A large room has been provided for these purposes, and it is understood to be the intention of the company to draw their servants to this room by such amusements as may be more attractive than the tavern—to excite their attention to subjects of instruction appropriate to their duties by a series of popular lectures—and then to open classes, when they may learn mechanics, and such of the elements of natural science as may be useful to them in their calling.

As a part of the amusements, application was made by one of the directors to Mr. Hulsh to open classes like those of the artisans of Paris, and to instruct them in singing on the method of Wilhelm.—J. P. KAY.

Physical geography has been deemed the true basis of all instruction in the geography of industry and commerce, which ought to form the chief subject of geographical instruction in elementary schools. The tutor has first endeavored to convince the pupils that nothing which presents itself to the eye in a well-drawn map is to be regarded as accidental; the boldness of the promontories, the deep indenture of the bays, the general bearings of the coast, are all referable to natural laws. In these respects the eastern and western coasts of England are in striking contrast, in appearance, character, and in the circumstances which occasion their peculiarities. The physical geography of England commences with a description of the elevation of the mountain ranges, the different levels, and the drainage of the country. The course, rapidity, and volume of the rivers are referable to the elevation and extent of the country which they drain. From the climate, levels, and drainage, with little further matter, the agricultural tracts of the country may be indicated, and when the great coal-fields and the mineral veins and beds, the depth of the bays and rivers are known, the distribution of the population is found to be in strict relation to certain natural laws. Even the ancient political divisions of the country are, on inspection, found to be in close dependence on its drainage. The counties are river basins, which were the first seats of tribes of population. If any new political distribution were to be made, it would necessarily, in like manner, be affected by some natural law, which it is equally interesting and useful to trace.

Geography, taught in this way, is a constant exercise to the reasoning powers. The pupil is led to trace the mutual dependence of facts, which, in ordinary instruction, are taught as the words of a vocabulary. Geography taught in the ordinary way is as reasonable an acquisition as the catalogue of a museum, which a student might be compelled to learn as a substitute for natural history. A catalogue of towns, rivers, bays, promontories, &c., is even less geography than the well-arranged catalogue of a museum is natural history, because the classification has a logical meaning in the latter case, which is absent in the former.

As a department of geographical instruction, the elements of the use of the globes in connection with nautical astronomy has been cultivated with some diligence.

The outlines only of the history of England have been read, as preparatory to a course of instruction in English history, which is to form one of the studies of the second year. The history of England has been read in the evening as an exercise in the art of reading, and the examinations which have followed have been adapted only to secure general impressions as to the main facts of our history.

Skill in *drawing* was deemed essential to the success of a schoolmaster. Without this art he would be unable to avail himself of the important assistance of the blackboard, on which his demonstrations of the objects of study ought to be delineated. His lessons on the most simple subjects would be wanting demonstrative power, and he would be incapable of proceeding with lessons in mechanics, without skill to delineate the machines of which his lessons treated.

The arts of design have been little cultivated among the workmen of England. Whoever has been accustomed to see the plans of houses and farm buildings, or of public buildings of an humble character from the country, must know the extreme deficiency of our workmen in this application of the art of drawing, where it is closely connected with the comfort of domestic life, and is essential to the skillful performance of public works. The survey now in progress under the Tithe Commissioners affords abundant evidence of the want of skill in map-drawing among the rural surveyors.

The improvement of our machinery for agriculture and manufactures would be in no small degree facilitated, if the art of drawing were a common acquirement among our artisans. Invention is checked by the want of skill in communicating the conception of the inventor, by drawings of all the details of his combination. In all those manufactures of which taste is a principal element, our neighbors, the French, are greatly our superiors, solely, we believe, because the eyes and the hands of all classes are practiced from a very early age in the arts of design. In the elementary schools of Paris, the proficiency of the young pupils in drawing

is very remarkable, and the evening schools are filled with young men and adults of mature or even advanced age, engaged in the diligent cultivation of this art. Last Midsummer, in some of the evening schools of the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, classes of workmen were questioned as to their employments. One was an *ébéniste*, another a founder, another a clock-maker, another a paper-hanger, another an upholsterer; and each was asked his hours of labor, and his motives for attendance. A single example may serve as a type. A man without his coat, whose muscular arms were bared by rolling his shirt-sleeves up to his shoulders, and who, though well washed and clean, wore the marks of toil on his white, horny hands, was sitting with an admirable copy in crayon of *La Donna della Segiola* before him, which he had nearly completed. He was a man about 45 years of age. He said he had risen at five, and had been at work from six o'clock in the morning until seven o'clock in the evening, with brief intervals for meals; and he had entered the evening class at eight o'clock, to remain there till ten. He had pleasure, he said, in drawing, and that a knowledge of the art greatly improved his skill and taste in masonry. He turned round with a good-humored smile, and added, he could live better on less wages than an Englishman, because his drawing cost him less than beer. Some thousand workmen attend the adult schools every evening in Paris, and the drawing classes comprise great numbers whose skill would occasion much astonishment in this country. The most difficult engravings of the paintings of the Italian masters are copied in crayon with remarkable skill and accuracy. Complex and exquisitely minute architectural details, such, for example, as perspective views of the Duomo at Milan, or the cathedrals at Rouen or Cologne, are drawn in pen and ink, with singular fidelity. Some were drawing from plaster casts and other models. We found such adult schools in many of the chief towns of France. These schools are the sources of the taste and skill in the decorative arts, and in all manufactures of which taste is a prominent element, and which have made the designs for the calico-printers, the silk and ribbon looms, the papers, &c., &c., of France, so superior in taste to those of this country, notwithstanding the superiority of our manufactories in mechanical combinations.

These considerations lead us to account drawing an important department of elementary education. The manufacturers of Lancashire are well aware how difficult it is, from the neglect of the arts of design among the laborers of this country, to procure any skilled draftsmen to design for the cotton or silk manufacturer. The elevation of the national taste in art can only be procured by the constant cultivation of the mind in relation to the beautiful in form and color, by familiarizing the eye with the best models, the works of great artists, and beautiful natural objects. Skill in drawing from nature results from a careful progress through a well-analyzed series of models. The interests of commerce are so intimately connected with the results to be obtained by this branch of elementary education, that there is little chance that it will much longer suffer the grievous neglect it has hitherto experienced.

The drawing classes at Battersea were first exercised in very simple models, formed of oblong pieces of wood, arranged in a great variety of forms by the master, according to the method observed in the Swiss and German schools. These were drawn in common and in isometrical perspective, the laws of perspective being at the same time carefully explained, and the rules applied in each case to the object which the pupil drew. A very little practice made us aware that a method comprising a more minute analysis of form was necessary to the greatest amount of success. Some inquiries which were pursued in Paris put us in possession of the method invented by M. Dupuis; and a series of his models were purchased and brought over at the close of the autumn, for the purpose of making a careful trial of this method. Considerable difficulty was experienced in procuring the services of an artist to superintend the instruction; but at length the application of this method has been commenced, and is in progress.

The experience of the French inspectors of schools (at an early period after the establishment of the system of inspection) convinced them that, to the perfection of *skill in drawing form*, the practice of drawing from models is necessary. The best copyists frequently, or rather generally, were found to fail in drawing even very simple natural objects on their first trials. In the drawing schools at

Paris, in which the most elaborate engravings were admirably copied, an inspector would discover that the pupils were unable to draw correctly the professor's desk and chair. It became, therefore, evident that the copy could not stand in the place of the natural object. Copying works of art might be essential to one department of skill and taste, but it by no means necessarily gave skill in drawing from nature.

M. Dupuis was an inspector, and, observing this defect, he invented a series of models, ascending from a simple line of wire through various combinations to complex figures. These models are fixed on an instrument, on the level of the eye, and may, by the movement of the instrument, be placed in a varying perspective. By this means the pupil may learn to draw the simplest objects, and proceed by gradual steps through a series of combinations, of an almost insensibly increasing difficulty, until he can draw faithfully any object, however complex. The instrument which holds the object enables the teacher, by varying its position, to give at each lesson a series of demonstrations in perspective, applying the rules to objects of a gradually increasing complexity, until they are understood in their relations to the most difficult combinations. Thus practical skill and theoretical knowledge are in harmony in this instruction. The taste may afterward be cultivated by drawing those works of art best adapted to create a just sense of the beautiful in form and color.

That which a workman first requires is mechanical skill in the art of drawing. Nature itself offers many opportunities to cultivate the taste insensibly; and skill can be acquired only by careful and prolonged practice in the art of drawing from nature. In the more advanced parts of the course, we shall be able to satisfy ourselves as to the best mode of using the skill acquired for the formation of the taste.

In the normal schools at Versailles one year's instruction had sufficed to give the pupils a wonderful facility and skill in drawing from models. Some complicated pneumatic apparatus, consisting of glass, mahogany, brass, and in difficult perspective, was drawn rapidly, and with great truth and skill. It is not, however, our intention to carry the instruction of our pupils in this art further than is necessary for the industrial instruction of their future scholars.

Some of the reasons inducing us to attach much importance to the cultivation of *vocal music* have already been briefly indicated. We regard it as a powerful auxiliary in rendering the devotional services of the household, of the parish church, and of the village school, solemn and impressive. Our experience satisfies us that we by no means over-estimated this advantage, though all the results are not yet obtained which we trust will flow from the right use of these means.

Nor were we indifferent to the cheerfulness diffused in schools by the singing of those melodies which are attractive to children, nor unconscious of the moral power which music has when linked with sentiments which it is the object of education to inspire. We regard school songs as an important means of diffusing a cheerful view of the duties of a laborer's life; of diffusing joy and honest pride over English industry. Therefore, to neglect so powerful a moral agent in elementary education as vocal music, would appear to be unpardonable. We availed ourselves of some arrangements which were at this time in progress, under the superintendence of the Committee of Council, for the introduction of the method* of M. Wilhem, which has been singularly successful in France.

A method which has succeeded in attracting thousands of artisans in Paris from low cabarets and miserable gambling-houses, to the study of a science and the practice of a captivating art, deserves the attention of the public. Mr. Hullah, in adapting the method of Wilhem to English tastes and habits, has both simplified and refined it. He has, moreover, adapted to it a considerable number of old English melodies, of great richness and character, which were fast passing into oblivion, and which may be restored to the place they once held in the affections of the people, being now allied with words expressive of the joys and hopes of a laborer's life, and of the true sources of its dignity and happiness.

We have assisted in the development of this method, being convinced that it may tend to elevate the character of our elementary schools, and that it may

* For a description of Wilhem's method, see p. 275.

be of great use throughout the country in restoring many of our best old English melodies to their popularity, and in improving the character of our vocal music in village churches, through the medium of the parochial schoolmaster and his pupils.

When the preparatory course was sufficiently advanced, a series of lectures on the construction and organization of elementary schools, and on the theory and art of teaching, were commenced. They have resembled those given in the German and Swiss schools under the generic term *Pædagogik*.

They have treated of the general objects of education, and the means of attaining them. The peculiar aims of elementary education; the structure of school-houses in various parts of Europe; the internal arrangement of the desks, forms, and school apparatus, in reference to different methods of instruction, and the varieties of those methods observed in different countries. The theory of the discipline of schools. Its practice, describing in detail the different expedients resorted to in different countries for the purpose of procuring order, decorum, propriety of posture and manner, regularity and precision in movements, and in changes of classes and exercises, and especially the right means of securing the reverence and the love of the children. This last subject naturally connects the consideration of the mechanical and methodic expedients with the consideration of the sources of the schoolmaster's zeal, activity, and influence, on which much has been said. To these subjects have succeeded lectures on the great leading distinctions in the methods of communicating knowledge. When the distinguishing principles had been described, the characteristic features of the several methods were examined *generally*, and certain peculiar applications of each were treated. The application of these methods to each individual branch of instruction was then commenced, and this part of the course has treated of various methods of teaching to read, especially giving a minute description of the *phonic* method. Of methods of teaching to write, giving a special account of the method of Mulhauser. On the application of writing in various methods of instruction. Of methods of teaching to draw, giving a detailed account of that of M. Dupuis. Of methods of teaching arithmetic, in which the method of Pestalozzi has been carefully explained, and other expedients examined. This brief sketch may indicate the character of the instruction up to the period of this report. Our desire is to anticipate as little as possible, but, on the contrary, to relate only what *has been done*. We have therefore only to add, that the instruction in *Pædagogik* is in its preparatory stage, and that the course will be pursued, in relation both to the general theory and practice, and to the special application of the theory and practice to the development of the village school, and of the training school, through the whole period of instruction, as that part of the studies of the pupils by which the mutual relations of these studies are revealed, and their future application anticipated.

We regard these lectures, combined with the zealous labor of the Hon. and Rev. Robert Eden, as the chief means by which, aided by the tutors, such a tone of feeling can be maintained as shall prepare the teachers to enter upon their important duties, actuated by motives which will be the best means of insuring their perseverance, and promoting their success.

The Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, who devote their lives a cheerful sacrifice to the education of the poorer classes of France, can be understood best by those who have visited their Novitiate and schools at Paris. From such persons we expect acquiescence when we say, that their example of Christian zeal is worthy of the imitation of Protestants. Three of the brothers of this order are maintained for a sum which is barely the stipend of one teacher of a school of mutual instruction in Paris. Their schools are unquestionably the best at Paris. Their manners are simple, affectionate, and sincere. The children are singularly attached to them. How could it be otherwise, when they perceive that these good men have no other reward on earth for their manifold labors than that of an approving conscience?

The *régime* of the *Novitiate* is one of considerable austerity. They rise at four. They spend an hour in private devotion, which is followed by two hours of religious exercises in their chapel. They breakfast soon afterward, and are in the day schools of Paris at nine. They dine about noon, and continue their

attention to the schools till five. They sup at six, and then many of them are employed in evening schools for the adults from seven to nine, or from eight to ten, when, after prayers, they immediately retire to rest.

No one can enter the schools of the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine without feeling instinctively that he is witnessing a remarkable example of the development of Christian charity.

With such motives should the teachers of elementary schools, and especially those who are called to the arduous duties of training pauper children, go forth to their work. The path of the teacher is strewn with disappointments, if he commence with a mercenary spirit: it is full of encouragement, if he be inspired with the spirit of Christian charity. No skill can compensate adequately for the absence of a pervading religious influence on the character and conduct of the schoolmaster. * * *

The technical instruction in that knowledge which it will be the duty of the pupils to communicate in elementary schools, occupies a much greater portion of the time in the preparatory course than that which will be allotted to such studies in the two subsequent years.

Every month will now bring into greater prominence *instruction, theoretical and practical, in the art of teaching*. The outlines only of a future course of instruction in this most important element of the studies of a training school have been communicated. Some of the principles have been laid down, but the application of these principles to each subject of instruction, and the arrangement of the entire matter of technical knowledge, in accordance with the principles of elementary teaching, is a labor to which a large portion of the future time of the pupils must be devoted.

Those studies which will prepare them for the performance of collateral duties in the village or parish have not been commenced.

The instruction in the management of a garden; in pruning and grafting trees; in the relative qualities of soils, manures, and the rotation of garden crops, is to form a part of the course of instruction, after the certificate of candidate is obtained.

A course on the domestic economy of the poor will be delivered in the same year, which will be followed by another on the means of preserving health, especially with regard to the employments, habits, and wants of the working classes. Some general lectures on the relations of labor and capital will close this course.

From the following extracts from the Report of the Founders of the Institution in 1843, it will be seen that they were induced, after three years' experience, to change one feature of their original plan, and, instead of taking boys of the age of fourteen, to select their candidates for admission from youths who had attained the age of eighteen or twenty years. This change has special reference to teachers designed for large schools in commercial towns and manufacturing districts. They also advise a course of preparatory training, previous to their admission into a Normal School, similar to that pursued in Holland.

In Holland, the elementary schoolmasters of every great town form a society, associated for their common benefit. Their schools are always large, varying in numbers from three to seven hundred, or even a thousand children, who are often assembled in one room. Every master is aided by a certain number of assistants of different ages, and by pupil-teachers.

The course through which a youth passes from a position of distinction, as one of the most successful scholars, to that of master of a school, is obvious. He is apprenticed as a pupil-teacher (an assistant equivalent, in the first stage, to the most superior class of our monitors in England). As pupil-teacher he assists in the instruction of the youngest classes during the day, witnessing and taking part in the general movements of the school, and in the maintenance of discipline and order. He resides with his own family in the city, and before he is admitted apprentice, care is taken to ascertain that he belongs to a well-conducted house

hold, and that he will be reared by his parents in habits of religion and order. Every evening all the pupil-teachers of the town are assembled to receive instruction. The society of teachers provides from its own body a succession of instructors, by one of whom, on each night of the week, the pupil-teachers are taught some branch of elementary knowledge necessary to school-keeping. One of the most experienced masters of the town, likewise, gives them lectures on method, and on the art of organizing and conducting a school.

The society of schoolmasters meets from time to time to receive from each of its members an account of the conduct, progress, and qualifications of each pupil-teacher in the town, not only in the evening class, but in the school duties of the day.

On the reputation thus acquired, and preserved, depends the progress of the pupil-teacher in the art of school-keeping. As his experience becomes more mature, and his knowledge increases, he is intrusted with more important matters and higher classes in the school. He undergoes two successive examinations by the Government Inspector, being first admitted candidate and afterward assistant master, and he is then at liberty to complete his course of training by entering the Normal School at *Haarlem*, from which he can obtain the highest certificates of fitness for the duties of his profession.

This appears to us a course of training peculiarly well adapted to the formation of masters for the great schools of large towns, and likewise for supplying these great schools, during the education of the pupil-teacher, with the indispensable aid of a body of assistant masters, without which they must continue to be examples of an economy which can spare nothing adequate to the improvement of the people.

The formation of a body of pupil-teachers in each great town, thus instructed by a society of schoolmasters, is an object worthy of encouragement from the Committee of Council, who might at least provide the fees and charges of apprenticeship, and grant exhibitions for the training of the most successful pupil-teachers in a Normal School at the close of their apprenticeship, even if the Government were indisposed to encounter any of the annual charges incident to the plan.

Few words are requisite to render apparent the difference between the life of a pupil-teacher so trained, and that of a young novice in a Normal School. The familiar life of the parental household, while it exercises a salutary influence on the habits and manners of the young candidate, is not remote from the great scene of exertion in which his future life is to be spent. He is unconsciously prepared by the daily occurrences in his father's family, and by his experience and instruction in the day and evening school, to form a just estimate of the circumstances by which he is surrounded. He is trained from day to day in the management of the artful and corrupt children even of the dregs of the city, and enabled to apply such means as the discipline and instruction of a common school afford, to the improvement of the moral and intellectual condition of the children of the common people. He becomes an agent of civilization, fitted for a peculiar work by habit, and prepared to imbibe during the year or year and a half he may spend in a Normal School those higher maxims of conduct, that more exact knowledge, and those more perfect methods of which it is the proper source. From such a period of training, he returns to his native city, or is sent to some other town, strong in the confidence inspired by his prolonged experience of the peculiar duties he has to perform, either to take a high rank as an assistant master, or to undertake the responsibility of conducting a town school as its chief.

These are the views which have led us to conclude that the admission of *boys* into a Normal School, as distinguished from a *Mother School*, is not a fit preparation for the discharge of the duties of a schoolmaster in a large town.

We have gradually raised the age of admission from 14 to 16, and thence to 18 or 20 years, and we are now of opinion that few or none should be admitted into a Normal School under the latter age.

Besides the reasons already stated why youths under 18 should not be admitted into such a school, there are some arising out of the internal economy of a Normal School of sufficient importance to deserve enumeration.

If youths are admitted, none who have arrived at adult age should be permitted to enter. The youth necessarily enters for a course of training which ex-

tends over several years; the adult student commonly enters for a year and a half or two years. The attainments of all are meager on their admission. In the course of a few years, therefore, the youngest pupils are necessarily at the head of the school in their attainments and skill, which is a source of great discouragement to an adult entering such an establishment, and a dangerous distinction to a youth whose acquirements have suddenly raised him intellectually above all in his sphere of life. The tendencies of such a great disparity in the acquirements appropriate to the two classes of age are obviously injurious. We have experienced the consequences of this disparity as a disturbing force in the training schools, and to counteract these tendencies has required a vigilance and provident care, which has increased our labors and anxieties. Few things have been more pleasing than the readiness with which some of the oldest students who have entered the schools have taken their seats in the humblest positions, and passed with patient perseverance through all the elementary drudgery, though boys have held the most prominent positions in the first class, and have occasionally become their instructors. On the other hand, to check the conceit too frequently engendered by a rapid progress, when attended with such contrasts, we have suggested to the masters, that the humble assiduity of the recently entered adult pupil ought to secure an expressive deference and attention.

The intellectual development of the young pupils is a source of care insignificant in comparison with that attending the *formation of their characters*, and this could be accomplished with greater ease and certainty if they were the sole objects of solicitude. But, as members of an establishment into which adults are admitted in an equality or inferiority of position, the discipline is complicated and the sources of error are increased.

For these reasons, we prefer to admit into a Normal School only students of adult age, reared by religious parents, and concerning whose characters and qualifications the most satisfactory testimonials can be procured. The inquiries preliminary to the admission of a student should in all cases, where it may be practicable, extend to his previous habits and occupations, to the character of the household in which he has resided, and the friendships he has formed. In all cases those young men are to be preferred whose previous pursuits warrant some confidence in their having a predilection for the duties of a teacher of the poor.

Our plans have therefore tended to the introduction of young men of 18 years of age and upward for a training of one year and a half, which we are led to regard as the shortest period which it is desirable they should spend in such a school.

With this explanation of a modification of one feature in their original plan, the Report for 1843 proceeds to discuss the main objects of a Normal School.

The main object of a Normal School is the *formation of the character of the schoolmaster*. This was the primary idea which guided our earliest efforts in the establishment of the Battersea Schools on a basis different from that of any previous example in this country. We have submitted to your lordship the reasons which have led us to modify one of the chief features of our plan, but our convictions adhere with undiminished force to the principle on which the schools were originally founded. They were intended to be an institution in which every object was subservient to the *formation of the character of the schoolmaster*, as an intelligent Christian man entering on the instruction of the poor, with religious devotion to his work. If we propose to change the means, the end we have in view is the same. Compelled by the foregoing considerations to think the course of training we proposed for youths does not prepare them for the charge of large schools in manufacturing towns, we are anxious that the system pursued in Holland should be adopted, as a training preparatory to the examination of the pupil-teachers previously to their admission into a Normal School. Finding that the patrons of students and the friends of the establishment are unable, for the most part, to support a longer training for young men than one year and a half, we are more anxious respecting the investigation of their pre-

vicious characters and connections, and more fastidious as to their intellectual qualifications and acquirements.

When circumstances thus combine to prevent the residence of the students in the training school for a longer period than a year and a half, the inquiries as to previous character cannot be conducted with too much care, and *the first month of training should, under any circumstances, be regarded as probationary.*

Under these arrangements, also, the impression produced upon the characters of the students during their residence is of paramount importance.

They are commonly selected from a humble sphere. They are the sons of small tradesmen, of bailiffs, of servants, or of superior mechanics. Few have received any education, except that given in a common parochial school. They read and write very imperfectly; are unable to indite a letter correctly; and are seldom skillful, even in the first four rules of arithmetic. Their biblical knowledge is meager and inaccurate, and all their conceptions, not less on religious than on other subjects, are vague and confused, even when they are not also very limited or erroneous. Their habits have seldom prepared them for the severely regular life of the Normal School, much less for the strenuous effort of attention and application required by the daily routine of instruction. Such concentration of the mind would soon derange the health, if the course of training did not provide moderate daily exercise in the garden, at proper intervals. The mental torpor, which at first is an obstacle to improvement, generally passes away in about three months, and from that period the student makes rapid progress in the studies of the school.

These attainments, humble though they be, might prove dangerous to the character of the student, if his intellectual development were the chief concern of the masters.

How easy it would be for him to form an overweening estimate of his knowledge and ability, must be apparent, when it is remembered that he will measure his learning by the standard of that possessed by his own friends and neighbors. He will find himself suddenly raised by a brief course of training to the position of a teacher and example. If his mind were not thoroughly penetrated by religious principle, or if a presumptuous or mercenary tone had been given to his character, he might go forth to bring discredit upon education, by exhibiting a precocious vanity, an insubordinate spirit, or a selfish ambition. He might become, not the gentle and pious guide of the children of the poor, but a hireling, into whose mind had sunk the doubts of the skeptic; in whose heart was the worm of social discontent; and who had changed the docility of ignorance and dullness, for the restless impatience of a vulgar and conceited sciolist.

In the formation of the character of the schoolmaster, the discipline of the training school should be so devised as to prepare him for the modest respectability of his lot. He is to be a Christian teacher, following Him who said, "He that will be my disciple, let him take up his cross." Without the spirit of self-denial, he is nothing. His reward must be in his work. There should be great simplicity in the life of such a man.

Obscure and secluded schools need masters of a contented spirit, to whom the training of the children committed to their charge has charms sufficient to concentrate their thoughts and exertions on the humble sphere in which they live, notwithstanding the privations of a life but little superior to the level of the surrounding peasantry. When the scene of the teacher's exertions is in a neighborhood which brings him into association with the middle and upper classes of society, his emoluments will be greater, and he will be surrounded by temptations which, in the absence of a suitable preparation of mind, might rob him of that humility and gentleness which are among the most necessary qualifications of the teacher of a common school.

In the training school, habits should be formed consistent with the modesty of his future life. On this account, we attach peculiar importance to the discipline which we have established at Battersea. Only one servant, besides a cook, has been kept for the domestic duties of the household. The whole household work, with the exception of the scouring of the floors and cooking, is performed by the students; and they likewise not only milk and clean the cows, feed and tend the pigs, but have charge of the stores, wait upon each other, and cultivate the garden. We cannot too emphatically state our opinion that no portion of this

work could be omitted, without a proportionate injury to that contentment of spirit, without which the character of the student is liable to be overgrown with the errors we have described.

The garden-work also serves other important ends. Some exercise and recreation from the scholastic labors are indispensable. Nevertheless, a large portion of the day cannot be devoted to it, and when three or four hours only can be spared, care should be taken that the whole of this time is occupied by moderate and healthful exertion in the open air. A period of recreation employed according to the discretion of the students would be liable to abuse. It might often be spent in listless sauntering, or in violent exertion. Or if a portion of the day were thus withdrawn from the observation of the masters of the school, it would prove a period in which associations might be formed among the students inconsistent with the discipline; and habits might spring up to counteract the influence of the instruction and admonition of the masters. In so brief a period of training, it is necessary that the entire conduct of the student should be guided by a superior mind.

Not only, by the daily labor of the garden, are the health and morals of the school influenced, but habits are formed consistent with the student's future lot. It is well both for his own health, and for the comfort of his family, that the schoolmaster should know how to grow his garden stuff, and should be satisfied with innocent recreation near his home.

We have also adhered to the frugal diet which we at first selected for the school. Some little variety has been introduced, but we attach great importance to the students being accustomed to a diet so plain and economical, and to arrangements in their dormitories so simple and devoid of luxury, that in after life they will not in an humble school be visited with a sense of privation, when their scanty fare and mean furniture are compared with the more abundant food and comforts of the training school. We have therefore met every rising complaint respecting either the quantity or quality of the food, or the humble accommodation in the dormitories, with explanations of the importance of forming, in the school, habits of frugality, and of the paramount duty of nurturing a patient spirit, to meet the future privations of the life of a teacher of the poor.

Our experience also leads us to attach much importance to simplicity and propriety of dress. For the younger pupils we had, on this account, prepared a plain dark dress of rifle green, and a working dress of fustian cord. As respects the adults, we have felt the importance of checking the slightest tendency to peculiarity of dress, lest it should degenerate into foppery. We have endeavored to impress on the students that the dress and the manners of the master of a school for the poor should be decorous, but that the prudence of his life should likewise find expression in their simplicity. There should be no habit nor external sign of self-indulgence or vanity.

On the other hand, the master is to be prepared for a life of laborious exertion. He must, therefore, form habits of early rising, and of activity and persevering industry. In the winter, before it is light, the household work must be finished, and the school-rooms prepared by the students for the duties of the day. One hour and a half is thus occupied. After this work is accomplished, one class must assemble winter and summer, at a quarter to seven o'clock, for instruction. The day is filled with the claims of duty requiring the constant exertion of mind and body, until, at half past nine, the household retire to rest.

By this laborious and frugal life, economy of management is reconciled with the efficiency both of the moral and intellectual training of the school, and the master goes forth into the world humble, industrious, and instructed.

But into the student's character higher sentiments must enter, if we rightly conceive the mission of the master of a school for the poor. On the religious condition of the household, under the blessing of God, depends the cultivation of that religious feeling, without which the spirit of self-sacrifice cannot take its right place among the motives which ought to form the mainspring of a schoolmaster's activity.

There is a necessity for incessant vigilance in the management of a training school. The principal should be *wise as a serpent*, while the gentleness of his discipline, and his affectionate solicitude for the well-being of his pupils, should encourage the most unreserved communications with him. Much of his leisure

should be devoted to private interviews with the students, and employed in instilling into their minds high principles of action. A cold and repulsive air of authority may preserve the appearance of order, regularity, and submission in the household; but these will prove delusive signs if the principal does not possess the respect and confidence, not to say the affections, of his charge. He should be most accessible, and unwearied in the patience with which he listens to confessions and inquiries. While it is felt to be impossible that he should enter into any compromise with evil, there should be no such severity in his tone of rebuke as to check that confidence which seeks guidance from a superior intelligence. As far as its relation to the principal only is concerned, every fault should be restrained and corrected by a conviction of the pain and anxiety which it causes to an anxious friend, rather than by the fear of a too jealous authority. Thus conscience will gradually be roused by the example of a master, respected for his purity, and loved for his gentleness, and inferior sentiments will be replaced by motives derived from the highest source.

Where so much has to be learned, and where, among other studies, so much religious knowledge must be acquired, there is danger that religion should be regarded chiefly as a subject for the exercise of the intellect. A speculative religious knowledge, without those habits and feelings which are the growth of deeply-seated religious convictions, may be a dangerous acquisition to a teacher of the young. How important, therefore, is it that the religious services of the household should become the means of cultivating a spirit of devotion, and that the religious instruction of the school should be so conducted as not merely to inform the memory, but to master the convictions and to interest the feelings! Religion is not merely to be taught in the school—it must be the element in which the students live.

This religious life is to be nurtured by the example, by the public instruction of the principal, and by his private counsel and admonition; by the religious services of the household; by the personal intercourse of the students, and the habits of private meditation and devotion which they are led to form; by the public worship of the church, and by the acts of charity and self-denial which belong to their future calling.

How important is it that the principal should embody such an example of purity and elevation of character, of gentleness of manners, and of unwearied benevolence, as to increase the power of his teaching, by the respect and conviction which wait upon a consistent life! Into the religious services of the household he should endeavor to inspire such a spirit of devotion as would spread itself through the familiar life, and hallow every season of retirement. The management of the village school affords opportunities for cultivating habits of kindness and patience. The students should be instructed in the organization and conduct of Sunday-schools; they should be trained in the preparation of the voluntary teachers by previous instruction; in the visitation of the absent children; in the management of the clothing and sick clubs and libraries attached to such schools. They should be accustomed to the performance of those parochial duties in which the schoolmaster may lighten the burden of the clergyman. For this purpose, they should learn to keep the accounts of the benefit club. They should instruct and manage the village choir, and should learn to play the organ.

While in attendance on the village school, it is peculiarly important that they should accompany the master in his visits to children detained at home by sickness, and should listen to the words of counsel and comfort which he may then administer; they should also attend him when his duty requires a visit to the parents of some refractory or indolent scholar, and should learn how to secure their aid in the correction of the faults of the child.

Before he leaves the training school, the student should have formed a distinct conception, from precept and practice, how his example, his instruction, and his works of charity and religion, ought to promote the Christian civilization of the community in which he labors.

Turn we again to the contrast of such a picture. Let us suppose a school in which this vigilance in the formation of character is deemed superfluous; or a principal, the guileless simplicity of whose character is not strengthened by the wisdom of experience. A fair outward show of order and industry, and great intellectual development, may, in either case, be consistent with the latent prog-

ress of a rank corruption of manners, mining all beneath. Unless the searching intelligence of the principal is capable of discerning the dispositions of his charge, and anticipating their tendencies, he is unequal to the task of molding the minds of his pupils, by the power of a loftier character and a superior will. In that case, or when the principal deems such vigilance superfluous, and is content with the intellectual labors of his office, leaving the little republic, of which he is the head, to form its own manners, and to create its own standard of principle and action, the catastrophe of a deep ulcerous corruption is not likely to be long delayed.

In either case, it is easy to trace the progress of degeneracy. A school, in which the formation of character is not the chief aim of the masters, must abandon that all-important end to the republic of scholars. When these are selected from the educated and upper ranks of society, the school will derive its code of morals from that prevalent in such classes. When the pupils belong to a very humble class, their characters are liable, under such arrangements, to be compounded of the ignorance, coarseness, and vices of the lowest orders. One pupil, the victim of low vices, or of a vulgar coarseness of thought, escaping the eye of an unsuspecting principal, or unsought for by the vigilance which is expended on the intellectual progress of the school, may corrupt the private intercourse of the students with low buffoonery, profligate jests, and sneers at the self-denying zeal of the humble student; may gradually lead astray one after another of the pupils to clandestine habits, if not to the secret practice of vice. Under such circumstances, the counsels of the principal would gradually become subjects of ridicule. A conspiracy of direct insubordination would be formed. The influence of the superior would barely maintain a fair external appearance of order and respect.

Every master issuing from such a school would become the active agent of a degeneracy of manners, by which the humbler ranks of society would be infected.

The formation of the character is, therefore, the chief aim of a training school, and the principal should be a man of Christian earnestness, of intelligence, of experience, of knowledge of the world, and of the humblest simplicity and purity of manners.

Next to the formation of the character of the pupil is, in our estimation, the general development of his intelligence. The extent of his attainments, though within a certain range a necessary object of his training, should be subordinate to that mental cultivation, which confers the powers of self-education, and gives the greatest strength to his reflective faculties. On this account, among others, we attach importance to the methods of imparting knowledge pursued in the Normal School. While we have insured that the attainments of the students should be exact, by testing them with searching examinations, repeated at the close of every week, and reiterated lessons on all subjects in which any deficiency was discovered, nothing has been taught by rote. The memory has never been stored, without the exercise of the reason. Nothing has been learned which has not been understood. This very obvious course is too frequently lost sight of in the humbler branches of learning—principles being hidden in rules, defining only their most convenient application; or buried under a heap of facts, united by no intelligible link. To form the character, to develop the intelligence, and to store the mind with the requisite knowledge, these were the objects of the Normal School.

In the village school a new scene of labor developed itself, which has been in progress since the period of our last report, and has now nearly reached its term. If we attach pre-eminent importance to the formation of character as the object of the Normal School, a knowledge of the method of managing an elementary school, and of instructing a class in each branch of elementary knowledge, is the peculiar object of the model-school attached to any training institution. In its proper province as subordinate to the instruction and training in a Normal School, it is difficult to exaggerate the importance to a teacher, of a thorough familiarity with the theory and practice of organizing and conducting common schools. Without this, the most judicious labor in the Normal School may, so far as the future usefulness of the student as a schoolmaster is concerned, be literally wasted. **It**

is possible to conceive that the character may be formed on the purest model; that the intelligence may have been kept in healthful activity; and that the requisite general and technical instruction may have been acquired, yet without the aptitude to teach; without skill acquired from precept and example; without the habits matured in the discipline of schools; without the methods in which the art of teaching is reduced to technical rules, and the matter of instruction arranged in the most convenient form for elementary scholars, the previous labor wants the link which unites it to its peculiar task. On the other hand, to select from the common drudgery of a handicraft, or from the humble, if not mean pursuits of a petty trade, a young man barely (if indeed at all) instructed in the humblest elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and to conceive that a few months' attendance on a model-school can make him acquainted with the theory of its organization, convert him into an adept in its methods, or even rivet upon his stubborn memory any significant part of the technical knowledge of which he has immediate need, is a mistake too shameful to be permitted to survive its universal failure.

When we speak of the necessity of a thorough acquaintance with methods of organizing and teaching in common schools, we mean to *exalt* the importance of previous training of the character, expansion of the intelligence, and sufficient technical instruction. Without this previous preparation, the instruction in the model-school is empirical, and the luckless wight would have had greater success in his handicraft, than he can hope to enjoy in his school.

For these reasons, among others, the attention of the students has especially of late been directed to the theory of the organization of schools, and to the acquirement of the art of teaching.

The *method of conveying instruction* is peculiarly important in an elementary school, because the scholars receive no learning and little judicious training at home, and are, therefore, dependent for their education on the very limited period of their attendance at school. On this account nothing superfluous should be taught, lest what is necessary be not attained. The want of a fit preparation of the mind of the scholar, and the brevity of his school life, are reasons for adopting the most certain and efficacious means of imparting knowledge, so that this short period may become as profitable as possible. The regularity of the child's attendance, the interest he takes in his learning, and his success, will be promoted by the adoption of means of instruction suited to the state of his faculties and the condition of society from which he is taken. If his progress be obstructed by the obscurity of his master's teaching, and by the absence of that tact which captivates the imagination of children, and rouses the activity of their minds, the scholar will become dull, listless, and untoward; will neglect his learning and his school, and degenerate into an obstinate dunce. The easiest transition in acquirement is in the order of simplicity from the known to the unknown, and it is indispensable to skillful teaching that the matter of instruction should be arranged in a synthetic order, so that all the elements may have to each other the relation of a progressive series from the most simple to the most complex. This arrangement of the matter of instruction requires a previous analysis, which can only be successfully accomplished by the devotion of much time. Such methods are only gradually brought to perfection by experience. The elementary schoolmaster, however highly instructed, can seldom be expected to possess either the necessary leisure or the peculiar analytical talent; and unless this work of arrangement be accomplished for him, he cannot hope, by the technical instruction of the Normal School, to acquire sufficient skill to invent a method by arranging the matter of instruction.

In order, therefore, that he may teach nothing superfluous; that he may convey his instruction in the most skillful manner, and in the order of simplicity, it is necessary that he should become acquainted with a *method* of communicating each branch of knowledge.

This is the more important, because individual teaching is impossible in a common school. Every form of organization, from the monitorial to the simultaneous, includes more or less of collective teaching. The characteristics of skillful collective teaching are the simplicity and precision with which the knowledge is communicated, and the logical arrangement of the matter of instruction. Dif-

fuse, desultory, or unconnected lessons are a waste of time; they leave no permanent traces on the memory; they confuse the minds of children, instead of instructing them and strengthening their faculties.

Certain moral consequences also flow from the adoption of skillful methods of teaching. The relations of regard and respect which ought to exist between the master and his scholars are liable to disturbance, when, from his imperfect skill, their progress in learning is slow, their minds remain inactive, and their exertions are languid and unsuccessful. A school in which the master is inept, and the scholars are dull, too frequently becomes the scene of a harsher discipline. Inattention must be prevented—indolence quickened—impatience restrained—insubordination and truancy corrected; yet all these are early consequences of the want of skill in the master. To enforce attention and industry, and to secure obedience and decorum, the languid and the listless are too often subjected to the stimulus of coercion, when the chief requisite is method and tact. The master supplies his own deficiencies with the rod; and what he cannot accomplish by skill, he endeavors to attain by the force of authority.

Such a result is not a proper subject of wonder, when the master has received no systematic instruction in method. To leave the student without the aid of *method*, is to subject him to the toil of analysis and invention, when he has neither the time nor the talent to analyze and invent.

The Report of 1843 dwells on the several methods previously noticed in the extracts already made from the Report of 1841, and concludes as follows:

These several *Methods* have now been tested by experience on the most public theater, and have become an important part of the instruction of masters of elementary schools. The Manuals in which they are embodied render their acquisition comparatively easy even to those who do not enjoy the advantage of receiving lessons in the art of teaching by them from adepts. The school of method will place within the reach of the schoolmasters of the metropolis the means of acquiring the requisite skill; and the body of schoolmasters, whom the Normal Schools will annually disseminate, will diffuse them through the country. Every school conducted with complete efficiency by a master trained in a Normal School, will become a model to neighboring schools which have not enjoyed similar advantages. On this account alone, it is important that no student from a Normal School should commence his labors in the country until he has acquired a mastery of the methods of teaching these necessary elements.

In a course of instruction extending over a year and a half, a student ought to spend three hours daily, during six or eight months, in the practice of the art of teaching in the village school. When the course of instruction is necessarily limited to one year, four months should be thus employed, and during the entire period of his training, instruction in method should form an element of the daily routine in the Normal School.

By such means alone can a rational conception of method be attained, and that skill in the art of conducting a school and instructing a class without which all the labors of the Normal School in imparting technical knowledge are wasted, because the student has no power of communicating it to others.

In the Report of 1847, the Inspector, Mr. Moseley, makes the following remarks:

There is one point of view in which we cannot but speak of the labors of this institution with unmingled satisfaction. It stands out honorably distinguished from all others as a place where THE METHODS OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION are recognized as legitimate objects of research, and where TEACHING IS STUDIED AS AN ART.

That shifting, dreamy state of the mind which is associated with mechanical pursuits, such as have usually been the previous pursuits of the students of training institutions, does not readily pass into a close and continuous application of the understanding, any more than, in respect to our bodily health, a state of constant physical exertion gives place quietly to a sedentary life. A laborer is not easily converted into a student. It is not to be done by putting a book be-

fore him. He may sit with that book before him for months, and yet never begin to *learn*.

Such a man requires to be roused from that mental apathy which has grown upon him by the disuse of his faculties, and to be taught the secret of his powers. This is best effected by the direct contact of his own mind with that of a vigorous teacher, and for this reason oral instruction is specially adapted to the business of a training school.

A system which limits itself to this expedient of instruction will probably, however, fail of some important results. The teacher must also be a student. Unless this be the case, the lessons he gives in his school will echo every day more faintly the instructions he received at the college. Each lesson should have had its preparation. However humble the subject, or the class of children to whom it is addressed, there is probably some information to be gathered from books which is applicable to it; and it is in the direction of such applications that lie the legitimate studies of the teacher—studies not less valuable in their influence upon his school than upon himself.

The labor of oral instruction is, however, so great, that to adopt it in respect to ever so small a number of students, supposes the union of several teachers; and thus is obtained that division of the subjects taught among the teachers which enables each to *confine his attention to a particular class of subjects*, and thereby himself to acquire not only that greater knowledge of these subjects, but of the *best means of teaching them*, which is essential to his success.

It is not only, however, because each teacher teaches *better*, that a favorable influence is to be attributed to the labors of various teachers in an institution like this, but because there is an awakening and stimulating power in the rude attacks made by a succession of vigorous teachers—each with a different subject, and an energy concentrated in it—on a sluggish understanding; and in the different impressions they leave upon it.

There are phases in every man's mind which adapt it to receive impressions from one teacher rather than another, as well as from one subject rather than from another. And thus, between one of a succession of teachers and some individual student, there may be established sympathies which no other could have awakened, and there may be commenced a process of instruction in some individual mind, which the united labors of all the rest could not have moved.

If any thing had been wanting to confirm in our minds the favorable opinion which has been earned for it among the friends of education, by the many admirable teachers it *has* sent out, the experience of our examination would have supplied it.

Fifty-four young men were assembled who, originally educated here, had for various periods of from one to seven years been in charge of elementary schools. An opportunity was afforded us of forming the personal acquaintance of these men, and each of them taught in our presence one of the classes of the village school.

The impression we received of them from these efforts was eminently favorable. Nor was this favorable opinion shaken by an examination of the papers written in answer to the questions we proposed to them. Although their course of regular instruction had in many cases long ceased, the knowledge they had acquired had not been lost. It was evident that their education had been of that kind which has a tendency to perfect itself, and that the process of instruction commenced here in their minds had gone on.

TRAINING COLLEGE

FOR

THE DIOCESE OF CHESTER, ENGLAND.

The following account of the Chester Diocesan Training College, England, is abridged from Reports by Rev. Henry Mosely, one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, to the Committee of Council on Education for 1845 and 1846. The Reports will be found in the "*Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education*" for 1844 and 1845.

The Chester Diocesan Training College was commenced by the Chester Diocesan Board of Education, in 1840. The College is situated on elevated ground, adjacent to the high road which leads from Chester to Park Gate, and is distant about one quarter of a mile from the north gate of the city, and a little less east, from the River Dee. It commands towards the west, an uninterrupted prospect of 12 or 14 miles, terminated by the hills of Denbighshire and Flintshire, and, from its upper windows, an equally extensive view eastward, over Cheshire. With its garden and grounds, it occupies five acres of land, one of which is freehold, held by deed of gift from the Dean and Chapter of Chester, and four acres (being pasture land) on lease, renewable every 21 years, and held under the same corporation. The property is conveyed in trust, for the purposes of the Institution, to the Chester Diocesan Board of Education, the Bishops of Chester, and the Deans of Chester and Manchester.

The material of the building is brickwork, with red sandstone facings. It has two principal fronts—the one towards the east extending on the line of the Park Gate-road; and the other towards the west, being that of the Principal's residence, and commanding a view of the Denbighshire hills. It is a structure of a grave and massive yet picturesque character, and of the Tudor style of architecture, to which its irregular outline is well adapted. In the adjustment of its proportions, in its decorations suitable to the material, and in the selection of its architectural forms, it presents a combination of great merit and of a very appropriate character. The building was erected in the years 1841 and 1842, and prepared for the reception of the students at an expense of about £10,752, raised by donations in the diocese, aided by a grant of £2500 from your Lordships. A model school-room has since been added to it,—additional accommodation provided for 20 students,—and your Lordships have contributed a further sum of £1200 towards those objects. The design of the Institution unites, with the training of schoolmasters, the instruction of a commercial school,—the pupils of which are received as boarders—and the instruction of an elementary school. Provision is made within the walls for these several departments.

The general management is vested in a Committee of the Chester Diocesan Board of Education, composed of 21 members.

The following is an official statement of the objects of the Institution, and of the conditions upon which students are received into it:

The object intended to be promoted by this Institution is to prepare, as far as a correctly religious, moral, and scientific training can do it, a supply of Masters, for the parochial-church schools in the diocese of Chester.

The Institution is under the presidency of the Lord Bishop of the Diocese, and has the sanction of the very Reverend the Deans, and the Reverend the Chapters

of Chester and Manchester. The office of Principal is vested in the Reverend Arthur Rigg, M.A. of Christ's College, Cambridge. The Vice-Principal is also a graduate of that university.

The times for the admission of students are two in the course of each year—viz., in January and in July.

Attention is directed to the following extracts from the Resolutions of the Training College Committee.

Objects of the Institution.—The Chester Diocesan Training College consists of an elementary school for the children of the poor, to be regarded as a model school.

A school for the education of Masters of elementary schools for the children of the poor, to be regarded as a normal school.

As subsidiary to these objects, a middle school for the education of the children from the middle classes.

Scheme of Instruction.—“That subject to such alterations as the Training School Committee may from time to time sanction, the following be the *general* Scheme of Instruction in the Training School:

RELIGION.	GENERAL.
Holy Scriptures.	English Grammar and Reading.
Evidences of Christianity.	Geography and History.
Church Catechism.	Writing and Arithmetic.
Daily and Occasional Services of Liturgy	Book-keeping.
XXXIX. Articles.	Theory and Practice of Teaching
Church History.	Psalmody.
History of the Reformation.	

Instruction may also be given, at the discretion of the Principal, with reference to the capacity of the pupil and the situation for which he is designed, in

The Latin and Greek Languages,	Linear Drawing,
Natural Philosophy,	Mapping,
Trigonometry,	The French Language,
Navigation,	Elements of Geometry and Algebra,

subject to the approval of the Training School Committee.”

Number of Pupils. Exhibitioners.—“That the number of pupils training as masters, until the Board shall otherwise determine, be limited to fifty—who shall pay £25 per annum for their board and instruction (all payments being made quarterly in advance). That of these a number not exceeding half shall receive exhibitions of £12 10s per annum each, to be appointed according to merit, and that the exhibition be held for a period not longer than three years, subject nevertheless to forfeiture, if the individual appointed do not, in the opinion of the Committee, by assiduity and good conduct continue to merit it.”

Caution Money.—“That each person, before his name be entered as a candidate for admission, pay one pound; this sum to be returned if he come into residence;—to be forfeited for the use of the Library Fund if he do not.”

Students to enter into a Bond.—“That every pupil training for a master, or other person on his behalf, be required to enter into a legal engagement, binding him to the following effect, viz. :—

“That in case he shall decline, when so required by the Principal, to undertake the duties of a schoolmaster or assistant, within one year after he has left the establishment, and also in case at any period not exceeding four years from his undertaking such duties, he shall decline to continue the same, the Diocesan Board, Training College, Committee, or any one acting by their authority, shall with due regard to his health, services and other circumstances, have power to require of him the payment of any sum not exceeding twice the amount which shall have been paid to him or applied to his benefit as such student.”

Times of Admission.—“That pupils for training be admitted into the Establishment half-yearly, on certain days to be fixed by the Committee, of which due notice shall be given by the Principal.”

Age of Candidates.—“That, except in special cases, when the examiners shall otherwise determine, no pupil be admitted before the age of fifteen, nor be recommended as a schoolmaster before the age of eighteen, having studied at least one year in the Institution; and that no pupil remain for a longer period than five years. And that no person be eligible as a pupil to the Training School, who,

from any bodily infirmity, is disqualified from efficiently discharging the duties of a schoolmaster."

Certificate of Baptism.—"That every pupil, on becoming a candidate for admission into the Training School, be required to produce a certificate or sufficient testimonial of baptism, and a certificate from the minister of the parish in which he has resided, according to the following form:

"I, A. B., Incumbent or Curate of _____, do hereby certify that C. D. has resided in this Parish for the space of _____, and that I believe him to be qualified in character and attainments to become a Candidate for admission into the Training College at Chester."

Examinations of Candidates.—"That candidates for admission be subjected to an examination to be conducted by the Principal, the Chancellor of the Diocese, the Canon in residence at Chester, and one of the elected masters of higher schools. That each candidate be required to read and spell correctly—to write a good plain hand—to be well versed in the first four rules of arithmetic—to possess a general knowledge of the Old and New Testament—and to be able to repeat accurately the Church Catechism."

Every candidate for admission is required to answer the following questions in writing, space being left for his answers on a printed copy of them which is placed before him:—

What is your age?
 Have you been vaccinated?
 Are you *now* and *usually* in a good state of health? }
 Are you without any bodily defect? }
 Where did you receive your education? }
 What is your present situation in life—why leaving it—and what is the average of your weekly earnings? }
 Have you been accustomed to teach either in a day or Sunday school—if so, where and for what period of time? }
 Have you any knowledge of *music, singing,* or *drawing*? }
 Who becomes responsible for your quarter's payment in advance? }
 Date, } Sign with your own name and address. }

Name, _____
 Trade or calling, _____
 Address, _____

Every candidate for admission is moreover required to sign the following declaration:

"I hereby declare that my object in entering the Chester Diocesan Training College is to qualify myself for a schoolmaster, and that I will not take any situation, either as a schoolmaster or otherwise, without the consent of the Board, and repayment of the money expended on my preparatory Education, and that, when required, I will accept the office of schoolmaster under and in connexion with the Diocesan Board of Education."

Fifteen exhibitions, each of £12 10s annually, have been founded by the Diocesan Board, and one of the same amount by W. E. Gladstone, Esq., M.P. The whole charge upon the funds of the Institution, in respect to exhibitions, amounts therefore to £187 10s.

The National Society has founded a number of exhibitions to meet in part, the expenses of the residence of twenty masters, over twenty-one years of age, for a period not less than three and not more than eight months. The number of students at the period of my first inspection was 56, of whom 14 were schoolmasters resident, temporarily, upon the exhibitions of the National Society. Their average age was 27 years. The ages of the students of the class permanently resident in the Institution varied at the period of my first inspection from 17 to 37 years, their mean age being 25 years.

The previous occupations of 21 of the regular students, being one-half

of the whole number, had been of a mechanical character, connected for the most part with the manufacturers of the district; they had, in point of fact, been, under one form or another, workmen. Of the remainder, 8 had been employed in schools, and the rest had for the most part been warehousemen or clerks.

I have been thus particular in recording the previous occupations of these young men, from an impression that, in estimating the probable resources of such an institution, and the results attainable from it, it is desirable to know who are likely to frequent it.

I find that 8 are supported in the Institution at their own charge, 18 at the cost of their parents or other relations, and 9 by private patrons—chiefly benevolent clergymen. Of these, 14 are aided by exhibitions of the Diocesan Board. The previous instruction of the greater number was commenced in National Schools. Their school-days, however, had terminated at a very early period of life, and what they knew had chiefly been acquired during the intervals of daily labor. Attainments, however meagre, made under such circumstances, are evidences of a superior character—they are the fruits of self-dedication and self-sacrifice for the attainment of an important and a laudable object, and they bear testimony to a thirst for knowledge already created, and a habit of self-instruction already formed.

These are qualifications of no mean value for the career on which they enter at the Training College. On the other hand, it is to be borne in mind that there is nothing in mechanical occupations, however favorable in some cases to reflection, to exercise a prompt and facile intelligence, or cultivate a verbal memory and an opulent diction. With few exceptions they had been accustomed to teach in Sunday-schools, and the extensive Scriptural knowledge of which my examination supplied me with the evidence, was probably acquired in this occupation. Where their secular knowledge on admission extended beyond reading, writing, and arithmetic, it included in seven or eight cases, a little Latin, and in five, the first principles of algebra and geometry. The dialect and pronounciation of many of them I found to be strongly provincial, and the articulation in reading imperfect.

Their arithmetical knowledge on their admission, often includes all the rules usually taught in books on arithmetic; but it is a knowledge limited to the application of the rule mechanically, with a greater or less amount of accuracy and facility; and does not include any intelligence of the principles of calculation on which it is founded, much less of the best means of bringing the minds of children to the intelligence of them.

The students rise at 5 o'clock in the summer and at $\frac{1}{4}$ before 7, in the winter.* They make their own beds; and in summer devote the interval between $\frac{1}{2}$ past 5 and 7, to Scriptural instruction, and to the preparation of lessons for the next succeeding day. Prayers are read at 7 o'clock, and at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 7 they breakfast. The interval from $\frac{1}{4}$ before 8 to $\frac{1}{4}$ past 8 is devoted to industrial occupations, carried on for the most part in the open air, or (the weather being unfavorable) to psalmody. At $\frac{1}{2}$ past 8 their morning studies commence, and are continued to $\frac{1}{2}$ past 11. The interval between $\frac{1}{2}$ past 11 and $\frac{1}{4}$ after 12 they again devote to industrial pursuits, the weather permitting. They dine at 1 o'clock, and resume their studies at 2. The interval from 5 to $\frac{1}{2}$ past 7 is allowed them for private reading and exercise, and it is in this interval that they take their evening meal. Their evening studies begin at $\frac{1}{2}$ past 7, and are continued until $\frac{1}{4}$ past 8.

*Any number, not less than four, who come down to pursue their studies at an earlier hour than this in the winter are allowed to light the gas in the class rooms.

At $\frac{1}{2}$ past 8 evening prayers are read, the service being choral and accompanied by the organ, and at 9 they retire to rest. In the dormitories the gas-lights burn for three-quarters of an hour after they have retired to rest, a period which they have the opportunity of devoting to religious reading and to their devotions.

The following is a list of the officers of the Institution :

- Rev. ARTHUR RIGG, M.A., Christ College, Cambridge, *Principal*.
 Rev. RICHARD WALL, B.A., St. John's College, Cambridge, *Vice-Principal*.
 Mr. HENRY BEAUMONT, *Master in the Commercial School*.
 *Mr. RICHARD GRIFFIES, *Master in the Commercial School*.
 *Mr. LAWRENCE W. RILEY, *Master of the Model School*.

The teachers of the commercial school occasionally assist in the instruction of the students of the training school. No other masters are employed than those above enumerated, all of whom are resident within the walls of the Institution.

The Principal is assisted in the general supervision of the Institution, by one of the students called the *scholar*, selected from among the exhibitioners, and changed every week according to a cycle fixed at the commencement of each half year. His duties are as follows:—

Duties of the Scholar.

1. To inspect the bed-rooms and be responsible for their order. To open all windows upstairs.
2. To go to the post-office at 9 o'clock A.M. and leave the order-book in the usual place.
3. To ring the bell at all the doors at the appointed hours.
4. To have a general care over all the in-door property of the building.
5. To keep the library in order, and to be responsible for class-books, and to prepare the books for each lesson.
6. To receive all letters for post at $\frac{1}{2}$ to 8 P.M.
7. To receive all articles for the tailor and shoemaker before 5 o'clock P.M. on Thursday.
8. To take the board containing the scheme of work into the study on Thursday evening.
9. To put up the calender for the week on the Saturday previous; also to put up a copy of the psalm-tune for Sunday on the Monday evening previous.
10. For neglect or breach of these rules the scholar may be punished at the discretion of the Principal.

Another student, selected according to a weekly cycle from among those who will leave the Institution at the following vacation, is appointed under the designation of an "orderly," specially to assist the Principal in matters connected with the discipline of the Institution and the industrial occupations of the students. His duties are as follows :

Duties of Orderly.

1. Not to allow any student to talk or make a noise before prayers (morning) and at meals.
2. To see that shoes are on at least 5 minutes before prayers, Thursday and Sunday excepted.
3. To order and arrange for prayers.
4. To bolt the yard-doors when the bell has rung for each meal.
5. To have the control, direction, &c., of the manner in which work is to be done; the employment of any who are idle; and the general care, &c., of tools, &c., and all the out-door property of the building.
6. To see that the students are seated 10 minutes after the bell has rung in the morning and 2 in the afternoon.
7. To attend to order in classes at lessons both as regards persons and places.
8. The orderly to provide a towel every Saturday night for the use of the students in the yard.
9. For neglect or breach of these rules the orderly may be punished at the discretion of the Principal.

The period devoted every week to each subject of instruction will be found specified in the following table :

* These were recently students in the Institution.

Time devoted in the course of the Week to each subject of Instruction.

	H.	M.
Scriptural knowledge	8	0
Evidences of Christianity	1	0
Church History	1	20
English Grammar	3	30
English History	1	0
English literature (including themes and writing from memory, &c.)	2	40
Educational essays, together with lectures, reading, and praxes on National School teaching	12	0
Arithmetic	5	10
Algebra	1	0
Euclid	1	0
Mensuration	1	0
Natural and Experimental Philosophy	0	40
Lecture (subject not prescribed)	1	0
Writing	1	40
Geography	2	0
Vocal Music	3	0
Linear Drawing	2	0
Preparation for lessons	4	30
Leisure	15	0

During the last six months of the residence of each student, he practices the art of teaching in the model-school; a week at a time being set apart for that occupation, according to a cycle prepared by the Principal, which brings back the teaching week of each, with an interval of about three weeks during the first quarter, and oftener if necessary during the last.

The Institution provides all the books used by the students, whose price exceeds 3s, and the students contribute each 2s quarterly towards the purchase of them.

On one of the days of my inspection, in the month of May, I found the students thus employed:—

7	were engaged in	carpentry.
5	"	cabinet-making.
2	"	brass-working and soldering.
*8	"	book-binding.
2	"	painting.
2	"	graining.
2	"	turning in wood.
2	"	" in metal.
1	"	stone-cutting.
4	"	lithographing.
2	"	filig and chipping.
2	"	practical chemistry.
2	"	varnishing and map-mounting.
2	"	lithographical drawing.
15	"	gardening, excavating, and transporting earth.

All the rough ground about the building has been levelled and brought into cultivation by them; the principal class-rooms painted in imitation of oak and excellently grained; they have made several articles of furniture and various school apparatus; and many of the books in the school have been bound by them.

It is not, however, with reference to the pecuniary value of the labors of the students that the Principal attaches importance to them, but with a view to their healthful character and their moral influence. They pursue their studies with the more energy, habits of indolence not having been allowed to grow upon them in their hours of relaxation, and their bodies being invigorated by moderate exercise; and, inactivity being banished from the Institution, a thousand evils engendered of it are held in abeyance. When first admitted, they do not understand why bodily labor is required of them, and are desirous to devote all their time to reading; they soon, however, acquiesce, and take a pleasure in it.

By employing each student as far as possible in the pursuit to which he

* All the students learn book-binding.

has been accustomed, his active co-operation is assured, because it is easy to him, and there is a pleasure associated with the exercise of his skill in it; and he becomes, moreover, in respect to this pursuit, an instructor to others—in this way, not less than by the marketable value of the results of his labor, contributing to the welfare of the Institution.

The industrial occupations of the students receive the constant and active supervision of the Principal. He takes a lively interest in the labors of each—points out the scientific bearings of the craft he is exercising, sometimes suggests to him an improved manipulation of it, and combines and directs the whole to proper objects and to useful results. At the time of my second visit he had thus concentrated all the mechanical power of the Institution on the labors of the chapel.

Nothing could be more lively and interesting than the scene presented by the grounds and workshops during the intervals of study. In one place the foundations of the structure were being dug out; in another the stone was quarried. In the workshops I found carpenters, turners, carvers in oak, and blacksmiths, plying their several trades; and, in a shed, a group of stone-cutters carving with great success, the arch-mouldings, mullions, and lights of a decorated window, under the direction of one of their number, to whom they were indebted for their knowledge of the art. A lively co-operation and a cheerful activity were everywhere apparent, and an object was obviously in the view of all, which ennobled their toil.

The expense of medical attendance is provided for, by the students themselves, who have a sick-club, to which each contributes 2s 6d every half-year. This payment is found sufficient, very little sickness having prevailed.

The students wear a collegiate dress, consisting of a cap and gown like those worn in the Universities. It is the object of this regulation to preserve a uniformity of appearance amongst them whilst they are within the bounds of the Institution, and to distinguish them when without.

The administration of the entire household department is intrusted to the steward, who provides the food and washing of the students, the board and wages of domestic servants, the house-linen, knives and forks, earthenware, kitchen utensils, &c., at a fixed charge in respect to each student, dependent for its amount on the number in residence. The Principal does not otherwise interfere with his department than in the exercise of an active and a constant supervision over it.

A dietary has been prescribed, but it has been found wholly unnecessary to enforce it. An entire separation between the rooms occupied by the students and the household department has been carefully provided for in the construction of the building, and is strictly and effectually enforced.

The Principal is charged with the administration of the discipline. It is enforced by impositions consequent on a breach of the rules.* The power of suspension rests with the Principal; of expulsion with the Committee of Management.

A permanent record of all punishments is kept in a book provided for that purpose by the Scholar.

The students who have left the Institution are accustomed to correspond with the Principal, and are invited at Christmas to dine with him. He is desirous, if it were practicable, to pay an annual visit to them. Inquiries are moreover made officially by the honorary secretary, from time to time, as to the way in which their duties are discharged, and the welfare of their schools.

* The following may be taken as an example of these impositions. Five lines are required to be written out for every minute that a student is late in the morning. No imposition had been enforced, except for this offence, between Christmas, 1843, and the period of my inspection in May, 1844.

Commercial and Agricultural School.

The system of education in the commercial and agricultural school comprises the following subjects:—

English Composition.
Writing and Arithmetic.
Book-keeping.
Mensuration.
Surveying and Engineering.
Ancient and Modern History.

Geography, Drawing and Music.
The Elements of Natural Philosophy.
Chemistry as applied to Agriculture, Horticulture, and the Arts.
Latin and Greek.
French and German.

The terms, including board, lodging, and education, are,—for pupils above 12 years of age, £35 per annum; for pupils under 12 years of age, £30 per annum. There are no extra charges. An entrance fee of £1 is required, and appropriated to the library and museum.

Pupils are admitted to the commercial school between the ages of 8 and 15 years.

The utmost attention is paid to their health and comfort, the domestic arrangements being under the superintendence of an experienced matron. Each has a separate room and bed. There are two vacations in the year; that in the summer for five weeks, that in the winter for four weeks.

Model School.

The appointment of Master of the model-school, is filled up from among the best qualified of the students of the College. He resides within the walls of the Institution, but is not charged with any other duties than those connected with his school. He is assisted in the instruction of the children by the students who are in the last six months of their residence (according to a scheme adverted to in a preceding part of this Report), and by monitors.

The children come, for the most part, from the neighboring city, their parents being commonly laborers of a superior class, or small shopkeepers. Having been present on one of the days of admission, which come round monthly, I can bear testimony to the earnest desire shown by the parents to secure for their children the superior instruction offered by the school. There were, at that time, between 20 and 30 applicants more than could be admitted, and the names of many of these had already been for some months on the list of candidates.

The following are the rules of the school. The scale of payment will be remarked as a novel feature in them. It has been framed in the hope of keeping the children longer at school, by offering the premium of a reduction of the fee dependent upon the child's standing, and has been found to work well.

Rules of Model National School in the Training College, Chester.

If these Rules are not obeyed, the Master cannot allow Children to remain at the School.

1. Boys who are above seven years of age and of good health may be brought to the school.

2. Each boy must be *in* the school at *nine* o'clock in the morning, and at *two* o'clock in the afternoon, unless otherwise ordered by the Master.

3. The children themselves, and their clothes, must be *quite clean*, their *hair cut short*, and in every way they must be as neat as the parents or friends can make them.

4. The 20 boys who have been longest in the school are free.

The next 20 boys who have been longest in the school must each pay - - - 1d per week.

The third 20 boys who have been longest in the school must each pay - - - 2d " "

And the rest of the children - - - 3d " "

5. On each Monday morning the pence for that week are to be brought, whether the child be at school or not.

6. Books, slates, paper, pens, ink, and pencils, &c., are found for the children without cost to the parents.

7. Any injury which may be done to books, &c., by a child, must be made good by his parents or friends.

8. If a boy be wanted at home, the master's leave must be asked *before-hand* by a parent or grown-up friend.

9. When children are late, or absent without the master's leave, a note will be sent requiring a parent or grown-up friend to come to the school to tell why the child was late or absent; and if it should ever be the case that, at different times during one half-year, *three* such notes have been sent about the same boy, he will on the next like offence be subject to degradation on the payment list, or dismissal from the school.

10. Care will be taken that children are not ill-treated while in school. Should there be any just ground of complaint, the parent must speak to the Principal of the College, without going to the school-room.

11. Since more is required than the labors of a schoolmaster in school, in order "that children may be virtuously brought up to lead a godly and a Christian life," the parents or friends are desired, as they love the welfare of their children, to promote their education in every possible manner,—confirming at home, both by precept and example, those lessons of piety and morality, order and industry, the teaching of which are main objects of this Institution.

In bringing under your Lordship's notice the conclusions to which I have been led by my inspection of this Institution, I cannot disguise from myself that, placed as it is in the immediate neighborhood of the vast population of Manchester and Liverpool, and destined to provide for the educational wants of a diocese, including within its limits the greatest manufacturing districts of the kingdom—districts than which no others are more remarkable for a dearth of elementary education,* and for the evils engendered of popular ignorance—it yields to no other similar institution in interest or importance. Neither does it yield to any other in the ad-

* The following is an abstract of the statistical returns made by the deaneries of the diocese of Chester to the Diocesan Board of Education and published in its Report for 1842:—

BOARD.	Population.	Number of Children for whom accommodation is provided.	Number of Children in Attendance.	Proportion per Cent. to the Population of those for whom accommodation is provided.	Proportion per Cent. to the Population of those in Daily Attendance.
Chester - -	90,341	15,178	4,300	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Nantwich - -	34,237	4,559	1,120	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Macclesfield - -	131,702	15,987	3,350	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middlewich - -	44,962	6,344	1,556	15	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Frodsham - -	73,859	9,597	2,957	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	4
Manchester - -	550,178	51,311	10,943	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Bolton - -	149,108	15,847	2,695	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Liverpool - -	266,135	24,038	10,228	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wigan - -	141,858	18,224	4,117	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Preston - -	72,668	15,517	3,513	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Lancaster - -	34,033	6,657	1,581	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Blackburn - -	156,793	25,125	4,140	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Chorley - -	56,815	8,345	1,759	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	3
Ulverston - -	25,760	5,207	1,621	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Whitehaven - -	18,808	6,590	1,718	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Kendal - -	33,833	7,149	1,581	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Whole Diocese.	1,884,082	236,475	56,609	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3

vantages of its situation, the imposing character and the magnitude of its structure, and the scale of its operations. It is the only building which has yet been erected expressly for the purposes of a training college, and in the adaptation of its plan internally for the uses of such a structure, not less than in the appropriate character of its external architecture, it may serve as a model for every other.

The direct influence of the College on the education of the district, is that which it exercises through the schoolmasters whom it sends out. What this influence is likely to become, may be judged of from the fact that, of the 37 masters who had been so sent out up to February 1844, it has been ascertained in respect to 30, that the number of children in attendance upon their schools had increased in 13 months from 1428 to 2469: so that if every schoolmaster in the diocese could be replaced by one from this college, the number of children under instruction in it, would according to this rate of increase, double itself in little more than a year. The Bishop of Chester, who takes a deep interest in the success of the College, and extends to it a paternal care, thus speaks of it in his charge to the clergy of the diocese, at the triennial visitation of 1844:

“It may be objected, that education is no new thing; that National schools have existed for a whole generation; and that we have no right to look for a result in future which has not been produced already.

“We have learnt, however, from past experience, that schools may exist, with very little of real education: very little of that culture which brings the mind into a new state, and prepares it for impressions of good which may be strong enough to resist temptation, and maintain a course of righteousness, sobriety, and godliness. That our schools have been useful as far as they have hitherto proceeded, it would be unreasonable to doubt; that they are capable of becoming far more useful, it is impossible to deny. I believe that we have taken the right step, in applying ourselves to the education of masters as preparatory to the education of children. And I look to the Training College, now happily established at Chester, and able to send forth its 30 masters annually, to supply the schools now building, and demanded by our increasing population, as one of the bright stars in our present prospect: one of the premises on which I found my hopeful calculations, for the people themselves readily appreciate the nature of the education offered them. After all, their indifference to education has hitherto been the chief cause of their want of education. Many of our national schools have languished for lack of scholars, in the midst of an illiterate population. When once it is perceived that schools are really telling upon the habits of the scholars—that the children through the effect of moral discipline are becoming orderly, obedient, and intelligent—the school fills as naturally as water rises in the channel when the spring receives a fresh supply. The 30 masters who first left our Training College found in their respective schools an aggregate of 1400 scholars. By the close of the first year the 1400 had swelled to 2400.”

It is not only by means of the schoolmasters educated within its walls that the Training College exercises an influence on the surrounding district, but indirectly also, by the interest which it adds to the subject of education among the clergy of the diocese—by the educational topics which come through its means under their discussion—and the new methods of instruction which it brings to their knowledge. The imposing character of its structure, also—the commanding scale of its operations, and the sanction which the Bishop of the diocese lends to it, are not probably without their influence upon the springs of public opinion, or their practical bearing upon the interests of elementary education; tending as they do to raise the character of the educator in the estimation not less of the lower than

of the upper classes of society, and to awaken the public sympathies in his behalf.

Nothing is more remarkable than the order and decorum which pervades the College, not less during the hours of relaxation than those of study. A duty appears to be prescribed for every moment, and every moment to find its active and useful employment.

Entire silence prevails throughout the building during the hours of study ; the industrial pursuits of the students are characterized by the most perfect decorum ; a routine is prescribed which regulates the order in which they assemble at prayers, and retire noiselessly to rest. All bespeaks a system rigidly enforced, and a high state of discipline.

In a preceding part of this Report, I have spoken of the class of society from which the students are for the most part taken, and the circumstances under which they are supported in the Institution. From the laborious character of an elementary schoolmaster's life and its privations, it is improbable that many persons would seek it, whose friends were in a position to pay for them an annual premium of £25, unless for some reason or other, they be disqualified for pursuing with success other avocations in life.

In so far as the self-supporting character which is sought for this Institution, and for others of the same class, is realized by the contributions of the relatives of the students themselves ; its tendency is, therefore, to lower the general standard of ability and qualification for the office of schoolmaster ; affording facilities for introducing to that office persons unsuited to the discharge of its duties. For it is to be borne in mind, that precisely those qualities of mental and bodily activity, judgment, enterprise, and perseverance, which lead to advancement in every other pursuit in life, are necessary to the elementary schoolmaster, and that the man is disqualified for that office who is unfit for any other.

In recording my impression of the actual attainments of the students at the period of inspection, I must in the first place bear testimony to a remarkable disparity apparent not less in their acquired knowledge, than in their natural abilities and adaptation of character and manners to the office they seek—a disparity which dates from the period of their admission. I have found amongst them men of powerful understanding and (speaking relatively) of cultivated minds ; and others whose limited attainments, made under circumstances of extraordinary difficulty and discouragement, have borne testimony to much natural intelligence, a persevering character, and formed habits of study.* There are, however, others who appear scarcely to possess the ability or the industry requisite to supply—as to the commonest elements of knowledge—the deficiencies of a neglected education. It is too much to expect of the Institution, that, in the short period of their residence, it † should give to the latter class that apt ‡ intelligence,

* I find the following recorded among my notes of a private interview with one of the students of the College. I insert it here in illustration of the above remark :—

“_____ was a cotton spinner ; is an intelligent person ; possesses great Scriptural knowledge, much general information in literature, and some acquaintance with algebra and geometry. Taught himself these things while spinning ; having a book fixed up and reading in the interval of the return of the jenny. Afterwards he availed himself of the mutual instruction classes established at the place of his residence by the clergymen. He came to the Institution at his own expense for the first three quarters—his maintenance for three other quarters was provided by subscription.” Exhibitions covering the whole expenses of residence in the College, and thrown, in some degree, open to competition, would probably secure for the interests of education many men of a similar character.

† The meantime of the residence of a student appears to be about one year and a half.

‡ In no respect are the deficiencies of these young men more apparent on their first entrance to the Institution than in the lack of a ready intelligence of those common elements of knowledge which are placed before them in their simplest forms. They seem to have little or no power of closely applying their thoughts, or of fixed attention ; and it is long before they are in a state to profit by study, or by oral instruction. Their first effort is to shake off this sluggish habit of

that power of exposition, and those resources of method and simplification which unite to form the accomplished educator. It is enough that it bring these men up to the standard of the existing masters of National schools—that it should raise them above it is not to be hoped.

Whilst the addition of men of this class to the number of elementary schoolmasters is not the legitimate function of a training institution, and can contribute nothing to the interests of that cause which it is established to promote, it cannot fail to disappoint the hopes of these persons themselves. The standard of elementary education is rising so rapidly, and the number of efficient educators so fast increasing, that already those of inferior skill, find great difficulty in obtaining employment.

Their knowledge of geography includes many of the simpler elements of that science known as physical geography, which treats of the general conformation of the earth's surface in connexion with the climates of different regions, their vegetable and animal productions, and the races of men who inhabit them. Viewed in this light, geography is a science which may, in the hands of a skilful instructor, be made the vehicle of much general knowledge of that kind which is most likely to awaken in the minds of children a curiosity to know more, and cultivate a habit of self-instruction; and he will not fail to avail himself of it, to bring the resources of his lending library to the aid of his lessons, and thus to establish in the child's mind a link between the mechanical ability to read and a *pleasure* derivable from reading.

It is a novel feature of the Institution that it includes natural history in its course of instruction. I look forward with great interest to the progress of this branch of knowledge, than which none is more humanizing in its influence upon the mind, or more healthful in the pursuit. The scene of a village-schoolmaster's life appears well adapted for the study of it, and followed, as it were, in the constant and manifest presence of Divine wisdom and goodness, it is eminently of a devotional tendency. It is to the able and well-directed labors of the Vice-Principal that the Institution owes those two characteristic and distinguished features of its course of instruction to which I have last adverted.

The science of mechanics is taught with much care, and particularly that simple form of it which treats of the work of mechanical agents. It has been introduced successfully into their schools by some of the students who have left the College. By a manufacturing population it cannot fail to be appreciated, admitting as it does of a useful application to their daily pursuits, and possessing a marketable value. It is a characteristic of elementary education such as this, that being allied to that which is to form the future occupation of the life of the child, it will not be cast away with his school-books, but when he becomes a man will be suggested again to his mind by things constantly occurring under his observation. Some scattered rays of knowledge being thus made to fall on the scene of his daily toil, his craft will assume something of the character of a science, and he will rise in the scale of intelligent beings by the mechanical exercise of his calling.

Like St. Mark's College, the Chester Diocesan Training College has grown up under the hands of its Principal. It has been framed from its commencement upon his views, and has received in many respects an impression from his character. This Report would be incomplete did it not bear testimony to his many and admirable qualifications for the office in-

mind; and much of the valuable time allotted to them in the Institution is often expended before that effort is successful. Thus their progress during the later part of their career is far greater than at first, and they sometimes leave when the real education of their minds is but just beginning.

trusted to him ; and I cannot but look upon it as an event of no little importance to the interests of education, that his services have been secured in its cause.

The following passages are taken from the Report of Mr. Mosely, for 1845 :

According to the census of 1841, the diocese of Chester contained, in that year, in the counties of Chester and Lancaster, a population of 2,062,364, of which number 236,126 were males, and 234,929 females, *between the ages of 5 and 15, or 3 and 13*,—that is of an age to go to school.

Admitting that each adult teacher is capable of instructing 60 children, 7,850 such teachers would be required for the instruction of the children of these two counties. In which number—supposing none of them to be less than 25 years of age, and to become incapacitated for their duties at 65—117 will die annually, and 105 will be superannuated. So that from these two causes 222 vacancies will occur annually.

Assuming that 7 per cent. of this number are private teachers, there will remain 206 vacancies to be provided for among the teachers of public elementary schools, *i. e.*, 103 masters, and the same number of mistresses.

My experience in the inspection of training colleges leads me to the conclusion that the persons who seek them are not generally possessed of such previous instruction as would render a period of less than two years adequate to qualify them for the office of the elementary schoolmaster.

The training schools for masters in this diocese alone should, therefore, with reference to a really efficient state of the elementary education of the country, give instruction constantly to 206 students.

The present number of students in the Chester Diocesan College, is 40. It affords accommodation for 100. The part of it otherwise unoccupied, giving space to a commercial school, which at present consists of 30 boys.

The task of instructing the senior students devolves entirely upon the Principal and the Vice-principal ; they are, however, assisted in their labors in the commercial and model schools by two of the students, whose course of instruction has been completed. This constitutes the entire staff of officers.

The fee for admission is 25*l.* annually ; 16 exhibitions of 12*l.* 10*s.* each, however, reduce the fee, in respect to the like number of students, by one-half.

Seven hours a day are devoted to study in the class-rooms, 1½ hours to industrial pursuits, 2½ hours in winter, and 4 in summer, to private study and exercise.

The subjects of instruction, include Religious knowledge, English literature, Science, and the Art of teaching. Ten hours and one-third in each week, are devoted to the first, 21 hours to the second, 9 hours to the third, and 12 hours to the fourth. The students occupy 4½ hours in the preparation of lessons, and they have, every week, 15 hours' leisure.

The rest of their time is given to industrial occupations. These constitute an integral part of the course of instruction, received as systematically as any other, and under a greater variety of forms, and with more success than in any similar institution with which I am acquainted.

Nothing can be more animated and interesting than the scene which presents itself to the stranger who visits the institution during the hours when these occupations are going on.

Every student is seen plying some useful handicraft—either that which was the means of his previous livelihood, or one taken up since he has been in the institution—and wherever the eye rests, some new form of useful instruction in the mechanical arts suggests itself to the mind.*

* On the day of my inspection I found the students thus distributed :—There were 5 carpenters, 2 turners in wood, 4 in iron, 2 painters, 2 blacksmiths, 3 glass-stainers, 4 lithographers, 3 carvers, 6 bookbinders, 2 students were varnishing maps, 1 was working a circular saw, 6 were occupied in excavating and transport of earth, and there was 1 gardener.

There can be no doubt of the admirable adaptation of a system like this to the education of masters for Industrial Schools; and the question how far it may be practicable and expedient to maintain such schools is pressed more and more, every day, upon the attention of the friends of the laboring classes, by the encroachments which labor is making upon that part of a poor child's life, which has hitherto been left for its education. Any plan would be likely to receive the confidence of the poor, combining instruction in useful learning, with some employment, which, whilst it served, by a trifling remuneration, to diminish the sacrifice they make in not sending their children to work, would be an obvious preparation for the life of labor in reserve for them.

It is not, perhaps, without a show of reason, that they are accustomed to fear, lest by too long a continuance at school, and by the influence of too much book learning, their children should be led to shrink from that self-denial of bodily toil, and should fail of those habits of steady industry, which are proper to their state of life. To talk to them of the moral advantages of instruction, of the elevating and ennobling tendencies of knowledge, of the social virtues which follow in its train, and of its influence in the formation of religious character, and, through that character, upon the future and eternal welfare of a responsible being, is to seek to impress their minds with truths of which, alas, they have no experience. Engaged themselves in a perpetual struggle with the physical difficulties of existence—too often increased by their own improvidence—when they look to the future welfare of their children, they have no other thought present to their minds than the remuneration of their labor. And, after all, if we would serve them effectually, and with that view, if we would secure their active concurrence in our efforts, we must, in some degree, meet their own views as to what is best for their children, and take them as they are, with all their ignorance, and their prejudices about them. Our success will be the greatest when we do the least violence to these prejudices; and they do not debar us from a wide field of labor for their advantage.

In giving to its students a practical knowledge of the pursuits of the laboring classes, this institution places them on vantage ground. It helps to fill up that chasm which separates the educated from the uneducated mind, and too often interdicts all sympathy between the school-master and the parents of the children intrusted to his charge.

So long as the domestic and inner life of the classes below us in the social scale—the whole world of those thoughts and feelings in which their children are interested—remain hidden from us, our efforts for their welfare, devised in ignorance, will, in a great measure, fail of their object. He who would explore this region close at our doors, and bring back to us tidings of it, would have a tale to tell as strange as of an undiscovered country, and far more important.

According to that theory of a school-master which these considerations would seem to suggest, his education, far from separating the link which unites him to the classes out of which he is taken, should strengthen it. His sympathies are to be with his own people. He is to take a lively interest in their pursuits. The scene of their daily toil is to be familiar to him. Those ideas associated with their craft, which include, within such narrow limits, the whole of their acquired knowledge—and the terms of their art, however technical—he is to be conversant with. Their intelligence is limited to the narrow circle which contains their daily bread. He is to enter that circle. The love of intellectual pursuits, perhaps never extinguished in the mind of man, loses its vivacity side by side with the pressing wants of animal life. He is to reawaken it. Out of

the friendly relations and generous sympathies which result from an intercourse such as this, he is to build up a superstructure of mutual confidence and good will, and to dedicate the ascendancy he thus acquires over the parent, to the welfare of the child. He is to reawaken in the bosom of the laboring man those natural sympathies which seem—under the influence of the manufacturing system—to be fast dying away, and to impel him to sacrifices in behalf of his child; to impress him with a deep sense of the responsibility under which he lies in the matter of its spiritual and eternal welfare, and to direct him as to the best means of promoting it. It is not in any unreal character that he is thus to appear on his hearth, or with any jesuitical project of circumventing him for the advantage of his child; but simply that, taken from his own order, he is not to separate the link which unites him to that order; that, by both parentage and education, associated with the laboring classes, he is not to divest himself of those important advantages for fulfilling the duties of his mission, which that association supplies. With this view, neither in his dress, nor in his manners, nor in his forms of speech, is he to assume a distinctive or separated character, otherwise than as it regards that greater moral restraint, that gravity of speech, and sobriety of demeanor, which it would become the laboring man himself to cultivate.

This theory of a school-master is diametrically opposed to that on which the system of every other training college with which I am acquainted, is founded. The tendency of every other is elevating. This would repress those aspirations which are natural to the new condition of his intellectual being on which the student has entered, and which are usually associated with the office he seeks, and it would tether him fast to that state of life from which he started.

Nothing can be more just than that estimate of the moral necessities of the laboring man, which is its basis. Above all other things, that man wants a friend set free from the influences under which he is himself fast sinking—a friend, if it were possible, not divided from him by that wide interval which a few conventional distinctions are sufficient to interpose—to advise him, if not in the matter of his own welfare, in that of his children.

It is, however, a theory which in practice would not be without its perils. So close an approximation to the class below him, would have a tendency to separate the school-master from the class which is above him,—that class in which all his better and higher impulses will find their chief stay and support, and where alone he can, as yet, look for a cordial sympathy. That ascendancy which education gives him over the minds of his ordinary associates, will tend to foster an independence of spirit inconsistent, perhaps, with the relation in which he must of necessity stand to the patrons and promoters of his school; and above all he will be the less likely to preserve those intimate and friendly relations with the clergyman, which are not less important to the spiritual welfare of the parish school and the parish, than to the personal comfort, and the self-respect of the school-master.

I have every where found a disposition on the part of the clergy to extend a friendly sympathy to the labors of the school-master, and I believe that they very generally rejoice in the opportunity which the superior education of the training colleges affords to them, of stretching out to him the right hand of Christian fellowship. Asperity of manners, an independent bearing, and a rude deportment, would repel these kindly feelings.

On the other hand, it may be questioned whether the opinion that the co-operation of the laboring classes in the work of the schoolmaster is to be gained by a closer approximation to themselves in his modes of thought and his way of life, is founded on correct estimate of the springs of public

opinion amongst them, and whether some separation and the interposition of a few conventional distinctions do not serve to give weight to his counsels, and enhance the estimate formed of the value of his labors.

My own opinion is that a sincere and earnest interest in the welfare of their children, shown by a labor of industry and love, will overpower every other consideration in the minds of the poor, and that however great may be the advantage which a close association with them, and an intimate knowledge of their condition, give to the school-master, it will, in general, be dearly purchased by a conformity with their habits of life and modes of thought and action. It is an intercourse in which, whatever *they* may gain he will probably *lose*.

That state of things in which a breach between the class of elementary school-masters and the clergy shall have become wide and general, cannot be contemplated otherwise than with unmingled apprehension. The ascendancy which education gives to them amongst the uneducated masses—ministering to their characteristic independence of spirit, their professional pride and their ambition—might, in such a case, prove a temptation and a snare too great for them to withstand, and by a slow but irresistible process, convert them into active emissaries of misrule.

With reference to the industrial pursuits which have suggested these remarks, it appears to me worthy of consideration whether in this institution they may not have acquired an ascendancy which is not without its unfavorable influence on the literary pursuits of the place, and whether too large a sacrifice of healthful recreation is not made when, in fine weather, the students pass from their class-rooms into the workshops, instead of into the open air.

Of the whole number of students, I find that 18 spell incorrectly, 12 read and 8 write imperfectly; 10, upon the evidence of the exercises they have sent in, may be characterized as illiterate; 10 others have afforded in their exercises the evidence of a considerable amount of general literary attainment and mental culture; 20 write beautifully; 9 have acquitted themselves well in Scriptural knowledge, and the same number in Church History and the Liturgy; 4 in their answers to the questions on the Art of Teaching; 20 in Arithmetic, and some of these *admirably*; 5 in Natural Philosophy; 18 in Mechanics and Astronomy; 12 in Geography; 9 in English History; 45 in Algebra.

At my previous examinations I have been struck by the remarkable *disparity* which presents itself in this institution as to the general ability and acquired knowledge of the students. I have found among them some of vigorous intellect and of considerable attainments, and others whose defects of previous education and want of the natural endowments proper to an elementary teacher will not, I fear, be remedied by a residence however long continued.

If a sufficient number of candidates presented themselves for admission, to allow a selection from amongst them of those who are really qualified, this source of embarrassment might be removed. Such a number of candidates would, I doubt not, be found, if the obstacle which the fee presents to their admission could be overcome. At Battersea Training College the expedient has been adopted of lending to an eligible student that portion of his fee which is not covered by an exhibition; and the number of such exhibitions has been augmented by subscriptions to a fund specially devoted to that object.

It is, however, in my opinion, worthy of grave consideration whether the expenditure of the public money for educational purposes would not be greatly economised by the foundation of Government exhibitions in the training colleges.

The office of the school-master does not offer to a man desirous to provide for his children, and in a position to pay an annual fee of 25*l.*, adequate advantages, either in respect to the remuneration attached to it or its social position. If, indeed, a shopkeeper, a warehouseman, a small manufacturer, or a farmer well to do in the world, have one child, who, by reason of a feebleness of character, or of bodily health, or perhaps of intellect, may be considered unequal to a more active and enterprising career in life, the training college will perhaps be sought as an asylum for him. Straitened as are these institutions (especially the Diocesan Colleges) in their resources, it is not easy to refuse a candidate who is thus prepared to pay the whole fee for admission. At the expiration of his course of instruction the qualifications of a student received under these circumstances, notwithstanding all the labor which may have been bestowed upon his instruction, will scarcely be found such as would obtain for him the public confidence, were it not for the guarantee which his residence in the training college has supplied. And so, after all, the public money will have been expended, and the public sympathies exhausted, not in raising the standard of intelligence in the existing body of school-masters, but at *best* in bringing up to the existing standard, men who would not otherwise have reached it.

I have brought out this evil, perhaps, beyond its just proportions; but it has been in the hope of fixing your Lordships' attention upon it, and with a view to its remedy. I have reason to know that it is operating in the training institutions as a great evil, and, I believe, that, if they fail of their results and disappoint the public expectation, this will lie at the root of the matter. It would be quite possible, if this fee were dispensed with, through the agency of the Inspectors, to fill the training colleges with men—in their qualifications for admission—very far indeed above the general standard of those who are now found in them. Were the question, whether from such a class of persons a body of efficient educators could be formed, wholly problematical as to its results, having such an object in view, it would surely be worthy a large expenditure of the public money to bring it to the test of an experiment. But it is not difficult to show that a really eligible candidate becomes, when admitted a student in our best training colleges, by a process in which there are very few instances of failure, a school-master capable of realizing all that we hope from him. Considering that the faith of the public in education hangs upon the fruit of these colleges, not less than the success of each individual school-master in the sphere of action particularly assigned to him, it would be folly to measure the services of such a man for the public welfare by the 40*l.* or 50*l.* of the public money which may have been expended in educating him.

My Report to your Lordships on this institution would not convey to you a just impression of it, did it not bear testimony to the very arduous character of the labors of the two gentlemen—the Principal and the Vice-Principal—on whom the entire management of it devolves. Besides that general supervision which the Principal exercises over it in all its departments, its whole correspondence is intrusted to him, and he takes an active part in the teaching of the students, not only during the hours devoted to study, but whilst they are engaged in their industrial occupations. If to these, his ordinary labors, be added those with which for the last two years he has been charged in superintending the building operations which have been going on at the model school-room and the chapel, it will, I think, be felt that claims are made upon his services which are incompatible with his own health and with the best interests of the institution.

The Model School.—The second week of my inspection I devoted to an examination of the model school.

One hundred and sixty-three boys were present on the day of my examination. These children, like those of every other model school which I have visited, appear to belong to a grade in society removed a little above that from which the children who usually attend National Schools are drawn. They attend with remarkable regularity, the average number of absentees during a period of six months, except by reason of sickness or with leave, being only *one* daily.

I have appended in this Report* a statement on this subject, which I have read with great interest.

The school is held in high and well deserved estimation by the parents, and it is obvious that under the influence of that estimation, they are prepared to make those sacrifices of the occasional services of their children, lest they should lose their learning, which in other schools they will not make. The irregularity of the attendance of the children of National Schools, I find to be every where alleged as an obstacle fatal to all the hopes of education. Here that obstacle is removed.

I have appended to this Report a copy of the note which is addressed to the parents of a child absent without leave. This note forms one part of the page of a book, resembling a cheque book, from which it is torn; a record of the notice being preserved on the other part. The arrangement is exceedingly convenient in practice, and might be introduced generally in National Schools with advantage.†

The discipline is admirable, it is maintained apparently with great ease, and affords the evidence of a subordination, influenced by moral causes,

* MODEL SCHOOL.—ATTENDANCE.

From January 13th to June 26th. (A. D. 1845.)						
	Present.	Sick.	Leave.	Late.	Absent.	Total.
Total - - -	14,532	884	508	58	197	16,011
Daily Average - -	126	7	4	—	1	139
From July 28th to November 7th.						
Total - - -	10,214	297	479	27	127	11,141
Daily Average - -	139	4	6	—	1	150

From 2nd May, 1845, to 26th August, 1845—84 School days; during this time there were 151 Notes sent—for boys being late 38, and absent 113

Excuses for being—

Late—Domestic arrangements bad, 20.—Errands, 10.—Idlers, 8.

Absent—Wanted by parents, 50.—At home, no reason given, 9.—Sick, 25.—No shoes, 4.—Truants, 3.—Domestic arrangements bad, 3.—Miscellaneous, 11.—Left, 8.

† No. _____ CHESTER, _____ 184 _____	No. _____ CHESTER, _____ 184 _____
Name and } number of boy } late or absent } A. or A. }	_____ has been late or absent this morning, or this afternoon. <i>without leave</i> , from the National School in the Training College.
Last day for answer _____	
No. of boy sent _____	
When answered _____	
Reasons given _____	
	RULE.
	A parent or grown-up friend must come, or send a note, to the School, to tell why the boy was late or ab- sent, on or before _____ next, or we shall con- sider that he has left the school.
	MASTER.

and cheerfully yielded. So far as this is apparent in the order and regularity of the school, it is greatly promoted by the school songs which accompany all the changes of the classes, and which the children sing as they assemble and when they leave.

The singing is the more remarkable, as its character is maintained apparently with very little effort, and the sacrifice of very little time.

Accustomed to oral instruction on the gallery, the children exhibit great power of attention, much quickness of apprehension, and greater resources of language than I am accustomed to find in schools of this class. They appear to be interested in what they are taught, to appreciate the value of learning, and to take a pleasure in it. That listlessness of manner and dreaminess so intimately associated in the mind of an inspector with the aspect of an elementary school, had certainly no place here on the days of my inspection. The children not less than their teachers, seemed to be in earnest in the business of the school, and the fervor and vivacity apparent on the one part, is at least commensurate with the zeal and ability exhibited on the other.

So far as this school, taught exclusively by the students of the college, may be taken as affording direct evidence of the skill they attain in the art of teaching, no other than a favorable estimate can be formed of it. The notes in which I have recorded the impressions which I derived from the opportunity afforded me of being present at a lesson delivered by each student, do not however bear an unqualified testimony to this fact.

Amongst them were some excellent teachers, earnest, vigorous, well instructed, and efficient, but there were others, wanting not only in the peculiar and professional qualifications of a teacher, but themselves very imperfectly educated. If I might be allowed a *general* criticism, it would be that the students whom I saw teach were not acquainted to the extent that might have been expected with the best methods of simplifying the primary elements of instruction. I doubt whether these had ever been made the subject of study with them. There was no evidence of any independent power to present the knowledge they themselves possessed under that form in which it is best adapted to the intelligence of children, or of any systematic instruction directed to that object, or indeed of any due appreciation of its importance to the success of elementary instruction.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

FOR THE

TRAINING OF FEMALE TEACHERS IN ENGLAND.

BESIDES the Normal School of the Home and Colonial Infant and Juvenile School Society already described, which is mainly devoted to the training of female teachers for a class of schools for which females are pre-eminently fitted by nature, there was established, in 1842, at Whiteland, Chelsea, by the National Society, an "Institution for the Training of Schoolmistresses." Since its establishment 93 pupils have been sent out as teachers, of which number 82 were in charge of schools in 1848. It has already been instrumental, in the opinion of Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, Rev. F. Watkins, in rearing the standard of attainments of the schoolmistresses, and elevating their social position. The course of instruction, as presented in his Report to the Committee of Council on Education for 1848, extends through two years, but does not embrace any peculiar features as to subjects or methods, except as to the industrial employment of the pupils. In the printed Regulations for the admission of pupils, it is said :

"Their attention will not be confined to the studies of the school-room. Whatever skill or knowledge may be of use in a poor man's family, either to increase the comforts of his fireside, to assist in bringing up his children, or to prepare his daughters to gain, in whatever capacity, a respectable livelihood, this will be diligently imparted. For this purpose they are carefully instructed in the art of plain needlework, knitting, marking, darning, &c. To give them practice and experience in this department, they are expected to cut out and make up the various articles of clothing secured to the poor children of the schools by their clothing clubs. The pupils are also required to cut out and make up their own clothes, as well as to undertake all other plain needlework which may be sent to the Institution. The teachers are practiced in the art of setting needlework for children, by preparing the work for the different classes in the school. The pupils have also been in the habit of making themselves useful in the laundry."

The Inspector makes the following remarks on the previous education of some of the pupil teachers of the institution.

"It must be said, that some of them are exceedingly ignorant, being unable to work the four simple rules of arithmetic correctly, possessing little knowledge either of the Old or New Testament, altogether unskilled in geography, grammar, or English history, and utterly unable to spell words of the most common occurrence. It is hardly necessary to say, that this state of ignorance is not owing to any want of sufficient instruction in the training school, but to the deplorable neglect of sound elementary education in the families of those who are raised a little above the poorest class. It is from these families that the majority, I am told, of the young women in training are drawn. They have been educated, (if it be not misusing the term,) at 'private boarding-schools.' A little external dressing has been given to them, but rarely any internal culture. They have been taught some fancy needlework, and to write in a running hand; they can read fluently, but not with expression; they have learned by heart passages of Holy Scripture, a few hymns, and other pieces of poetry, but have seldom been directed to their meaning. On such material it is diffi-

cult for the most skillful teacher of a training school to work with any effect. She must carefully pull down before she begin to build up any structure on such an unsteady foundation; she must, indeed, lay a new foundation on different principles, and with a careful hand. It is, therefore, hardly fair to expect great results from the examination of pupils in the training colleges for mistresses, until they shall have received a more sound elementary education, and a longer period of training than two years shall have been allotted to them."

There exists also at Salisbury a similar seminary, styled the "Salisbury Diocesan Institute for the Training of Schoolmistresses." The institution was opened in 1841, and has been since maintained by donations and subscriptions to the amount of about £500 a year, for the purpose of providing a sufficient supply of "well-educated, right-minded, and thoroughly-trained young women for the schools of the diocese." Up to 1848, only 58 had left the institution to take schools. The following extract touches a most important point of inquiry before admitting pupils to a Normal School—and especially female pupils. In the Eighth Report of the Diocesan Board of Education, it is stated :

" Since the beginning of 1846 two of the pupils died, and five have shown such symptoms of weak constitutions as to give no reasonable hope that they can ever undertake the anxious and trying duties of schoolmistresses. The Committee are very earnest in pressing this point upon the consciences of those who give or sign certificates with too much facility; and they say most truly, that, though it is not an uncommon opinion that the work of a schoolmistress may be undertaken by those whose constitution unfits them for other more active employments, the truth is, that the drain upon the constitution and spirits of a schoolmistress is very great, and none but those whose lungs are quite healthy, and whose constitution is in all respects good, can discharge its duties with any comfort, or for any length of time."

The Inspector, in the Report of his visit to the school in 1848, observes :

" It appears to me, that at present the domestic employments of the pupils, if not too much of a servile, are too little of an instructive, economical character. It is said, and doubtless with great truth, that occasional employment in even such works as scrubbing, cleaning shoes, &c., has a beneficial tendency in correcting faults of vanity, indolence, &c., and in giving a practical lesson of humility; and I should be far from wishing to abolish it. Indeed, I hold it to be of great importance to employ the pupils in works that tend to increase their sympathy with the poor. But surely it is of not less importance that young women intended for a really liberal profession should have ample opportunities of learning the cost of materials, the best and cheapest modes of preparing them, and the comparative expense of various modes of housekeeping; and so of acquiring experience which will be available to them, both in the management of their own affairs, and in conversing with the parents of their pupils, who will be glad to consult them if they find them practical guides. With well-arranged offices, under the superintendence of the mistress or a good assistant, the elder girls might profitably devote some portion of their time to these matters, and might connect them with their studies, both by composing essays on subjects of domestic economy, and by keeping the accounts of the establishment upon the most approved system."

SCOTLAND.

THE parochial schools of Scotland have been the pride of her own people and the admiration of enlightened men in all countries. The foundations of the system were laid in 1494. In that year it was enacted by the Scotch Parliament, that all barons and substantial freeholders throughout the realm should send their children to school from the age of six to nine years, and then to other seminaries to be instructed in the laws; that the country might be possessed of persons properly qualified to discharge the duties of sheriffs, and to fill other civil offices. Those who neglected to comply with the provisions of this statute were subjected to a penalty of £20. In 1560, John Knox and his compeers hold the following memorable language, in the "First Book of Discipline," presented to the nobility.

"Seeing that God has determined that his kirk here on earth shall be taught, not by angels, but by men; and seeing that men are born ignorant of God and of godliness; and seeing, also, that he ceaseth to illuminate men miraculously, of necessity it is, that your honors be most careful for the virtuous education and godly up-bringing of the youth of this realm. For as they must succeed to us, so we ought to be careful that they have knowledge, and erudition to profit and comfort that which ought to be most dear to us, to wit, the kirk and spouse of our Lord Jesus Christ. Of necessity, therefore, we judge it, that every several kirk have one schoolmaster appointed; such an one, at least, as is able to teach grammar and the Latin tongue, if the town be of any reputation. And further, we think it expedient, that in every notable town, there should be erected a *college*, in which the arts at least of rhetoric and logic, together with the tongues, be read by sufficient masters, for whom honest stipends must be appointed; as also that provision be made for those that are poor, and not able by themselves or their friends, to be sustained at letters.

The rich and potent may not be permitted to suffer their children to spend their youth in a vain idleness, as heretofore they have done; but they must be exhorted, and, by the censure of the kirk, compelled to dedicate their sons by good exercises to the profit of the kirk, and commonwealth; and this they must do, because they are able. The children of the poor must be supported and sustained on the charge of the kirk, trial being taken whether the spirit of docility be in them found, or not. If they be found apt to learning and letters, then may they not be permitted to reject learning, but must be charged to continue their study, so that the commonwealth may have some comfort by them; and for this purpose, must discreet, grave, and learned men be appointed to visit schools, for the trial of their exercise, profit, and continuance; to wit, the ministers and elders, with the best learned men in every town. A certain time must be appointed to reading and learning the catechism, and a certain time to grammar and to the Latin tongue, and a certain time to the arts of philosophy and the other tongues, and a certain time to that study in which they intend chiefly to

travel for the profit of the commonwealth; which time being expired, the children should either proceed to further knowledge, or else they must be set to some handicraft, or to some other profitable exercise."

In 1615, an act of the Privy Council of Scotland empowered the bishops, along with the majority of the landlords or heritors, to establish a school in every parish in their respective dioceses, and to assess the lands for that purpose. This act of the privy council was confirmed by an act of the Scotch Parliament, in 1633; and under its authority, schools were established in the lower and the more cultivated districts of the country. But the system was still far from being complete; and the means of obtaining elementary instruction continued so very deficient, that it became necessary to make a more complete and certain provision for the establishment of schools. This was done by the famous act of 1696, the preamble of which states, that "Our Sovereign Lord, considering how prejudicial the want of schools in many places has been, and how beneficial the establishing and settling thereof will be to this church and kingdom, therefore, his Majesty, with advice and consent, &c." The act went on to order, that a school be established, and a schoolmaster appointed in every parish; and it further ordered that the landlords should be obliged to build a school-house, and a dwelling-house for the use of the master; and that they should pay him a salary, exclusive of the fees of his scholars; which should not fall short of *5l. 11s. 1d.* a year, nor exceed *11l. 2s. 2d.* The power of nominating and appointing the schoolmaster was vested in the landlords and the minister of the parish; and they were also invested with the power of fixing the fees to be paid him by the scholars. The general supervision of the schools was vested in the presbyteries in which they are respectively situated; who have also the power of censuring, suspending, and dismissing the masters, without their sentence being subject to the review of any other tribunal.

It has been usually expected that a Scotch parish schoolmaster, besides being a person of unexceptionable character, should be able to instruct his pupils in the reading of English, in the arts of writing and arithmetic, the more common and useful branches of practical mathematics, and that he should be possessed of such classical attainments as might qualify him for teaching Latin and the rudiments of Greek.

It would be no easy matter to exaggerate the beneficial effects of the elementary instruction obtained at parish schools, on the habits and industry of the people of Scotland. It has given to that part of the empire an importance to which it has no claim, either from fertility of soil or amount of population. The universal diffusion of schools, and the consequent education of the people, have opened to all classes paths to wealth, honor and distinction. Persons of the humblest origin have raised themselves to the highest eminence in every walk of ambition, and a spirit of forethought and energy, has been widely disseminated.

At the period when the act of 1696 was passed, Scotland, which had suffered greatly from misgovernment and religious persecutions under the reigns of Charles II. and his brother, James II., was in the most unprosper-

ous condition. There is a passage in one of the discourses of the celebrated Scotch patriot, Fletcher of Saltoun, written in 1698, only two years after the act for the establishment of parochial schools had been passed, that sets the wretched state of the country in the most striking point of view.

“There are, at this day in Scotland, besides a great many families very meanly provided for by the church boxes, with others who, by living upon bad food, fall into various diseases, two hundred thousand people begging from door to door. These are not only no way advantageous, but a very grievous burden to so poor a country. And although the number of them be, perhaps, double to what it was formerly, by reason of this present great distress, yet in all times there has been about a hundred thousand of these vagabonds, who have lived without any regard or subjection, either to the laws of the land, or even those of God and nature. No magistrate could ever discover which way one in a hundred of these wretches died, or that ever they were baptized. Many murders have been discovered amongst them; and they are a most unspeakable oppression to poor tenants, who, if they do not give bread, or some kind of provision, to perhaps forty such villains in a day, are sure to be insulted by them. In years of plenty many thousands of them meet together in the mountains, where they feast and riot for many days; and at country weddings, markets, burials, and other the like public occasions, they are to be seen, both men and women, perpetually drunk, cursing, blaspheming, and fighting together. These are such outrageous disorders, that it were better for the nation they were sold for the galleys or the West Indies, than that they should continue any longer to be a burden and a curse upon us.”

No country ever rose so rapidly from so frightful an abyss. In the autumn circuits or assizes for the year 1757, no one person was found guilty, in any part of the country, of a capital crime. And now, notwithstanding the increase of population, and a vast influx of paupers from Ireland, there are very few beggars in the country; nor has any assessment been imposed for the support of the poor, except in some of the large towns, and in the counties adjoining England; and even there it is so light as scarcely to be felt. This is a great and signal change. We can not, indeed, go quite so far as those who ascribe it entirely to the establishment of the parochial system of education. It is, no doubt, most true, that this system has had great influence in bringing about the change; but much must also be ascribed to the establishment of a regular and greatly improved system of government; to the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions, by the act of 1748; and to the introduction of what may, in its application to the vast majority of cases, be truly said to be a system of speedy, cheap and impartial justice. Certainly, however, it was the diffusion of education that enabled the people to avail themselves of these advantages; and which has, in consequence, led to a far more rapid improvement than has taken place in any other European country.

The General Assembly of the Church of Scotland has ever taken an active interest in the parochial schools. Immediately after the passage of the act of 1696, the Presbyteries were instructed to carry it into effect, and *Synods*, to make particular inquiry that it was done. In 1704, the Assembly undertook to supply schools to such part of the highlands and islands as could not be benefited by the act of 1696. In 1705, ministers were ordered to see that no parents neglected the teaching of their chil-

dren to read. In 1706, it was recommended to such as settled schoolmasters, "to prefer men who had passed their course at colleges and universities, and have taken their degrees, to such as have not." In 1707, Synods and Presbyteries were directed to send into the General Assembly returns of the means and condition of the parochial schools.

The internal dissensions of Scotland and other causes, however, withdrew the public attention from the schools; and the advance of society in other respects, and the want of a corresponding advance in the wages of teachers, and the internal improvement of the schools, all combined to sink the condition of parochial education. In 1794, the General Assembly became roused to the subject. Visitation of the schools was enjoined on the clergy; and they were particularly instructed to inquire into the qualifications of the teachers. In 1802, the Assembly issued the following declaration, &c.:

"That parochial schoolmasters, by instilling into youth the principles of religion and morality, and solid and practical instruction, contribute to the improvement, order, and success of people of all ranks; and are therefore well entitled to public encouragement: That from the decrease in the value of money, their emoluments have descended below the gains of a day laborer: That it has been found impossible to procure persons properly qualified to fill parochial schools: That the whole order is sinking into a state of depression hurtful to their usefulness: That it is desirable that some means be devised to hold forth inducements to men of good principles and talents to undertake the office of parochial schoolmasters: And that such men would prove instrumental in counteracting the operations of those who may now, and afterward, attempt to poison the minds of the rising generation with principles inimical to religion, order, and the constitution in church and state."

In consequence of this declaration by the Church of Scotland, and of the complaints which were sent up from all parts of the country, Parliament, in the course of the next session, passed the famous act of 1803, which ordains as follows:

"That, in terms of the act of 1696, a school be established, and a schoolmaster appointed in every parish, the salary of the schoolmaster not to be under three hundred marks, (16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*.) nor above four hundred, (22*l.* 4*s.* 5*d.*.) That in large parishes, where one parochial school can not be of any effectual benefit, it shall be competent for the heritors and minister to raise a salary of six hundred marks, (33*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*.) and to divide the same among two or more schoolmasters, as circumstances may require: That in every parish the heritors shall provide a school-house, and a dwelling-house for the schoolmaster, together with a piece of ground for a garden, the dwelling-house to consist of not more than two apartments, and the piece of ground to contain not less than one-fourth of a Scots acre; except in parishes where the salary has been raised to six hundred marks, in which the heritors shall be exempted from providing school-houses, dwelling-houses, and gardens: That the foregoing sums shall continue to be the salaries of parochial schoolmasters till the end of twenty-five years, when they shall be raised to the average value of not less than one chalders and a half of oatmeal, and not more than two chalders; except in parishes where the salaries are divided among two or more schoolmasters, in which case the whole sum so divided shall be raised to the value of three chalders; and so *toties quoties* at the end of every twenty-five years, unless altered by parliament: That none of the provisions of this act shall apply to parishes, which consist of a royal burgh, or part of a royal burgh: That the power of electing schoolmasters continue with the heritors and minister, a majority of whom shall also determine what branches of education are most necessary and important for the parish, and shall from time to time fix the school-fees as they shall deem expedient: That the presbyteries of the church shall judge whether candidates for

schools possess the necessary qualifications, shall continue to superintend parochial schools, and shall be the sole judges in all charges against schoolmasters, without appeal or review."

In the year 1828, as the statute had provided, a small addition was made to the emoluments of the parochial schoolmasters, the *maximum* salary having been increased to 34*l.* 4*s.* 4*d.*, and the *minimum* to 25*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.*

The deplorable scenes of outrage and murder, which occurred in the streets of Edinburgh on the 1st of January, 1812, made the city clergy anxious to devise some means for diminishing the mass of crime and misery which was then brought to light. The scheme first proposed, and carried into execution, was to establish sabbath schools in all the parishes within the royalty, to which they gave the name of the Parochial Institutions for Religious Education. It was soon found, however, that the usefulness of these institutions was greatly limited, in consequence of a very great number of the children, for whose benefit they were intended, being unable to read. It was therefore proposed that, in connection with the sabbath schools, a day school should be established, which was accordingly opened on the 29th of April, 1813. This day school took the name of the Edinburgh Sessional School, from the circumstance of its being superintended by a minister or an elder from each kirk-session* in the city. The object of this school is to give instruction to the children of the poor in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Five gratis scholars may be recommended by each kirk-session; but the charge to all the others is sixpence per month. For many years the average attendance has been about 500; so that the school-fees, together with occasional donations, and a small share of the collections made annually at the church doors for the parochial institutions, have hitherto been sufficient to meet the ordinary expenses of the school. At first, no particular regulations were laid down for conducting the Sessional School; but after some years, the system of Dr. Bell was partially introduced. In the year 1819, circumstances led Mr. John Wood, Sheriff-deputy of the county of Peebles, to take an interest in the institution; and that benevolent individual began by degrees to give so much of his time and attention to it, that it soon became almost identified with his name. Under his superintendence, a large and commodious school-house was erected, and the system of teaching entirely re-modeled. In the latter department of his meritorious labors, Mr. Wood did not adopt the particular views of any one writer on education, but collected from all what he thought useful, and arranged it into a method of his own. So judicious is this plan of tuition, that it has not only been crowned with complete success in the Sessional

* A *kirk-session* is the lowest ecclesiastical court in Scotland, and consists of the clergymen of each congregation, with a small number of lay elders: it generally meets on Sunday, after public worship. The next court, in point of judicial authority, is the *presbytery*, which consists of all the clergymen within a certain district, with a lay elder from each congregation: this court meets once a month. All the *presbyteries* within given bounds, form a still higher court, called a *synod*, which meets twice in the year. The *General Assembly* is the supreme judicial and legislative court of the Church of Scotland; it consists of clerical and lay representatives from the several *presbyteries*, of a lay elder from each royal burgh, and of a Commissioner to represent his Majesty, and holds its sittings at Edinborough, once a year, for about a fortnight.

School, but has been introduced, either partially, or entirely, into many other public and private seminaries, and has, in fact, given a new impulse to the work of elementary instruction throughout Scotland.

In 1837 the Sessional School was, with the approbation of Mr. Wood, constituted the Normal School of the General Assembly, and persons intending to offer themselves as teachers in schools aided by the Education Committee, were furnished with opportunities of conducting classes daily, and of being instructed with pupils of the same standing with themselves. Previous to this movement, in 1835, the Educational Society of Glasgow had been formed, among other purposes, "for the training of teachers for juvenile schools." In 1842, both of these institutions were placed under the direction of the Educational Committee of the Church of Scotland, and the Committee of Council on Education, in that year, made a grant of \$50,000 toward providing a new building for the Normal School at Edinburgh, and completing a building already commenced for the Normal School at Glasgow. The two buildings cost about \$130,000. In the same year the General Assembly appointed a superintendent to visit the schools aided by the education committee, and voted to aid in the erection of not less than five hundred new schools in connection with destitute parishes.

In 1841, William Watson, Sheriff-substitute of Aberdeenshire, commenced a system of Industrial Schools in Aberdeen, which embraced within its comprehensive grasp, all classes of idle, vagrant children, and in its beneficent operation, cleansed in two years a large town and county of juvenile criminals and beggars. Out of this experiment has grown the system of Ragged and Industrial Schools, which are now found in many of the large towns of England, Scotland and Ireland.

The permanent support of public, and in some cases, free schools, is provided for in certain localities by the income of funds left by will or donation for this purpose. It has been estimated that the annual income of these funds amounts to near \$100,000.

There are a number of local societies, such as that for "Propagating Christian Knowledge," founded in 1701, the Gaelic School Society, that of Inverness, Ayrshire, &c., instituted for the purpose of supplying destitute parishes with schools, and of aiding those already established. The sums annually appropriated by the societies, amount to about \$75,000.

The Church of Scotland and the Free Church of Scotland, together, appropriate, out of permanent funds and contributions collected in the churches for this purpose, the sum of \$50,000 in aid of schools in destitute parishes, and in educating teachers for the parochial schools generally.

In 1836, the sum of \$50,000 was voted by Parliament in aid of private subscriptions for the erection of school-houses, and the establishment of Model Schools.

Notwithstanding all these efforts, the extension of the system of parochial schools has not kept up with the growth of the population, especially in the manufacturing towns, and the quality of the education given has not met the demands of educated and wealthy families.

One of the most interesting facts in the history of parochial schools in Scotland, wherever they were adequately maintained, was the attendance in them of children from families widely separated in outward circumstances—the rich and the poor, the laborer with his hands and the laborer with his head. The presence of the children of the better educated and wealthier classes gave importance to the school in the estimation of the poor, and raised the whole tone and standard of manners and intellectual culture within the school and village. It created, too, a bond of union in society, which is thus beautifully noticed by Lord Brougham, (then Henry Brougham,) in some remarks at a public dinner in Edinburgh, in 1825.

“A public school, like the Old High School of Edinburgh, is invaluable, and for what is it so? It is because men of the highest and lowest rank in society send their children to be educated together. The oldest friend I have in the world, your worthy Vice President, and myself, were at the High School of Edinburgh together, and in the same class along with others, who still possess our friendship, and some of them in a rank of life still higher than his. One of them was a nobleman, who is now in the House of Peers; and some of them were sons of shopkeepers in the lowest parts of the Cowgate of Edinburgh—shops of the most inferior description—and one or two of them were the sons of menial servants in the town. There they were, sitting side by side, giving and taking places from each other, without the slightest impression on the part of my noble friends of any superiority on their parts to the other boys, or any ideas of inferiority on the part of the other boys to them; and this is my reason for preferring the Old High School of Edinburgh to other, and what may be termed more*patrician schools, however well regulated or conducted.” * *

Another distinguished pupil of this school remarks: “Several circumstances distinguished the High School beyond any other which I attended: for instance, variety of ranks; for I used to sit between a youth of a ducal family and the son of a poor cobbler.” This fact will distinguish good public schools of a superior grade, provided they are cheap, every where. The High School, like the parochial schools of Scotland, generally is not a free school, but the quarterly charge for tuition is small as compared with the actual cost of instruction in private institutions of the same grade. The fees payable in advance are £1. 1s. per quarter. The course of instruction embraces all the branches of the liberal education suitable to boys, from eight to sixteen years of age.

In connection with this mention of the High School of Edinburgh, we will introduce a few historical facts, which point back to a very early period for the origin of the system of parochial schools in Scotland. The funds out of which the edifice now occupied by the high school was built, and which was completed in 1829, at an expense of £34,199, were derived, in part, from endowments belonging to the Abbey of Holyrood, founded by David I., in 1236, with which this school was connected as early as 1500. The school came into the management of the magistrates of Edinburgh in 1566. Prior to that, a grammar school had existed in the Cannongate, under the charge of the friars of the same monastery, “past the memorie of man,” as is stated in a memorial to the privy council, in 1580. In the year 1173, Perth and Stirling had their school, of which the monks of Dumfermline were directors. Authentic records introduce

us to similar institutions in the towns of Aberdeen and Ayr. The schools in the county of Roxburgh were under the care of the monks of Kelso as early as 1241; those of St. Andrew, in 1233; and those of Montrose, in 1329.

The success of the school system of Scotland is to be attributed to their being erected on a permanent and conspicuous foundation, and to that particular constitution which made the situation of the teacher desirable to young men of education, for its competent salary, permanence, and social consideration. Of the three modes of providing for popular instruction,—that in which the scholars pay every thing, and the public nothing; that in which the public pay every thing by a tax on property, or by avails of permanent funds, and the scholars nothing; and that in which the burden is shared by both,—the latter was adopted in the original plan of the Scotch schools. The existence of the school was not left to chance or charity, but was permanently fixed by law on every parish. The school edifice and the residence of the teacher were to be provided for by public assessment, as much as the church, or the public road, or bridge. The salary of the teachers was so far fixed by law, that it could not sink below the means of a respectable maintenance according to the standard of living in a majority of the country parishes.

Dr. Chalmers, in his valuable "*Considerations on the System of Parochial Schools in Scotland*," thus notices some of the peculiarities of the system:

"The universality of the habit of education in our Lowland parishes, is certainly a very striking fact; nor do we think that the mere lowness of the price forms the whole explanation of it. There is more than may appear at first sight, in the very circumstance of a marked and separate edifice, standing visibly out to the eye of the people, with its familiar and oft-repeated designation. There is also much in the constant residence of a teacher, moving through the people of his locality, and of recognized office and distinction amongst them. And perhaps there is most of all in the tie which binds the locality itself to the parochial seminary, that has long stood as the place of repair, for the successive young belonging to the parish; for it is thus that one family borrows its practice from another—and the example spreads from house to house, till it embraces the whole of the assigned neighborhood—and the act of sending their children to the school, passes at length into one of the tacit, but well-understood proprieties of the vicinage—and new families just fall, as if by infection, into the habit of the old ones—so as, in fact, to give a kind of firm, mechanical certainty to the operation of a habit, from which it were violence and singularity to depart, and in virtue of which, education has acquired a universality in Scotland, which is unknown in the other countries of the world."

The best minds of Scotland are at this time directed to a re-construction of the system of parochial schools, or to such an extension of its benefits, as will reach at once, the wants of the large towns, and of the sparsely populated parishes. Among the plans set forth, we have seen nothing more complete than the following, which is signed by some of the most distinguished names in Scotland.

"The subscribers of this document, believing that the state of Scotland and the general feeling of its inhabitants justify and demand the legislative establishment of a comprehensive plan of national education, have determined that an effort shall be made to unite the friends of this great cause on principles at once so general and so definite as to form a basis for practical legislation; and

with this view, they adopt the following resolutions, and recommend them to the consideration of the country :—

1. That while it might be difficult to describe, with a near approach to statistical precision, the exact condition of Scotland at this moment in regard to education, there can be no doubt that, as a people, we have greatly sunk from our former elevated position among educated nations, and that a large proportion of our youth are left without education, to grow up in an ignorance miserable to themselves and dangerous to society; that this state of matters is the more melancholy, as this educational destitution is found chiefly among the masses of our crowded cities, in our manufacturing and mining districts, and in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland, where the people are not likely spontaneously to provide instruction for themselves; that the quality of education, even where it does exist, is often as defective as its quantity; and that this is a state of things requiring an immediate remedy.

2. That the subscribers hold it to be of vital and primary importance that sound religious instruction be communicated to all the youth of the land by teachers duly qualified; and they express this conviction in the full belief that there will never be any enlargement of education in Scotland, on a popular and national basis, which will not carry with it an extended distribution of religious instruction; while, from the strong religious views entertained by the great mass of the people of this country, and the interest which they take in the matter of education, the subscribers can see in the increase of knowledge only an enlargement of the desire and of the capacity to communicate a full religious education to the generation whose parents have participated in this advantage.

3. That the parish schools of Scotland are quite inadequate to the educational wants of the country, and are defective and objectionable in consequence of the smallness of the class invested with the patronage, the limited portion of the community from which the teachers are selected, the general inadequacy of their remuneration, and the system of management applicable to the schools, inferring as it does the exclusive control of church courts; that a general system of national education, on a sound and popular basis, and capable of communicating instruction to all classes of the community, is urgently called for; and that provision should be made to include in any such scheme, not only all the parish schools, but also all existing schools, wherever they are required by the necessities of the population, whose supporters may be desirous to avail themselves of its advantages.

4. That the teachers appointed under the system contemplated by the subscribers should not be required by law to subscribe any religious test; that Normal Schools for the training of teachers should be established; that, under a general arrangement for the examination of the qualifications of schoolmasters, the possession of a license or certificate of qualification should be necessary to entitle a teacher to become a candidate for any school under the national system; and that provision should be made for the adequate remuneration of all teachers who may be so appointed.

5. That the duty and responsibility of communicating religious instruction to children have, in the opinion of the subscribers, been committed by God to their parents, and through them to such teachers as they may choose to intrust with that duty; that in the numerous schools throughout Scotland, which have been founded and supported by private contribution, the religious element has always held a prominent place; and that, were the power of selecting the masters, fixing the branches to be taught, and managing the schools, at present vested by law in the Heritors of Scotland and the Presbyteries of the Established Church, to be transferred to the heads of families under a national system of education, the subscribers would regard such an arrangement as affording not only a basis of union for the great mass of the people of this country, but a far better security than any that at present exists both for a good secular and a good Christian education.

6. That in regard to a legislative measure, the subscribers are of opinion, with the late lamented Dr. Chalmers, that 'there is no other method of extrication,' from the difficulties with which the question of education in connection with religion is encompassed in this country, than the plan suggested by him as the only practicable one,—namely, 'That in any public measure for helping on the education of the people, government [should] abstain from introducing the element of religion at all into their part of the scheme, and this, not because

they held the matter to be insignificant—the contrary might be strongly expressed in the preamble of their act—but on the ground that, in the present divided state of the Christian world, they would take no cognizance of, just because they would attempt no control over, the religion of applicants for aid—leaving this matter entire to the parties who had to do with the erection and management of the schools which they had been called upon to assist. A grant by the State upon this footing might be regarded as being appropriately and exclusively the expression of their value for a good secular education.⁷

7. That in order to secure the confidence of the people of Scotland generally in a national system of education, as well as to secure its efficiency, the following should be its main features:—1st, That Local Boards should be established, the members to be appointed by popular election, on the principle of giving the franchise to all male heads of families being householders; and with these Boards should lie the selection of masters, the general management of the schools, and the right, without undue interference with the master, to direct the branches of education to be taught. 2d, That there should be a general superintending authority, so constituted as to secure the public confidence, and to be responsible to the country through Parliament, which, without superseding the Local Boards, should see that their duties are not neglected—prevent abuses from being perpetrated through carelessness or design—check extravagant expenditure—protect the interests of all parties—collect and preserve the general statistics of education—and diffuse throughout the country, by communication with the local boards, such knowledge on the subject of education, and such enlightened views, as their authoritative position, and their command of aid from the highest intellects in the country, may enable them to communicate.

Were such a system adopted, the subscribers are of opinion that it would be quite unnecessary either for the legislature or any central authority to dictate or control the education to be imparted in the National Schools, or to prescribe any subject to be taught, or book to be used; and should a measure founded on these suggestions become law, not only would the subscribers feel it to be their duty, but they confidently believe the ministers and religious communities in the various localities would see it to be theirs, to use all their influence in promoting such arrangements as, in the working of the plan, would effectually secure a sound religious education to the children attending the schools."

In September, 1847, on the invitation of an educational association of Glasgow, a large meeting of teachers from various parts of Scotland was convened in the High School of Edinburgh, and "the Educational Institute of Scotland" was formed. The following is the preamble of the constitution⁸:

"As the office of a public teacher is one of great responsibility, and of much importance to the welfare of the community; as it requires for its right discharge, a considerable amount of professional acquirements and skill; and as there is no organized body in Scotland, whose duty it is to ascertain and certify the qualifications of those intending to enter upon this office, and whose attestation shall be a sufficient recommendation to the individual, and guarantee to his employers; it is expedient that the teachers of Scotland, agreeably to the practice of other liberal professions, should unite for the purpose of supplying this defect in the educational arrangements of the country, and thereby of increasing their efficiency, improving their condition, and raising the standard of education in general."

Among the modes of advancing the objects of the Institute, are specified "the dissemination of a knowledge of the theory and practice of education by means of public lectures, and the institution of libraries."

NORMAL SCHOOLS

AT

EDINBURGH AND GLASGOW

The Normal School at Edinburgh originated in 1826, when the Education Committee of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland placed a few teachers appointed to their schools in the Highlands, at one of their best conducted schools in Edinburgh, for a short course of preparatory training. In 1838, the Sessional School of Tron Parish, was transferred to that Committee, to enable them to pursue this plan with more convenience and effect. It was the best model elementary school in Scotland, and it was used, as much as possible, to all the intents of a normal seminary for teachers, under the care of the Assembly Committee, down to the year 1845, when the new building in Castle Place, built expressly for a Normal School, was occupied for the same purpose, with a model school constituted of children from the immediate neighborhood.

In the mean time, an Institution had been established in Glasgow, mainly through the efforts of Mr. Stow, and an association, called the Glasgow Education Society, for the purpose of "training" a class of teachers who should be qualified to afford to the neglected children of the poor in that city, much of that moral education which was wanting to them at home. The attempt to erect a suitable building for the accommodation of the Normal and Model schools, embarrassed the Society, and about the year 1840, the institution was transferred to the General Assembly's Committee; and in that year the Committee of Council on Education made a grant of 10,000*l.* to the same Committee, to enable them to complete the building at Glasgow, and erect a new edifice at Edinburgh, on condition that 5,000*l.* should be raised for the latter purpose by the General Assembly.

The circumstances out of which these institutions arose, are thus noticed by Mr. Gordon, her Majesty's Inspector of Schools for Scotland, from whose Report for 1847, the following account is compiled:

1. It was seen that a considerable part of the lower population, whether because schools were wanting, or ill conducted, or ill attended, had received little or no education; and it was judged that, if more attention were bestowed upon the preparation of teachers, an improvement in this respect would take place, not merely from the abler tuition so provided, but from that better inclination to be instructed, which follows in general the appearance of intelligent and zealous masters. It was supposed, also, that such a preparation of the teachers, at once more liberal and more specially directed to their profession, would help to the attainment of their proper place in the community, and so benefit the education of the country; for if the increased resort to schools should do little for their advantage in respect of income, some advantage of the kind would be the more apt, with every addition to their merits, to arise from other quarters; if not, the benefit would remain, of their possessing as much intelligence as would itself prove a source of enjoyment and respectability.

2. In the next place, the population had so far outgrown the means of education provided by law, that the unendowed schools were more than three times the number of the endowed, while their masters were generally inferior to those of the latter class, and often so unequal to the duty they had undertaken, as to suggest forcibly the need of their being somehow enabled to come to it with more of the requisite qualification. And this appeared the more needful, as the non-parochial teachers were not subject to the same legal test of qualification as those of the established schools, while the want of such a test in their case might be, in some measure, supplied by a system of preliminary training.

3. The opportunities of employment opened up by the extension of commerce, manufactures, mining, and other kinds of industry, had indirectly tended to lower still more the qualification of those who were left to pursue the business of teaching.

4. Another effect of the extension of the national industry in these departments was to withdraw from school a great proportion of the children of the laboring classes at a very early age; and it was plain that the shorter the period of education, so much the more need that the masters should be competent to employ it to good account.

5. It was observed that there is a tendency in the occupations connected with some of the branches of industry now mentioned, to impair the character of domestic education among the laboring classes; and the remedy was looked for in the school. The school came, on this account, to be considered, rather more than it had been, as a place not merely of instruction, but of general education—as appropriating, in fact, somewhat more of the office of the parent. It followed that the general character and manners of the masters became to the promoters of schools a matter of still greater interest than before; and the same could be, at once, discovered and formed, or in some degree influenced, in the Normal School.

6. There was another and more special reason for the establishment of schools of this sort, in the improvements which had been recently introduced upon the methods of elementary instruction, and this chiefly in the Sessional School, Market Place, Edinburgh. To establish a normal seminary might well be considered as the readiest mode of diffusing a knowledge of such improvements; and accordingly the Sessional School now mentioned was among the first, if not the first in Scotland, which came to be employed for normal purposes.

7. It became more commonly known than before, that institutions of the kind had been tried in Prussia, Germany, and France, and with results that might well tempt the experiment elsewhere.

These circumstances suggested the formation of a seminary for the preparation of teachers, in the hope of thereby amending much of what was seen to be amiss in the state of education throughout the country; and accordingly the education sought aid of the Committee of Council, which was granted to the extent of 10,000*l.* for building purposes, and 1,000*l.* annually, towards the current expenses of the two institutions.—the sums to be divided equally between them, and the General Assembly obligating itself to appropriate a like sum to the same objects.

Each seminary is superintended by a Sub-committee of the General Assembly's Education Committee, who appoint the masters, regulate the expenditures, the rate of school-fees, the terms of admission, and other matters.

Each seminary has a fund applicable to its uses of 1,000*l.* besides a revenue from school fees, amounting to about 250*l.* more. Both are open to candidates of all religious denominations, and to students who do not reside, as to those who do reside in the institution. About one-half of the students are admitted free, (their expenses of board and tuition are paid out of the permanent resources of the Committee)—one quarter reside in the institution at their own expense, and one quarter reside out of the institution and pay their own board, and an admission fee of one guinea. The average number in attendance is fifty.

The board of instruction consists of a Rector, a first, second and third master, who give their time wholly to their respective seminaries, and three other masters who teach only for certain hours in each day.

The opportunities of instruction in the arts of teaching and of school management, which form the distinguishing object of these schools, have been provided in three different ways—by practice, by example, and by lecture. The students are appointed to teach, and to observe the teaching of the masters in the model or practising schools, which are constituent parts of the seminaries, and which, though intended at the same time for the “instruction of the children of the poor,” must be regarded mainly as subservient to the normal office of the institutions with which they are connected.

The attendance at each school amounts to about 550.

The methods employed in the practising schools are not distinguished from those which are common in other schools of the better class. Normal schools may be expected to teach something of the nature of all methods of any recognised value; but their practising departments must be conducted on some single, congruous system. The simultaneous method, accordingly, is practised in both schools, but with that care to ascertain the impression made upon the minds of individuals, without which that mode is incomplete. The monitorial plan is not employed in either school, simply because the aid it furnishes is not there needed; but a semblance of it is presented in the teaching of the students. The Glasgow school has still some features of the system on which it was originally conducted—the gallery exercises, among which is the admirably conducted Bible lesson, frequent singing, much precision in the movements of the classes, regulated gymnastics, a style of interrogation that supplies great part of the answer, and that negation of all distinctions by means of places or reward, which has been noticed as marking with less questionable propriety, the order of the students when classed together for their separate instruction.

In the Edinburgh school, each student is occupied in instructing a section of the pupils two hours daily. One section of the children is placed under charge of two students, who teach that section alternately for the space of fourteen days. Another section in a different stage of progress then succeeds, and remains under the same charge for the same length of time; and so on, till, in the course of two months, an occasion of teaching has been given to each, in all the branches and in every stage of progress. Meantime, their manner of conducting their respective sections is observed either by the rector, who is present in the practising school for this purpose one hour and a half daily on an average, or by one or other of the masters, who employ two hours daily in like manner,—each master, however, confining himself to a distinct section of the school. The students are thus under direct observation, during the greater part of the time they are employed in teaching; and afterwards, in their private class they receive the remarks which the rector and the masters may have made upon the manner in which they severally appeared to have performed their tasks.

They are, next, allowed to see the masters teach daily, for a certain length of time, amounting on an average to one hour and a half. On these occasions, all the students are present at the same time, and all the branches are taught in rotation, upon the days specified in the Time-table appended. They are required to mark closely everything in the masters' mode of conducting the different lessons, and to note down their remarks for their own benefit afterwards. The notes are subsequently examined; and it is soon perceived, in the character of their own succeeding practice, how far they had profited from the example of the masters.

Lastly, they have all, both male and female, an opportunity of attending a weekly lecture delivered by the rector upon the theory and art of

teaching, the design of which is described as being "to counteract the tendency of the practical engagements of the elementary school to degenerate into mere routine and a copy of the superintending master." The course consists of twenty lectures, occupied with the various topics set forth in the appended Syllabus.

If the object of the *common* school be not merely to instruct, but to educate; not merely to inform the understanding, but to cultivate the entire character, the object of the *normal* school is assuredly no less comprehensive. The schoolmaster, it is always to be remembered, is a moral teacher, and must be prepared expressly for that delicate and difficult office. The normal schools accordingly provide for communicating this qualification.

Each hour in the day, from 6 A. M. to half-past 10 P. M., has its allotted occupation, fixed by rules which are unvarying, and, so far as could be perceived, invariably observed. Half an hour is set apart in the morning for devotional exercises, and half an hour for the same in the evening. On Sabbath one hour and a half is employed, under the rector, in exercises upon Bible history and Christian doctrine: public worship is attended in one or other of the churches of the city; and in the evening, written abstracts of the discourses heard during the day are prepared and submitted to the rector's inspection. These arrangements mark a due solicitude for the moral well-being of the students, and a sense of its essential connection with the professional qualification of a school-master.

At the same time, the general culture of the students at the Normal school almost necessarily receives a bent to their future calling—and this from the proper influences of the place, in particular from the fellowship of so many engaged in the same studies, brought together after a common trial, looking forward to the same pursuit, and entertaining the same hopes, anxieties, and ambitions. A society so formed begets a bias to the professed object so decided, that there is less hazard than might have been expected of the superior instruction of a normal school tempting to aspire beyond the schoolmaster's calling.

The following is the plan on which both schools are now conducted:

The Directors have considered, in the first place, that schools for the children of the poor, if they do not need to afford more than a limited elementary education, behove to afford the same by masters as competent within their range as any masters intrusted with a more extended charge; nay, that there are difficulties in the management of such schools, from the short and broken attendance of the pupils, that require in the teachers somewhat more than the usual ability and devotion to their duty. They have considered, further, that a more advanced education is sought at many schools, the teachers of which are not qualified, and have had no means of being qualified, to supply it. For these reasons they have proposed—

1. That two distinct classes of teachers shall be educated at the normal seminaries—one for elementary schools, the other for those of a higher or mixed kind, such as the parochial schools.

The examinations for admission are now conducted by those who, from their office, may be fairly presumed competent; and, at the same time, disinterested in the absence of all relation to the candidates. But the case is somewhat altered when the student appears for a final examination; for then, though the competency may be still the same, he has been the pupil of those who are now to judge of his proficiency—in other words, of the success with which his studies have been conducted, and, by inference, of the skill with which these studies have been directed. The following rule has, therefore, been laid down:—

2. That the first examination shall be conducted by the General Assembly's Committee and the rectors and masters; the final examination by the same parties assisted by a professor in the University and by a master in the High School of Edinburgh or Glasgow.

It is further proposed to extend the range of study at the institution for the

teachers of both classes, and, above all, to impart to them a fuller and more exact knowledge of the subject with which, from the beginning, they had been partially acquainted. In this, the Directors have proceeded upon these views—that if a teacher's knowledge should considerably exceed what he is called on to impart, there is no prejudice, but the reverse, to his ability for teaching,—those who have been educated in higher things being commonly found to excel in the lower paths of instruction; that the estimation and authority of a teacher always rise with his attainments: that a general intelligence beyond the limit referred to bears directly upon that part of the work of education which is distinguished from mere instruction; that the more promising youth have the better chance of being brought forward under such a master: and, moreover, that to the master himself the possession of a fund of liberal knowledge is likely to prove a source at once of comfort and of energy. For these reasons,—

3. The students, before leaving the institution, are to prove a qualification of defined extent in the branches under noted:

FIRST CLASS.—1, *English reading*; 2, *writing*; 3, *English grammar*,—elementary manual, and an enlarged course (*e. g.* Latham's), with etymology; 4, *English composition*—abstracts and original essays; 5, *arithmetic*—theory and practice, a full course, with mental arithmetic, book-keeping; 6, *elementary geography*, followed by a course of physical geography and use of globes; 7, *general history*, with at least one portion of particular history (*e. g.* that of Great Britain or the period of the Reformation); 8, *natural history*; 9, *singing*; 10, *linear drawing*; 11, *pedagogy*; 12, *religious knowledge*—(a) Bible doctrine (Confession of Faith and Shorter Catechism); (b) Bible analysis (examination of a given portion of the text); (c) history of the Old and New Testaments, followed by (d) outlines of ecclesiastical history and the evidences of revealed religion.

SECOND CLASS.—All the branches of the preceding class, with 13, *Latin*—Livy, Virgil, Terence, themes, English rendered into Latin, Roman antiquities, synonimes, &c.; 14, *Greek*—*Analecta Minora*, Greek Testament, two books of the *Anabasis*, two books of Homer; 15, *mathematics*—a full course of Euclid, practical trigonometry, mensuration of surfaces and solids, land-surveying, algebra to cubic equations, elements of mechanics.

The Directors are well aware that this course of study is not to be completed in a short time; and moreover, that the number of the teachers sent forth must diminish, as the term of their attendance is extended. Nevertheless, they prefer a distinction for the seminaries rather in the accomplishment of a few to that extent, than in the slightest preparation of many; and consider that they thus afford to the normal system a better chance of attaining its due estimation and success. They do not, in the mean time, fix the utmost length of the attendance, but they prescribe—

4. That the least period of attendance for students of both classes shall be eighteen months.

At the same time, precautions will be taken to insure that the individuals favored with this prolonged, invaluable opportunity of study are not such as shall disappoint expectation afterwards.

5. At the end of three months from the periodical admission of students, the rectors shall report to the directing Committees on the general conduct of the students, the progress they have made and the capacity they have shown during that time. The report to be engrossed in the minutes of the institution.

These regulations apply to all students admitted on the footing of free maintenance; and to those, also, who are not so favored, but who are willing to comply with the rule fixing the least period of attendance. There is, however, another class of persons who seek admission, consisting of those who could not venture to compete for the benefit of free maintenance, and have not the means of maintaining themselves for even the least appointed term; of those, also, who can afford but little time from other charges with which they are already occupied; and of those who, having completed a curriculum of literature and philosophy at some university, require no more of the normal institutions than what they afford of instruction upon the arts of teaching and school management. It is therefore proposed—

6. To admit students at their own expense at any time without examination, except by the rector, upon evidence of respectable character, and for such period as they may find convenient to remain; and to afford them an examination at any time upon their professing the qualification required of the regular students at the termination of their course.

It has been further arranged that, to give a fair opportunity to the students of mastering the required qualification, not only the term of the attendance shall be prolonged, but that more time than heretofore shall be allowed for their own study and instruction. This time is to be taken from their occupation in the practicing schools: where it is not thought necessary they should be employed so much as heretofore, nor quite so much at one period of the course as at another. Accordingly--

7. One hour daily is allotted to the students for teaching in the practicing schools during the first half of the term, and two hours during the second.

At the same time, to maintain the due importance of this practice, and to give the advantage of carrying it on with mutual aid and under mutual observation, it is appointed--

8. That one hour daily shall be devoted to the teaching of a class by one student in presence of all the rest, each having the same office in rotation on successive days; and to hearing the remarks of all upon the manner in which the task has been performed--the rector presiding.

The practicing schools having now less aid than formerly from the services of the students, the want will be supplied by the employment of assistant teachers and apprentice-pupils. At the same time, the attendance will be reduced to an amount more suited to the extent of the accommodation, to 350 in the one institution, and 500 in the other. In short, the Directors have proposed to remodel this department, and have resolved--

9. That the practicing school is to be considered as mainly subservient to the normal school; and to be so formed as to afford to the students opportunities of teaching all parts of an elementary course, and if possible the elements of some branches more advanced.

These arrangements have led to others of less moment, which it is unnecessary here to describe. For one thing, they have occasioned another distribution of time for the occupation of the rectors and the masters; in the settling of which, the general principle has been held in view, that the instruction of the students should be intrusted as much as possible to the rector and the mathematical tutors; while the masters will have charge of the practising schools, and the superintendence of the students when teaching. The regulation on this head is--

10. That the students shall be under the rector four hours daily for instruction in the branches they are required to study, except the mathematical, which will be conducted by the tutor for one hour and a half in the evening; that they shall also, while teaching in the practicing school, be under the occasional supervision of the rector, as well as that of the masters.

After all, it is not by any organization, however carefully or well contrived, that the excellence of a school is to be secured; everything still depending on the genius of the master. And if this be true in regard to common schools, it is still more so in regard to those, which have the exemplification of good methods for their distinguishing object. The Directors have therefore signified that their main reliance is upon the devotedness and skill of the rectors and the masters; when they have appointed to find for these institutions their proper position in the educational system of the country.

It is not forgotten that a normal school, though perfect in all respects, would not present a model for exact imitation in all cases, and that the application of its methods to the management of common schools must be left, in great part, to the judgment of the masters of the latter. No school, indeed, can be the very pattern for others that exist under different circumstances; and the normal schools are, from their very nature, singular in some of their conditions. It is enough that in them, so far as they are normal, the general principles of method are taught, exemplified, and practiced. To the masters it may be reserved, in mere deference to their self respect to form the plan of their own schools, according to their own knowledge of what the locality requires or permits, and according to the general notions of method which they have received. In short, it is as little desirable as it is practicable, that the normal schools should be altogether such as to afford an absolute rule and exact model for the guidance of the pupil, in the construction and management of his own.

Department for Female Teachers.

Female Schools of Industry.—There is a description of schools which is now rapidly increasing in Scotland, and extending to a lower class of the population than had been wont to have or to consider them as at all needful—the Female Schools of Industry. This is mainly the consequence of elementary education, in general, having taken more of a practical character than formerly; for the male children, somewhat modifying the course of literary instruction, and occasionally attempting a specific preparation for some particular calling or handicraft. The same tendency would have led, of itself, to an instruction of the other sex in the usual arts of domestic industry; but it was aided by this, that, while the period of school attendance was the same for both sexes, it was not requisite for the female to proceed so far in the different literary branches as the other, and so the opportunity arose of attending to those things that form the proper objects of a female school. The promoters of such schools are commonly benevolent ladies, who are no strangers to the cottages of the poor, and who would endeavor by instruction of this sort to improve their domestic condition. It is not unusual, too, for the proprietors of public works, manufacturing or mining, to favor the people in their service with institutions of the kind. The Directors have, in these circumstances, attached to each of their normal seminaries a department for instruction in needlework and knitting, and have opened it freely to female students desirous of undertaking the charge of schools of this description.

This division of the seminary is conducted by the matron of the establishment at Edinburgh, and at Glasgow by a mistress engaged for that single purpose. All the female children above seven years of age at the practising schools are, in both cases, permitted to attend in this department, without additional fee; and nearly all avail themselves of the privilege, each class attending for one hour daily. Their attention is wholly confined to the different sorts of work mentioned, and from the mistresses they receive neither literary nor religious instruction. The female students attend in this division during the whole time it is assembled—that is, for two hours and a half daily—and they are employed mainly in directing the classes, or attending to the directions of the mistress; and are themselves instructed, during a portion of the time, by the mistress at the Glasgow school, in the more difficult kinds of work. In the general model school for the children of both sexes, they are employed four hours daily—half the time occupied, under the master's eye, in teaching the female classes; the other half, in observing how the masters teach. Two hours daily, they are themselves under instruction in reading, religious knowledge, and the elements of grammar and geography.

Female students are admitted under the same regulation which has been formed in regard to those of the other sex who have not the benefit of free maintenance, and who do not engage to remain for any certain period. They are examined upon their knowledge of the elementary branches, before entering, only by the rector, and few have been at any time rejected. The admission fee is £1 for the first four months, 5s for each of the next four months, and no further payment is required for the remainder of the term, the duration of which is optional. Admission is allowed at any time of the year.

No regular examination is undergone by the female students upon leaving the seminary; and far the greater number have left it to enter on the charge of schools to which they had been recommended by the Directors, —not more than four leaving the Edinburgh School, without any certain engagement.

It is not proposed, in the mean time, to place this department of the

institution under any stricter regulations than the following;—1. To withhold certificates from those who have attended for a shorter period than three months; and, 2. To grant certificates to those who have proved a certain qualification in the elementary branches, after a formal examination by the superintending Committees, assisted by the rectors and masters.

Syllabus of the Rector's Lectures on the Theory and art of Teaching, addressed to the Students of the Normal Institution, Edinburgh.

Introductory.

1. The importance of education—most needful in every view—practicable—hopeful and encouraging.

2. Moral requisites and qualifications of the educator; (*a*) A correct view of his office; (*b*) Proper motives; (*c*) A well regulated temper and disposition; (*d*) A well-stored mind; (*e*) Aptitude to teach; (*f*) An irreproachable life.

I—Man, the subject of Education.

Knowledge of this an essential preliminary; mental philosophy has not afforded the practical aid that might have been expected.

The order, mode, and extent of the development of the human powers considered, with a practical reference. 1. Physical—historically first; nature requiring the main share of time for sleep and recreation; mental exertion, short and diversified; instincts to be regulated.

2. Moral powers awake nearly at the dawn of existence; should be early addressed and practically exercised; impressed with the idea of God and accountability to Him; charity, purity, and uprightness inculcated.

3. Intellectual—(*a*) Intuitive—developed through the perceptive powers; truths and facts impressed by attention, recalled by memory, combined by conception; importance of educating the senses and training the powers of observation through object-lessons; (*b*) Operative—*understanding* investigates truth; *judgment* traces its relations and tendency; (*c*) Creative—*imagination*—reason controlling all.

II.—The End and Object of Education.

The comprehensive and harmonious development of the powers in due place and proportion; errors arising from the excess, deficiency, or misapplication of any element; definitions of different writers.

III.—The Means for attaining the End.

Pedagogy, education (properly so called) extending to every department throughout—(1) childhood; (2) youth; (3) manhood—from the household to the school, from the school to the world and church.

Pediatrics, instruction or schooling; that department which is proper to the intermediate period, youth, when the faculties are made conversant with facts, occurrences, objects, and otherwise exercised for their due development.

A. The parties by whom—the field in which—this should be carried out.

Hospital, public school, or private education considered.

B. The subject-matter of instruction:—(*a*) From the existence of man—speech and song; (*b*) From the existence of space and matter—mathematics and form (painting, sculpture, &c.); (*c*) From the relation of man to God—Christianity; (*d*) To the world—political economy; (*e*) To animals—natural history; (*f*) To substances—chemistry, &c.

The due place and comparative importance of the subjects of elementary and superior instruction. Reading, the key to all—

Organs of speech—origin and import of speech—invention of writing—alphabet, printing—on teaching the alphabet—Lancaster—Jacotot—Pillans.

Elementary reading—1st. The dogmatic system overburdens the memory; 2nd. The scientific, difficult to accomplish in English; 3rd. Intellectual, the sense helping the sound.

Theory of explanation and interrogation, elliptical and suggestive methods considered—treatment of answers received—moral enforcing—application of lesson read.

Examination of manuals for reading, and instructions in the proper way of teaching them.

Class method—individual, monitorial, simultaneous; class conducted by single examination.

Method not much apart from the man—consideration of the different subjects of school instruction—method of treating and art of imparting them, viz. spelling, grammar, religious instruction, geography, writing, drawing, arithmetic.

School organization :

Arrangement of classes—tripartite division—school furnishing.

Discipline :

Theory of rewards and punishments.

(*Note.*)—The design of these lectures is to counteract the tendency of the practical engagements of the elementary school to degenerate into mere routine, or a copy of the superintending master. The subject discussed in the connected series is proposed as a theme for a weekly exercise, and is found highly beneficial, not only as regards the proficiency of the students in English composition, but likewise as it engages their best thoughts in giving their own views of the different topics, and imparts an elevated tone to their professional pursuits.



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