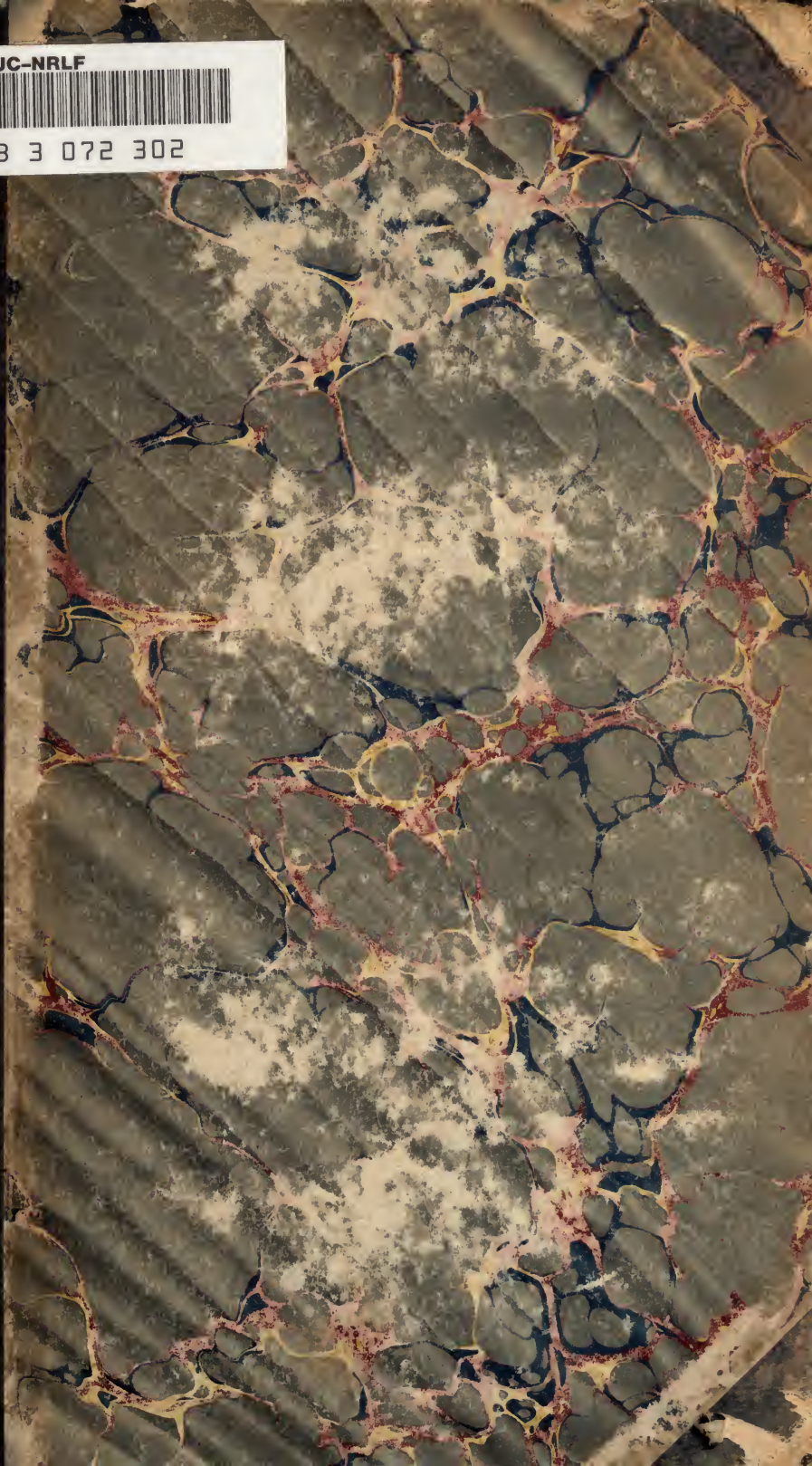


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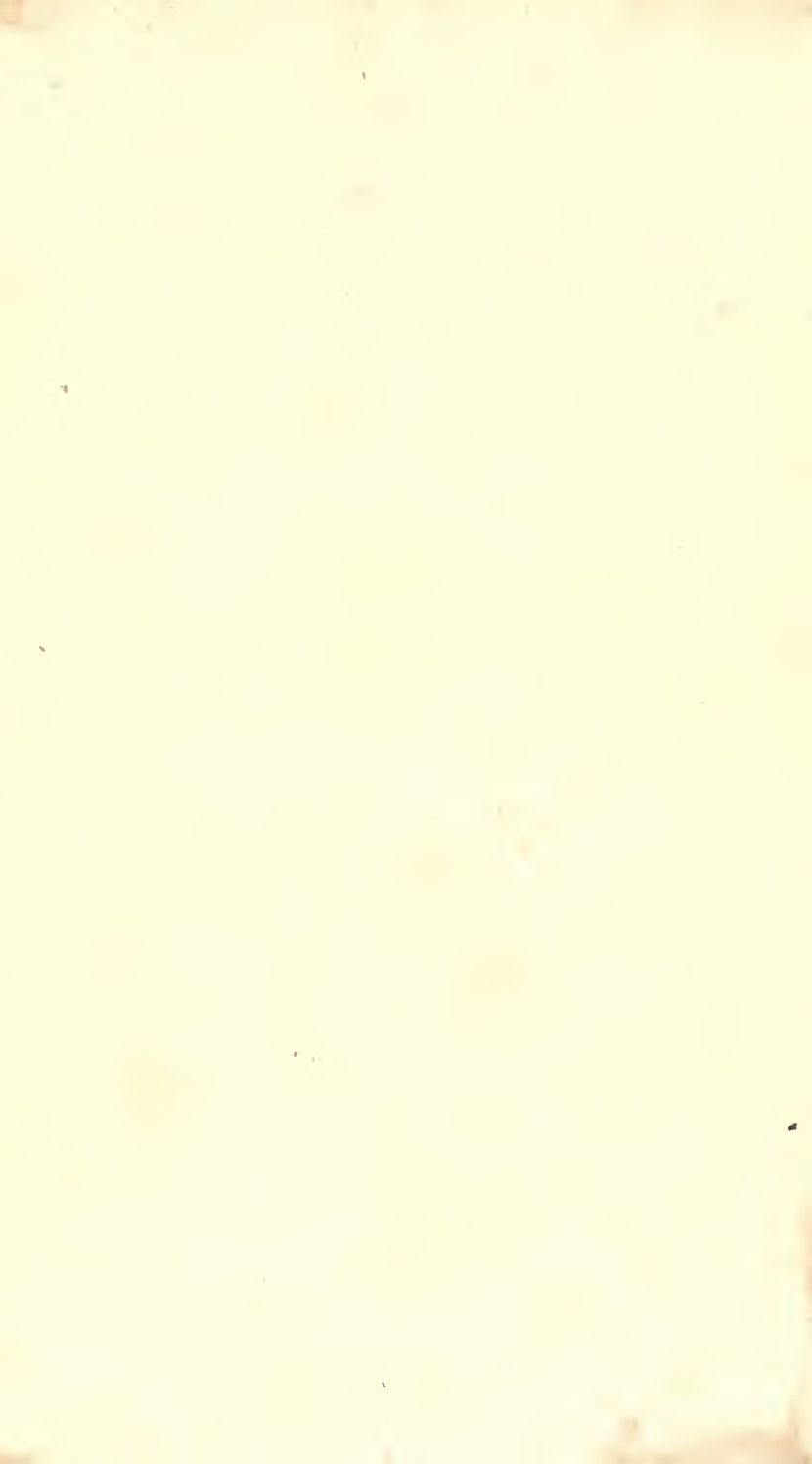
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American Association for
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Proceedings

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONVENTION

OF THE

FRIENDS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION,

HELD IN PHILADELPHIA

OCTOBER 17, 18 & 19, 1849.



PHILADELPHIA:

E. C. & J. BIDDLE, NO. 6 SOUTH FIFTH STREET.

1849.

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CALL
FOR A NATIONAL CONVENTION
OF THE
FRIENDS OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

THE undersigned, deeming that the great cause of POPULAR EDUCATION in the United States, may be advanced, and the exertions of its friends strengthened and systematized, by mutual consultation and deliberation, respectfully request the *friends of Common Schools* and of *universal education* throughout the Union, to meet in Convention, at the city of Philadelphia, on Wednesday, the 17th day of October next, at 10 o'clock, A. M., for the promotion of this paramount interest of our Republican Institutions.

ALONZO POTTER, Philadelphia.

GEORGE M. WHARTON, President of Board of Controllers of Public Schools, county of Philadelphia.

JOSEPH R. CHANDLER, President of the Board of Directors of Girard College, Philadelphia.

JOHN S. HART, Principal Central High School, Philadelphia.

ALFRED E. WRIGHT, Editor of "Wright's Casket" and "Paper," Philadelphia.

TOWNSEND HAINES, State Superintendent of Public Schools of Pennsylvania.

CHRISTOPHER MORGAN, State Superintend't of Public Schools of New York.

Doctor T. F. KING, State Superintendent of Public Schools of New Jersey.

HENRY BARNARD, Commissioner of Public Schools of Rhode Island.

SETH P. BEERS, State Superintendent of Public Schools of Connecticut.

WILLIAM G. CROSBY, Secretary of Board of Education, Maine.

RICHARD S. RUST, Commissioner of Public Schools, New Hampshire.

IRA MAYHEW, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Michigan.

SAMUEL GALLOWAY, State Superintendent of Public Schools, Ohio.

ROBERT J. BRECKENRIDGE, Superintendent of Public Schools, Kentucky.

HORACE MANN, Massachusetts.

S. S. RANDALL, Albany.

HORACE EATON, State Superintendent of Public Schools of Vermont.

H. S. COOLEY, State Superintendent of Common Schools, Illinois.

THOMAS H. BENTON, Jr., State Sup't of Public Schools, Iowa.

SALEM TOWN, New York.

WILLARD HALL, Delaware.

M. D. LEGGETT, Editor of School Clarion, Ohio.

ASA D. LORD, Editor of the Ohio School Journal.

D. L. SWAIN, President of the University of North Carolina.

J. H. INGRAHAM, Nashville, Tennessee.

E. LANE, Sandusky, Ohio.

A. CHURCH, President of University, Athens, Georgia.

M. L. STOEVEER, Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg.

H. B. UNDERHILL, Principal Natchez Institute, Mississippi.

JAMES L. ENOS, Editor of North Western Educator, Chicago, Illinois.

EDWARD COOPER, Editor of District School Journal, Albany, New York.

PHILIP LINDSEY, President of University of Nashville.

A. D. BACHE, Superintendent of United States Coast Survey, Washington.

H. W. HEATH, Maryland College of Teachers.

JOSIAH HURTY, Sparta, Ohio.

R. MORRIS, Jackson, Mississippi.

THOMAS ALLEN CLARK, New Orleans.

1849.

LOCAL COMMITTEE OF ARRANGEMENT.

JOSEPH R. CHANDLER, *Chairman.*

ALFRED E. WRIGHT, *Secretary.*

James J. Barclay,

George Emlen, Jr.,

Daniel M. Fox,

Joseph Cowperthwait,

Edward C. Biddle,

William Martin,

John Miller,

Mordecai L. Dawson,

S. S. Randall,

J. Engle Negus.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CONVENTION.

The Convention assembled in the Chamber of the Controllers of Public Schools in the City of Philadelphia, October seventeenth, one thousand eight hundred and forty-nine, at ten o'clock, A. M., pursuant to the foregoing call, and effected a temporary organization by calling to the Chair,

The Honorable JOSEPH R. CHANDLER,
And Appointing
P. PEMBERTON MORRIS, Esq., *Secretary.*

On motion of Mr. E. R. Potter, of Rhode Island, the Chair appointed Messrs. E. R. Potter, of Rhode Island, Edward C. Biddle, of Philadelphia, James Briggs, of Ohio, G. F. Thayer, of Massachusetts, and J. B. Burleigh, of Maryland, a Committee to nominate officers.

It was stated, by the Chair, in answer to an inquiry from the floor, that this was a convention of the friends of education, generally, and that all persons interested in the cause, and who desired to take part in the deliberations of the body, were cordially invited to seats in the convention, and requested to place their names on its register.

At the suggestion of Bishop Potter, the Chairman, in the absence of the nominating Committee, made an informal but highly interesting statement of the present condition and progress of the pupils in the Girard College.

The Committee on Nominations nominated as officers of the Convention,

PRESIDENT.

THE HONORABLE HORACE MANN, of Massachusetts.

VICE-PRESIDENTS.

JOSEPH HENRY, of Washington City.

JOHN GRISCOM, of New Jersey.

REV. SAMUEL LEWIS, of Ohio.

The Rt. Rev. ALONZO POTTER, D. D., of Pennsylvania.

GREER B. DUNCAN, of Louisiana.

SECRETARIES.

CHARLES NORTHEND, of Massachusetts.

P. PEMBERTON MORRIS, of Pennsylvania,

S. D. HASTINGS, of Wisconsin.

SOLOMON JENNER, of New York.

And the nominations were unanimously confirmed.

At the request of the President, the Right Rev. Alonzo Potter, D. D., opened the Convention with prayer; after which, the President addressed the Convention, as follows:—

GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVENTION:—

Convinced that I owe the compliment of this position to the State from which I came and to the community among whom I have lived, I accept the honor for them, rather than for myself, and would mingle my thanks with theirs for its bestowment.

Gentlemen—the duty of setting forth the specific purposes of this meeting does not devolve upon me; but there are some benefits to be derived from it, so signal and prominent, as to deserve a passing notice.

I suppose the great proportion of the gentlemen whom I see around me, and whose presence on this occasion I most cordially welcome, to be practical teachers,—men whose daily occupation is in the school-room. But from the fifteen States which are represented here, there are men of another class,—men who fill high and responsible offices in the great work of Public Instruction,—Secretaries of State, who are charged with the interest of Public Education in their respective States, Superintendents of Schools, Secretaries of Boards of Education, and others, to whose hands vast and precious interests have been confided, upon whom the most weighty responsibilities have been cast; and from whose administration, the matured fruits of wisdom are expected. Now all teachers have felt the genial and upholding influences of sympathy, in discharging the duties of the school-room. All have grown wiser while listening to the counsels of experience. The teacher who has met a hundred of his fellow-teachers in a public assembly, and communed with them for days, enlightening his own judgment by the results of their experience, and kindling his own enthusiasm by their fires, goes back to his school-room with the light of a hundred minds in his head, and with the zeal of a hundred bosoms burning in his heart.

Now, if school teachers need this encouragement and assistance in their labors, and can be profited by them, how much more do those high officers need encouragement and assistance upon whom rests the responsibility, not of one school only, but of all the schools in a State. If the vision of the one, in his narrow sphere, needs enlightenment, how much illumination ought to be poured over the vast fields of the other. I see those around me who have been engaged in the great work of organizing systems of education for a State; I see those on whom has devolved the statesman-like duty of projecting plans of improvement for a whole people round them, and for generations after them, where a mistake would bring calamity to the most precious and enduring interests of mankind, and where wisdom and genius would throw forward their light and happiness into coming centuries; and I know I shall have their assent when

I say that no position in human life could impose more anxiety and solicitude and toil upon its possessor, than the perilous position they have occupied. Without guide, without precedent, without counsel, they have had no helpers but in their own forethought, fidelity and devotion. How cheering and sustaining to them, must be such opportunities as the present, where the errors of others may become admonitions to them, and the successes of others may be used for their guidance.

Still better is it, when the teachers of schools and the superintendents of schools can meet together, as on the present occasion, and render reciprocal aid in the discharge of their respective duties. At meetings like this, whatever wisdom the country possesses on the subject of education, may be brought into common stock, and by a self-multiplying process, the whole of it may be carried away by each individual. At least, so much of the whole may be carried away by each, as he has capacity to receive.

By a National organization of teachers, great and comprehensive plans may be devised, to whose standard each State may be gradually brought into conformity: for instance, such as relate to the organization of territory into school districts; to the proper age at which children should go to school; or, as the Germans so beautifully express it, when a child is "due to the school;" to the gradation of schools, &c. &c. There are not more than two States in this Union, where the census of the school-going children is taken alike;—where those between the same ages are considered as belonging to the school. When, therefore, one State reports a certain number of children, and another State another number, we cannot compare them, for they have not taken children between the same ages; the result is the same, when they report the number of children who are out of school. Now we want uniformity in these matters, so that we may speak a common language; so that the same terms shall express the same ideas all over the country.

Let me give an illustration of what I mean. Three or four days ago, I was consulted with by a distinguished gentleman connected with the administration of schools, in regard to a School

Register for the schools of a State. One column of the proposed Register was to be appropriated to a classification of the scholars, according to their conduct. It was proposed to enter three degrees of merit or demerit upon the roll. As I came through New York yesterday, I visited that establishment, so honorable to the city, the Free Academy. I there saw a merit-roll consisting of ten degrees. Now, measures and plans, differing from each other like these, exist all over the country, and are found on all subjects, in the different States, and in the different towns and schools in the same State. Now some of these must be better than others. A National association can select the best, and discard the others. Thus we shall have a common language, and not be compelled, as at present, to translate one State dialect into another State dialect, all over the Union.

A similar idea has received the attention of great minds in regard to other subjects. In consequence of the diversity of the standards of weights and measures in different parts of Christendom, some of our greatest statesmen,—Mr. Jefferson, Mr. John Quincy Adams, and others,—have proposed negotiations, by which a common standard could be agreed on for all commercial nations, so that different nations can understand each others' terms, without translation, as the Arabic figures are now understood by all. In regard to our own country, our constitution has made this provision; and how much better it is for us all than if we used a different nomenclature in each of the States. For several years past, the Superintendents of Lunatic Asylums in this country have met together for the purpose, among other things, of defining terms and phrases, and of bringing their tables into conformity with an approved standard, so that wherever their reports are read, they may be intelligible to all on the face of them. Similar suggestions have been made in regard to the various currencies of Europe, the vocabulary of which is now more like a Babel, than befitting civilized communities. On all school subjects we want: first, the best way; and second, the universal adoption of the best way. This broad

principle, however, does not exclude variations to suit the different circumstances of different communities.

These advantages pertain to the head, to our ability to conduct the great work of education, in the wisest manner and to the most beneficial results. But the heart may be as much warmed as the head is instructed. By the communion and the sympathy of assemblies like this, we can not only enlighten the guiding forces of the mind, but we can generate the impulsive forces of the heart. We can not only diffuse new intelligence, but we can excite new enthusiasm. Throughout the whole country, the machinery of education needs to be increased in strength, and worked by a mightier power. In all material interests, we are proverbial as a people for our enterprise. Let us seek for our country the higher honor of becoming proverbial in our regard for moral and spiritual interests. Let us devise systems of education that shall reach every child that is born in the land; and wherever political privileges exist, let the intelligence be imparted and the virtues inculcated, which alone can make those privileges a blessing. Republican institutions are so disgraced and dishonored by ignorance, that they retire before it, and give place to an oligarchical or a monarchical government.

It is but a few weeks since we witnessed the spectacle of three great kingdoms, or countries, vibrating as with one simultaneous thrill, in reference to the fate of a single individual. Four years ago, there went forth from England an adventurous navigator, to make discoveries along the northern shores of this continent, and he went merely to gratify curiosity, and his voyage, however successful, could have conferred no substantial benefit upon the world. The government of Great Britain fitted him out with expensive equipments. He departed under the highest auspices that could be invoked for his success. Thousands cheered him, and sympathized with him, and prayed for him, at his departure. He has gone. He has not returned. Fears are entertained that he never will return, and those fears are fast verging to despair. An appeal was lately made to our

government in his behalf, and one of our highest functionaries answered that appeal with sympathizing words and with encouragements of assistance. Had it not been for the lateness of the season, at the time when our aid was invoked, American vessels would now be on their way to the Arctic Ocean, in search of the lost adventurer.

The Russian government, too, which spreads itself around the Globe, promised the aid of its ships and its resources, to rescue this mariner from the perils of a polar region, and the terrors of an icy death.

Thus the three most powerful Governments in Christendom express their regret and proffer their assistance for the recovery of a single man—Sir John Franklin. And yet, my friends, you cannot pass through one of the great streets of this or any other of the cities of this country; you cannot go through the most secluded town or village in all this broad land, without meeting some juvenile Sir John Franklin, some great man in embryo, more valuable, and of more consequence to futurity, than the one who we fear now lies buried beneath the icebergs of the Arctic Ocean.

All these Sir John Franklins, aye, and Dr. Franklins too, and other names of potential and prospective greatness, who have within them the latent powers, which, in their full development, might bless and regenerate the world, are scattered all over this country; but none of the three great nations of Christendom offers its sympathy or succor, or extends an arm for their deliverance from a fate which is as much worse than to be buried beneath the snows of the Arctic, as moral perdition is more terrible than physical.

Look too, at the condition of our country, and see what need there is of comprehensiveness in our plans and of energy in their administration. We have a higher object than to prepare a system of education for any one locality, or for any one party. To the west, a region spreads out almost interminably—a region to be soon filled, not with savages, but either with Christians, or with men as much worse than savages as Christians are better. On the east, there comes pouring in upon us a new popu-

lation, not of our own production, not of American parentage nor the growth of American institutions. Owing to the marvellous improvements in the art of transportation, the Atlantic Ocean has been narrowed almost to a river's breadth. The western and the eastern continent, by the power of these improvements, lie side by side of each other. Their shores, for thousands of miles, lie like two ships broadside and broadside, and from stem to stern, the emigrant population of Europe is boarding us, tens of thousands in a day. We must provide for them, or we all sink together.

And what are we doing to prepare for the great exigences of the future, which the Providence of God seems to have placed in our hands; and, I speak it with reverence, to have left to our disposal? A responsibility is upon us that we cannot shake off. We cannot escape with the lying plea of Cain, "Am I my brother's keeper?" Let us then be aroused by every consideration that can act upon the mind of a patriot, a philanthropist, or a Christian; and let us give our hands, our heads and our hearts to the great work of human improvement, through the instrumentality of free, common schools. As far as in us lies, let us save from ruin, physical, intellectual and moral, the thousands and hundreds of thousands, aye, the millions and hundreds of millions of the human race, to whom we are bound by the ties of a common nature and of kindred blood, and who, without our assistance, will miserably perish, but with our assistance, may be saved to usefulness and honor, and immortal glory.

On motion of Mr. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, it was

Resolved, That a Committee of five, to be called the Business Committee, be appointed by the Chair to prepare business for the Convention.

The President appointed to be this Committee :

HENRY BARNARD, of Connecticut.

JOHN S. HART, of Pennsylvania.

NATHAN BISHOP, of Rhode Island.

H. H. BARNEY, of Ohio.

THOMAS H. BENTON, Jr., of Iowa.

Letters were presented and read by the Hon. Joseph R. Chandler, from E. M. Stone, of Rhode Island, and Jesse Miller, of Pennsylvania, containing suggestions on various topics.

On motion of Mr. Thayer, of Boston, they were referred to the Business Committee.

Letters from the Hon. John Sergeant, and the Hon. Martin Van Buren, regretting their inability to be present, were also read by Mr. Chandler.

Bishop Potter stated that similar letters had been received from the Hon. John C. Spencer, Hon. Edward Everett, Hon. George Bancroft, and Professor A. D. Bache.

The Business Committee suggested that the sittings of the Convention be held from nine o'clock, A. M., to two o'clock, P. M., and from half-past six o'clock, P. M., to ten o'clock, P. M., during the days of Wednesday, Thursday and Friday; which was agreed to.

The Committee also suggested, that while they were engaged in the preparation of business, the States should be called Alphabetically, for information as to the state of education therein; which was agreed to.

The Committee also requested that Alfred E. Wright, of Pennsylvania, should be added to their number.

Which was unanimously agreed to.

The States were then called in their order, and reports made by

Morgan J. Rhees, of Delaware.
 Henry Barnard, of Connecticut.
 Thomas H. Benton, Jr., of Iowa.
 Greer B. Duncan, of Louisiana.
 William R. Creerey, of Maryland.
 Jos. Bartlett Burleigh, of Maryland.
 Rev. Barnas Sears, of Massachusetts.
 G. F. Thayer, do.
 Charles Northend, do.
 William D. Swan, do.
 T. F. King, of New Jersey.
 J. N. M'Elligott, of New York.

Invitations were received, inviting the members of the Convention to attend the Musical Exercises of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, and the Girard College, this afternoon at four o'clock,—and, on motion, were accepted. Whereupon, at two o'clock, the Convention adjourned.

The Convention re-assembled at half-past six o'clock, P. M.

The Committee on Business reported the following resolutions:

Resolved, That in continuing the calling of the States, the remarks of gentlemen from each State be limited to fifteen minutes. Agreed to.

Resolved, That a Committee of five be appointed to prepare a Memorial to Congress, asking the establishment of a bureau in the Home Department, for obtaining and publishing annually statistical information in regard to Public Education in the United States.

Made the special order for to-morrow at twelve o'clock, M.
Also,

Resolved, That a Convention of the friends of Popular Education be called to meet in Philadelphia, on the third Wednesday in September, 1850.

2. That a Committee of five be appointed to make arrangements for the meeting of that Convention.

3. That a Committee of three be appointed, to report to that Convention a plan for a permanent national organization of the friends of education.

Made the special order for ten o'clock to-morrow.

The calling of the States was resumed, and statements were made by

Joseph McKeen, of New York.

Rev. Samuel Lewis, of Ohio.

H. H. Barney, of Ohio.

George M. Wharton, of Pennsylvania.

Thomas A. Burrowes, of Pennsylvania.
 E. R. Potter, of Rhode Island.
 Nathan Bishop, of Rhode Island.
 Davies Forbes, of Vermont.
 O. B. Peirce, of Wisconsin.
 William J. Warden, of Virginia.
 Rev. J. N. McJilton, of Maryland.

Mr. Barnard, from the Business Committee, offered the following programme of topics to be considered by the Convention:

TOPICS FOR CONSIDERATION,

Relating to the organization and administration of a system of Public Instruction, adapted to different Sections of the United States.

1. **TERRITORIAL, OR CIVIL SUBDIVISIONS OF THE STATE**—involving the extent to which the District System should be carried, and the modifications of which the same is susceptible.

2. **SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE**—including the location, size, modes of ventilation, warming and seating, &c. of buildings intended for educational purposes.

3. **SCHOOL ATTENDANCE**—including the school age of children, and the best modes of securing the regular and punctual attendance of children at school.

4. **GRADES OF SCHOOLS**—the number and character of each grade.

5. **COURSE OF INSTRUCTION**.—Physical, Intellectual, Moral and Religious, Esthetical, Industrial. Studies.—Books, Apparatus, Methods.

6. **TEACHERS**—Their Qualifications.—Their Examination and Compensation.—Normal Schools, Teachers' Institutes, Books on the Theory and Practice of Teaching.

7. SUPPORT.—Tax on Property, Tax on Parents, School Fund.

8. SUPERVISION.—State, County, Town.

9. PARENTAL AND PUBLIC INTEREST.

10. SUPPLEMENTARY MEANS.—Library, Lyceum, Lectures.

The Report of the Committee was accepted.

A discussion arose as to the proper course to be pursued, which was participated in by Messrs. McCartney, McElligott, Cook, Lewis, Bishop, Barlow, Roberts, Pierce, Emlen, Sears, Swan, McJilton and Dr. Monmonier, pending which, at ten o'clock, the Convention adjourned.

SECOND DAY.

THURSDAY OCTOBER 18, 1849.

The Convention assembled at half-past nine o'clock, A. M.

On motion of Mr. Duncan—

Resolved, That the Convention will now take up the report of the Business Committee. That the subjects in said report be considered. That it shall then be in order for any member to offer a resolution or resolutions on said subject, which shall be entertained and disposed of as the Committee may direct, and that any rule inconsistent with this order, heretofore adopted, be, and the same is hereby rescinded.

The order of the day for ten o'clock was then called, when Mr. Duncan moved to amend the Report of the Committee, by substituting for the first resolution, the following:—

Resolved, That this Convention do now organize into a permanent association, under the name of the "NATIONAL CONVENTION OF THE FRIENDS OF EDUCATION," to meet annually, at such time and place as the Convention, for the time being, shall

order. Which, after discussion by Messrs. Emlen, Barney, Wharton, McJilton, Thayer, Vale, Nathans, McElligott, Dr. Potter, and Dr. Sutherland, was agreed to.

The second resolution was adopted as reported by the Committee.

The third resolution, after amendment, was adopted in the following form:—

Resolved, That a Committee of five be appointed, to report to the next Annual Convention a plan for the national organization of the friends of education.

COMMITTEE.

The Rt. Rev. ALONZO POTTER, D. D., of Pennsylvania.

Governor D. HAINES, of Hamburg, Essex county, New Jersey.

HENRY BARNARD, of Hartford, Connecticut.

GEORGE M. WHARTON, of Philadelphia.

EDWARD C. BIDDLE, of Philadelphia.

On motion of Mr. Benton—

Resolved, That a Committee of one from each State be appointed, with whom the Committee of five may confer.

The Chair appointed as this Committee—

Alabama—Norman Pinney, Mobile.

Arkansas—William B. Butts, Little Rock.

Connecticut—H. Barnard, Hartford.

Delaware—Hon. Willard Hall, Wilmington.

Florida—Hon. Thomas Baltzell, Tallahassee.

Georgia—Rt. Rev. Bishop Elliott, Montpelier.

Illinois—John S. Wright, Chicago.

Iowa—T. H. Benton, Jr., Iowa city.

Indiana—Hon. Amory Kinney, Terre Haute.

Kentucky—Robert J. Breckenridge, Lexington.

Louisiana—Joshua Baldwin.

Maryland—J. H. Latrobe, Baltimore.

Maine—William G. Crosby, Belfast.

Massachusetts—William B. Fowle, Boston.

Missouri—James L. Minor, Jefferson city.
 Michigan—Samuel Newberry, Jackson.
 Mississippi—Judge Thatcher, Natchez.
 North Carolina—Gov. Moorehead.
 New Hampshire—Prof. Haddock, Dartmouth.
 New Jersey—Theodore F. King.
 New York—Christopher Morgan, Albany.
 Ohio—Samuel Gallaway, Columbus.
 Pennsylvania—Thomas H. Burrowes, Lancaster city.
 Rhode Island—E. R. Potter, Kingston.
 South Carolina—Judge Huger, Charleston
 Tennessee—Philip Lindsey, Pres't State Univ'y, Nashville.
 Texas—Gen. Henderson, San Augustine.
 Virginia—Gov. Jas. McDowel, Lexington, Rockbridge Co.
 Vermont—Gov. H. Eaton, Enosburgh.
 Wisconsin—Rev. A. C. Barry, Racine.
 Minesota, (Territory)—Gov. Alexander Ramsey.

On motion of Mr. Wharton,

Resolved, That this Convention will meet in the city of Philadelphia on the fourth Wednesday in August, A. D. 1850.

On motion of Mr. Duncan, the topics numbered one and eight, on the programme reported by the Business Committee, were considered together, and, after discussion, the following preamble and resolution were adopted :

Whereas, The true principles which ought to regulate the formation of School Districts present a subject of great importance.

And whereas, The different civil and territorial divisions which obtain in the different States, add much to the difficulty of fixing such principles.

And whereas, It is very desirable that this Convention should be able to define and recommend some rules which ought to regulate the future legislation of states and towns on this subject, and which ought also to be kept in view by the friends of education : Therefore

Resolved, That the subject be referred to a committee of five, who shall be authorized to correspond with gentlemen in different parts of the Union, and who shall report the result of their deliberations and correspondence at the next annual meeting.

COMMITTEE.

HENRY BARNARD, of Hartford, Connecticut.
 F. W. SHEARMAN, of Marshall, Michigan.
 THOMAS H. BENTON, Jr., of Iowa City, Iowa.
 LEMUEL STEPHENS, of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.
 DANIEL HOLBROOK, of Rochester, New York.

Topic No. 2, on the programme of the Business Committee, relating to School Architecture, was taken up, and on motion of Mr. Lewis referred to a committee of three, with instructions to report at the next annual meeting of the Convention.

COMMITTEE.

JOSEPH HENRY, of Washington City.
 GREER B. DUNCAN, of New Orleans, Louisiana.
 E. R. POTTER, of Kingston, Rhode Island.

At twelve o'clock, the order fixed for that hour was called up, and the resolution relating to the Memorial to Congress, after observations by Messrs. Benton, Sutherland and Briggs, was adopted as reported by the Committee.

COMMITTEE.

HON. JOEL B. SUTHERLAND, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
 REV. SAMUEL LEWIS, of Cincinnati, Ohio.
 ALEXANDER DIMITRY, of New Orleans, Louisiana.
 THOMAS H. BENTON, Jr., of Iowa City, Iowa.
 REV. J. N. McJILTON, of Baltimore, Maryland.

To whom, on motion of Bishop Potter, was added the Hon. Joseph R. Chandler, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Topic No. 3, on the programme from the Business Committee, was taken up, and after discussion by Messrs. Bishop, Vale, Dr. Potter, Messrs. Sears, Pierce, Northend, Thayer, Hamill and Dr. Elder, on motion, was referred to a committee, to report at the next annual meeting of the Convention.

COMMITTEE.

NATHAN BISHOP, of Providence, Rhode Island.
 WILLIAM D. SWAN, of Boston, Massachusetts.
 H. H. BARNEY, of Cincinnati, Ohio.
 DR. J. F. MONMONIER, of Baltimore, Maryland.
 DR. WILLIAM ELDER, of Philadelphia, Penna.

On motion of Mr. Northend,

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Convention the very favorable influences which have attended the establishment of evening schools for adults, render them very desirable auxiliaries in the cause of human improvement, and that we recommend their establishment in all cities and towns where circumstances will permit it; and that a Committee of five be appointed to report to the next annual meeting of the Convention, as fully as may be, on the general subject of evening schools.

COMMITTEE.

JOHN S. HART, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
 CHARLES NORTHEND, of Salem, Massachusetts.
 T. F. KING, of New Jersey.
 JOSEPH M'KEEN, City of New York.
 J. J. BARCLAY, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Invitations were received and accepted, to visit the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb; the exhibition of the Franklin Institute; the Academy of Fine Arts; the Academy of Natural Sciences, and the Athenæum.

Whereupon, at two o'clock, the Convention adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention assembled at half-past six o'clock, P. M.

On motion of Mr. Hart, from the Business Committee,

Resolved, That the thanks of the Convention be tendered to Mr. Alfred E. Wright, for his untiring efforts in inducing delegates to attend this Convention.

Professor Joseph Henry of the Smithsonian Institute, one of the Vice Presidents, gave an interesting statement as to the present condition and future prospects of that Institution.

On motion of Mr. Duncan,

Resolved, That in the presence and co-operation of the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institute, this Convention recognizes with pleasure the important service which that institution may render in the diffusion, as well as increase, of knowledge. And they welcome it as an earnest of the liberal and efficient policy which will characterise the operations of the Regents, and of their enlightened Secretary.

Mr. F. W. Shearman, and the Rev. Samuel Newbury, of Michigan, made communications as to the condition of education in that State.

Mr. T. J. Robertson, from the Normal School, Toronto, Upper Canada, also made a statement to the Convention as to the condition of Public Education in that Province.

Mr. E. C. Biddle, of Philadelphia, was appointed Treasurer of the Convention.

Topic No. 4, Grades of Schools, was taken up, and discussed by Messrs. Hamilton, Bishop, Swan, Thayer, Cook, Dr. Potter, Barnard, Aaron, Dr. Monmonier, Messrs. Burleigh and McElligott, and, on motion, referred to a committee of three, with instructions to report to the next annual meeting of the Convention

COMMITTEE.

JOHN S. HART, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

SAMUEL AARON, of Norristown.

SOLOMON JENNER, of New York.

Topic No. 5, Course of Instruction, was considered, and, on motion, the subject of phonography was referred to a committee of five, to report to the next annual Convention.

COMMITTEE.

ROBERT PATTERSON, of Philadelphia, Penna.	
DR. A. COMSTOCK,	do
JAMES C. BOOTH,	do
E. WEBSTER,	do
CLINTON GILLINGHAM,	do

Topic No. 5 was further discussed by Messrs. Hart and Vale, Dr. Gibbons, and Dr. Elder, pending which the Convention adjourned at half-past ten, P. M.

 THIRD DAY.

The Convention assembled at half-past nine o'clock, A. M.

The discussion of Topic No. 5 was resumed by Messrs. Stevens, Griscom, Sears, McElligott and Lewis, when, on motion, it was

Resolved, That the subject of moral and religious instruction in schools be referred to a committee of five, to report at the next annual meeting of the Convention.

COMMITTEE.

- ✓ REV. EMERSON DAVIS, of Westfield, Massachusetts.
- DR. JOHN GRISCOM, of Burlington, New Jersey.
- G. T. THAYER, of Boston, Massachusetts.
- HON. JOSEPH R. CHANDLER, of Philadelphia, Penna.
- S. S. RANDALL, of Albany, New York.

On motion of Mr. Hart,

Resolved, That the whole subject of instruction and training, not heretofore provided for, be referred to a select committee of five, to report at the next annual meeting of the Convention.

COMMITTEE.

SAMUEL M. HAMILL, of Lawrenceville, New Jersey.

A. T. W. WRIGHT, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

LIBERTY HALL, of Peru, Maine.

J. N. McELLAGOTT, of New York City.

THOS. J. ROBERTSON, of Toronto, Upper Canada.

On motion,

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to prepare a digest of the school systems, and educational statistics of the several States, and report to the next Convention.

COMMITTEE.

HENRY BARNARD, of Hartford, Connecticut.

ALFRED GREENLEAF, of Brooklyn, New York.

ALFRED E. WRIGHT, of Philadelphia, Penna.

On motion of Mr. Hart, from the Business Committee,

Resolved, 1st. That in the judgment of this Convention the friends of education in all its departments ought to be enlisted in its deliberations, and that in issuing notices, or an address for the next annual meeting, the invitation shall be so framed as to comprehend both those interested in Common Schools, and those connected with Colleges, Academies, and other institutions.

2nd. That the President of this Convention be requested to prepare on this principle a short address, to be published by the Committee at least three months before the next meeting, urging the attendance of the friends of education throughout the country.

On motion of Mr. Barney,

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Convention, an enlightened, judicious and efficient supervision of our public schools is among the most essential instrumentalities for improving their condition and extending their usefulness.

On motion to that effect,

The President made a statement to the Convention as to the present condition and value of the Normal Schools of Massachusetts.

Dr. Wright, of the Philadelphia Normal School, made a statement as to the condition of that institution.

Under the resolution to appoint a committee of five to make arrangements for the next annual meeting of the Convention,

The President appointed—

GEORGE EMLÉN, Jr., of Philadelphia.

JOS. COWPERTHWAIT, do

P. P. MORRIS, do

A. E. WRIGHT, do

A. T. W. WRIGHT, do

When, at two o'clock, the Convention adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention assembled at half-past six o'clock, P. M.

On motion of Mr. Duncan,

Resolved, That the great and invidious inequality in the compensation paid to male and female teachers for like services, is a subject which claims the immediate and earnest attention of the friends and patrons of education.

Resolved further, That in the opinion of this Convention, a just economy in the employment of teachers, of either sex, in any branch of instruction, is not promoted by fixing the rate of compensation at a sum below a just and adequate recompense, and such as will command the best talents of the country in the cause of public instruction.

On motion of Mr. Peirce,

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed by the Chair, to report to the next meeting of the Convention, on the relations of ignorance to crime, and the comparative cost of crime and education.

COMMITTEE.

O. B. PEIRCE, of Milwaukie, Wisconsin.
 Gov. H. EATON, of Enosbury, Vermont.
 JOHN S. KETCHUM, Suffolk county, New York.

Topic No. 6, Teachers, their qualifications. On motion, referred to a committee of three, to report to the next annual Convention.

COMMITTEE.

BARNAS SEARS, of Newton, Massachusetts.
 A. T. W. WRIGHT, of Philadelphia, Penna.
 GEO. R. PERKINS, of Albany, New York.

Topic No. 7, Support, was considered by the Convention, and, after discussion by Messrs. McJilton, Emlen, Newbury, it was, on motion of Mr. Cooke,

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed, to report upon the best method of raising the necessary funds for the support of Common Schools, whether by a direct tax upon property, by an assessment upon parents, by a State school fund, or by a combination of two or more of these methods. And also to report how far Common Schools should be supported by legal provisions; and that the said committee include in their report a statement of the cost of public literary instruction in the various States of this Union, and suggest also the best method, in their opinion, of rendering the expenditure of money for educational purposes the most effective.

COMMITTEE.

R. L. COOKE, of Bloomfield, Essex county, New Jersey.
 HON. JOEL B. SUTHERLAND, of Philadelphia, Penna.
 THOMAS P. ATKINSON, of Virginia.
 DR. ASA LORD, of Columbia, Ohio.
 PLINY E. CHASE, of Philadelphia, Penna.

Topics Nos. 9 and 10, were considered together; the Convention was addressed by the Hon. Horace Mann, Dr. Potter, Messrs. Cobb and Barlow, when, on motion these subjects were referred to a committee of five, with instructions to report at the next annual meeting of the Convention.

COMMITTEE.

JAMES B. MINERS, Prof. Law University of Virginia.

DR. JOHN GRISCOM, of Burlington, New Jersey.

REV. D. KEMBALL, of Needham, Massachusetts.

LYMAN COBB, of New York.

JOHN A. WARDEN, of Cincinnati, Ohio.

On motion of Bishop Potter,

Resolved, That this Convention has listened with deep interest to the evidence which has been furnished of the successful operation in several States of schools for training teachers, and they recommend to the friends of education in other States to consider the expediency of establishing, within their bounds, institutions of a similar character.

On motion of Mr. Swan,

Resolved, That the thanks of this Convention be tendered to the Committee of Arrangements for their unwearied exertions in providing for the wants of the Convention; to the Controllers of the Public Schools of this city for the gratuitous use of their Hall during the sittings of the Convention; to the Directors of the following institutions, viz: The Girard College; the Institution for the Blind; the Institution for the Deaf; the Franklin Institute; the Academy of Natural Sciences; the Academy of Fine Arts; and the Athenæum, for their several invitations tendered to the members of the Convention to visit their Institutions; and to the citizens of Philadelphia, for their many acts of kindness during our visit to this city.

The Hon. Joseph R. Chandler arose, and addressed the Convention, as follows:—

MR. PRESIDENT,—With your permission I will address to the audience the very few remarks I have to offer. They will be on a subject in which the Convention will all so cordially sympathize that I need not, to reach them, make use of the ordinary form of addressing the chair.

Gentlemen,—As my name was connected with the call of this Convention, and with the arrangements for its accommodation, I feel a freedom, in using the last moment of its appropriated time, to express some feelings on the character, deliberations and order of this Assembly. That in point of numbers it has exceeded our estimation, that in point of character in the members, it has gone beyond our anticipations, we may undoubtedly feel is due to the vast interest which the nation has in the subject which was to be considered, and to the generous devotion of the friends of public schools, and the elevated character of the masters of those schools. The subject of education for the whole (its extent and the means,) has become now of national consequence. And a call to consider measures to erect and elevate the standard of Common School instruction, is an appeal to the patriotism as well as the philanthropy of every portion of the Union. Hence, we have delegates from Louisiana; delegates from Massachusetts; delegates from Iowa; delegates from Maryland; all full of the comprehension of the great subject to be considered, and all able to bring to the consideration an amount of information valuable for its character and encouraging to future exertions.

We may now safely felicitate ourselves upon the universality of the sentiment, that education is a work for public regard, and that the best minds of the country confess that their hopes of the future brilliant destiny of the nation, the equality of rights, and the enlarged general enjoyments of the people rest on the prospect of the establishment and maintainance of Public Schools. The diffusion of practical education—really practical education, that includes a knowledge and full understanding of the ordinary routine of school and academical instruction,—directed, fixed, sanctified by that sound morality which is in-

cluded in the heavenly direction, to "Love God with all thy heart, and thy neighbor as thyself."

It is certainly not the least of the favorable auspices of this Convention, that from its opening to this minute, in which it is about to close, it has been honored by the presence, nay, gentlemen, not merely the presence, the marked, fixed, gratifying, encouraging attention and approval of woman. That she should feel professionally as a teacher—naturally as a mother, strongly, purely as a philanthropist, the importance of education and a system to educate, is not surprising; that she should manifest her interest in the means to promote this good, is not only encouraging, but it is in itself a proof that we are right; right in our views, right in our plans, right in this mode of gathering strength and diffusing light.

While the great interest which we feel, and which we know the country has in the subject of education, has called us here, we cannot overlook the fact that much of the propriety, and consequently much of the usefulness of this body, are due to the dignity and gentlemanly courtesy with which the deliberations and discussions of the Convention have been directed by the presiding officer, who to a love and understanding of the great subject to be considered, adds a practical knowledge of Parliamentary usages and art, that suffers digression when it instructs, and checks it when it ceases to be profitable.

Nor ought we to overlook the assistance which the President could call for in the *Vice Presidents* on each side, and the able and efficient labors of the *Secretaries*. Believing that you share with me in a full appreciation of what is due to our officers, I offer for your consideration the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the thanks of this Convention are eminently due, and are hereby cordially tendered, to the Hon. Horace Mann, for the dignity and urbanity with which he has discharged the duties of presiding officer of this body; and, while this acknowledgment is made of his services here, the Convention recognizes the obligation under which the community at

large rests, to him for his hearty and successful devotion to the cause of universal education.

Resolved, That the thanks of this Convention are hereby tendered to the Vice Presidents and Secretaries for their services, faithfully and efficiently rendered.

These resolutions were received by the most enthusiastic applause.

Mr. Chandler continued,

Gentlemen,—And let me add—Ladies, since I discover that those who honored us with their presence, honor the officers with their approval, and share in the enthusiasm of the moment.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—It would be supererogatory to put the question upon resolutions thus received; I decide, then, that by no formal vote, but by heartfelt acclamation, the resolutions are unanimously adopted.

The President addressed the Convention in acknowledgment of the above resolutions, as follows :—

GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVENTION :—

The clock is now striking the hour,—the air in this Hall is now waving with its vibrations—at which it has been decided to bring the labors of this Convention to a close. [It had been decided to close the Convention at 10 o'clock, and just as the cheering which followed the vote of thanks ceased, the clock struck ten.] We have been looking for the last three days upon the bright-side of the tapestry; the dark-side is now turned towards us. The pleasing acquaintances which have been formed, and which can have been to none more pleasing than to myself, must be broken, and we must go away, carrying such good as we can, from the deliberations of this assembly. In parting from you, I cannot forbear to express my warmest ac-

knowledgments for the continual kindness with which you have been pleased to regard the performance of the duties of the chair. You have made all its labors light, and all its difficulties nominal. In parting with you, gentlemen, it is impossible for me to express the feelings of hope, mingled with anxiety, with which I look forward to the consequences of this meeting. We shall separate. We shall go away to move in different and distant spheres. From these narrow walls which now enclose us, we shall find ourselves, at the end of a week, in a dozen different States, east, west, north and south. Shall the influences which have been here concentrated and brought to a focus, be dissipated and lost, when our local proximity to each other is gone; or shall the moral influences which have been here generated, expand themselves over the vast spaces where we shall soon be found, keep themselves vivid and animate, and make the common air electric with their fulness of life? I trust the latter, and that our zeal will not be of the flashy kind, that will evaporate as soon as the exciting cause is withdrawn, but that it will be like the heat of the sun, which, being once kindled, glows on forever.

Gentlemen, this occasion has brought together two classes of men, sufficiently distinguished from each other to be the subjects of a division. May I be permitted to address a few words to each. We have before us the practical teachers,—men who devote themselves to the business of the school-room, who do not exercise a very diffusive influence in a broad sphere, but an intense influence in a narrow sphere—points of strong light thrown upon a small space, rather than wider radiations of a flame that is weakened by its expansion. What are the duties of the school teacher? I have not time to enumerate or define them. I cannot even mention the names in the long catalogue; but I will call your attention to one which comes very near to embracing all. By this one, I mean *thoroughness*, in every thing you teach. Thoroughness—*thoroughness*—and again I say THOROUGHNESS is the secret of success. You heard some admirable remarks this morning from a gentleman from Massa-

chusetts, (Mr. Sears,) in which he told us that a child, in learning a single lesson, might get not only an idea of the subject matter of that lesson, but an idea how all lessons should be learned,—a general idea, not only how that subject should be studied, but how all subjects should be studied. A child, in compassing the simplest subject, may get an idea of perfectness, which is the type, or archetype, of all excellence, and this idea may modify the action of his mind through his whole course of life.

Be thorough, therefore, be complete in every thing you do ; leave no enemy in ambush behind you as you march on, to rise up in the rear and assail you. Leave no broken link in the chain you are daily forging. Perfect your work so that when it is subjected to the trials and the experiences of life, it will not be found wanting.

It was within the past year that I saw an account in the public papers of a terrible gale in one of harbors of the Chinese seas. It was one of those *typhoons*, as they are called, which lay prostrate not only the productions of nature, but the structures of man. In this harbor were lying at anchor the vessels of all nations, and among them the United States sloop of war Plymouth. Every vessel broke its cable but one. The tornado tossed them about, and dashed them against each other, and broke them like egg shells. But amidst this terrific scene of destruction, our government vessel held fast to its moorings, and escaped unharmed. Who made the links of that cable, that the strength of the tempest could not rend ? Yes ! *Who made the links of that cable, that the tempest could not rend ?* Who was the workman, *that worked under oath*, and whose work saved property and human life from ruin, otherwise inevitable ? Could that workman have beheld the spectacle, and heard the raging of the elements, and seen the other vessels as they were dashed to pieces, and scattered abroad, while the violence of the tempest wreaked itself upon his own work, in vain, would he not have had the amplest and purest reward for the fidelity of his labor ?

So, in the after periods of your existence, whether it be in this world, or from another world, from which you may be permitted to look back, you may see the consequences of your instruction upon the children whom you have trained. In the crises of business life, where intellectual accuracy leads to immense good, and intellectual mistakes to immense loss, you may see your pupils distinguishing between error and truth, between false reasoning and sound reasoning, leading all who may rely upon them to correct results, establishing the highest reputation for themselves, and for you as well as for themselves, and conferring incalculable good upon the community.

So, if you have been wise and successful in your moral training, you will have prepared them to stand unshaken and unseduced amidst temptations, firm where others are swept away, uncorrupt where others are depraved, unconsumed where others are blasted and perish. You may be able to say that, by the blessing of God, you have helped to do this thing. And will not such a day be a day of more exalted and sublime joy than if you could have looked upon the storm in the eastern seas, and known that it was your handiwork that saved the vessel unharmed amid the wrecks that floated around it? Would not such a sight be a reward great and grand enough to satisfy and fill up any heart, mortal or immortal?

There is another class of men in this meeting,—those who hold important official situations under the State governments, and who are charged with the superintendence of public instruction. Peculiar duties devolve upon them. They, in common with the teachers, have taken upon themselves a great responsibility. When in the course of yesterday's proceedings, a resolution was introduced, proposing to make this a National Convention, with a permanent organization; I confess that, as I sat here in my chair, I felt my joints trembling with emotion, at the idea of the responsibility you were about to assume. Shall this body establish itself as a *National Convention*? Shall we hold ourselves out to this great country as a

source of information and a centre of influence, on one of the most important subjects that can be submitted to the human faculties? Shall we hold ourselves up here in full sun-light, and virtually say to the whole country, come here and fill your urns from our fountains of wisdom? These views came over me with such force, as almost to make me forget where I was, and the duties I had to discharge; for experience has led me to know something of the difficulties of the work. Yet it was the pleasure of the Convention to adopt the resolution; and through the signatures of your officers, you will severally subscribe to that conclusion. You have already authorized a committee to send out this determination, and to proclaim it to the world. Now, by these acts, *you have signed and sealed a bond*. You have obligated yourselves to perform great duties, and you cannot deny or elude this obligation, without a forfeiture of honor and of character. If we fulfil the duties we have assumed, this meeting will prove one of the most important meetings ever held in this country. If we fail in our respective spheres of actions to fulfil these duties, this meeting will be the ridicule and shame of us all. By itself it is a small movement, but we can make it the first in a series that shall move the whole country. It begins here upon the margin of the sea, but we can expand it until it shall cover the continent. However insignificant in itself, it is great by its possibilities. To the eye of the superficial observer, beginnings are always unimportant; but whoever understands the great law of cause and effect, knows that without the feeble beginnings, the grandest results could never have been evolved. He who now visits the northwestern part of the State of New York, to see one of the wonders of the world,—the Falls of Niagara,—may see also a wonder of art not unworthy to be compared with this wonder of nature. He may see a vast Iron Bridge spanning one of the greatest rivers in the world, affording the means of safe transit for any number of men, or any weight of merchandise, and poised high up in the serene air hundreds of feet above the maddened waters below. How was this ponderous structure stretched from abutment to

abutment across the raging flood? How was it made so strong as to bear the tread of an army, or the momentum of the rushing steam car? Its beginning was as simple as its termination is grand. A boy's plaything, a kite, was first sent into the air; to this kite was attached a silken thread, to the thread a cord, to the cord a rope, and to the rope a cable. When the toy fell upon the opposite side, the silken thread drew over the cord, and the cord the rope, and the rope the cable, and the cable, one after another, great bundles, or fascia, of iron wire; and these being arranged, side by side, and layer upon layer, now constitute a bridge, of such massiveness and cohesion, that the Mighty Genius of the cataract would spend his strength upon it in vain.

Thus, my friends, may great results be educed from small beginnings. Let this first meeting of the National Association of the Friends of Education be like the safe and successful sending of an aerial messenger across the abyss of ignorance and superstition and crime, so that those who come after us may lay the abutments and complete the moral arch that shall carry thousands and millions of our fellow-beings in safety and peace above the gulf of perdition, into whose seething floods they would otherwise have fallen and perished!

At half-past ten o'clock, the Convention adjourned, *sine die*.

LIST OF DELEGATES

ATTENDING THE

NATIONAL SCHOOL CONVENTION.

Alonzo Potter,	Philadelphia.
Joseph R. Chandler,	Do.
John S. Hart,	Do.
A. E. Wright,	Do.
John Griscom,	Burlington, New Jersey.
James J. Barclay,	Philadelphia.
Edward C. Biddle,	Do.
Arthur Sumner,	Boston.
Robert Piggott,	Baltimore.
Thomas H. Burrowes,	Lancaster.
Joseph M'Keen,	New York.
James N. McElligott,	26 King street, New York.
Thomas Griffith,	Darby, Pennsylvania.
J. A. Rowland,	Hopewell Cotton Works, Chester Co., Pa.
J. Engle Negus,	Philadelphia.
Charles Leib, M. D.,	Pottsville, Pa.
George W. Vaughan,	Kensington, Philadelphia.
Stephen G. Woodbridge,	Perth Amboy, New Jersey.
Isaac J. Peterson,	Salem, New Jersey.
J. Cowperthwait,	Philadelphia.
Horace Mann,	Massachusetts.
James H. McBride,	Chester county, Pennsylvania.
David Vickers,	Philadelphia.
James C. Booth,	Do.
Samuel D. Hastings,	Geneva, Wisconsin.
H. Smith Bright,	Salem, New Jersey.
Elisha R. Potter,	Kingston, Rhode Island.
E. Webster,	Philadelphia.
G. T. Thayer,	Boston.
Joseph Bartlett Burleigh,	Baltimore.
H. W. Heath,	Do.
J. G. Moore,	Philadelphia.
James A. Kirkpatrick,	Do.
Nathan Bishop,	Providence, Rhode Island.
Morgan J. Rhee,	Wilmington, Delaware.
William S. Hilles,	Do. Do.
Benjamin Bannan,	Pottsville, Pennsylvania.

William Chapin,	Philadelphia.
Orson Kellogg,	New York City.
Andrew Barr,	Columbus, Ohio.
William P. Creery,	Baltimore, Maryland.
George M. Wharton,	Philadelphia.
D. C. Lockwood,	Do.
John Ludlow,	Do.
John Wise,	Lancaster, Pennsylvania.
Henry T. Child,	Philadelphia.
Charles Northend,	Salem, Massachusetts.
Lucias Q. C. Elmer,	Bridgetown, New Jersey.
Henry M. Zollickoffer,	Philadelphia.
James Hamilton,	Carlisle, Pennsylvania.
Oliver B. Peirce,	Milwaukie, Wisconsin.
H. McMurtrie,	Philadelphia.
Samuel C. Ford,	Olney, Philadelphia county.
John S. Ketchum,	Suffolk county, New York.
Barnas Sears,	West Newton, Massachusetts.
William D. Swan,	Boston, Massachusetts.
John A. Warder,	Cincinnati, Ohio.
Charles Kughler,	Montgomery county, Pennsylvania.
Albert S. Mendenhall,	Do. Do. Do.
Samuel Ashmead,	Philadelphia.
William Martin,	Do.
Benjamin Naylor,	Do.
P. P. Morris,	Do.
Strange N. Palmer,	Pottsville, Pennsylvania.
E. Otis Kendall,	Philadelphia.
Solomon Jenner,	New York.
A. B. Ivins,	Philadelphia.
William C. Chapin,	Rhode Island, Post Office, Fall River, Mass.
Clinton Gillingham,	Philadelphia.
James C. Fisher,	Do.
Conley Plotts,	Do.
J. S. Thompson,	Swedesborough, New Jersey.
W. D. G. McVey,	Philadelphia.
N. Nathans,	Philadelphia county.
Lemuel Stephens,	Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
Samuel Lewis,	Cincinnati, Ohio.
H. H. Barney,	Do. Do.
G. B. Duncan,	New Orleans.
James A. Briggs,	Cleveland, Ohio.
T. F. King,	New Jersey.
Jacob Grim,	Philadelphia.
Jacob F. Sides,	Byberry, Philadelphia county.
John S. Richards,	Reading, Pennsylvania.
J. N. Evans,	Do. Do.
A. M. Wiggins,	Do. Do.
Joseph Whetham,	Philadelphia.
William Vogdes,	Do.
Washington McCartney,	Easton, Pennsylvania.
Henry Barnard,	Hartford, Connecticut.
James Rhoads,	Philadelphia county.
M. A. DeWolfe Howe,	Philadelphia.
J. B. Sutherland,	Do.
Hiram Corson,	Montgomery county, Pennsylvania.
P. A. Browne,	Philadelphia.
Francis A. Bregy,	Do.
Otis Rockwood,	Boston, Massachusetts.
G. Vale,	New York.
Peter F. Wright,	Kensington, Pennsylvania.

Joseph H. Schreiner,	Penn District, Pennsylvania.
Thomas H. Benton, Jr.,	Iowa city, Iowa.
William S. Rowland,	York, Pennsylvania.
Darius Forbes,	Boston.
John F. Frazer,	Philadelphia.
F. Fraley,	Do.
Peter F. Mudey,	Pottsville, Pennsylvania.
George Erey,	Philadelphia.
Edward H. Ward,	Do.
Thomas Fisher,	Do.
Daniel Holbrook,	Rochester, New York.
Joseph Plankinton,	Spring Garden, Philadelphia county.
Caleb Peirce,	370 south Front st., Philadelphia.
Liberty Hall,	Peru, Maine.
Dr. George H. Burgin,	Philadelphia.
George J. Becker,	Do.
J. P. Colcord,	Do.
Joseph S. Barlow,	Deckertown, New Jersey.
Charles R. Demmó,	Philadelphia.
Thomas B. Florence,	Do.
Ebenezer Erskine,	Do.
Nathaniel Jacoby,	Montgomery county, Pennsylvania.
Jonathan Roberts,	Do. do Do.
Andrew Bower,	Plymouth, Philad'a county, Pa.
H. Gibbons,	Philadelphia.
John P. Walter,	Dover, Delaware.
H. Dyer,	Philadelphia.
James F. Wilson, M. D.,	Wilmington, Delaware.
William Shippen,	Philadelphia.
Thomas Maylin,	Salem, New Jersey.
M. H. Boye,	Philadelphia.
Charles Bowman,	Do.
L. Jackson Crans,	Curwensville, Pennsylvania.
John M. Bigh, M. D.,	Philadelphia.
James H. Cook,	Sanquoit, New Jersey.
Israel V. James,	Philadelphia county.
Perry W. Levering,	Do. do.
J. N. McJilton,	Baltimore.
John H. Monmonier,	Do.
Thomas M. Abbott,	Do.
Thomas J. Robertson,	Toronto, Upper Canada.
Lyman Coleman,	Philadelphia.
David Haines,	Trenton, New Jersey.
Robert L. Cooke,	Bloomfield, Essex county, New Jersey.
R. J. Hemphill,	Philadelphia.
John W. Kean,	Do.
John Bohlen, Jr.,	Do.
Charles D. Cleveland,	Do.
Charles M. Sandgran,	Southwark, Philadelphia county.
William Larzelere,	Spring Garden, Do.
J. H. Brown,	Philadelphia.
John Miller,	Northern Liberties, Philad'a Co.
C. R. Kessler,	Allentown, Lehigh county.
A. Comstock, M. D.,	Philadelphia.
A. T. W. Wright,	Do.
Samuel W. Black,	Do.
E. A. Penniman,	Do.
N. Dodge,	Cedar Hill Seminary, Lancaster county, Pa.
William J. Warden,	Staunton, Virginia.
William Abbott,	Philadelphia.
H. Cowperthwait,	Do.

H. R. Warriner,	West Philadelphia.
John T. Nixon,	Bridgeton, New Jersey.
C. L. Desauque,	Philadelphia.
Joseph Wood,	Lancaster county, Pennsylvania.
E. Fulborn,	
Moses Brinton,	Lancaster co. Pa., Andrews' Bridge P. Office.
William L. Rakestraw,	Lancaster county, Pennsylvania.
James Jackson,	Do. do. Do.
D. H. Martin,	Hope, New Jersey.
A. H. Grimshaw,	Wilmington, Delaware.
J. B. Knight,	Philadelphia.
Lyman Cobb,	New York.
James M. Robinson,	New Hope, Pennsylvania.
Charles Lombaert,	Newtown, Bucks county, Pa.
Samuel M. Hamill,	Lawrenceville, New Jersey.
A. G. Fazenbush,	Salem, New Jersey.
Samuel Aaron,	Norristown, Montgomery Co., Pennsylvania.
John C. Hyde,	New Britain.
Pliny E. Chase,	Philadelphia.
Charles Hamilton,	Chester county, Pennsylvania.
Alfred Greenleaf,	Brooklyn, New York.
Enoch Woolman,	Salem, Ohio.
Caleb Brinton,	Salisbury Gap, P. O. La. Co., Pa.
Samuel Newbury,	Jackson, Michigan.
F. W. Shearman,	Marshall, Michigan.
John Biddle,	Philadelphia.
John C. Montgomery,	Do.
Eli Hilles,	Wilmington, Delaware.
Thomas P. Atkinson,	Danville, Virginia.
R. B. McDonnell,	Wilmington, Delaware.
Willard Hall,	Do. Do.
A. J. Perkins,	Philadelphia.
R. M. Patterson,	Director of U. States Mint, Philad'a.
R. Patterson,	Philadelphia.
John Zerman,	Bridesburg, Philadelphia county, Pa.
John Sickel,	Philadelphia.
J. Saunderson,	Do.
George M. Alsop,	Do.
Simeon Collins,	Do.
George Emlen, Jr.,	Do.
William Biddle,	Do.
J. T. Bournes,	Waynesborough, Pennsylvania.
James Rowland,	Philadelphia.
Pearson Yard,	Do.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

SECOND SESSION

OF THE

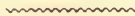
NATIONAL CONVENTION

OF THE

FRIENDS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION:

HELD IN PHILADELPHIA

AUGUST 28, 29, 30, 1850.



PHILADELPHIA:

E. C. & J. BIDDLE, No. 6 SOUTH FIFTH STREET.

1850.

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CRISBY & MARKLEY, Printers,  
No. 4 Minor Street.  
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Proceedings of the Convention.

The Convention assembled in the Sansom Street Hall, in the city of Philadelphia, on the twenty-eighth day of August, one thousand eight hundred and fifty, at ten o'clock, A. M., and organized temporarily by calling to the Chair,

The Rt. Rev. ALONZO POTTER, D. D.,

And Appointing

P. PEMBERTON MORRIS, *Secretary*.

On motion of Mr. Joseph Cowperthwait, the Chair appointed Messrs. G. F. Thayer, of Boston, E. R. Potter, of Rhode Island, Thomas H. Burrowes, of Lancaster, Penna., Thomas Rainey, of Ohio, and Edward C. Biddle, of Philadelphia, a Committee to nominate officers.

On motion of Mr. Peirce, of Wisconsin, all persons interested in the cause of education were invited to take seats in the Convention, and enter their names on its register.

In the absence of the nominating Committee, Prof. Henry Hertzels, of Lausanne, in Switzerland, gave an account of the methods pursued in that country in the instruction of the deaf, dumb and blind.

From the Committee on Nominations, Mr. G. F. Thayer reported the following named gentlemen as officers :

PRESIDENT.

REV. ELIPHALET NOTT, of New York.

VICE-PRESIDENTS.

JOSEPH HENRY, Washington, D. C.

Rt. Rev. A. POTTER, Pennsylvania.

JOHN GRISCOM, New Jersey.

GIDEON F. THAYER, Massachusetts.

SECRETARIES.

P. PEMBERTON MORRIS, Pennsylvania.

JOHN KINGSBURY, Rhode Island.

And the nominations were unanimously confirmed.

At the request of the President, the Rev. Dr. Nevin, of Mercersburg, opened the Convention with prayer.

The President then addressed the Convention.

On motion of Mr. Peirce, the Chair appointed the following Business Committee :

Gov. Haines, - - - - New Jersey,

Dr. Ludlow, - - - - Pennsylvania.

O. B. Peirce, - - - - Wisconsin.

Henry Barnard, - - - - Connecticut.

William D. Swan, - - - - Massachusetts.

Dr. Potter, from the Committee appointed at the last annual meeting, reported a plan for the National Organization of the Friends of Education, accompanied by a Constitution; which was read, ordered to be printed, and made the special order for to-morrow morning at ten o'clock.

Reports were then called for from the different committees appointed at the last session.

The Committee on Phonography made a majority report, which, on motion of Mr. M'Keen, of New York, was laid upon the table for the present.

Communications were received, inviting the members of the Convention to visit the Girard College, the Episcopal Academy, and the Academy of Natural Sciences.

On motion of Mr. Thayer, the invitations were accepted.

Communications were read from the President of the United States, and others, expressing their interest in the Convention, and their regrets at not being able to be present.

Communications were also received from the Directors of the Reading Rail-road, and the Camden and Amboy Rail-road Company, offering to members of the Convention excursion tickets to and from their places of residence.

On motion of Mr. Nathans,

Resolved, That when this Convention adjourns, it adjourn to meet at four o'clock this afternoon.

On motion adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Convention re-assembled at four o'clock, pursuant to adjournment.

Mr. E. C. Biddle, Treasurer of the Convention of 1849, presented his accounts, which were referred to Messrs. Newbury, of Michigan, and Burrowes, of Pennsylvania, to be audited.

The Business Committee made a report in part,

That the States be called alphabetically for such statements as members present may favour the Convention with.

The Committee also suggest that the sitting of the Convention be from nine o'clock, A. M., to two o'clock, P. M., and from six and a half P. M., to ten P. M., during the days of the session.

Agreed to.

The States were then called, and statements made by

Messrs. Thos. Allen Clark, - - -	Louisiana.
Swan, - - - - -	Massachusetts.
Thayer, - - - - -	do.
Green, - - - - -	do.
Newbury, - - - - -	Michigan.
Cutter, - - - - -	New Hampshire.
Haines, - - - - -	New Jersey.
Cooke, - - - - -	do.
Griscom, - - - - -	do.
Hazen, - - - - -	do.
M'Keen, - - - - -	New York.
Bulkley, - - - - -	do.

Adjourned to eight o'clock, P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention re-assembled at eight o'clock, P. M.

On motion of Mr. Wharton, the further calling of the States was suspended for the present.

Mr. Newbury, from the Committee to whom the accounts of E. C. Biddle, Treasurer, were referred, reports the accounts correct, exhibiting a balance due the Treasurer of seven dollars and sixty-three cents.

Mr. Hart, from the Committee on Night Schools, read a report,* concluding with the following resolution:

Resolved, That this Convention recommends to the earnest consideration of the community in the several States, the pro-

* See Appendix 2.

priety of establishing generally, free Evening Schools for adults, and for young persons who are not in attendance upon day schools.

The resolution, after discussion by Messrs. Wharton and others, was adopted.

Mr. Hammill, of New Jersey, from the Committee upon the whole subject of instruction and training, not referred to special committees, read a report,* which was made the special order for Friday, at 10 A. M.

On motion of Dr. Potter,

Resolved, That a Committee of five be appointed by the chair, to determine upon the printing of all, or any reports that may be made to the Convention.

Second Day.

August 29th, 1850.

Convention assembled at 9 o'clock, A. M.

BISHOP POTTER, in the chair.

The following Committee on printing was appointed:

G. M. Wharton,	- - - -	Pennsylvania.
S. S. Green,	- - - -	Massachusetts.
R. L. Cooke,	- - - -	New Jersey.
E. C. Biddle,	- - - -	Pennsylvania.
P. P. Morris,	- - - -	Pennsylvania.

The calling of the States was resumed.

Dr. Potter	continued on the part of New York.		
Mr. Rainey,	Do.	do.	Ohio.
Dr. Bushnell,	Do.	do.	Ohio.

* See Appendix 3.

The hour of ten having arrived, the order of the day was called. Bishop Potter, Chairman of the Committee, reporting the Constitution, gave a general explanation of its scope.

It was then considered by sections, and after an animated debate, in which Drs. Potter, Cutter, Bushnell, Elder, Ryerson, and Coleman, and Messrs. Wharton, Rainey, Swan, Peirce, Hazen, Bulkley, M'Elligott, Lee, Hart, and Barnard, participated, the Constitution reported, with several amendments, was adopted.*

On motion,

Resolved 1. That the Secretary procure a suitable book, and cause the Constitution to be engrossed therein for signature.

Resolved 2. That the first business, after signing the Constitution, shall be, the election of officers for the ensuing year.

Resolved 3. That the Committee for nominating officers and the Business Committee of this Convention, are jointly a Committee to nominate officers to act under the new Constitution.

Mr. Kingsbury, of Rhode Island, addressed the Convention upon the changes contemplated in Brown University; he was followed by the Rev. Dr. Nevin, on the general subject of University Education.

Professor Henry addressed the Convention.

On motion, the hour of meeting in the evening was changed to half-past seven o'clock.

Adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

Convention re-assembled at half-past seven.

Mr. Tuckerman, of Ohio, addressed the Convention.

* See Appendix 1.

Mr. Cooke, of New Jersey, presented a report* upon the best method of raising the necessary funds for the support of Common Schools, concluding with the following resolution :

Resolved, That it is as much more the duty of every State to provide for the Education of all its youth, as a means of inter-national defence, than it is the duty of the Congress of the United States to support naval and military establishments for our defence against foreign aggression, as the dangers to be apprehended from the neglect of the one, are greater and more imminent than those to which we are liable from the other.

Mr. M'Elligott, of New York, offered as a substitute for the resolution of the Committee, the following :

Resolved, As the judgment of this Convention, that a due regard to mere political interests no less than the higher obligations of Christian duty requires of every State to provide by general tax, or otherwise, a system of free schools, accessible to every child of suitable age, within its limits, and affording to all equal advantages for a sound and efficient course of instruction, physical, moral, and intellectual.

An animated debate ensued between Messrs. Cooke, M'Elligott, Dr. Potter, Dr. Ludlow, Dr. Ryerson, Mr. Newbury, Professor Rogers, Messrs. Clark, Peirce, Humes, and Elder.

When, without coming to a vote, the Convention adjourned.

Third Day.

August 30th, 1850.

The Convention assembled at 9 o'clock, A. M.

Professor JOSEPH HENRY, in the chair.

The debate of last evening was resumed.

Mr. Barnard moved to strike out all after the word resolved, in Mr. M'Elligott's amendment, and insert the following :

* See Appendix 4.

That, as Education is a want least felt by those who stand most in need of its benefits for themselves, or their children; as it is a duty which poverty or avarice may disregard; as it is a right inherent in every child, which the child cannot enforce; as it is an interest both public and private, both local and general, which cannot be neglected, in a single human being, without injury to the whole community; it is both unwise and unjust to rely for its universal dissemination exclusively on the sense of parental obligation, or on the voluntary contributions, and assessments of individuals, or municipal bodies, but it is a paramount duty of every State to establish a system of Public Schools, supported by general tax, or otherwise, which shall be accessible to all, and be good enough at once for the richest and cheap enough for the poorest child within its borders.

But the Convention refused to substitute.

Bishop Potter then moved to substitute the following:

Resolved, That this Convention recognizes as one of the highest and most sacred duties of every State and Commonwealth, to provide that no child be suffered to grow up within its borders without the advantages of school-training.

But the Convention refused to substitute.

The debate was continued by Messrs. Bulkley, Thayer, Sutherland, Wharton, Tuckerman, Burleigh, Pennepacker, Nathans, Hazen, Ryerson, Hamill, Potter, Newbury, Washburn, Cowperthwait, Elder, M'Elligott, Rogers, and Ludlow.

When the amendment of Mr. McElligott was adopted by the Convention.

On motion,

Resolved, That when the Convention adjourn, it be to meet this afternoon, at four o'clock.

On motion,

Resolved, That the Convention proceed to fix the place of the next annual meeting.

And Cleveland, Ohio, was fixed upon.

On motion of Mr. Hamill, the report of the Committee on Instruction and Training, was taken up, and the following resolution was adopted :

Resolved, That the course of instruction to be pursued, and the method of pursuing it, is a matter of the highest importance in educational training, and should command the attention and interest of every friend of education, especially of every instructor.

The Convention adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Convention re-assembled at four o'clock.

The Nominating Committee reported the following names as officers of the American Association for the Advancement of Education, viz:

FOR PRESIDENT.

RIGHT REV. ALONZO POTTER.

For Recording Secretary.

D. P. LEE, of Buffalo, New York.

For Corresponding Secretary and Curator.

P. PEMBERTON MORRIS, of Philadelphia.

For Treasurer.

EDWARD C. BIDDLE, of Philadelphia.

For Standing Committee.

HENRY BARNARD,	- - - - -	Of Connecticut.
H. H. BARNEY,	- - - - -	Ohio.
T. H. BENTON, Jr.,	- - - - -	Iowa.
JOSEPH McKEEN,	- - - - -	New York.
GREER B. DUNCAN,	- - - - -	Louisiana.
R. E. ROGERS,	- - - - -	Virginia.

On motion of Mr. Hart, the question upon the election of President, Recording Secretary, Corresponding Secretary and Curator, and Treasurer, was ordered to be taken *viva voce*.

And said officers were unanimously elected.

The Convention then proceeded to ballot for the Standing Committee.

Mr. Joseph Cowperthwait and John S. Hart were appointed tellers, and reported the nominees unanimously elected.

Reports of Committees were then called.

Dr. Comstock read a minority report from the Committee on Phonography.

After discussion by Dr. Childs and Mr. Gillingham, it was

Resolved, That the report on Phonography, and the whole subject of Phonetics, be referred to a Committee of Five, to report to the next annual meeting of the Convention, or to the proper section thereof.

Committee.

Joseph Henry, - - - - -	Washington.
George B. Emerson, - - - -	Massachusetts.
Jno. Frazier, - - - - -	Pennsylvania.
Geo. R. Perkins, - - - - -	Albany.
John S. Hart, - - - - -	Philadelphia.

Mr. Thayer read a report from Emerson Davis, of Massachusetts, on the subject of Moral and Religious Instruction.*

Professor Henry read a report on the subject of School Architecture.†

On motion, adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

The Committee re-assembled at seven and a half o'clock.

Mr. Peirce, from the Committee on the Relations of Ignorance to Crime, &c., asked and obtained leave to withhold their report

* See Appendix 5.

† See Appendix 6.

to the next meeting of the Convention, and to fill vacancies in their own body.

Mr. Hart, from the Committee on Grades of Schools, asked and obtained permission to sit again, and to report to the next Convention, and fill vacancies in their own body.

On motion of Mr. Hart,

Resolved, That the reports on School Architecture, Course of Instruction, Support of Schools, Night Schools, be referred to the Committee on Printing, with instructions to print the same in whole or in part.

Mr. Barnard, from the Committee on School Systems and Educational Statistics, submitted a report, accompanied by explanatory observations.*

The subject of School Architecture was called up, and discussed by Messrs. Hamill, Hart, Swan, Green, Fisher, Griscom, McKeen.

The Standing Committee reported the following names for the Local Committee :

Charles Blackburn,	J. C. Vaughn,
Dr. St. John,	A. Gray,
Alex. Freeze,	Jas. Briggs,
Hon. Reuben Hitchcock,	Rev. Dr. Aiken,
S. J. Andrews,	Edward Wade,
Geo. Willie,	E. Harmer.

And they were duly elected.

Mr. Barnard, from the Committee on the subject of School Districts, submitted a report.

Mr. Barnard, from the Business Committee, presented a plea for history, also a project of a school of design for women, and moved their reference to a Committee of three, to report at the next meeting of the Association.

* See Appendix 7.

Committee.

Hon. Henry Barnard,
 Thomas H. Burrowes,
 William D. Swan.

On motion of Mr. Thayer,

Resolved, That the thanks of this Convention be tendered to the Academy of Natural Science, for the privilege of examining the very extensive and beautiful collection of specimens in Natural History, in their Museum, so liberally and kindly extended to them.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Convention be presented to the President and Directors of Girard College, for the privilege we have enjoyed of visiting, by their kind invitation, this magnificent monument of princely benevolence.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Convention be presented to the several Rail-road Corporations and others, who have furnished facilities to the members for attending this meeting.

Dr. Elder offered the following resolution :

Resolved, That the system of Mental Philosophy, called Phrenology, furnishes the true basis of principles and the best directory in practice for Education in all its departments.

On motion, the resolution was referred to a Committee of three, to report at the next annual meeting of the Association.

Committee.

Dr. William Elder,
 John Ludlow,
 G. M. Wharton.

On motion of Mr. Barnard, the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, of Canada, was elected a corresponding member of the Association.

On motion of Mr. Bulkley, Professor Henry Hertzell, of the Institution for the Blind, in Lausanne, Switzerland, was elected a corresponding member of the Association.

On motion, and after an address from Bishop Potter, the Convention adjourned *sine die*.

APPENDIX NO. I.

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION.

CONSTITUTION.

This Society shall be known by the name and title of the *American Association for the Advancement of Education*.

OBJECTS.

The object of the Association shall be to promote intercourse among those who are actively engaged in promoting Education, throughout the United States—to secure the cooperation of individuals, Associations and Legislatures, in measures calculated to improve education, and to give to such measures a more systematic direction, and a more powerful impulse.

MEMBERS.

1. (a) All persons enrolled as members of either of the National Conventions, held in the City of Philadelphia, in the years 1849 and 1850, shall be entitled to become members of this Association on subscribing to the Constitution, and on paying an admission fee of \$2.

(b) Also, in like manner and on the same conditions, all delegates from Colleges or Universities, Incorporated Academies, Normal and High Schools, from State, County, or other Associations, established to promote education, provided that no more than three delegates shall be received from one Association at the same time.

2. All other persons who shall have been nominated by the Standing Committee, and elected by a majority of the members present, may become members in like manner, and on the same conditions.

NOTE.—Those belonging to the above named classes shall be eligible to all offices of the Society.

3. Distinguished Educators and Friends of Education in other countries, may be elected Corresponding Members by a vote of two-thirds of the members present.

4. *Associates for the Year.*—Any person recommended by the Standing Committee shall, on paying the sum of one dollar, be admitted as a member for the year, but shall not be eligible to any office.

5. *Life Members.*—Persons entitled of right to be members, or elected as prescribed by the Constitution, may constitute themselves *Life Members*, by paying at any one time the sum of twenty-five dollars, and subscribing to the Constitution and Rules. They shall be eligible to all offices, and shall be entitled to receive all the published transactions of the Society, free of charge.

PAYMENTS.

1. Regular members paying one additional dollar, annually, shall be entitled to receive the transactions in like manner, free of charge.

2. The omission to pay, for one year, shall forfeit the privilege to receive the transactions, free of charge, and the omission to pay for two successive years, shall forfeit membership. Membership may be resumed, however, by resuming payment—but not the privilege to receive the transactions as aforesaid.

MEETINGS.

There shall be an Annual Meeting on the Third Tuesday in August, to continue for a period of not less than four days. The place shall be designated at the preceding annual meeting, and the arrangements shall be made by the Standing and Local Committees.

OFFICERS.

They shall consist of a President, Recording Secretary, Corresponding Secretary and Curator, and Treasurer, to be appointed at the close of each annual meeting, and to hold, with the exception hereafter noticed, their places for one year.

STANDING COMMITTEE.

This Committee shall consist of the Officers for the current and of those for the preceding year, with six other persons to be elected by ballot, who must also have been present at the meetings of the current or preceding year.

It shall be the duty of the Standing Committee to manage the general business of the Association in the intervals between the annual meetings, and it may also sit during said annual meetings. It shall nominate all persons who are to be balloted for as members, and shall recommend suitable candidates to fill the offices of President, Secretary, Corresponding Secretary, and Treasurer, and Local Committee, for the ensuing year.

LOCAL COMMITTEE.

This shall consist of persons residing in the place where the next annual meeting shall be held. It shall be their duty to co-operate with the officers in making arrangements for such meeting.

SECTIONS.

The Convention may, at pleasure, through its Standing Committee, resolve itself into *Sections*, the number and designation of said sections to vary, from time to time, as may be found expedient.

Each Section shall meet by itself, and shall elect its own Chairman and Secretary, who shall be ex-officio members of the Standing Committee, and shall remain in office for one year.

It may also have a Standing Committee of its own: it shall discuss such subjects only as are indicated by the title of the Section—may receive communications—recommend subjects to be investigated and reported on, &c.

ARCHIVES.

There shall also be in Philadelphia, a permanent place for the reception of Documents, Reports, and other papers belonging to the Association, which shall be under the care of an officer who shall be elected for the term of five years, and be entitled Corresponding Secretary and Curator.

GENERAL MEETINGS.

These shall be held on three evenings during the annual session of the Association, to discuss such subjects, or hear such reports and communications as the Standing Committee may designate.

At one of these general meetings reports in brief shall be made by the Chairman of the several Sections of the proceedings therein.

ORGANIZING ANNUAL MEETING.

It shall be organized by the President of the preceding year.

The first business in order, shall be the delivery of his Address. The new President having taken his seat, the Association shall then proceed to discuss the number and title of the Sections, if any, into which the Standing Committee shall distribute the members, and to designate the places for their meeting. The Sections shall then proceed to organize.

An Auditing Committee shall be appointed at the opening of each annual meeting, to examine and report on the state of the Treasury.

Alterations.—No article of this Constitution shall be altered except by a vote of three-fourths of the members present, and without one day's previous notice.

Members' Names.

Alonzo Potter, - - - -	Philadelphia.
John Griscom, - - - -	Burlington, New Jersey.
Gideon F. Thayer, - -	Boston, Massachusetts.
Oliver B. Peirce, - - -	Milwaukie, Wisconsin.
D. P. Lee, - - - - -	Buffalo, New York.
Egerton Ryerson, - - -	Toronto, Upper Canada.
John Kingsbury, - - -	Providence, Rhode Island.
P. P. Morris, - - - -	Philadelphia.
Edward C. Biddle, - - -	Do.
John Biddle, - - - -	Do.
Joseph Cowperthwait, - -	Do.
John S. Hart, - - - -	Do.
E. R. Potter, - - - -	Kingston, Rhode Island.
J. W. Nevin, - - - -	Mercersburgh, Pennsylvania.
Solomon Jenner, - - -	New York.
Thomas Allen Clarke, -	New Orleans.
Henry Barnard, - - -	Hartford, Connecticut.
Felix Drouin, - - - -	Philadelphia.
Tito Séron, - - - - -	Do.
Thomas Hume, - - - -	Portsmouth, Virginia.
Lyman Cobb, - - - -	New York.
Isaac A. Pennypacker, -	Phœnixville, Ch. Co., Penna.
Charles Picot, - - - -	Philadelphia.
Zalmon Richards, - - -	Washington, District Columbia.
Samuel Alsop, - - - -	Wilmington, Delaware.
Henry R. Warrenner, - -	West Philadelphia, Penna.
Daniel Haines, - - - -	Trenton, New Jersey.
Charles R. Kester, - - -	Allentown, Penna.
Robert L. Cooke, - - -	Bloomfield, New Jersey.
Hulings Cowperthwait, -	Philadelphia.

MEMBERS' NAMES.

William C. Chapin,	- -	Tiverton, Rhode Island.
S. S. Ashley,	- - - -	Do. Do.
Charles S. James,	- - -	Philadelphia.
Joseph N. McElligott,	- -	New York.
Joseph McKeen,	- - -	Do.
Thomas H. Burrowes,	-	Lancaster City, Penna.
John Simmons,	- - - -	Philadelphia.
J. W. Bulkley,	- - - -	Albany, New York.
Calvin Cutter,	- - - -	Warren, Massachusetts.
Samuel Newbury,	- - -	Jackson, Michigan.
Benjamin Naylor,	- - -	Erceldoun, Chester Co., Pa.
Samuel S. Greene,	- -	Boston, Massachusetts.
Andrew L. Bushnell,	- -	Cincinnati, Ohio.
David S. Holman,	- - -	Milo, Maine.
Hector Tyndale,	- - -	Philadelphia.
D. McConaughy,	- - -	Gettysburg, Penna.
N. Nathans,	- - - -	Philadelphia county.
Asa Jones,	- - - -	Norristown, Penna.
J. Tuckerman,	- - - -	Orwell, Ashtabula Co., Ohio.
George Emlen Hare,	- -	Philadelphia.
Isaac Z. Peterson,	. - -	Salem, New Jersey.
R. E. Rogers, M. D.,	- -	University of Virginia.
Edward Hazen,	- - -	Jersey City.
R. B. McDonnell,	- - -	Wilmington, Delaware.
William D. Swan,	- - -	Boston, Massachusetts.
Daniel Washburn,	- - -	Philadelphia county, Penna.
Henry T. Child, M. D.,	-	Philadelphia.
Aaron B. Ivins,	- - -	Do.
Clinton Gillingham,	- -	Do.
William H. Hunter,	- -	Philadelphia county, Penna.
Conley Plotts,	- - - -	Philadelphia.
Bennett Yarnall,	- - -	Chester, Del. Co., Penna.
George A. Piper,	- - -	Philadelphia.
Joseph Bartlett Burleigh,	-	Baltimore.
Darius Forbes,	- - - -	Boston, Massachusetts.
George Lewis Staley,	- -	Philadelphia.
William Vogdes,	- - -	Philadelphia.
F. L. Hanford,	- - - -	Hobart, Delaware Co., N. Y.
Pearson Yard,	- - - -	Philadelphia.
B. F. Hancock,	- - - -	Norristown, Penna.

William R. Creery,	- -	Baltimore.
Daniel C. Lockwood,	- -	Philadelphia.
William Elder,	- - - -	Do.
Thomas Fisher,	- - -	Do.
Evan Pugh,	- - - - -	Oxford, Chester Co., Penna.
M. Diehl,	- - - - -	Springfield, Ohio.
Lyman Coleman,	- - -	Philadelphia.
J. P. Wickersham,	- - -	Marietta, Pennsylvania.
H. Aymé,	- - - - -	Philadelphia.
William H. Dillingham,	-	Do.
William Whittall,	- - -	Do.
Alfred L. Kennedy, M.D.,		Do.
E. W. Gilbert,	- - - -	Do.
John Jackson,	- - - -	Darby, Penna.
William Mayberry, M. D.,		Philadelphia.
George M. Wharton,	- -	Do.
Samuel M. Hamill,	- -	Lawrenceville, New Jersey.
James A. Kirkpatrick,	-	Philadelphia.
George Emlen, Jr.,	- -	Do.
William Biddle,	- - -	Do.
James Rowland,	- - -	Do.
Andrew Comstock,	- -	Do.
Daniel R. Brower,	- - -	Phœnixville, Penna.
Henry M. Fine,	- - -	Philadelphia.
James Crissy,	- - - -	Do.
Edward C. Markley,	- -	Do.
J. P. Walter,	- - - -	Dover, Delaware.
Joseph M. Thomas,	- -	Philadelphia.
James J. Barclay,	- - -	Do.
John S. Richards,	- - -	Reading, Penna.

APPENDIX NO. II.

REPORT

OF

THE COMMITTEE ON EVENING SCHOOLS.

While speaking of the large proportion of the population that now, in many states and cities, attend public schools, we are apt to forget that not more than one-third of the whole number attending school ever advance beyond the Primary. The High School and the Grammar Schools are, indeed, open to all ; but all, unfortunately, have not the leisure to advance to those open doors. Idleness and vagrancy, no doubt, contribute to this result ; yet, for the most part, it is stern necessity, work—want of bread—that compels more than two-thirds of the children of the public schools, to complete their schooling in the Primary. Having barely learned to read and write, and perhaps knowing something of the first four rules of Arithmetic, they are taken by their parents to assist in the mill, the workshop, or the factory,—or to become errand boys and news boys. Experience has shown that a large number of these boys, thus early withdrawn from school, would, at the age of ten to twelve, and even much later, be glad to avail themselves of any opportunity of pursuing their studies, that did not interfere with the daily pursuits by which their subsistence is procured. Wherever night schools have been opened, a large number of such boys have been among the applicants for admission. If there be any class of the community that more than others have a claim upon the public for special means of instruction, it is those who, through a grinding necessity, are unable to attend the ordinary day school, even though it be entirely free.

There is another important aspect of this case. The attention of those engaged in the cause of education has been occupied so exclusively with the instruction of the young, that we had well nigh forgotten the existence among us of an ignorant *adult* population. The existence of such a class, is apparently one of the necessary conditions of society. Notwithstanding the multiplication of schools, and the extension, in other ways, of the means of education, it will probably still be found, even in those districts and cities, enjoying the most favorable circumstances, that a very large number of children will grow up to manhood in a state of almost total ignorance. The efforts

of the educationist will be directed towards the elimination of this evil, by giving greater efficiency to the means for instructing the young. But after every effort, there will still always be an important outstanding item, too large to be overlooked by the prudent philanthropist. The number of illiterate adults will be yet further and largely increased by the constant tide of emigration from abroad.

Some isolated and not uninteresting efforts have been made, heretofore, to reduce the number of ignorant adults by the establishment of schools expressly for them. But it is not until very recently, that any thing like a general effort, in this direction, has been attempted.

Within the last two or three years, in several of our large cities, as New York, Cincinnati, Providence, and Philadelphia, evening schools have been opened on a large scale, for the instruction, in part, of those beyond the proper age to attend the day schools. The special cause, which has led to this new impulse, has been the alarming increase, of late, of riotous and disorderly night assemblages in the streets of our cities. In nearly every city, there exist, at present, large gangs of disorderly young men, more or less organized, who nightly disturb the public peace. These young men, it has been found, in very many instances, were entirely unacquainted with the first rudiments of learning, unable to read and write, and thus shut out from the ordinary sources of improvement and of innocent recreation. It is believed that many of these persons are, in the first instance, driven into street-prowling and other disorderly practices, by a mere physical impulse—the love of action—and by the force of the social principle. The case has been stated with great clearness by the Hon. Judge Kelly, of Philadelphia, in an address delivered before the House of Refuge, in December, 1849.

“From whom, and what, is Philadelphia now suffering most? Not from the increasing frequency of the perpetration of crimes of the higher grades—these increase not in the ratio of the growth of our population;—nor from organized gangs of skilled and hardened felons, for, inefficient as our multiplex police departments are, our borders are now, as they have ever been, comparatively free from these pests of cities. Riot and tumult are the evils under which we groan. The wayward and restless youths who congregate at the street corners, hang about hose and engine houses, and throng the places of cheap and vulgar amusement in which the city abounds, are our terror at home and disgrace abroad. For these, if unchecked, we are all ready to predict a career of crime and punishment. The project of establishing an armed police to hold them in subjection, finds favor with many, and may yet be necessary. In Europe, such lads would constitute the strength of the government. Full of health and animal spirits, and pursuing novelty and adventure with the ardor of youth, they would be fascinated by the roving life of the soldier, and follow the recruiting sergeant. The standing armies of England, and the States of Europe, absorb enough of this class to overawe the remainder. Availing themselves of the impulses of youth, despotic governments discipline those who, with us, would be the “dangerous class,” and rely upon them for the support of law and order; and, if we fail to promote the peaceable and profitable action of these impulses, an armed police, the nucleus of a standing army, will be the consequence of our neglect. Pardon me for drawing an illustration from your own homes. Nothing essential to comfort is wanting there. Your extensive libraries add to the charms of family intercourse. The chiseled marble and glowing canvass grace your walls. And, at your bidding, music sends over your social group her enlivening and purifying influence. Yet, despite these abundant means of domestic enjoyment, your growing children weary of home. You gladly gather their young friends around them in the evening party; you

welcome gratefully the card which invites them to an evening of merriment under the roof of a judicious friend; and you open to them the concert and lecture room, and every other means of virtuous enjoyment offered by society. The love of novelty is natural to your children. By providing amusements, which are harmless, if not profitable for them, you hope to retain their confidence and love, and save them from the allurements of folly and vice. Your conduct is prompted by your parental instincts, and sanctioned by your experience. And it would be well for society to follow your example. The children of the poor and ignorant differ not essentially from yours. Their appetite for pleasure is as keen, they are not more sedate, nor has nature given them greater power of enduring trial or resisting temptation.

Crime is not the inevitable consequence of ignorance, but they have close and important relations. And I believe the day is not far distant, when the commonwealth will be constrained, not only to offer a generous elementary education to all her children, but to treat the failure of a parent to secure its advantages to a child as a forfeiture of parental rights. I had occasion recently to request some information on this subject from the heads of our penal establishments, the Clerk of the Quarter Sessions of the County, and the gentlemen who have held the office of Prosecuting Attorney for Philadelphia during the last five years. The replies were all concurrent; and the information they furnished cannot fail to interest in this connection, though it was obtained for another and different purpose. The statistics of the Penitentiary, and the convict department of the County Prison, show that less than two per cent. of the whole number of convicts are thoroughly educated. Of one hundred and forty-nine prisoners received into the Eastern Penitentiary from this city and county, between January 1st, 1846, and December 17th, 1849, twenty-eight had received a tolerable elementary education; twenty-three could neither read nor write; twenty-five could "read a little;" and seventy-three could read and write imperfectly.* During the years 1847 and 1848, three hundred and thirty-five prisoners were received into the convict department of the County Prison, of whom one hundred and twenty-six could neither read nor write; ninety could "read a little;" one hundred and sixteen could read and write imperfectly;† and three were well educated. Of twenty-one persons under conviction of riot in the County Prison, on the 19th of December, 1849, eight could not read; three could read, but not write; seven could read and write, but knew nothing of arithmetic; and three could read, write, and cipher. No one of them had a good elementary education. Of two hundred and thirty-seven boys over thirteen years of age, received into the White Department of the Refuge, between January 1st, 1847, and December 17th, 1849, forty-two could read well; one hundred and fifty-three could "read a little;" and forty-two could not read at all. The Clerk of the Sessions says that a large majority of the persons held to bail in the court for riot, and other offences involving a breach of the peace, are "destitute of education, being unable to write their names to the bail-bond." Messrs. Wharton, Webster, and Reed, who have in turn prosecuted the pleas of the commonwealth in this county for the last five years, agree that, with few exceptions, this class of offenders are "almost utterly uneducated." Nor do these facts stand alone. No graduate of the Philadelphia High School is known to have been charged with the commission of a crime; and, though I have made efforts to discover the fact, if it were so, I have not learned that a single person who has completed the excellent course of instruction given in our Grammar Schools, has ever been tried or arraigned in a criminal court.‡

*Those marked in the above list as able to read and write are so registered upon their answers to questions at the time of their reception. It seldom amounts to more than being able to read indifferently, and write very poorly; not one in twenty being able to write a fair and connected letter.—*Note from Thomas Scattergood, Warden, E. P.*

†Of these not more than one-fourth can be said to do more than write their names.—*First Annual Report of the Board of Inspectors.*

‡For nearly two years I was prosecuting attorney in this county, and from the period when I went into office down to the present moment, comprising an interval of five years, I have paid much attention to the working of the criminal system. From being, during the whole of this period, a Director of the Public Schools, my consideration has naturally been employed on the question how far public crime is affected by public education; and at one time I compiled a tabular statement of my observations on this particular point. I need now only give you the result, which is that, whether in prison waiting trial, or in prison after trial, charged with riot or turbulence, I have never known a single pupil of the High School. I can go further, and say that, in all the cases in which recognizances of bail were taken, and in which the defendant was produced for the purpose of writing his name, and in all cases which by any test the educational position of the defendant could be evolved, I never knew, with but one exception, of a pupil of the public schools, of a higher grade than the third division, concerned.—*Note from Francis Wharton, Esq.*

Let me not be misunderstood. I am not maintaining that man is wholly the creature of circumstances; or that instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, in grammar, geography, and mathematics, will purify his nature or defend him against all the assaults of folly and sin. What I mean to say is, that comprehension of, and facility in, these branches of learning, elementary as they are, open to him vast fields of profit, pleasure, and advancement, from which his ignorant brethren are excluded: and that the fact that a boy has passed years in the Grammar School, proves that his childhood was not homeless; that he had friends to watch over him, to encourage and counsel him, to guard him from vicious associations, to stimulate his emulation, and gratify his appetite for refined and profitable pleasures. Did our parental and fraternal sympathies extend beyond our own homes, we would oftener pity than condemn the turbulent youth of our suburbs. Go with me to one of their homes; not to that of the boy who never knew his parents, and has grown from infancy on the rough charities of the poor; nor the son of the destitute widow, who, toiling wearily for food, clothes, and rent, reluctantly leaves her boy throughout the day to his own guidance, and the companionship afforded by the alley in which they live; nor the son of the inebriate, who labors by day only to purchase madness for the night. Such, though far from being exaggerated cases, do not illustrate the point under consideration so well as the apprentices of our well-conditioned mechanics. Many of these are worthy farmers' sons. The father's well-tilled farm will support the family; but is too small to be again divided. The son must, therefore, carve out his own fortune. He is now a well-grown boy, and, having enjoyed the example of his father's temperance and industry, the care and counsel of his fond mother, and such slender means of education as the wayside school affords, he turns his steps towards the city, as the field of widest and most varied enterprise. His object is the acquisition of a trade, by which he may gain an honest and independent livelihood. When his heart swells with recollections of home, he turns to the future and thinks of the happy time to come, when, as a successful master-workman, his roof shall shelter, and his means maintain his aged parents. Finding employment, he enters on his apprenticeship. In his master he also finds a friend. Their contract, however, is a mere bargain, from which both parties expect advantage. The boy binds himself to give years of willing and obedient labor as the consideration for food, clothing, and instruction in the art and mystery of the calling of his choice. The master—a kind-hearted man and good mechanic—is cheered in his toil by the hope of making something more than a bare living for the little family with which God has blessed him. His home is in a respectable neighborhood. Embellished by few luxuries, it is well supplied with the means of substantial comfort. The snug parlor, darkened at other times, is open to the family on Sunday, or when a few friends visit the master's thrifty helpmate. In the rear of the parlor is the little dining-room, warmed by the kitchen stove, around which the family gathers in the evening for the gossip of the day and neighborhood. In the attic is the boy's clean and well-made bed. The little room, though well finished, is without grate or fireplace. To warm it through the long evenings of the winter, when books or intercourse with young companions might engage him, would involve the master in the purchase of a stove, fuel, and lights; a serious item of expenditure, which the custom of the trade would not sanction, and the exigencies of the case do not require; indeed, the boy does not expect it. He knows that he enjoys more comforts than most of his class, and is grateful for them. He cannot, however, let his love of quiet and study be keen as it may, confine himself in his cold chamber through the long winter evenings. True, he is not denied—nay, he is sometimes welcomed—to a place in the "sitting-room." He need not, however, attempt to read there; nor can he join as equal participant in the conversation. Feeling restraint from the presence of the heads of the family, he soon discovers that he too is a restraint on them. His acquaintances in the city are few, and remembering the oft repeated admonitions of his mother against evil company, he is indisposed to increase their number; but he goes forth to escape the irksomeness of home. And where does he go? To visit friends in the bosom of a virtuous and intelligent family? Alas, he is a stranger! He goes, however, where society in its wisdom and goodness invites him—to the street corner, the hose or engine house, the beer shop, or the bar-room—and if he go not speedily thence, to worse places—But I need not follow him. Were he a son of yours, your fears would indicate the thousand dangers that surround him.

The same point is presented with equal clearness and force in a pamphlet, understood to be from the pen of the Rt. Rev. Bishop Potter, entitled "An Appeal to Philadelphians."

"Idleness is ever an abounding source of evil and misconduct. What, then, may not be anticipated from the idleness of boys and young men congregated in large numbers in the streets—full of reckless courage and lust of adventure—subject to manifold occasions of excitement—banded together, perhaps, by vows of fellowship and mutual support—unawed by a united and efficient police—often sheltered by darkness—and fired, it may be, by the remembrance of wrongs still unavenged. Yet it is to the street alone, that many of these young men and boys can be expected to resort. After the evening meal is finished, and until the hour for sleep arrives, the homes of many of them offer neither attraction nor restraint. If they have money, the cheap theatre, the bowling alley, the gaming house, the well warmed and well lighted tipping shop holds out its lure, and through that lure, multitudes of unsuspecting youths are yearly drawn down to the gates of the Destroyer. Money, however, is that which most of them want. Hence, in many instances, petty thefts to enable them to compass the means of indulgence—hence, more frequently, street gatherings for the younger, and meetings in the hose-house or engine-house, for the elder. Hence, the bands that we often pass at the corners of streets, and the throngs that gather round the avenues to each place of vulgar amusement. Hence, fire-alarms are raised, and too often fires are even kindled, that hostile companies may be brought into conflict, and the opportunity for tumultuous excitement enjoyed. The aggregate result is seen in a spirit of wide-spread misrule among the young, which, by its outbreaks, has often brought disgrace on the community, sacrificed many valuable lives, destroyed a vast amount of property, turned capital and enterprise from the city to locations less exposed to outrages and tumults, subjected multitudes to extreme terror, and often to great danger, and which, at this moment, may well fill the heart of every reflecting citizen with anxious foreboding."

According to the reasonings and suggestions of these admirable addresses, one method of correcting the alarming social evil under consideration, is to find useful and attractive evening occupation for the persons here described. The method which, thus far, has been found most efficient for this purpose, is the opening of evening schools. It is proposed also, in connection with these schools, to institute reading rooms and libraries in the several suburban districts, where these apprentices chiefly reside. Such schools and reading-rooms, with their accompaniments of popular lectures and books, their pleasant accommodations and social aspect, can hardly fail to exert a counteracting influence upon the present downward tendencies of society.

"Experience proves," says Bishop Potter, "in the pamphlet just referred to, "that a comfortable school-room, with instruction and supervision from intelligent and conscientious persons, will, at once, draw large bodies of these lads and young men within their walls. Experience demonstrates, too, that when once admitted, they become attached to their teachers, interested in their studies, and respectful to the authority of the school.

"Experience shows yet further, that this amelioration in manner and deportment, extends from the school-room to the street, the work-shop, and the home. Most gratifying facts have reached the Committee in illustration of this last remark, and they are precisely such facts as might have been anticipated. Awaken in the young feelings of kindness and gratitude—inspire a sense of self-respect and desire for knowledge and improvement—teach, experimentally, the pleasure and advantage of sustaining order and authority in a small community like the school, and we have then a strong pledge for their good behaviour at all times, and in all places."

Again, he remarks in regard to very many of both sexes, and of different ages, whose improvement cannot be provided for in Evening Public Schools :—

“ They are either too much occupied or too much advanced in knowledge. They need, however, a comfortable and respectable retreat, where they can pass a quiet hour in reading good books, or in listening to instructive and entertaining lectures. Others, who are younger or less advanced in knowledge, would be willing—if opportunity were given—to enter upon studies higher than those pursued in the Public Grammar Schools. For these last, rooms might be provided, in which, under teachers employed by themselves, or by others acting in their behalf, they could prosecute such branches as might best comport with their interests or tastes. During one-half the year, also, Evening Schools are not likely to be kept; and it is much to be desired, that at such times there should be other places of resort, where the tastes and habits developed in the school room, can be cherished rather than discouraged.”

It would be premature, perhaps, from the limited experience as yet recorded, to draw any very general or absolute inferences in regard to the final result of this agency. At the same time, the Committee feel authorized to say that, so far as they are apprised, nothing has yet occurred in the history of these efforts, that may be considered of an untoward character; on the contrary, very many facts have come to their knowledge, of the most cheering sort. They believe the friends of education, generally, should be encouraged to go on, and give the plan a thorough and efficient trial. In the city of New York, where the plan originated, and where it has been tried longer and more thoroughly than elsewhere, those conversant with the subject, speak in terms of the highest confidence as to its entire ultimate success. The extracts which follow are from the Report of the Board of Education of the city of New York, on Evening Schools, April, 1850.

“ Additional and gratifying evidences of the successful results arising from the establishment of the system of Evening School Education, have enabled your Committee to present, in this Report, detailed statements of an increase during the past season, not only in the number of schools opened, and the increased and growing attendance of members, but a deep and absorbing interest taken by those for whose benefit these schools were specially designed and established. It is a source of great pleasure to the friends of universal education, that the means can be easily devised, by which the classes which are virtually excluded from the advantages afforded by the Day Schools, may be brought under the influences of education and instruction.”

“ The term commenced on the first of October, and continued seventeen weeks, (exclusive of two weeks' vacation during the holiday season,) closing about the middle of February.

“ The amount of moneys expended for the organization and support of Evening Schools, has been \$14,353 67, including \$64 68 paid for printing the last Annual Report.”

“ The number of Teachers employed in the male departments of the Evening Schools, was fifty-three: in the female departments, twenty-seven, (all of which were females;) and three in the colored school: in all, eighty-three.

“ The number of Pupils that were registered in these schools during the term, was 5,255 males, 2,166 females: and in the colored school, 217: in all, 7,638.”

“ Of the number registered the last term, 849 were upwards of 21 years of age—being an increase of 268 of this class over the previous season; showing that those of our adult population, whose education has been neglected, are beginning to be awakened to the importance of the advantages that they can derive from these schools; and it is to be hoped, that this class will continue to increase in numbers, from year to year, as greater facilities shall be accorded to them, our Evening Schools

become more known, and their importance more fully appreciated. Some of the teachers seemed to have labored under some difficulty in classifying men with small boys, by following the usual mode of placing all, in the same classes, without respect to age, according to their advancement in learning. It is believed and recommended, that little or no regard should be had in forming classes from adult pupils, except to place them by themselves; they certainly ought not to be classed with small boys, or in any way be placed where they would be liable to be annoyed by them, their feelings injured, or their pride wounded, by their thoughtless remarks. If classed at all, let them be classed by themselves, and as much personal attention be given them as can be possibly spared by the teachers.

"Of the number registered, 1,094 were unable to read, and 2,035 who could read but imperfectly, or of the lowest grade of reading, showing 3,129 who had previously received but little education."

"The number that could not write was 2,036, and 4,069 were not acquainted with the simple rules of Arithmetic."

"There has also been connected with every school, classes, and in some schools quite large classes, of persons who have been pursuing the higher branches of an English education, especially Book-keeping, which seems to be a favorite study among the pupils of this class in the male departments."

"The apprehensions that existed before the Female Schools were opened, as to the propriety of their establishment, have proven to be entirely groundless. No complaint of any kind, from any quarter, has been made to your Committee; whilst on the other hand, all who have visited them—have borne willing testimony to their excellence—spoken of them in terms of the highest praise, and have viewed them in no way second in importance and utility to the schools established for the other sex."

"Almost every teacher that has been engaged in the Evening Schools, has also been engaged in some of the public day schools. This almost double duty is thought by many to be more than the ordinary run of teachers could bear; but little or no complaint has been made since the Evening Schools have been established, and the teachers have, generally, met with success, and been able to discharge, satisfactorily, both duties. And it may be considered as fortunate for the success and continuance of the Evening Schools, that it is so—for it is doubted whether competent, and in all respects capable persons, could be found among those not actively engaged in the profession."

In Philadelphia, this subject was comparatively new, except to a few, until the meeting of the National Convention of the friends of Education, in October, 1849. The discussion of the subject, which then arose, was followed by subsequent discussion, and finally by efficient action. First, several schools were opened by the subscriptions of private individuals, and met with such entire success, that about the middle of the winter, the Controllers of the Public Schools resolved to engraft a series of Night Schools upon the existing system of Public Schools, and to maintain them as the other schools were maintained, at the public expense. Although it was late in the season before the final action of the Controllers in the matter, yet, in a few weeks, more than two thousand pupils were gathered into the schools. The Controllers have not yet published a report of their proceedings, but it is understood that the result, though only partial, has been, like that of the schools established by private contributions, highly satisfactory, and that they contemplate, immediately, such an extension of the system, as shall accommodate the whole existing want.

One of the Evening Schools, maintained by private subscription, (The Logan School,) has published a report of its proceedings, which contains many items of interest and of value, in determining the proper mode of conducting such institutions.

"The number of pupils for which the school-room had been furnished prior to the opening of the school, was 100. Such, however, was the eager desire for admission manifested by crowds of applicants, that additional furniture was procured, and the number admitted during the first week allowed to reach 147, and then 50 or more applicants were rejected. The average nightly attendance until the Christmas holidays exceeded 100. The dissipation of this week, the Committee are led to believe, withdrew many who had formed the resolution to devote their evenings to mental improvement.

Again, in the seventh week of the term, the opening of the Public Evening Schools withdrew a considerable number of pupils residing at a great distance from the Logan School, and in the vicinity of some one of the Public Schools. The number attending, however, was increased by the admission of new pupils; but shortly after, say about the 1st of February, began to diminish, and continued gradually so to do as business operations for the spring trade progressed, until the close of the school term.

The whole number of pupils that attended the School was 216; the weekly average number *belonging* (attending the whole or some part of each week) 97.6; the average nightly attendance 78.5.

The ages of the pupils were as follows:—70 under 16; 119 between 16 and 21 years; 24 over 21 years; 3 age not recorded.

The average age, adding half a year for fractional excess, was 18.32 years.

Your Committee, from an intimate acquaintance with the operations of the School, feel justified in asserting that the class for whose especial benefit it was established, viz: those who in the period of life usually allotted to schooling had not enjoyed the benefit of proper instruction, and whose business engagements would now prevent them from attending a day school, formed the entire body of the School, while a decided majority was composed of young men from 16 to 21 years of age. They feel, too, that the average attendance of the pupils generally, and especially the regular attendance of young men who, after laboring during the day, walked from two to three and a half miles to school, authorize them to assert that *Evening Schools for Young Men of the working classes are wanted.*

The list of occupations shows, too, that the School was not filled by the commanding authority of a few large manufacturers, but that apprentices from a hundred or more workshops, embracing all the leading mechanical pursuits, voluntarily devoted their evenings to mental culture.

The experience of the school term just closed has somewhat modified the opinions of the Committee on various points, and as the conclusions to which this experience has led may prove serviceable to those to whom the future management of the School shall be entrusted, they are here given.

1st. The Committee are of opinion that pupils under 16 years of age should be excluded from *evening schools for young men.* The experience of this, as well as most, if not all other evening schools in which the younger pupils have been admitted, having shown that the discipline adapted to them is not suited to the older pupils, and not unfrequently induces the latter class to leave the school.

2ndly. That the school term should be from October 1st to February 28th, a period of five months. With the month of March, the spring business fairly sets in, and business occupations oblige a large number of the pupils to leave.

3rdly. The school hours adopted by the Committee, viz: From 7 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 9 $\frac{1}{4}$ P. M., are approved, if the term close with the month of February. If it continue during March, the hours should be changed to 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ P. M.

4thly. The Committee are of opinion that the tuition fee of ten cents charged, operated as a stimulant to regular attendance. This the small average absenteeism of 19.5 per cent. they think tends to confirm. As it is probable, however, that in the ensuing fall the Public Schools of our city and adjacent districts will be opened free of charge, the charging a tuition fee by any other school would be a matter of questionable expediency.

5thly. The Committee have not changed their opinion as to the inexpediency of allotting more than twenty-five scholars to a teacher. Indeed, a smaller number should, they think, compose a class wherever the means for providing the requisite corps of teachers are at command.

6thly. In regard to the studies which should be pursued, the Committee believe that they should be determined by the wants of the scholars, which will be found to vary in different sections. A reference to the list of occupations of the pupils of the Logan School will show that they came, almost without exception, from workshops and fac-

tories. Their examination on admission showed that there were none that did not require instruction in the three elementary branches of an English education, Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic: hence their studies were confined to them. With pupils more advanced, who would probably be found in evening schools in the more central portions of our city, the Committee doubt not the expediency of instructing in more advanced studies.

7thly. The religious exercises at the opening and closing of the school meet the approval of the Committee. These exercises, which at first called forth the ridicule of some of the scholars, in a few evenings claimed their respectful attention, and, the Committee believe, exerted a most salutary influence.

8thly. As to Lectures, and instruction in Vocal Music. Believing that a course of Lectures on the Mechanical Powers and the Principles of Mechanics would prove interesting as well as profitable to the pupils, and that instruction in Vocal Music would probably be a pleasant variation from the dry (as it was feared they would be thought) studies of the school, the Committee devoted Wednesday evening to these two subjects; but found that to the younger pupils they presented no attractions, while not a few of the older ones were desirous to continue the regular school studies on that evening. The Committee, therefore, towards the close of the term, devoted that evening principally to instruction in Arithmetic. The want of proper apparatus for illustrating the lectures was, the Committee believe, the principal cause of want of interest in them, manifested by the younger pupils. In regard to instruction in Vocal Music, the Committee believe that it does not present attractions greater than the more important matters embraced in the regular studies of the School, and therefore doubt the expediency of occupying the time of the scholars with it.

The Committee have thought it important to the interests of the subject committed to them, thus to collect and present in some connected form, the experience and opinions of those who have been most active in making the experiment. They would conclude their Report, by repeating their conviction of the importance and feasibility of the project, and by recommending to the Convention, the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved, That this Convention recommends to the earnest consideration of the community in the several States, the propriety of establishing, generally, free Evening Schools for adults, and for young persons who are not in attendance upon day schools.

APPENDIX NO. III.

REPORT

READ BEFORE THE CONVENTION,

BY

SAMUEL M. HAMILL, A. M.,

of Lawrenceville, New Jersey.

“*Resolved*, That the whole subject of instruction and training, not heretofore provided for, be referred to a Select Committee of five, to report at the next annual meeting of this Convention.”

The following subjects are included under the above resolution, viz :
Physical, Intellectual, Esthetical, and Industrial Instruction.
Studies—Books, Apparatus, Methods.

On these subjects, your Committee beg leave to present the subjoined report :

As this is the first report on these topics, we suppose it should be general in its character ; rather a bringing out into a more prominent view the various topics referred, than an entering into a minute detail with regard to any one of them.

From the sacred Scriptures, we learn that the great Jewish law-giver gave prominence to moral and religious training. The moral and religious man was *the* man. To this one prominent and important idea all others were subordinated.

And yet, in the history of Scripture characters, we have evidence that the proper culture of the intellectual and physical man was duly regarded. In testimony of which, we have the sublime poetry of David and Job, and the high-wrought strains of Isaiah. And, as to physical culture, what muscular power must have been in the arm that slew the proud Philistian Giant.

The Persians, Grecians, Spartans and Romans gave special attention to physical training. They seemed to be impressed with the idea that alternate mental and physical culture were mutually necessary for the health and vigor of both mind and body. They were rightly impressed. If they erred, it was in giving too great prominence to mere physical training. Let us not, however, err on the other hand, in neglecting to give due attention to

PHYSICAL INSTRUCTION.

In endeavoring to give a right direction to moral culture, and to bring out in every possible way the full development of the intellectual man, it is of much importance that physical education receive due attention. In looking after the tenant, let not the dwelling be entirely forgotten. The very thrift and health and life which characterize it, are identified too often and too fully with the thrift and health and life of that which it contains, the moral and intellectual man.

But, what can the instructor do to promote physical education? We remark he can regard

1. The *Posture* of his pupil. Let proper attention be paid to this in the school-room, in the class-room, and in every place where the pupil comes under the eye of his instructor. Let the posture, at study, be such as will not check the proper action and growth of any part of the system. When a class is called up to recite, let the same attention be paid to right posture. Too long continuance in one posture should be avoided. This can be done by frequent intermissions. Also, by requiring a change of position at recitation. Where the recitations are short, the standing posture may be very properly assumed, and with benefit to health. This is especially desirable in schools where studying and reciting are all done in one room. And this is the case in a large proportion of the district schools. In country schools it is universally so. Pupils should constantly be reminded of the great importance of sitting and standing erect. Posture in sitting, and standing, and walking, too, has much more influence on the physical development and general health of the young, than many are willing to admit. Let it have its proper place, then, in the scale of physical education.

2. The great promoter of physical development is *Exercise*. The kind of exercise must vary according to the location of the school. In the city, gymnastic exercises are almost indispensable. These may be introduced to any extent. And, perhaps, the greater the variety the better. In the city, access to a gymnasium, or play-ground, of some extent, ought to be a part of the arrangements for every school.

In the country, these are not needed. There the school boy has nature's wide gymnasium. Breathing the purest air, stretching himself at length to lap the purest liquid from the gurgling spring, or taking a hasty draught from the "old oaken bucket that stands by the well;" trudging along, with his basket on his arm, and pacing daily, with a

light heart, his two or three or four miles; rambling in the woods at noon; running with his comrades; jumping the fence; leaping the brook; mounting the hill; and hieing away to his home at the return of evening's brown shade. What are gymnastics to him? Feasting his eyes with extended landscapes, and drinking in continually the simplest, sweetest, most enchanting music that nature can give. What are gymnastics to him? To introduce them here would be carrying coals to Newcastle. This is the exercise that Providence gives him, and in the full and unrestrained enjoyment of which, he marches up to the threshold of manhood, with a full grown, healthy, vigorous frame.

Another mode of exercise, conducive to physical development, is horsemanship. This can be resorted to, both in town and country. It is both healthful and manly.

Another mode still, highly conducive to health and cleanliness, is bathing and swimming. This latter was a favorite exercise with the great American philosopher, Benjamin Franklin. It ought to be encouraged. It should not be carried to excess, but to the limit of promoting healthful action of the physical man—let it be commended. The thermæ of the Grecians were found in connection with their athletic exercises, and were resorted to by the Athenian school boy.

3. Another item in physical training that should not be lost sight of, is *manner*. How important that the instructor should inculcate good manners. Who does not remember the incident of the "Father of his Country," when walking with a friend. They met a negro—he politely bowed. Washington returned the compliment. His companion said, "Do you bow to a negro?" "Sir," said that great man, "do you suppose I would allow myself to be outdone in politeness by a negro?"

Some time ago, we passed a country school-house. It was noon. The scholars were coming out. They all bowed—we returned the compliment. The incident impressed us, and we went on our way pleased with the reflection that the instructor was regardful of manner.

We knew a case of an individual, who, when a small boy, was sent on an errand by his mother on Christmas morning. The lady to whom he had carried the message, handed him a cake. He ran home and showed it to his mother. Said she, "My son, did you thank the lady for that cake?" He said, "No, mamma, I forgot." Said she, with a countenance that indicated Roman firmness, "go right back and thank the lady for your cake." He trudged through the snow, knocked at the door, asked for the lady, and said, "Madam, I have come to thank you for that cake." The lady gave him further presents, and he went home with a light heart, and never after forgot to say, "*Thank you.*"

4. We have alluded to *frequent intermissions*, as an item worth regarding in physical training. It is easily carried out in any school arrangement, and may be even made conducive to system and order. At the expiration of every hour, for example, let the whole school be set at liberty, to run out and breathe the fresh air, and stretch their

limbs, and quench their thirst. It need not occupy more than three or five minutes, and it will be found to be largely promotive of healthy physical training.

5. Another promoter of physical development, is abundance of light and air. Let not the school boy be stinted with regard to either of them. The God of nature has bestowed them in the greatest profusion. Let the pupil freely enjoy them.

ESTHETICAL INSTRUCTION.

The subject of Esthetical Instruction, is one of great importance. Your Committee would like to give it a more extended notice than the limits of this report will allow. And while they would here recommend, that the subject of Esthetical Instruction, with what may be legitimately comprehended under it, might very properly be made a theme of more extended report at some future time; a mere passing notice must, for the present, suffice.

That the cultivation of taste, of a love for the beautiful, a fondness for the fine arts, should receive attention in a course of academic training, there can be no doubt. The study of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres, should have a place in any thing that would assume the name of a course of Education. Without attention to all these, a good education is incomplete; and although it may be thought that these belong to the higher regions of intellectual training, yet they should not be lost sight of in the common school.

The elements of good taste, of beauty of thought, and of expression, should be presented to the mind and impressed upon it, in the earliest stages of education. We would not put into the hands of the little learner, a copy of Blair, or Campbell, or Kames, or some affiliated work, or a learned disquisition on the fine arts; yet we would have the instructor in the elementary school, no matter where that school may be, whether in town or country, in crowded metropolis, or standing on the mountain side, in the most retired corner of the land—we would have the instructor, in his forms of expression, in his mode of instruction, in his language of address to his pupils, in his intercourse with them, present to their minds that which is promotive of good taste, and which is consistent with correctness and beauty of expression, of sentiment, of thought, and of feeling. The little one may thus be made the infant rhetorician, the embryo artist, the child-like critic, or the youthful moralizer. Thus too, peculiar mental bias will be developed. Seed will be sown which will grow, which will yield fruit; and thus too, an impulse may be given, which, with increasing momentum, will push the youthful aspirant on, with a growing appetite, until he rushes with manly step and lofty aim, into the vast and beautiful regions, where taste, and art, and science, still undeveloped, sublimely hold their boundless stores.

INDUSTRIAL INSTRUCTION.

The term *industrial* is used with great latitude of signification. We shall here employ it as referring to the habit of industry.

Most children are naturally indisposed to intellectual effort. And yet, industry is very important. For without industrious habits, the pupil will make but little advancement. Application has more influence on advancement and intellectual attainment than the instruction given. The allegory of Genius and Application is most apt. Close and diligent attention is necessary to any good degree of benefit from the best course of training.

Indolence is greatly to be discarded. It is the prolific source of vice. It is the mother of crime, poverty, disease, death. It is the bane of the school and class room, and will silently, and yet effectually counter-vail the influence of the best course of instruction, and the best mode of imparting it.

To this point, then, let the teacher's attention be directed. Here let him constantly keep his eye. But what shall he do? How shall he make an idle boy an industrious boy? "*Hoc opus, Hic labor est.*" This is work, This is labor.

Let us suggest First. Cultivate his sense of shame. Impress his mind with the idea that it is discreditable to be idle. Let this impression be made as deep as possible. So much so, that he cannot get rid of it. *That an idle boy is a disgrace to himself, his school and his friends.* Idleness promises no good. It forebodes much evil.

2nd. *Reverse the Picture.* Present to his mind the pleasures of industry. That there is pleasure in the industrious use of time and privileges. That "the hand of the diligent maketh rich." That there is *power* in industry. For it is the "*labor improbus*" that accomplishes its end, that overcomes all obstacles. Industry commands respect, confidence, approbation. The industrious boy is likely to be the industrious man. The lad, who, by the diligent improvement of time and privileges, has made himself a scholar, has, at the same time, established a character for reliability, for efficiency. Let this view be presented fully and distinctly to his mind—he that is faithful in little, will also be faithful in much.

A single glance at these two pictures is not sufficient. The pupil should be led up to look upon them often,—the ugliness of the one, and the beauty of the other, should be kept before his mind until he has thoroughly learned to hate indolence, and love industry.

3rd. Exercise such discipline as will suit the case, and as will make him feel that it is harder work to be idle than to be industrious. That the law proclaimed, 6,000 years ago,—"*by the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread,*"—cannot even now be violated with impunity. That he himself must be the greatest sufferer. That the rules of the school do not admit of idleness. That the whole system is based upon the supposition that every pupil be industrious. That an idle boy disturbs

the working of that system, mars the harmony of the whole movement, and strongly tends to unsettle the whole.

4th. Assign him short and frequent lessons. Do not alarm him with work that is too hard. A short task is soon accomplished. A difficult task is apt to dishearten; but an easier one will be taken hold of with interest and satisfaction. By thus accomplishing *something*, the disposition will be induced to endeavor to accomplish *more*. More will be accomplished. You do much for a lad when you make him feel that he has power; that he can accomplish *something*. You do much for him when you strike out from his vocabulary that trite expression of the school-room and class-room, "*I can't.*" Youth easily acquire habits, and habits have a most powerful influence; they constitute character. The youth of good habits, is a youth of good character. The youth of bad habits, is a youth of bad character. A good character is a great blessing; a bad one a great curse. The cultivation and the formation of good habits, then, is a source of great blessing. And is not this one of the great points to be aimed at in a course of education?

5th. Let the old Roman sentiment "*quisque suæ fortunæ faber,*" every one the fabricator of his own fortune, be impressed upon his mind. And let that higher sentiment of holy writ be still more impressed, "*the soul of the diligent shall be made fat.*" Teach him that in the very indisposition to improve his time and privileges, he is exercising ingratitude to him who has given him both. And that as an accountable being he will soon be called upon to answer at that bar, whence there is no appeal.

These things should be impressed upon his mind continually. Let not the instructor be wearied in well-doing. If the labor be great, how great the reward if the end be accomplished. How great too, if it fail, in the rich persuasion that he has endeavored to do his duty.

INTELLECTUAL INSTRUCTION.

The subject of intellectual training next claims our attention. We come here into a more elevated region. As the mind is superior to the tenement that houses it, so the cultivation of the mind is of much higher importance. The tenement crumbles to the earth, the spirit goes back to him that gave it.

What a field have we here! How wide its range! How boundless its extent! Who can fathom the depth? Who shall measure the length? What stretch of human vision shall discover the height of Heaven-created intellect?

But, how shall it be trained? How developed? How expanded? How educated?

In general, we might remark that that mode of intellectual instruction is best which is best adapted to the development of intellect.

To settle on such a mode of intellectual instruction the mind itself should become a subject of investigation. The instructor must study the intellectual character of his pupils, one by one. He should thoroughly acquaint himself with the mental structure of every pupil. His most important class-book should be the mass of mind that is spread out before him in his own school-room. Of this he should make himself complete master. Each pupil should constitute a chapter, and each chapter should be read and re-read until he fully understands every mind that he is endeavoring to cultivate and improve.

The result of this investigation will exhibit the fact that mind varies. That in some the intellect is stronger, in some weaker. That the one needs simple direction and control, the other stimulus. That the mode of training must somewhat vary in the two cases. That one can be drawn out by one mode, and another by another mode. That the intellectual appetite varies. That in one case it will devour one class of studies with avidity, and in another, another class entirely will be sought after with equal gusto. The inclination of the intellectual appetite should be observed, and properly controlled and directed; and that aliment should be served up, which the appetite, in its healthy action, most naturally seeks. The youthful intellect, thus trained, will grow until it has reached a healthy and vigorous manhood.

The process of intellectual culture must be slow. In the land in which we dwell, every thing moves forward with unparalleled rapidity. On east and west, earth's noblest oceans dash against our shores. We bathe in the Atlantic surf, and fancy flies away to the Pacific coast, and calls it home. Young sovereign States, as if by magic, grow and shape themselves, and to the Union's opening door they march and ask admission. The lightning bears the tidings; and wheeling engines on the unerring track, not far behind, bring swiftly on the anxious senators.

In this state of things, where every thing is thus driven, there is a wonderful tendency to drive the human intellect. To make the child at once a man. To force the tender plant, by speedy process, to its full-grown size. The tide of interest in educational training we would help onward. May Heaven's best blessing attend the noble enterprise, that shall rouse the public mind to a right appreciation of the grandeur of this whole subject, and that will give to every child that treads Columbia's chosen soil the privilege of a good education.

But we have no sympathy with that course of training which would send a youth by a single bound from the lowest into the highest regions of intellectual culture. It is against reason, against nature, against analogy.

The acorn leaps not at once into the "brave old oak;" but the nobly spreading tree that stretches out its massive arms and has defied the blasts of a hundred winters, has gone through a process of training under the disciplinary action of sun and wind and hail and rain, through the period of a century.

Shall the being that has been thrown into the commencement of his existence here, to tarry awhile awaiting a nobler destiny, and who, in

the arrangements of an all-wise Providence, is required to spend some twenty years in slowly treading the tardy way from infancy to manhood, be expected to go with telegraphic speed from ignorance to knowledge? Can the infant in a moment become the giant? Is it the nature of mind thus to expand?

Ideas to the mind are what the dew-drops are to the vegetable world. They come, they moisten, they vivify, they adorn, they go. And again they come, they moisten, they vivify, they adorn, they go. And thus the process goes on. Alternate dew and genial light and heat promote the growth; and thus the tender plant becomes mature. Compared with the life-time of the plant, the seed often lies long buried before there is any appearance of vegetation. This, too, is often the fact in the case of the most rare and delicate plants.

So with regard to intellectual instruction. That which is to-day deposited, as good seed, in a healthy state, in the mind of a child, may not bear fruit for years. But shall the training be given up, the cultivation be neglected, because the fruit appears not suddenly matured? No! Rather let too hasty development be feared, as that which will wither for want of deepness of root, or as the unripe fruit dropping from the tree in an unhealthy state. It is that which remains, which remains for larger growth, and through the whole maturing period, that exhibits to the delighted eye of the observer, the richest qualities of ripe and full-grown fruit.

Here, we might remark, an evil in this country, and a great one; but one from which, perhaps, we are slowly recovering. We are impatient of the time it takes to make the scholar. Pupils are impatient; parents are impatient; and we might add, teachers are impatient. Impatient of the consumption of time; impatient of the expenditure of money; impatient of the necessary labor. The influence is more immediate in its action on our higher seminaries, by crowding in too much, and inducing superficialness. But it is equally powerful, though not so observable, in its action upon the common school and the general education of the country.

We love our country. It is a land of every land the pride. And yet, we are compelled to say, that Europe produces more finished men, more highly cultivated intellects than we do. But why is Europe here ahead of us? It is owing to her greater willingness to spend time and money for this great end. It is owing to a higher appreciation of the majesty of cultivated intellect. Shall we not emulate her? Shall we not go beyond her? Shall we not in the freest republic that earth has ever known; in the grandest political structure that has ever been reared; look for, hope for, toil for, developments of intellectual power, such as the history of this world has never yet unfolded?

The American teacher, in training the intellect of the country, has spread out to his hand a field such as no teacher has ever had before. Let him look at it. Let him survey it. Let him examine it. Let him take its bearings, its distances, its whole area, its entire scope. Let him contemplate its vast relations, its productive power. And, having formed a proper conception of the grandeur of his work, let him ad-

dress himself to the cultivation of this field, with the determination that every sovereign ruler that he trains, to bear his part in swaying the destinies of this great Western Empire, shall do it in a manner that will not make ashamed.

We want a higher appreciation of the importance of intellectual training.

A few years since, there was exhibited in this city, that beautiful specimen of American art, the "Greek Slave." Multitudes thronged to see it. Many came from a distance to look upon it. The press praised it. All admired it. Who that went to gaze upon it, was not constrained to stand or sit an hour, or even a day, if time allowed, with lingering admiration. Who that wandered into the adjoining halls, was not impressed that all else there was less attractive. Who was not impressed with the form, the chaste expression, the drooping countenance, the artistic skill and beauty of the whole? Who did not long to see the hand that executed, and to be brought in contact with the mind in which the grand conception first was formed?

That richly sculptured form was once a block of stone, embedded deep beneath Italian soil. This boundless continent of ours could not produce a block on which to spread the splendid visions of the youthful artist. Four thousand miles of ocean wave and lengthened sea, are quickly crossed—and Italy hands out the stone that suits the youthful laborer. He takes his station by that block. Stroke follows stroke—day succeeds day—year follows year—and yet the work is incomplete. A thousand chiselings are made, and tens of thousands still are added to the number. The last stroke, at length, is made. And there stands out, in life-like form, the Grecian captive. And that submissive hand, of purest white, so richly wrought, so highly sculptured to the very nail, though bound in chains, holds out for immortality, the name of HIRAM POWERS.

Who feels not proud to call *him* an American? Who blames him for a single stroke expended on that work of art? Who chides that year on year, of anxious thought, of laboring intellect, of toiling hand, was given to a single block of stone, to bring it into shape?

But if the meed of praise be thus, by acclamation, given to him that shapes the insentient marble, what shall be said of him that shapes the immortal mind—that trains the human intellect. What meed of praise remains for him who takes the infant block, the unshaped intellect, and after stroke on stroke, repeated over again ten thousand times, and after weeks, and months, and years of patient, long-enduring toil, hands out to men, to take his place upon the stage of life, a finished man; a scholar fully ripe; a highly cultivated intellect; a heart well kept, that beats with holy longings for immortal life?

The marble may endure for time—the immortal mind for eternity. The one will eventually crumble—the other will forever endure. The highest style of the one, you see—the noblest destiny of the other, is infinitely beyond the farthest reach of human thought. Let the importance of intellectual training, then, have its place. Let it be duly estimated. Let its estimation be high in the interest, in the affections,

in the active efforts of men, especially of the men that dwell in this favored land; for here, in this broad land, where nature, with majestic throw, has tossed her beauties every where, the longest race of human intellect may yet be run—the loftiest leap of human thought may yet be made.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

What is method? or, more to the purpose of this report, we would ask, what is a school without method?

It is like a country without roads; a farm without fences; a city without streets; a house with neither door nor window. Without method, all is disorder. Without method, what kind of business will not fall into confusion? Where, then, is there more need of it than in the school-room? Here are gathered numbers of children, of every age, from five to eighteen. They come for instruction. They come to receive impressions. They come to form habits, of which, the very habit of coming, is not the least important. They come to learn—to learn how to learn. They come to learn to spell, to read, to write, to cipher. To become geographers, historians, grammarians, scholars. They come to learn to think—to add thought to thought—to compare thought with thought. They come to march up through a course of five or ten years training, from infancy to youthful manhood. During this period, they come to the school-room—they come day-by-day—for the instructor to impress and re-impress upon their minds, his own impression. To enable him to draw out, stroke by stroke, the future man. If method is needed any where, it is surely needed here—it is needed from beginning to end; but most of all, at the beginning. If the sentiment of Rome's distinguished poet is true, any where, it is here:—

Dimidium facti, qui cœpit, habet;

He has one-half of the work done, who has begun it *in the right way*.

Teach a child to write, to read, to calculate, and to think, and you have placed his feet in the great highway on which Newton traveled to the discovery of that grand principle, which controls ten thousand worlds in their harmonious movements, around and among each other. Teach a child to repeat, to compare, and to revolve thought, and you send him off a successful and delighted rambler into the distant climes, where Watts, and Locke, and Bacon luxuriated, and gathered trophies for an admiring world.

But to accomplish this, there must be method. What method? We would not be too tenacious:—But let there be method. Methods may vary, and yet each be good. They may differ, and yet each be adapted to the place and circumstances where it is adopted.

Methods must be accommodated somewhat to the age and advancement of the pupils. There are, however, some features that may be mentioned, as desirable in any method of instruction. We suggest the following :—

1. Let the method be *natural*. Let it legitimately spring out of the circumstances of the case. A method that is unnatural, or that is not fitted to the circumstances of the case, will not accomplish the end of all method.

2. Let it address as many of the *senses* as possible. Knowledge is communicated through the senses. That method, then, that will reach the greatest number of these, will make the strongest impression. Let the eye and the ear, especially, be addressed. That which meets the eye, will make a stronger impression than that which falls upon the ear.

3. Let it be *repetitious*. Let instruction be, again and again, presented under the same, or different forms—the same idea, until it finds a lodgment. Let a retentive memory be sought after, rather than a receptive. One idea retained, by being repeatedly brought before the mind, is worth a hundred received and lost. The pupil will not suffer from repetition. He may suffer much from the want of it.

4. Let it be *illustrative*. Let it present to the senses, that which has been committed to the memory. Let the pupil be thus led to compare one thing with another. By the act of comparing, and the effect of the comparison on the mind, each additional thought is more strongly and more indelibly impressed.

5. Let it be *reflective*. In other words, let it, by a mild necessity, oblige the pupil to reflect. This may be done by requiring at stated periods an original essay, or composition, or by calling for an oral sketch of the lessons of a particular day or week; or by questions that will require reflection. Let the pupil be often thrown upon his resources.

6. Let it be *short*. Not so short as to be too superficial. But never so tedious as to defeat its own object. It should be long enough to accomplish the object, but no longer. Let it not run too much into detail; detail to some extent is necessary, but when carried too far it becomes wearisome. Whenever method reaches this point, it will begin to fail.

7. Let it be *thorough*. Let it cover the whole of any subject. Let it reach the top and go to the bottom. In any investigation let the method be minute, particular, philosophical and full. Let this be the case from the spelling of a word to the solving of the most difficult problem.

8. Let it be *uniform*. We have said methods may vary. But when any method is adopted as such, let it be characterized by uniformity. Let it not be loosely adopted to-day to be more rigidly carried out to-morrow. But let it be either adopted or laid aside. Uniformity is important in any method, either of training or discipline.

9. Let it be *attractive*. Whenever a method repels, it had better be examined and improved, or entirely laid aside, and another adopted.

Simple method has vast influence on the young. Let every thing repulsive be put out of the way. And let a sufficient degree of life and interest and beauty be thrown around the method to make it attractive to the young.

10. Let it be *carried out*. Whatever be the method, let it be enforced. If defective, improve it. Do not balance between two methods, but adopt one or the other. A defective method, well carried out, is better than a good method feebly executed.

SAMUEL M. HAMILL, *Chairman*.

The whole subject of studies, books and apparatus, reported on, is omitted with the concurrence of the Chairman of the Committee.

APPENDIX NO. IV.

REPORT

READ BEFORE THE CONVENTION,

BY

R. L. COOKE,

Of New Jersey.

In entering upon the duties assigned to us, by the last National Convention of the friends of Education, your Commtee are fully sensible of the importance of the subjects submitted to our consideration. They lie at the foundation of the whole educational superstructure, and involve the only real difficulties that stand in the way of the general adoption of some system of universal education;—we would, therefore, crave the indulgence of the Convention, if the importance of the subject should lead us to occupy more of its time and attention, than otherwise we could justly claim.

Most men, in discussing the subject of “the best method of raising funds for the support of common schools,” consider the question as a matter of mere expediency, involving no *principle* as a basis of decision. Your Committee believe this to be an error. There is a fundamental principle, which once satisfactorily settled as just and right, in the minds of the community, will lead to a correct and unanimous result. This principle may be found in the proposition, that “it is not only the interest, but the highest duty of every State of this Union, to cause the means of education to be placed within the reach of every child within its bounds.”

It should doubtless be the first object of every Government, to adopt such measures as are best calculated to maintain its own stability, and secure its own perpetuity; otherwise it would be unworthy of the name;—its race would soon be run. Every Government acts accordingly, adopting such different means, as seem best adapted, in its peculiar circumstances, to the attainment of these ends.

England, thanks to her hopeless national debt, having hitherto had but little to fear from foes within, and apprehending danger only from foes without, has surrounded herself with wooden ramparts, expending countless treasures in securing to herself the supremacy of the seas.

The governments of continental Europe, differently circumstanced, have surrounded themselves with standing armies, every capital bristles with bayonets, every rampart frowns with cannon, and every crowned head trusts to the strong arm of military power, as its last, its only resort. Probably, in no other way, could these governments maintain an independent existence, even for a single year, and, therefore, they do well to persevere in these means of self-preservation, let the cost be what it may. It is a duty that they owe to themselves, paramount to all others.

Of course, we shall not be understood as commending these governments, as securing the great end, which all governments ought to have in view—the good of the people. Far from it. We are speaking simply of their duties to themselves, as the constituted authorities of the people over whom they rule, without reference to the manner in which they discharge their obligations to them. The argument requires no such reference.

Let us now turn to our own country, and see upon what we are depending for the preservation of our government, and its transmission, unimpaired, to our posterity. Separated by a vast ocean from those nations with which we are most likely to come in collision, we have nothing to fear from foreign invasion. If we are to perish as a nation, the elements of dissolution are within ourselves; if ever our country is blotted out from the catalogue of nations, the deed can be accomplished only by our own hands. Navies and standing armies are powerless, in defending us against ourselves, and, therefore, the experience of other nations is valueless to us. Our sources of danger are different from theirs, and, consequently, we must adopt different means to guard against them. Under our government, the people themselves are virtually their own rulers; their wisdom, intelligence and morality have combined to make it what it is; and we can expect to maintain its present excellence, only so long as intelligence and morality continue to be the characteristics of the great mass of our population. The representatives, who are sent to legislate for us, generally faithfully reflect the prominent characteristics of those that send them. Look at the Halls of our State Legislatures, and even of our National Councils, and, in the character of the men assembled there, you may read the social and moral condition of their constituents. You will find that those portions of our country that are most ignorant, and consequently, most depraved, are represented by noisy demagogues, whose standard of morals and education are scarcely more elevated than their own. Let a majority of the people of the United States sink to the level of these least favored portions, and we may readily conceive what sort of legislators, what sort of laws, and what sort of government we should soon have.

This is, by no means, an impossible consummation; the process of deterioration has been, for years, and now is going on with fearful rapidity. There are, at this moment, more legal voters in the United States, who cannot write the vote that they deposit in the ballot-box, or read it, when it is written, than there have been since we became a na-

tion; and their numbers are fearfully augmenting, by fresh importations from the old world, while their children are generally growing up in the same ignorance, eventually to exercise the same powers.

The question of General Education, then, is one not merely of individual advantage, but of *national existence*, and in this light it ought seriously to be considered. Without it, our government can maintain its "free and independent" character no more than the despotisms of Europe can exist without the moral suasion of the bayonet, or the convincing argument of cannon-balls; and, if it is the duty of these governments to spare no expense in maintaining their integrity, by the adoption of such means as seem to be best adapted to this end, it needs no further argument to prove that it is equally the duty of every State in the Union to secure its future welfare by the adoption of some plan that shall afford to the whole community the means of education, *let the cost be what it may!*

Having thus shown that general education is essential, as a means of national defence, and consequently that it is the duty of the State to provide for the education of all its children, the question at once arises, how can this end be most efficiently, and at the same time, economically attained?

In answering this question, it may safely be asserted, that general education cannot be attained by leaving the whole matter to the good sense, the patriotism, or even the parental affection of parents themselves. Laying out of view the fact that there are thousands of parents who are absolutely unable to afford the means necessary to give their children even the veriest rudiments of Education; and this class is very rapidly increasing upon us; there are very many who are so ignorant themselves, or who value so little the advantages of Education, having managed to acquire competence, or even wealth, without it, that they care not to confer it upon their children; some, perhaps, considering its value as somewhat questionable, reasoning like the unfortunate Dutchman, who had been defrauded by his son, "if Hans hadn't learned to read and write, he couldn't have forged my name." The number of this last class is far greater than is commonly supposed. The "voluntary principle," then, however efficacious in maintaining the ordinances of religion, is ineffectual in securing general education.

Not less ineffectual, is the plan that proposes a tax to be levied upon property, sufficient to pay for the Education of those who are unable to educate themselves, who shall be singled out as the beneficiaries of the State, leaving all others to provide for their own education. This is a favorite idea with many, especially with tax-payers, who suppose that, if it could be generally adopted, the difficulty would be met; our schools would overflow with eager pupils, and ignorance be banished from our land. In theory, it seems plausible, and doubtless would work well, were it not for the fact that "there is a great deal of human nature in men," especially in poor men, which is ordinarily developed directly in proportion to their poverty, and consequent need of help. No man likes to be called poor, let his circumstances be ever so de-

plorable. No man likes to have his children pointed out as objects of public charity; to have them taunted, boy-like, by their comrades, in moments of passion or of pride, as paupers. Multitudes would prefer to have their children grow up in ignorance, rather than subject them to the possibility of such humiliation.

It would, moreover, under this plan, be a matter of no little difficulty to determine who were proper candidates for the bounty of the State. Should complete lists be made out of those who were considered able, and of those who were not able to educate their children, many would be indignant that they had been classified among the destitute, while, probably, an equal number, whose names were upon the other list, would be dissatisfied that they did not receive some portion of the public fund.

A case within the knowledge of the writer, perfectly illustrates the above remark. Not long since, the trustees of a certain school district, passed a resolution, appropriating whatever money might be received from the State fund, exclusively to the payment of the tuition of poor children. As soon as this was known, a gentleman, of acknowledged wealth, applied to the trustees to pay, out of this little fund, the tuition of a boy whom he had taken into his family to bring up. The application was granted, and the money paid. An honest widow, residing in the vicinity, who, with difficulty, supported herself and family by the labor of her own hands, heard that a portion of this fund had been applied to the payment of her children's tuition. She immediately went to the trustees, and indignantly refused the proffered aid, asserting her ability to educate her own children without charitable assistance.

This, however, may be considered as an isolated case. Let us see, then, how the plan has succeeded on an extended scale, for it has been thoroughly tried in one of the States. In 1817, the Legislature of Virginia passed a law appropriating forty-five thousand dollars annually, solely for the education of the poor, who were to be selected by a method therein prescribed, and that law was the only school system in that State. It had, therefore, been in operation more than twenty years previous to taking the census of 1840, long enough to have educated a whole generation, if there had been any efficiency in it. By that census, however, it appears that while Virginia ranked first in territory, and fourth in population, of all the States, she occupies almost the lowest place, in point of general education. There were 329,969 white inhabitants, over 20 years of age, of which number 58,787 could neither read nor write. If, then, these figures, taken from the public documents, speak the truth, more than one in every six of the whole white population of the State of Virginia has grown up in utter ignorance, under this system of education, that professes to be sufficient for the education of the whole community.

It is gratifying to add, that Virginia has herself felt the insufficiency of this system of Education, and has made great advances in a more liberal policy. Already free schools have been established in some portions of the Old Dominion, while in others a hopeful state of feeling upon the subject prevails, that promises favorable results.

There is no other way, then, by which we can reasonably hope to afford to the entire population of the State, the means of Education, but by the establishment of a system of free schools, open to all, encouraged by all, and supported by all, by means of a tax, levied upon the whole community, just as all other taxes are levied,—and we hope to be able, briefly, to show that this plan is not only more efficacious, but more economical than any other, affording abundant remuneration in its results, to those who bear its burdens.

1st. It will secure a larger attendance of pupils.

We have already seen that schools, supported by the payment of quarterly dues, must necessarily be limited in number, from the actual inability of parents, in many cases, to meet the expense, though it may be comparatively small. The gratuitous instruction of the poor would doubtless secure a somewhat larger attendance; yet experience teaches that we cannot thereby expect a sufficient increase to meet the exigencies of the case. But when *all* may go, not as a favor, but as a right,—a right based upon the relation which they sustain to the State as citizens,—and meet their fellows on common ground, it is reasonable to expect that every parent will be anxious to send his child to school. No plan that we can devise, short of absolute compulsion, such as we find in Prussia, will gather every child into school; but a general system of free schools will undoubtedly approach nearer to this desirable end than any other.

2d. It is more congenial with the genius of our Republican Institutions.

It is no more important for the welfare of the State that the rich man's son should be educated, than the poor man's; perhaps not as much; all may in after life take an equal part in political affairs, and are alike eligible to the highest offices in the gift of the people; it is therefore necessary that they should be equally trained for the proper discharge of the duties that will devolve upon them. Our Constitution recognizes no social distinctions,—and no educational plan based upon that Constitution, that tends to make or perpetuate such distinctions, ought to find favor in a republican community. The children of the rich and of the poor are hereafter to stand side by side at the ballot-box; to sit side by side in the halls of Legislation, and it is proper that they should likewise sit side by side in the school room, and together be indoctrinated in those principles and truths that will fit them to act well their parts.

3d. It accomplishes the greatest amount of good, with the least expense.

In order to demonstrate this proposition satisfactorily, it is necessary to compare the working of the free school system, where it has been introduced, with that of other systems, that were previously in operation. Your Committee have not the data at hand, neither will our time permit, to institute such a comparison on an extended scale, but the statement of a single individual case may be sufficient.

A certain township in the State of New Jersey, containing eight hundred and forty children, of a school-going age, was formerly di-

vided into seven school districts, in all of which only one hundred and seventy-four children could be induced to attend school, when the quarterly dues were \$2.00 per quarter. By a special legislative enactment, this township was enabled to establish free schools, instead of those which had previously been in operation; the number of districts was reduced to five, and during the first six months after the free schools went into operation, the number of pupils increased to four hundred and fifty, the whole cost of whose tuition was \$1,000, or a little more than \$1.00 per quarter. At the present moment there are two hundred and seventy-four pupils attending school in one of the districts of this township, the cost of whose tuition each, per quarter, is only ninety-three cents.

But all men do not see through the same medium; it is not therefore to be expected, perhaps it is not desirable that all should think alike, even upon subjects of the greatest moment. Hence, there are some who cannot subscribe to the doctrine that free schools should universally be established, and their reasons are as various as the motives which prompt their opposition. It may not be inappropriate here to notice a few of the objections urged against free schools, and show that they do not possess the force that many suppose, and ought not to be considered fundamental. Some of these objections may seem frivolous and unworthy of a sober consideration, yet they nevertheless have their weight with some minds, which it would be well worth some trouble to disabuse.

The first objection that we will notice, assumes an imposing form. Say some, who discover an infringement of the Constitution, in every measure that is not expressly provided for in so many words in that document, especially if it involves an expenditure of money, "the Legislature has no Constitutional power to impose a tax upon one portion of the community, for the exclusive benefit of another; it therefore has no right to compel us to pay for the education of our neighbors, who may be abundantly able to do it themselves." If these premises are correct, then much of our legislation is unconstitutional, and ought not to be tolerated. For example, no tax can be more exclusively for the benefit of one portion of the community at the expense of the other, than the poor tax,—and a heavy one it is, sometimes,—yet who doubts its constitutionality, or hesitates to pay it on that ground?

Very few are so fortunate as to be the owners of horses and carriages, but all are taxed to construct roads, and keep them in good repair. Probably not one-half of those who pay this tax, ride over the roads which they help to make, scarcely once in a year, because their means are too limited to permit them to use any other modes of locomotion than that which nature provides, yet they willingly contribute to enable those who possess the means, to ride in comfort, or to transport their merchandise in safety. In this case the poorer portions of the community are taxed for the more especial benefit of the richer, but they are satisfied with the plea that the general good requires it.

The ordinance of Congress, passed in 1787, making provision for

popular education in the Territories of the North-west, then just commencing their wonderful career, places this subject in its proper light, and shows the estimate which our fore-fathers made of the constitutionality of educational appropriations. This ordinance, which is worthy of being written in letters of gold, was substantially adopted into the Constitution of Michigan,—almost in the same words: “Religion, morality, and knowledge, being essentially necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of instruction shall forever be encouraged by legislative provision, not inconsistent with the rights of conscience.”

Of no country in the world, is the saying of Edmund Burke more true than of our own, that “education is the cheap defence of nations.” It is our only sure defence, and it is no more unconstitutional to provide liberally for it than to spend millions for the support of naval and military establishments.

Some object to free schools on the plea that some times the tax bears heavily upon some individuals, who having no children to educate, can derive no benefit from it. It may possibly be true that this tax, like all other taxes, may be burdensome to a few, but it is not true that they derive no benefit therefrom. Not a public road can be opened, or improved, not an ornamental fence erected, not an avenue of trees planted, or a gravel walk constructed, without rendering the vicinity of the improvement more desirable as a residence, and consequently without increasing the value of property there, more than all the cost. Much more is it true, that every school house that is built, every good school that is established on a sure basis, and every advancement that is made in educational facilities, tend to increase the value of property, independent of the increased intelligence, moral influence, and personal security that follow in their train. Other things being equal, who would not select for his place of abode, that spot where he could give to his children the best education, with the least expense? Consequently that place is most likely to thrive where the schools are freest and best. We venture the assertion that no township or village, as a pecuniary speculation, can invest the amount of money that would be requisite to establish and maintain free schools, in any other way, that would bring back so sure and so ample a return.

It is objected again to free schools, that the lowest classes of the community may acquire the means of becoming more dangerous by the acquisition of knowledge, that they could not otherwise attain. If there is any edge to this argument, it will cut both ways;—it proves that no one ought to be educated,—not at least until it can be proved that he will make a good use of his knowledge. This reminds one of the resolution of the Grecian scholastic, that he would never go near the water until he had learned to swim. If the inheritor of the poor man’s poverty is likely to become dangerous by the acquisition of knowledge, most assuredly the inheritor of the rich man’s wealth will by the same means become doubly dangerous, inasmuch as he will possess the pecuniary ability to give effect to his misapplied intellectual powers. It is undoubtedly true that purely intellectual culture, unaccompanied

by suitable moral instruction, has a tendency to make a bad child, or a bad man worse, be he rich or be he poor;—the remedy for this, however, is not to be found in decreasing the facilities for acquiring knowledge, but in carefully guarding the school room; allowing no one to occupy the teacher's chair, who does not both by precept and example, inculcate those great principles of religion and morality which are even more important than education itself. This matter is entirely under the control of the inhabitants of every school district, respectively within their own borders, and if they discharge their duty, there is no danger to be apprehended from the thorough education of every child.

Our limits will permit the consideration of only one other objection, which though last in the enumeration, is by no means least in the minds of many opponents of free schools. The real character of this objection is such that many are ashamed to state it in so many words,—perhaps to admit it, even to their own minds, yet there it exists, and operates powerfully in hindering the advancement of popular education. The manner of stating it is diverse.

With some it assumes the form of special regard for the children themselves; “it will be impossible,” say they, “for teachers to do justice to so many children as the free school plan will gather together;” others are horrified at the “demoralizing tendency of large and indiscriminate collections of children;”—while a few come out honestly and boldly, and say that “they will not send their children, where all the loafers of the township go.” We do not wish to judge any man uncharitably, but we think that all these objections may be resolved into an unwillingness on the part of the objectors to allow their children to be educated on the same platform with the children of their poorer neighbors; or as some would express it, “let them down to their level,” pleading as an apology, the universally bad character of *poor* boys. We are not writing for the latitude of our cities and large towns, where we expect to find more depravity among men and boys in the lower walks of life; our remarks, and our plea, are more particularly designed for the country, and I unhesitatingly pronounce the assertion that the children of the poor generally are more vicious or are more dangerous companions than the children of the rich to be an atrocious libel, so far at least as the country is concerned. It is ignorance, not poverty, that is the yoke-fellow of crime.

But, for a moment, admit this plea to be a valid one. These youth unite in excursions of pleasure, through woods and fields,—associate together upon the skating pond,—and mingle in all their sports, without awakening any parental solicitude. Now, is there any less danger in such intimacy as this, unrestrained by any good influence, than in that which would arise from association in the school room, under the watchful eye of a teacher, with all the moral restraints that are thrown around them? If these children are really in such a deplorable condition, there is the more need that they should be placed in circumstances where they may be freed from that ignorance which may ally them to crime, and where a chance may be afforded them of emerging from

that poverty, which in the estimation of many is almost synonymous will disgrace.

Having, in as brief a manner as the subject would permit, submitted their views upon the obligations of the State to promote popular education, and the best method of raising funds for educational purposes, your Committee beg leave to sum them up, in the following resolution, which they respectfully submit to the consideration of the Convention.

Resolved, That it is as much more the duty of every State to provide for the education of all its youth, as a means of international defence, than it is the duty of the Congress of the United States to support naval and military establishments for our defence against foreign aggression,—as the dangers to be apprehended from a neglect of the one, are greater and more imminent than those to which we are liable from the other.

R. L. COOKE, *Chairman*.

APPENDIX NO. V.

The Committee to whom was referred the subject of moral and religious instruction in Common Schools, presents to the Convention the following

REPORT.

Man is a moral as well as an intellectual being, he is capable of perceiving moral differences in actions, as well as physical differences in material things. He has a sense of moral obligation, and can easily comprehend the idea, that certain duties grow out of the relation he sustains to God and his fellow men.

The moral nature needs to be cultivated as carefully as the intellectual, and in connection with it. By disciplining the mind and storing it with knowledge, the power of the individual is increased, and the circle of his influence is enlarged; but if his moral education is in the meantime neglected, that increase of power will be employed in doing evil rather than good.

Your Committee take it for granted, that the necessity of the moral and religious training of the young is admitted by all. We do not feel ourselves called upon to prove its necessity, though we think the people need to be urged and even entreated to do what they readily acknowledge ought to be done.

It is the duty of parents to give their children moral and religious instruction at home. It is the duty of the minister or religious teacher to give special attention to the moral and religious instruction of the young. Much also is done and will be done in Sabbath Schools.

But in the Common Schools, which is, or ought to be, open for the instruction of all the children of all denominations, there are many whose religious education is neglected by their parents, and who will grow up in vice and irreligion, unless they receive it from the common school teacher. It seems to us to be the duty of the State to provide

for the education of all the children, morally, as well as intellectually, and to require all teachers of youth, to train the children up in the knowledge and practice of the principles of virtue and piety.

It may be said, that the changes of teachers in public schools are very frequent, and during one term, the teacher may be of one denomination and then of another; and the question arises, shall each inculcate peculiar denominational views? We say no. Such a course should be guarded against. Let them teach the rudiments, the elementary principles of morals and piety, and leave the points in which Christian sects differ from each other, to be provided for by the parent or ministers to whose parish the children respectively belong.

There is, we believe, as much common ground, as school-teachers are able to occupy, on which they may profitably expend all their energies.

In the first place, they must teach by their example. They must possess the moral and religious character they recommend to their pupils. Unless they are models of the virtues that adorn society, their moral teaching will be powerless. One of the most efficient modes of improving the morals of children, is the correct and irreproachable example of those who are successfully employed in promoting their intellectual progress. Such teachers win the affections of their pupils, who very naturally desire to be like them.

In the next place, the Bible should be introduced and read in all the schools in the land. It should be read, however, as a devotional exercise, and be regarded by teachers and scholars as the text book of morals and religion. The children should early be impressed with the conviction that it was written by inspiration of God, and that their lives should be regulated by its precepts. They should be taught to regard it as the manual of piety, justice, veracity, chastity, temperance, benevolence, and of all excellent virtues. They should look upon this book in connection with the teachings of the Holy Spirit, as the highest tribunal to which we can appeal for the decision of moral questions, and should grow up with the feeling, that the plain declarations of the Bible are the end of all debate. The teacher should refer to this book with reverence. If he have reasons that are clear and satisfactory to his own mind, why he considers the Bible the oracles of Divine truth, he may from time to time communicate those reasons to his pupils, if he judges them to be such as they can comprehend.

We would not recommend the reading of the Scriptures in course, but that the teacher select from day to day the chapter to be read. He may select a portion that commends honesty or veracity, kindness or obedience, the duty of prayer or the keeping of the Sabbath, or the necessity of confessing our faults, or of repenting of our sins. He may tell them why he selects the chapter he does, and may add a few remarks of his own, or mention some incident that will illustrate and enforce the general sentiment. It may be well, when a pupil has violated any moral principle, to read to the school a few verses from the Bible, that they may see how such conduct is regarded by this book.

It is the opinion of your Committee, that no judicious teacher will find himself hampered or fettered in giving much useful moral or religious instruction in the Common Schools, though he omit the particular points in which he may differ from those belonging to other sects.

We do not deem it necessary in this report to tell the teacher how he shall teach, or what he shall teach more particularly, than we have already done,—much must necessarily depend on his own good judgment and sound discretion.

We believe fully in the necessity of moral and religious instruction, and if the school teacher should neglect it entirely, that very neglect might be an influence on the minds of many children against religion. If the teacher is loved and respected by the children, and gives them no moral instruction, they may conclude that it is because he thinks it unnecessary, and hence they may conclude that it is unnecessary. We recommend the Bible as a sacred volume, to be read as a devotional exercise, or as the text book of morals and piety. On this basis let him teach all he can, without interfering with the rights of the different denominations of which the school is composed; which we believe opens a larger field in this department of education than most teachers cultivate.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

EMERSON DAVIS,
JOHN GRISCOM,
G. F. THAYER,

} *Committee.*

APPENDIX NO. VI.

REPORT

READ BEFORE THE CONVENTION,

BY

PROFESSOR JOSEPH HENRY,

Of the Smithsonian Institute.

The subject of School Architecture has not, till within a comparatively recent period, received that attention from the public generally, or from practical educators in particular, which its important bearings, direct and indirect, on the health, manners, morals, and intellectual progress of children, and on the health and success of the teacher, both in government and instruction, demand. The earliest publication on the subject in this country, which has met the notice of the Committee, may be found in the School Magazine, No. 1, published as an Appendix to the Journal of Education, in April, 1829. In 1830, Mr. W. J. Adams, of New York, delivered a lecture before the American Institute of Instruction, "*on School Houses and School Apparatus*," which was published in the first volume of the transactions of that Association. Stimulated by that lecture, the Directors of the Institute, in the following year offered a premium of twenty dollars for the best "*Essay on the Construction of School-houses*." The premium was awarded by a committee of the Institute to the Essay by Dr. William A. Alcott, of Hartford, Conn., now residing in West Newton, Mass. This "Prize Essay" was published in the second annual volume of lectures before the Institute, as well as in a pamphlet, and was widely circulated and read all over the country. In 1833, the Essex County Teachers' Association published a "*Report on School-houses*," prepared by Rev. G. B. Perry, which is a searching and vigorous exposure of the evils resulting from the defective construction and arrangement of School-houses. From this time the subject began to attract public attention, and improvements were made in the construction and furniture of school-rooms, especially in large cities and villages.

In 1838, Hon. Horace Mann submitted a "*Report on School-houses*," as supplementary to his First Annual Report as Secretary of the Board of Education in Massachusetts, in which the whole subject, and especially that of ventilation, is discussed with great fullness and ability. This Report was widely circulated in a pamphlet form, and in the various educational periodicals of the country, and gave a powerful impulse to improvement in this department, not only in Massachusetts, but in other states. In the same year, Hon. Henry Barnard prepared an "*Essay on School Architecture*," in which he embodied the results of much observation, experience and reflection, in a manner so systematic and practical as to meet the wants of all who may have occasion to superintend the erection, alteration, or furnishing of School-houses. This Essay was originally prepared and delivered as a lecture in the course of his official visits to different towns of Connecticut, as Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools. It was first published in 1841, in the Connecticut Common School Journal, and in 1842 was submitted, with some modifications and numerous illustrations, as a *Report on School Houses*, to the Legislature. It may be mentioned as an evidence of the low appreciation in which the whole subject was regarded at that time, in a State which prides herself on the condition of her Common Schools, and on the liberality with which her system of public education is endowed, that the Joint Standing Committee on Education, on the part of the Senate and House, refused to recommend the publication of this Essay, although it is by far the most thorough, systematic and practical discussion of the subject which has appeared in this country or in Europe. And it was only through the strenuous efforts of a few intelligent friends of school improvements that its publication was secured, and then, only on condition that the author should bear the expense of the wood-cuts by which it was illustrated, and a portion of the bill for printing. Since its first publication more than one hundred thousand copies of the original Essay have been printed in various forms, and distributed in different states, without any pecuniary advantage to the author.

In 1842, George B. Emerson, Esq., in Part Second of the *School and Schoolmaster*, devoted a chapter to "The School-house," in which sound and practical views of the location, size, and ventilation and warming of edifices for school purposes, are presented and illustrated by appropriate cuts. A copy of this valuable work was presented to each of the eleven thousand school districts in the State of New York, and each of the three thousand four hundred districts in Massachusetts. In 1846, Nathan Bishop, Esq., Superintendent of Public Schools in the City of Providence, published a *Report on the School-houses* of that city, with numerous wood-cuts illustrative of the peculiarities of the furniture and internal arrangements of the buildings devoted to each grade of school. These houses were constructed after an examination of the latest improvements which had been introduced in the School-houses of Boston, Salem, and other large cities and villages in Massachusetts, and have been much consulted by committees and builders as models.

In 1848, Mr. Barnard republished his Essay, with plans and descriptions of numerous School-houses which had been erected under his direction, in Rhode Island and Connecticut, and including by permission all of the plans of any value, which had been published by Mr. Mann, Mr. Emerson, Mr. Bishop, and other laborers in this field—with the title of “*School Architecture, or Contributions to the Improvement of School-houses in the United States.*” As the title conveys a very inadequate view of the fullness and completeness of this valuable work, the Committee feel that they can not better promote the object of their appointment than by calling the attention of the Convention to the general views with which the subject was approached by this Author, and to the table of contents which will be found appended to the extracts which we have been permitted to make from this volume.

“The subject was forced on the attention of the author in the very outset of his labors in the field of public education. Go where he would, in the city or country, he encountered the district School-house, standing in disgraceful contrast with every other structure designed for public or domestic use. Its location, construction, furniture and arrangements, seemed intended to hinder, and not promote, to defeat and not perfect, the work which was to be carried on within and without its walls. The attention of parents and school officers was early and earnestly called to the close connection between a good school-house and a good school, and to the great principle, that to make an edifice good for school purposes, it should be built for children at school, and their teachers; for children differing in age, sex, size and studies, and therefore requiring different accommodations; for children engaged sometimes in study and sometimes in recitation; for children whose health and success in study require that they shall be frequently, and every day, in the open air, for exercise and recreation, and at all times supplied with pure air to breathe; for children who are to occupy it in the hot days of summer, and the cold days of winter, and to occupy it for periods of time in different parts of the day, in positions which become wearisome, if the seats are not in all respects comfortable, and which may affect symmetry of form and length of life, if the construction and relative heights of the seats and desks which they occupy are not properly attended to; for children whose manners and morals, whose habits of order, cleanliness and punctuality,—whose temper, love of study, and of the school, are in no inconsiderable degree affected by the attractive or repulsive location and appearance, the inexpensive out-door arrangements, and the internal construction of the place where they spend or should spend a large part of the most impressible period of their lives. This place, too, it should be borne in mind, is to be occupied by a teacher whose own health and daily happiness are affected by most of the various circumstances above alluded to, and whose best plans of order, classification, discipline and recitation, may be utterly baffled, or greatly promoted, by the manner in which the School-house may be located, lighted, warmed, ventilated and seated. With these general views of school architecture, this essay was originally written.”

The volume will be found on examination to contain :

1. An exposition, from official documents, of common errors in the location, construction, and furniture of School-houses as they have been heretofore almost universally built, even in states where the subject of education has received the most attention.

2. A discussion of the purposes to be answered, and the principles to be observed in structures of this kind.

3. Descriptions of a variety of plans, adapted to schools of every grade, from the Infant School to the Normal School, in a variety of styles, having a Gothic, Elizabethan, or classic character, and on a large or small scale of expense; either recommended by experienced educators, or followed in buildings recently erected in this country or in Europe.

4. Numerous illustrations of the most approved modes of constructing and arranging seats and desks, and of all recent improvements in apparatus for warming and ventilating school-rooms and public halls generally.

5. A catalogue of maps, globes, and other means of visible illustration, with which each grade of school should be furnished, with the price, and place where the several articles can be purchased.

6. A list of books, with an index or table of contents to the most important volumes on education, schools, school systems, and methods of teaching, suitable for school libraries, with reference to catalogues from which village libraries may be selected.

7. Rules and regulations for the care and preservation of School-houses, grounds and furniture.

8. Examples of exercises suitable to the dedication of School-houses to the sacred purposes of education.

9. A variety of hints respecting the classification of schools.

It will not be necessary to specify further the official reports and periodicals in which the subject has been discussed within a few years past, or to mention in detail the various improvements which have been introduced in the construction of school furniture, and in modes of ventilation and warming. Most of the plans which have been brought before the public, and which have been found on trial to be valuable contributions to plans before published, are embodied in the recent editions of Mr. Barnard's work. In conclusion, the Committee beg leave to present the following summary of the Principles of School Architecture, which the author of that work has drawn up at their request, as presenting the result of his observations and practical knowledge in this department of educational improvement. He has also placed at the disposal of the Committee numerous plans for schools of different grades, selected from his book, or prepared for subsequent editions, which are herewith communicated as a part of this Report.

SUMMARY

OF THE

PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

BY HENRY BARNARD, ESQ.

1. A location, healthy, accessible from all parts of the district; retired from the dust, noise, and danger of the highway; attractive, from its choice of sun and shade, and commanding, in one or more directions, the cheap, yet priceless educating influences of fine scenery.

2. A site large enough to admit of a yard in front of the building, either common to the whole school or appropriated to greensward, flowers and shrubbery, and two yards in the rear, one for each sex, properly inclosed, and fitted up with rotary swings, and other means of recreation and exercise, and with privies, which a civilized people never neglect.

3. Separate entrances to the school-room for each sex; each entrance distinct from the front door, and fitted up with scraper, mats, and old broom for the feet; with hooks, shelves, &c., for hats, over-coats, over-shoes, and umbrellas; with sink, pump, basin and towels, and with brooms and duster, and all the means and appliances necessary to secure habits of order, neatness and cleanliness.

4. School-room, in addition to the space required by aisles and the teacher's platform, sufficient to accommodate with a seat and desk, not only each scholar in the district who is in the habit of attending school, but all who may be entitled to attend; with verge enough to receive the children of industrious, thoughtful, and religious families, who are sure to be attracted to a district which is blessed with a good school-house and a good school.

5. At least one spare room for recitation, library, and other uses, to every school-room, no matter how small the school may be.

6. An arrangement of the windows, so as to secure one blank wall, and at the same time the cheerfulness and warmth of the sunlight, at all times of the day, with arrangements to modify the same by blinds, shutters, or curtains.

7. Apparatus for warming, by which a large quantity of pure air from outside of the building can be moderately heated, and introduced into the room without passing over a red-hot iron surface, and distributed equally to different parts of the room.

8. A cheap, simple, and efficient mode of ventilation, by which the air in every part of a school-room, which is constantly becoming vitiated by respiration, combustion, or other causes, may be constantly flowing out of the room, and its place filled by an adequate supply of fresh air drawn from a pure source, and admitted into the room at the right temperature, of the requisite degree of moisture, and without any perceptible current.

9. A desk with at least two feet of top surface, and in no case for more than two pupils, inclined towards the front edge one inch in a foot, except two to three inches of the most distant portion, which should be level, and covered with cloth to prevent noise—fitted with an ink-pot (supplied with a lid and a pen-wiper,) and a slate, with a pencil-holder and a sponge attached, and supported by end-pieces or stanchions, curved so as to be convenient for sweeping, and to admit of easy access to the seat—these of varying heights for small and large pupils, the front edge of each desk being from seven to nine inches (seven for the lowest and nine for the highest,) higher than the front edge of the seat or chair attached.

10. A chair or bench for each pupil, and in no case for more than two, unless separated by an aisle, with a seat hollowed like an ordinary chair, and varying in height from ten to seventeen inches from the outer edge to the floor, so that each pupil, when properly seated, can rest his feet on the floor without the muscles of the thigh pressing hard upon the front edge of the seat, and with a support for the muscles of the back, rising above the shoulder-blades.

11. An arrangement of the seats and desks, so as to allow of an aisle or free passage of at least two feet around the room, and between each range of seats for two scholars, and so as to bring each scholar under the supervision of the teacher.

12. Arrangements for the teacher, such as a separate closet for his over-coat, &c., a desk for his papers, a library of books of reference, maps, apparatus, and all such instrumentalities by which his capacities for instruction may be made in the highest degree useful.

13. Accommodations for a school library for consultation and circulation among the pupils, both at school and as a means of carrying on the work of self-education at their homes, in the field or the workshop, after they have left school.

14. A design in good taste and fit proportion, in place of the wretched perversions of architecture, which almost universally characterize the district school-houses of New England.

15. While making suitable accommodation for the school, it will be a wise, and, all things considered, an economical investment, on the part of many districts, to provide apartments in the same building, or in its neighborhood, for the teacher and his family. This arrangement will give character and permanence to the office of teaching, and at the same time secure better supervision for the school-house and premises, and more attention to the manners of the pupils out of school. Provision for the residence of the teacher, and not unfrequently a garden for his cultivation, is made in connection with the parochial schools in Scotland, and with the first class of public schools in Germany.

16. Whenever practicable, the privies should be disconnected from the play-ground, and be approached from a covered walk. Perfect seclusion, neatness and propriety should be strictly observed in relation to them.

17. A shed, or covered walk, or the basement story paved under feet, and open for free circulation of air for the boys, and an upper room with the floor deafened and properly supported for calisthenic exercises for the girls, is a desirable appendage to every school.

As many of the houses described are provided with very inadequate means of warming and ventilation, the following summary of the principles, which ought to be regarded in all arrangements for these objects, is given as the result of much observation, reflection, and experience.

1. The location of the School-house must be healthy, and all causes,—such as defective drains, stagnant water, decaying animal or vegetable substances, and manufactures, whose operations evolve offensive and deleterious gases,—calculated to vitiate the external atmosphere, from which the air of the school-room is supplied, must be removed or obviated.

2. The means provided for ventilation must be sufficient to secure the object, independent of doors and windows, and other lateral openings, which are intended primarily for the admission of light, passage to and from the apartment, and similar purposes. Any dependence on the opening of doors and windows, except in summer, will subject the occupants of the room near such points to currents of cold air when the pores of the skin are open, and when such extreme and rapid changes of temperature are particularly disagreeable and dangerous.

3. Any openings in the ceiling for the discharge of vitiated air into the attic, and hence to the exterior of the building, or by flues carried up in the wall, no matter how constructed or where placed, cannot be depended on for purposes of ventilation, unless systematic arrangements are adopted to effect, in concert with such openings, the intro-

duction and diffusion of a constant and abundant supply of pure air, in the right condition as to temperature and moisture.

4. All stoves, or other heating apparatus, standing in the apartment to be warmed, and heating only the atmosphere of that apartment, which is constantly becoming more and more vitiated by respiration and other causes, are radically defective, and should be altogether, without delay, and forever discarded.

5. Any apparatus for warming pure air, before it is introduced into the school-room, in which the heating surface becomes *red-hot*, or the air is warmed above the temperature of boiling water, is inconsistent with true ventilation.

6. To effect the combined objects of warming and ventilation, a large quantity of moderately heated air should be introduced in such a manner as to reach every portion of the room, and be passed off by appropriate openings and flues, as fast as its oxygen is exhausted, and it becomes vitiated by carbonic acid gas, and other noxious qualities.

7. The size and number of the admission flues or openings will depend on the size of the school-room, and the number of persons occupying the same; but they should have a capacity to supply every person in the room with at least five cubic feet of air per minute. Warm air can be introduced at a high as well as a low point from the floor, provided there is an exhaustive power in the discharging flues sufficient to secure a powerful ascending current of vitiated air from openings near the floor.

8. Openings into flues for the discharge of vitiated air, should be made at such points in the room, and at such distances from the openings for the admission of pure warm air, that a portion of the warm air will traverse every part of the room, and impart as much warmth as possible, before it becomes vitiated and escapes from the apartment.

These openings can be made near the floor, at points most distant from the admission flues, provided there is a fire draught, or other power operating in the discharging flues, sufficient to overcome the natural tendency of the warm air in the room to ascend to the ceiling; otherwise they should be inserted in or near the ceiling.

Openings at the floor are recommended, not because carbonic acid gas, being heavier than the other elements of atmospheric air, settles to the floor, (because, owing to the law of the diffusion of gases among each other, carbonic acid gas will be found equally diffused through the room,) but because, when it can be drawn off at the floor, it will carry along with it the cold air which is admitted by open doors, and at cracks and crevices, and also the offensive gases sometimes found in school-rooms.

9. All openings, both for the admission and discharge of air, should be fitted with valves and registers, to regulate the quantity of air to pass through them. The quantity of air to be admitted should be regulated before it passes over the heating surface; otherwise, being con-

fined in the air chamber and tubes, the excessive heat will cause much injury to the pipes and the wood-work adjoining.

10. All flues for ventilation, not intended to act in concert with some motive power, such as a fan, a pump, the mechanism of a clock, a fire-draught, a jet of steam, &c., but depending solely on the spontaneous upward movement of the column of warm air within them, should be made large, (of a capacity equal to at least eighteen inches in diameter,) tight, (except the openings at the top and bottom of the room;) smooth, (if made of boards, the boards should be seasoned, matched, and planed; if made of bricks, the flue should be round, and finished smooth,) and carried up on the inside of the room, or in the inner wall, with as few angles and deviations from a direct ascent as possible, above the highest point of the roof.

11. All flues for the discharge of vitiated air, even when properly constructed and placed, and even when acting in concert with a current of warm air flowing into the room, should be supplied with some simple, reliable exhaustive power, which can be applied at all seasons of the year, and with a force varying with the demands of the season, and the condition of the air in the apartment.

12. The most simple, economical, and reliable motive power available in most school-houses is heat, or the same process by which the natural upward movements of air are induced and sustained. Heat can be applied to the column of air in a ventilating flue:

1. By carrying up the ventilating flue close beside, or even within the smoke flue, which is used in connection with the heating apparatus.

2. By carrying up the smoke-pipe within the ventilating flue, either the whole length, or in the upper portion only. In a small school-room, the heat from the smoke-pipe carried up for a few feet only in the ventilating flue before it projects above the roof, is a motive power sufficient to sustain a constant draught of cool and vitiated air, into an opening near the floor.

3. By kindling a fire at the bottom, or other convenient point in the ventilating flue.

If the same flue is used for smoke from the fire, and vitiated air from the apartment, some simple self-acting valve or damper should be applied to the opening for the escape of the vitiated air, which shall close at the slightest pressure from the inside of the flue, and thus prevent any reverse current, or down draught, carrying smoke and soot into the apartment.

4. By discharging a jet of steam, or a portion of warm air from the furnace, or other warming apparatus, directly into the ventilating flue.

Any application of heat by which the temperature of the air in the ventilating flue can be raised above the temperature of the apartment to be ventilated, will cause a flow of air from the apartment to sustain the combustion, (if there is a fire in the flue,) and to supply the partial

vacuum in the flue, which is caused by the rarefaction of the air in the same.

In all school buildings, when several apartments are to be ventilated, the most effectual, and, all things considered, the most economical, mode of securing a motive power, is to construct an upright brick shaft or flue, and in that to build a fire, or carry up the smoke-pipe of the stove, furnace, or other warming apparatus; and then to discharge the ventilating flues from the top or bottom of each apartment, into this upright shaft. The fire draught will create a partial vacuum in this shaft, to fill which, a draught will be established upon every room with which it is connected by lateral flues. Whenever a shaft of this kind is resorted to, the flues for ventilation may be lateral, and the openings into them may be inserted near the floor.

13. With a flue properly constructed, so as to facilitate the spontaneous upward movement of the warm air within it, and so placed that the air is not exposed to the chilling influence of external cold, a turn-cap, constructed after the plan of Emerson's Ejector, or Mott's Exhausting Cowl, will assist the ventilation, and especially when there are any currents in the atmosphere. But such caps are not sufficient to overcome any considerable defects in the construction of the ventilating flues, even when there is much wind.

14. The warming and ventilation of a school-room will be facilitated by applying a double sash to all windows having a northern and eastern exposure.

15. In every furnace, and on every stove, a capacious vessel well supplied with fresh water, and protected from the dust, should be placed.

16. Every school-room should be furnished with two thermometers placed on opposite sides in the room, and the temperature in the winter should not be allowed to attain beyond 68° Fahrenheit, at a level of four feet from the floor, or 70° at the height of six feet.

17. The necessity for ventilation in an occupied apartment is not obviated by merely reducing the atmosphere to a low temperature.

(The plans referred to in the above report have been embodied by Mr. Barnard, at the request of the Committee, in a separate document for circulation independent of the proceedings of the Convention, and will be found at the close of the Appendix.)

APPENDIX NO. VII.



The Committee appointed to prepare a digest of the school systems and educational statistics of the several states,

REPORT:

That one of their number has made some progress in the very difficult work assigned to them, but is not prepared to submit at this time the results of his investigations further than to say—that during the past ten years, by correspondence, and by personal visits to most of the states, he has collected upwards of one thousand documents relating to schools of every grade, for the purpose of preparing a History of Education in the United States, and that as soon as he can get his material together for each state, he will present a Report to the Convention, exhibiting,

1. A brief history of the Legislation of each State in respect to education.

2. A digest of the system now in operation in each State.

3. The laws in full in a few of the States where the schools are in the best condition.

4. Extracts from official documents and correspondence, showing the condition of Education in each State.

5. Catalogue of all the printed documents which can be collected relating to Education in each State, with a brief notice of the contents of such as are most important.

6. The action of the General Government in reference to Education and Science, grants of lands, the Smithsonian Institute, Professional Schools, Normal Schools.

7. Statistical tables relating to Colleges, Academies, Common Schools, Libraries, Lyceums, Mechanic Institutions, Evening Schools, Institutions for the Blind, Deaf and Dumb, Idiots, Orphans, Reformation of Criminals, &c., &c.

8. Statistics of the best school systems in Europe.

In the mean time it is in the power of any individual, officially connected with or interested in any department of Education, or having in his possession a duplicate copy of any document connected with any educational institution, agency, or movement in any State, to forward the object contemplated by the appointment of this Committee, by communicating information on documents to the undersigned.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

HENRY BARNARD, *Chairman.*

Any communication or document relating to the subjects specified in the above report can be addressed to

HENRY BARNARD,
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PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATIONS
OF THE
PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.
BY HENRY BARNARD.

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PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATIONS
OF THE
PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

IN treating of School Architecture, it will be convenient to present—

- I. Common Errors to be avoided.
- II. General Principles to be observed.
- III Plans and directions for erecting and fitting up school-houses adapted to the varying circumstances of country and city, of a small, and a large number of scholars, of schools of different grades and of different systems of instruction.

I. COMMON ERRORS IN SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

Under this head it will be sufficient to enumerate the principal features of school-houses as they are.

They are, almost universally, badly located, exposed to the noise, dust and danger of the highway, unattractive, if not positively repulsive in their external and internal appearance, and built at the least possible expense of material and labor.

They are too small. There is no separate entry for boys and girls appropriately fitted up; no sufficient space for the convenient seating and necessary movements of the scholars; no platform, desk, or recitation room for the teacher.

They are badly lighted. The windows are inserted on three or four sides of the room, without blinds or curtains to prevent the inconvenience and danger from cross-lights, and the excess of light falling directly on the eyes or reflected from the book, and the distracting influence of passing objects and events out of doors.

They are not properly ventilated. The purity of the atmosphere is not preserved by providing for the escape of such portions of the air as have become offensive and poisonous by the process of breathing, and by the matter which is constantly escaping from the lungs in vapor, and from the surface of the body in insensible perspiration.

They are imperfectly warmed. The rush of cold air through cracks and defects in the doors, windows, floor and plastering is not guarded against. The air which is heated is already impure from having been breathed, and made more so by noxious gases arising from the burning of floating particles of vegetable and animal matter coming in contact with the hot iron. The heat is not equally dif-

fused, so that one portion of a school-room is frequently overheated, while another portion, especially the floor, is too cold.

They are not furnished with seats and desks, properly made and adjusted to each other, and arranged in such a manner as to promote the comfort and convenience of the scholars, and the easy supervision on the part of the teacher. The seats are too high and too long, with no suitable support for the back, and especially for the younger children. The desks are too high for the seats, and are either attached to the wall on three sides of the room, so that the faces of the scholars are turned from the teacher, and a portion of them at least are tempted constantly to look out at the windows,—or the seats are attached to the wall on opposite sides, and the scholars sit facing each other. The aisles are not so arranged that each scholar can go to and from his seat, change his position, have access to his books, attend to his own business, be seen and approached by the teacher, without incommoding any other.

They are not provided with blackboards, maps, clock, thermometer, and other apparatus and fixtures which are indispensable to a well regulated and instructed school.

They are deficient in all of those in and out-door arrangements which help to promote habits of order, and neatness, and cultivate delicacy of manners and refinement of feeling. There are no verdure, trees, shrubbery and flowers for the eye, no scrapers and mats for the feet, no hooks and shelves for cloaks and hats, no well, no sink, basin and towels to secure cleanliness, and no places of retirement for children of either sex, when performing the most private offices of nature.

LEST the author should be thought to exaggerate the deficiencies of school-houses as they have been heretofore constructed, and as they are now almost universally found wherever public attention has not been earnestly, perseveringly, and judiciously called to their improvement, the following extracts from recent official school documents are inserted, respecting the condition of school-houses in states where public education has received the most attention.

CONNECTICUT.

EXTRACT from the "*First Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools for 1838-39.*"

"In the whole field of school improvement there is no more pressing need of immediate action than here. I present with much hesitation, the result of my examinations as to several hundred school-houses in different parts of the State. I will say, generally, that the location of the school-house, instead of being retired, shaded, healthy, attractive, is in some cases decidedly unhealthy, exposed freely to the sun and storm, and in nearly all, on one or more public streets, where the passing of objects, the noise and the dust, are a perpetual annoyance to teacher and scholar,—that no play-ground is afforded for the scholar except the highway,—that the size is too small for even the *average* attendance of the scholars,—that not one in a hundred has any other provision for a constant supply of that indispensable element of health and life, pure air, except the rents and crevices which time and wanton mischief have made; that the

seats and desks are not, in a majority of cases, adapted to children of different sizes and ages, but on the other hand are calculated to induce physical deformity, and ill-health, and not in a few instances (I state this on the authority of physicians who were professionally acquainted with the cases,) have actually resulted in this—and that in the mode of warming rooms, sufficient regard is not had either to the comfort and health of the scholar, or to economy.

That I have not stated these deficiencies too strongly, I beg leave to refer you to the accompanying returns, respecting the condition of school-houses in more than eight hundred districts in the State, and in more than forty particulars in each. These returns were made from actual inspection and measurement of school-houses by teachers and others. An abstract of them in part will be found annexed, together with extracts from letters received from school officers on the subject. I might accumulate evidence of the necessity of improvement here for every district in the State. Without improvement in many particulars which concern the health, the manners and morals of those who attend school, it is in vain to expect that parents who put a proper estimate, not only on the intellectual, but the physical and moral culture of their children, will send to the district school.

The following extracts are taken from official documents, published in 1846 and 1847, and fair specimens of the manner in which school-houses are spoken of, in the reports of local committees, from different parts of the State.

“In one district the school-house stands on the highway, with eighty pupils enrolled as in attendance, in a room nineteen and a half feet square, without any outbuildings of any kind.

In another in the same town, the school-house is less than seven feet high, and the narrow slab seats are twenty-one inches high, (four inches higher than ordinary chairs.) The walls, desks, &c., are cut and marked with all sorts of images, some of which would make heathens blush.’

In another, the room is fourteen feet square, and six feet five inches high. The walls are very black.”

“In this town there is one of the most venerable school servants in the State. The room is small, and less than seven feet high. Slab seats extend around three sides of the room, and are too high for men. The skill of several generations must have been expended in illustrating the walls with lamp smoke and coal images. The crevices of the floor will admit any quantity of cold air. The door sill and part of the house sill have rotted away. The day I visited it, the teacher and pupils were huddled around the stove.”

“In one district, the house stands near the travelled road, is low and small, being only seventeen feet by seventeen, and seven feet two inches high, for the accommodation of sixty or seventy pupils. The seats on the outside are from seventeen to eighteen inches. The walls, door, and sides of the house are disfigured with obscene images.”

“There are only three good school-houses in the society; only three that have any out-houses. The rest of the school-houses are in a miserable condition. One is thirty-five or forty years old. Most of them have only slab seats, with the legs sticking through, upwards, like hatchel-teeth, and high enough to keep the legs of the occupants swinging. They are as uncomfortable to little children as a pillory. Seats and desks are adorned with every embellishment that the ingenuity of professional whittlers can devise.”

“Two of our school-houses, those in the two largest districts, are in a bad condition, old, unpainted and inconvenient. They are built and constructed *inside* on the old Connecticut plan. Only one row of desks, and that fastened to the wall of the school-room, running quite around it; and long forms, without backs to rest on, the scholars sitting with their backs to the centre of the room. The other two are in better condition, though one is constructed on the same plan as above. The out-buildings are in bad condition generally. One school-house has no out-building nor wood-house. One school-house only is painted outside.”

“Of the nine school-houses in this society, not one is really what they all ought to be, for the morals, health, and intellectual improvement of the pupils. Four of them are considered tolerably good, having one out-building, the other five are hardly passable. The desks in most or all of them are where they never ought to be, against the sides of the room and against one end, and with few exceptions, all of a height, with poor accommodations for loose clothes, hats, &c.; all located on or near some highway; no play-ground attached to any of them, except the highway.”

“A part of our school-houses are comfortable buildings, but destitute of every thing like taste or ornament in the grounds, structure, or the furniture of the rooms. Being generally built in the public highway or close by its side, they are, one and all, without enclosures, ornamental or shade trees. But the want of ornament is by no means the greatest defect of our school-houses; a majority of them are not convenient. Although there has been some improvement in those recently built, yet they are not so good as would be desirable. The out-buildings in too many cases are in a neglected condition, and in some districts are not provided at all, indicating an unpardonable neglect on the part of parents and guardians.”—*East Windsor.*

“It appears that a great proportion of the school-houses are in a sad condition and of bad architecture. Architectural drawings should, therefore, be scattered over the state, so that in the buildings to be erected those abominations may be avoided which are now so abundant.”—*Glastenbury.*

“The internal construction of most of our school-houses is bad, and occasions great inconvenience and hindrance to the prosperity of our schools. Let as much be done as can be, to remove those miserable prison-houses for our children, and in their stead let there be good, large, and convenient school-houses.”—*Suffield, 2d.*

“None of our school-houses have play-grounds attached; they generally stand in the highway, and some on a corner where several roads meet.”—*Bethany.*

“Another evil is the poor, cold, inconvenient and gloomy school-houses which we find in many districts. There is one in this society not more attractive than a barn, for comfort and accommodation in a cold day: the best I can say about it is, it is thoroughly ventilated.”—*Lebanon, Ath.*

“The houses and the internal arrangement are inconvenient; a slanting board the whole length of the house for a desk, and a slab-board for a seat so high that the scholars cannot reach the floor with their feet, constitute the conveniences of half of the schools in this society.”—*Easton.*

“We see many a school-house which looks more like some gloomy, dilapidated prison, designed for the detention and punishment of some desperate culprit, than a place designed for the intellectual training of the children of an enlightened and prosperous nation. Instead of being ren-

dered pleasant and attractive to the youthful mind, they are almost as cold and cheerless as an Indian wigwam.”—*Chaplin*.

“Many of our school-houses are in a miserable condition, possessing less attractions outwardly than our prisons, while within they are dark, gloomy and comfortless. They are all destitute of an appearance of any out-house.”—*Warren*.

“The general plan of all the school-houses is the same. Writing desks are placed around the room against the walls; these are generally so high that it would be inconvenient for adults, much more for children to use them. The seats stand in front of these, so that the pupil has his option to sit with his face or his back to the teacher. In the former case, he has the edge of the writing desk to support his back; in the latter, nothing. An arrangement like this is the worst possible. Of the five school-houses in the society, two may be warmed so as to be comfortable at all times; a third needs nothing but a good stove; but the remaining two cannot be made fit for a school to occupy without thorough repairs. There is but one out-building of any kind connected with the school-houses of this society, and this is entirely unfit for use.”—*Winchester*.

“Throughout Middlesex county the school-houses, taken as a whole, are several degrees below respectability—rarely ever painted within or without, and if painted at all, they ever afterward show a worn and weather-beaten coat, like the half starved, half clothed outcast of society. Yet these houses are owned by the public, worth its tens of thousands, and they groan grievously if a small tax is levied to improve them. Of the four locations of school-houses in this town, not one has sufficient land for a private dwelling, and all the land combined would be less than an acre. One stands wholly on the highway; another stands on a bleak and rocky elevation, and during some portions of the winter, almost inaccessible. This location was chosen probably because it was cheaper than the pleasant field on the opposite side of the way. Why should the public school-house which accommodates from thirty to fifty pupils, ten and eleven months in the year, five and a half days of each week, not require as much land as a church or private dwelling?”—*Chester*.

“Our school-houses are not what they ought to be either in their location or construction. In their location they are generally found upon some barren knoll, or too near the highway, forming part of the fence between the highway and the adjoining proprietor, alike destitute of ornament or shade calculated to render them pleasing or attractive. The desks are almost always too high and continuous, instead of single, nor is there generally a gradation in reference to the size of the scholar. Few school-rooms are well ventilated; not more than one or two properly or healthfully warmed; the consequence is unnecessary frequency of colds, headaches and ill health.”—*Tolland*.

The Superintendent (Hon. Seth P. Beers) of Common Schools, thus introduces the subject in his Annual Report for 1848.

“The reports of school visitors from every part of the state speak in strong terms of condemnation of the deplorable condition of many district school-houses. The progress of renovation and improvement in this department has not been as rapid or as thorough, during the past year, as in other sections of New England, or as the true interests of the common schools imperiously demand. Badly located school-houses still “encumber the highway,”—“without shrub or shade-tree around,”—“without

play-ground, yard, or out-house, mat or scraper,"—without means of ventilation and uniform temperature,"—"with seats too high and destitute of support for the back,"—"with desks attached to three sides of the room," "with windows destitute of glass,"—"clapboards hanging loose,"—"blinds propped up to be kept in their places,"—"the wood without shelter," and "the stove without a door." These are specimens of the language used by school visitors in describing the places where the children of Connecticut are receiving their early training in taste, manners, morals, and health,—language which it is hoped will touch the pride of the districts, and lead to some efficient action on the subject."

"How surprising and disgraceful is the fact, that a very large proportion of the school-houses of our state present vastly fewer attractions, in point of comfortable arrangement and tastefulness, than are seen about our poor-houses, our jails, and our state penitentiary! This remark is too true of the school-houses in this society. They are all located directly on the road or in it, with hardly a shrub or shade-tree around any one of them; and with no play-ground except the highway, which the children, in several districts, have to share in common with geese and swine. Of their external condition nothing very creditable or gratifying can be said. Six, of the nine school-houses in this society, are wooden ones, and they generally bear a time-honored, weather-beaten aspect. Unpainted and blindless, with clapboards agape to catch the winds of winter, and window-panes rattling, or fallen from the decayed sash, they present a most forlorn and gloomy aspect, which, to say the least, is not very well suited to woo the youthful mind, and fill it with pleasant fancies. One, unacquainted with their original design, might mistake them for the abodes of the evil genii, which would naturally be supposed to haunt the dreary solitudes which surround them.

The internal condition of these school-houses is in perfect keeping with the external. In several of them, the plastering is broken and missing, to say nothing of the dark and dingy color of what remains. The stoves are smoky, and the benches and desks are so high as to be better adapted to the children of a race of giants, than to those of the present generation; and these are hacked and gashed by the pupils, as if in retaliation for the torture suffered from them. My compassion has been deeply moved as I have frequently entered these abodes of suffering, and seen their unhappy inmates—the children of protestant parents—doing penance upon their high seats, with no support to their backs but the soft edge of the projecting board which forms the desk, and with their feet dangling in mid-air several inches from the floor. And when I have looked upon these youthful sufferers, thus seated and writhing with pain, the question has often arisen in my mind, what have these ill-starred children done that they should be doomed to so excruciating torture? What rank offenses have they committed that they should thus be suspended between the heavens and earth for six hours each day? And from deep-felt pity for the innocent sufferers, I have sometimes wished (perhaps it was cruel) that their parents had to sit for one hour in a similar position, that they might learn how to pity their children, and be prompted to attend to their health and comfort in the internal arrangement of the school-room.

Add to all this the fact, so outrageous to common decency, that most of these school-houses have no out-buildings whatever attached to them; and does not the case appeal movingly to the friends of humanity, and demand prompt and decisive measures of reform? Is it not passing strange, that while many parents incur considerable expense in providing themselves with cushioned and carpeted slips in church, where they ordi-

narily spend, perhaps, but three hours each week, they should be so utterly regardless of the comfort and happiness of their offsprings in the school-room?"—*Bloomfield*.

"Three of the houses are located in the highway; an excellent device for saving land, but a miserable one for the comfort, safety and improvement of children. In selecting sites for the new houses, recently erected, a good degree of space fronting was provided for. Only two houses have blinds or shutters; all the others give full scope for the sun to see what is going on in the school-room, often to the manifest annoyance of the children and teacher; unless, perchance, the latter has genius enough to convert a stray newspaper, or some other available article, into a temporary curtain to shut him out."—*Manchester*.

"Our school-houses, though not cold and leaky, are very badly constructed within, and are therefore very inconvenient. Two of them stand mostly in the highway, so that one passing in a carriage or on horseback may look in upon the whole school, and as a matter of course the scholars will look at whatever passes. When the school-house is so exposed, it would seem, that *modesty* in our children would require the convenience of good out-houses; but this is not the case with any two school-houses in the town. We have urged the importance of these things, but with poor success."—*Suffield, 2d*.

"There are some houses unfit for their purpose; the weather-boards are starting off, "and the wind enjoys quite freely the luxury of coming in and being warmed by the fire; and the dear children suffer much between a cold northwester and a red-hot stove." It is very common to find the school-houses mutilated by the cuttings of obscene figures; this should draw forth the unqualified censure of proprietors and teachers. Further, there are cases where there are no out-houses for the use of children. This is a sore evil, and ought to be remedied immediately."—*Groton*.

"Among the ten school-houses in this district are several very good buildings; but, taking in view the size and proportions of the edifices, the internal arrangement, the fitness of the seats and desks for the object designed, we feel impelled to say, that in our opinion there are no very good school-houses. In some of the districts it is said the people are obliged to go among strangers to procure teachers, on account of the shabbiness of the school-houses."—*Brooklyn*.

"Not more than one-half of our school-houses in this society are very good, if, indeed, they can be termed more than comfortable. The remainder are bad, some of them very bad, exhibiting nothing of comfort or convenience. In some of them, there are no desks fit to be used for writing purposes. The seats are so constructed as to afford no place to rest the back, or, in some cases, even the sole of the foot. Many of the schools are destitute of out-houses. Some of them have no conveniences for hanging up the hats or clothes of the children, or even to shelter the wood from the weather. And more than half our school-houses are destitute of black-boards, a fact alike discreditable to the district and to the teachers who have served in them."—*Stafford, 1st*.

"It appears from the superintendent's report for 1847, that of 1663 school-houses in the state, 873 have out-houses, and 745 have none! This fact is, undoubtedly, a burning shame and a deep disgrace to the state. It is unworthy of a civilized country, and indicates a state of things that ought to exist only among savages. The committee are happy to say that we have little or no share in this shameful fact: but our school-houses are by no means what they should be, and call for improvement.

They are generally *on* or *in* the street, whereas every building devoted to such a purpose ought to be in a retired situation, with suitable yards for play-grounds, and convenient fixtures. The windows in some do not let down from the top, and therefore are not properly ventilated. In only two out of eight school-houses are the benches what they should be. Large desks running around the room for the older scholars ought to be wholly discarded as intolerable nuisances. The scholars are of necessity always looking into the street; the windows can be opened only by climbing over the benches and desks. The scholars' backs are turned toward the teacher; they sit close together, and of course are often whispering. Large girls can leave their seats only by placing their feet on a level with their hips, which it is not always best that females should do. The smaller benches often have backs that are so *low* as to be of little service. Every school-house ought to be provided with a single desk for each pupil, and every pupil ought to have a slate and books to keep in the desk."—*Vernon*.

The following extracts are taken from the Annual Reports for 1849.

"The *school-houses* are not what they should be. Some of them are decidedly bad. They are neither convenient nor pleasant. The benches and desks are inconvenient. Some of the small scholars are reduced to the miserable necessity of swinging in the air, without being able to either get a foothold or a place to rest their backs against. *Ventilation* is not attended to. Every school-room should be so constructed that it can be freely ventilated, so that the scholars may have pure atmospheric air to breathe. This every one must appreciate, who knows the value of health, and does not wish to see a generation of sickly drones coming on to the stage. As a general thing, the external appearance of the school-houses is bad. A stranger passing through a district, can easily select the school-house. If you see a very unique-looking building, a "squatter" in the highway, or standing by permission on the side of some lot, in a corner rendered useless by a location on the border of some swampy moor, or on some arid field, where no vestige of life is—that you may conclude is the district school-house. *That* is the place where our children are to resort, during three-fourths of the first sixteen years of their lives, to get an education. *Such* are the associations with their early, perhaps *all* their education! Why is not the district school the place where correct taste should be demonstrated? Impressions *will* be made, and if they ever yield to good taste, school-house associations, in their present state, will not deserve the credit."—*Enfield*.

"Our school-houses are in a bad condition. Look into the school some warm, comfortable day, when the children are more likely to be in attendance, and if you please, walk in and breathe a specimen of the air in a New England unventilated school-house. If you are a well-bred man, you must do violence to your kind feelings, when you take a seat and look around and find that the teacher has nothing left for his accommodation but a standee; our school-houses are literally jammed full, i. e. the seats—any attempt at improvement is voted down on account of the cost."—*South Windsor, Wapping*.

"One district, for a wonder, occupied a new school-house; but while it is *excellent*, compared with the *old one*, it is *contemptible*, if not *wicked*, compared with what it *ought* to be. The only plan about it seems to be, the *minimum scale of expenditure*. Its dimensions are too limited even for so small a school. The desk or counter is uniform, and attached to three sides of the room, and almost out of *the tallest scholar's reach!* I have protested to the district, and possibly they will lower the counter,

some time or other. The other districts *need* new school-rooms, and some *talk* of building."—*Wolcott.*

"In regard to the school-houses in our five districts, only one can be said to be very good. Another, recently repaired, may be called good in a qualified sense; while the remaining three are quite ordinary, if not bad. This neglect to provide neat and comfortable school-houses, doubtless has a tendency to dampen the ardor of children in literary pursuits, and in various ways to retard their progress."—*Plainfield.*

"The school-room in the third district presents the same unsightly appearance which it has in years past; and from the height to which the writing desks, and slabs used for seats, are elevated, some persons would naturally infer that they were originally designed for a race of giants."—*Pomfret, Abington.*

"Most of the school-houses are in a bad condition, being old, ill-constructed, and inconvenient. Especially is this the case with regard to the interior of some of them, the seats of which are too high for the comfort of the scholars, with nothing to rest the back against, except the sharp edge of a plank or board, which serves as a writing desk, and this placed so high as to bring the arm to an unnatural and uneasy position when attempting to write. The school-houses, too, with one or two exceptions, stand in the highway, many within a few feet of the traveled path, with windows looking directly upon it, so that the attention of the scholar is necessarily attracted to every passer-by, thus diverting his attention from his studies, retarding his progress, and annoying his teacher."—*Litchfield, Milton.*

The Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools for 1850 contains the following remarks on the condition of the school-houses.

"If any reliance can be placed on the representations made by teachers and school visitors from two hundred and four out of the two hundred and seventeen school societies in the state, as collected from written communications to this department in the course of the last four years, a majority of our school-houses are badly located, badly ventilated, imperfectly warmed in winter, having uncomfortable seats and desks, without apparatus except a black-board, and destitute of the most ordinary means of cleanliness and convenience. To this overwhelming mass of testimony (Appendix G) as to the necessity of immediate and thorough improvement in this portion of the educational field, I will here add an extract from a communication by a teacher of much experience and distinction, who received his education and commenced his experience in teaching in the district schools of this state. His remarks refer to the condition of school-houses in a single county—to three-fourths of which he had just made a personal visit."

"**OLD SCHOOL-HOUSES.**—These are the Antiquities of Connecticut, rude monuments of art, that must have had their origin coeval with the pyramids and catacombs, for aught we can learn to the contrary, save by the uncertain information of tradition. "It always stood there," says "the oldest inhabitant," when asked the date of the erection of one of them. Little brown structures of peculiar aspect, meek, demure, burrowing in some lone, damp and depressed spot, or perchance perched on the pinnacle of a rock, as if too contemptible and abject to occupy a choice piece of earth,—exposed to the remorseless winds of winter, and the fervid rays of

summer,—at one end a narrow and dingy entry, the floor covered with wood, chips, stones, hats, caps, odd mittens, old books, bonnets, shawls, cloaks, dirt, dinner baskets, old brooms, ashes, & c., all thrown together in the order as here catalogued,—the principal room retaining its huge stone chimney, which for generations boasted its ghastly fire-place, affording a ready oblivion to annual piles of green and snow-soaked wood,—the burnt, smoked, scratched and scrawled wainscoting,—the battered and mutilated plastering,—the patched windows,—the crippled and ragged benches,—the desks which have endured a short eternity of whittling,—the masses of pulverized earth in constant agitation, filling the throat, eye and nostrils of the inmates,—the unmistakable compound of odors which come not from “Araby the blest”—all point to the remote antiquity of these buildings, and intimate the veneration in which they are held. That some of these structures are always to remain, does not seem to admit of a “reasonable doubt.” The records of their origin, as we have seen, are gone, and the testimony of the past few generations is conclusive that no change has been effected in their appearance from a remote period; hence the deduction that they are among the “things to remain,” and never to pass away. Though the “annual miracle of nature” may not be vouchsafed to preserve them, yet, like the monuments of the American Indians which receive their annual votive offering of stones, and are thus rendered imperishable, so these “antiquities,” receiving their semi-occasional patches upon windows, upon clapboards, roofs and floors, together with the autumnal embankment of earth around their base, and all these given and received obsequious to the *annual solemn* votes of the district,—stand, despite the advance of public opinion, the “war of elements,” and “the tooth of time.”

MODERN SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.—It is much to be regretted that a work similar to “Barnard’s School Architecture” had not been issued and circulated throughout the state some ten years ago, that such as have since that time erected new houses, (that are to stand forever,) might have consulted approved models for the size and forms of their structures, and improved plans for their internal arrangements. It would seem, however, that enough had been said by the author of that work in his annual reports, and occasional addresses in the state, to have excited interest sufficient in those intending to build new houses, to extend their inquiries and observations beyond the limits of their own district, and beyond the pattern of their own recently condemned school-house, and at least to select suitable locations for houses and necessary out-buildings, if not for a yard and play-ground.

The material changes observed in the construction of new houses about the county, consist in placing the *end* of the building toward the street instead of the *side*, and giving a very narrow entry across the end of the building,—affording, in some instances, two entrances into the school-room, with only one into the entry. A portion of the entry is used for wood, which being thrown against the plastering, lays bare the lathing, making the building, while yet new, bear the tokens of age. In a few instances only have two outside doors been observed, giving separate entrances to boys and girls.

In most instances where the building is not erected on the line of the highway, it is placed only so far back as to allow a straggling wood pile just outside the traveled path. An instance is not now remembered where the generosity of the district has given a play-ground to the school, aside from the *public common* or the *traveled highway*.

The internal arrangements of the new houses are, in *many instances*, exactly like those of their immediate predecessors, save that in all cases it is believed the old movable slab benches, are superseded by perma-

nent benches with backs. The windows, in all cases perhaps, in the new houses, have made a sensible step *downward* toward the floor; and the desks and seats of the larger scholars, have also been brought down from their inconvenient and dizzy heights, that their occupants may not be "while *in*, above the world."

Where change has been wrought in the fixtures of the room, the desks are almost always clumsy, occupying unnecessary portions of the room, and rendering them inconvenient for the evolutions of the school.

Ventilation has received a passing thought in the erection of most of the new houses, yet its importance is not probably fully appreciated, nor the best methods of securing it clearly understood. Some ventilate from the windows so successfully, as to part with the warm air almost entirely, and at the same time to retain the offensive gases and odors of the room. Some ventilators are placed in the ceiling in the corners of the rooms, others are placed immediately over the stove pipe,—some are movable, and moved with a cord,—others are simply a scuttle, expected to rise by the expansive power of the gases, as safety valves of engines operate by accumulation of steam.

The substitution of stoves (mainly box stoves,) for the engulfing fire place, as a means of warming school-rooms, is noticed in the new houses.

OF SCHOOL-HOUSES GENERALLY.—To ascertain if improvement has been effected in this class of structures in the state, we must resort to one or two devices of the astronomer, in observing the motions of the heavenly bodies, viz., to notice their respective positions at different and remote periods of time. The progress of improvement has been so slow, (if improvement has been made in school-houses,) that an observer from year to year only, might be at a loss to know that such was the fact; but a comparison of the structures fifteen or twenty years ago, with the buildings now occupied for schools, will doubtless enable one to say that *progress has been made*. It is stated on very creditable authority that in some societies and some towns, *one*, and in some instances, more *than one* house has been built, and one or more has been *painted*.

The contributions upon old hats, upon writing books that are "writ through," &c., &c., are levied less frequently than formerly to repel the winds at the windows; fewer clapboards are now seen swinging gaily by a single nail, than in bye-gone days; the asthmatic wheezing of the winds through the uncounted apertures is hushed, and the pupils enjoy an irrigation through the roof less frequently than formerly. Curtains are occasionally found to protect the eyes of the pupils from the blinding rays of the sun; the comfort of the smaller children is materially increased by the addition of backs to their hard seats; the desks and seats of the larger pupils have descended toward the floor; the use of stoves giving a comfortable temperature to the rooms, instead of the former equatorial heat and the polar cold; in rare instances the ingenious designs in chalk and charcoal upon the walls and ceiling have retired behind a coating of whitewash, and the yawning fire-place has been plastered over. All these movements distinctly indicate that vitality at least exists among the people of this commonwealth, and that *the best good of their children, as they tell us, lies nearest their hearts*.

It is earnestly hoped that all persons will be open to conviction and receive the above statement of facts as a perfect demonstration of the earnestness of the community for the well being of the schools.

When we come to the *et ceteras* of the school-rooms, such as shovel and tongs, brooms, brushes, bells, globes, sinks, wash-basins, towels, pegs, hooks and shelves for hats, clothing, &c., it is feared such great, such momentous changes, such rapid advances, will not appear to have been made; probably not three districts in the county have gone so fast, or so

far in advance of the others as to have procured all these articles; probably not more than half a dozen districts have supposed it important, that even a mat and scraper are necessary for pupils to use after walking, perhaps a mile in the mud; yet we should be doing them injustice in not supposing that they really feel this quenchless interest, which they represent themselves as possessing for their children, and should greatly misjudge them if we supposed them not doing all in their power to encourage their children in obtaining useful knowledge, and in cultivating the minor virtues while in school.

OUT-BUILDINGS.—An appalling chapter might be written, on the evils, the almost inevitable results of neglecting to provide these indispensable appendages to school-houses in our state. Who can duly estimate the final consequences of the first shock given to female delicacy, from the necessary exposure, to which the girls in the public schools are inevitably subjected; and what must be the legitimate results of these frequent exposures during the school-going years of youth? What quenchless fires of passion have been kindled within the bosom of the young of both sexes by these exposures, fires that have raged to the consuming of personal happiness, to the prevention of scholastic improvement, and to the destruction of personal character? again, what *disgust* has been created in both sexes by the results of not having the appropriate retirements which nature imperiously demands? and finally, may not the disinclination, the aversion of large numbers of families, of mothers especially, to sending their daughters to the public schools, have been created by the sufferings they themselves have endured, from the above cause; and an unwillingness to subject the delicacy of their daughters to the obnoxious trial? Were the question not so peculiar as almost to defy examination, it is apprehended this would be found to be the truth. Will it not seem incredible, even to Connecticut men, to be informed that less than one-half of the school-houses in this commonwealth are without these necessary buildings? yet such is probably the fact; thus dooming thousands of girls to bear a loathsome burden of mortification, which they cannot remove without withdrawing from the schools. I have no *exact* data for the above estimate, yet it is probably not far below the truth, if indeed it is at all. So filthy are *most* of those that are provided, that they are not only quite useless, but disgusting in the extreme. In one society of nine schools but one out-house was provided, and that, I was informed, could only be reached in *dry* weather, such was its *location*; nor could it be used even then, such was its *condition*. This state of things, it would seem, should be utterly changed, and that speedily."

MASSACHUSETTS.

EXTRACTS from the "Report of the Secretary (Hon. Horace Mann) of the Board of Education for 1846."

"For years the condition of this class of edifices, throughout the State, taken as a whole, had been growing worse and worse. Time and decay were always doing their work, while only here and there, with wide spaces between, was any notice taken of their silent ravages; and, in still fewer instances, were these ravages repaired. Hence, notwithstanding the improved condition of all other classes of buildings, general dilapidation was the fate of these. Industry and the increasing pecuniary ability which it creates, had given comfort, neatness, and even elegance to private dwellings. Public spirit had erected commodious and costly churches. Counties, though largely taxed, had yet uncomplainingly paid for handsome and spacious court-houses and public offices.

In 1837, not one third part of the Public School-houses in Massachusetts would have been considered tenantable by any decent family, out of the poor-house, or in it. As an incentive to neatness and decency, children were sent to a house whose walls and floors were indeed painted, but they were painted, all too thickly, by smoke and filth; whose benches and doors were covered with carved work, but they were the gross and obscene carvings of impure hands; whose vestibule, after the oriental fashion, was converted into a veranda, but the metamorphosis which changed its architectural style, consisted in laying it bare of its outer covering. The modesty and chastity of the sexes, at their tenderest age, was to be cultivated and cherished, in places, which oftentimes were as destitute of all suitable accommodations, as a camp or a caravan. The brain was to be worked amid gases that stupefied it. The virtues of generosity and forbearance were to be acquired where sharp discomfort and pain tempted each one to seize more than his own share of relief, and thus to strengthen every selfish propensity.

At the time referred to, the school-houses in Massachusetts were an opprobrium to the State; and if there be any one who thinks this expression too strong, he may satisfy himself of its correctness by inspecting some of the few specimens of them which still remain.

The earliest effort at reform was directed towards this class of buildings. By presenting the idea of taxation, this measure encountered the opposition of one of the strongest passions of the age. Not only the sordid and avaricious, but even those, whose virtue of frugality, by the force of habit, had been imperceptibly sliding into the vice of parsimony, felt the alarm. Men of fortune, without children, and men who had reared a family of children, and borne the expenses of their education, fancied they saw something of injustice in being called to pay for the education of others; and too often their fancies started up into spectres of all imaginable oppression and wrong. The school districts were the scene where the contending parties arrayed themselves against each other; the school-house itself their arena. From time immemorial, it had been the custom to hold school district meetings in the school-house. Hither, according to ancient usage, the voters were summoned to come. In this forum, the question was to be decided, whether a new edifice should be erected, or whether the ability of the old one to stand upon its foundations for another season, should be tried. Regard for the health, the decent manners, the intellectual progress and the moral welfare of the children, common humanity, policy, duty, the highest worldly interests of the race, were marshalled on one side, demanding a change; selfishness, cupidity, insensibility to the wants and the welfare of others, and that fallacious plea, that because the school-house had answered the purpose so long, therefore it would continue to answer it still longer,—an argument which would make all houses, and roads, and garments, and every thing made by human hands, last forever,—resisted the change. The disgraceful contrast between the school-house and all other edifices, whether public or private, in its vicinity; the immense physical and spiritual sacrifices which its condition inflicted upon the rising generation, were often and unavailingly urged; but there was always one argument which the advocates for reform could use with irresistible effect,—the school-house itself. Cold winds, whistling through crannies and chinks and broken windows, told with merciless effect upon the opponents. The ardor of opposition was cooled by snow-blasts rushing up through the floor. Pain-imparting seats made it impossible for the objectors to listen patiently even to arguments on their own side; and it was obvious that the tears they shed were less attributable to any wrongs which they feared, than to the volumes of smoke which belched out with every gust of wind from

broken funnels and chimneys. Such was the case in some houses. In others, opposite evils prevailed; and the heat and stifling air and nauseating effluvia were such as a grown man has hardly been compelled to live in, since the time of Jonah.

Though insensible to arguments addressed to reason and conscience, yet the senses and muscles and nerves of this class of men were less hardened than their hearts; and the colds and cramps, the exhaustion and debility, which they carried home, worked mightily for their conversion to truth. Under such circumstances, persuasion became compulsory.

Could the leaders of the opposition have transferred the debate to some commodious public hall, or to their own spacious and elegant mansions, they might have bid defiance to humanity and remained masters of the field. But the party of reform held them relentlessly to the battle-ground; and there the cause of progress triumphed, on the very spot where it had been so long dishonored.

During the five years immediately succeeding the report made by the Board of Education to the Legislature, on the subject of school-houses, the sums expended for the erection or repair of this class of buildings fell but little short of *seven hundred thousand dollars*. Since that time, from the best information obtained, I suppose the sum expended on this one item to be about *one hundred and fifty thousand dollars annually*. Every year adds some new improvement to the construction and arrangement of these edifices.

In regard to this great change in school-houses,—it would hardly be too much to call it a *revolution*,—the school committees have done an excellent work,—or rather, they have begun it;—it is not yet done. Their annual reports, read in open town meeting, or printed and circulated among the inhabitants, afterwards embodied in the Abstracts and distributed to all the members of the government, to all towns and school committees have enlightened and convinced a State.

NEW-YORK.

EXTRACT from the "*Annual Report of the Superintendent (Hon. Samuel Young) of Common Schools, made to the Legislature, January 13, 1844.*"

"The whole number of school-houses visited and inspected by the county superintendents during the year was 9,368: of which 7,685 were of framed wood; 446 of brick; 523 of stone, and 707 of logs. Of these, 3,160 were found in good repair; 2,870 in ordinary and comfortable repair, and 3,319 in bad repair, or totally unfit for school purposes. The number furnished with more than one room was 544, leaving 8,795 with one room only. The number furnished with suitable play-grounds is 1,541; the number not so furnished, 7,313. The number furnished with a single privy is, 1,810; those with privies containing separate apartments for male and female pupils, 1,012; while the number of those not furnished with *any privy* whatever, is 6,423. The number suitably furnished with convenient seats, desks, &c., is reported at 3,282, and the number not so furnished, at 5,972. The number furnished with proper facilities for ventilation is stated at 1,518; while the number not provided with these essential requisites of health and comfort is 7,889.

No subject connected with the interests of elementary instruction affords a source of such mortifying and humiliating reflections as that of the condition of a large portion of the school-houses, as presented in the above enumeration. One-third only of the whole number visited, were found in good repair; another third in ordinary and comfortable condition

only in this respect—in other words, barely sufficient for the convenience and accommodation of the teachers and pupils; while the remainder, consisting of 3,319, were to all intents and purposes unfit for the reception of man or beast.

But 544 out of 9,368 houses visited, contained more than one room; 7,313 were destitute of any suitable play-ground; nearly six thousand were unfurnished with convenient seats and desks; nearly eight thousand destitute of the proper facilities for ventilation; and upwards of six thousand without a privy of any sort; while of the remainder but about one thousand were provided with privies containing different apartments for male and female pupils! And it is in these miserable abodes of accumulated dirt and filth, deprived of wholesome air, or exposed without adequate protection to the assaults of the elements, with no facilities for necessary exercise or relaxation, no convenience for prosecuting their studies; crowded together on benches not admitting of a moment's rest in any position, and debarred the possibility of yielding to the ordinary calls of nature without violent inroads upon modesty and shame; that upwards of two hundred thousand children, scattered over various parts of the State, are compelled to spend an average period of eight months during each year of their pupilage! Here the first lessons of human life, the incipient principles of morality, and the rules of social intercourse are to be impressed upon the plastic mind. The boy is here to receive the model of his permanent character, and to imbibe the elements of his future career; and here the instinctive delicacy of the young female, one of the characteristic ornaments of the sex, is to be expanded into maturity by precept and example! Is it strange, under such circumstances, that an early and invincible repugnance to the acquisition of knowledge is imbibed by the youthful mind; that the school-house is regarded with unconcealed aversion and disgust, and that parents who have any desire to preserve the health and the morals of their children, exclude them from the district school, and provide instruction for them elsewhere?

If legislation could reach and remedy the evil, the law-making power would be earnestly invoked. But where the ordinary mandates of humanity, and the laws of parental feeling written by the finger of heaven on the human heart, are obliterated or powerless, all statutory provisions would be idle and vain. In some instances during the past year, comfortable school-houses have been erected to supply the place of miserable and dilapidated tenements which for years had been a disgrace to the inhabitants. Perhaps the contagion of such worthy examples may spread; and that which seems to have been beyond the influence of the ordinary impulses of humanity, may be accomplished by the power of example or the dread of shame.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

EXTRACTS from the "*Report of the Commissioner, (Prof. Haddock, of Dartmouth College) of Common Schools, to the Legislature of New Hampshire, June Session, 1847.*"

"The success of our whole system depends as much on a thorough reform in the construction and care of school-houses as upon any other single circumstance whatever.

It is wonderful, and when their attention is called to it, strikes the inhabitants of the Districts themselves as really unaccountable, that careful and anxious parents have been content to confine their children for so many hours a day through a large part of the severest and most trying seasons of the year, in houses so ill constructed, so badly ventilated, so imperfectly warmed, so dirty, so instinct with vulgar ideas, and so utterly repugnant to all habits of neatness, thought, taste, or purity. There are multitudes of houses in the State, not only inconveniently located, and awkwardly planned, but absolutely dangerous to health and morals.

And it has struck me with the greater surprise, that this is true not only of the thinly peopled parts of the State, but of flourishing villages. In one

VERMONT.

EXTRACT from the "*First Annual Report of the State Superintendent (Hon. Horace Eaton,) of Common Schools, October, 1846,*" made to the Legislature.

"It might occur to any one in travelling through the State, that our school-houses are almost uniformly located in an uninteresting and unsuitable spot, and that the buildings themselves too generally exhibit an unfavorable, and even repulsive aspect. Yet by giving some license to the imagination it might be supposed that, notwithstanding their location and external aspect were so forbidding, the internal appearance would be more cheerful and pleasant—or at least, that the arrangement and construction within would be comfortably adapted to the purposes which the school-house was intended to fulfil. But an actual inspection of by far the greatest number of the school-houses in the State, by County Superintendents, discloses the unpleasant fact, that ordinarily the interior does but correspond with the exterior, or is, if possible, still worse. A very large proportion of these buildings throughout the State must be set down as in a miserable condition. The melancholy fact is established by the concurrent report of all our County Superintendents, that in every quarter of the State they are, as a class, altogether unsuited to their high purposes. Probably nine-tenths of them are located upon the line of the highway; and as the geographical centre of the district usually determines their situation, aside from the relation with the road, it is a rare chance that one is not placed in an exposed, unpleasant and uncomfortable spot. In some cases—especially in villages—their location seems to be determined by the worth, or rather by the *worthlessness* of the ground on which they stand—that being selected which is of the least value for any other purpose. Seldom or never do we see our school-houses surrounded by trees or shrubbery, to serve the purpose which they might serve so well—that of delighting the eye, gratifying the taste, and contributing to the physical comfort, by shielding from the scorching sun of summer, and breaking the bleak winds of winter. And from buildings thus situated and thus exposed, pupils are turned out into the streets for their sports, and for other purposes still more indispensable. What better results could be expected under such a system than that our 'girls should become hoydens and our boys blackguards?' Indeed it would be a happy event, if in no case results still more melancholy and disastrous than this were realized.

MAINE.

EXTRACT from a special "*Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education, upon the subject of School-Houses.*"

"It is worthy of note, and of most serious consideration, that a majority of the returns speak of ill-constructed school-houses as one of the most prominent 'defects in the practical operation of the law establishing common-schools.' The strength and uniformity of the language made use of, as well as the numerous applications to the members of the board, and their secretary, for information upon this subject, leave no room for doubt as to the existence of a wide-spread evil; an evil, the deleterious influence of which, unless it is reformed, and that speedily, is not to be con-

fined to the present generation, but must be entailed upon posterity. In remarking upon this subject, as long ago as 1832, it was said by the board of censors of the American Institute of Instruction, that 'if we were called upon to name the most prominent defect in the schools of our country; that which contributes most, directly and indirectly, to retard the progress of public education, and which most loudly calls for a prompt and thorough reform, it would be the want of spacious and convenient school-houses.' From every indication, there is reason to believe that the remark is applicable to our school-houses, in their present condition, as it was when made."

RHODE ISLAND.

EXTRACTS from "*Report on the condition and improvement of the Public Schools of Rhode Island, submitted Nov. 1, 1845, by Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools.*"

"Of these, (three hundred and twelve school-houses visited,) twenty-nine were owned by towns in their corporate capacity; one hundred and forty-seven by proprietors; and one hundred and forty-five by school districts. Of two hundred and eighty school-houses from which full returns were received, including those in Providence, twenty-five were in very good repair; sixty-two were in ordinary repair; and eighty-six were pronounced totally unfit for school purposes; sixty-five were located in the public highway, and one hundred and eighty directly on the line of the road, without any yard, or out-buildings attached; and but twenty-one had a play-ground inclosed. In over two hundred school-rooms, the average height was less than eight feet, without any opening in the ceiling, or other effectual means for ventilation; the seats and desks were calculated for more than two pupils, arranged on two or three sides of the room, and in most instances, where the results of actual measurement were given, the highest seats were over eighteen inches from the floor, and the lowest, except in twenty-five schools, were ever fourteen inches for the youngest pupils, and these seats were unprovided with backs. Two hundred and seventy schools were unfurnished with a clock, blackboard, or thermometer, and only five were provided with a scraper and mat for the feet."

MICHIGAN.

EXTRACTS from "*Annual Report of the Superintendent (Hon. Ira Mayhew) of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, submitted December 10, 1847.*"

"In architectural appearance, school-houses have more resembled barns, sheds for cattle, or mechanic shops, than Temples of Science,—windows are broken—benches are mutilated—desks are cut up—wood is unprovided—out-buildings are neglected—obscene images and vulgar delineations meet the eye without and within—the plastering is smoked and patched—the roof is so open as to let in a flood of water in a storm, sufficient to drown out a school, were not the floor equally open."

We close this mass of testimony as to the deplorable condition of the common, or public school-houses in States where public instruction has received the most attention, with an extract from a "*Report on School-houses, published by order of the Directors of the Essex County Teachers' Association in 1833.*"

“There is one subject more to which we must be permitted to refer. One in which the morals of the young are intimately connected, one in which parents, instructors, and scholars, should unite their efforts to produce a reform; there should be nothing in or about school-houses, calculated to defile the mind, corrupt the heart, or excite unholy and forbidden appetites; yet considering the various character of those brought together in our public schools, and considering also how inventive are corrupt minds, in exhibiting openly the defilement which reigns within, we do not know but we must expect that school-houses, as well as other public buildings, and even fences, will continue to bear occasional marks both of lust and profaneness. But we must confess that the general apathy which apparently exists on this subject, does appear strange to us. It is a humbling fact, that in many of these houses, there are highly indecent, profane, and libidinous marks, images and expressions, some of which are spread out in broad characters on the walls, where they unavoidably meet the eyes of all who come into the house, or being on the outside, salute the traveler as he passes by, wounding the delicate, and annoying the moral sensibilities of the heart. While there is still a much greater number in smaller character, upon the tables and seats of the students, and even in some instances, of the instructors, constantly before the eyes of those who happen to occupy them. How contaminating these must be, no one can be entirely insensible. And yet how unalarmed, or if not entirely unalarmed, how little is the mind of community directed to the subject, and how little effort put forth to stay this fountain of corruption. We will mention as evidence of the public apathy, one house which we suppose is this day, it certainly was a few months since, defiled by images and expressions of the kind referred to, spread out in open observation upon its walls, which are known to have been there for eight or ten years. In this building during all this time, the summer and winter schools have been kept; here the district have held their business meetings; here frequently has been the singing-school; here, too, religious meetings have often been held; here, too, the school committee, the fathers, mothers, and friends of the children, have come to witness the progress of their children in knowledge and virtue; all of whom must have witnessed, and been ashamed of their defilement, and yet no effectual effort has been put forth to remove them. Such things ought not to be; they can, to a considerable extent, be prevented. The community are not therefore altogether clear in this matter.

We will close these remarks by observing that after an extensive and careful examination of the state of a great number of school-houses in this and other States, we are constrained to believe, that in regard to accommodation, the convicts in the State Prisons, except those condemned to solitary and perpetual confinement, and we are not certain that in all cases these should be excepted, are better provided for, than the dear children of New England, the glory of the present, and the hope of the coming age. And when we regard the deleterious effect which the want of accommodation and other imperfections in and about these buildings, must have upon the growth, health, and perfectness of the bodily system, upon the mental and moral power, upon the tender and delicate feeling of the heart, we must suppose there is as pressing a call for the direct interference of the wise and benevolent, to produce an improvement, as there is for the efforts of the Prison Discipline Society, or for many of the benevolent exertions of the day. And we do most solemnly and affectionately call upon all, according to their situation in life, to direct their attention to the subject; for the bodies, the minds, the hearts of the young and rising generation require this. It is a service due to the present and future generation. A service due to their bodies and souls.”

II. GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

1. A location, healthy, accessible from all parts of the district; retired from the dust, noise, and danger of the highway; attractive, from its choice of sun and shade, and commanding, in one or more directions, the cheap, yet priceless educating influences of fine scenery.

2. A site large enough to admit of a yard in front of the building, either common to the whole school or appropriated to greensward, flowers and shrubbery, and two yards in the rear, one for each sex, properly inclosed, and fitted up with rotary swings, and other means of recreation and exercise, and with privies, which a civilized people never neglect.

3. Separate entrances to the school-room for each sex; each entrance distinct from the front door, and fitted up with scraper, mats, and old broom for the feet; with hooks, shelves, &c., for hats, overcoats, over-shoes, and umbrellas; with sink, pump, basin and towels, and with brooms and duster, and all the means and appliances necessary to secure habits of order, neatness and cleanliness.

4. School-room, in addition to the space required by aisles and the teacher's platform, sufficient to accommodate with a seat and desk, not only each scholar in the district who is in the habit of attending school, but all who may be entitled to attend; with verge enough to receive the children of industrious, thoughtful, and religious families, who are sure to be attracted to a district which is blessed with a good school-house and a good school.

5. At least one spare room for recitation, library, and other uses, to every school-room, no matter how small the school may be.

6. An arrangement of the windows, so as to secure one blank wall, and at the same time, the cheerfulness and warmth of the sunlight, at all times of the day, with arrangements to modify the same by blinds, shutters, or curtains.

7. Apparatus for warming, by which a large quantity of pure air from outside of the building can be moderately heated, and introduced into the room without passing over a red-hot iron surface, and distributed equally to different parts of the room.

8. A cheap, simple, and efficient mode of ventilation, by which the air in every part of a school-room, which is constantly becoming vitiated by respiration, combustion, or other causes, may be constantly flowing out of the room, and its place filled by an adequate supply of fresh air drawn from a pure source, and admitted into the room at the right temperature, of the requisite degree of moisture, and without any perceptible current.

9. A desk with at least two feet of top surface, and in no case for more than two pupils, inclined towards the front edge one inch in a foot, except two to three inches of the most distant portion, which should be level, and covered with cloth to prevent noise—fitted with an ink-pot (supplied with a lid and a pen-wiper,) and a slate, with a pencil-holder and a sponge attached, and supported by end-pieces or

stanchions, curved so as to be convenient for sweeping, and to admit of easy access to the seat—these of varying heights for small and large pupils, the front edge of each desk being from seven to nine inches (seven for the lowest and nine for the highest,) higher than the front edge of the seat or chair attached.

10. A chair or bench for each pupil, and in no case for more than two, unless separated by an aisle, with a seat hollowed like an ordinary chair, and varying in height from ten to seventeen inches from the outer edge to the floor, so that each pupil, when properly seated, can rest his feet on the floor without the muscles of the thigh pressing hard upon the front edge of the seat, and with a support for the muscles of the back, rising above the shoulder-blades.

11. An arrangement of the seats and desks, so as to allow of an aisle or free passage of at least two feet around the room, and between each range of seats for two scholars, and so as to bring each scholar under the supervision of the teacher.

12. Arrangements for the teacher, such as a separate closet for his overcoat, &c., a desk for his papers, a library of books of reference, maps, apparatus, and all such instrumentalities by which his capacities for instruction may be made in the highest degree useful.

13. Accommodations for a school library for consultation and circulation among the pupils, both at school and as a means of carrying on the work of self-education at their homes, in the field, or the workshop, after they have left school.

14. A design in good taste and fit proportion, in place of the wretched perversions of architecture, which almost universally characterize the district school-houses of New England.

15. While making suitable accommodation for the school, it will be a wise, and, all things considered, an economical investment, on the part of many districts, to provide apartments in the same building, or in its neighborhood, for the teacher and his family. This arrangement will give character and permanence to the office of teaching, and at the same time secure better supervision for the school-house and premises, and more attention to the manners of the pupils out of school. Provision for the residence of the teacher, and not unfrequently a garden for his cultivation, is made in connection with the parochial schools in Scotland, and with the first class of public schools in Germany.

16. Whenever practicable, the privies should be disconnected from the play-ground, and be approached from a covered walk. Perfect seclusion, neatness and propriety should be strictly observed in relation to them.

17. A shed, or covered walk, or the basement story paved under feet, and open for free circulation of air for the boys, and an upper room with the floor deafened and properly supported for calisthenic exercises for the girls, is a desirable appendage to every school.

As many of the houses described are provided with very inadequate means of warming and ventilation, the following summary of the principles, which ought to be regarded in all arrangements for

these objects, is given as the result of much observation, reflection, and experience.

1. The location of the school-house must be healthy, and all causes,—such as defective drains, stagnant water, decaying animal or vegetable substances, and manufactures, whose operations evolve offensive and deleterious gases,—calculated to vitiate the external atmosphere, from which the air of the school-room is supplied, must be removed or obviated.

2. The means provided for ventilation must be sufficient to secure the object, independent of doors and windows, and other lateral openings, which are intended primarily for the admission of light, passage to and from the apartment, and similar purposes. Any dependence on the opening of doors and windows, except in summer, will subject the occupants of the room near such points to currents of cold air when the pores of the skin are open, and when such extreme and rapid changes of temperature are particularly disagreeable and dangerous.

3. Any openings in the ceiling for the discharge of vitiated air into the attic, and hence to the exterior of the building, or by flues carried up in the wall, no matter how constructed or where placed, cannot be depended on for purposes of ventilation, unless systematic arrangements are adopted to effect, in concert with such openings, the introduction and diffusion of a constant and abundant supply of pure air, in the right condition as to temperature and moisture.

4. All stoves, or other heating apparatus, standing in the apartment to be warmed, and heating only the atmosphere of that apartment, which is constantly becoming more and more vitiated by respiration and other causes, are radically defective, and should be altogether, without delay, and forever discarded.

5. Any apparatus for warming pure air, before it is introduced into the school-room, in which the heating surface becomes *red-hot*, or the air is warmed above the temperature of boiling water, is inconsistent with true ventilation.

6. To effect the combined objects of warming and ventilation, a large quantity of moderately heated air should be introduced in such a manner as to reach every portion of the room, and be passed off by appropriate openings and flues, as fast as its oxygen is exhausted, and it becomes vitiated by carbonic acid gas, and other noxious qualities.

7. The size and number of the admission flues or openings will depend on the size of the school-room, and the number of persons occupying the same; but they should have a capacity to supply every person in the room with at least five cubic feet of air per minute. Warm air can be introduced at a high as well as a low point from the floor, provided there is an exhaustive power in the discharging flues sufficient to secure a powerful ascending current of vitiated air from openings near the floor.

8. Openings into flues for the discharge of vitiated air, should be made at such points in the room, and at such distances from the openings for the admission of pure warm air, that a portion of the

warm air will traverse every part of the room, and impart as much warmth as possible, before it becomes vitiated and escapes from the apartment.

These openings can be made near the floor, at points most distant from the admission flues, provided there is a fire draught, or other power operating in the discharging flues, sufficient to overcome the natural tendency of the warm air in the room to ascend to the ceiling; otherwise they should be inserted in or near the ceiling.

Openings at the floor are recommended, not because carbonic acid gas, being heavier than the other elements of atmospheric air, settles to the floor, (because, owing to the law of the diffusion of gazes among each other, carbonic acid gas will be found equally diffused through the room,) but because, when it can be drawn off at the floor, it will carry along with it the cold air which is admitted by open doors, and at cracks and crevices, and also the offensive gases sometimes found in school-rooms.

9. All openings, both for the admission and discharge of air, should be fitted with valves and registers, to regulate the quantity of air to pass through them. The quantity of air to be admitted should be regulated before it passes over the heating surface; otherwise, being confined in the air chamber and tubes, the excessive heat will cause much injury to the pipes and the woodwork adjoining.

10. All flues for ventilation, not intended to act in concert with some motive power, such as a fan, a pump, the mechanism of a clock, a fire-draught, a jet of steam, &c., but depending solely on the spontaneous upward movement of the column of warm air within them, should be made large, (of a capacity equal to at least 18 inches in diameter,) tight, (except the openings at the top and bottom of the room;) smooth, (if made of boards, the boards should be seasoned, matched, and planed; if made of bricks, the flue should be round, and finished smooth,) and carried up on the inside of the room, or in the inner wall, with as few angles and deviations from a direct ascent as possible, above the highest point of the roof.

11. All flues for the discharge of vitiated air, even when properly constructed and placed, and even when acting in concert with a current of warm air flowing into the room, should be supplied with some simple, reliable exhaustive power, which can be applied at all seasons of the year, and with a force varying with the demands of the season, and the condition of the air in the apartment.

12. The most simple, economical, and reliable motive power available in most school-houses is heat, or the same process by which the natural upward movements of air are induced and sustained. Heat can be applied to the column of air in a ventilating flue,

1. By carrying up the ventilating flue close beside, or even within the smoke flue, which is used in connection with the heating apparatus.

2. By carrying up the smoke-pipe within the ventilating flue, either the whole length, or in the upper portion only. In a small school-room, the heat from the smoke-pipe carried up for a few feet only in the ventilating flue before it projects above the roof, is a

motive power sufficient to sustain a constant draught of cool and vitiated air, into an opening near the floor.

3. By kindling a fire at the bottom, or other convenient point in the ventilating flue

If the same flue is used for smoke from the fire, and vitiated air from the apartment, some simple self-acting valve or damper should be applied to the opening for the escape of the vitiated air, which shall close at the slightest pressure from the inside of the flue, and thus prevent any reverse current, or down draught, carrying smoke and soot into the apartment.

4. By discharging a jet of steam, or a portion of warm air from the furnace, or other warming apparatus, directly into the ventilating flue.

Any application of heat by which the temperature of the air in the ventilating flue can be raised above the temperature of the apartment to be ventilated, will cause a flow of air from the apartment to sustain the combustion, (if there is a fire in the flue,) and to supply the partial vacuum in the flue, which is caused by the rarefaction of the air in the same.

In all school buildings, when several apartments are to be ventilated, the most effectual, and, all things considered, the most economical, mode of securing a motive power, is to construct an upright brick shaft or flue, and in that to build a fire, or carry up the smoke-pipe of the stove, furnace, or other warming apparatus; and then to discharge the ventilating flues from the top or bottom of each apartment, into this upright shaft. The fire draught will create a partial vacuum in this shaft, to fill which, a draught will be established upon every room with which it is connected by lateral flues. Whenever a shaft of this kind is resorted to, the flues for ventilation may be lateral, and the openings into them may be inserted near the floor.

13. With a flue properly constructed, so as to facilitate the spontaneous upward movement of the warm air within it, and so placed that the air is not exposed to the chilling influence of external cold, a turncap, constructed after the plan of Emerson's Ejector, or Mott's Exhausting Cowl, will assist the ventilation, and especially when there are any currents in the atmosphere. But such caps are not sufficient to overcome any considerable defects in the construction of the ventilating flues, even when there is much wind.

14. The warming and ventilation of a school-room will be facilitated by applying a double sash to all windows having a northern and eastern exposure.

15. In every furnace, and on every stove, a capacious vessel well supplied with fresh water, and protected from the dust, should be placed.

16. Every school-room should be furnished with two thermometers placed on opposite sides in the room, and the temperature in the winter should not be allowed to attain beyond 68° Fahrenheit at a level of four feet from the floor, or 70° at the height of six feet.

17. The necessity for ventilation in an occupied apartment is not obviated by merely reducing the atmosphere to a low temperature.

In the following pages will be found plans and descriptions of a few of the best school-houses, which have been recently erected in Rhode Island and Connecticut, for schools of different grades, from designs or directions furnished by the author of this treatise. They are not presented as faultless specimens of school architecture, but as embracing, each, some points of excellence, either in style, construction, or arrangement. Although the author, as Commissioner of Public Schools for Rhode Island, was consulted in almost every instance by the local building committee, and was always gratified in having opportunities to furnish plans, or make suggestions,—yet he was seldom able to persuade the committee, or the carpenters, to carry out his plans and suggestions thoroughly. Something would be taken from the height, or the length, or the breadth;—some objections would be made to the style of the exterior or the arrangement of the interior;—and particularly the plans recommended for securing warmth and ventilation were almost invariably modified, and in very many instances entirely neglected. He desires, therefore, not to be held responsible for the details of any one house as it now stands,—for being thus held responsible, he should probably receive credit for improvements which others are as much entitled to as himself, and should in more instances be held accountable for errors of taste, and deficiencies in internal arrangements, against which he protested with those having charge of the building. He wishes the reader to bring all the plans published in this volume, no matter by whom recommended, or where erected, to the test of the principles which have just been briefly set forth. If in any particular they fall short of the standard therein established, so far they differ from the designs which the author would try to see followed in houses erected under his own eye. But with some reservation, most of the school-houses recently erected in Rhode Island can be pointed to as embracing many improvements in school architecture. Although the last state in New England to enter on the work of establishing a system of common schools, it is believed, she has now a system in operation not inferior in efficiency to any of her sister states. Be that as it may, Rhode Island can now boast of more good school-houses, and fewer poor ones, in proportion to the whole number, than any other State—more than one hundred and fifty thousand dollars having been voluntarily voted for this purpose in less than three years, by school districts, not including the city of Providence. The few poor houses which remain, if they can resist much longer the attacks of the elements, cannot stand up against the accumulating weight of public condemnation.

To Mr. Thomas A. Teft, of Providence, much credit is due for the taste which he has displayed in the designs furnished by him, and for the elevations which he drew for plans furnished or suggested by the Commissioner. He should, not, however, be held responsible for the alterations made in his plans by the committees and carpenters having charge of the erection of the buildings after plans furnished by him.

III. PLANS OF SCHOOL-HOUSES.

In determining the details of construction and arrangement for a school-house, due regard must, of course, be had to the varying circumstances of country and city, of a large and a small number of scholars, of schools of different grades, and of different systems of instruction.

1. In by far the largest number of country districts as they are now situated, there will be but one school-room, with a smaller room for recitations and other purposes needed. This must be arranged and fitted up for scholars of all ages, for the varying circumstances of a summer and of a winter school, and for other purposes, religious and secular, than those of a school, and in every particular of construction and arrangement, the closest economy of material and labor must be studied. A union of two or more districts for the purpose of maintaining in each a school for the younger children, and in the center of the associated districts a school for the older children of all or, what would be better, a consolidation of two or more districts into one, for these and all other school purposes, would do away with the almost insuperable difficulties which now exist in country districts, in the way of comfortable and attractive school-houses, as well as of thoroughly governed and instructed schools.

2. In small villages, or populous country districts, at least two school-rooms should be provided, and as there will be other places for public meetings of various kinds, each room should be appropriated and fitted up exclusively for the use of the younger or the older pupils. It is better, on many accounts, to have two schools on the same floor, than one above the other.

3. In large villages and cities, a better classification of the schools can be adopted, and, of course, more completeness can be given to the construction and arrangement of the buildings and rooms appropriated to each grade of schools. This classification should embrace at least three grades—viz. Primary, with an infant department; Secondary, or Grammar; Superior, or High Schools. In manufacturing villages, and in certain sections of large cities, regularly organized Infant Schools should be established and devoted mainly to the culture of the morals, manners, language and health of very young children.

4. The arrangement as to supervision, instruction and recitations, must have reference to the size of the school; the number of teachers and assistants; the general organization of the school, whether in one room for study, and separate class rooms for recitation, or the several classes in distinct rooms under appropriate teachers, each teacher having specified studies; and the method of instruction pursued, whether the mutual, simultaneous, or mixed.

Since the year 1830, and especially since 1838, much ingenuity has been expended by practical teachers and architects, in devising and perfecting plans of school-houses, with all the details of construction and fixtures, modified to suit the varied circumstances enumerated above, specimens of which, with explanations and descriptions, will be here given.

PLANS OF SCHOOL-HOUSES WITH ONE SCHOOL-ROOM.

THE largest number of school-houses which are erected with but one school-room, are intended for District, or for Primary Schools.

DISTRICT SCHOOL.

By a District School, in this connection, is understood a public school open to all the children of the district, of both sexes, and of the school age recognized by the practice of the district, or the regulations of the school committee of the town to which such district belongs. It is an unclassified school, and is taught in one apartment, by one teacher, usually without any assistance even from older pupils of the school. It varies in the character of its scholars, and its methods of instruction, from summer to winter, and from winter to summer. In summer, the younger children and classes in the elementary studies predominate, and in the winter the older pupils, and classes in the more advanced studies, whilst some of both extremes, as to age and studies, are to be found in both the winter and summer session of the district school. This variety of ages and studies, and consequent variety of classes, increased by the irregularity of attendance, is not only a serious hinderance to the proper arrangement, instruction and government of the school, but presents almost insuperable obstacles to the appropriate construction and furniture of the school-house, which is too often erected on the smallest possible scale of size and expense. A vast amount of physical suffering and discomfort to the pupils is the necessary result of crowding the older and younger pupils into a small apartment, without seats and furniture appropriate to either, and especially when no precaution has been taken to adapt the supply and arrangements of seats and desks according to the varying circumstances of the same school in winter and summer. In every district, or unclassified school, the school-room should be fitted up with seats and desks for the older and younger pupils, sufficient to accommodate the maximum attendance of each class of scholars at any season of the year. And if this cannot be effected, and only a sufficient number of seats can be secured to accommodate the highest number of both sexes in attendance at any one time, then in winter the seats and desks for the smaller children should be removed to the attic, and their place supplied by additional seats and desks for the older pupils; and in summer this arrangement should be reversed.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

By a Primary School, in our American School Systems, is understood, not generally an Elementary School, embracing a course of instruction for the great mass of the children of the community

under fourteen years of age—but specifically, that class or grade of schools which receive only the youngest pupils, and those least advanced in their studies.

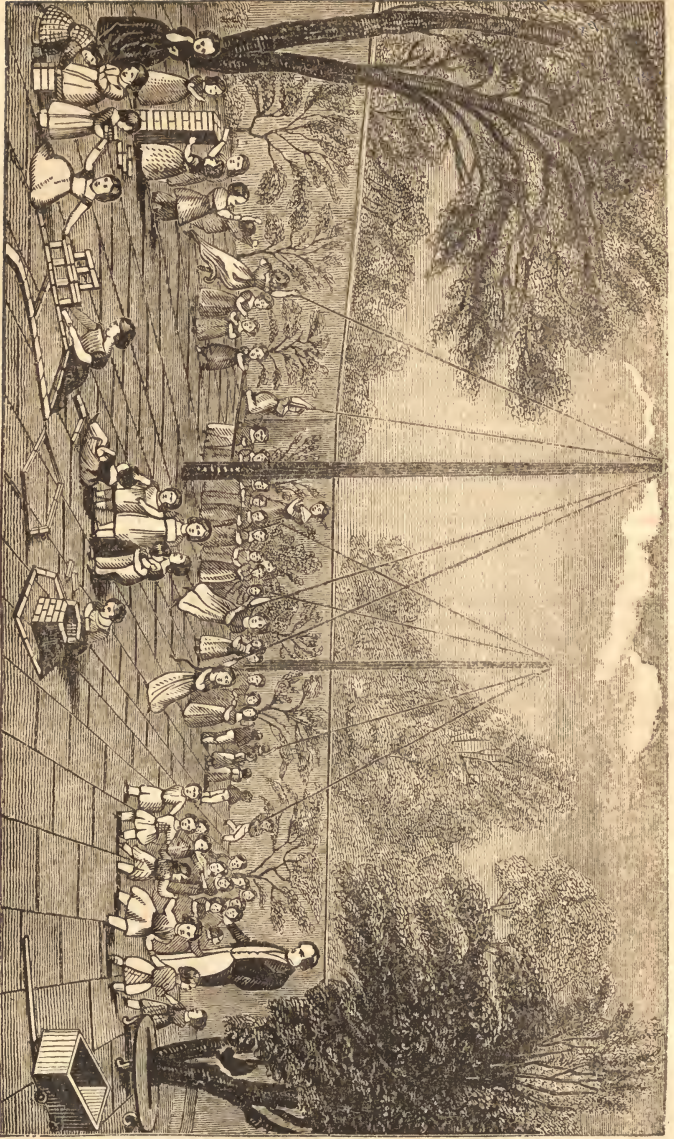
Any scheme of school organization will be imperfect which does not include special arrangements for the systematic training and instruction of very young children, especially in all cities, manufacturing villages, and large neighborhoods. Among the population of such places, many parents are sure to be found, who, for want of intelligence or leisure, of constancy and patience, are unfitted to watch the first blossoming of the souls of their children, and to train them to good physical habits, virtuous impulses, and quick and accurate observations; to cleanliness, obedience, openness, mutual kindness, piety, and all the virtues which wise and far-seeing parents desire for their offspring. The general result of the home training of the children of such parents, is the neglect of all moral culture when such culture is most valuable; and the acquisition of manners, personal habits, and language, which the best school training at a later period of life can with difficulty correct or eradicate. To meet the wants of this class of children, Halls of Refuge and Infant Schools were originally instituted by Oberlin, Owen, and Wilderspin, and now constitute under these names, or the names of Primary Schools, or Primary Departments, a most important branch of elementary education, whether sustained by individual charity, or as part of the organization of public instruction.

No one at all acquainted with the history of education in this country, can doubt that the establishment of the Primary School for children under six years of age, in Boston, in 1818, as a distinct grade of schools, with the modifications which it has since received there, and elsewhere, from the principles and methods of the Infant School system, has led to most important improvements in the quality and quantity of instruction in our public schools, and the sooner a Primary School properly organized, furnished and managed, can be established in every large neighborhood, and especially in the “infected districts” of cities and manufacturing villages, the more rapid and more thorough will be the progress of education. Its doors should stand wide open to receive such children as are abandoned by orphanage, or, worse than orphanage, by parental neglect and example, to idle, vicious, and pilfering habits, before the corruptions incident to their situation have struck deep into their moral nature, and before they have fallen under the alluring and training influences and instruction of bad boys who infest such regions, polluting the atmosphere by their profane and vulgar speech, and participating in every street brawl and low-bred riot. From all such influences, the earlier the children of the poor and the ignorant are withdrawn, and placed under the care and instruction of an Infant or Primary School, the better it will be for them and for society. But in every locality the Primary School should be established, and brought as near as possible to the homes of the children, in order to secure their early and regular attendance, and to relieve the anxiety of parents for their safety on their way to and from

school. The peculiarities of play-ground, school-room, and teachers required for this class of schools, should be carefully studied, and promptly and liberally provided. The school-room should be light, cheerful, and large enough for the evolutions of large classes,—furnished with appropriate seats, furniture, apparatus, and means of visible illustration, and having a retired, dry, and airy play-ground, with a shelter to resort to in inclement weather, and with flower borders, shrubbery, and shade-trees, which they should be taught to love and respect. The play-ground is as essential as the school-room for a Primary School, and is indeed the uncovered school-room of physical and moral education, and the place where the manners and personal habits of children can be better trained than elsewhere. With them, the hours of play and study, of confinement and recreation, must alternate more frequently than with older pupils.

To teach these schools properly, to regulate the hours of play and study so as to give variety, vivacity, and interest to all of the exercises, without over-exciting the nervous system, or overtaking any faculty of mind or body,—to train boys and girls to mild dispositions, graceful and respectful manners, and unquestioning obedience,—to preserve and quicken a tenderness and sensibility of conscience as the instinctive monitor of the approach of wrong,—to cultivate the senses to habits of quick and accurate observation and discrimination,—to prevent the formation of artificial and sing-song tones,—to teach the use of the voice, and of simple, ready, and correct language, and to begin in this way, and by appropriate exercises in drawing, calculation, and lessons on the properties and classification of objects, the cultivation of the intellectual faculties,—to do all these things and more, require in the teacher a rare union of qualities, seldom found in one in a hundred of the male sex, and to be looked for with the greatest chance of success among females, “in whose own hearts, love, hope, and patience have first kept school,” and whose laps seem always full of the blossoms of knowledge, to be showered on the heads and hearts of infancy and childhood. In the right education of early childhood, must we look for a corrective of the evils of society in our large cities and manufacturing villages, and for the beginning of a better and higher civilization than has yet blessed our world. The earlier we can establish, in every populous district, primary schools, under female teachers, whose hearts are made strong by deep religious principle,—who have faith in the power of Christian love steadily exerted to fashion anew the bad manners, and soften the harsh and self-willed perverseness of neglected children,—with patience to begin every morning, with but little, if any, perceptible advance beyond where they began the previous morning,—with prompt and kind sympathies, and ready skill in music, drawing, and oral methods, the better it will be for the cause of education, and for every other good cause.

THE following plan of a Play Ground for an Infant or Primary School is copied from “*Wilderspin’s Early Education.*” We should prefer to see an accomplished female teacher presiding over the scene.



Play-Ground for an Infant or Primary School.

The chief requisites in an infant-school play-ground are the following : A Climbing Stand ; a Horizontal Bar ; Parallel Bars ; Wooden Swings ; a Double Inclined Plane.

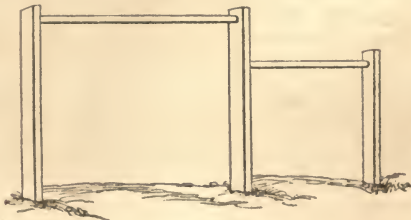
The Climbing Stand consists essentially of a frame-work of poles, which support ropes for climbing. One of the most simple and economical is made of two ordinary scaffold poles, planed smooth and painted, which support a transverse beam having hooks, to which the ropes are attached.

The dimensions may be as follows : Length of perpendicular poles, 15 feet, of which 4 feet are sunk in the ground ; circumference of poles at the surface of the ground, 14 inches ; length of transverse beam at top, 9 feet. To this beam are attached, by screwing in, two iron hooks, which support the ropes ; these are $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, to afford a firm grasp to the hand. In order that the ropes may not wear through where attached to the hooks, they are spliced round an iron ring, which is grooved on the outer surface to give a firmer hold to the rope. Both the ropes should be attached to the bottom of the poles so as to hang loosely : if not fastened at the bottom, the children use them as swings while clinging to them, and are apt to injure themselves by falling, or others by coming violently in contact with them.

No apparatus is more advantageous : it is economical in its erection, and not liable to get out of order ; it affords exercise to a number of children at the same time, a succession being constantly engaged in climbing and descending the ropes and poles ; the muscular exertion is not violent, but decidedly beneficial, expanding the chest, and giving power and freedom of motion to the arms. This exercise is also quite free from danger, the children never advancing higher up the ropes than they feel themselves secure. During the seven years the Home and Colonial Infant-school has been established, 200 children have been the average attendance, but no accidents have occurred from the use of the climbing-stand.

The Horizontal Bar consists of a wooden bar formed of beech, red deal, or some other tough wood not apt to splinter or warp, about three inches in diameter, and usually six feet long, turned or planed round and smooth, in order that the hands may not be blistered by the friction.

Every play-ground should possess two or three of these useful additions ; one 6 feet from the ground, another 5 feet, and a third 4 feet high,—each one being supported and fixed firmly by a post at both ends. Or they may be arranged so that four posts will support the three bars. The exercises performed on the horizontal bars consist in the child remaining suspended by the arms and hands ; in drawing the body up so as to look over the bar several times in succession ; in traversing from one end of the bar to the other (suspended by the hands,) both backwards and forwards ; in swinging the body whilst suspended from the bar.



The *Parallel Bar* consists of two bars placed parallel with one another, each being from 6 to 8 feet long, 4 inches deep by 2 inches wide, with the corners rounded off. The posts that support these bars in their position should be 18 inches apart. The bars should project four inches beyond the post.

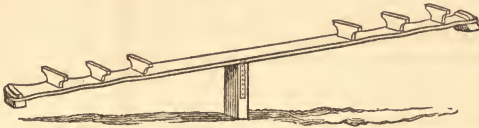


Two sets of parallel bars are advantageous, one being 2 feet 9 inches high for the younger children, the other 4 feet high for the elder.

The exercises on these bars consist in supporting the body on the arms, one hand resting on each bar, and by moving each hand alternately, proceeding forwards and backwards along the bars; in swinging the body between the arms; and in springing over the bar on each side, both backwards and forwards.

The *Wooden Springs* afford a kind of exercise extremely popular with the younger children, who are not sufficiently active to take part in the other exercises. Each swing consists of two distinct parts: 1. A piece of 2-inch deal, 1 foot wide and 3 feet long, one end of which is sunk firmly in the ground, the other projecting 18 inches above the surface. At each edge of this piece is screwed on an iron plate, with an eye to receive the iron pivot on which the upper piece works. The upper, or horizontal piece, is made of 2-inch plank, 1 foot wide and 12 feet long. At each end of this piece three handles, formed of 1½-inch deal, are strongly mortised in, 1 foot apart, thus forming seats for three children at each end. Between the handles the plank should be rounded at the edges, so as to form an easy seat. At the under surface of each end a small block of wood is fixed, to prevent the plank wearing by striking the ground.

The above directions should be adhered to. If the support be made lower, the motion of the swing is much lessened; if the plank be made shorter, or the support higher, the swing approaches too nearly to the perpendicular, and serious accidents may ensue from the children being thrown violently from the seats. The whole should be made as stout as recommended, otherwise it is apt to break from the violent action.



The *Double Inclined Plane* is adapted more especially for the younger children. It consists merely of a support of two-inch deal, 1 foot wide, and projecting 3 feet from the ground. On this is laid the ends of two planks, each 12 feet long, 1 foot wide, and 1½ inch in thickness. On the upper surface of each plank may be nailed, at intervals of eight or ten inches, small cross-pieces, to prevent the feet slipping.

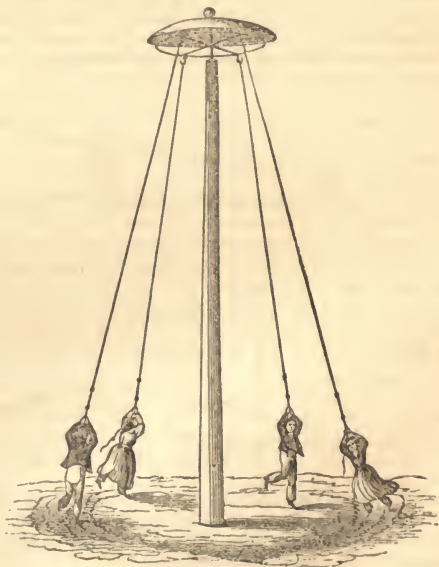


The use of the inclined plane is, that by ascending and descending it, children acquire a facility in balancing themselves. The exercise is beneficial, as it calls into action the muscles of the legs and even of the body. It also furnishes an excellent situation to jump from, as the children can themselves vary the height of the leap at pleasure.

The general use of all these various exercises is, that the different muscles of the body may be strengthened, and the children thus fitted for a future life of labor, and better prepared to escape in case of accidents.

The house should stand in a dry and airy situation, large enough to allow a spacious play ground. No pains should be spared on this principal and paramount department of a proper infant school. The more extensive the ground may be, the better; but the smallest size for 200 children ought to be 100 feet in length, by at least 60 in breadth. It should be walled round, not so much to prevent the children from straying, as to exclude intruders upon them, while at play: for this purpose, a wall or close paling, not lower than six feet high, will be found sufficient. With the exception of a flower border, from four to six feet broad all round, lay the whole ground, after leveling and draining it thoroughly, with small *binding* gravel, which must be always kept in repair, and well swept of loose stones. Watch the gravel, and prevent the children making holes in it to form pools in wet weather; dress the flower border, and keep it always neat; stock it well with flowers and shrubs, and make it as gay and beautiful as possible. Train on the walls cherry and other fruit trees and currant bushes; place some ornaments and tasteful decorations in different parts of the border—as a honeysuckle bower, &c., and separate the dressed ground from the graveled area by a border of strawberry plants, which may be protected from the feet of the children by a skirting of wood on the outside, three inches high, and painted green, all round the ground. Something even approaching to elegance in the dressing and decking of the playground, will afford a lesson which may contribute to refinement and comfort for life. It will lead not only to clean and comfortable dwellings, but to a taste for decoration and beauty, which will tend mainly to expel coarseness, discomfort, dirt, and vice, from the economy of the humbler classes.

For the excellent and safe exercise afforded by the *Rotary Swing*, erect, at the distance of thirty feet from each other, two posts or masts, from sixteen to eighteen feet high above the ground; nine inches diameter at the foot, diminishing to seven and a half at top; of good well-seasoned, hard timber; charred with fire, about three feet under ground, fixed in sleepers, and bound at top with a strong iron hoop. In the middle of the top of the post is sunk perpendicularly a cylindrical hole, ten inches deep, and two inches in diameter, made strong by an iron ring two inches broad within the top, and by a piece of iron an inch thick to fill up the bottom, tightly fixed in. A strong pivot of iron, of diameter to turn easily in the socket described, but with as little lateral play as possible, is placed vertically in the hole, its upper end standing 4 inches above it. On this pivot, as an axle, and close to the top of the post, but so as to turn easily, is fixed a wheel of iron, twenty-four inches diameter, strengthened by four



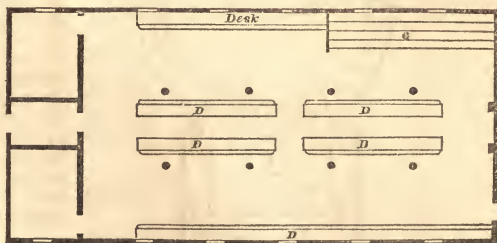
Rotary Swing.

spokes, something like a common roasting-jack wheel, but a little larger. The rim should be flat, two inches broad, and half an inch thick. In this rim are six holes or eyes, in which rivet six strong iron hooks, made to *turn in the holes*, to prevent the rope from twisting. To these hooks are fixed six well-chosen ropes, an inch diameter, and each reaching down to within two feet of the ground, having half-a-dozen knots, or small wooden balls, fixed with nails, a foot from each other, beginning at the lower extremity, and ascending to six feet from the ground. A tin cap, like a lamp cover, is placed on the top of the whole machine, fixed to the prolongation of the pivot, and a little larger than the wheel, to protect it from wet. To this, or to the wheel itself, a few waggoners' bells appended, would have a cheerful effect on the children. The operation of this swing must, from the annexed cut, be obvious. Four, or even six children, lay hold of a rope each, as high as they can reach, and, starting at the same instant, run a few steps in the circle, then suspend themselves by their hands, drop their feet and run again when fresh impulse is wanted; again swing round, and so on. A child of three or four years old, will often fly several times round the circle without touching the ground. There is not a muscle in the body which is not thus exercised; and to render the exercise equal to both halves of the body, it is important that, after several rounds in one direction, the party should stop, change the hands, and go round in the opposite direction. To prevent fatigue, and to equalize the exercise among the pupils, the rule should be, that each six pupils should have thirty or forty rounds, and resign the ropes to six more, who have counted the rotations.

Toys being discarded as of no use, or real pleasure, the only *plaything* of the playground consists of bricks for building, made of wood, four inches by two and one and a-half. Some hundreds of these, very equally made, should be kept in a large box in a corner of the ground, as the quieter children delight to build houses and castles with them; the condition, however, always to be, that they shall correctly and conscientiously replace in the box the full complement or *tale* of bricks they take out; in which rule, too, there is more than one lesson.

In a corner of the playground, concealed by shrubbery, are two water closets for the children, with six or eight seats in each; that for the boys is separate from, and entered by, a different passage from that for the girls. Supply the closets well with water, which, from a cistern at the upper end, shall run along with a slope under all the seats, into a sewer, or a pit in the ground. See that the closets are in no way misused, or abused. The eye of the teacher and mistress should often be here, for the sake both of cleanliness and delicacy. Mr. Wilderspin recommends the closets being built adjoining the small class-room, with small apertures for the teacher's eye in the class-room wall, covered with a spring lid, and commanding the range of the place. There is nothing in which children, especially in the humbler ranks, require more training.

The annexed cut represents an infant school-room, modified in a few unimportant particulars, from the ground plan recommended by Mr. Wilderspin in his "*Early Education*," published in 1840. The original plan embraces a dwelling for the



teacher's family, and two school-rooms, one for the boys and the other for the girls, each school having a gallery, class-room, and playground. The school-room is about 60 feet long by 38 wide, and the class-rooms each 13 ft. by 10. D. Desks and Seats. G. Gallery, capable of accommodating 100 children.

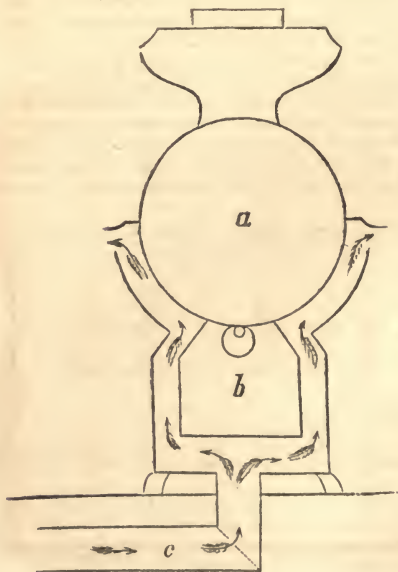
PLAN OF DISTRICT SCHOOL-HOUSE IN GLOCESTER, R. I.



The above cut represents the front elevation of a new school-house erected in District No. 13, in the town of Glocester, Rhode Island, which, for location, neatness, and proportion in the external appearance, mode of seating, warming and ventilation, can be consulted as a safe model for small agricultural districts. The cost of the building and furniture was \$600. The style and arrangement of the seats and desks is indicated in Figures 3 and 4. The end pieces are of cast iron, and so shaped, as to facilitate the sweeping of the room, and the pupils getting in and out of their seats, and at the same time are firmly attached to the floor by screws. This building is 30 feet by 20 feet.

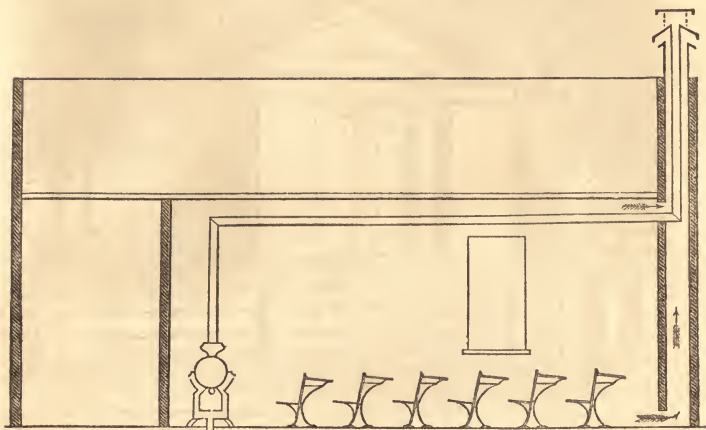
The room is heated by *Moll's Ventilating School Stove*, designed both for wood and hard coal. Fresh air is introduced from outside of the building by a flue beneath the floor, and is warmed by passing along the heated surfaces of the stove as indicated in the following section.

FIG. 2.



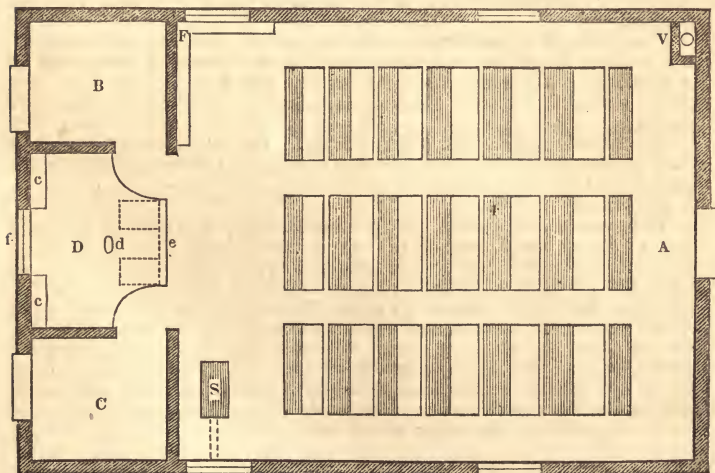
- A. A chamber, for coal or wood.
- B. A revolving grate with a cam motion, by which the ashes are easily detached and made to drop into the ash-pit below.
- C. Ash-pit, by which also the draught can be regulated, and the stove made an air-tight.
- D. Duct, or flue under the floor, by which fresh air from without is admitted under and around the stove, and circulates in the direction indicated by the arrows.

The smoke-pipe is carried in the usual way, high enough to prevent any injurious radiation of heat upon the heads of the pupils below, to the centre of the opposite end of the room, where, after passing through the ceiling, it enters the ventilating flue, which, commencing at the floor, is carried up through the attic and out above the roof, as shown in Figures 3 and 4. The heat of the smoke-pipe produces a lively upward current of the air in the upper portion of the ventilating flue, sufficient to draw off the lower stratum of air near the floor, and at the same time draw down, and diffuse equally through the room, the fresh air which is introduced and warmed by the stove at the opposite end.



- A—Front entrance.
- B—Girls' Entrance and lobby.
- C—Boys' do. do.
- D—Teachers' platform.
- E—Seat and desk, for the pupils.
- S—Mott's ventilating school stove.
- V—Flue for ventilation.

- F—Seats for classes at recitation.
- d—Teacher's desk.
- e—Library of reference in front of teacher's desk.
- c—Closets for school library and apparatus.
- f—Fence dividing back yard.



PLAN AND DESCRIPTION OF SCHOOL-HOUSE IN WINDSOR, CT.

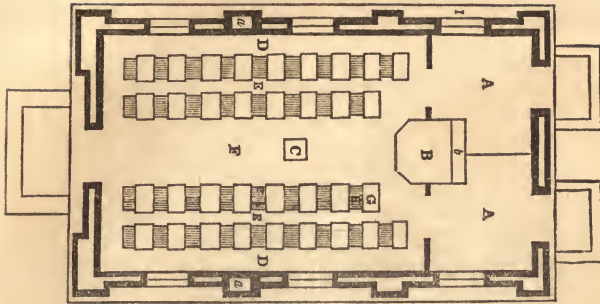


The building stands 60 ft. from the highway, near the center of an elevated lot which slopes a little to the south and east. Much the larger portion of the lot is in front, affording a pleasant play ground, while in the rear there is a woodshed, and other appropriate buildings, with a separate yard for boys and girls. The walls are of brick, and are hollow, so as to save expense in securing the antaes or pilasters, and to prevent dampness. This building is 33 ft. 6 inches long, 21 ft. 8 inches wide, and 18 ft. 9 inches high from the ground to the eaves, including 2 ft. base or underpinning.

The entries A A, one for boys and the other for girls, are in the rear of the building, through the woodshed, which, with the yard, is also divided by a partition. Each entry is 7 ft. 3 inches, by 9 ft. 3 inches, and is supplied with a scraper and mat for the feet, and shelves and hooks for outer garments.

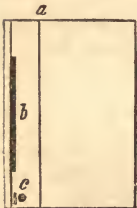
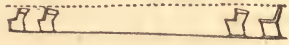
The school-room is 24 ft. 5 inches long, by 19 ft. 4 inches wide, and 15 ft. 6 inches high in the clear, allowing an area of 472 ft. including the recess for the teacher's platform, and an allowance of 200 cubic feet of air to a school of 36.

The teacher's platform B, is 5 ft. 2 inches wide, by 6 ft. deep, including 3 ft. of recess, and 9 inches high. On it stands a table, the legs of which are set into the floor, so as to be firm, and at the same time movable, in case the platform is needed for declamation, or other exercises of the scholars. Back of the teacher is a range of shelves *b*, already supplied with a library of near 400 volumes, and a globe, outline maps, and other apparatus. On the top of the case is a clock. A blackboard 5 ft. by 4, is suspended on weights, and steadied by a groove on each end, so as to admit of being raised and lowered by the teacher, directly in front of the book case, and in full view of the whole school. At the bottom of the blackboard is a trough to receive the chalk and the sponge, or soft cloth.

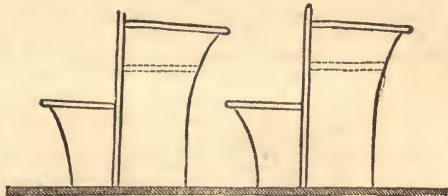


The passages D D, are 2 ft. wide, and extend round the room; E E are 15 inches, and allow of easy access to the seats and desks on either hand. F is 5 ft. 3 inches, and in the center stands an open stove C, the pipe of which goes into one of the flues, *a*. The temperature is regulated by a thermometer.

Each pupil is provided with a desk G, and seat H, the front of the former, constituting the back or support of the latter, which slopes $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches in 16. The seat also inclines a little from the edge. The seats vary in height, from $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches to 17, the youngest children occupying those nearest the platform. The desks are 2 ft. long by 18 inches wide, with a shelf beneath for books, and a groove on the back side *b*, (Fig. 4) to receive a slate, with which each desk is furnished by the district. The upper surface of the desk, except 3 inches of the most distant portion, slopes 1 inch in a foot, and the edge is in the same perpendicular line with the front of the seat. The level portion of the desk has a groove running along the line of the



Top of Desk.



Section of Seat and Desk.

slope *a*, (Fig. 4) so as to prevent pencils and pens from rolling off, and an opening *c*, (Fig 8) to receive an inkstand, which is covered by a metallic lid.

The windows, I, three on the north and three on the south side, contain each 40 panes of 8 by 10 glass, are hung (both upper and lower sash) with weights so as to admit of being raised or lowered conveniently. The sills are three feet from the floor. Those on the south side are provided with curtains and blinds.

The proper ventilation of the room is provided for by the lowering of the upper sash, and by an opening 14 inches by 18, near the ceiling, into a flue, (Fig. 2.) *a*, which leads into the open air. This opening can be enlarged, diminished, or entirely closed by a shutter controlled by a cord.

PLAN OF DISTRICT SCHOOL-HOUSE IN BARRINGTON, R. I.



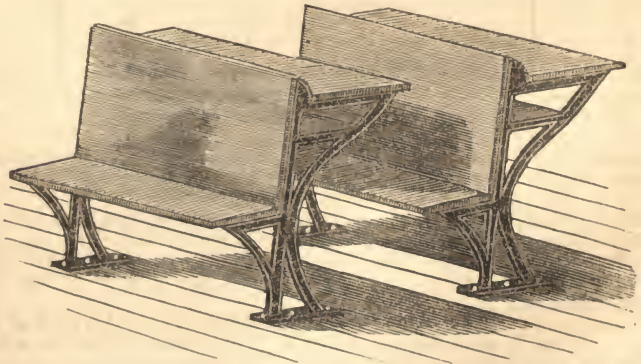
The above cut represents in perspective the new school-house in District No. 2, in the town of Barrington, Rhode Island—the most attractive, convenient, and complete structure of the kind in any agricultural district in the State—and, it is believed, in New England.

The house stands back from the highway in a lot, of an acre in extent, and commands an extensive view up and down Narraganset Bay, and of the rich cultivated fields for miles in every other direction.

The building is 40 feet long by 25 wide, and 12 feet high in the clear, and is built after working plans drawn by Mr. Telf, of Providence.

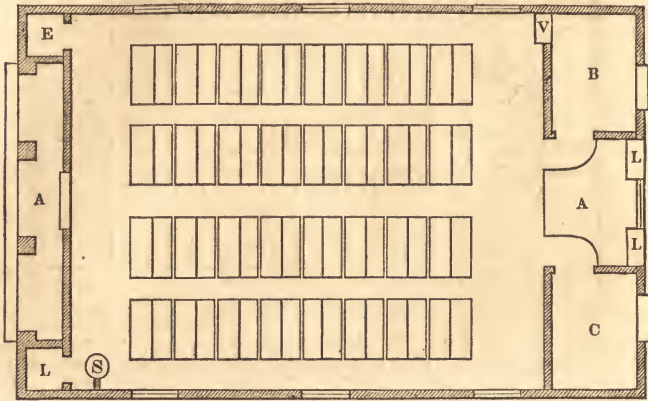
The school-room is calculated to accommodate 64 pupils, with seats and desks each for two pupils, similar to the following cut, and arranged as in Figure 3.

The end-piece, or supports, both of the desk and seat, are of cast-iron, and the wood-work is attached by screws. They are made of eight sizes, giving a seat from ten inches to seventeen, and a desk at the edge next to the scholar from seventeen to twenty-six inches from the floor.



Each pupil, when properly seated, can rest his feet on the floor without the muscle of the thigh pressing hard upon the front edge of the seat, and with a support for the muscles of the back.

The yards and entrance for the boys and girls are entirely separate, and each is appropriately fitted up with scraper, mats, broom, water-pails, sink, hooks and shelves.



- A—Front entrance.
 B—Girls' entrance and lobby, fitted up with mats, scrapers, hooks, shelves.
 C—Boys' entrance.
 D—Teacher's platform.
 S—Boston Ventilating Stove.
 V—Flue for ventilation surmounted, by Emerson's Ejector.
 L—Cases for library.
 E—Closets for apparatus, &c.

The school is well supplied with blackboards, maps, globes, and diagrams, and such other instrumentalities as are necessary and useful in the studies usually taught in a district school.

There is abundance of unoccupied space around the sides of the room and between the ranges of desks to allow of the free movements of the teacher and of the pupils, in passing to and from their seats.

There is also a district library of about 600 volumes, containing a large number of books of reference, such as Dictionaries, Encyclopedia, and a variety of the best text books in the several studies of the school, to enable the teacher to extend his knowledge, and illustrate his recitations by additional information.

There are about one hundred volumes selected with reference to the youngest class of children, and about 400 volumes in the different departments of useful knowledge, calculated for circulation among the older pupils, in the families of the district generally.

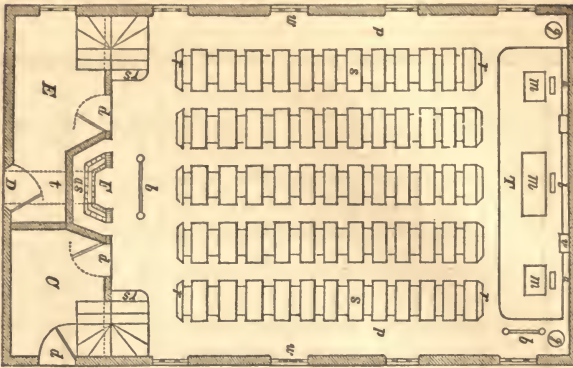
The maps, apparatus and library were purchased by the Commissioner of Public Schools at an expense of \$250, which was contributed by five or six individuals. The building, furniture and land, cost about \$1200.

The school-room is warmed and ventilated under the direction of Mr. Gardner Chilson, Boston, by one of the *Boston Ventilating Stoves*, and by a flue constructed similar to those recently introduced into the Boston Public School houses by Dr. Henry G. Clark, and surmounted by Emerson's Ejector.

A cut and description of this stove, and of *Mott's Ventilating Stove* for burning wood as well as coal, is given on the next page.

The flue for ventilation is carried up in the partition wall, and is constructed of well seasoned boards, planed smooth on the inside.

SCHOOL FOR ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY PUPILS.

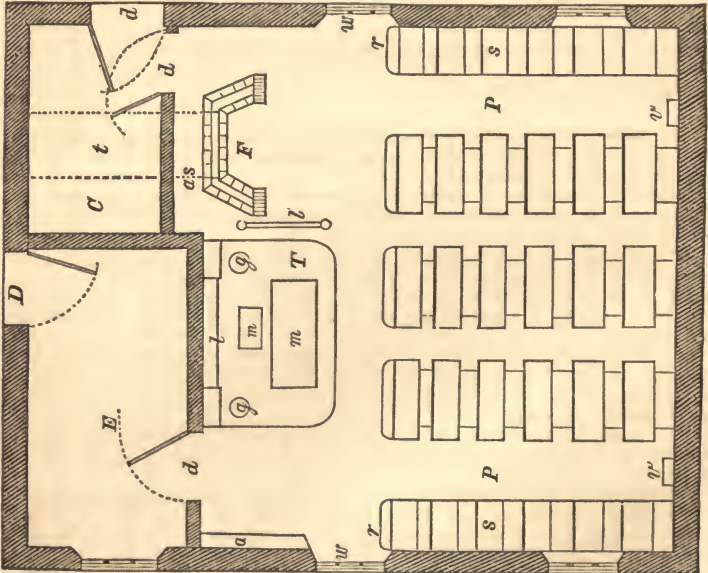


51 feet by 31 feet outside.]

[Scale 16 feet to the inch.

D. Entrance door. E. Entry. F. Fireplace. C. Wood closet. T. Teacher's platform. *a*. Apparatus shelves. *t*. Air tube beneath the floor. *d*. Doors. *g*. Globes. *l*. Library shelves. *m*. Master's table and seat. *p*. Passages. *r*. Recitation seats. *s*. Scholars' desks and seats. *rs*. Stairs to recitation rooms in the attic. *v*. Ventilator. *w*. Windows. *b*. Movable blackboard. *a s*. Air space behind the fireplace.

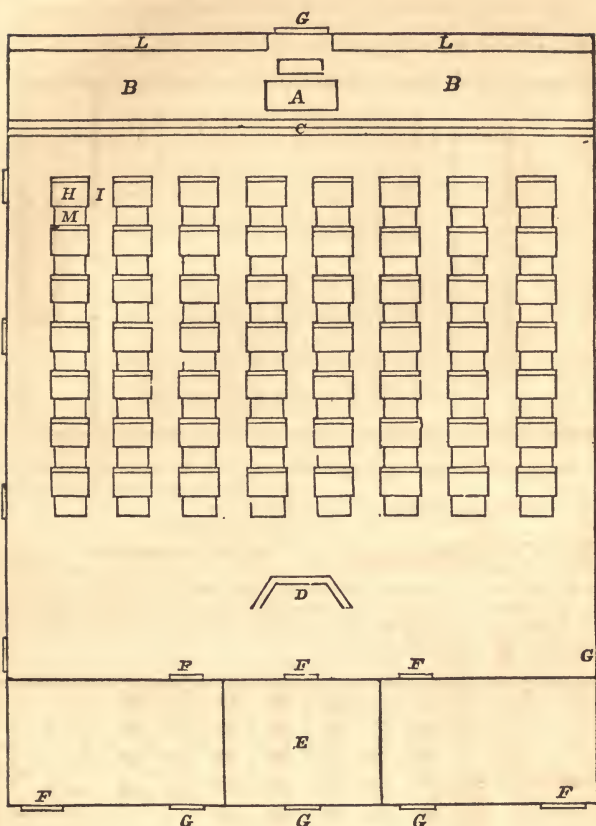
SCHOOL FOR FORTY-EIGHT PUPILS.



24 feet by 28 feet outside.]

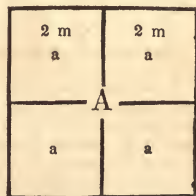
[Scale 8 feet to the inch.

D. Entrance door. E. Entry. F. Fireplace. C. Wood closet, or recitation room. T. Teacher's platform. *a*. Apparatus shelves. *t*. Air tube beneath the floor. *d*. Doors. *g*. Globes. *l*. Library shelves. *m*. Master's table and seat. *p*. Passages. *r*. Recitation seats. *s*. Scholars' desks and seats. *v*. Ventilator. *w*. Windows. *b*. Movable blackboard. *a s*. Air space behind the fireplace.



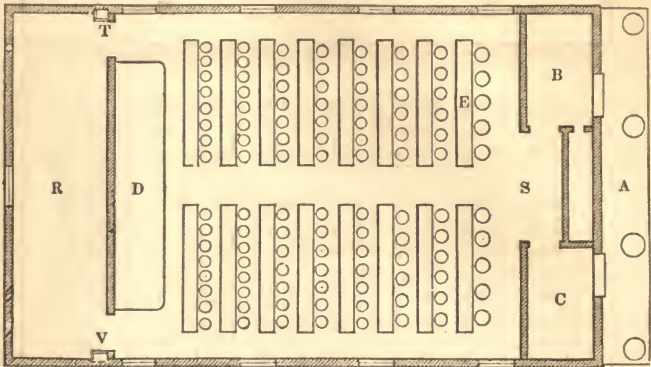
A. Represents the teacher's desk. B B. Teacher's platform, from 1 to 2 ft. in height. C. Step for ascending the platform. L L. Cases for books, apparatus, cabinet, &c. H. Pupils' single desks, 2 ft. by 18 inches. M. Pupils' seat, 1 ft. by 20 inches. I. Aisles, 1 ft. 6 inches in width. D. Place for stove, if one be used. E. Room for recitation, for retiring in case of sudden indisposition, for interview with parents, when necessary, &c. It may also be used for the library, &c. F F F F. Doors into the boys' and girls' entries—from the entries into the school-room, and from the school-room into the recitation room. G G G G. Windows. The windows on the sides are not lettered.

For section of seat and desk constructed after Mr. Mann's plan, see p. 47. To avoid the necessity of fitting up the same school-room for old and young, and the inefficiency of such country schools as we now have, Mr. Mann proposed in this Report a union, for instance of four districts which did not cover more than four miles square, and the erection of four primary school-houses, (a a a a) for the younger children of each district, to be taught by female teachers, and one central or high school, (A) for the older children of the four districts, taught by a well qualified male teacher. This plan is recommended for its wise use of the means of the districts, and the efficiency of the instruction given.



PLAN OF SCHOOL-HOUSE IN CENTREVILLE, WARWICK, R. I.

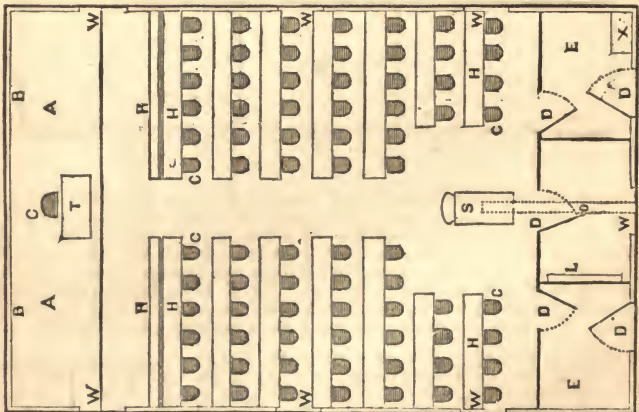
The following plan presents a mode of seating a District School-House similar to that adopted in several public school-houses in the city of New York.



The building is 50 feet long (beside the porch $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet in front) by 30 feet wide.

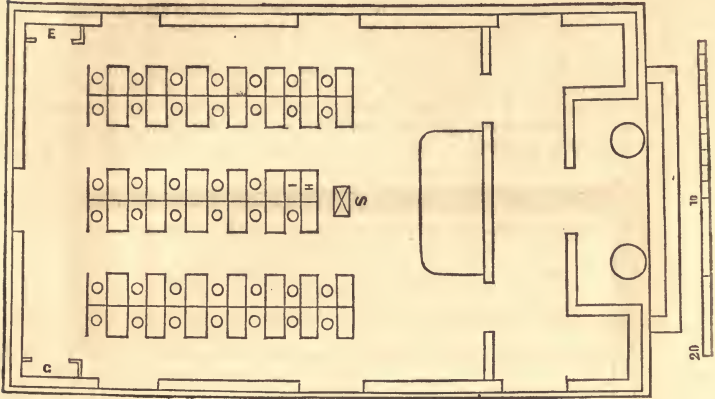
- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| A—Porch. | R—Recitation-room for assistant. |
| B—Girls' entrance and lobby. | S—Stove. |
| C—Boys' do. | T—Smoke flue. |
| D—Teacher's platform. | V—Flue for ventilator. |
| E—Mott's school desk and chair. | |

The above mode of seating has been adopted in other districts, and in one instance, with the desks attached at one end to the wall, as in the following plan recommended by Hon. Ira Mayhew. There are serious objections to this arrangement of the seats and desk.

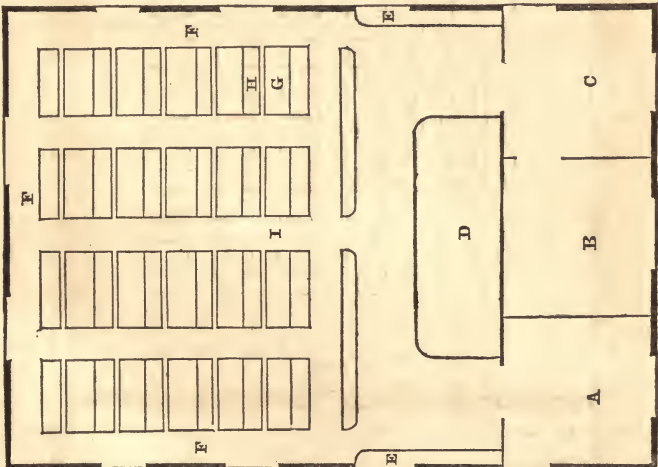


D, entrance and inner doors. W, windows. E, entries, lighted over doors, one for boys and the other for girls. A, teacher's platform. B, blackboard, reaching entirely across the end of the house. T, teacher's desk. H, desks 11 feet long, except the two next the entrance doors. C, Mott's patent cast-iron chairs. S stove. O, an air tube under the floor, through which pure air from without is introduced beneath the stove. L, shelves for library, apparatus, etc.

The following plan, although not followed throughout in any school-house in Rhode Island, presents substantially the internal arrangement which has been adopted in several instances, as in the school-house at Peacedale, in South Kingston, at Carolina Mills in Richmond, and in the lower room of the academy in Kingston.



The following cut, which is copied from a plan of a district school-house recommended by Dr. Lord, Superintendent of the common schools of Columbus, Ohio, presents the plan of several district and village school-houses erected in Rhode Island. The house is 26 feet by 36 feet on the ground.

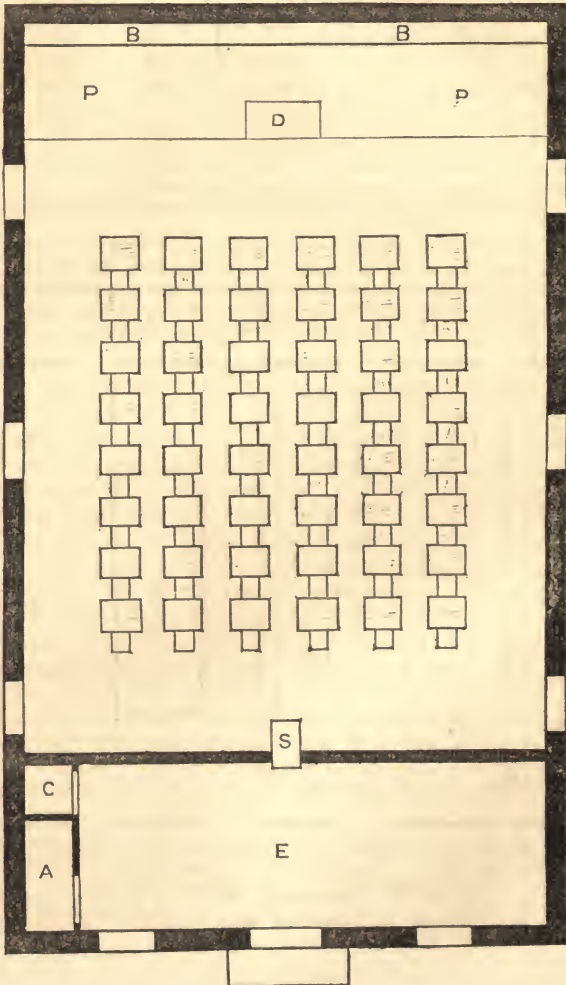


- A—Entry for girls, 8 feet square.
- C— do. for boys, do. do.
- B—Library and apparatus room.
- E—Recitation seats.
- D—Teacher's platform.

- H G—Seat and desk for two pupils, 4 feet long.
- F—Aisles, 2 feet wide.
- I— do. 18 inches wide.

PLAN OF DISTRICT SCHOOL-HOUSE IN GREENLAND, N. H.

The building is 50 feet long by 30 feet wide, and 12 feet high in the clear. It is built of brick. A large entry (E), is partitioned off from the school-room, and fitted up not only to receive the hats, bonnets, &c., of the pupils, but to accommodate all the pupils in rainy weather during recess, as well as those who reside at a distance, when they arrive at the school-house before the school-room is opened, and those who may be obliged to stay during recess. The entry and the school-room is heated by a large stove (S) placed in the partition. The teacher's platform (P) is placed at the end of the school-room, and is raised one step above the floor. Back of the teacher, along the wall, are cases (B) for apparatus, and a well-selected library of 200 vols. There are 48 separate desks of different heights, framed on posts permanently fixed to the timbers of the floor, and fitted with seats of corresponding heights set in cast iron frames secured to the floor; both seats and desks are stained and varnished.



PLANS OF SCHOOL-HOUSES FOR TWO OR MORE SCHOOLS.

BEFORE describing a few of the best school-houses which have been recently erected in cities and large villages, for two or more schools of different grades in the same building, a brief consideration of the importance of classification, or gradation, as applied to the schools of a district, or town, cannot be deemed irrelevant.

To enable children to derive the highest degree of benefit from their attendance at school, they should go through a regular course of training in a succession of classes, and schools arranged according to similarity of age, standing, and attainments, under teachers possessing the qualifications best adapted to each grade of school. The practice has been almost universal in New England, and in other states where the organization of the schools is based upon the division of the territory into school districts, to provide but one school for as many children of both sexes, and of all ages from four to sixteen years, as can be gathered in from certain territorial limits, into one apartment, under one teacher; a female teacher in summer, and a male teacher in winter. The disadvantages of this practice, both to pupils and teachers, are great and manifold.

There is a large amount of physical suffering and discomfort, as well as great hinderances in the proper arrangement of scholars and classes, caused by crowding the older and younger pupils into the same school-room, without seats and furniture appropriate to either; and the greatest amount of suffering and discomfort falls upon the young, who are least able to bear it, and who, in consequence, acquire a distaste to study and the school-room.

The work of education going on in such schools, cannot be appropriate and progressive. There cannot be a regular course of discipline and instruction, adapted to the age and proficiency of pupils—a series of processes, each adapted to certain periods in the development of the mind and character, the first intended to be followed by a second, and the second by a third,—the latter always depending on the earlier, and all intended to be conducted on the same general principles, and by methods varying with the work to be done, and the progress already made.

With the older and younger pupils in the same room, there cannot be a system of discipline which shall be equally well adapted to both classes. If it secures the cheerful obedience and subordination of the older, it will press with unwise severity upon the younger pupils. If it be adapted to the physical wants, and peculiar temperaments of the young, it will endanger the good order and habits of study of the more advanced pupils, by the frequent change of posture and position, and other indulgences which it permits and requires of the former.

With studies ranging from the alphabet and the simplest rudiments of knowledge, to the higher branches of an English education, a variety of methods of instruction and illustration are called for, which are seldom found together, or in an equal degree, in the same

teacher, and which can never be pursued with equal success in the same school-room. The elementary principles of knowledge, to be made intelligible and interesting to the young, must be presented by a large use of the oral and simultaneous methods. The higher branches, especially all mathematical subjects, require patient application and habits of abstraction, on the part of the older pupils, which can with difficulty, if at all, be attained by many pupils, amid a multiplicity of distracting exercises, movements and sounds. The recitations of this class of pupils, to be profitable and satisfactory, must be conducted in a manner which requires time, discussion and explanation, and the undivided attention both of pupils and teachers.

From the number of class and individual recitations, to be attended to during each half day, these exercises are brief, hurried, and of little practical value. They consist, for the most part, of senseless repetitions of the words of a book. Instead of being the time and place where the real business of teaching is done, where the ploughshare of interrogation is driven down into the acquirements of each pupil, and his ability to comprehend clearly, remember accurately, discriminate wisely, and reason closely, is cultivated and tested,—where the difficult principles of each lesson are developed and illustrated, and additional information imparted, and the mind of the teacher brought in direct contact with the mind of each pupil, to arouse, interest, and direct its opening powers—instead of all this and more, the brief period passed in recitation, consists, on the part of the teacher, of hearing each individual and class in regular order, and quick succession, repeat words from a book; and on the part of the pupils, of *saying their lessons*, as the operation is significantly described by most teachers, when they summon the class to the stand. In the mean time the order of the school must be maintained, and the general business must be going forward. Little children without any authorized employment for their eyes and hands, and ever active curiosity, must be made to sit still, while every muscle is aching from suppressed activity; pens must be mended, copies set, arithmetical difficulties solved, excuses for tardiness or absence received, questions answered, whisperings allowed or suppressed, and more or less of extempore discipline administered. Were it not a most ruinous waste of precious time,—did it not involve the deadening, crushing, distorting, dwarfing of immortal faculties and noble sensibilities,—were it not an utter perversion of the noble objects for which schools are instituted, it would be difficult to conceive of a more diverting farce than an ordinary session of a large public school, whose chaotic and discordant elements have not been reduced to system by a proper classification. The teacher, at least the conscientious teacher, thinks it any thing but a farce to him. Compelled to hurry from one study to another, the most diverse,—from one class to another, requiring a knowledge of methods altogether distinct,—from one recitation to another, equally brief and unsatisfactory, one requiring a liveliness of manner, which he does not feel and cannot assume, and the other closeness of attention and abstrac-

tion of thought, which he cannot give amid the multiplicity and variety of cares,—from one case of discipline to another, pressing on him at the same time,—he goes through the same circuit day after day, with a dizzy brain and aching heart, and brings his school to a close with a feeling, that with all his diligence and fidelity, he has accomplished but little good.

But great as are the evils of a want of proper classification of schools, arising from the causes already specified, these evils are aggravated by the almost universal practice of employing one teacher in summer, and another in winter, and different teachers each successive summer and winter. Whatever progress one teacher may make in bringing order out of the chaotic elements of a large public school, is arrested by the termination of his school term. His experience is not available to his successor, who does not come into the school until after an interval of weeks or months, and in the mean time the former teacher has left the town or state. The new teacher is a stranger to the children and their parents, is unacquainted with the system pursued by his predecessor, and has himself but little or no experience in the business; in consequence, chaos comes back again, and the confusion is still worse confounded by the introduction of new books, for every teacher prefers to teach from the books in which he studied, or which he has been accustomed to teach, and many teachers cannot teach profitably from any other. Weeks are thus passed, in which the school is going through the process of organization, and the pupils are becoming accustomed to the methods and requirements of a new teacher—some of them are put back, or made to retrace their studies in new books, while others are pushed forward into studies for which they are not prepared; and at the end of three or four months, the school relapses into chaos. There is constant change, but no progress.

This want of system, and this succession of new teachers, goes on from term to term, and year to year—a process which would involve any other interest in speedy and utter ruin, where there was not provision made for fresh material to be experimented upon, and counteracting influences at work to restore, or at least obviate the injury done. What other business of society could escape utter wreck, if conducted with such want of system,—with such constant disregard of the fundamental principle of the division of labor, and with a succession of new agents every three months, none of them trained to the details of the business, each new agent acting without any knowledge of the plan of his predecessor, or any well settled plan of his own! The public school is not an anomaly, an exception, among the great interests of society. Its success or failure depends on the existence or absence of certain conditions; and if complete failure does not follow the utter neglect of these conditions, it is because every term brings into the schools a fresh supply of children to be experimented upon, and sweeps away others beyond the reach of bad school instruction and discipline; and because the minds of some of these children are, for a portion of each day, left

to the action of their own inherent forces, and the more kindly influences of nature, the family and society.

Among these conditions of success in the operation of a system of public schools, is such a classification of the scholars as shall bring a larger number of similar age and attainments, at all times, and in every stage of their advancement, under teachers of the right qualifications, and shall enable these teachers to act upon numbers at once, for years in succession, and carry them all forward effectually together, in a regular course of instruction.

The great principle to be regarded in the classification, either of the schools of a town or district, or of scholars in the same school, is equality of attainments, which will generally include those of the same age. Those who have gone over substantially the same ground, or reached, or nearly reached the same point of attainment in several studies, should be put together, and constitute, whenever their numbers will authorize it, one school. These again should be arranged in different classes, for it is seldom practicable, even if it were ever desirable, to have but one class in every study in the same grade of school. Even in very large districts, where the scholars are promoted from a school of a lower grade to one of a higher, after being found qualified in certain studies, it is seldom that any considerable number will have reached a common standard of scholarship in all their studies. The same pupil will have made very different progress in different branches. He will stand higher in one and lower in another. By arranging scholars of the same general division in different classes, no pupil need be detained by companions who have made, or can make less progress, or be hurried over lessons and subjects in a superficial manner, to accommodate the more rapid advancement of others. Although equality of attainment should be regarded as the general principle, some regard should be paid to age, and other circumstances. A large boy of sixteen, from the deficiency of his early education, which may be his misfortune and not his fault, ought not to be put into a school or class of little children, although their attainments may be in advance of his. This step would mortify and discourage him. In such extreme cases, that arrangement will be best which will give the individual the greatest chance of improvement, with the least discomfort to himself, and hindrance to others. Great disparity of age in the same class, or the same school, is unfavorable to uniform and efficient discipline, and the adaptation of methods of teaching, and of motives to application and obedience. Some regard, too, should be had to the preferences of individuals, especially among the older pupils, and their probable destination in life. The mind comes into the requisitions of study more readily, and works with higher results, when led onward by the heart; and the utility of any branch of study, its relations to future success in life, once clearly apprehended, becomes a powerful motive to effort.

Each class in a school should be as large as is consistent with thoroughness and minuteness of individual examination, and practi-

able, without bringing together individuals of diverse capacity, knowledge, and habits of study. A good teacher can teach a class of forty with as much ease as a class of ten, and with far more profit to each individual, than if the same amount of time was divided up among four classes, each containing one-fourth of the whole number. When the class is large, there is a spirit, a glow, a struggle which can never be infused or called forth in a small class. Whatever time is spent upon a few, which could have been as profitably spent on a larger number, is a loss of power and time to the extent of the number who were not thus benefited. The recitations of a large class must be more varied, both as to order and methods, so as to reach those whose attention would wander if not under the pressure of constant excitement, or might become slothful from inaction or a sense of security. Some studies will admit of a larger number in a class than others.

The number of classes for recitation in the same apartment, by one teacher, should be small. This will facilitate the proper division of labor in instruction, and allow more time for each class. The teacher intrusted with the care of but few studies, and few recitations, can have no excuse but indolence, or the want of capacity, if he does not master these branches thoroughly, and soon acquire the most skillful and varied methods of teaching them. His attention will not be distracted by a multiplicity and variety of cares, pressing upon him at the same time. This principle does not require that every school should be small, but that each teacher should have a small number of studies and classes to superintend.

In a large school, properly classified, a division of labor can be introduced in the department of government, as well as in that of instruction. By assigning the different studies to a sufficient number of assistants, in separate class-rooms, each well qualified to teach the branches assigned, the principal teacher may be selected with special reference to his ability in arranging the studies, and order of exercises of the school, in administering its discipline, in adapting moral instruction to individual scholars, and superintending the operations of each class-room, so as to secure the harmonious action and progress of every department. The talents and tact required for these and similar duties, are more rarely found than the skill and attainments required to teach successfully a particular study. When found, the influence of such a principal, possessing in a high degree, the executive talent spoken of, will be felt through every class, and by every subordinate teacher, giving tone and efficiency to the whole school.

To facilitate the introduction of these, and similar principles of classification, into the organization and arrangements of the schools of a town or district, as fast and as far as the circumstances of the population will admit, the following provisions should be engrafted into the school system of every state.

1. Every town should be clothed with all the powers requisite to establish and maintain a sufficient number of schools of different grades, at convenient locations, to accommodate all the children re-

siding within their respective limits—irrespective of any territorial division of the town into school districts.

2. Should provision be made for the creation of territorial school districts, a gradation of districts should be recognized, and every district having over sixty children of an age to attend school, should be obliged to maintain a primary school under a female teacher for the young pupils, and provide a secondary school for the older and more advanced pupils.

3. No village, or populous district, in which two or more schools of different grades for the younger and older children respectively, can be conveniently established, should be sub-divided into two or more independent districts.

4. Any two or more adjoining districts, in the same, or adjoining towns, should be authorized to establish and maintain a secondary school for the older and more advanced pupils of such districts, for the whole, or any portion of the year.

5. Any district, not having children enough to require the permanent establishment of two grades of schools, should be authorized to determine the periods of the year in which the public school shall be kept, and to determine the age and studies of the children who shall attend at any particular period of the year, and also to send the older pupils to the secondary school of an adjoining district.

The extent to which the gradation of schools can be carried, in any town or district, and the limit to which the number of classes in any school can be reduced, will depend on the compactness, number, and other circumstances of the population, in that town or district, and the number and age of the pupils, and the studies and methods of instruction in that school. A regular gradation of schools might embrace Primary, Secondary and High Schools, with Intermediate Schools, or departments, between each grade, and Supplementary Schools, to meet the wants of a class of pupils not provided for in either of the above grades.

1. Primary Schools, as a general rule, should be designed for children between the ages of three and eight years, with a further classification of the very youngest children, when their number will admit of it. These schools can be accommodated, in compact villages, in the same building with the Secondary or High School; but in most large districts, it will be necessary and desirable to locate them in different neighborhoods, to meet the peculiarities of the population, and facilitate the regular attendance of very young children, and relieve the anxiety of parents for their safety on their way to and from school. The school-room should be light, cheerful, and large enough for the evolutions of large classes—furnished with appropriate seats, furniture, apparatus and means of visible illustration, and having a retired, dry and airy play-ground, with a shelter to resort to in inclement weather, and with flower borders, shrubbery and shade trees, which they should be taught to love and respect. The play-ground is as essential as the school-room, for a Primary School, and is indeed the uncovered school-room of physical and moral educa-

tion, and the place where the manners and personal habits of children can be better trained than elsewhere. With them, the hours of play and study, of confinement and recreation, must alternate more frequently than with older pupils. To teach these schools properly,—to regulate the hours of play and study so as to give variety, vivacity, and interest to all of the exercises, without over-exciting the nervous system, or over-tasking any faculty of mind or body,—to train boys and girls to mild dispositions, graceful and respectful manners, and unquestioning obedience,—to cultivate the senses to habits of quick and accurate observation and discrimination,—to prevent the formation of artificial and sing-song tones,—to teach the use of the voice, and of simple, ready and correct language, and to begin in this way: and by appropriate exercises in drawing, calculation, and lessons on the properties and classification of objects, the cultivation of the intellectual faculties,—to do all these things and more, require in the teacher a rare union of qualities, seldom found in one in a hundred of the male sex, and to be looked for with the greatest chance of success among females, “in whose own hearts, love, hope and patience, have first kept school.”

The earlier we can establish, in every populous district, primary schools, under female teachers, whose hearts are made strong by deep religious principle,—who have faith in the power of Christian love steadily exerted to fashion anew the bad manners, and soften the harsh and self-willed perverseness of neglected children,—with patience to begin every morning, with but little if any perceptible advance beyond where they began the previous morning,—with prompt and kind sympathies, and ready skill in music, drawing, and oral methods, the better it will be for the cause of education, and for every other good cause.

2. Secondary Schools should receive scholars at the age of eight years, or about that age, and carry them forward in those branches of instruction which lie at the foundation of all useful attainments in knowledge, and are indispensable to the proper exercise and development of all the faculties of the mind, and to the formation of good intellectual tastes and habits of application. If the primary schools have done their work properly, in forming habits of attention, and teaching practically the first uses of language,—in giving clear ideas of the elementary principles of arithmetic, geography, and the simplest lessons in drawing, the scholars of a well conducted secondary school, who will attend regularly for eight or ten months in the year, until they are twelve years of age, can acquire as thorough knowledge of reading, arithmetic, penmanship, drawing, geography, history, and the use of the language in composition and speech, as is ever given in common or public schools, as ordinarily conducted, to children at the age of sixteen. For this class of schools, well qualified female teachers, with good health, self-command, and firmness, are as well fitted as male teachers. But if the school is large, both a male and female teacher should be employed, as the influence of both are needed in the training of the moral character and manners.

Schools of this grade should be furnished with class-rooms for recitations, and if large, with a female assistant for every thirty pupils.

3. High Schools should receive pupils from schools of the grade below, and carry them forward in a more comprehensive course of instruction, embracing a continuation of their former studies, and especially of the English language, and drawing, and a knowledge of algebra, geometry and trigonometry, with their applications, the elements of mechanics and natural philosophy and chemistry, natural history, including natural theology, mental and moral science, political economy, physiology, and the constitution of the United States. These and other studies should form the course of instruction, modified according to the sex, age, and advancement, and to some extent, future destination of the pupils, and the standard fixed by the intelligence and intellectual wants of the district—a course which should give to every young man a thorough English education, preparatory to the pursuits of agriculture, commerce, trade, manufactures, and the mechanical arts, and if desired, for college; and to every young woman, a well disciplined mind, high moral aims, and practical views of her own duties, and those resources of health, thought, manners and conversation, which bless alike the highest and lowest stations in life. All which is now done in private schools of the highest grade, and where the wants of any considerable portion of the community create such private schools, should be provided for in the system of public schools, so that the same advantages, without being abridged or denied to the children of the rich and the educated, should be open at the same time to worthy and talented children of the poorest parent. In some districts a part of the studies of this grade of schools might be embraced in the Secondary Schools, which would thus take the place of the High School; in others, the High School could be open for only portions of the year; and in others, two departments, or two schools, one for either sex, would be required. However constituted, whether as one department, or two, as a distinct school, or as part of a secondary school, or an ordinary district school, and for the whole year, or part of the year, something of the kind is required to meet the wants of the whole community, and relieve the public schools from impotency. Unless it can be engrafted upon the public school system, or rather unless it can grow up and out of the system, as a provision made for the educational wants of the whole community, then the system will never gather about it the warmth and sustaining confidence and patronage of all classes, and especially of those who know best the value of a good education, and are willing to spend time and money to secure it for their own children.

4. Intermediate Schools or departments will be needed in large districts, to receive a class of pupils who are too old to be continued, without wounding their self-esteem, in the school below, or interfering with its methods of discipline and instruction, and are not prepared in attainments, and habits of study, or from irregular attendance, to be arranged in the regular classes of the school above.

Connected with this class of schools there might be opened a

school or department for those who cannot attend school regularly, or for only a short period of the year, or who may wish to attend exclusively to a few studies. There is no place for this class of scholars, in a regularly constituted, permanent school, in a large village.

5. Supplementary Schools, and means of various kinds should be provided in every system of public instruction, for cities and large villages, to supply deficiencies in the education of individuals whose school attendance has been prematurely abridged, or from any cause interfered with, and to carry forward as far and as long as practicable into after life, the training and attainments commenced in childhood.

Evening Schools should be opened for apprentices, clerks, and other young persons, who have been hurried into active employment without a suitable elementary education. In these schools, those who have completed the ordinary course of school instruction, could devote themselves to such studies as are directly connected with their several trades or pursuits, while those whose early education was entirely neglected, can supply, to some extent, such deficiencies. It is not beyond the legitimate scope of a system of public instruction, to provide for the education of adults, who, from any cause, in early life were deprived of advantages of school instruction.

Libraries, and courses of familiar lectures, with practical illustrations, collections in natural history, and the natural sciences, a system of scientific exchanges between schools of the same, and of different towns,—these and other means of extending and improving the ordinary instruction of the school-room and of early life, ought to be provided, not only by individual enterprise and liberality, but by the public, and the authorities entrusted with the care and advancement of popular education.

One or more of that class of educational institutions known as "Reform Schools," "Schools of Industry," or "Schools for Juvenile Offenders," should receive such children, as defying the restraining influence of parental authority, and the discipline and regulations of the public schools, or such as are abandoned by orphanage, or worse than orphanage, by parental neglect or example, to idle, vicious and pilfering habits, are found hanging about places of public resort, polluting the atmosphere by their profane and vulgar speech, alluring, to their own bad practices, children of the same, and other conditions of life, and originating or participating in every street brawl and low-bred riot. Such children cannot be safely gathered into the public schools; and if they are, their vagrant habits are chafed by the restraints of school discipline. They soon become irregular, play truant, are punished and expelled, and from that time their course is almost uniformly downward, until on earth there is no lower point to reach.

Accustomed, as many such children have been from infancy, to sights and sounds of open and abandoned profligacy, trained to an utter want of self-respect, and the decencies and proprieties of life, as exhibited in dress, person, manners and language, strangers to those motives of self-improvement which spring from a sense of so-

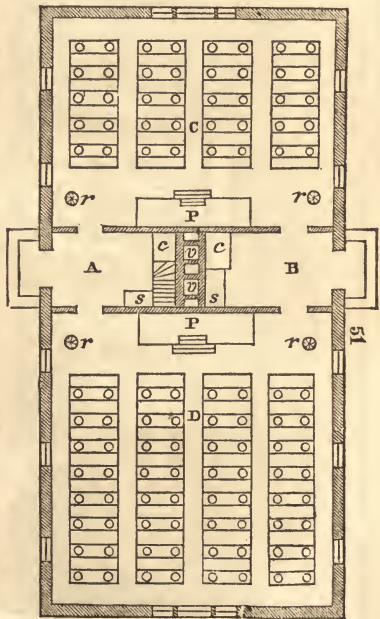
cial, moral and religious obligation, their regeneration involves the harmonious co-operation of earnest philanthropy, missionary enterprise, and sanctified wisdom. The districts of all our large cities where this class of children are found, are the appropriate field of home missions, of unobtrusive personal effort and charity, and of systematized plans of local benevolence, embracing friendly intercourse with parents, an affectionate interest in the young, the gathering of the latter into week-day, infant, and primary schools, and schools where the use of the needle, and other forms of labor appropriate to the sex and age of the pupils can be given, the gathering of both old and young into Sabbath schools and worshipping assemblies, the circulation of books and tracts, of other than a strictly religious character, the encouragement of cheap, innocent and humanizing games, sports and festivities, the obtaining employment for adults who may need it, and procuring situations as apprentices, clerks, &c., for such young persons as may be qualified by age, capacity and character. By individual efforts and the combined efforts of many, working in these and other ways, from year to year, these moral jungles can be broken up,—these infected districts can be purified,—these waste places of society can be reclaimed, and many abodes of penury, ignorance and vice can be converted by education, economy and industry, into homes of comfort, peace and joy.

PLAN AND DESCRIPTION OF DISTRICT SCHOOL-HOUSE IN CENTREMILL,
NORTH PROVIDENCE, R. I.



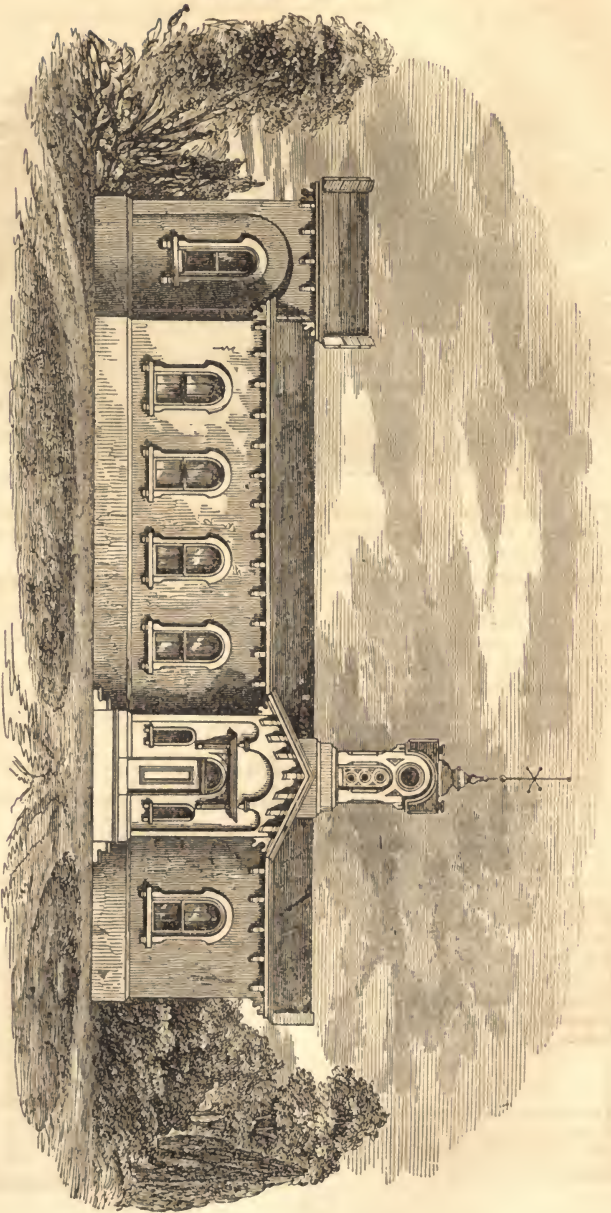
This house was erected after designs by Mr. Telf, of Providence. It stands back from the highway, on an elevated site, in the midst of a grove, and for beauty of design and convenience of arrangement, is not surpassed by any similar structure in New England. It is 26 feet by 51, and 13 feet high in the clear, with two departments on the same floor.

- A, Boys' entry, 6 feet by 10.
- B, Girls' ditto.
- C, Primary department, 20 feet by 25, with desks and seats attached for 70 pupils.
- D, Secondary, or Grammar department, 25 feet by 25, with desks and chairs for 64 pupils; see p. 120.
- r, Register for hot air.
- v, v, Flues for ventilation.
- c, Closets for dinner pails of those who come from a distance.
- s, Sink.



The smoke pipe is carried up between the ventilating flues, and the top of the chimney is finished so as to accommodate the bell.

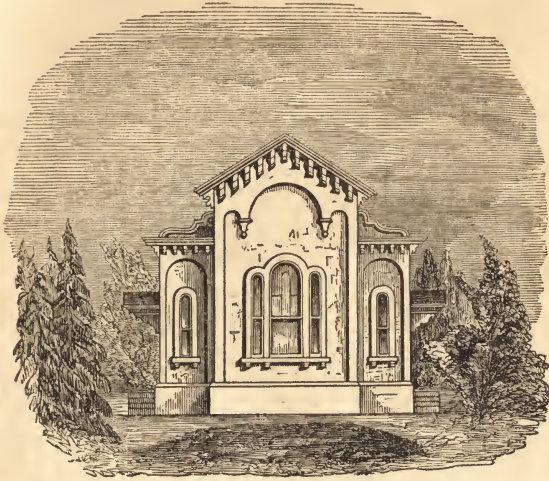
Fig. 3. SIDE ELEVATION.



Side elevation of the new School-house in Arsenal District, Hartford, as originally designed for two departments. The flues for smoke and for ventilation are carried up in the bell-tower, which is of brick.

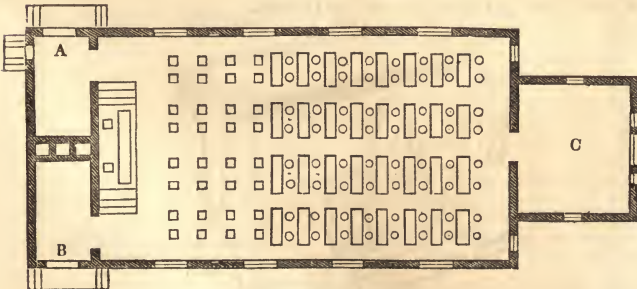
PLAN OF DISTRICT SCHOOL-HOUSE IN HARTFORD, CONN.

Fig. 1.



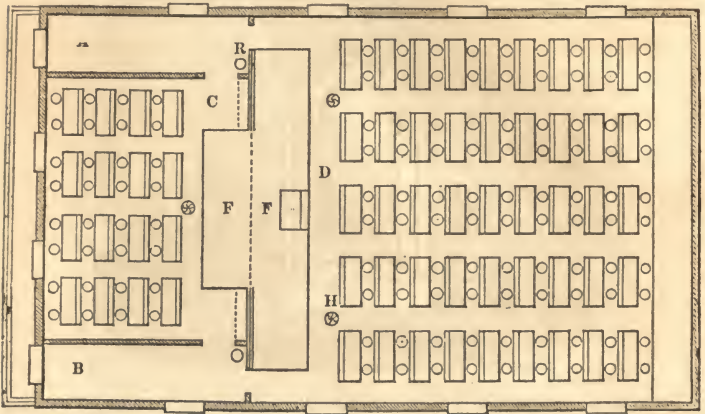
The above cut represents the front elevation of a new school-house erected in Arsenal District, in Hartford, after designs by Octavius Jordan, Architect. As originally planned there were to be two rooms, as shown in side elevation, (Fig. 3.) The largest (Fig. 2) room is forty-five feet long by twenty-five wide, with a recitation-room (C) fourteen feet by twelve, and two entries, one for boys (A) and one for girls, (B), each twelve feet by six, furnished with sink, hooks, &c. There are thirty-two desks, each for two pupils, with sixty-four chairs, (page 143, Fig. 2), and thirty-two chairs for young children, (Fig. 3, page 129.) The room is warmed by Mott's School Stove, (page 146,) and ventilated by flues in the walls, opening at the top and bottom of the room, which is fifteen feet high in the clear. The material is brick, and the cost \$1800.

Fig. 2. GROUND PLAN.



PLAN OF SCHOOL-HOUSE AT WASHINGTON VILLAGE IN COVENTRY, R. I.

The following cut presents the ground plan of the new school-house in the village of Washington, in the town of Coventry, R. I. The location is on the high ground in the rear of the village, and commands an extensive prospect in every direction. The site and yard, occupying one acre, was given to the district by Governor Whipple. The whole structure, without and within, is an ornament to the village, and ranks among the best school-houses in Rhode Island.



A—Boy's entrance.

B—Girl's entrance.

C—Primary school-room.

D—Secondary, or Grammar Department.

E—Teacher's platform.

F—Desks for two, with iron end-piece.

G—Chairs supported on iron pedestal.

H—Register for hot air.

R—Flue for ventilation, within which is carried up the smoke-pipe.

The two school-rooms can be thrown into one, for any general exercise of the two schools, by sliding doors.

The two rooms are uniformly heated by a furnace in the basement.

There is a well, sink, basin, mats, scrapers, bell, and all the necessary fixtures and appendages of a school-house of the first class.

The cost of the building and furniture was \$2,300.

The district possesses a library of upwards of four hundred volumes, the cost of which was raised by subscription in the District.



ALBANY NORMAL SCHOOL CHAIR AND DESK.

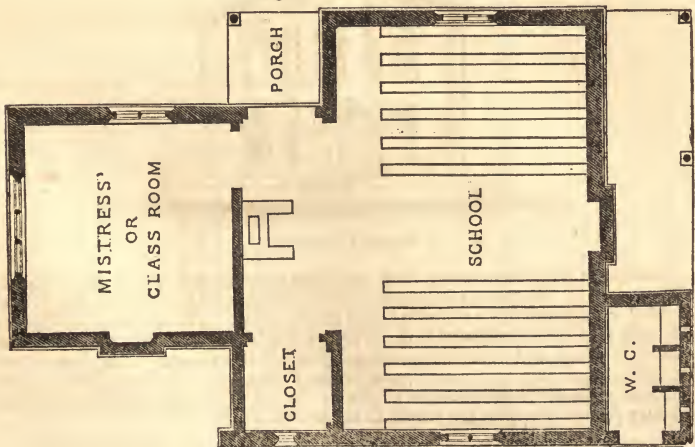
PLAN OF A VILLAGE SCHOOL-HOUSE IN ENGLAND.

Fig. 4.



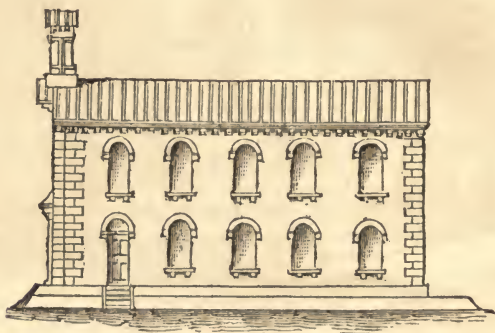
We are indebted to A. J. Downing, Esq. for the reduced cuts of a plan by J. Kendal, for a National School near Brentwood, in England. It affords accommodation for sixty children. The door is sheltered by a porch, and on the other side is a covered waiting-place for the children coming before school-hours. The cost, with the belfry, was \$750. A house in this old English domestic character would give a pleasing variety to the everlasting sameness of our rural school architecture.

Fig. 5. GROUND PLAN.



UNION SCHOOL-HOUSE, AT WOONSOCKET AND CHEPACHET, R. I.

By the school law of Rhode Island, two or more adjoining school districts in the same, or adjoining towns, may, by concurrent vote, agree to unite for the purpose of maintaining a secondary or grammar school, for the older and more advanced pupils of such associating districts. Under this provision the four school districts in the town of Cumberland, which comprise the village of Woonsocket, voted to unite and provide a school-house for the more advanced pupils, leaving the younger to be accommodated in their respective districts. The Union school-house is located on a beautiful site, the donation of Edward Harris, Esq., and is built substantially after the plan of the Warren Public school-house, already described, at a cost of \$7,000. The following are the front and side elevations, as originally drawn by Mr. Teft, but not adopted by the committee.



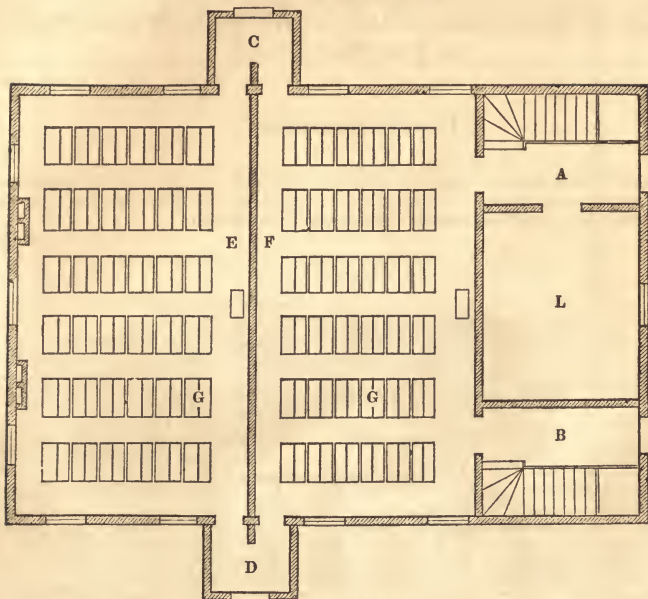
SIDE ELEVATION.



FRONT ELEVATION.

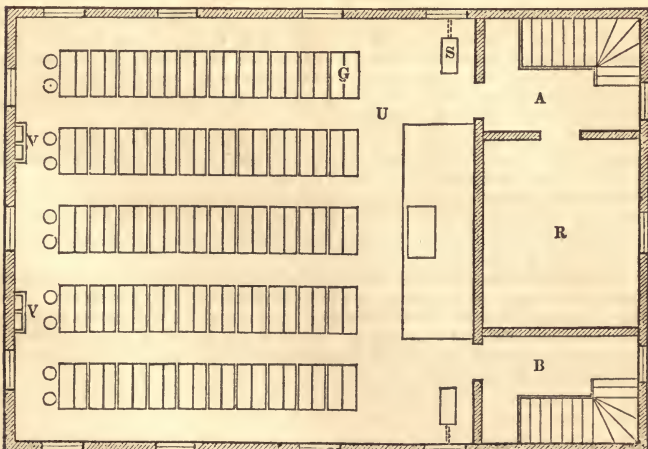
Under the provision above cited, the three districts into which the village of Chepachet, in the town of Gloucester, is divided, voted to establish a Union School, and to provide a suitable house for the same. The building is 50 feet by 34, with two stories, and stands in the centre of a large lot, a little removed from the main street, and is the ornament and pride of the village. The lower floor is divided into two apartments; one for the Primary, and the other for an Intermediate School, for the younger pupils of the village, while the Union or Secondary School occupies the whole of the second floor.

Fig. 1.—PLAN OF FIRST FLOOR.



- A—Entrance for Girls to Secondary School, U.
- B— “ “ Boys “ “ “ “
- C— “ “ Girls to Primary, E, and Intermediate School, F.
- D— “ “ Boys “ “ “ “
- E—Primary School-room.
- F—Intermediate “
- U—Secondary “
- L—Manton Gloucester Library of 900 volumes.
- R—Recitation room.
- S—Stove. V—Flue for ventilation.
- G—Seat and desk attached, for two pupils, with iron ends.

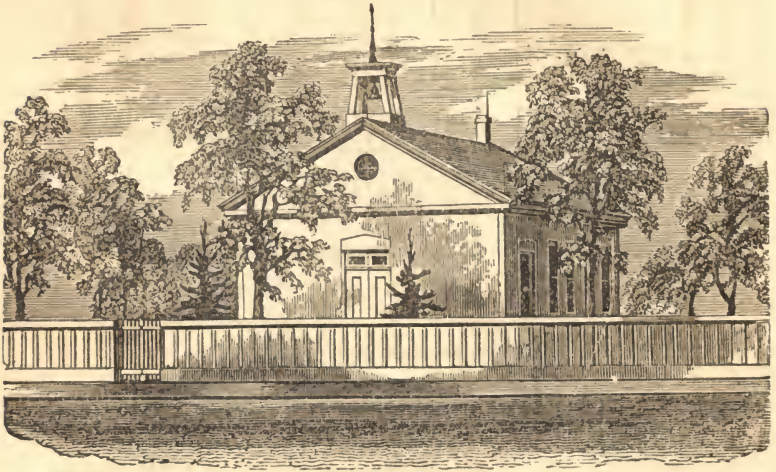
Fig. 2.—PLAN OF SECOND FLOOR.



REPORT OF NATHAN BISHOP, ESQ., ON THE PUBLIC SCHOOL-HOUSES
OF PROVIDENCE, R. I.

PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSES.

THESE buildings are located in different parts of the city, and are designed for the accommodation of children from four to six or seven years of age, or until they are prepared to enter the intermediate schools.

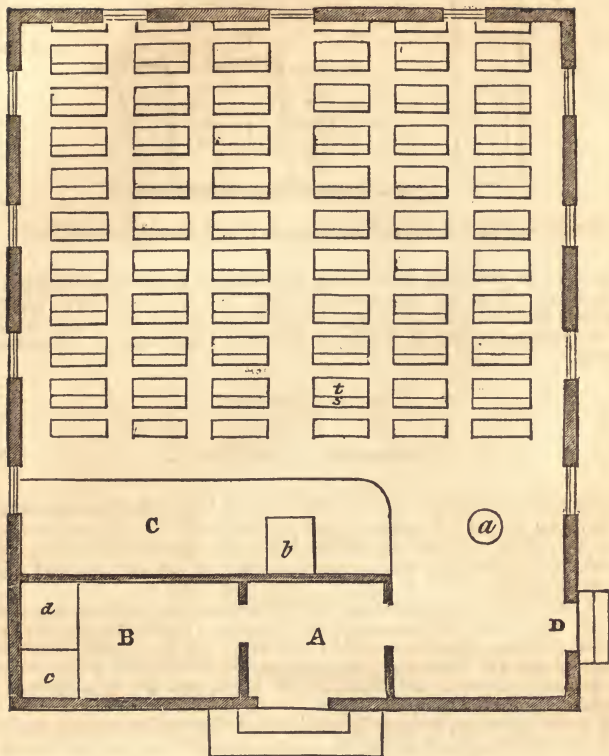


No. 1.—View of a Primary School-House.

These school-houses stand back from thirty to sixty feet from the line of the street, and near the center of lots varying from eighty to one hundred feet in breadth, and from one hundred to one hundred and twenty feet in length. Each lot is inclosed by a neat and substantial fence, six feet high, and is divided into two yards—one for boys and the other for girls—with suitable out-buildings, shade trees, and shrubbery.

These houses are each forty feet long by thirty-three feet wide, with twelve-foot posts, built of wood, in a plain, substantial manner, and, with the fences, are painted white, presenting a neat and attractive exterior.

The entrance is into a lobby [A] and thence into an open area, where stands the stove [a]. A portion of the lobby is appropriated to bins for charcoal [c] and anthracite [d], which is the fuel used in all the schools; the remainder [B] is occupied by a sink, and as depositories for brooms, brushes, &c. Each room is arched, thereby securing an average height of thirteen feet, with an opening in the center of the arch, two feet in diameter, for ventilation. The ventilator is controlled by a cord passing over a pulley, and descending into the room near the teacher's desk [b]. In each end of the attic is a circular window, which, turning on an axis, can be opened and closed by cords, in the same manner as the ventilator.



No. 2.—Interior of a Primary School-House.

The teacher's platform [C] is five feet wide, twenty feet long, and seven inches high, with a black-board ten feet long and three feet wide on the wall in the rear.

The floor is of inch and a half plank, tongued and grooved; and, for the purpose of securing warmth and firmness, and avoiding noise, is laid on cement.

The windows, eleven in number, of twenty-four lights, of seven by nine glass, are hung with weights, and furnished with inside blinds. The sides of the room and entries are ceiled all round with wood as high as the windowsills, which are four feet from the floor. The rest of the walls are plastered, and covered with white hard finish. Each room is provided with sixty seats [s] and desks [t], placed in six ranges; each range containing ten seats and desks, of three different sizes, and each seat and desk accommodating two scholars, or one hundred and twenty in all.

The center aisle is three feet and a half wide, and each of the others about two feet.

The desks are over three feet long, by sixteen inches wide, with a shelf beneath for books. The upper surface of the desk [a], except about two inches at the top [b], slopes one inch and a half in a foot.



No. 3.—View of Top of a Desk, and Sectional View of Primary Seats and Desks.

The front of the desk, constituting the back of the next seat, slopes one inch in a foot. The seat also inclines a very little from the edge. The seats are of four different sizes, varying from seven to ten inches wide, and from nine to fourteen inches in height, the lowest being nearest the teacher's platform.

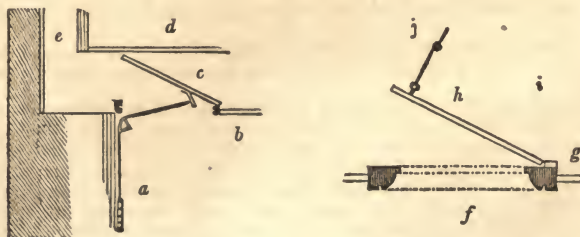
INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL-HOUSES.

All the buildings of this class are two stories high, affording accommodations for two schools, a primary and an intermediate. These houses are generally in pleasant situations, on large lots, varying in size from one hundred feet wide by one hundred and twenty feet long, to one hundred and fifty by two hundred feet.

Rows of shade trees, consisting of elms, lindens, and maples, are planted along the side-walks and the fences inclosing the yards; and evergreens, the mountain ash, and other ornamental trees, are placed within the inclosures.

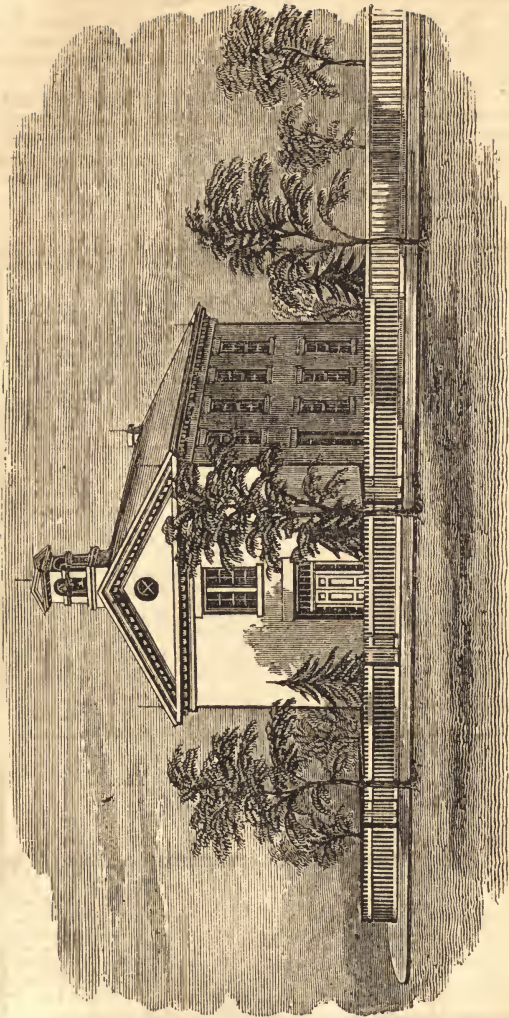
These houses are forty-four feet long, by thirty-three feet wide. Some of them are built of wood, the remainder of brick, and all in a tasteful and substantial style.

The rooms are large, and easily ventilated, being twelve feet in the clear, with large openings in the ceiling of the upper room, and on the sides in the lower room, leading into flues in the walls, which conduct the foul air into the attic, from which it escapes at circular windows in the gables of the buildings. These flues and windows can be opened and closed by cords passing over pulleys, and descending into the rooms below, where the teachers can control them with ease.



No. 5.—Sections of Ventilators.

In this cut, the cord [i], passing over the pulley [j], raising [h], hung on hinges at [g], opens wholly or partially the ventilator [f], a circular aperture three feet in diameter. The plan of ventilating the lower rooms is shown on

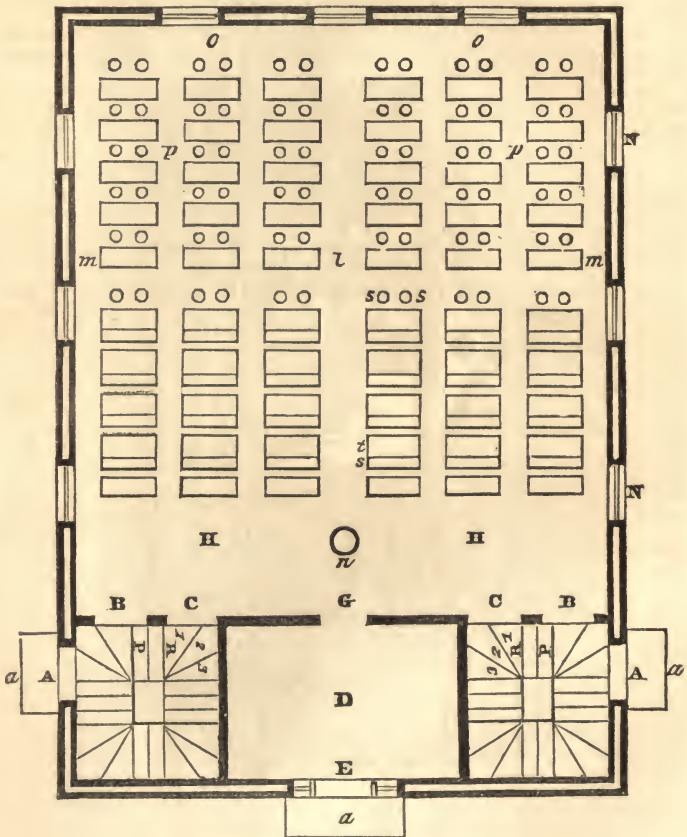


No. 4.—View of an Intermediate School-House.

the other part of the diagram, in which [a] represents a cord running over a pulley, and attached to [c], a board three feet long by one foot wide, opening the space between [b], the top of the lower room, and [d], the floor of the upper, leading into the flue [e], ascending to the attic.

The windows, nine in number in each school-room, of twelve lights, of ten by sixteen glass, are hung with weights, so as to be easily opened at top and bottom, and furnished with Venetian blinds inside, to regulate the amount of light admitted.

The floors are of hard pine boards, an inch and a half thick, and about six inches wide, tongued and grooved, and laid on mortar, as a protection against fire, for the prevention of noise, and to secure warmth and firmness. All the rooms, entries, and stairways are ceiled up with matched boards about four feet, as high as the window-sills. The remaining portions of the walls are plastered, and coated with white hard finish.



No. 6.—Interior of an Intermediate School-House.

The walls of some of these buildings are solid stone-work, faced with brick; others are built with double brick walls, as above shown, connected by ties of iron or brick.

As the rooms in the lower stories of this class of buildings are appropriated to primary schools, and are furnished in the same manner as those already described, the preceding cut is intended to serve the double purpose of exhibiting on the *first* floor only the improvements on the former plan, and, on the *second*, the whole view of a room for an intermediate school.

The steps [a, a, a] are broad, granite blocks, with scrapers on each end. The side doors [A, A], one for boys, the other for girls, lead into entries, eight feet by ten, from which the pupils of the primary schools pass through the doors [B, B] into the main rooms, which differ from those above described, in having a space [o, o], two feet wide, on the back part of the rooms, for reading and other class exercises; and the recitation-room, [D], another valuable improvement, as it avoids the confusion arising from having two recitations in one room at the same time.

The flight of stairs in each entry, commencing at the points [R, R], and ascending in the direction of [1, 2, 3], lands on the open space [P] in the upper entry, from which the pupils pass through the doors [C, C] into the school-room.

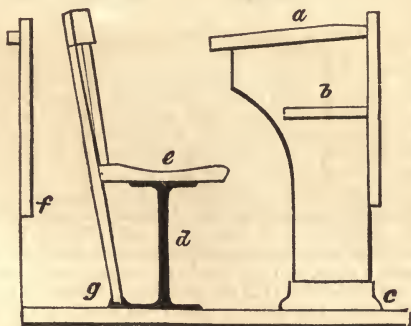
Coal-bins and convenient closets, for brooms, brushes, &c., are built under the stairs, in the lower entries; and similar closets, for the same purposes, are provided in the upper entries.

The large area [H, H], thirty feet long by seven wide, is the same in both the rooms, and is occupied by the principal teacher in each school, for such class exercises as may be more conveniently managed there than in the other place [o, o], left for the same purpose. The position of the stove [n] is such as not to render it uncomfortably warm on the front seats, and, at the same time, not to interfere with the passage of classes through the door [G] into the recitation-room [D], which is fourteen feet by ten, and, like all the school-rooms, furnished with black-boards. The lower room is lighted by a window over the front door, and by the side-lights; and the upper one by a double or mullion window, of sixteen lights, of ten by sixteen glass.

The side aisles [m, m] are two feet and a half wide; the others [P, P, &c.] are only eighteen inches wide, except the middle one [C], which is three and a half feet. The passage across the center of the room is about a foot and a half wide, and is very convenient for teachers in passing to the different parts of the room, and also for scholars in going to and from their recitations.

The seats and desks, in the front part of this room, are made and arranged on the same plan as those in the primary school-rooms above described, differing from them only in being one size larger. The lower end, or foot of each perpendicular support, or end-piece, is strongly fastened into a groove in a "shoe," or piece of plank, which, being screwed to the floor, secures the desks in a durable manner, and in a firm position.

The others are constructed upon a different plan, designed especially for the accommodation of pupils while writing. These desks and seats are of three different sizes.



No. 7.—Section of a Writing-Desk and Seat.

The top of the desk [*a*] is of pine, one inch and a half thick, fifteen inches wide, and three feet and a half long. These desks are twenty-seven inches high on the front, and twenty-four on the side next to the seats. A space about three inches wide, on the front edge of the top, is planed down to a level, and an inkstand is let into the center of this, even with the surface, and covered with a small lid. The ends of these desks are an inch and a half thick, and fastened by a strong tenon to the shoe [*c*], which is screwed to the floor. The front of the desk, and the shelf [*b*], for books, &c., are inch boards; the whole desk, made in the strongest manner, is painted a pleasant green, and varnished. In the next smaller size, the same proportion is observed, but all the dimensions are one inch less; and in the third, or smallest size, the dimensions are all one inch less than in the second. For each desk there are two chairs, resting on cast-iron supporters [*d*], an inch and a quarter in diameter, with a wide *flange* at each end; the upper one, screwed to the under side of the seat [*e*], is a little smaller than the lower, which is fastened to the floor by five strong screws, rendering the chair almost immovable. The largest size seats [*e*] in these rooms are fourteen inches in diameter and fifteen inches high, with backs, twenty-eight inches from [*g*] to the top, slanting an inch and a quarter to a foot. These backs are made with three slats, fastened by strong tenons into a top-piece, like some styles of common chairs, and screwed to the seat, while the middle one extends down into a socket on the foot of the iron standard. The seats, like the desks, are diminished one inch for the middle size, and two for the smallest, preserving the proportions in the different sizes, which adapts them to the sizes of the desks.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL-HOUSES.

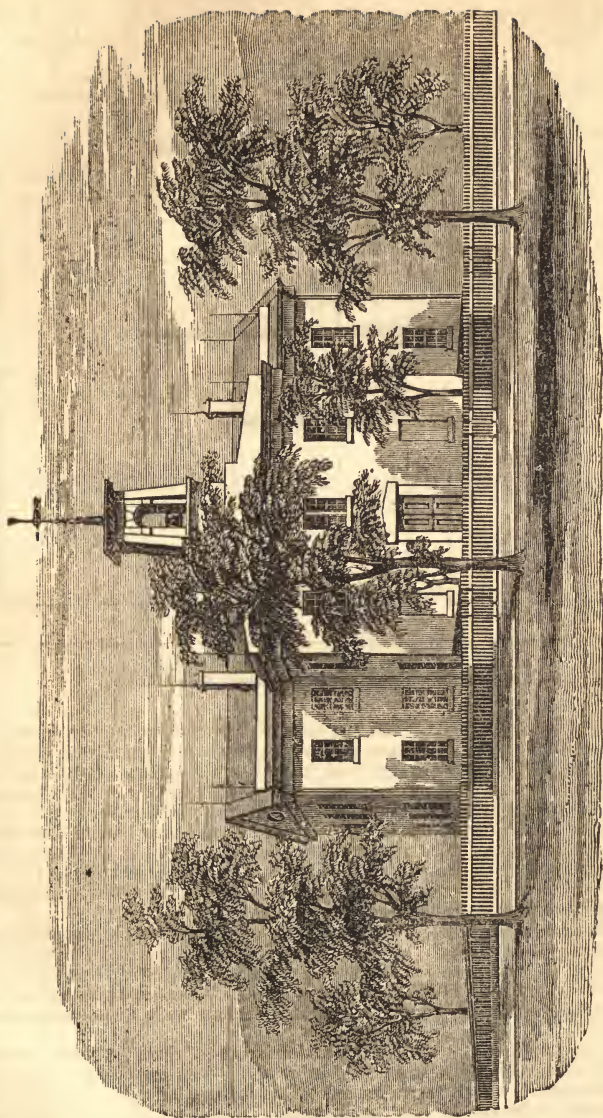
There are six buildings of this class, constructed on the same plan, and of the same size. They are seventy feet long by forty wide, with a front projection, twenty-eight feet long by fourteen feet wide. They are located on very large lots, varying from one hundred and fifty to two hundred feet long—from a hundred and twenty to a hundred and fifty feet wide. All of them, except one, are on corner lots, and all have large open spaces around them. These, and all the other public school-houses in the city, are protected with Quimby's lightning-rods, and each is furnished with a bell, which can be heard in the remotest parts of its district.

In the accompanying view, No. 9, the engraver has represented a *few* trees, a little *larger* than any at present around these buildings, because he could not crowd all the trees and shrubbery into the picture, without obscuring the lower part of the house.

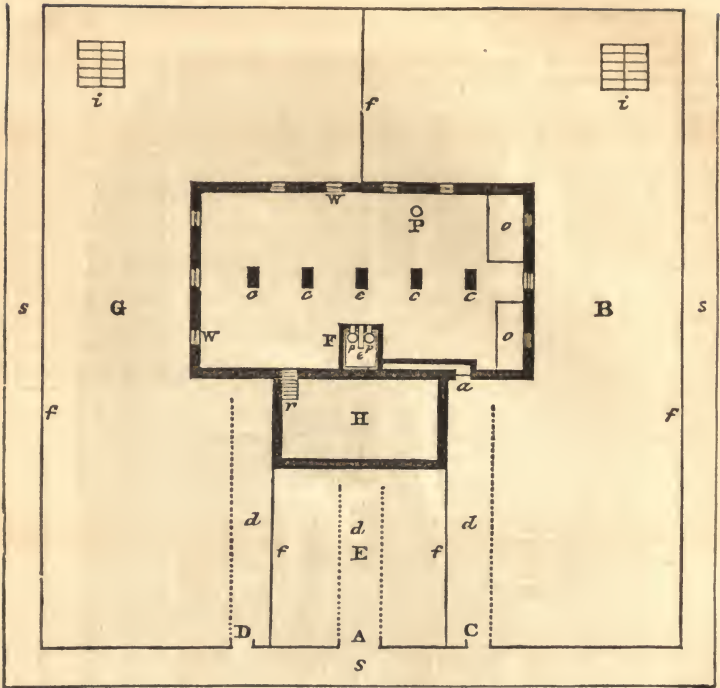
The cut on p. 91, No. 10, is a ground plan, on a reduced scale, of a Grammar School-House, including a general view of the cellar, yards, fences, gates, sidewalks, &c.

The yards around each of the grammar school-houses contain from 18,000 to 20,000 square feet, or between a third and half an acre. These grounds are inclosed, and divided into three separate yards, by substantial close board fences [*f, f, f, f*], six feet high, neatly made, and painted white. The boys' play-ground [*B*], and that of the girls [*G*], are large; but the front yard [*E*] is small, and, not being occupied by pupils, is planted with trees and shrubbery. The graveled sidewalks [*s, s, s*], running on two sides of all the grammar school lots, and on three of some of them, are shaded by rows of elms, maples, and lindens, set near the curb-stones. The gates [*A, C, D*] and the graveled walks [*d, d, d*] lead to the front and the two side doors of the school-house; and [*f*] is a large gate for carting in coal, &c. The out-buildings [*i, i*] are arranged with a large number of separate apartments on both sides, all well ventilated, each furnished with a door, and the whole surrounded with evergreens.

In the plan of the projection [*H*] the stairway [*r*] leads to the cellar, which is seven feet in the clear, and extends under the whole of the main building. These cellars are well lighted, having eight windows [*W, W*], with ten lights of seven by nine glass. The windows, being hung with hinges on the upper



No. 9.—View of a Grammar School-House.



No.10.—Ground Plan, &c., of a Grammar School-House.

side, and fastened with hooks and staples at the lower edge, may be opened by raising them into a horizontal position, where they are fastened with hooks as when closed. With this arrangement, it is easy to keep the cellars well ventilated at all seasons. The openings for the admission of coal into the bins [o, o], one for anthracite, and the other for charcoal, are furnished with sheet-iron shutters, fastening on the inside. Every school-house has, in the cellar, an abundant supply of good water, obtained from a fountain, or from a well, which is generally outside of the building, the water being brought in by a pump [P]. A supply of good water for a school-house should not be considered merely as a convenience, but as absolutely necessary.

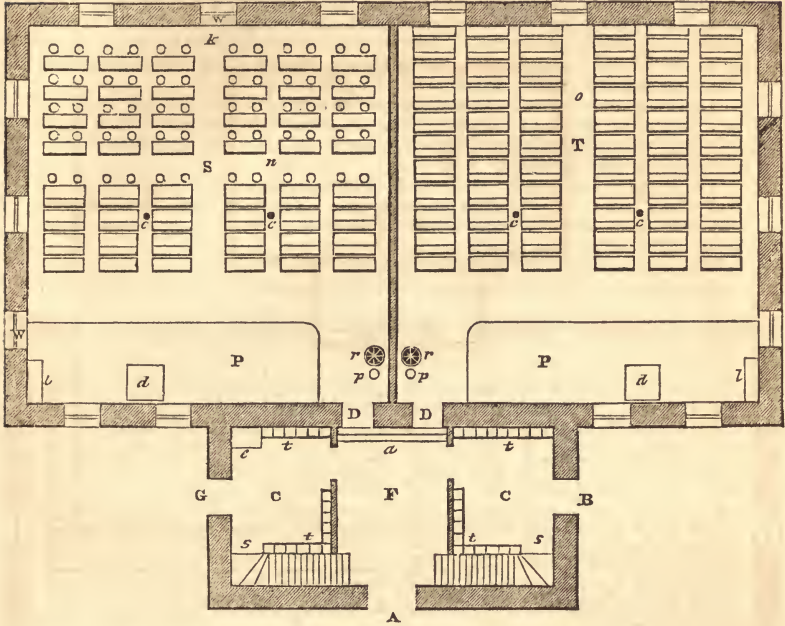
The horizontal section of a furnace [F] shows merely the ground plan. The cold air passes through [a] to the air-chamber, where it is warmed by the fires in [p, p], two cast-iron cylinders, fourteen inches in diameter. The evaporator [e] holds about fifteen gallons of water, which is kept in a state of rapid evaporation, thus supplying the air-chamber with an abundance of moisture.

In the plan and construction of the various parts of these furnaces, special pains have been taken to remove all danger of fire—an important consideration, which should never be overlooked. The furnace is covered with stone, thickly coated with mortar, and the under side of the floor above is lathed and plastered, not only above the furnace, but at least ten feet from it in every direction.

A full description of the construction and operation of the furnaces used in the public school-houses will be given under another diagram. The cellar walls and the stone piers [c, c, c, c, c] are well pointed, and the whole inside,

including the wood-work overhead, is neatly whitewashed, giving this apartment a neat and pleasant appearance.

The walls of all these buildings are of stone, about two feet thick, faced with common brick, and painted a tasteful color.



No. 11.—Plan of the First Floor of a Grammar School-House.

There are three entrances to these houses; the front [A], and the two side doors [B], for boys, and [G], for girls, leading into the entries [F, C, C]. The front is a large double door, with a beautiful frontice of fine hammered Quincy granite. At all the outside doors are two or three hewn granite steps, furnished with four or six scrapers at each door.

Pupils belonging to the schools in the lower story pass from the side entries into the middle one, and, ascending two steps at [a], enter their respective rooms [T, S], which are rather larger than those in the primary and intermediate school-houses, previously described, being thirty-six feet by thirty-two inside, and eleven feet high in the clear.

In each of the entries [C, C] there is a provision [t, t, t, t] for setting up umbrellas. It resembles a ladder placed in a horizontal position, and is fastened to the ceiling on one side, and supported on the other by substantial posts of oak or other strong wood, turned in a tasteful style, and set into the floor.

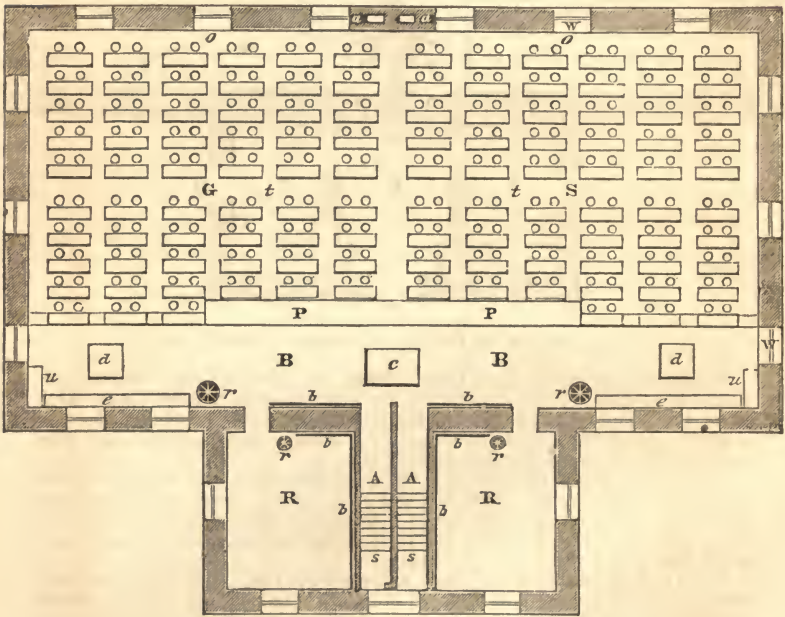
The seats and desks in the rooms [T and S] are of the same dimensions, and arranged in the same manner as those in the primary and the intermediate school-rooms before described. The small iron posts [c, c, c, c], about two and a half inches in diameter, supporting the floor above, are placed against the ends of the seats, so close as not to obstruct the passages at all. Besides the platforms [P, P], twenty feet by six—the tables, three feet by four, for the teachers, and the closets [l, l], for brushes, &c., there are black-boards, painted upon the walls, extending from the doors [D, D] to the windows, fourteen feet long by four wide, with the lines of a stave painted on one end, to aid in giving instruction in vocal music.

The plan of ventilating these rooms on the first floor is represented by cut No. 5, page 85. Every room is provided with two ventilators, each three feet long by about twelve inches wide, opening into flues of the same dimensions, leading into the attic, from which the impure air escapes at circular windows in the gables. These flues should have extended down to the bottom of the rooms, with openings on a level with the floors, so that, when the rooms are warmed with air from the furnaces above the temperature of the human breath, they might be ventilated by removing the foul air from the lower parts, and thus causing fresh, warm air to be slowly settling down upon the scholars—a very pleasant and healthful mode of ventilation.

These rooms are well warmed by heated air, admitted through registers [r, r], eighteen inches in diameter, from the furnace below, from which [p, p] tin pipes, fourteen inches in diameter, convey the air to the grammar school-rooms in the second story.

These rooms are large, with arched ceilings, measuring twelve feet to the foot of the arch, and seventeen to its crown. They are each provided with two ventilators, three feet and a half in diameter, placed in the crown of the arch, about twenty feet apart.

The entrances to the Grammar School-rooms are by two short flights of stairs on a side; from the lower entries to [s, s], spaces about three feet square,



No. 12.—Plan of a Grammar School-Room.

and thence to [A, A], spaces three by five feet, extending from the top of the stairs to the doors opening into the school-room.

The master's table [c], as well as tables [d, d], for the assistants, are movable. The large area [B, B], being fourteen inches above the floor of the room, is eight feet wide by sixty-four long, with large closets [u, u] at the ends, fitted up with shelves, &c., for the use of the teachers.

The school-room is warmed by heated air, admitted at the registers, [r, r] and the recitation-rooms [R, R] in the same manner, by the small registers, [r, r] all of which are connected with the furnace in the cellar by large tin pipes or conductors.

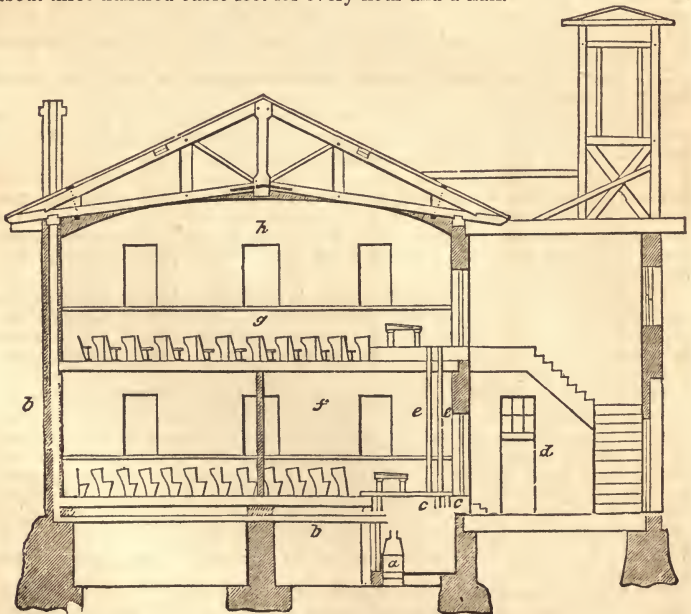
The black-boards, four feet wide, painted upon the hard-finished walls, are indicated by the lines [*b, b, b, &c.*] in the recitation-rooms, and along the walls behind the master's table, extending on each side to the windows beyond, [*e, e*] making, in each Grammar School, about three hundred square feet of black-board.

The long benches [*e, e*] are used for seating *temporarily* new pupils on their entering school, until the master can assign them regular seats; also for seating visitors at the quarterly examinations. The space [*P, P*], a broad step, eighteen feet long and two feet wide, is used for some class exercises on the black-boards. The passage [*t, t*], about eighteen inches wide, running the whole length of the room, affords great facility in the movements of pupils to and from the recitations and other class exercises. The master's classes generally recite in the space [*o, o*] on the back side of the room, four feet wide and sixty-four feet long, where seats are placed for scholars to sit during recitation, when it is necessary; and the same accommodations are provided in the recitation-rooms.

The windows [*W, W, &c.*], which are hung with weights, and furnished with inside blinds, in the manner before described, contain twelve lights each, of ten by sixteen glass, of the strongest kind, the Saranac or Redford glass.

The quantity of air furnished for each scholar in the public school-rooms is a matter of no small importance. The rooms for the primary and the intermediate schools—the former designed to accommodate one hundred and twenty, and the latter only ninety-six pupils—contain between fifteen and sixteen thousand cubic feet of atmospheric air. The rooms for the grammar schools, intended to accommodate two hundred pupils, contain over thirty-five thousand cubic feet, after a suitable deduction for the furniture is made.

This estimate allows every child, when the rooms are not crowded, about one hundred and fifty cubic feet of air for every hour and a half, on the supposition that no change takes place, except at the times of recess, and at the close of each session. But the rate at which warm air is constantly coming into the rooms from the furnaces, increases the allowance for every child to about three hundred cubic feet for every hour and a half.



No. 13.—Transverse Section of a Grammar School-House.

The preceding cut is given in order to show an *end view*, the projection, belfry, rooms, seats, desks, and cellar. An imperfect section of the warming apparatus is presented, giving an outline of the plan of its construction. The smoke-pipe, connected with [a], the heater, coiled twice around in the air-chamber, passes off in the direction of [b, b] to the chimney. The short tin pipes [c, c] conduct the warm air into the lower rooms; and the long ones [e, e] convey it to the rooms in the second story. On each side of the projection over the door [d] is a window, lighting the outside entry, and also the middle entry by another window over the inside door. The end views of seats and desks do not represent the different sizes very accurately, but sufficiently so to give a correct idea of the general plan.

THE HIGH SCHOOL-HOUSE.

This building occupies an elevated and beautiful situation, at the head of President street, near the central part of the city. It is a specimen of plain, but tasteful architecture, on which the eye reposes with pleasure. The lot, somewhat irregular in its form, is equivalent to one a hundred feet by a hundred and fifteen, and lies on a gentle hill-side, rendering it easy to construct a basement almost entirely above ground, except on the back side. The extensive grounds in front, and on either side, all planted with trees, and separated from the High School only by the width of the streets, add much to the beauty and pleasantness of its situation. The yards around it are inclosed by a handsome baluster fence, resting in front on heavy blocks of rough granite. The steps are of hewn granite, twelve feet long, making a very convenient entrance.

The High School being designed for both boys and girls, an entirely separate entrance is provided for each department. The front door, at which the girls enter, has a very beautiful frontispiece, with double columns (thus providing for large side-lights), and a heavy ornamented cap, all cut from Quincy granite in the best style.

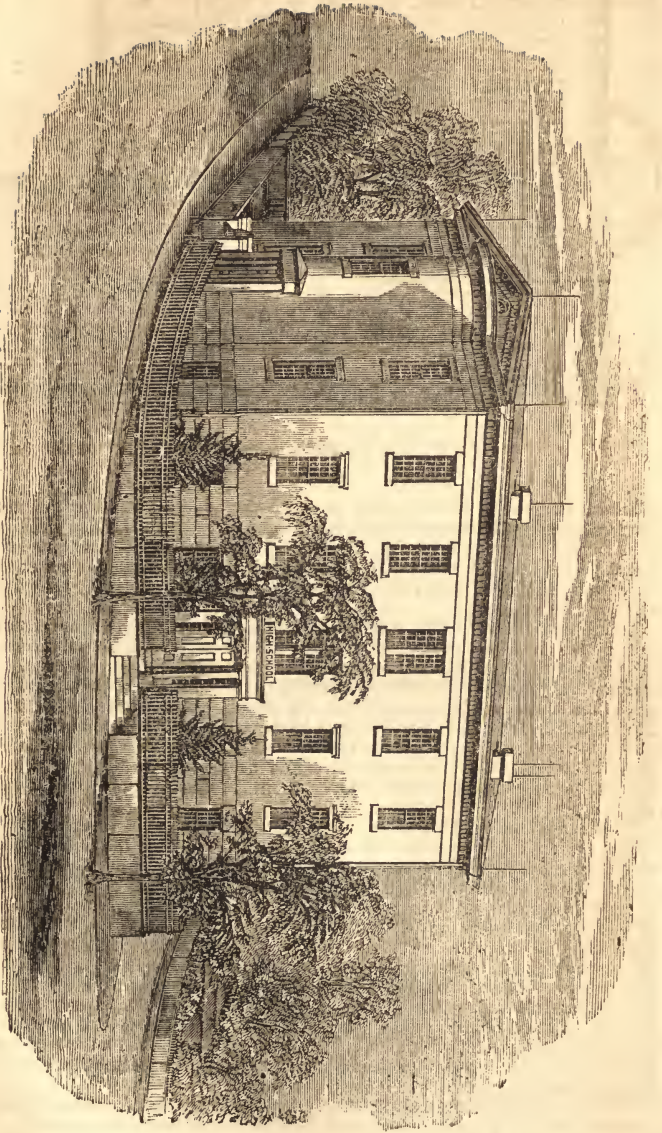
The door in the circular projection, fronting on another street, has also a fine frontispiece, cut from Quincy granite.

The size of this building is fifty feet by seventy-six, with a projection of seven feet. The walls of the basement are of stone, three feet thick, and faced with rough-hewn granite, laid in courses twenty inches wide. Each stone has a "chiseled draft, fine cut," an inch wide around the face, and all the joints as close and true as if the whole were fine hammered. The remaining portions of the walls, diminishing in thickness as they rise, are faced with the best quality of Danvers pressed brick, giving the building a beautiful appearance. The roof is covered with tin, every joint soldered, and the whole surface kept well painted.

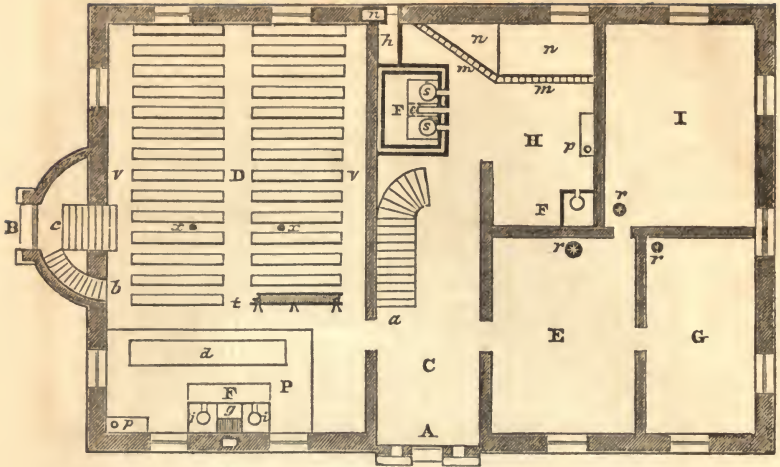
The rooms in the basement story, which is twelve feet high in the clear, are separated from each other by solid brick walls. The pupils in the girls' department, entering the house at [A], pass into the large lobby [C], twelve feet by twenty-eight, from which they can go to all parts of the building appropriated to their use.

The furnace-room [H] has a brick floor, and is kept in as good order as the other parts of the house. The coal-bins [n, n] and the furnace [F] are so constructed, that, with an ordinary degree of care, the room may be kept as clean as any of the school-rooms. The arrangements [m, m] for setting up umbrellas have been described. The pump [p], accessible to all in the girls' department, connected with a nice sink, lined with lead, affords an abundant supply of excellent water. The rooms [E, G, I], each not far from sixteen by twenty-four feet, are appropriated as the Superintendent's Office, and for such meetings of the School Committee, and of its sub-committees, as may be appointed there.

The large lecture-room, on the opposite side of the lobby, is furnished with settees, which will accommodate about two hundred and fifty pupils. On the



No. 14.—View of the High School-House.



No. 15.—Plan of the Basement of High School.

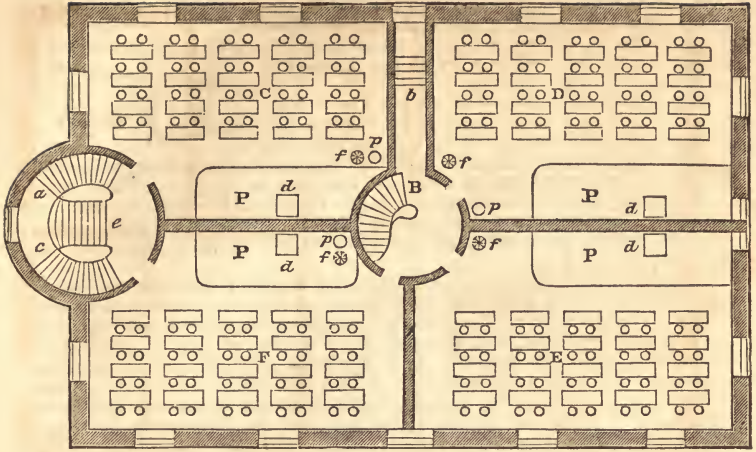
platform [P], raised seven inches from the floor, a long table or counter [d], made convenient for experimental lectures in Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, &c., having pneumatic cisterns for holding gasses. At [F, &c.] are suitable provisions for the fires used in the preparations of chemical experiments. The pump [p], with a sink like the other, is used exclusively by the pupils in the boys' department.

In all lectures, and other exercises in this room, the girls, entering at [a], occupy the seats on the right of [D], the middle aisle. The boys, entering by descending the short flight of stairs [b], are seated on the opposite side of the room. This may seem like descending to useless particulars, but it is done to show that there are no grounds for the objections sometimes made against having a school for boys and for girls in the same building, where the departments are kept entirely separate, except in exercises in vocal music and occasional lectures. The boys enter the house at the end door [B], which is six feet above the basement floor, and, by a short flight of stairs, they reach the first story at [c].

The three rooms [C, D, F] are appropriated to the department for girls. They are easy of access to the pupils, who, ascending the broad flight of stairs, terminating at [B], can pass readily into their respective rooms.

The course of instruction in the school occupying three years, the room [D] is appropriated to the studies for the first, [E] to those of the second, and [F] to the course for the third year. In each room there are three sizes of seats and desks, and their arrangement in all is uniform. The largest are on the back side of the room. The largest desks are four feet eight inches long, and twenty-two inches wide on the top; the middle size is two inches smaller, and the other is reduced in the same proportions. The largest seats are as high as common chairs, about seventeen inches, and the remaining sizes are reduced to correspond with the desks. The passages around the sides of the rooms vary from two to four feet wide, and those between the rows of desks, from eighteen to twenty-four inches.

On the raised platforms [P, P, P, P] are the teachers' tables [d, d, d, d], covered with dark woolen cloth, and furnished with four drawers each. The registers [f, f, f, f] admit the warm air from the furnace, and the pipes [p, p, p] conduct it into the rooms in the upper story. The passage [b] leads into the back yard, which is ornamented with a variety of shrubbery.

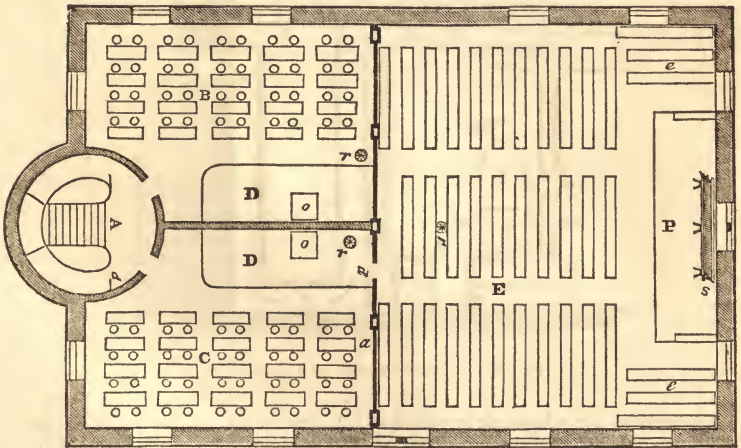


No. 16.—Plan of the First Story of the High School.

The door leading from the room [F] is used only for teachers and visitors, except when the two departments assemble in the hall.

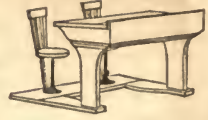
In the room [C] the boys pursue the studies prescribed for the first year; the other rooms in this department are in the next story.

Pupils ascending from the area [e], by two circular stairways, land on the broad space [a, c], from which, by a short flight of stairs, they reach [A], in the following cut, the floor of the upper story, which is sixteen feet in the clear.



No. 17.—Plan of the Second Story of the High School-House.

The room [B] is appropriated to the middle class, and [C] to the senior class. The arrangement of the seats and desks are the same as in the other rooms, except they are *movable*—being screwed to a frame not fastened to the floor, as shown in this cut.

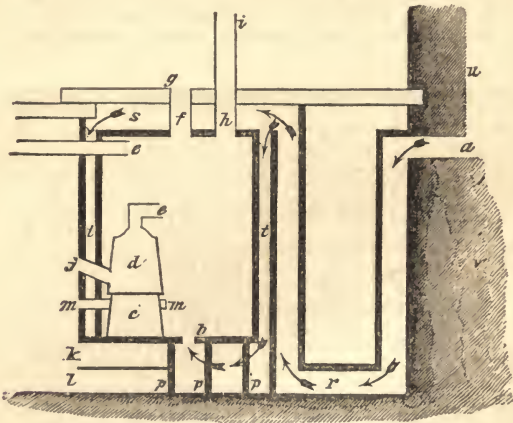


The cross partition [a]—see cut No. 17—is composed of four very large doors, about fourteen feet square, hung with weights in such a manner that they may be raised into the attic, thus throwing the whole upper story into one large hall—an arrangement by which one room can be changed into *three*, and three into *one*, as the occasion may require. On all public occasions, such as Quarterly Examinations, and Annual Exhibitions, the rooms are thus thrown together, and the seats and desks turned so as to face the platform [P], in [E], the principal hall.

Observation and experiment, relative to the modes of warming the public school-rooms, have proved that very *large* stoves, eighteen inches in diameter, render the temperature of the rooms *more uniform and pleasant*, and that they are also *more economical*, both in regard to the amount of fuel consumed, and the amount of repairs required. It is a general principle, that a warming apparatus, containing a *large* quantity of fuel, undergoing a *slow* combustion, is better than one containing a *small* quantity of fuel, in a state of *rapid* combustion. The stoves in the small buildings, and the furnaces in the large ones, are constructed on this principle.

In regard to the construction of furnaces for warming public buildings or private dwellings, so much depends upon circumstances, that no specific plan can be given which would be successful in all cases. One familiar with the principles which regulate the motions of currents of air at different temperatures, can, with an ordinary degree of good judgment and mechanical skill, make a furnace in any place, where one can be made at all, that will accomplish all which the laws of nature will permit.

The following cut is intended to illustrate *two* plans for a furnace.



No. 18.—A Vertical Section of a Furnace

In the first, the cold air is admitted at [a], through the outside walls of the building, and descends in the direction described by the arrows, to [r], and thence rises to the top of the furnace, as shown by the arrows. At this place, the cold air diffuses itself over the whole upper surface, about eight feet by ten, and passes down between the double walls of the furnace, in the spaces [t, t'], which extend all around the furnace, and rises from beneath, through a

large opening [*b*], into the air-chamber, where it is heated and conducted to the rooms by large pipes, [*f, h*]. The object of this mode of taking in air is two-fold. In the first place, the constant currents of cold air, passing over the top of the furnace, keep that surface comparatively cool, and also keep the floors above the furnace cool, thus removing all danger of setting fire to the wood-work over the furnace.

In the second place, as the inside walls are constantly becoming heated, and the currents of cold air, passing down on all sides of the walls, become rarified by their radiation, and thus, as it were, take the heat from the outside of the inner walls, and bring it round into the air-chamber again, at [*b*]. This is not mere theory, but has been found to work well in practice. On this plan, the outside walls are kept so cool, that very little heat is wasted by radiation.

In the second plan, the cold air is admitted as before; but, instead of ascending from [*r*] to the top of the furnace, it passes through a large opening, directly from [*r*], to [*p, p, p*], representing small piers, supporting the inside walls, and thence into the air-chamber at [*b*], and also *up* the spaces [*t, t*], to the top [*s*], from which the air warmed by coming up between the walls is taken into the rooms by separate registers, or is let into the sides of the pipes [*f, h*].

By this plan, the air passes more rapidly through the air-chamber, and enters the rooms in *larger* quantities, but at a *lower* temperature. This is the better mode, if the furnace be properly constructed with large inlets and outlets for air, so that no parts become highly heated; otherwise, the wood-work over the furnace will be in some danger of taking fire. The general defects in the construction of furnaces are:—*too small* openings for the admission of cold air—*too small* pipes for conveying the warm air in all horizontal and inclined directions—and defective dampers in the perpendicular pipes. A frequent cause of failure in warming public buildings and private dwellings may be found in the ignorance and negligence of attendants.

A single remark will close this report, which has been extended, perhaps, too far by specific details—a want of which is often complained of by mechanics who are engaged in building school-houses.

It is believed to be *best*, and, all things considered, *cheapest*, in the end, to build *very good* school-houses—to make their external appearance pleasant and attractive, and their internal arrangements comfortable and convenient—to keep them in *first-rate* order, well repaired, and *always clean*.

The amount of damage done to school property in this city has uniformly been *least* in those houses in which the teachers have done *most* to keep every thing in very good order. The very appearance of school property well taken care of rebukes the spirit of mischief, and thus elevates the taste and character of the pupils.

Respectfully submitted.

N. BISHOP,
Superintendent of Public Schools.

PROVIDENCE, August, 1846.

Since the foregoing Report was published, important alterations have been made in several of the Grammar and Primary School-houses of Providence. In the Grammar School-houses, a projection of the same size and in the same relative position as that in front of the building, is carried up in the rear so as to secure two additional rooms for recitation on the second floor, and one for each school-room on the first. A second story has been added to the Primary School-houses, so as to accommodate a large number of pupils, and secure a better classification of the same. The Superintendent, than whom no one in the country has a better scientific and practical knowledge of the subject, has devised a plan of ventilation, at once cheap and thorough, which will be carried out as soon as means for this purpose are placed at the disposal of the School Committee by the City Council.

The following cut presents a front elevation of one of the new Intermediate School-houses in Providence, designed by Mr. Telf.

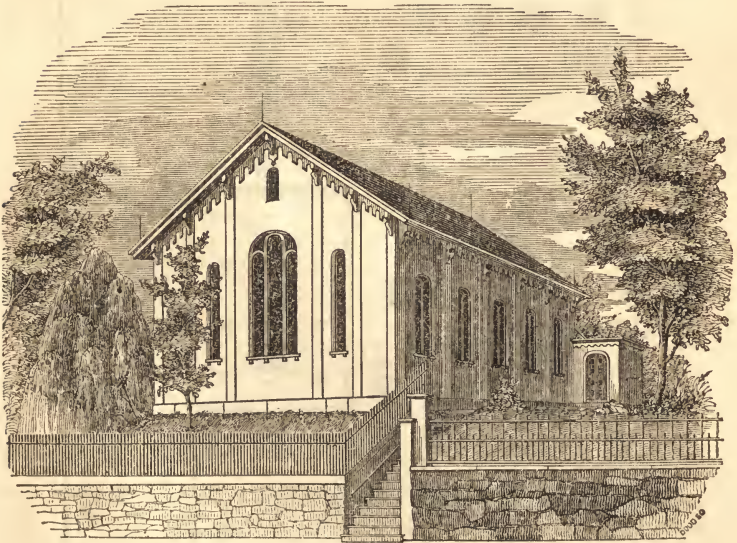
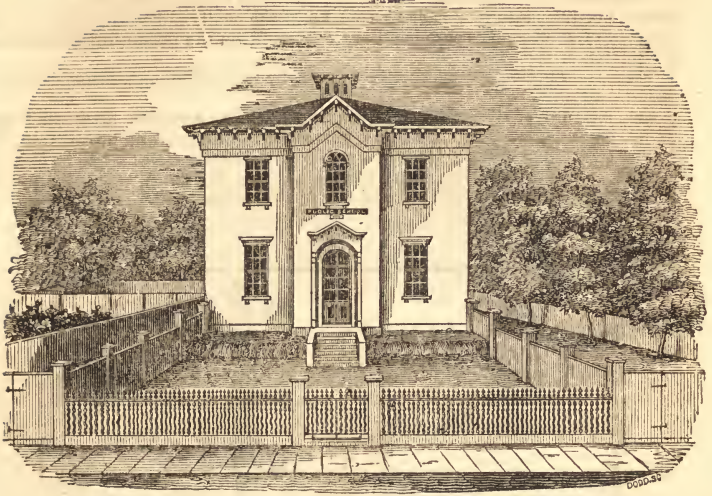


The only private school edifice in Providence which can be compared with the Public School-houses, is a beautiful structure erected by Mr. John Kingsbury, at his own expense, after plans of Mr. Telf, for the accommodation of a school of forty girls. This house is a perfect gem in school architecture, and no young lady can be educated within its walls without receiving not only the benefit of its every appliance for health, comfort and neatness, but at the same time, some advancement in esthetical culture from the exhibition of taste all around her.

The improvements in education, introduced by Mr. Kingsbury in his private school from 1826 to 1838, prepared the way for improvements in the organization and instruction of the public schools, and the improvement of the latter since 1840, have made it necessary for Mr. Kingsbury to take and maintain still higher ground. Mr. Kingsbury has always given his best efforts to improve the public schools.

PUBLIC SCHOOL-HOUSE IN WARREN, R. I.

Fig. 1.



PERSPECTIVE OF MR. JOHN KINGSBURY'S FEMALE SEMINARY, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

The lot is 225 deep and 100 feet wide for a depth of 125 feet, and 161 feet wide for the remaining 64 feet. It is divided into three yards, as exhibited in the ground plan, (Fig. 2,) each substantially inclosed, and planted with trees and shrubbery.

The dimensions of the building are 62 feet by 44 on the ground. It is built of brick in the most workmanlike manner.

Most of the details of construction, and of the arrangement in the interior, are similar to those described on page 214.

Each room is ventilated by openings controlled by registers, both at the floor and the ceiling, into four flues carried up in the wall, and by a large flue constructed of thoroughly seasoned boards, smooth on the inside, in the partition wall, (Fig. 3, x.)

The whole building is uniformly warmed by two of Culver's furnaces placed in the cellar.

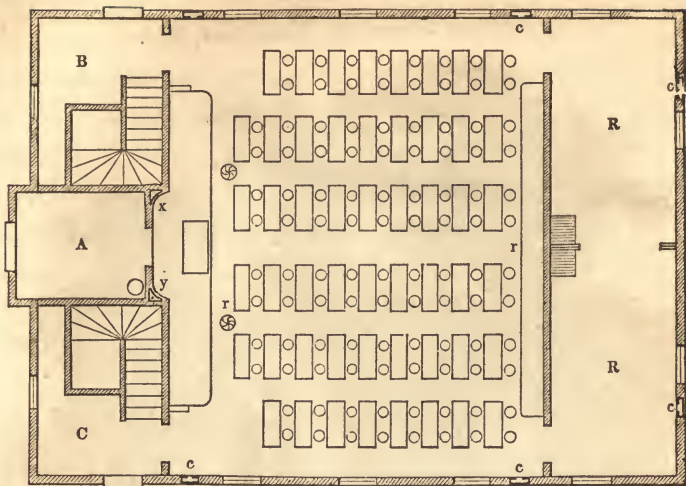
Every means of cleanliness are provided, such as scrapers, mats, sink with pump, wash basin, towels, hooks for outer garments, umbrella stands, &c.

The tops of the desks are covered with cloth, and the aisles are to be cheaply carpeted, so as to diminish, if not entirely prevent, the noise which the moving of slates and books, and the passing to and fro, occasion in a school-room.

Fig. 2.



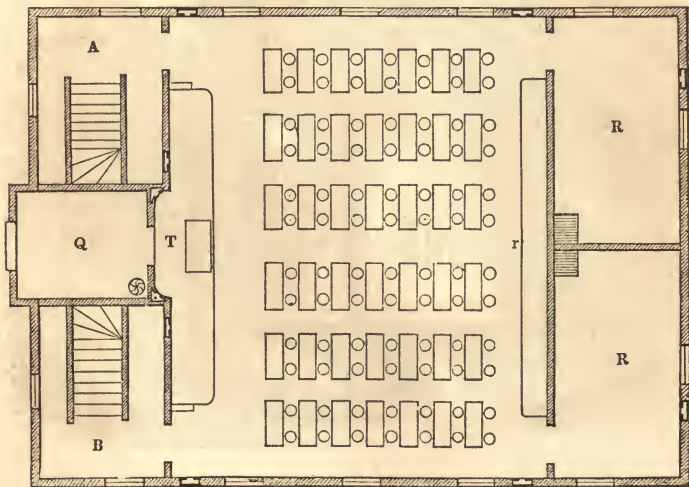
Fig. 3—FIRST FLOOR.



- A—Front entrance.
- B—Girls' entrance, with mats, scrapers, hooks for clothes, a sink, pump, basin, &c.
- C—Boys' entrance do.
- R—Recitation rooms, connected by sliding doors.
- R, P—Platform for recitation, with a blackboard in the rear.
- T—Teacher's platform.
- S—Seats and desks; see page 205.

- Q—Library and apparatus.
- w—Windows, with inside Venetian blinds.
- c—Flues for ventilation in the outer wall.
- x—Flue for ventilation, lined with smooth, well seasoned boards.
- y—Bell-rope, accessible to the teacher by an opening in the wall.
- r—Hot air registers.

Fig. 4.—SECOND FLOOR.



PRIMARY SCHOOL IN WESTERLY, R. I.



VILLAGE SCHOOL-HOUSE IN ALLENDALE, N. PROVIDENCE, R. I.



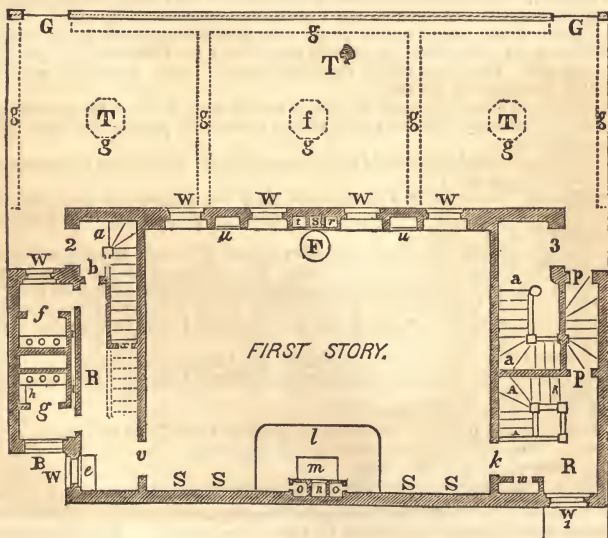
INGRAHAM PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE, BOSTON.

The Schoolhouse, to which the following description and plans more particularly refer, is situated in Sheafe street, at the north part of the City, and on the slope of Copp's Hill, famed in our Revolutionary history. It occupies a space of twenty-six by fifty-three feet, exclusive of the play-ground in front, between it and the street, which is sixteen by fifty-three feet. This front is hardly long enough. Sixty feet would have been much better. The main building is twenty-six by forty-four feet; and there are projections at each end,—one on the west, four and a half by sixteen and a half feet, containing the privies, and one at the east end, three and a half by twenty-one and a half feet, in which is the passage from the lower schoolroom to the play-ground.

The building is three stories in height. Each story contains a Schoolroom, Recitation-rooms, Closets, Entries, and Privies, and is finished twelve feet high, in the clear. Each Schoolroom is lighted by four windows, which are all on one side. The first floor is set eighteen inches above the ground at the front of the building. The Cellar is finished seven and a half feet high, in the clear; and its floor is on a level with the surface of the ground at the back of the building, where is the entrance-door to the first story.

The Schoolrooms in the first and second stories are thirty feet in length, by twenty-two feet and four inches in width, and contain six hundred and seventy square feet of floor. That in the third story is thirty-two feet in length, by twenty-two feet and nine inches in breadth, and contains seven hundred and thirty square feet of floor. Thus allowing from ten to twelve or thirteen square feet of floor, and one hundred and fifty cubic feet of air, to each scholar.

The following diagram will show the arrangement of the ground-floor, with the Play-ground in front.



Scale 16 feet to the inch.

The following references will apply to the ground-plan of each of the three stories.

1, Entrance to First Story, by a door under the window W, the back part of the building being eight feet lower than the front.

2, 3, Entrance-doors to the Second and Third Stories.

A, A, A, Stairs to First Story, from the Entrance-door 1.

B, Blinds in Boys' Privies.

F, Fireplace or Furnace-flue, or Stove, when one is used instead of a Furnace.

G, G, Entrance-gates to Second and Third Stories. The Iron Fence extends the whole length of the front on the street, broken only by these two gates.

R, R, Recitation-rooms, or spaces used for that purpose. In the *first story*, that on the right being the entrance-passage to the schoolroom, and that on the left, the passage to the Second Story.

S, S, S, S, Large Slates, measuring four by two and a half feet, affixed to the walls, instead of Blackboards.

T, T, T, Trees in Play-ground. That near the fence, is an old horse-chestnut tree.

U, Umbrella stands. The place of those of the *second story* only are shown. In the other stories, they are also in the entrance-passages.

W, W, Windows.

a, Stairs to Second Story.

b, b, b, In *second story*, Entry, and place for Boys' Clothes-hooks, also used as a Recitation-room. In *third story*, place for Clothes-hooks.

c, In *second story*, Door into the Recitation-room where are the Sink and Girls' Clothes-hooks. In *third story*, Door into Recitation-room where is the Brush Closet and entrance to Girls' Privy.

d, d, d, In *second story*, Girls' Clothes-hooks.

e, Sinks.

f, Privy for Girls.

g, Privy for Boys.

h, Trough in ditto.

i, i, Space between the walls of the Privies and main building, for more perfect ventilation, and cutting off of any unpleasant odor. [This space is here too much contracted, on account of the want of room. It would be much better, if greatly increased.]

k, Entrance-door to Schoolroom, through which, only, scholars are allowed to enter. In *third story*, the passage from the stairs to the Entrance-door is through the Recitation-room.

l, Teachers' Platforms, six feet wide and twelve feet long, raised seven inches from the floors.

m, Teachers' Tables.

n, Ventiduct. That for each room is in the centre of that room. These are better shown in the diagram representing the Ventilating arrangement, (p. 183.)

o, o, Closets, in the vacant spaces on the sides of the Ventiducts, in the First and Second Stories. In *first story*, they are on each side of the Ventiduct; in *second story* only on one side. In the *third story*, there are of course none. See the diagram of the Ventilating arrangement, (p. 183.)

p, p, Ventiducts for other rooms. In plan of *second story*, p shows the position of the Ventiduct for first story. In *third story* plan, p p show the positions of those for both the lower stories.

q, q, q, Childrens' chairs, arranged in the *second story*. Their form is represented in another diagram, (p. 181.)

r, s, t, Hot-air Flues from the Furnace, Cold-air Flues if Stoves are used, and Smoke Flues. These will be better understood by a reference to the diagram explanatory of the Chimney Pier, (p. 182.)

u, u, Cabinets for Minerals, Shells, and other objects of Natural History or Curiosity.

v, Door of Recitation-room. In *first story*, this door leads to the entry in which are the Sink, Brush-Closet, entrance to the Privies, and passage to Second Story. In *second story*, it leads to the Recitation-room where is the Teacher's Press-closet; and in the *third story*, to that in which are the Sink, entrance to the Privies, and Stairs to the Attic.

w, Teacher's Press-closet, fitted with shelves and brass clothes-hooks.

x, Closet for Brooms, Brushes, Coalhods, &c. That for the *first story* is under the Second-Story stairs.

a, a, a, Stairs to the Third Story.

b, b, Doors connecting First and Second, and Second and Third Stories.

f, Place for Fountain, in the centre of the Play-ground.

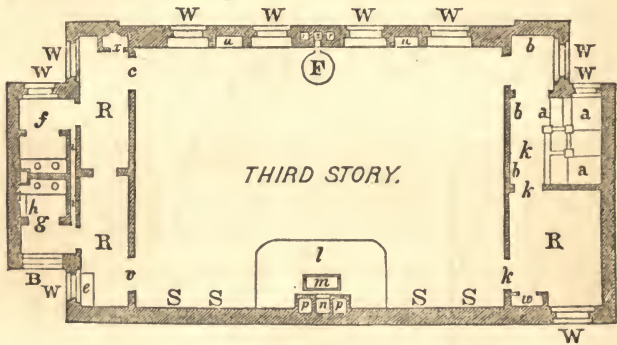
g, g, g, Grass-plats, or Flower-beds.

p, Passage from the First-Story Schoolroom to the Play-ground.

The Plan of the *second story*, on the next page, is drawn on a larger scale, for greater convenience in showing all the arrangements. The references on this diagram are more copious and minute than on either of the others.

The building fronts nearly N. N. E., and of course all the light comes into the Schoolrooms from the North. At the same time, in order to secure the benefit of the winds that prevail in Summer, and the admission of "a streak of sunshine," which adds so much to the cheerfulness of any room, and particularly of a schoolroom, there are windows in the back or southerly wall, opening into the recitation-rooms or entries, through which, and the entrance-doors, the sunlight finds its way into each schoolroom. The Neapolitan proverb, "Where the sun does not come, the physician must," has not been lost sight of; though it must be confessed that we have not been able to pay so much attention to it as would be desirable.

The next diagram, which is on the same scale with the first, will show the arrangement of the *third story*, which differs from the first and second in having a larger schoolroom, and more space for recitation-rooms; less space being occupied for stairways than in the other stories. The partitions at the ends are set one foot each way nearer to the ends of the building, making the Schoolroom thirty-two feet in length, while the others are only thirty.



Scale 16 feet to the Inch.

It will be seen, that the ends of the building are cut off from the schoolrooms, by entries, stairways, recitation-rooms, &c., and the back and end walls are left blank, for convenience in displaying Maps, Charts, Pictures, &c., and for the large Slates, used instead of Blackboards. As ample provision, as was practicable, has been made for recitation-rooms, closets, and other necessary conveniences.

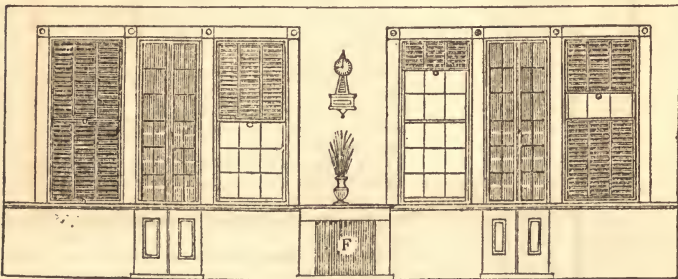
It will be seen, from the Plans of the different Stories, that the Entrance-door (*k*) to each Schoolroom is in that part of the partition nearest to the back walls; so that, on entering the room, the Teacher's Platform is directly before the scholar or visitor. This Platform is six feet wide and twelve feet long, and is raised seven inches above the floor, that being a sufficient height to give the Teacher a full view of the whole school. In the transverse-sectional elevation, (p. 184,) the raised Platform is shown at P.

On this Platform, is a Table, (*m*), instead of a Desk, that being the more convenient article for the Teacher's use. On it, are constantly kept, in full view of the scholars, THE LAWS OF THE SCHOOL,—the *Holy Bible*, the Rule and Guide of Life, the Moral and Religious Law; the *Dictionary*, the Law of Language, the Authority for Orthography and Orthoepy; and the *Rules and Regulations of the Committee*. These should be always on every Teacher's table or desk, and should be frequently appealed to. On this Table, also, are the Record Book of the School, Ink-standish, Table Bell, and other necessary articles.

In front of the Teacher's Platform, and facing it, arranged in a semi-circular form, as shown at *q q q*, in the Plan of the Second Story, are the Seats for the scholars. These are comfortable and convenient Arm-chairs, of which the annexed diagram shows the form. Each has a rack at the side (A) for convenience in holding the books or slates of the scholars. These chairs were the contrivance of Mr. Ingraham, and were introduced by him into the Primary Schools, in 1842, since which time, the Primary School Board have recommended their introduction into all their schools, in preference to any other seats, and about one hundred and thirty of the one hundred and sixty schools are now supplied with them. They are *not* fastened to the floor, but can be moved whenever necessary; and this is found to be a great convenience, and productive of no disadvantage. They have been strongly recommended by the Committees on School and Philosophical Apparatus, at the Exhibitions of the Massachusetts Charitable Mechanics' Association, in 1844 and 1847, and premiums were awarded for them in both those years.



The following diagram is an elevation of the Front wall of the Schoolroom, as seen from the Teacher's Platform. It is on the same scale with the preceding Plan of the Second Story,—eight feet to the inch.



Each Schoolroom is lighted by four windows; and in the central pier, between the windows, are the Cold-air and Chimney Flues, or the Furnace Flues. The Fire-place, or Furnace Flue, is represented at *F*, as in the preceding Plans of the different Stories. The arrangement of the Flues, in this pier, will be seen in the next diagram.

On the mantel-piece, over the Furnace Flue, is, in one room, a Vase of Native Grasses, or Flowers, and in the others, ornamental Statues, or Statuettes, furnished by the Teachers. Above this, suspended on the pier, is the Clock.

Between the other windows, are Cabinets, for the reception of Minerals, Shells, and other objects of Natural History or Curiosity. Their location is seen at *u u*, in the Plans of the respective Stories. There are two of these Cabinets in each Schoolroom, between the windows, above the skirting, and as high as the windows, with double sash-doors, of cherry-wood, hung with brass hinges, fastened with thumb-slides and locks, and fitted with rosewood knobs. There are twelve shelves in each, six of them being inclined, with narrow ledges on each, to prevent the specimens from rolling off. Immediately below them are small Closets, with four shelves in each, and double doors, hung and fastened in the same manner as the sash doors.

The Blinds of the Second Story, represented in this diagram, are framed, two parts to each window, and are hung with weights and pulleys, in the same manner as the window sashes. They run up above the tops of the windows, and behind the skirting of the next story above, in close boxes, and

have rings on the bottom rails, to draw them down. In this elevation, they are shown in different positions. The windows in the First Story are fitted with Venetian Blinds, and those in the Third Story with Inside Shutter-Blinds.

All the window-stools are wide, and contain Vases of Native Grasses, or Flowers.

Particular attention has been given to the mode of Heating and Ventilating these buildings; and provision has been made for a copious and constant supply of fresh air, from out-of-doors, which is so introduced, that it is sufficiently warmed before it enters the Schoolrooms.

The Sheafe-street building is heated by one of Chilson's largest-sized Furnaces, though it was originally constructed with a view to using Dr. Clark's excellent Ventilating Stoves, as in the other two buildings.*

The accompanying diagram shows the arrangement of the Cold-air and Smoke Flues, as arranged for the Stoves. It will be well to examine it in connection with the transverse-sectional elevation, (p. 184,) and the Floor Plans of the different Stories, (pp. 177, 179, 180.)

1, 2, 3, Floorings of the First, Second, and Third Stories. 4, Roof.

CA, Cold-air Flue for First Story, which delivers the air from without, under the Stove, as shown at C A, in the transverse-section, (p. 184,) and at F, in the floor-plans.

r, r, Cold-air Flue for Second Story, which empties into the box under the Stove, at CA, in the Second Story of the transverse-sectional elevation. It corresponds to r, in the Floor Plans of the *first* and *second* stories.

t, t, Cold-air Flue for Third Story, which empties into the box CA, under the Stove of that Story, as seen in the transverse-sectional elevation, and at F, in the Floor Plan. It corresponds to t, in the Floor Plans.

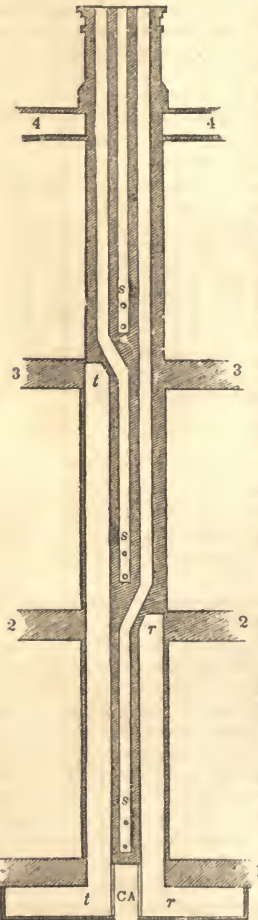
These Cold-air Ducts are twelve by eighteen inches, *inside*, and are *smoothly* plastered, throughout. This is hardly large enough, however.

s, s, Smoke Flues. That of First Story corresponds to s, in the floor plan of *first* story, and to r, in those of the *second* and *third*. That of Second Story corresponds to s, in *second-story* Plan, and to t, in *third-story* Plan. That of Third Story corresponds to s, on the Plan of that Story.

These Smoke Flues are eight inches square, *inside*, and are *smoothly* plastered, throughout. That of each Story commences in the centre of the pier in the room to which it belongs.

[The pier in which these Cold-air Ducts and Smoke Flues are placed, is wider than the piers between the other windows, in order to allow sufficient width to the Ducts. It must be at least six feet.]

It will be seen, from the transverse-sectional elevation, (p. 184,) (the Smoke Flue in which is represented as continuous, it not being practicable to show the bends,) as well as from the Plans of each Story, that the arrangements for Ventilation are directly opposite the Chimney Flues. The Ventiducts are contained in the projecting pier back of the Teachers' Platforms and Tables shown at l, m, in the Floor Plans.



Scale 10 feet to the inch.

It has already been stated, that particular attention has been paid to the

* Descriptions and Plans of this Furnace and Stove will be found on page 148.

mode of Ventilation; and it is believed that the system, if not perfect, is better adapted to its purpose than any other. The Ventiduct for each room is of sufficient size for the room; and the three are arranged as shown in the next diagram. It will be seen, that the Ventiduct for each room is in the centre of the pier, thus avoiding any unsymmetrical or one-sided (and of course unsightly) appearance.

1, 2, 3, 4, Floorings of the First, Second, and Third Stories, and Attic.

5, Roof.
c, c, c, Ventiduct of First Story, commencing in the centre of the pier. Between the ceiling of this room and the floor of the Second Story, this flue is turned to the left, and then continues in a straight line to the Attic, where it contracts and empties into the Ventilator V, on the Roof.

d, d, d, Ventiduct of Second Story, also commencing in the centre of the pier, and turning to the right, between the ceiling of the Second and floor of the Third Story, whence it is continued to the Attic, and empties into the Ventilator V.

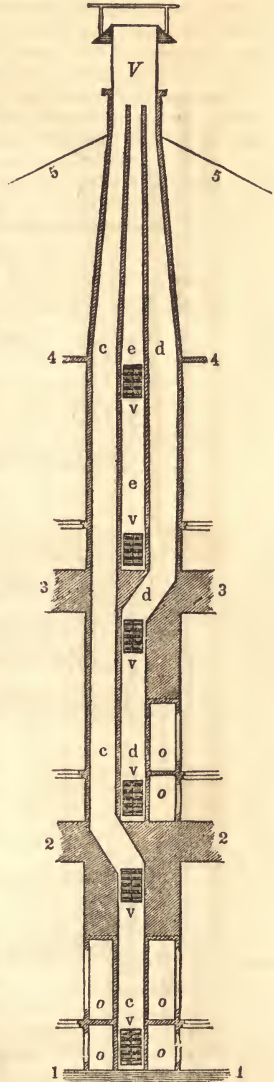
e, e, e, Ventiduct of Third Story, also emptying into V.

These Ventiducts are made of thoroughly seasoned pine boards, smooth on the inside, and put together with two-inch screws. Each, as will be seen, is placed in the centre of the room to which it belongs. They are kept entirely separate from each other, through their whole length, from their bases to the point where they are discharged into the Ventilators on the Roof. Each is sixteen inches square inside, through its whole length to the Attic, where, as will be seen by the diagram, each is made narrower as it approaches its termination, till it is only eight inches in width, on the front, the three together measuring twenty-five inches, the diameter of the base of the Ventilator on the roof. As they are contracted, however, in this direction, they are gradually enlarged from back to front, so that each is increased from sixteen to twenty-four inches, the three together then forming a square of twenty-five inches, and fitting the base of the Ventilator into which they are discharged. The increase in this direction will be better seen in the Elevation on p. 184, where V V represents one Ventiduct, continued from the lower floor to the Ventilator.

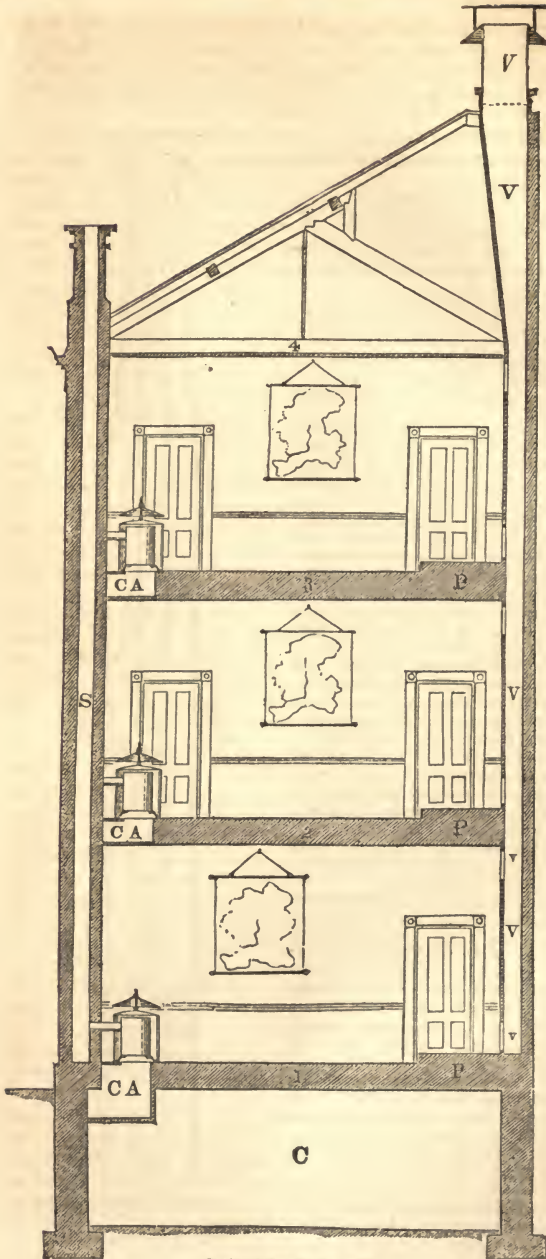
V, Ventilator, on the Roof, into which the three Ventiducts from the schoolrooms are discharged. This is twenty-five inches in diameter.*

v, v, Registers, to regulate the draught of air through the Ventiducts. There are two of these in each Ventiduct, — one at the bottom, to carry off the lower and heavier stratum of foul air, which always settles near the floor; and the other near the ceiling of the room, for the escape of the lighter impure air, which ascends with the heat to the top of the room. Each of these Registers has a swivel-blind, fitted with a stay-rod, and may be easily opened or closed by the Teacher.

o, o, Closets. The Ventiduct of each Story being in the centre of the projecting pier, affords room for Closets, on each side in the First Story, and on one side in the Second Story, as shown at o o. There are four in the First Story, two above and two below the wainscot. In the Second Story, there are two only, one above and the other below the wainscot; the other side of the pier being occupied by the Ventiduct of the First Story. In the Third Story there are of course none.



Scale 10 feet to the Inch.



1, 2, 3, 4, Floorings of the First Second, and Third, Stories, and the Attic.

C, The Cellar.

CA, Cold-air Boxes, opening under the Stoves.

S, Smoke Flue.

P, Teachers' Platforms.

V, Ventiduct, emptying into the Ventilator on the Roof.

v, v, Ventiduct Registers.

V, Ventilator.

Scale 10 feet to the Inch.

This plan of arranging the Heating and Ventilating apparatus has been adopted by the Committee on Ventilation of the Grammar School Board ;* but as their plans and diagrams were taken from Mr. Ingraham's first draughts, before his final arrangement was decided upon, they are not so complete as these.

The preceding diagram gives a transverse-sectional elevation of the building.

It has already been stated, that the children are seated with their backs to the light, and their faces towards the Teacher's Table and the wall above and on either side of it. On this wall, and also on the two end walls, (as shown in the transverse-section,) are suspended Maps, Charts, and Pictures, not only for ornament, but for the communication of instruction. Vases of Flowers and Native Grasses ornament the window-stools and the Teachers' Tables ; and Statuettes and other useful ornaments and decorations are placed in various parts of the rooms : so that whatever meets the eyes of the children is intended to convey useful and pleasing impressions, encouraging and gratifying the love of the beautiful, and combining the useful with the agreeable. The Cabinets of Minerals, Shells, and other objects of Natural History and Curiosity, add much to the interest and beauty of the rooms.

On the back wall, on either side of the Teacher's Platform, at S S S S, are four large Slates, in cherry-wood frames, each two and a half by four feet, used instead of Blackboards. These Slates are far preferable to the *best* Blackboards, and cost about the same as common ones. The Teachers greatly prefer them to Blackboards. In using them, slate pencils are of course employed, instead of chalk or crayons, and thus the dust and dirt of the chalk or crayons,—which is not only disagreeable to the senses, but deleterious to health, by being drawn into the lungs,—are avoided. These Slates may be procured in Boston, of A. Wilbur.

Each School has convenient Recitation-rooms ; though, in consequence of the space occupied by the stairs to the Second and Third Stories, the lower Story is not so conveniently accommodated, in this respect, as could be desired. It has, however, two good Entries, which are used for this purpose. In the Second and Third Stories, there are three of these rooms, of which much use is made. Their location is shown in the Floor Plans.

In these ante-rooms, are Closets for Brooms, Brushes, and other necessary articles of that description, and also Press-closets, furnished with shelves and brass clothes-hooks, for the Teachers' private use. In these, also, are Sinks, furnished with drawers and cupboards, pails, basins and ewers, mugs, &c. Pipes leading from the Sinks, convey the waste water into the Vaults ; and in a short time, the waters of Lake Cochituate will be led into each Story.

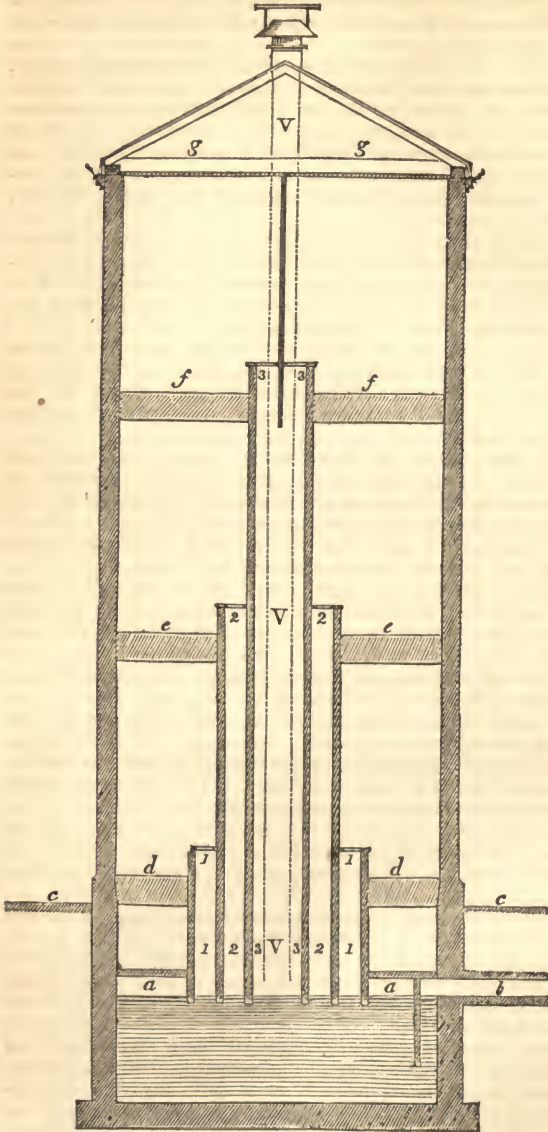
Each School has its own separate entrance ; so that they will not interfere with each other. And each is provided with sufficient conveniences in its entry, for hanging the clothing of the pupils, thus avoiding the necessity of its ever being brought into the Schoolroom. Each has also two Umbrella-stands in its entry.

In the Cellar, are placed the Furnace, and necessary conveniences attached to it, with Bins for coal and wood. Also two Rain-water Butts, one at each end, which receive all the water from the Roofs. Being connected with each other, by leaden pipes, under ground, the water in both stands at the same level ; and a pipe, leading from the top of one of them into the Vault, prevents their ever running over.

The Cellar is paved with brick, and is convenient for a play-room, when the weather is too stormy for the children to go out of doors at recess-time.

Instead of having the usual out-door conveniences in the yard, they are here connected with the entries of the respective schoolrooms, so that no child has to go into the open air, except for play in recess-time, or to go

home. This is considered a very great convenience, and a matter of the highest importance.



a, a, Surface of the water in the Sesspool.
b, Outlet to the common sewer.
c, c, Surface of the ground outside the building.
d, d, Floors of First Story, of stone.
e, e, Floors of Second Story.
f, f, Floors of Third Story.
g, g, Attic.
1, 2, 3, Seats and Wells of First, Second, and Third, Stories.
V, V, V, Ventiduct, ten inches square *inside*, extending from within one foot of the surface of the water in the Sesspool, to the Ventilator on the roof. Its sides are represented by the dotted lines

Scale 10 feet to the inch.

The preceding transverse-section will show the peculiar arrangement of the Privies to the different stories, and the manner in which all unpleasant consequences or inconveniences are, it is believed, effectually guarded against.

By the Plans of the different Stories, it will be seen, that the Privies are in a Projection on the western end of the building, the wall of which is separated from that of the main building, by the space *i i*, this space being four inches between the walls, and extending from the floor of the First Story to the Attic. The doors leading from the entries are kept closed, by strong springs; and at B, in the southern wall, is a Blind, through which the air constantly passes into this space, and up to the Attic, whence it is conveyed in a tight box to the Ventilator on the Roof. Except in very cold or stormy weather, the window in the northern side is kept open, (the outer blinds being closed,) and thus the whole of the Projection is cut off from the main building by external air. The space between the Projection and the main building is not, however, so great as it would have been made, had there been more room.

It will be seen, that there is a distinct Well to each Privy, separated from the others by a brick wall ending *below* the surface of the water in the seshpool. Of course, the only odor that can possibly come into either of the apartments, must come from the well of *that* apartment, there being no communication with any other, except through the water. And as every time it rains, or water is thrown in from the sinks, the water in the seshpool will be changed, and washed into the common sewer, it would seem that no danger of unpleasant odor need be feared. When the City water is carried to every floor of the building, the conveniences for frequently washing out the seshpool will be greatly increased.

There are two apartments on each floor; one for the girls, at *f*, and another for the boys, at *g*. In the latter, is a trough, (*h*), with a seshpool, and pipe leading into the well, under the seat. There is no window in the boys' apartment, but merely the blind, B, which extends from the floor to the ceiling. The girls' apartment, being in the front part of the Projection, is provided with a window similar to the others, and outside blinds.

Each apartment is fitted with pine risers, seats, and covers. The covers are hung with stout duck or India-rubber cloth, instead of metal hinges, which would be liable to corrode, and are so arranged that they will fall of themselves, when left. The edges of the cloth are covered with narrow slats. There is a box for paper in each apartment. The whole finish is equal to that of any other part of the building.

The interior plastering of all the walls of the building is hard-finished, suitably for being painted.

All the Rooms, Entries, Stairways, and Privies, are skirted up as high as the window-stools, with narrow matched beaded lining, gauged to a width not exceeding seven inches, and *set perpendicularly*.

The interior wood-work of the lower Schoolroom, as well as the interior of all the Closets and Cabinets, is painted white. The skirting of the Second Story is of maple, unpainted, but varnished. All the rest of the inside wood-work is painted and grained in imitation of maple, and varnished. The outside doors are painted bronze. The blinds are painted with four coats of Paris green, and varnished.

In some other schoolrooms in the City, the interior wood-work,—even of common white pine,—has been left unpainted, but varnished, with a very good effect; and it is contemplated to have some of the new Schoolhouses soon to be erected, finished in the same way. White pine, stained with asphaltum, and varnished, presents a beautiful finish, and is cheaper than painting or graining.

In the angles formed by the meeting of the walls with the ceiling of each room, and entirely around the room, are placed rods, fitted with moveable rings, for convenience in suspending maps, charts, and pictures, and to avoid the necessity of driving nails into the walls.

PLAN AND DESCRIPTION OF BOWDOIN GRAMMAR SCHOOL-HOUSE.

The new Bowdoin School-house, completed in 1848, is situated on Myrtle street, and with the yard occupies an area of about 75 feet by 68 feet, bounded on each of the four sides by a street. It is built of brick with a basement story of hammered granite, and measures 75 feet 9 inches extreme length by 54 feet 6 inches extreme breadth—having three stories, the first and second being 13 feet, and the third, 15 feet high in the clear. The ground descends rapidly from Myrtle street, thereby securing a basement of 15 feet in the rear. One third of which is finished into entries, or occupied by three furnaces, coal bins, pumps, &c., and the remaining two thirds is open to the yard, thereby affording a covered play-ground for the pupils.

The third story is finished into one hall 72 feet long by 38 feet wide, with seats and desks for 180 pupils. On the south side of this hall there are two recitation rooms, each 16 feet by 12 feet, and a room for a library, &c. There are three rooms of the same size on the two floors below.

The second story is divided into two rooms by a partition wall, each of which is 35 feet by 38, and accommodates 90 pupils, and so connected by sliding doors that all the pupils of both schools can be brought under the eye and voice of the teacher.

The first story corresponds to the second, except there are no sliding doors in the partition, and no connection between the room except through the front entry. The two rooms on this floor have each seats and desks for 100 pupils.

Each story is thoroughly ventilated, and warmed by one of Chilson's Furnaces. In each furnace the air chambers, the apertures for conducting the cold air into them, and the flues for constructing the heated air into the rooms in each story, being all large, a great quantity of warm air is constantly rushing into the rooms, and the ventilating flues or ventiducts being so constructed and arranged that the air of the rooms will be frequently changed, and that a pure and healthy atmosphere will at all times be found in each of these rooms, provided the furnaces are properly and judiciously managed. On the top of the building there are two of Emerson's large ventilators, connected with the attic and ventilating flues, through which the impure air passes out into the atmosphere above.

To accommodate pupils who come to school with wet feet or clothes, there is an open fire in a grate in one of the recitation rooms.

Each room is furnished with Wales' American School Chair, and Ross's Desk, and both desk and chair are in material, form and style, as described on page 202 and 205.

This is a school for girls only, and consists of two departments, one of which is called the Grammar department, and the other the Writing department; the master of each department being independent of the other.

The number of assistant female teachers in each department of this school, when full, will be four, the teachers in each department being independent of the master and teacher in the other.

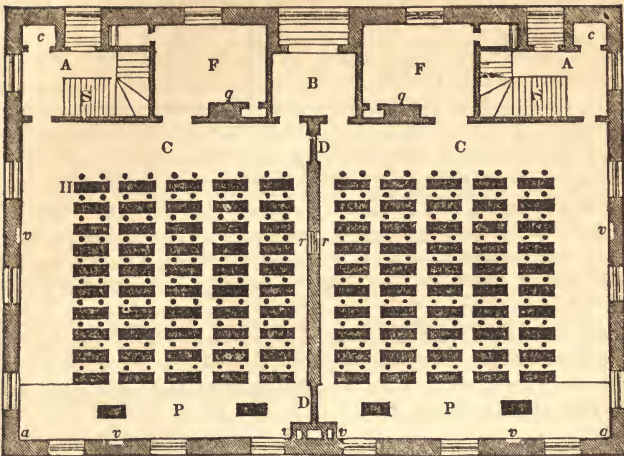
The master of the Grammar department and two of his assistants will occupy the large hall in the third story, and his other two assistants will occupy one of the rooms in the first story.

The master of the writing department and two of his assistants will occupy the rooms in the second story, and his other two assistants will occupy the other room in the first story, each master being the superintendence of his own department.

The school, when full, will be divided into five classes, and each class into two divisions, nearly equal in numbers. The first week after the vacation in August, the first division of each class will attend in the grammar department in the morning, and the second division of each class will attend in the writing department; and in the afternoon, the second division of each class will attend in the grammar department, and the first, in the writing department. The next week, this order of attendance is to be reversed, and this alteration is to continue through the year, the weeks of vacation not being counted.

This house and the Quincy Grammar School-house are built after designs by Mr. Bryant.

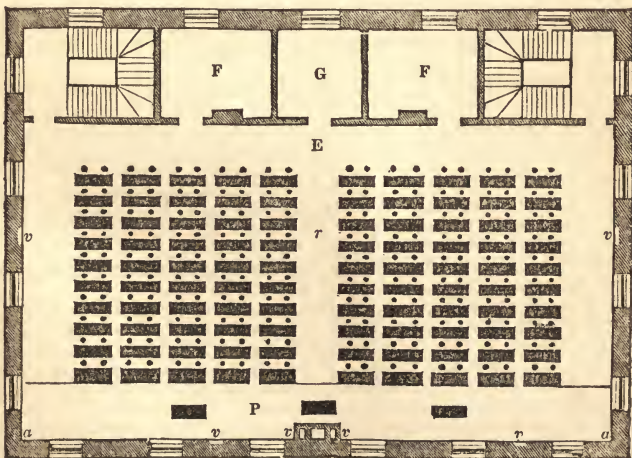
PLAN OF FIRST AND SECOND FLOOR.



- A, A, Entrance for Pupils.
- B, Ditto for Teacher.
- C, C, Study halls, each 35 by 38 feet ; with seats and desks for 100 pupils.
- D, Sliding door, by which the two rooms on the second floor are thrown into one.
- E, Study hall, 72 feet by 38.
- F, F, Two recitation rooms on each floor, 16 feet by 12.
- G, Room 10 feet by 12, for library, apparatus, &c.

- H, Ross' desk, and Wales' chair.
- P, Teacher's platform with desk for teacher and assistants.
- S, S, Staircase leading to second and third floors.
- a, Case with glass doors for apparatus.
- c, Closet for Teacher.
- g, Grate.
- r, Hot air register.
- v, Flues for ventilation.

PLAN OF THIRD FLOOR.



PLANS AND DESCRIPTION OF THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL-HOUSE,
HARTFORD, CONN.

The Public High School-House of Hartford was built after more than ordinary search for the best plan, (a committee having visited Boston, Lowell, Salem, Newburyport, Worcester, Providence, and Middletown, for this purpose,) under the constant oversight of a prudent, practical and intelligent building committee, and with due regard to a wise economy. The committee were limited in their expenditure for lot, building, and fixtures, to \$12,000; and when it was ascertained that a suitable building could not be constructed for that sum, individuals on the committee immediately contributed \$2,400 out of their own pockets to complete the house with the latest improvements. The committee have now the satisfaction of knowing that their contributions and personal oversight have been mainly instrumental in erecting and furnishing the most complete structure of the kind in New England, when the aggregate cost is taken into consideration.

The High School is designed for both males and females, and the arrangements of the buildings, and the grounds, are made with reference to the separation of the sexes, so far as this is desirable in the same school.

The lot on which the building stands is at the corner of Asylum and Ann streets, and is at once central, and large enough for the appropriate yards. The yards are separated by a close and substantial board fence, and the grounds are well laid out and properly inclosed; they will also soon be planted with trees and shrubbery. The building is of brick, three stories high, upon a firm stone basement. Its dimensions are 50 by 75 feet. The basement is 13 feet in the clear, six feet of which are above the level of the yard. This part of the building is occupied by furnaces, coal bins, sinks, pumps, entrance rooms, &c. At one end, and on two opposite sides of the building, a stair case eleven feet in width extends from each of the two entrance rooms, to the upper story, with spacious landings on the first and second floors. Two rooms, each 11 by 14 feet, are between the stair cases, the one on the first floor being used for a front entry to the building, and the one on the second floor being appropriated to the Library and Apparatus. Two closets, eleven by four feet on the first floor, and immediately beneath the stair cases, receive the outer garments, umbrellas, &c., of the teachers.

An aisle of four feet four inches in width extends between the desks and outer walls of the rooms, and between every two ranges of desks is an aisle of two feet four inches in width. An aisle of eight feet in width passes through the middle of the rooms, parallel to the narrower passages. A space of five feet in width is likewise reserved between the remote seats in the ranges and the partition wall of the rooms. Around the sides of the rooms, tastefully constructed settees are placed for occasional recitations, and for the accommodation of visitors, and in the upper room for the use of the pupils of the room below, during the opening and closing exercises of the school.

The pupils, when seated, face the teachers' desks and platforms, which occupy the space between the entrance doors of each room.

A blackboard, or black plaster surface, forty feet long, and five broad, extends between the doors leading to the recitation rooms, which are also lined with a continuous blackboard. There is also a blackboard extending the entire length of the teachers' platform in the lower room, and two of smaller dimensions in the room above, a part of the space being occupied by the folding doors leading to the library and apparatus room. Twenty chairs, of small dimensions and sixteen inches in height, are placed around each recitation room, thirteen inches apart and seven inches from the walls, and securely fastened to the floor. A clock, with a circular gilt frame and eighteen-inch dial plate, is

placed over the teachers' platform in each school room, in full view of the pupils. A small bell is also placed above the teachers' platform in the lower room, with a wire attached, passing to the desk of the Principal, in the room above, by which the time of recesses, change of recitation classes, &c., are signified to the members of the lower rooms.

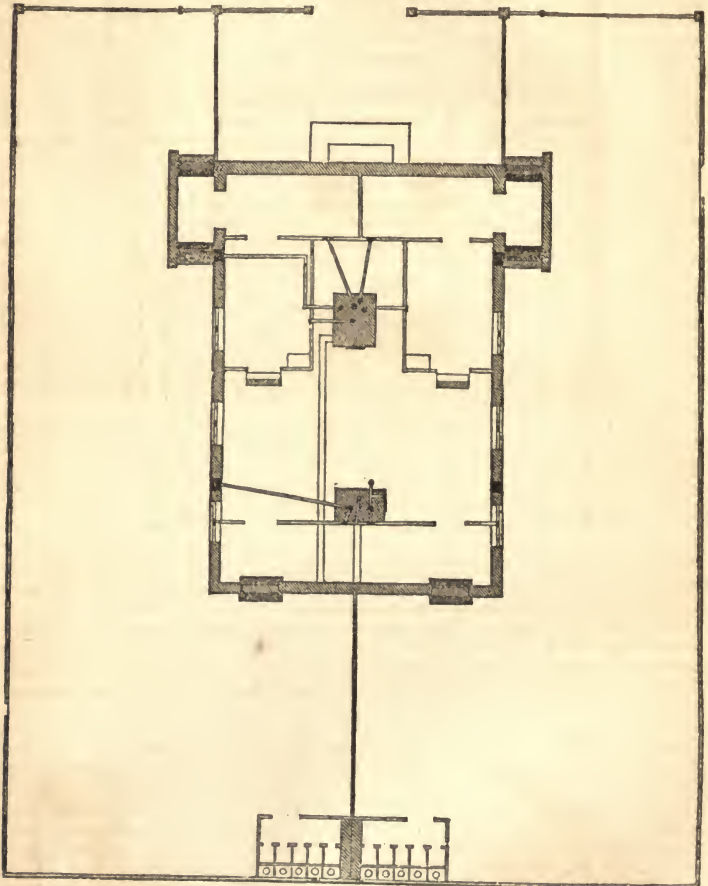
The school-rooms in the first and second stories are 50 feet square, and 13 feet in height—to each of which, two recitation rooms 12 by 23 feet are attached. The large rooms are furnished with "Kimball's improved School Chairs and Desks," placed in six ranges, extending back from the teachers' platforms, ten desks forming a range, and two chairs attached to each desk, furnishing accommodations in each room for 120 pupils—60 of either sex. Ample room yet remains in front of these ranges to increase the number of desks when the wants of the school demand them. The desks are four feet in length and one foot four inches in breadth, constructed of cherry, oiled and varnished. The moderately inclined tops are *fixed* to the end supporters, and the openings for books are in front of the pupils. Glass inkstands are inserted in the tops of the desks, and the ink protected from dust and the action of the atmosphere by mahogany covers turning on pivots. The chairs are constructed with seats of basswood, hollowed, and backs of cherry, moulded both to add beauty to the form of the chair, and to afford support and comfort to the occupants. All are neatly stained and varnished, and they, as well as the desks, rest on iron supporters, firmly screwed to the floor.

The entire upper story is converted into a hall, being twelve feet in height at the walls, rising thence in an arch to the height of seventeen feet. This is appropriated to reading, and declamation, and for the female department of the school, to daily recess, and calisthenic exercises. A moderately raised platform is located at one end, above which an extended blackboard is placed, and settees are ranged around the walls; these, properly arranged, together with the settees from the lower rooms, which are easily transported above, speedily convert the open *Hall* into a commodious Lecture room,—and also adapt it to the purposes of public examinations and exhibitions.

In each of the two entrance rooms are placed the means of cleanliness and comfort,—a pump of the most approved construction, an ample sink, two wash basins with towels, glass drinking tumblers, and a looking-glass. Ranges of hooks for hats, coats, bonnets, cloaks, &c., extend around the rooms, and are numbered to correspond with the number of pupils, of each sex, which the capacity of the house will accommodate. In the girls' room, pairs of small iron hooks are placed directly beneath the bonnet hooks, and twelve inches from the floor, for holding the over-shoes. In the boys' room, boot-jacks are provided to facilitate the exchange of boots for slippers when they enter the building—an important article, and of which no one in this department of the school is destitute. A thin plank, moderately inclined by hollowing the upper side, is placed upon the floor, and extends around the walls of the room, to receive the boots and convey the melted ice and snow from them, by a pipe, beneath the floor. A large umbrella stand is furnished in each of the two entrance rooms, also with pipes for conveying away the water. Stools are secured to the floors for convenience in exchanging boots, shoes, &c. Directly under the stairs is an OMNIUM GATHERUM—an appropriate vessel, in which are carefully deposited shreds of paper, and whatever comes under the denomination of *litter*, subject, of course, to frequent removal. These rooms, in common with the others, are carefully warmed. The wainscoting of the entrance rooms, and the stair case, is formed of narrow boards, grooved and tongued, placed perpendicularly, and crowned with a simple moulding. The railing of the stair case is of black walnut. A paneled wainscoting reaching from the floor to the base of the windows, extends around the walls of the remaining rooms. All the wood work, including the library and apparatus cases, is neatly painted, oak-grained, and varnished. The teachers' tables are made of cherry, eight feet in length, and two feet four inches in breadth, with three drawers in each, and are supported on eight legs. A movable writing desk of the same material is placed on each. Immediately in front of the teachers' desk in the upper room, a piano is to be placed, for use during the opening and closing exercises of the school, and for the use of the young ladies during the recesses. Venetian window blinds with rolling slats, are placed inside the windows, and being of a slight buff color, they modify the light without imparting a sombre hue to the room.

The ventilation of the school-rooms, or the rapid discharge of the air which has become impure by respiration, is most thoroughly secured in connection with a constant influx of pure warm air from the furnaces, by discharging ventiducts or flues, situated on each side of the building at the part of the rooms most distant from the registers of the furnaces. The ventiducts of each room are eighteen inches in diameter, and are carried from the floor entirely separate to the Stationary Top, or Ejector above the roof. The openings into the ventiducts, both at the top and bottom of the room, are two feet square, and are governed by a sliding door or blind.

Fig. 2—GROUND PLAN, YARD, BASEMENT, &c.



A—Front yard.
 B—Girls' yard.
 C—Boys' yard.
 D—Door.
 E—Boys' entrance rooms.
 G—Girls' entrance rooms.
 F—Furnace.
 S—Stairs.
 W—Windows.
 P—Privies, with screen, doors, &c.
 X—Gates.

a—Cold air ducts.
 b—Warm air ducts.
 c—Foul air ducts or ventilating flues.
 d—Smoke pipe.
 e—Pump, sink.
 f—Umbrella stand.
 g—Hollowed plank to receive wet boots, overshoes, &c.
 o—Bins for hard coal, charcoal, &c.
 j—Close board fence.

Figs. 5 and 6. PLANS EXHIBITING MODE OF VENTILATION.

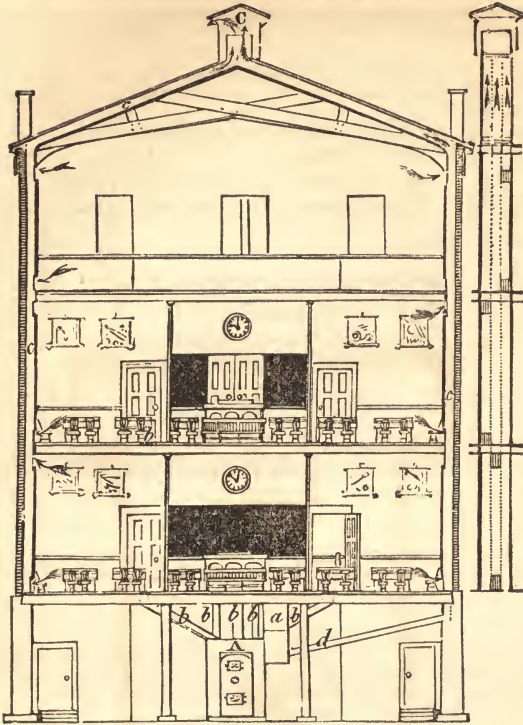
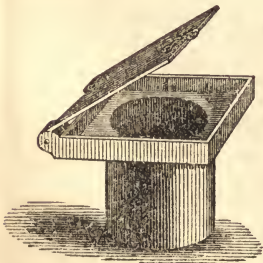


Fig. 5. Transverse section exhibiting the manner in which the ventiducts or hot air flues are carried up on the inside of the walls, under the roof, till they discharge into the Stationary Top or Ejector.

Fig. 6. Lateral section of the ventiducts or foul air flues, showing the manner in which the flues are packed together and carried up separately from the floor of each room until they discharge into the common Ejector. The cut does not represent properly the manner in which the flues are carried under and out of the roof.

Fig. 3.

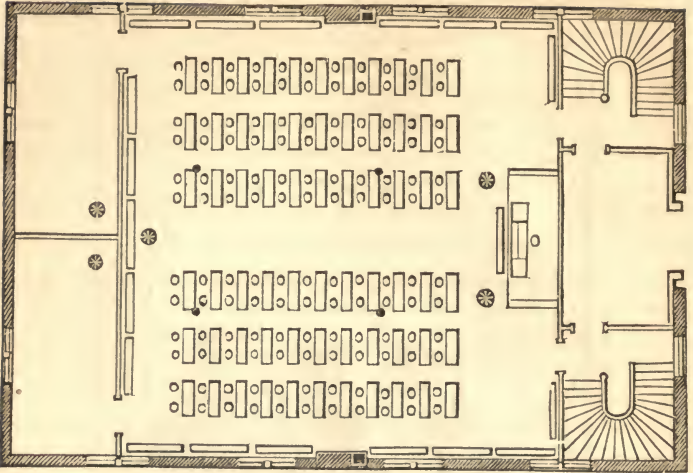


Each desk is fitted up with a glass ink-well (Fig. 2,) set firmly into the desk, and covered with a lid. The ink-well may be set into a cast iron box (Fig. 3.) having a cover; the box being let in and screwed to the desk, and the ink-well being removable for convenience in filling, cleaning, and emptying in cold weather.

Fig. 2.



Fig. 3—PLAN OF FIRST FLOOR.



- A—Front entrance.
- B—Girls' entrance.
- C—Boys' entrance.
- I—Centre aisle, eight feet.
- L—Aisle between each range of seats and desks, two feet four inches.
- K—Side aisle, four feet four inches.
- M—Space five feet wide.
- T—Teachers' platform and desk.
- R—Recitation rooms, each twenty-three feet by twelve, furnished with twenty chairs, seven inches from the wall and thirteen inches apart.
- S—Library and apparatus, from eleven feet by fourteen feet.
- N—Kimball's desk and two chairs.
- O—Piano.
- r—Hot air registers.
- c—Ventilating flue or foul air duct.

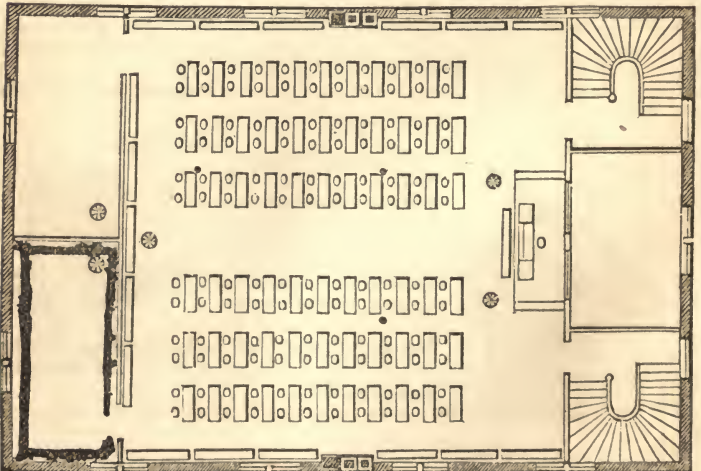


Fig. 4—PLAN OF SECOND FLOOR.

PLANS AND DESCRIPTION OF THE PUTNAM FREE SCHOOL-HOUSE,
NEWBURYPORT, MASS.

We are indebted to W. H. Wells, Esq., the gentleman who has been selected as Principal of the Putnam Free School, and to whom the work of organizing this important institution has been committed, for the following plans and description.

The Putnam Free School was founded by Mr. Oliver Putnam, a native of Newbury. It has a permanent fund of fifty thousand dollars, besides the amount invested in the school-house and its appurtenances.

The number of pupils to be admitted at the opening of the school (April, 1848,) is limited by the Trustees to 80. No pupil can be received under twelve years of age, nor for less time than one year.

The object of the Institution is to lead pupils through an extended course of English study. It is open to students from any portion of the country, who are prepared to meet the requirements for admission. No charge is made for tuition.

This building is situated on High street, directly opposite the Common or Mall. It is constructed of brick, with corners, door-sills, underpinning, steps, etc., of freestone. It is two stories in height, exclusive of a basement story, 85½ feet in length, and 52½ in breadth.

The upper story is divided into two principal school-rooms, each 49½ feet by 40½. There is also a small room in this story for the use of the Principal. The lower story contains a hall for lectures and other general exercises, and four recitation rooms. The hall is 44 feet by 48½. Two of the recitation rooms are 14 feet by 17, and two are 11 by 20.

Each of the principal school-rooms is furnished with 64 single seats and desks, besides recitation chairs, settees, etc. The desks are made of cherry; and both the desks and the chairs are supported by iron castings, screwed firmly to the floor. In form and construction, they are similar to Kimball's "Improved School Chairs and Desks."

The central aisles are two feet and eight inches in width; the side aisles, four feet and four inches; and the remaining aisles, two feet.

The building is warmed by two furnaces. It is ventilated by six flues from the hall on the lower floor, six from each of the school-rooms on the second floor, and one from each of the recitation rooms. Each of these flues has two registers; one near the floor, and the other near the ceiling. The two principal school-rooms are furnished with double windows.

The institution is provided with ample play-grounds and garden plots, back of the building and at the ends. It has also a bell weighing 340 lbs.

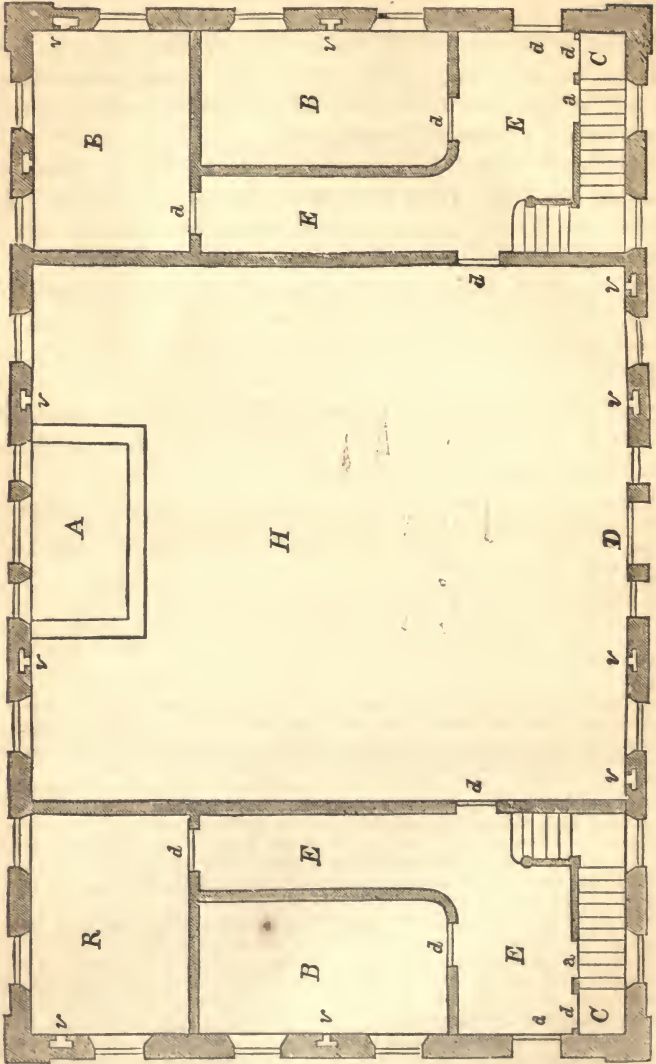
The first appropriation of the Trustees for the purchase of apparatus, is one thousand dollars. Other appropriations will probably be made, as the wants of the school may require. In addition to the apparatus procured by the Trustees, the institution is to have the use of an achromatic telescope, which will cost between three and four hundred dollars.

The cost of the building and ground, with the various appurtenances, exclusive of apparatus, has amounted to twenty-six thousand dollars.

The accompanying plans give a correct representation of the arrangements on the two principal floors.

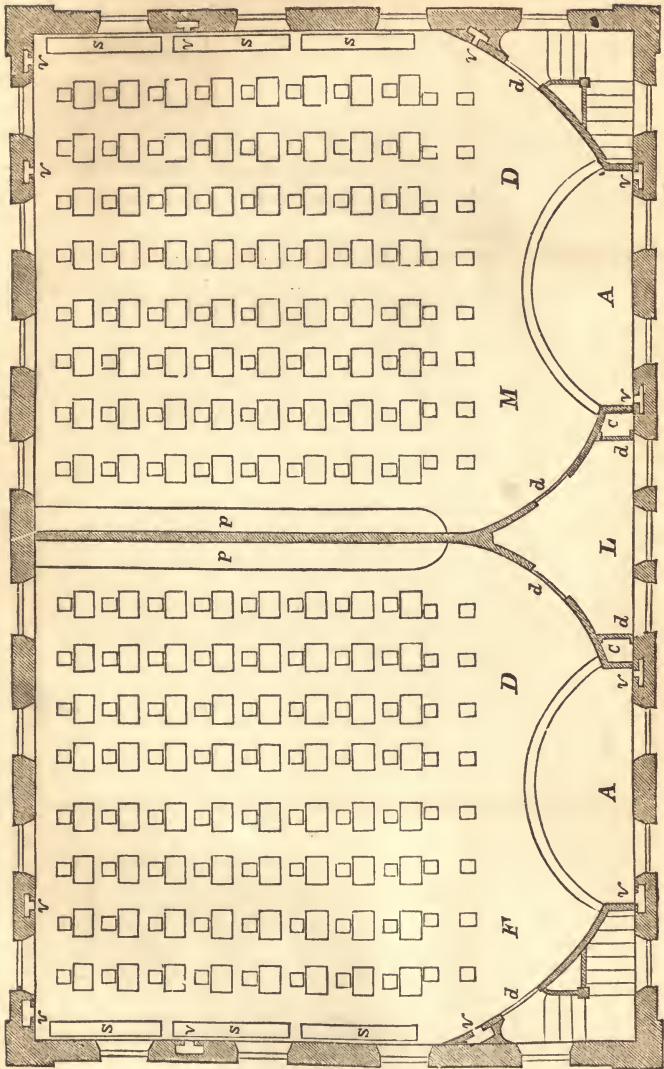
The building was erected after designs and specifications by Mr. Bryant, Architect, Boston.

PUTNAM FREE SCHOOL-HOUSE.—LOWER STORY.



H—Hall for lectures and other general exercises, 44 feet by 48½. A—Raised platform for desk. D—Front door. (The portico in front does not appear in the plate.) B, B—Recitation rooms, 11 feet by 20. R, R—Recitation rooms, 14 feet by 17. E, E, E, E—Entries. C, C—Wash closets, under the stairs. a, a—Doors leading to the basement story. d, d, d, d, d, d, d, d, d—Doors. v, v, v, v, v, v, v, v, v, v.—Ventilating flues.

PUTNAM FREE SCHOOL-HOUSE.—UPPER STORY.



M, D—Room for Male Department. F, D—Room for Female Department. A, A—Raised platforms for teachers' desks. L—Principal's room. C, C—Closets. p, p—Raised platforms under the black-boards. s, s, s, s, s, s—Seats. d, d, d, d, d, d—Doors. v, v, v, v, v, v, v, v, v, v, v, v—Ventilating flues.



PLANS AND DESCRIPTION OF THE ACADEMY BUILDING, ROME, N. Y.

We are indebted to Edward Huntington, Esq., for the following plans and description of the new Academy building recently erected in Rome, N. Y., under his supervision. The building is 70 feet by 44 feet on the ground.

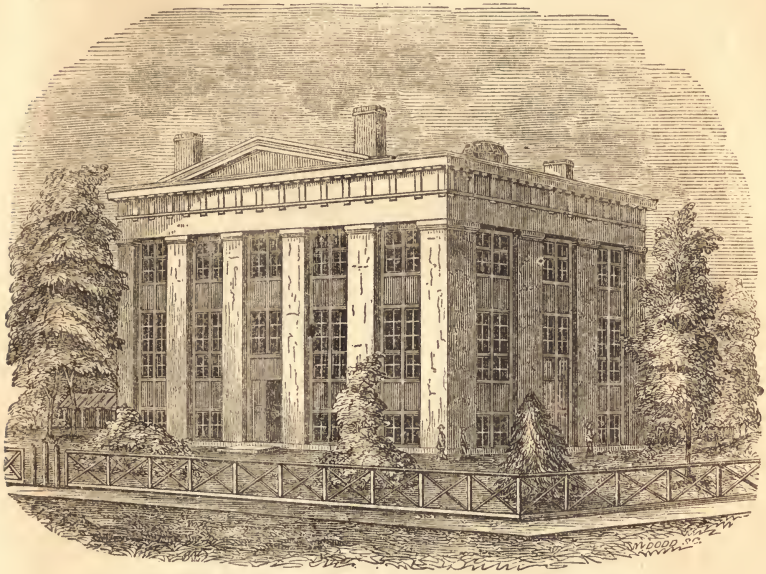
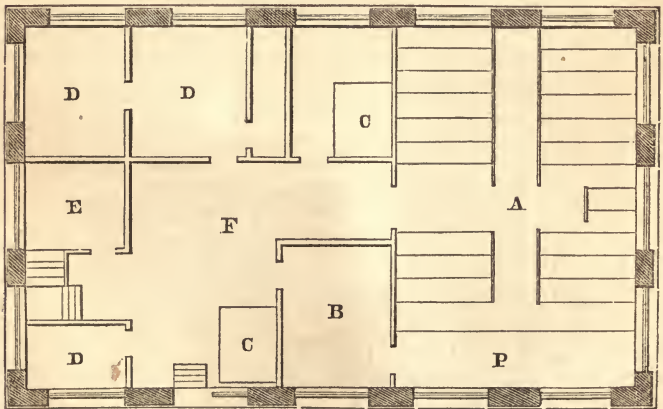


FIG. 2. BASEMENT.



A—Lecture-room and Chapel. B—Laboratory. C, C—Furnaces.
D, D, D—Janitor's rooms. E—Entry. F—Hall.

The building was erected in 1848, on a lot 198 by 170 feet, on the corner of Court and James streets, fronting the public square, and is of brick, 70 by 44 feet on the ground. The basement wall, up to the water table, is of stone, laid in hydraulic cement. The roof is covered with tin, laid in white lead.

The basement, 10 feet high in the clear, contains a lecture-room (which serves also as a chapel,) 26½ by 40 feet, with comfortable seats to accommodate conveniently 200 pupils. The floor descends 2 feet from the rear of the room to the platform, giving 12 feet height immediately in front of it. A laboratory, 12 by 15½ feet, adjoins the lecture-room, with which it communicates by a door at the end of a platform. The remainder of the basement floor is occupied by the furnaces for warming the building, and by the rooms of the Janitor.

The FIRST FLOOR is occupied by the male department, and consists of a school-room about 30 by 54 feet, and nearly 15 feet in clear height, with two recitation-rooms, entries, &c. There are 62 desks, each four feet long and accommodating two pupils.

On the SECOND FLOOR are the girls' school-room, about 28 by 40 feet, with seats for 76 pupils, 2 recitation-rooms, library, hall, and room occupied by Primary department. There is a large skylight in the centre of the girls' school-room, and another in the library. The rooms are 15 feet in height.

The building is thoroughly and uniformly warmed by two furnaces in the basement, and a change of air is secured by ventilators at the top of the rooms, and also near the floor, opening into flues which are carried up in the chimneys. The warmth imparted by the smoke which passes up in the adjoining flues secures a good draft. In the upper story additional means of ventilation are furnished by the skylights, which can be partially opened.

The desks are of varnished cherry, similar in form to Ross's school desk.

FIG. 5.

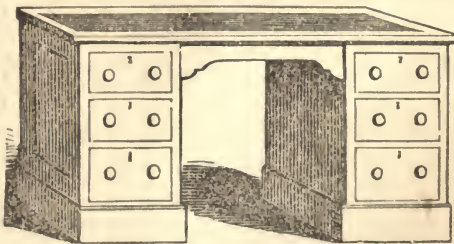


The supports are of wood, however, instead of cast-iron, and the seats are easy Windsor chairs. Both seats and desks are firmly secured to the floor by small iron knees and screws.

The school and recitation rooms are all furnished with large slates set in the wall, in the room of blackboards.

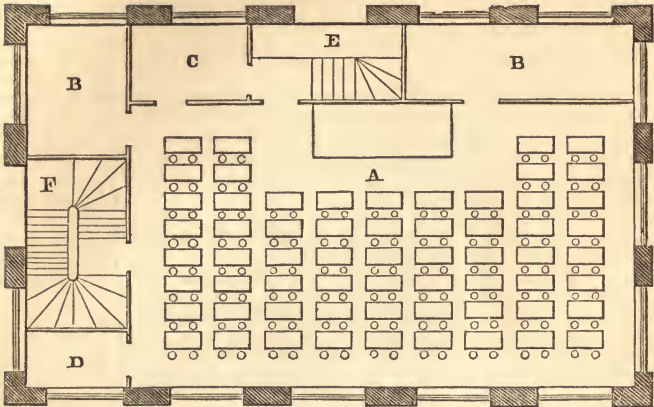
The teachers' desks in the school-rooms are similar to Fig. 6.

FIG. 6.



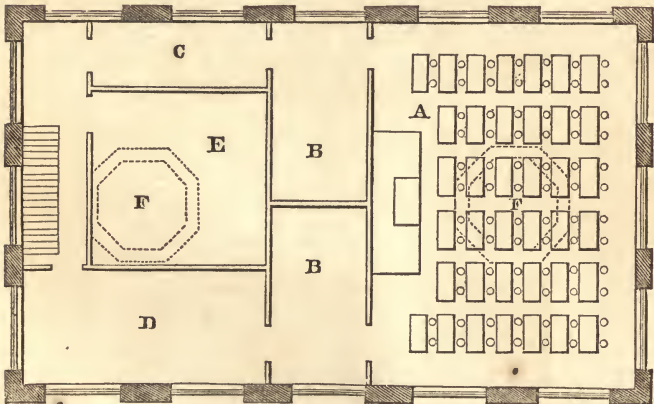
The whole cost of the building, including furnaces, scholars' desks and chairs, slates and inkstands, was about 6,000 dollars.

FIG. 3. PLAN OF FIRST FLOOR.



A—Boys' School-room, with 124 seats.	D—Closet for Apparatus.
B, B—Recitation-rooms.	E—Entrance for Boys.
C—Dressing-room.	F—Entrance for Girls.

FIG. 4. PLAN OF SECOND FLOOR.



A—Girls' School-room, with 76 seats.	D—Primary Department.
B, B—Recitation-rooms.	E—Library, lighted by skylight.
C—Dressing-room.	F—Skylight in ceiling.



W. H. WOOD SC.

KNELLER HALL TRAINING SCHOOL, ENGLAND.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL.

In the preceding pages we have presented a variety of plans for the construction and internal arrangements of buildings designed and erected for Public High Schools. Whenever and wherever the interest of the community can be sufficiently awakened to call for a public school of the grade generally understood by the term High School, there will be no difficulty in raising the funds necessary to erect and furnish a suitable edifice for the accommodation of the school. It may not, then, be amiss in this place to present a few considerations and facts bearing upon the establishment of a school of this grade in every large village and city in our country.

By a Public or Common High School, is intended a public or common school for the older and more advanced scholars of the community in which the same is located, in a course of instruction adapted to their age, and intellectual and moral wants, and, to some extent, to their future pursuits in life. It is common or public in the same sense in which the district school, or any lower grade of school established and supported under a general law and for the public benefit, is common or public. It is open to all the children of the community to which the school belongs, under such regulations as to age, attainments, &c., as the good of the institution may require, or the community may adopt. A Public High School is not necessarily a free school. It may be supported by a fund, a public tax, or an assessment or rate of tuition per scholar, or by a combination of all, or any two of these modes. Much less is it a public or common school in the sense of being cheap, inferior, ordinary. To be truly a public school, a High School must embrace in its course of instruction studies which can be more profitably pursued there than in public schools of a lower grade, or which gather their pupils from a more circumscribed territory, and as profitably as in any private school of the same pretensions. It must make a good education common in the highest and best sense of the word common—common because it is good enough for the best, and cheap enough for the poorest family in the community. It would be a mockery of the idea of such a school, to call it a Public High School, if the course of instruction pursued in it is not higher and better than can be got in public schools of a lower grade, or if it does not meet the wants of the wealthiest and best educated families, or, if the course of instruction is liberal and thorough, and at the same time the worthy and talented child of a poor family is shut out from its privileges by a high rate of tuition. The school, to be common practically, must be both cheap and good. To be cheap, its support must be provided for wholly or mainly out of a fund, or by public tax. And to justify the imposition of a public tax, the advantages of such a school must accrue to the whole community. It must be shown to be a common benefit, a common interest, which cannot be secured so well, or at

all, except through the medium of taxation. What, then, are the advantages which may reasonably be anticipated from the establishment of a Public High School, properly organized, instructed, and supervised?

First. Every thing which is now done in the several district schools, and schools of lower grade, can be better done, and in a shorter time, because the teachers will be relieved from the necessity of devoting the time and attention now required by few of the older and more advanced pupils, and can bestow all their time and attention upon the preparatory studies and younger children. These studies will be taught in methods suited to the age and attainments of the pupils. A right beginning can thus be made in the lower schools, in giving a thorough practical knowledge of elementary principles, and in the formation of correct mental and moral habits, which are indispensable to all sound education. All this will be done under the additional stimulus of being early and thoroughly fitted for the High School.

Second. A High School will give completeness to the system of public instruction which may be in operation. It will make suitable provision for the older and more advanced pupils of both sexes, and will admit of the methods of instruction and discipline which cannot be profitably introduced into the schools below. The lower grade of schools—those which are established for young children,—require a large use of oral and simultaneous methods, and a frequent change of place and position on the part of the pupils. The higher branches, especially all mathematical subjects, require patient application and habits of abstraction on the part of the older pupils, which can with difficulty, if at all, be attained by many pupils amid a multiplicity of distracting exercises, movements, and sounds. The recitations of this class of pupils, to be profitable and satisfactory, must be conducted in a manner which requires time, discussion, and explanation, and the undivided attention both of pupils and teacher. The course of instruction provided in the High School will be equal in extent and value to that which may be given in any private school, academy, or female seminary in the place, and which is now virtually denied to the great mass of the children by the burdensome charge of tuition.

As has been already implied, the advantages of a High School should not be confined to the male sex. The great influence of the female sex, as daughters, sisters, wives, mothers, companions, and teachers, in determining the manners, morals, and intelligence of the whole community, leaves no room to question the necessity of providing for the girls the best means of intellectual and moral culture. The course of instruction should embrace the first principles of natural and mechanical philosophy, by which inventive genius and practical skill in the useful arts can be fostered; such studies as navigation, book-keeping, surveying, botany, chemistry, and kindred studies, which are directly connected with success in the varied departments of domestic and inland trade, with foreign commerce, with gardening, agriculture, the manufacturing and domestic arts;

such studies as astronomy, physiology, the history of our own state and nation, the principles of our state and national constitutions, political economy, and moral science; in fine, such a course of study as is now given in more than fifty towns and cities in New England, and which shall prepare every young man, whose parents may desire it, for business, or for college, and give to every young woman a well disciplined mind, high moral aims, refined tastes, gentle and graceful manners, practical views of her own duties, and those resources of health, thought, conversation, and occupation, which bless alike the highest and lowest station in life. When such a course is provided and carried out, the true idea of the High School will be realized.

Third. It will equalize the opportunities of a good education, and exert a happy, social influence throughout the whole community from which it gathers its scholars. From the want of a public school of this character, the children of such families as rely exclusively on the district school are isolated, and are condemned to an inferior education, both in quality and quantity; they are cut off from the stimulus and sympathy which the mingling of children of the same age from different parts of the same community would impart. The benefits, direct and indirect, which will result to the country districts, or poor families who live in the outskirts of the city, from the establishment of a school of this class, cannot easily be overestimated. The number of young men and young women who will receive a thorough education, qualifying them for business, and to be teachers, will increase from year to year; and the number who will press up to the front ranks of scholarship in the school, bearing away the palm of excellence by the vigor of sound minds in sound bodies, of minds and bodies made vigorous by long walks and muscular labor in the open air, will be greater in proportion to their number than from the city districts. It will do both classes good, the children of the city, and the children of the country districts, to measure themselves intellectually in the same fields of study, and to subject the peculiarities of their respective manners, the roughness and awkwardness sometimes characteristic of the one, and the artificiality and flippancy of the other, to the harmonizing influence of reciprocal action and reaction. The isolation and estrangement which now divide and subdivide the community into country and city clans, which, if not hostile, are strangers to each other, will give place to the frequent intercourse and esteem of individual and family friendship, commenced in the school-room, and on the play-ground of the school. The school will thus become a bond of union, a channel of sympathy, a spring-head of healthy influence, and stimulus to the whole community.

Fourth. The privileges of a good school will be brought within the reach of all classes of the community, and will actually be enjoyed by children of the same age from families of the most diverse circumstances as to wealth, education, and occupation. Side by side in the same recitations, heart and hand in the same sports, pressing up together to the same high attainments in knowledge and character, will be found the children of the rich and poor, the more and the

less favored in outward circumstances, without knowing or caring to know how far their families are separated by the arbitrary distinctions which divide and distract society. With nearly equal opportunities of education in childhood and youth, the prizes of life, its best fields of usefulness, and sources of happiness will be open to all, whatever may have been their accidents of birth and fortune. From many obscure and humble homes in the city and in the country, will be called forth and trained inventive talent, productive skill, intellectual taste, and God-like benevolence, which will add to the general wealth, multiply workshops, increase the value of farms, and carry forward every moral and religious enterprise which aims to bless, purify, and elevate society.

Fifth. The influence of the annual or semi-annual examination of candidates for admission into the High School, will operate as a powerful and abiding stimulus to exertion throughout all the lower schools. The privileges of the High School will be held forth as the reward of exertion in the lower grade of schools; and promotion to it, based on the result of an impartial examination, will form an unobjectional standard by which the relative standing of the different schools can be ascertained, and will also indicate the studies and departments of education to which the teachers in particular schools should devote special attention. This influence upon the lower schools, upon scholars and teachers, upon those who reach, and those who do not reach the High School, will be worth more than all its costs, independent of the advantages received by its pupils.

Sixth. While the expenses of public or common schools will necessarily be increased by the establishment of a school of this class, in addition to those already supported, the aggregate expenditures for education, including public and private schools, will be diminished. Private schools of the same relative standing will be discontinued for want of patronage, while those of a higher grade, if really called for by the educational wants of the community, will be improved. A healthy competition will necessarily exist between the public and private schools of the highest grade, and the school or schools which do not come up to the highest mark, must go down in public estimation. Other things being equal, viz., school-houses, teachers, classification, and the means and appliances of instruction, the public school is always better than the private. From the uniform experience of those places where a High School has been established, it may be safely stated, that there will be an annual saving in the expenses of education to any community, equal to one half the amount paid for tuition in private schools, and, with this saving of expense, there will be a better state of education.

Seventh. The successful establishment of a High School, by improving the whole system of common schools, and interesting a larger number of families in the prosperity of the schools, will create a better public sentiment on the subject than has heretofore existed, and the schools will be regarded as the common property, the common glory, the common security of the whole community. The wealthy will feel that the small additional tax required to establish

and sustain this school, if not saved to them in the diminished tuition for the education of their own children in private schools, at home and abroad, is returned to them a hundred fold in the enterprise which it will quicken, in the increased value given to property, and in the number of families which will resort to the place where it is located, as a desirable residence, because of the facilities enjoyed for a good education. The poor will feel that, whatever may betide them, their children are born to an inheritance more valuable than lands or shops, in the free access to institutions where as good an education can be had as money can buy at home or abroad. The stranger will be invited to visit not only the institutions which public or individual benevolence has provided for the poor, the orphan, the deaf mute, and the criminal, but schools where the children and youth of the community are trained to inventive and creative habits of mind, to a practical knowledge of the fundamental principles of business, to sound moral habits, refined tastes, and respectful manners. And in what balance, it has well been asked in reference to the cost of good public schools, as compared with these advantages, shall we weigh the value of cultivated, intelligent, energetic, polished, and virtuous citizens? How much would a community be justified in paying for a physician who should discover or practice some mode of treatment through which many lives should be preserved? How much for a judge, who, in the able administration of the laws, should secure many fortunes, or rights more precious than fortunes, that might else be lost? How much for a minister of religion who should be the instrument of saving hundreds from vice and crime, and persuading them to the exertion of their best powers for the common good? How much for the ingenious inventor, who, proceeding from the first principles of science onward, should produce some improvement that should enlarge all the comforts of society, not to say a steam-engine or a magnetic telegraph? How much for the patriotic statesman, who, in difficult times, becomes the savior of his country? How much for the well-instructed and enterprising merchant who should suggest and commence the branches of business that should bring in a vast accession of wealth and strength? One such person as any of these might repay what a High School would cost for centuries. Whether, in the course of centuries, every High School would produce one such person, it would be useless to prophesy. But it is certain that it would produce many intelligent citizens, intelligent men of business, intelligent servants of the state, intelligent teachers, intelligent wives and daughters, who, in their several spheres, would repay to any community much more than they and all their associates had received. The very taxes of a town, in twenty years, will be lessened by the existence of a school which will continually have sent forth those who were so educated as to become not burdens but benefactors.

These results have been realized wherever a Public High School has been opened under circumstances favorable to the success of a private school of the same grade,—wherever a good school-house, good regulations, (for admission, attendance, studies, and books,) good teachers, and good supervision have been provided.

The Principal of the Latin High School of Boston, in a letter written 1846, says,—

“There is no institution so truly republican as such a school as this. While we, the present teachers, were undergraduates of the school, the rich sent their sons to the school because it was the best that could be found. They ascertained that it was not a source of contamination, but that their boys learned here to compare themselves with others, and to feel the necessity of something more than mere *wealth* to gain consideration. At that time, poor men sent their sons hither because they knew that they here would get that education which they could afford to give them in no other way. They gained too by intercourse with their wealthier mates a polish of exterior manners, and an intellectual turn of mind which their friends could appreciate and perceive, although they could not tell what it was that had been acquired. Oftentimes also the poor boy would take the lead of his more pampered classmate, and take the honors of the school.

In a class lately belonging to the school were two boys, one the son of a man of extreme wealth, whose property cannot be less than \$500,000; and the other the son of an Irish laborer employed by the city at a dollar a day to sweep the streets. The latter boy was the better scholar.”

The Principal of the English High School in a letter writes,—

“The school under my charge is principally composed of what are called the middling classes of our city. At present, about one third of my pupils are sons of merchants; the remaining two thirds are sons of professional men, mechanics and others. Some of our best scholars are sons of coopers, lamplighters, and day laborers. A few years ago, he who ranked, the last year of his course, as our third scholar, was the son of a lamplighter, and worked three nights per week, during his whole course, to save his father the expense of books, &c., while at school. This year my second (if not the first,) scholar, is a cooper's son. We have several sons of clergymen of distinction and lawyers of eminence. Indeed, the school is a perfect example of the poor and the rich, meeting on common ground and on terms quite democratic.

The Principal of the High School for girls in Newburyport, writes,

“The Female High School was established by the town of Newburyport nearly three years since, under great opposition. It was the desire of its principal advocates to make it such a school, in respect to the course of instruction, and facilities for acquiring knowledge, and laying the foundation for usefulness, as should so successfully compete with our best private schools, as to supersede their necessity.”

“A few days after we were organized, a gentleman came into the school-room to make some inquiries respecting the classes of society most fully represented amongst us. I was totally unable to give him the desired information, and judging from the appearance of the individuals of my charge, I could form no idea as to who were the children of poor parents, or of those in better circumstances. I mentioned the names of the parents of several, which I had just taken, and, amongst others, of two young ladies of seventeen or eighteen years of age, who, at that moment, it being recess, were walking down the room, with their arms closely entwined about each other's necks. ‘The first of the two,’ said the gentleman, ‘is a daughter of one of our first merchants, the other has a father worse than none, who obtains a livelihood from one of the lowest and most questionable occupations, and is himself most degraded.’ These two young ladies were classmates for more than two years, and very nearly equal in scholarship. The friendship they have formed, I am confident no circumstances of station in life can ever impair.

“We have had in our number many from the best families, in all respects, in the place. They sit side by side, they recite, and they associate most freely with those of the humblest parentage, whose widowed mothers, perhaps, toil day after day, at a wash-tub, without fear of contamination, or, as I honestly believe, a thought of the differences which exist. I have, at present, both extremes under my charge—the child of affluence and the child of low parentage and deep poverty. As my arrangements of pupils in divisions, &c. are, most of them, alphabetical, it often happens that the two extremes are brought together. This never causes a murmur, or look of dislike.

A member of the School Committee of Worcester, Mass., writes :

"Our High School is exceedingly popular with all classes, and in the school-rooms and on the play-grounds, the children of the richest and poorest mingle with perfect equality. No assumption,—no jealousy are seen among them. I have been charmed with this republican and Christian character of the school. I have seen the children of parents whose wealth was estimated by hundreds of thousands, in the same school-room with children (and those last among the best scholars of their class) whose parents have been assisted year after year by individual charity. The manners, habits, and moral sentiments of this school are as pure and high as in any academy, or female seminary of the same grade in the commonwealth.

"To the improvements of our public schools, which has been going steadily forward since 1825, does this town owe more of its prosperity, its large accession of families from abroad, especially of industrious and skillful mechanics, than to all other causes combined. As a mere investment of capital, men of wealth everywhere cannot do better with a portion of their property than to build elegant and attractive school-houses, and open in them free schools of the highest order of instruction. They will then see gathering around them men, it may be, of small means, but of practical skill, and moral and industrious habits; that class of families who feel that one of the great ends of life is to educate their children well."

A correspondent from Brattleboro', Vt., writes :

"In the same school-room, seated side by side, according to age and attainments, are eighty children, representing all classes and conditions in society. The lad or miss, whose father pays a school tax of thirty-five dollars, by the side of another whose expense of instruction is five cents *per annum*. They play cordially and happily on the same grounds, and pursue the same studies—the former frequently incited by the native superiority and practical good sense of the latter. While the contact corrects the factitious gentility and false ideas of superiority in the one, it encourages cleanliness and good breeding in the other."

The history of the High School in Providence is the history of almost every similar institution.

"The High School was the only feature of our system which encountered much opposition. When first proposed, its bearings on the schools below, and in various ways on the cause of education in the city, was not clearly seen. It was opposed because it was "aristocratic," "because it was unconstitutional to tax property for a city college," "because it would educate children above working for their support," "because a poor boy or girl would never be seen in it"—and for all such contradictory reasons. Before it became a part of the system, the question of its adoption, or rejection, was submitted directly to the people, who passed in its favor by a vote of two thirds of all the legal voters of the city. Even after this expression of popular vote in its favor, and after the building for its accommodation was erected, there was a considerable minority who circulated a petition to the City Council against its going into operation. But the school was opened, and now it would be as easy to strike out the whole or any other feature of the system as this. Its influence in giving stimulus and steadiness to the workings of the lower grade of schools,—in giving thoroughness and expansion to the whole course of instruction,—in assisting to train teachers for our city and country schools,—and in bringing together the older and more advanced pupils, of either sex, from families of every profession, occupation and location in the city, many of whom, but for the opportunities of this school, would enter on the business and duties of life with an imperfect education—has demonstrated its own usefulness as a part of the system, and has converted its opponents into friends."

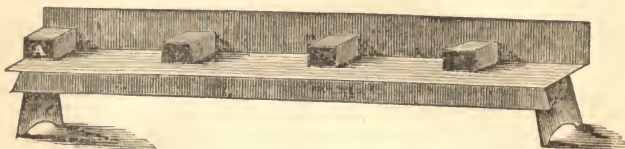
Testimony of the same character might be adduced from Philadelphia, Lowell, New Orleans, and every place where a school of this grade has been established.

SCHOOL FURNITURE.

Much attention has been devoted recently to the improvement of school furniture of every kind, with a view of securing convenience, comfort, durability and economy. In addition to the varieties already described and illustrated, we present the following to aid committees and builders in this important department of school architecture.

PRIMARY SCHOOL BENCH.

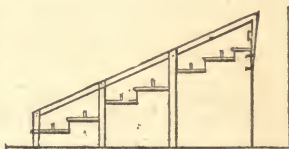
A movable bench for more than two pupils is an objectionable article of school furniture; but if introduced at all,



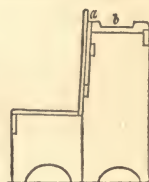
the above cut represents a style of this article which combines economy and convenience. The back is inclined slightly from a perpendicular, and the seat is hollowed. The scholars are separated by a compartment, or box, A, which serves as a rest for the arm, and a place of deposit for books.

GALLERY AND SAND DESK FOR PRIMARY AND INFANT SCHOOLS.

For very small children a *Gallery* consisting of a succession of seats rising above each other, varying in height from seven to nine inches, and provided with a support for the back. This arrangement, in large schools, affords great facility for instruction in music and all simultaneous exercises.



The *Sand Desk* having a trench (b) painted black, to contain a thin layer of sand, in which to trace letters and rude attempts at imitating forms, was originally much resorted to with the young classes, in schools educated on the Lancasterian or Mutual system. This style of desk is still used in the primary schools of the New York Public School Society, but very much improved by Mott's *Cast Iron Scroll Stanchions* and *Revolving Pivot Chair*. Every scholar is furnished with a slate, which is deposited in the opening (a) in the top of the desk.



THE BOSTON PRIMARY SCHOOL CHAIR.

These chairs were got up by the late Joseph W. Ingraham, for many years chairman, and one of the most indefatigable members, of the Primary School Committee of Boston, and are now in very general use in the Primary Schools of Boston, and of that vicinity.



The first pattern is a Chair with a *Shelf* (*s*) under the seat, for the purpose of holding the Books, Slates, &c., of the scholars.

The second pattern differs from the first, in having, instead of the *Shelf*, a *Rack* (*A*) on the back of the chair, for the same use as the shelf in the preceding pattern. The third pattern is similar to the second, except that the *Rack* (*A*) is placed at *the side* instead of *the back*, of the chair. The latter pattern (with the *Rack* on the side) is that now adopted in the Boston Schools.

Other specimens of Chairs for Primary Schools will be found on pages 134, 135, and 139.

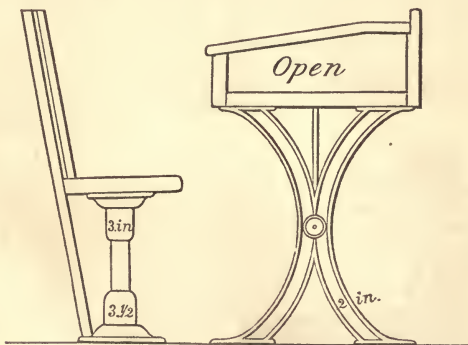
RANGE OF DESKS AND SEATS.

The following cut represents a range of new desks and seats, like that represented in school-room on page 53. The lowest seat (*d*) is nine inches



high, and the chair to the leaf-desk, (*c*), is $17\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the floor. The front edge of the lowest desk, is $19\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and that of the highest desk, is $28\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the floor. Each range of desk is divided by a partition of matched boards extending from the floor to three or four inches above the surface of the desk. This partition, to which the desks and seats, (if chairs are not used,) are attached, gives great firmness to each desk and seat, and at the same time effectually separates each scholar, as much as a single seat and desk, with greater economy of room. The desks in other respects are made like those described on page 47.

BOSTON LATIN HIGH SCHOOL DESK.



The above cut represents an end view of a new style of desk used in the Latin High School, in Bedford street, Boston, with a section of *Wales' Patent School Chair*. The standards of the desks are made of cast iron, and are braced in such a manner, that when properly secured to the floor, there is not the least motion. The curves in the standard facilitate the use of the broom in sweeping.

MOTT'S SCHOOL CHAIR AND DESK.

The following minute description of Mott's Patent Revolving Pivot Chair, and cast iron Scroll Stanchions for School Desks, is gathered from a circular of the patentee :

The seat of the chair is of wood : all the other parts, of cast iron. The desk stanchions are adjusted to the height of the chair—in the following scale, viz :

No. of the Chair.	Height of Chair Seat.	Height of front edge of Desk.	Width of Desk.	Length of Desk room for each scholar; (not less.)	Distance between the rows of Desks.
1	10 Inches.	17 Inches.	12 Inches.	17 Inches.	20 Inches.
2	12 "	19 "	12 "	18 "	22 "
3	14 "	22 "	14 "	20 "	24 "
4	16 "	24 "	15 "	22 "	25 "

The *first column* denotes the *number* of the chair, as also the number of the desk stanchions.

Second column, the height of the seat from the floor.

Third column, the height of the front edge of the desk from the floor.

Fourth column, the width of the top of the desk. The slope of the desk should rise $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch to the foot; the larger desks having $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 inches level on top to accommodate inkstands.

Fifth column, the length of desk room required for each scholar. It should not be less than here given.

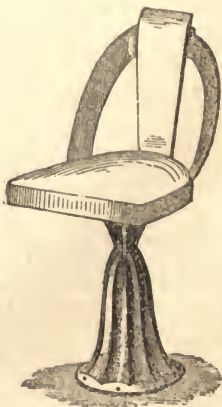
Sixth column, the distance that should be allowed between the desks, from the back of one to the front edge of the other. This space will allow a passage between the chair and the next rear desk. The number of scholars at a desk need not be limited.

The position of each chair, when screwed to the floor, should have two-thirds of the allotted desk room to the right of its centre, and be so near that the back of the chair, in its revolution, will barely clear the desk. By placing the chair as described, the body of the child is brought in close proximity to the desk, causing the back of the person to rest, at all times, and under all circumstances, against the back of the chair.

The chief peculiarity in the desk is, that in the place of straight wooden legs, there are substituted curved cast iron stanchions; the obvious advantages of which are, that they occasion no interference with the movements of the scholar seated opposite or near to them.

Two stanchions are necessary for a single desk. Two, also, will support a desk of sufficient length to accommodate three scholars; three, to accommodate six scholars; four, nine scholars; and so on for a greater number.

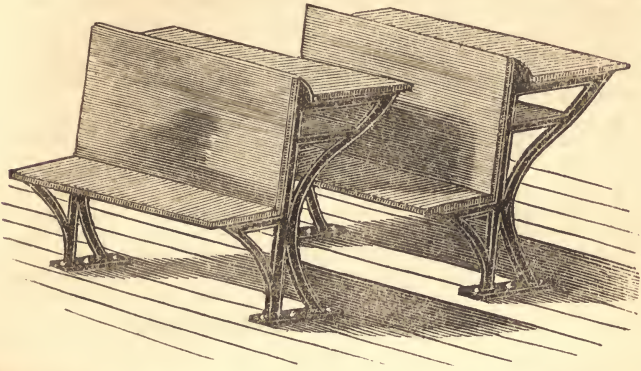
The expense of fitting up a room with this chair and desk, in the city of New York, varies from \$1 50 to \$2 00 a scholar, aside from the putting up of the desks.



HARTFORD SCHOOL DESK AND SEAT.

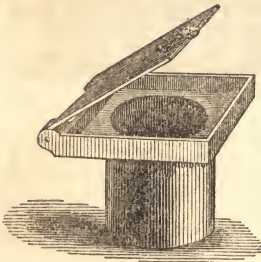
The following cut (Fig. 1,) represents a style of school desk, with a seat attached, which has been extensively introduced into village and country districts in Rhode Island, and the neighborhood of Hartford, and is recommended wherever a rigid economy must be observed.

Fig. 1.



The end piece, or supports, both of the seat and desk, are cast iron, and the wood work is attached by screws. They are made for one or two scholars, and of eight sizes, giving a seat from ten inches to seventeen, and a desk at the edge next to the scholar, from seventeen to twenty-six inches from the floor.

Fig. 3.



Each desk is fitted up with a glass ink-well (Fig. 2,) set firmly into the desk, and covered with a lid. The ink-well may be set into a cast iron box (Fig. 3,) having a cover; the box being let in and screwed to the desk, and the ink-well being removable for convenience in filling, cleaning, and emptying in cold weather.

Fig. 2.

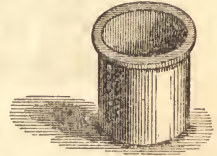


Fig. 4.



The desk can be used, by detaching the support for the seat, with a convenient school-chair, made in the style represented in cut (Fig. 4,) or in any other style.

The cost of a desk and seat for two scholars, perfectly fitted up, varies from \$1 37½ to \$1 50 per scholar.

Manufactured by Messrs. Allen & Reed, Nos. 37 and 38 Pearl street, Hartford.

WALES' IMPROVED SCHOOL FURNITURE.

THE following cuts represent a large variety of improved school chairs, desks, and other furniture manufactured by Samuel Wales, Jr., at No. 14 Bromfield Street, Boston, Mass., from patterns of his own getting up, and with such facilities of experienced workmen, and ingenious machinery, as enables him to supply all orders for first-class work, with economy, precision, and promptness.

Wales' improved school chairs and desks embrace the following variety, and each variety is constructed on the following scale of height, so as to meet the varying proportions of scholars ranging from four years to twenty years of age:

No. 1.	Chairs,	10	inches	high;	Desks,	side	next	the	scholar,	20	inches	high.
" 2.	"	11	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	21	"	"
" 3.	"	12	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	22	"	"
" 4.	"	13	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	23	"	"
" 5.	"	14	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	24	"	"
" 6.	"	15	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	25½	"	"
" 7.	"	16	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	27	"	"
" 8.	"	17	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	28½	"	"

WALES' AMERICAN SCHOOL CHAIRS.

No. 1.



These chairs are plain and substantial. Each chair is based upon a single iron pedestal, which is secured to the seat of the chair at the top, and to the floor of the school-room at the foot. The center-piece of the chair-back descends directly into the foot of the iron pedestal, intersecting the back of the seat as it passes, in such a manner as to form a *back stay*, thereby producing in the chair, as a whole, the greatest possible degree of firmness and strength.

No. 2.



No. 2 represents an improved school desk for two scholars.

No. 3.



No. 3 represents an improved single desk for one scholar, on iron supports, with American school chairs to correspond. Each desk is furnished with an ink-well, and a metal cover of the best kind. The top is grooved, to accommodate pens, pencils, and other small articles, with a safe resting-place.

WALES' NEW ENGLAND SCHOOL CHAIRS.

No. 4.



Each chair is based upon a pedestal of iron, of great beauty and strength, which is firmly secured to the seat of the chair at the top, and to the floor of the school-room at the foot. An ornamental center-piece passes down into the base of the pedestal, forming the center of the chair-back and the *back stay*.

No. 5.



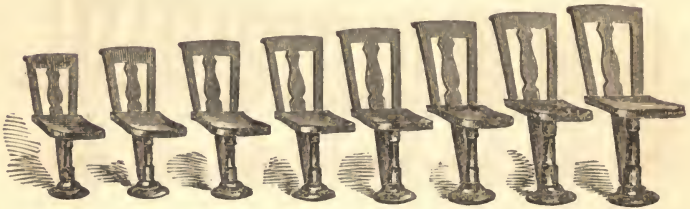
No. 6.



Cuts No. 5 and No. 6, represent an improved double school desk, the latter for one, and the former for two scholars, with the New England school chair to correspond.

WALES' BOWDOIN SCHOOL CHAIRS.

No. 7.



These chairs are constructed substantially like those already described, with a tasteful scroll top. The following diagrams, Nos. 8 and 9, represent the chair in connection with a desk, both for one and two scholars.

No. 8.



No. 9.



WALES' WASHINGTON SCHOOL CHAIRS.

No. 10.



Nos. 10, 11, and 12, represent the eight sizes of another variety of the chair, with the corresponding desk, both single and double

No. 11.



No. 12.



WALES' NORMAL SCHOOL DESKS AND CHAIRS.

No. 13.



No. 14.



The engraving represents a Normal School Double Desk, on iron supports, having two covers, with Washington School Chairs to correspond. Each cover opens a separate apartment in the desk, designed for the exclusive use of one scholar.

WALES' IMPROVED WRITING STOOLS.

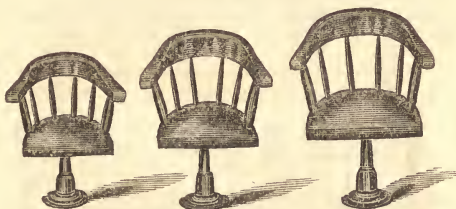
No. 15.



For most educational purposes, chairs are highly preferable, and this seems to be the general opinion; but, in cases where writing is taught in a separate department, the writing-stool is preferred, as being less expensive, and occupying less room.

WALES' PRIMARY SCHOOL CHAIR.

No. 16.



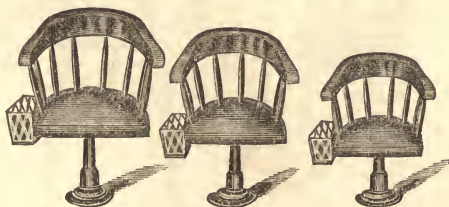
The engravings No. 16 and No. 17, represent a series of *three sizes*, suitable for scholars from four years of age and upward, comprehending all the sizes needed in primary and intermediate schools, to wit:—

- | | | | | |
|--------|-------|----|--------|-------|
| No. 1, | . . . | 10 | inches | high. |
| “ 2, | . . . | 11 | “ | “ |
| “ 3, | . . . | 12 | “ | “ |

Each chair is based on an iron pedestal, securely fastened to the seat at the top, and to the floor of the school-room at the foot; thus becoming a permanent article of furniture, and completely avoiding the confusion, irregularity and noise, which are the unavoidable accompaniments of movable chairs in a school-room.

WALES' BASKET PRIMARY SCHOOL CHAIR.

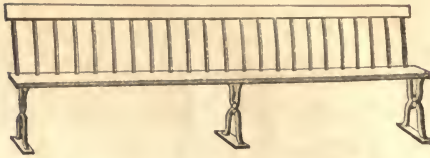
No. 17.



The Basket Chair has a tastefully ornamented book basket of iron, into which the children can place their books, slates, and other utensils of study. As a whole, in view of their strength, comfort, beauty and adaptation to their object, these are regarded as the best Primary School Chairs extant.

WALES' IMPROVED SETTEES.

No. 18.



The engravings No. 18 and No. 19, represent an Improved Settee, eight feet in length, based upon iron supports, designed for that purpose. Such settees are well adapted for recitation-rooms, the walls of school-rooms, for the accommodation of visitors, or for any position where permanent settees are wanted. They are made of any required height, size, or length; often from forty to sixty feet in length, when placed on the walls of school-rooms; and, being without arms or other divisions, the whole length, in fact, forming a single settee, have been found to be very convenient, and of good appearance.

WALES' IMPROVED LYCEUM SETTEE.

No. 19.



The Improved Lyceum Settee is divided into five parts or seats, with fancy iron arms, made for that purpose.

WALES' TEACHERS' ARM-CHAIRS.

No. 20.



The engravings, Nos. 20 and 21, represent two substantial, well-made, and comfortable arm-chairs, having no other claim to novelty than may be due to the fact that they are constructed entirely of hard wood, and are finished without paint of any kind; they will therefore wear well, and retain their good appearance without soiling or defacement, for a long period.

WALES' TEACHER'S ARM-CHAIRS, WITH CUSHIONS.
No. 21.



WALES' TEACHER'S TABLE, WITHOUT DRAWERS.
No. 22.



WALES' TEACHER'S TABLE, ONE DRAWER.
No. 23.

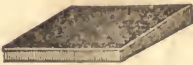


WALES' TEACHER'S TABLE, TWO DRAWERS.
No. 24.

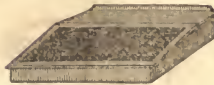


WALES' IMPROVED SCHOOL FURNITURE.

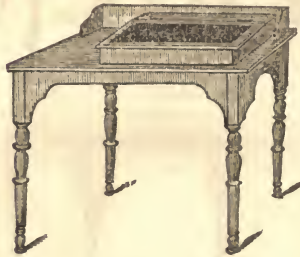
MOVABLE SKELETON DESK.
No. 25.



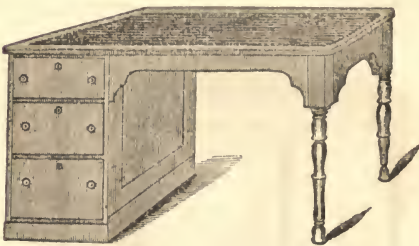
PORTABLE DESK.
No. 26.



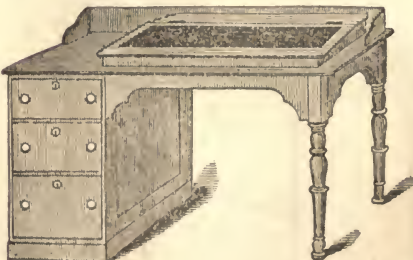
WALES' TEACHER'S DESK.
No. 27.



WALES' TEACHER'S DESK, THREE DRAWERS AND TABLE TOP.
No. 28.



WALES' TEACHER'S DESK, THREE DRAWERS AND TOP DESK.
No. 29.



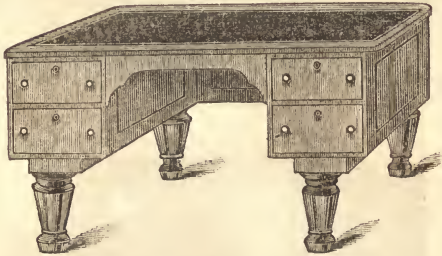
WALES' TEACHER'S DESK, TWO DRAWERS AND TABLE TOP.
No. 30.



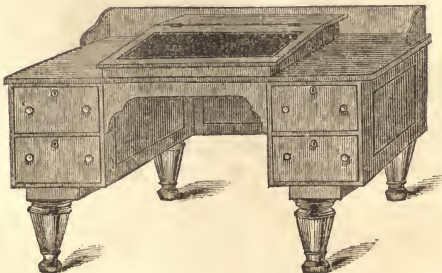
WALES' TEACHER'S DESK, TWO DRAWERS AND TOP DESK.
No. 31.



WALES' TEACHER'S DESK, FOUR DRAWERS AND TABLE TOP.
No. 32.

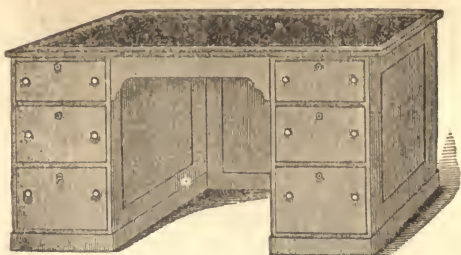


WALES' TEACHER'S DESK, FOUR DRAWERS AND TOP DESK.
No. 33.



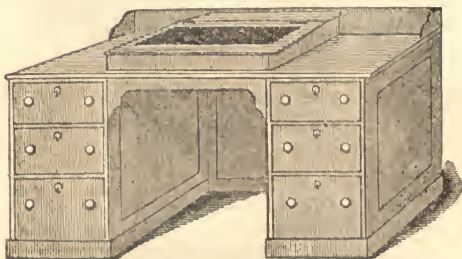
WALES' TEACHER'S DESK, SIX DRAWERS AND TABLE TOP.

No. 34.



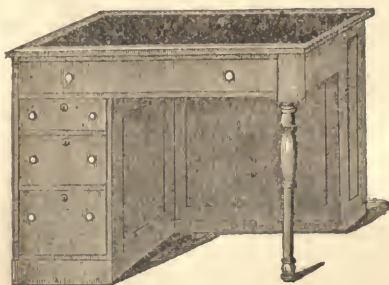
WALES' TEACHER'S DESK, SIX DRAWERS AND TOP DESK.

No. 35.



WALES' TEACHER'S DESK AND LIBRARY, FOUR DRAWERS, TABLE TOP AND BOOK-CASE.

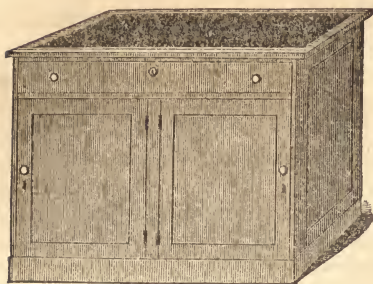
No. 36.



A.

A. The side occupied by the Teacher.

No. 37.

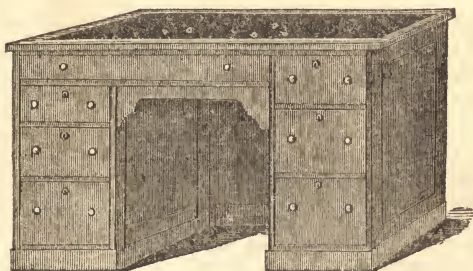


B.

B. The side facing the school, with a large drawer for maps, drawings, &c., and two doors which open a book-case, suitable for a school library.

WALES' TEACHER'S DESK AND LIBRARY, SIX DRAWERS, TABLE TOP AND LARGE BOOK-CASE.

No. 38.



A.

A. The side occupied by the Teacher.

No. 39.



B.

B. The side facing the school, with a large drawer for maps, drawings, &c., a small drawer for utensils of study, and three doors which open a large book-case, suitable for a school library.

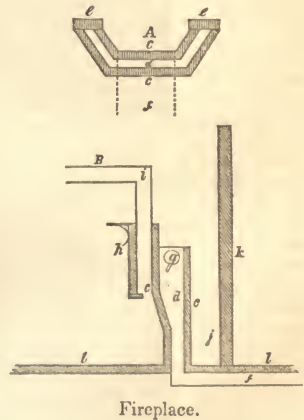
APPARATUS FOR WARMING.

THE thorough ventilation, the constant and regular change of the atmosphere of a school-room cannot be secured by simply providing flues or openings, however judiciously constructed and placed, for the escape of the air which has become impure from the process of breathing or other causes. These flues will not work satisfactorily, unless a mode of warming the room is adopted by which a large supply of pure fresh air, properly heated, is flowing in to supply the place of that which is escaping by means of the flues. Among the various modes of warming school-rooms and public halls, which we have seen in full and successful operation, we select a few, in addition to those described in other parts of the work, as worthy of the particular attention of committees and others, who are looking round for a heating apparatus. We shall use the cuts and description by which the patentees and venders have chosen to make their several modes of warming known to the public, without intending to decide on the relative merits of any one mode.

DOUBLE FIRE-PLACE FOR WARMING AND VENTILATION.

The following plan of warming and ventilating a school-room is recommended by Mr. George B. Emerson in the *School and Schoolmaster*. The position of the proposed fire-place may be seen in the Plans of School-rooms by the same eminent teacher, published on page 50 of this work.

Warming.—In a suitable position, pointed out in the plates, near the door, let a common brick fireplace be built. Let this be inclosed, on the back and on each side, by a casing of brick, leaving, between the fireplace and the casing, a space of four or five inches, which will be heated through the back and jambs. Into this space let the air be admitted from beneath by a box 24 inches wide and 6 or 8 deep, leading from the external atmosphere by an opening beneath the front door, or at some other convenient place. The brick casing should be continued up as high as six or eight inches above the top of the fireplace, where it may open into the room by lateral orifices, to be commanded by iron doors, through which the heated air will enter the room. If these are lower, part of the warm air will find its way into the fireplace. The brick chimney should



A. Horizontal section. B. Perpendicular section. c. Brick walls, 4 inches thick. d. Air space between the walls. e. Solid fronts of masonry. f. Air box for supply of fresh air, extending beneath the floor to the front door. g. Openings on the sides of the fireplace, for the heated air to pass into the room. h. Front of the fireplace and mantelpiece. i. Iron smoke flue, 8 inches diameter. j. Space between the fireplace and wall. k. Partition wall. l. Floor.

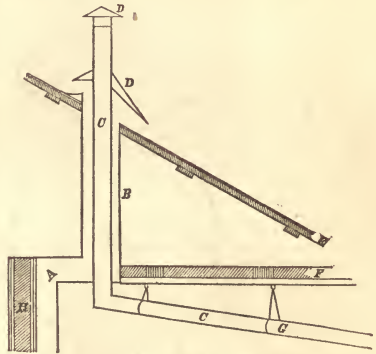
rise at least two or three feet above the hollow back, and may be surmounted by a flat iron, soap-stone, or brick top, with an opening for a smoke-pipe, which may be thence conducted to any part of the room. The smoke-pipe should rise a foot, then pass to one side, and then over a passage, to the opposite extremity of the room, where it should ascend perpendicularly, and issue above the roof. The fireplace should be provided with iron doors, by which it may be completely closed.

The advantages of this double fireplace are, 1. the fire, being made against brick, imparts to the air of the apartment none of the deleterious qualities which are produced by a common iron stove, but gives the pleasant heat of an open fireplace; 2. none of the heat of the fuel will be lost, as the smoke-pipe may be extended far enough to communicate nearly all the heat contained in the smoke; 3. the current of air heated within the hollow back, and constantly pouring into the room, will diffuse an equable heat throughout every part; 4. the pressure of the air of the room will be constantly outward, little cold will enter by cracks and windows, and the fireplace will have no tendency to smoke; 5. by means of the iron doors, the fire may be completely controlled, increased or diminished at pleasure, with the advantages of an air-tight stove. For that purpose, there must be a valve or slide near the bottom of one of the doors.

If, instead of this fireplace, a common stove be adopted, it should be placed above the air-passage, which may be commanded by a valve or register in the floor, so as to admit or exclude air.

Ventilation.—A room warmed by such a fireplace as that just described, may be easily ventilated. If a current of air is constantly pouring in, a current of the same size will rush out wherever it can find an outlet, and with it will carry the impurities wherewith the air of an occupied room is always charged. For the first part of the morning, the open fireplace may suffice. But this, though a very effectual, is not an economical ventilator; and when the issue through this is closed, some other must be provided. The most effective ventilator for throwing out foul air, is one opening into a tube which incloses the smoke-flue at the point where it passes through the roof. Warm air naturally rises. If a portion of the smoke-flue be inclosed by a tin tube, it will warm the air within this tube, and give it a tendency to rise. If, then, a wooden tube, opening near the floor, be made to communicate, by its upper extremity, with the tin tube, an upward current will take place in it, which *will always act whenever the smoke-flue is warm.*

It is better, but not absolutely essential, that the opening into the wooden tube be near the floor. The carbonic acid thrown out by the lungs rises, with the warm breath, and the perspirable matter from the skin, with the warm, invisible vapor, to the top of the room. There both soon cool, and sink towards the floor; and both carbonic air and the vapor bearing the perspirable matter are pretty rapidly and equally diffused through every part of the room.



[Scale 8 feet to an inch.]

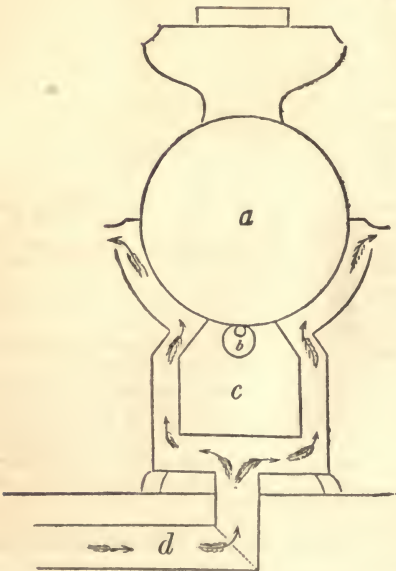
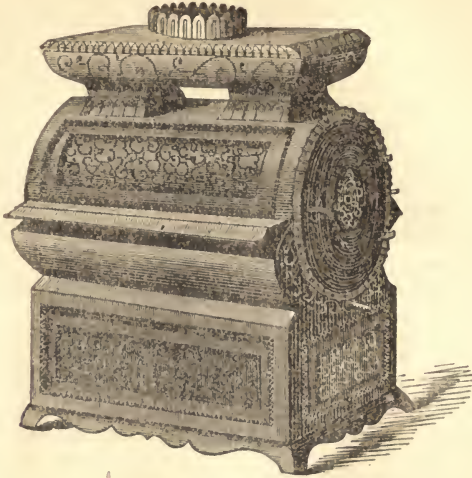
Ventilating Apparatus.

- A. Air box, 1 foot square, or 24 inches by 6, covered by the pilaster, and opening at the floor, in the base of the pilaster.
- B. Round iron tube 15½ inches in diameter, being a continuation of the air box, through the center of which passes C.
- C. The smoke flue, 8 inches in diameter.
- D. Caps to keep out the rain.

MOTT'S VENTILATING SCHOOL-STOVE, FOR BURNING WOOD OR COAL-

Patented and Manufactured by J. L. MOTT, 264 Water-street, N. Y.

By this stove the room is warmed by conducting a supply of moderately heated pure air from without, as well as by direct radiation from the upper portion of the stove.



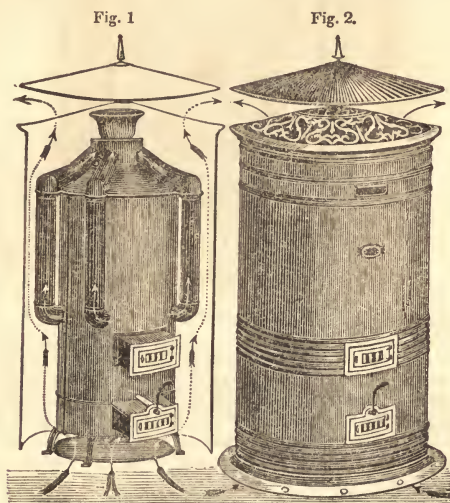
- A. Air Chamber, for coal or wood.
- B. A revolving grate with a cam process, by which the ashes are easily detached and made to drop into the ash-pit below.
- C. Ash-Pit, by which also the draft can be regulated, and the stove made an air-tight.
- D. Duct, or flue under the floor, by which fresh air from without is admitted under and around the stove, and circulates in the direction indicated by the arrows.

This, and all stoves designed to promote ventilation by introducing fresh air from without, will work satisfactorily only where a flue properly constructed is provided to carry off the air which has become impure from respiration.

THE BOSTON VENTILATING STOVE AND PORTABLE VENTILATING FURNACE.

Patented March 10th, 1848, by Henry G. Clark, M. D., and manufactured by Gardner Chilson, Boston.

The Boston Ventilating Stove is composed of two cylinders, the inner (Fig. 1,) containing a fire chamber, which is lined with soapstone or fire brick, and is fitted with additional smoke-pipes to increase the radiating surface, while the outer (Fig. 2,) constitutes a chamber for warming the air, which is introduced into it beneath the inner cylinder by a flue from out of doors, and flows out at the top, to which there is a movable cap, or distributor attached, by which the opening is enlarged or diminished, and thus the supply and temperature of the air admitted can be easily regulated.



The *dark* arrows show the course of the air in its passage from the opening underneath the stove, through the air-chamber, into the apartment. The *light* arrows show the circulation of the *smoke* through the various radiating pipes.

This stove is made of three sizes, varying in price from twenty-five to forty dollars. It received a *silver medal* at the Fifth Exhibition of the Massachusetts Charitable Mechanic Association, and has been introduced with signal success into many school-houses in Boston, Charlestown, and other places.

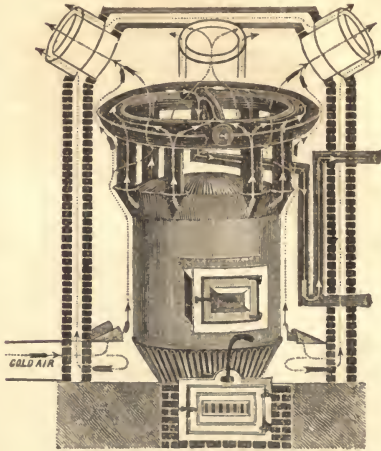
This stove can be advantageously used as a hall stove and as a portable furnace, under circumstances which will not admit of a brick inclosure.

MILLAR'S VENTILATING SCHOOL STOVE.

In Millar's Ventilating School Stove, manufactured at Worcester, Mass., and designed for burning wood, the air is introduced from outside of the building beneath the stove, by an air-box, and is warmed by circulating through cast-iron tubes around the fire, until it is discharged into the room. Stoves of this patent are much used in the country district in Worcester county, and other parts of Massachusetts.

CHILSON'S AIR-WARMING AND VENTILATING FURNACE.

Patented and Manufactured by Gardner Chilson, Boston.



The advantages of the Furnace are—

1. The fire-pot is constructed on the most economical and philosophical principles. It is broad and shallow,—at least twice as broad and one third as deep as the common fire-pot;—is one third smaller at the bottom than at the top, and is lined with fire-brick or soap-stone. Thus the fire-bed is deep enough to keep the coal well ignited with a slow but perfect combustion, while the entire heat from the fuel is given out to act upon the radiating surface alone and the fire-pot can never become red-hot, and does not require renewal. This plan for burning coal is original with the inventor, and has met with universal approbation.

2. The radiating surface is large, and so placed that it receives the immediate and natural action of the heat, and at the same time imparts its heat in the most direct and uniform manner to the fresh air from without, without suffering waste by absorption from the outer walls of the air-chamber.

3. The air-chamber is large, and the fresh air is admitted and discharged so readily and uniformly that no portion of the radiating surface can ever become overheated; and a delightful summer temperature is maintained in the rooms.

4. The joints of the furnace are so constructed, that, even if the iron-work was liable, like other furnaces, to crack from extreme expansion, by being overheated, (which it is not,) the gas from the burning coal cannot escape into the air-chamber.

5. There are no horizontal inner surfaces on which dust and soot can gather, which do not, at the same time, clean themselves, or admit of being easily cleaned.

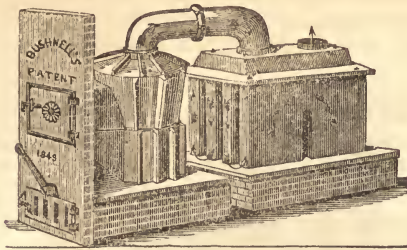
6. The grate in the fire-pot is so constructed, that the ashes can be easily detached, and the combustion facilitated.

7. It has stood all the test which sharp rivalry and the most severe *philosophical* practical science could apply to it, and has thus far accomplished all that its inventor promised, and when tried in the same building with other furnaces, has uniformly received the preference.

G. Chilson also manufactures an Open Stove for wood, or coal, and a Grate for coal, with an air-chamber on the sides and back of the fire, by which fresh air is warmed in its passage into the room, and the cheerful aspect of an open fire-place secured.

BUSHNELL'S PATENT HOT-AIR FURNACE.

Manufactured by Ezra Clark, Jr., 61 Front street, Hartford, Conn.



BUSHNELL'S FURNACE is the only one constructed on strictly scientific principles, and bears any test either of theory or practice. Scientific gentlemen have endorsed its excellence, and successful practice approves and confirms their recommendation.

The radiating part of this furnace, being that portion which diffuses the heat, is distinguished from all others from the fact that the cold air is passed into the furnace chamber *between* horizontal cast iron pipes or tubes, *inside of which the hot gas of the fire is circulating*, and communicating its heat, as it passes off to the chimney; so that the cold air is brought in direct contact with the heated iron, and is actually heated before it reaches the inner chamber of the furnace. While the cold air is passing one way to be heated (between the heated iron pipes) the hot gas of the fire is passing the other way to be cooled, and thus the mean difference of temperature *is kept the greatest possible at every point*. The *greatest* amount of heat will be communicated in this way, by the *least* amount of iron surface; and as the radiator has a very large surface, it follows that *more* heat is extracted (from a given amount of fuel) *than by any other invention yet offered to the public*.

This furnace is so constructed that it *clears itself* of ashes and soot, never requiring to be disturbed, and consequently requires not as much care as an ordinary fire. A child can take care of it when in use, and it can stand from season to season, untouched, without trouble or expense, and be at any moment ready for immediate use.

Two kinds of pots are offered by the manufacturer, for use with this furnace; one similar to the most approved forms now in use, the other entirely different, and the invention of DR. BUSHNELL. It differs from all others in allowing the fire to be *stirred above the grate*, and through the opening by which the coal is entered. This throws up the dead coals and cinders, which are then easily removed, and, as the grate *need never be dropped*, the dirty process of riddling is avoided. No ashes escape, and the cloud of dust which usually envelopes the tender in all other furnaces, is no where seen in this, and no uncleanness results from renewing the fire. The fire may be stirred and cleaned when it is in full action, as well as at any other time; the coals will never rattle down to choke the fire, but will of necessity, by this method of stirring, *always* be thrown up into a light open cinder, giving free passage to the draft and facilitating combustion.

This furnace is offered in the entire confidence that it is *the best ever manufactured*, and this bold assertion is warranted and proved by the favorable testimony of those who have used it. A TRIAL IS ALL THE PROOF REQUIRED.

Three sizes of furnaces are made, viz.: No. 1 with 17 inch pot; No. 2 with 20 inch pot; No. 3 with 24 inch pot; which are now for sale in most of the larger cities and towns in the northern states.

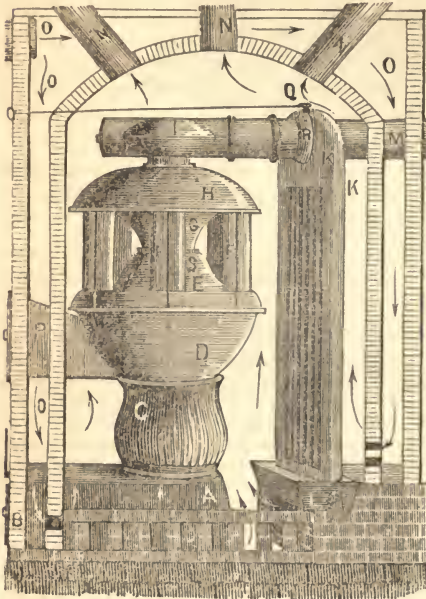
Orders for Bushnell's Furnaces will be promptly attended to, on application by mail or otherwise, to EZRA CLARK, Jr., Hartford, Conn.

CULVER'S HOT-AIR FURNACE.

PATENTED AND MANUFACTURED BY CULVER & CO., 52 CLIFF-STREET, NEW YORK.

Culver's Hot-Air Furnace, as described in the following diagram and explanations, is intended for hard coal, to be set in double walls of brick masonry in cellar or basement, below the rooms to be warmed.

Figure 1.



- A. Iron or Brick Ash Pit.
 - B. Ash Pit door.
 - C. Pot, or coal Burner, with or without *soup-stone* lining.
 - D. Fire Chamber.
 - E. Lower half of Tubular drum.
 - F. Elliptical tubes.
 - G. Upper half of Tubular drum.
 - H. Top of Tubular drum.
 - I. Cap and smoke pipe.
 - K. Flat Radiator.
 - L. Water bason or evaporator.
 - M. Smoke pipe to chimney.
 - N. Conductors of Hot Air.
 - O. Cold air conductor and chamber.
 - P. Feed door.
 - Q. Hot-Air chamber.
 - R. Damper in globe with rod attached.
 - S. Pendulum valve for cleaning.
- Shows the direction of the currents of hot or cold air.

Figure 2.

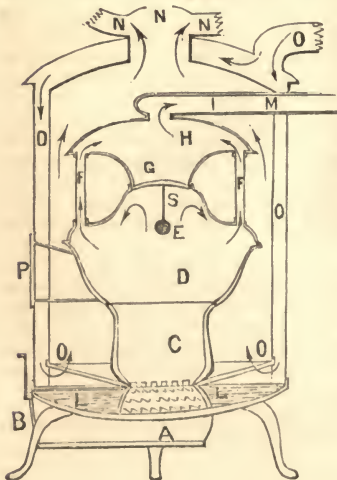
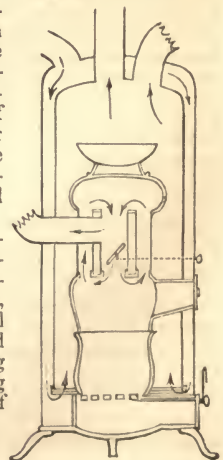


Fig. 2 represents a section of large size Portable Furnace with double casings of sheet iron or zinc. The same letters for reference are used as in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3 represents a smaller size Portable Furnace, with two metal coverings and an evaporating dish standing upon the top of the drum.

Figure 3.



APPARATUS.

IN addition to the necessary furniture of a school, such as seats, desks, and other fixtures and articles required for the accommodation of pupils and teacher, and the order and cleanliness of the premises, every school-room should be furnished with such apparatus as shall enable the teacher to employ the hand and eye of every pupil in illustration and experiment, so far as may be practicable and desirable in the course of instruction pursued in the school. It is therefore important, in the internal arrangement of a school-house, to have regard to the safe-keeping, display, and use of such apparatus as the grade of the school, for which the house is intended, may require. A few suggestions will therefore be made on these points, and in aid of committees and trustees in selecting apparatus.

1. In a large school, and in schools of the highest grade, there will be need of a separate apartment appropriated to the safe-keeping of the apparatus, and in some departments of instruction, for the proper use of the same. But in small schools, and as far as practicable in all schools, maps, diagrams, and other apparatus, should be in view of the school at all times.

This will not only add to the attractions of the school, and make the school-room look like a workshop of education, but will awaken a desire in the pupils to know the uses of the various articles, and to become acquainted with the facts and principles which can thus be seen, heard, or handled.

2. Such articles as are liable to be injured by dust, or handling, must be provided with an appropriate room, or a case of sufficient size, having glazed and sliding doors, and convenient shelves.

The doors should not be glazed to the floor, on account of liability to breakage, and also to admit of drawers for maps and diagrams, and a closet for such articles as may be uninteresting or unseemly to the eye, although useful in their place.

The shelves should be movable, so as to admit of additions of larger or smaller specimens of apparatus, and also of such arrangement as the varying tastes of different teachers may require.

3. There should be a table, with a level top, and capable of being made perfectly firm, unless the teacher's desk can be so, for the teacher to place his apparatus on, when in use.

4. The apparatus of every school-room should be selected with reference to the grade of schools to which it is appropriated, and in Primary and District schools in particular, should be of simple construction and convenient for use.

5. As far as practicable, the real object in nature and art, and not a diagram, or model, should be secured.

The following list of articles is necessarily very imperfect, but it may help to guide committees in their search after apparatus.

ARTICLES INDISPENSABLE IN SCHOOLS OF EVERY GRADE.

A clock.

The cardinal points of the heavens painted on the ceiling, or on the teacher's platform, or the floor of the recitation room.

As much blackboard, or black surface on the walls of the school-room, and the recitation rooms, as can be secured. A portion of this black surface should be in full view of the whole school, for passing explanations; and another portion out of the way, within reach of the smallest pupils. One or more movable blackboards, or large slate, with one or more movable stands or supporters.

All the appendages to a blackboard, such as chalk, crayons, and a rubber of soft cloth, leather, or sheepskin, and a pointer.

An inkstand, fixed into the desk, with a lid, and with a pen-wiper attached.

A slate, iron-bound at the corners, and covered with list, or India-rubber cloth, for every desk, with a pencil-holder and sponge attached. A few extra slates for the use of the youngest pupils, under the care and at the discretion of the teacher.

A map of the district, town, county, and state.

A terrestrial globe, properly mounted, or suspended by a wire.

The measure of an inch, foot, yard, and rod, marked off on the edge of the blackboard, or on the wall.

Real measures of all kinds, linear, superficial, solid, and liquid; as a foot-rule, a yard-stick, quarts, bushels, an ounce, pound, &c., for the exercise of the eye and hand.

Vases for flowers and natural grasses.

APPARATUS FOR A PRIMARY OR DISTRICT SCHOOL.

The apparatus for this class of schools cannot be specified with much minuteness, because the ages of the pupils, and the modes of instruction vary so much in different localities. The following list embraces the articles purchased for Primary and District schools in Rhode Island:

Movable Lesson Posts. These are from three and a half to four feet high, and are variously made of wood, and of cast-iron. It consists, when made of wood, of an upright piece of plank from two to three inches square at the bottom, and diminishing regularly to the top, where it is one inch, inserted in a round or cross base broad enough to support the lesson board, or card, which is suspended by a ring on a hook at or near the top of the post.

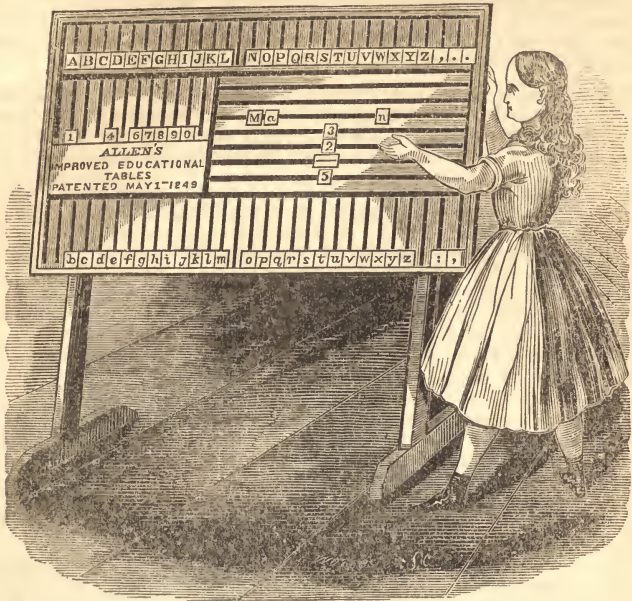
J. L. Mott, 264, Water street, New York, manufactures for the Primary schools of the Public School Society of New York, a very neat *cast-iron* lesson stand.

Reading Lessons. Colored Prints, and Diagrams of various kinds, such as of animals, costumes, trades, &c., pasted on boards of wood or strong pasteboard; some with, and others without printed descriptions beneath; to be suspended at appropriate times on the lesson stands, for class exercises, and at other times, on the walls, or deposited in their appropriate places.

In this list should be included the numeration table, tables for reading arithmetical marks, easy lessons, geometrical figures, punctuation marks, outline maps, &c.



Allen's *Education Table* will be found very useful in teaching the Alphabet, Spelling, Reading, and Arithmetic, to little children at home, and in Primary Schools.



Allen's **EDUCATION TABLE** consists of a board or table, along the centre of which are horizontal grooves, or raised ledges forming grooves between them, that connect with perpendicular grooves or compartments on the sides, in which are inserted an assortment of movable blocks, on the face of which are cut the letters of the alphabet, both capitals and small, the nine digits and cipher, and all the usual pauses and signs used in composition and arithmetic.

The letters, figures and signs are large, so as to be readily recognized by all the members of a large class, and from even the extremity of a large school-room, and are so assorted and arranged as to be easily slid from the perpendicular grooves or compartments into the horizontal grooves, and there combined into syllables, words and sentences, or used in simple arithmetical operations. When the lesson in the alphabet, spelling, reading, composition, or arithmetic, is finished, the blocks can be returned to their appropriate places.

The experience of many teachers in schools of different grades, and of many mothers at home, (the God-appointed school for little children, next to which should be ranked the well organized Primary School, with a bright, gentle, affectionate and patient female teacher,) has demonstrated that by accustoming the child, either individually, or in a class, to select letter by letter, and move them from their appropriate case to the centre of the board, and there combining them into syllables and words, a knowledge of the alphabet, and of words, is acquired in a much shorter time and in a much more impressive and agreeable manner, than by any of even the best methods now pursued.

All of the advantages derived from the method of dictation, and the use of the slate and blackboard, in teaching children the alphabet, spelling, reading, and the use of capital letters and pauses, as well as the elementary principles of arithmetic, such as numeration, addition, subtraction, &c., can be secured by the introduction of this Table into our Primary and District Schools.

Manufactured by EDWIN ALLEN only, Windham, Conn., who will promptly attend to all orders for them.

A *Moveable Black-board*, or prepared black surface of considerable extent, is indispensable.

The upper portion of the standing blackboard should be inclined back a little from the perpendicular, and along the lower edge there should be a projection or trough to catch the particles detached from the chalk or crayon when in use, and a drawer to receive the sponge, cloth, lamb's-skin, or other soft article used in cleaning the surface of the board.

Blackboards, even when made with great care, and of the best seasoned materials, are liable to injury and defacement from warping, opening of seams, or splitting when exposed to the overheated atmosphere of school-rooms, unless they are set in a frame like a slate, or the panel of a door.

By the following ingenious, and cheap contrivance, a few feet of board can be converted into a table, a sloping desk, one or two blackboards, and a form or seat, and the whole folded up so as not to occupy a space more than five inches wide, and be easily moved from one room to another. It is equally well adapted to a school-room, class-room, library or nursery.

ff Under side of the swinging board, suspended by rule-joint hinges, when turned up, painted black or dark chocolate.

a d Folding brackets, inclined at an angle of 75 degrees, and swung out to support the board when a sloping desk is required.

b c Folding brackets to support the swinging board when a bench or flat table is required.

eee Uprights attached to the wall.

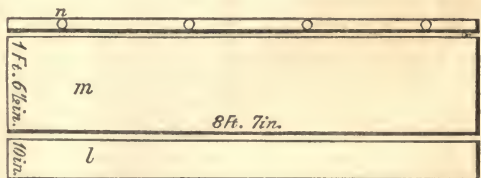
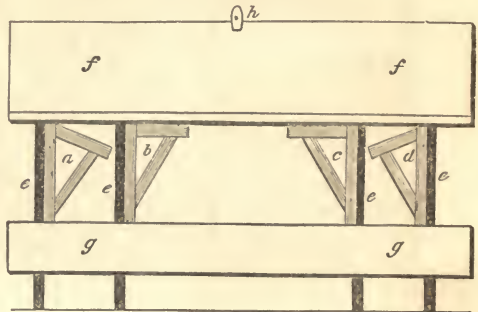
g g Form to be used when the swinging board is let down, and to be supported by folding legs. The under side can be used as a blackboard for small children.

h A wooden button to retain the swinging board when turned up for use as a blackboard.

n Opening to receive inkstands, and deposit for slate, pencil, chalk, &c.

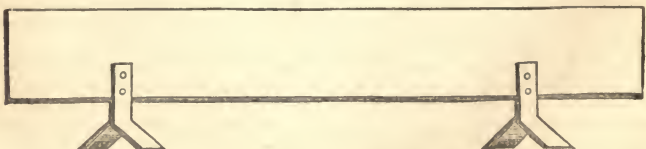
m Surface of swinging board when let down.

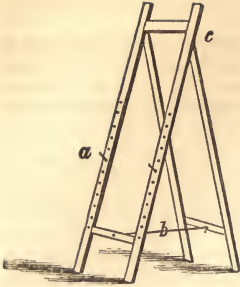
l Surface of form or bench.



When not in use, or let down, the desk and form should hang flush with each other.

A cheap movable blackboard can be made after the following cut (Fig. 3.

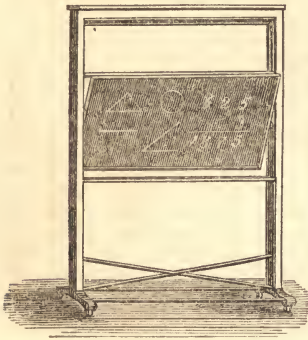




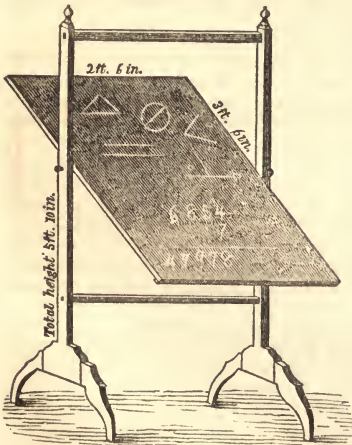
A movable stand to support a blackboard may be made like a painter's easel, as represented in the accompanying cut.

a, Pins for board to rest on. *c*, Hinge or joint to the supporting legs, which are braced by hook *b*, and may be folded up, and the stand put away in a closet. A stand of this kind is convenient to display outline and other maps, reading lessons and other diagrams.

A large movable blackboard may be made as represented in the accompanying cut. An upright frame, strongly braced by cross-pieces (*a*) is inserted into the feet (*b*), or horizontal supports having castors, on which the whole may be rolled on the floor. Within grooves on the inside of this upright frame is a smaller frame (*c*) hung by a cord which passes over a pulley (*d*), and is so balanced by weights, concealed in the upright parts, as to admit of being raised or lowered conveniently. Within this inner frame is hung the blackboard on pivots, by which the surface of the board can be inclined from a perpendicular.



A cheaper movable frame, with a blackboard suspended on a pivot, can be made as represented in the lower diagram. The feet, if made as represented in this cut, will be liable to get broken.



Composition for Blackboards.

Lampblack and flour of emery mixed with spirit-varnish.

No more lampblack and flour of emery should be used than are sufficient to give the required black and abrading surface; and the varnish should contain only sufficient gum to hold the ingredients together, and confine the composition to the board. The thinner the mixture, the better.

The lampblack should first be ground with a small quantity of alcohol, or spirit-varnish, to free it from lumps.

The composition should be applied to the smoothly-planed surface of the board, with a common painter's brush. Let it become *thoroughly dry and hard before it is used*. Rub it down with pumice-stone, or a piece of smooth wood covered with the composition.

This composition may also be used on the walls.

Slate Blackboard.

In the class-rooms of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, and all similar institutions, where most of the instruction is given by writing, and drawings on the blackboard, large slates from three feet wide, to four feet long are substituted for the blackboard. These slates cost from \$2 to \$3, and are superior to any other form of blackboard, and in a series of years prove more economical.

Plaster Blackboard.

As a substitute for the painted board, it is common to paint black a portion of the plastered wall when covered with hard finish, (i. e. plaster of Paris and sand;) or to color it by mixing with the hard finish a sufficient quantity of lamp-black, wet with alcohol, at the time of putting it on. The hard finish, colored in this way, can be put on to an old, as well as to a new surface. Unless the lamp-black is wet with alcohol, or sour beer, it will not mix uniformly with the hard finish, and when dry, the surface, instead of being a uniform black, will present a spotted appearance.

Canvas Blackboard.

Every teacher can provide himself with a portable blackboard made of canvas cloth, 3 feet wide and 6 feet long, covered with three or four coats of black paint, like Winchester's Writing Charts. One side might, like this chart, present the elements of the written characters classified in the order of their simplicity, and guide-marks to enable a child to determine with ease the height, width, and inclination of every letter. Below, on the same side, might be ruled the musical scale, leaving sufficient space to receive such characters as may be required to illustrate lessons in music. The opposite side can be used for the ordinary purposes of a blackboard. When rolled up, the canvas would occupy a space three feet long, and not more than three inches in diameter.

Directions for making Crayons.

A school, or the schools of a town, may be supplied with crayons very cheaply, made after the following directions given by Professor Turner of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb.

Take 5 pounds of Paris White, 1 pound of Wheat Flour, wet with water, and knead it well, make it so stiff that it will not stick to the table, but not so stiff as to crumble and fall to pieces when it is rolled under the hand.

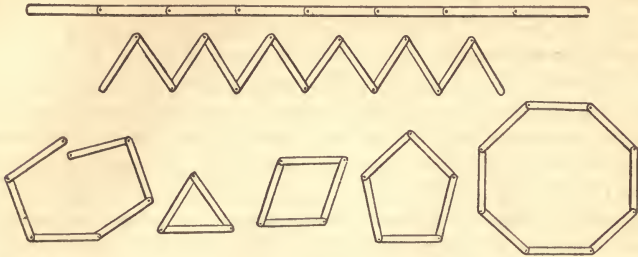
To roll out the crayons to the proper size, two boards are needed, *one*, to roll them *on*; the *other* to roll them *with*. The first should be a smooth pine board, three feet long, and nine inches wide. The other should also be pine, a foot long, and nine inches wide, having nailed on the under side, near each edge, a slip of wood one third of an inch thick, in order to raise it so much above the under board, as, that the crayon, when brought to its proper size, may lie between them without being flattened.

The mass is rolled into a ball, and slices are cut from one side of it about one third of an inch thick; these slices are again cut into strips about four inches long and one third of an inch wide, and rolled separately between these boards until smooth and round.

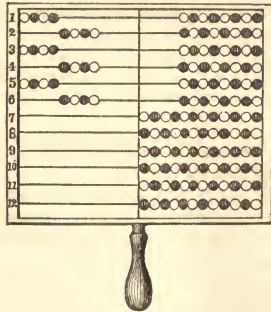
Near at hand, should be another board 3 feet long and 4 inches wide, across which each crayon, as it is made, should be laid so that the ends may project on each side—the crayons should be laid in close contact and straight. When the board is filled, the ends should be trimmed off so as to make the crayons as long as the width of the board. It is then laid in the sun, if in hot weather, or if in winter, near a stove or fire-place, where the crayons may dry gradually, which will require twelve hours. When thoroughly dry, they are fit for use.

An experienced hand will make 150 in an hour.

The Gonigraph is a small instrument composed of a number of flat rods connected by pivots, which can be put into all possible geometrical figures that consist of straight lines and angles, as triangles, squares, pentagons, hexagons, octagons, &c.



The Arithmeticon, represented in the annexed cut, is a most useful instrument. In an oblong open frame, twelve rows of wooden balls, alternately black and white, and of the size of a nutmeg or small walnut, and twelve in each row, are strung like beads on strong wires. The instrument, when fixed to a stand, is about four feet high, the frame being one-fourth part broader than it is high. It may be made much smaller, as in the cut. When it is used to exercise the children in arithmetic, the teacher or monitor stands behind, and slides the balls along the wires from *his* left to his right, calling out the number he shifts, as, twice two are four, thrice two are six, shifting first four balls, and then two more. As the children are apt to confuse the balls remaining with those shifted, a thin board covers half the surface on the side next the children, as marked by a line down the centre, so that they see only the balls shifted to the open side.



Holbrook's Scientific Apparatus embraces a variety of articles which will be found highly useful in the District school, in which both the older and younger pupils of the districts are ordinarily gathered at the same time, and under one teacher.

The following articles constitute a set which costs \$14.75, including a neat box with lock and key:

Tellurian; Suspension Orrery; Gear or Wheel Orrery with metal wheels; Globe; Orbit Plain; Numerical Frame; Geometrical Forms

and Solids ; Twenty-five Geological Specimens ; Geometry ; Scale and Triangle ; Block to illustrate Cube Roots ; Geometrical Chart ; Manuscript Letters : Text Book.

Mr. Josiah Holbrook of New York, whose name was originally connected with this set of apparatus, and with which, as manufactured under his direction, we are familiar, disclaims at this time (1848) any responsibility for the articles manufactured by Holbrook & Co., of Ohio.

This gentleman, so long and so favorably known from his connection with Lyceums, and elementary instruction, is now residing in New York, and has an office in the Hall of the Public School Society. There, in connection with Mr. Seton, and two very ingenious workmen, (Messrs. Riker,) he is now getting up apparatus "which shall be simple, easily used, readily understood, not liable to get out of order, and durable." The following is a list of articles already prepared for Primary Schools :

A Geological Cabinet, Geometricals, embracing plain figures, solids, models of crystals, illustrations of insect architecture and human mechanism, transposing and revolving figures, all illustrated with cuts and explanations; a globe with maps of the world and United States; numeral frame; a simple lever, with weights; a syphon and glass pump, showing the weight of the atmosphere in raising water; an air bulb, showing the expansive power of heat, simply by the hand; a simple permanent magnet; also an electro-magnet, a microscope, a simple orrery, and First Drawing Book for children, are among the instruments fitted to make clear, distinct, correct and lasting *first impressions* upon young minds, before reading-lessons or the letters of the alphabet can be rendered intelligible to them.

To teach Geography and History properly, the following maps are desirable:

- Map or plan of the school-room, yard, &c.
- Map or plan of the District or Village.
- Map or plan of the Town, County, and State.
- Map of the United States.
- Map of North America.
- Map of Europe.
- Map of the World.
- Map of Palestine.
- Map of the countries mentioned in the Bible and in ancient history.
- Map of Europe during the middle ages.
- Fitch's Chirography, or plates and instruction in map-drawing.
- Series of Outline Maps, published by J. H. Mather & Co., Hartford, Ct.
- A selection from Borgaus & Johnston's *Physical Atlas*, published in Edinburgh in 1847, viz.
 - Rivers in America.
 - Rivers in Europe and Asia.
 - Mountain chains in North and South America.
 - Mountain chains in Europe and Asia.
 - Regions of Earthquakes and Volcanoes.
 - Geological Map of America.
 - Geological Map of Europe.
 - Distribution of Food-plants over the world.
 - Distribution of Animals.
 - Distribution of Man.
- Colton's Historical Chart.
- Willard's Map of Time.
- Mattison's Astronomical Maps.
- Page's Normal Chart of Elementary Sounds.

Fulton's Chirographic Charts.
 Green's Analysis of Sentences.
 Henry's Family and School Monitor.
 Wickham's Drawing Tablets.

APPARATUS FOR GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

The School Committee of Boston, in 1847, adopted the following articles as a set of Philosophical Apparatus for the Grammar schools, which was selected and classified by Mr. Wightman, whose long experience in manufacturing apparatus for schools of every grade, admirably qualified him for the work :

Laws of Matter.

Apparatus for illustrating Inertia.
 Pair of Lead Hemispheres, for Cohesion.
 Pair of Glass Plates, for Capillary Attraction.

Laws of Motion.

Ivory Balls on Stand, for Collision.
 Set of eight illustrations for Centre of Gravity.
 Sliding Frame, for Composition of Forces.
 Apparatus for illustrating Central Forces.

Mechanics.

Complete set of Mechanicals, consisting of Pulleys; Wheel and Axle; Capstan; Screw; Inclined Plane; Wedge.

Hydrostatics.

Bent Glass Tube, for Fluid Level.
 Mounted Spirit Level.
 Hydrometer and Jar, for Specific Gravity.
 Scales and Weights, for Specific Gravity.
 Hydrostatic Bellows, and Paradox.

Hydraulics.

Lifting, or Common Water Pump.
 Forcing Pump; illustrating the Fire Engine.
 Glass Syphon Cup; for illustrating Intermitting Springs.
 Glass and Metal Syphons.

Pneumatics.

Patent Lever Air Pump and Clamp.
 Three Glass Bell Receivers, adapted to the Apparatus.
 Condensing and Exhausting Syringe.
 Copper Chamber, for Condensed Air Fountain.
 Revolving Jet and Glass Barrel.
 Fountain Glass, Cock, and Jet for Vacuum.
 Brass Magdeburg Hemispheres.
 Improved Weight Lifter for upward pressure.
 Iron Weight of 56 lbs. and Strap Flexible Tube and Connectors for Weight Lifter.
 Brass Plate and Sliding Rod.
 Bolt Head and Jar.
 Tall Jar and Balloon.
 Hand and Bladder Glasses.
 Wood Cylinder and Plate.
 India Rubber Bag, for expansion of air.
 Guinea and Feather Apparatus.
 Glass Flask and Stop-Cock, for weighing air.

Electricity.

Plate Electrical Machine.
 Pith Ball Electrometer.
 Electrical Battery of four Jars.
 Electrical Discharger.
 Image Plates and Figure.
 Insulated Stool.
 Chime of Bells.
 Miser's Plate, for shocks.
 Tissue Figure, Ball and Point.
 Electrical Flyer and Tellurian.
 Electrical Sportsman, Jar and Birds.
 Mahogany Thunder House and Pistol.

Hydrogen Gas Generator.
Chains, Balls of Pith, and Amalgam.

Optics.

Glass Prism; and pair of Lenses.
Dissected Eye Ball, showing its arrangement.

Magnetism.

Magnetic Needle on Stand.
Pair of Magnetic Swans.
Glass Vase for Magnetic Swans.
Horseshoe Magnet.

Astronomy.

Improved School Orrery.
Tellurian, or, Season Machine.

Arithmetic, and Geometry.

Set of 13 Geometrical Figures of Solids.
Box of 64 one inch Cubes, for Cube Root, &c.

Auxiliaries.

Tin Oiler.
Glass Funnel.
Sulphuric Acid.
Set of Iron Weights for Hydrostatic Paradox.

APPARATUS FOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

The articles of Apparatus for a High School, will depend on the extent to which such studies as Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, &c., are carried, and to the amount of money which can be expended. We have drawn up several such lists, and in doing so have been governed by the circumstances mentioned. As the best guide to committees and teachers, we shall publish in another place, under the head of Priced Catalogues, &c., lists of such articles as can be purchased for sums of money varying from \$50 to \$1000.

LIBRARY.

EVERY school should be furnished with a Library which should include,

1. Books on schools and school-systems, for the use of school officers and parents; and on the theory and practice of teaching, for the professional instruction of teachers.
2. Books of reference, for the use principally of teachers.
3. Books for circulation among the pupils.
4. Books for circulation among the parents, and inhabitants of the District, or neighborhood.

In the arrangement, and furniture of a school-house, provision should be made for the Library.

The following catalogue may assist those who are charged with the purchase of books:

RULES FOR THE CARE AND PRESERVATION OF SCHOOL-HOUSES.

The following provisions are included among the Regulations for the Government of Teachers and Pupils of Public Schools, adopted by School Committees in most of the towns of Rhode Island :

For Teachers:

There shall be a recess of at least fifteen minutes in the middle of every half day ; but the primary schools may have a recess of ten minutes every hour : at the discretion of the teacher.

It shall be the duty of teachers to see that fires are made, in cold weather, in their respective school-rooms, at a seasonable hour to render them warm and comfortable by school time ; to take care that their rooms are properly swept and dusted ; and that a due regard to neatness and order is observed, both in and around the school-house.

As pure air of a proper temperature is indispensable to health and comfort, teachers cannot be too careful in giving attention to these things. If the room has no ventilator, the doors and windows should be opened before and after school, to permit a free and healthful circulation of air ; and the temperature should be regulated by a thermometer suspended, five or six feet from the floor, in such a position as to indicate as near as possible the average temperature, and should be kept about 65 degrees Fahrenheit.

The teachers shall take care that the school-houses, tables, desks, and apparatus in the same, and all the public property entrusted to their charge, be not cut, scratched, marked, or injured and defaced in any manner whatever. And it shall be the duty of the teachers to give prompt notice to one or more of the trustees, of any repairs that may be needed.

For Pupils :

Every pupil who shall, *accidentally* or *otherwise*, injure any school property, whether fences, gates, trees or shrubs, or any building or any part thereof ; or break any window glass, or injure or destroy any instrument, apparatus or furniture belonging to the school, shall be liable to pay all damages.

Every pupil who shall any where, on or around the school premises, use or write any profane or unchaste language, or shall draw any obscene pictures or representations, or cut, mark, or otherwise *intentionally* deface any school furniture or buildings, or any property whatsoever belonging to the school estate, shall be punished in proportion to the nature and extent of the offence, and shall be liable to the action of the civil law.

No scholar of either sex shall be permitted to enter any part of the yard or buildings appropriated to the other, without the teacher's permission.

Smoking and chewing tobacco in the school-house or upon the school premises, are strictly prohibited.

The scholars shall pass through the streets on their way to and from school in an orderly and becoming manner ; shall clean the mud and dirt from their feet on entering the school-room : and take their seats in a quiet and respectful manner, as soon as convenient after the first bell rings ; and shall take proper care that their books, desks, and the floor around them, are kept clean and in good order.

It is expected that all the scholars who enjoy the advantages of public schools, will give proper attention to the *cleanliness* of their persons, and the neatness and decency of their clothes—not only for the moral effect of the habit of neatness and order, but that the pupils may be at all times prepared, both in conduct and external appearance—to receive their friends and visitors in a respectable manner ; and to render the school-room pleasant, comfortable and happy for teachers and scholars.

In the "*Regulations of the Public Schools in the city of Providence,*" it is made the duty " of the principal teacher in each school-house, for the compensation allowed by the Committee, to employ some suitable person to make the fires in the same when necessary, and to see that this important work is properly and economically done ;" also " for the compensation

allowed, to employ some suitable person to sweep the room and its entries daily, and dust the blinds, seats, desks, and other furniture in the same, and to clean the same once a quarter, and to see that this work is neatly and properly done."

The teachers must also "take care that the school-houses, the apparatus in the same, and all the public property entrusted to their charge, be not defaced, or otherwise injured by the scholars, and to give prompt notice to the Superintendent of any repairs and supplies that may be needed."

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS RESPECTING VENTILATION, FIRES, SWEEPING AND DUSTING.

The following suggestions are taken from the *Manual of the System of Discipline and Instruction for the Schools of the Public School Society of New York*:

VENTILATION.

Strict attention should be paid to all the means provided for temperature and ventilation. During the season of fires, the thermometer should be watched,—and the ventilating flues, windows, doors, and stoves, should be constantly attended to,—and every precaution taken, to give as pure an atmosphere to the school-room, as circumstances will allow. This is not only necessary, for a proper and free exercise of the physical powers,—but it will be found greatly to influence every mental exercise; for, both will partake of either languor, or vigor, according as ventilation is neglected, or duly attended to. In warm weather, the upper sashes should be down during school hours, and allowed to remain open about four inches during the night,—except, that on occasion of a storm, the windows against which it beats, may be closed. In winter, excepting when the weather is exceedingly cold and piercing, it may be of advantage to have two or more of the upper sashes down about an inch during the night; but these as well as the doors should be closed before kindling the fires. Two or more of the upper sashes should be drawn down at the end of the first half hour after opening school,—and again, for a short time at each successive half hour,—and whenever the thermometer rises to 70 degrees. At all seasons, the windows and doors should be thrown wide open for a few minutes during each recess, while the scholars are in the yard. The teacher should be careful to require all the scholars to go out, except such as may reasonably be excused on account of infirmity or sickness; and even these should be required to change their places, and to exercise themselves by walking to and fro in the school-room. At all seasons, at the close of school, all the doors and windows should be opened for a few minutes, in order that a pure atmosphere may be admitted and retained during the noon-time recess, or at night. A thermometrical diary must be kept during the winter season, and the temperature of the room noted at the opening, middle, and close, of each daily session. Further directions on this point are given in the instructions for making fires. The window-blinds and curtains are for the purpose of guarding against the sunshine, or observation from without. They should, therefore, be so managed, as only to exclude the direct rays of the sun, and kept open or shut accordingly. When required as a screen from observation, they should extend no farther than necessary for that purpose. Attention to these rules will give an air of cheerfulness within, so congenial to the young. It is important that this fact be impressed on all—that air, and light, are grand essentials in a school-room: let the first be freely admitted, and the second never causelessly excluded.

FIRES.

The ashes should be taken from the stoves in the morning only, leaving a layer of one inch in depth: then proceed to build with the materials after the following manner: Place one large stick on each side; in the space between them, place the kindling wood; and above it, the small wood, somewhat crosswise; then, set fire to the kindling, and close the stove door. See that the

draught is cleared of ashes, or other obstructions; and that the dampers are properly adjusted; (these are generally so arranged as to open the draught when the handle is parallel with the pipe). If the materials have been laid according to the foregoing directions, the combustion will be free. Should the temperature of the room be as low as 40° , fill the stove with wood. Under ordinary circumstances, in thirty-five minutes the temperature will be raised to 60 degrees,—at which point it should certainly be, at the time of opening school; when the stove may be supplied with one or two large sticks. At all times, before supplying wood, draw forward the brands and coals with the fire-hook. If there should be too much fire, open the stove door, and if necessary, turn the damper,—or, what may be better for economy, effectually close the draft at the stove door with ashes. By attention to all these directions,* the temperature may be maintained, the wood entirely consumed, and the thermometer stand at 60 degrees, at the close of the school; which is desirable in cold weather, so as not to subject the pupils to too sudden a change of temperature on going into the open air. The evaporating pan should be kept *clean*, and filled with water when in use. In damp rooms it is not needed,—nor in damp weather:—but it should be emptied, and wiped dry, before it is set aside.

DUSTING AND SWEEPING.

For a large room, or one department of a Public School building, six brooms will be found sufficient to be in use. When half worn, they will serve for sweeping the yard; and when well worn down in that service, will still be useful for scrubbing, with water or sand; and, if properly used by the sweepers, will be evenly worn to the last. Before sweeping, pull down the upper sashes, and raise the under ones. Let the sweepers be arranged, one to each passage between the desks,—and, beginning at the windward side, sweep the dirt before them, till it is carried forward to the opposite side of the room. The broom should rest square on the floor, and, with the motion used in raking hay, should be drawn towards the sweeper, without flirting it outwards, or upwards, which raises unnecessary dust, and wears the broom irregularly. The dirt, when taken up, should be carried into the *middle of the street*. The dusting is to be done in the same regular manner, allowing a suitable interval after sweeping. If at noon, dusting should be done shortly before school time; if at night, dust the next morning. In out-door sweeping, the same rule is to be followed—the sweepers going in ranks, and sweeping from the windward. Let the scrubbing be done by a similar method. When once acquainted with these methodical plans, the cleaners will do the work, not only more effectually, but with more satisfaction and ease to themselves—and being a part of domestic economy, it will be, so far, an advantage to understand how to do it well.

REGULATIONS OF CHAUNCY-HALL SCHOOL, BOSTON.

The following Regulations of one of the best conducted Private Schools for Boys in New England, will furnish useful hints to teachers in framing regulations for their own schools, especially in reference to the *good behavior* of the pupils, and to the care of the school-room, furniture, &c.

REQUISITION.

Boys are required to be punctual at school.

To scrape their feet on the scraper, and to wipe them on every mat they pass over on their way to the hall.

To hang their hats, caps, coats, &c., on the hooks appropriated to them respectively, by loops prepared for the purpose.

To bow gracefully and respectfully on entering and leaving the hall, and any recitation room when a teacher is present.

To take their places on entering the hall.

To make no unnecessary noise within the walls of the building, at any time of night or day.

To keep their persons, clothes, and shoes clean.

To carry and bring their books for study, in a satchel.

To quit the neighborhood of the school in a quiet and orderly manner, immediately after dismissal.

To bring notes for absence, dated, and signed by persons authorized to do so, and stating the duration of the absence; also, notes for tardiness, and for occasions when pupils are wanted at home before the regular hour of dismissal.

To study lessons at home, except when inconvenient to the family—in such cases to bring a certificate of the fact in writing.

To present a pen by the feather end; a knife, by its handle; a book, the right side upward to be read by the person receiving it.

To bow on presenting or receiving any thing.

To stand while speaking to a teacher.

To keep all books clean, and the contents of desks neatly arranged.

To deposit in desks all books (except writing books,) slates, pencils, rulers, &c., before dismissal.

To give notice through the school Post Office, of all books, slates, &c., missing.

To pick up hats, caps, coats, pens, slips, books, &c., found on the floor, and put them in their appropriate places.

To replace lost keys, books, &c., belonging to the school, and make good all damage done by them.

To write all requests on their slates, and wait until called.

To close desks and fasten them before quitting school for the session.

To raise the hand as a request to speak across the hall or any recitation room.

To show two fingers when a pen is wanted.

To put all refuse paper, stumps of pens, &c., in the dust box.

To be accountable for the condition of the floor nearest their own seats.

To fill all vacant time with ciphering, as a general occupation; and to give notice to the teacher, before dismissal, in case of omitting the exercise wholly on any day.

To be particularly vigilant, when no teacher is in the hall.

To promote as far as possible, the happiness, comfort, and improvement of others.

To follow every class-mate while reading, and correct all errors discoverer in pronunciation, emphasis, or inflection.

To point the fore finger of the left hand, at each letter or figure of the slip of copy, while writing, and the feather of the pen towards the right shoulder.

To keep the writing book square in front.

To rest the body on the left arm, while spelling, and keep the eye directed towards their own slates.

To sit erectly against the back of the chairs, during the singing lessons, and to direct their attention to the instructor.

Transferrers to show reports finished as early in the week as 3 o'clock on Tuesday, P. M.

PROHIBITIONS.

Boys are forbidden to buy or sell, borrow or lend, give, take, or exchange, any thing, except fruit or other eatables, without the teacher's permission.

To read any book in school except such as contain the reading lesson of his class.

To have in his possession at school any book without the teacher's knowledge.

To throw pens, paper, or any thing whatever on the floor, or out at a window or door.

To go out to play with his class when he has had a *deviation*.

To spit on the floor.

To climb on any fence, railing, ladder, &c., about the school-house.

To scrawl on, blot, or mark slips.

To mark, cut, scratch, chalk, or otherwise disfigure, injure, or defile, any portion of the building or any thing connected with it.

To take out an inkstand, meddle with the contents of another's desk, or unnecessarily open or shut his own.

To write without using a card and wiper.

To quit school without having finished his copy.

To use a knife, except on the conditions prescribed.

To remove class lists from their depositories.

To meddle with ink unnecessarily.

To study *home* lessons in school hours.

To leave the hall at any time without leave.

To pass noisily, or upon the run, from one room to another, or through the entries.

To visit the office, furnace room, or any closet or teacher's room, except in class, without a written *permit*.

To play at *paw paw* any where, or any game within the building.

To play in the play-ground before school.

To leave whitelings or other rubbish in the play-ground, on the side-walk, or around the building.

To go out of the play-ground in school hours.

To carry out his pen on his ear.

To use any profane or indelicate language.

To nick-name any person.

To press his knees, in sitting, against a form.

To leave his seat for any purpose, but to receive class instruction.

To go home, when deficient, without having answered to his name.

To indulge in eating or drinking in school.

To go out in class, after having been out singly; or going out singly, to linger below to play.

To waste school hours by unnecessary talking, laughing, playing, idling, standing up, turning round, teasing, or otherwise calling off the attention of another boy.

To throw stones, snow-balls, or other missiles about the neighborhood of the school.

To bring bats, *hockey* sticks, bows and arrows, or other dangerous play-things to school.

To visit a privy in company with any one.

To strike, kick, push, or otherwise annoy his associates or others.

In fine, to do any thing that the law of love forbids—that law which requires us to do to others as we would think it right that they should do to us.

These regulations are not stated according to their relative importance, but as they have been adopted or called to mind. They are intended to meet general circumstances, but may be waived in cases of necessity, by special permission, obtained in the prescribed mode.

DEDICATORY EXERCISES.

The opening of a new school-house is an occasion which well deserves a public and joyful commemoration. Out of it are to be the issues of life to the community in the midst of which it stands, and like the river seen in the vision of the prophet, which nourished all along its banks trees whose leaves were for the healing of the nations, the well-spring of all its influences should be a spot consecrated by religion. In prayer, and in praise to the Giver of all good, and the Author of all being,—in song, and hymn and anthem, and in addresses, from those whose position in society will command the highest respect for any object in whose behalf they may speak, and in the presence of all classes of the community, of pupils, and teachers, of fathers and mothers, of the old and young,—the school-house should be set apart to the sacred purpose of the physical, intellectual and moral culture of the children who will be gathered within its walls. We rejoice to see that these occasions are thus improved, and that so many of our most distinguished teachers, scholars and statesmen take part in the exercises. We have before us a large number of addresses, at once eloquent and practical, which have been delivered at the opening of new school-houses, and we shall select a few, not for their superiority to the rest, but as specimens of the manner in which topics appropriate to the occasion are introduced, and as fitting testimony to the importance of SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

SCHOOL CELEBRATION AT SALEM, MASS.

On the first of March, 1842, the occasion of occupying several new school-houses, was marked by a variety of interesting exercises, an account of which will be found in the Common School Journal for that year. We copy the addresses of Mr. George B. Emerson, and of G. F. Thayer.

Mr. Emerson said,—

“I congratulate you, my young friends, on this happy event. This pleasant day is like a smile of Heaven upon this occasion; and I believe Heaven always smiles on events like this. Many of us whom you see here have come from a distance, on the invitation of your excellent friend the Mayor, to show the interest which we feel in you, and in what has been done here for your improvement. We have taken great pleasure in looking over the buildings prepared for your use, the admirable arrangements and apparatus, so much superior to what is usually enjoyed by children in your position. We have been pleased to hear of the faithful teachers that are provided for you, and the excellent plan of your studies, and the excellent regulations.

Your fathers and friends have spared no pains to furnish you with all the best means and opportunities for learning. They now look to you to do your part. All that they have done will be of no avail, unless you are excited to exert yourselves,—to prove yourselves worthy of these great advantages.

I was gratified, in looking over the regulations, to see the course marked out for you,—to see the stress laid upon the great substantial of a good education,—to see the prominent place given to that most useful art, that

most graceful accomplishment, *reading*. You cannot, my young friends, realize the great and manifold advantages of gaining, now, in the beginning of your life, familiarly and perfectly, the single power of reading distinctly, naturally, intelligently, with taste and interest,—and of acquiring a *love* for reading. There is no situation in life, in which it will not prove to you a source of the purest pleasure and highest improvement.

For many years, and many times in a year, I have passed by the shop of a diligent, industrious mechanic, whom I have often seen busy at his trade, with his arms bare, hard at work. His industry and steadiness have been successful, and he has gained a competency. But he still remains wisely devoted to his trade. During the day, you may see him at his work, or chatting with his neighbors. At night, he sits down in his parlor, by his quiet fireside, and enjoys the company of his friends. And he has the most extraordinary collection of friends that any man in New England can boast of. William H. Prescott goes out from Boston, and talks with him about Ferdinand and Isabella. Washington Irving comes from New York, and tells him the story of the wars of Grenada, and the adventurous voyage of Columbus, or the Legend of Sleepy Hollow, or the tale of the Broken Heart. George Bancroft sits down with him, and points out on a map, the colonies and settlements of America, their circumstances and fates, and gives him the early history of liberty. Jared Sparks comes down from Cambridge, and reads to him the letters of Washington, and makes his heart glow with the heroic deeds of that god-like man for the cause of his country. Or, if he is in the mood for poetry, his neighbor Washington Allston, the great painter, steps in and tells him a story,—and nobody tells a story so well,—or repeats to him lines of poetry. Bryant comes, with his sweet wood-notes, which he learnt among the green hills of Berkshire. And Richard H. Dana, father and son, come, the one to repeat grave, heart-stirring poetry, the other to speak of his *two years before the mast*. Or, if this mechanic is in a speculative mood, Professor Hitchcock comes to talk to him of all the changes that have befallen the soil of Massachusetts, since the flood and before; or Professor Espy tries to show him how to predict a storm. Nor is his acquaintance confined to his own country. In his graver hours, he sends for Sir John Herschel from across the ocean, and he comes and sits down and discourses eloquently upon the wonders of the vast creation,—of all the worlds that are poured upon our sight by the glory of a starry night. Nor is it across the stormy ocean of blue waves alone that his friends come to visit him; but across the darker and wider ocean of time, come the wise and the good, the eloquent and the witty, and sit down by his table, and discourse with him as long as he wishes to listen. That eloquent blind old man of Scio, with beard descending to his girdle, still blind, but still eloquent, sits down with him; and, as he sang almost three thousand years ago among the Grecian isles, sings the war of Troy or the wanderings of the sage Ulysses. The poet of the human heart comes from the banks of Avon, and the poet of Paradise from his small garden-house in Westminster; Burns from his cottage on the Ayr, and Scott from his dwelling by the Tweed;—and, any time these three years past, may have been seen by his fireside a man who ought to be a hero with school-boys, for no one ever so felt for them; a man whom so many of your neighbors in Boston lately strove in vain to see,—Charles Dickens. In the midst of such friends, our friend the leather-dresser lives a happy and respected life, not less respected, and far more happy, than if an uneasy ambition had made him a representative in Congress, or a governor of a State; and the more respected and happy that he disdains not to labor daily in his honorable calling.

My young friends, this is no fancy sketch. Many who hear me know as well as I do, Thomas Dowse, the leather-dresser of Cambridgeport,

and many have seen his choice and beautiful library. But I suppose there is no one here who knows a neighbor of his, who had in his early years the same advantages, but who did not improve them ;—who never gained this love of reading, and who now, in consequence, instead of living this happy and desirable life, wastes his evenings in low company at taverns, or dozes them away by his own fire. Which of these lives will you choose to lead ? They are both before you.

Some of you, perhaps, are looking forward to the life of a farmer,—a very happy life, if it be well spent. On the southern side of a gently sloping hill in Natick, not far from the place where may be still standing the last wigwam of the tribe of Indians of that name, in a comfortable farm-house, lives a man whom I sometimes go to see. I find him with his farmer's frock on, sometimes at the plough-tail, sometimes handling the hoe or the axe ; and I never shake his hand, hardened by honorable toil, without wishing that I could harden my own poor hands by his side in the same respectable employment. I go out to look with him at trees, and to talk about them ; for he is a lover of trees, and so am I ; and he is not unwilling, when I come, to leave his work for a stroll in the woods. He long ago learnt the language of plants, and they have told him their history and their uses. He, again, is a reader, and has collected about him a set of friends, not so numerous as our friend Dowse, nor of just the same character, but a goodly number of very entertaining and instructive ones ; and he finds time every day to enjoy their company. His winter evenings he spends with them, and in repeating experiments which the chemists and philosophers have made. He leads a happy life. Time never hangs heavy on his hands. For such a man we have an involuntary respect.

On the other side of Boston, down by the coast, lived, a few years ago, a farmer of a far different character. He had been what is called fortunate in business, and had a beautiful farm and garden in the country, and a house in town. Chancing to pass by his place, some four or five years ago, I stopped to see him. And I could not but congratulate him on having so delightful a place to spend his summers in. But he frankly confessed that he was heartily tired of it, and that he longed to go back to Boston. I found that he knew nothing about his trees, of which he had many fine ones,—for it was an old place he had bought,—nor of the plants in his garden. He had no books, and no taste for them. His time hung like a burden on him. He enjoyed neither his leisure nor his wealth. It would have been a blessing to him if he could have been obliged to exchange places with his hired men, and dig in his garden for his gardener, or plough the field for his ploughman. He went from country to town and from town to country, and died, at last, weary and sick of life. Yet he was a kind man, and might have been a happy one but for a single misfortune ; he had not learned to enjoy reading. The love of reading is a blessing in any pursuit, in any course of life ;—not less to the merchant and sailor than to the mechanic and farmer. What was it but a love of reading which made of a merchant's apprentice, a man whom many of you have seen and all have heard of, the truly great and learned Bowditch ?

Our friends the young ladies may not think this which I have said exactly suited to them. But to you, my young friends, even more than to your brothers, it is important now to acquire a talent for reading well, and a taste for reading. I say *more important*, for, looking forward to the future, you will need it more than they. They are more independent of this resource. They have their shops, and farms, and counting-houses to go to. They are daily on change. They go abroad on the ocean. The sphere of woman, her place of honor, is home, her own fireside, the cares of her own family. A well-educated woman is a sun in this sphere,

shedding around her the light of intelligence, the warmth of love and happiness.

And by a well-educated woman I do not mean merely one who has acquired ancient and foreign languages, or curious or striking accomplishments. I mean a woman who, having left school with a firmly-fixed love of reading, has employed the golden leisure of her youth in reading the best English books, such as shall prepare her for her duties. All the best books ever written are in English, either original or translated; and in this richest and best literature of the world she may find enough to prepare her for all the duties and relations of life. The mere talent of reading well, simply, gracefully,—what a beautiful accomplishment it is in woman! How many weary and otherwise heavy hours have I had charmed into pleasure by this talent in a female friend. But I speak of the higher acquisition, the natural and usual consequence of this, a taste for reading. This will give a woman a world of resources.

It gives her the oracles of God. These will be ever near her;—nearest to her hand when she wakes, and last from her hand when she retires to sleep. And what stores of wisdom, for this world and for a higher, will she gain from this volume! This will enable her to form her own character and the hearts of her children. Almost every distinguished man has confessed his obligations to his mother. To her is committed the whole formation of the character,—mind, heart, and body, at the most important period of life. How necessary, then, is it that she should possess a knowledge of the laws of the body and the mind! and how can she get it but by reading? If you gain only this, what an unspeakable blessing will your education be to you!

I need not, my young friends, speak of the other acquisitions you may make,—of writing, which places friends in the remotest parts of the world side by side,—or of calculation, the very basis of justice and honesty.

The acquisitions you may make will depend chiefly on yourselves. You will find your teachers ready to lead you on to higher studies whenever you are prepared to go.

These excellent establishments are emphatically yours. They are raised for your good; and, as we your seniors pass away,—and in a few years we shall have passed,—these buildings will become your property, and your children will fill the seats you now occupy. Consider them yours, then, to enjoy and profit by, but not yours to waste. Let it be your pride to preserve them uninjured, unmarred by the mischievous knives and pencils of vulgar children. Unite for this purpose. Consider an injury done to these buildings as an injury done to yourselves.

There is another thing which will depend on you, of more importance than any I have spoken of. I mean the tone of character which shall prevail in these schools. Your teachers will be happy to treat you as high-minded and generous children. Show that you can be so treated; that you are such.

Let me congratulate you upon the happy auspices of the name of him under whom, with the zealous co-operation of enlightened and patriotic associates, this momentous change in your school system has been effected,—a name which is borne by the oldest and best school in New Hampshire, and by one of the oldest and best in Massachusetts. It will depend upon you, my friends, to make the schools of Salem, equally, or still more distinguished, among those of the State."

Mr. Thayer said,—

Children: I did not expect that I should have the privilege of addressing you, on this most joyful occasion; for it was not till I met your respected Mayor, an hour ago, at the beautiful school-house we have just

left, that I received an invitation to do so. You will not, therefore, anticipate a studied discourse, or any thing particularly interesting. Devoted, however, as my life is, and has long been, to the instruction and guidance of the young in no inconsiderable numbers, I shall, without further preface, imagine myself in the midst of my own school, and talk familiarly to you as I would, and do, to them.

And allow me to add my congratulations to those of your other friends, for the ample, beautiful, and convenient arrangements that have been made for you, in the school-houses of this city; and especially in the new one we have just examined. I can assure you, it is superior in almost every respect to any public school-house in New England, if not in the United States. It, with others in the city, has cost your fathers and friends a great deal of money, which they have cheerfully expended as a means of making you wise and good. But you have incurred a great debt to them, which you can never repay while you are children, but must endeavor to do it to your children, when you shall become men and women, and take the place of your parents in the world. But before that period, you can do something. Now, immediately on entering upon the enjoyment of the precious privileges extended to you, you can acknowledge the debt, evince the gratitude you feel, not by *words*, but *deeds*;—by, (to use an expression well understood by all children,) ‘*being good.*’ Yes,—by ‘*being good and doing good*;’—by obedience to parents and teachers; by kindness to brothers and sisters, and all your young friends and companions; by fidelity in duty, at home and at school; by the practice of honesty and truth at all times; by refraining from the use of profane and indecent language; by keeping the mind and heart free from every thing impure. These are the means in your own hands. Fail not to use them; and although they will in fact be merely an acknowledgment of your obligation for the boon you possess, your friends will consider themselves well repaid for all they have done for you. It is from such conduct that the teacher’s, as well as the father’s, richest reward and highest satisfaction are derived. To see the beloved objects of our care and instruction appreciating our labors, and improving in all that is good and useful, under our management, affords the greatest happiness, lightens the heavy load of toil, relieves the aching head, and revives the fainting spirit.

There is, however, one great danger to which you,—to which all the young,—are especially exposed. I mean the influence of bad example. Example is omnipotent. Its force is irresistible to most minds. We are all swayed more or less, by others. Others are swayed by us. And this process is continually going on, even though we are entirely unconscious of it ourselves. Hence we see the importance of choosing good companions, and flying from the bad. Unless this is done, it will be in vain for your friends to give you wise counsel, or for you to form good resolutions. ‘Who can touch pitch and be clean?’ You will resemble those with whom you associate. You will catch their words, their manners, their habits. Are they pure, you will be pure. Are they depraved, they will corrupt you. Be it a rule with you, then, to avoid those who are addicted to practices that you would be unwilling your most respected friends should know, and regulate your own conduct by the same standard.

I would particularly caution you against *beginnings*. It is the *first step* that is the dangerous one; since it is obvious that, if you were to ascend the highest mountain, it could only be done by a step at a time, and if the first were not taken, the summit could never be reached. But, one successfully accomplished, the next follows as a matter of course. And equally and fatally sure is the *downward* track to crime and misery! If we suffer ourselves to be drawn in *that* direction, what human power can

save us from destruction? This danger, too, is increased by the feeling of security we indulge, when we say, 'It is only a *little* thing; we shall never commit any great fault;'—not remembering that nothing stands still in life, in character, any more than in the material universe. We must be going forward or backward; up, towards improvement and glory,—or down, towards infamy and woe! Every thing accumulates, according to its kind; though it begins small, like the snowball you hold in your hand, it becomes, as you roll it on the ground before you, larger at every revolution, till, at last, it is beyond your power to move it at all.

I will illustrate this by a sad case which has recently occurred in Boston. But first, I wish to interest you in something of an agreeable nature, in connection with the faithful performance of duty.

I have spoken of some things that you should do, to show your sense of the benefits which have been conferred upon you, and I should like to dwell on each one of them separately; but I shall have time only to speak of one. It is, however, among the most important. I allude to *speaking the truth*,—the most substantial foundation of moral character. It has innumerable advantages, one of which is strikingly exhibited in the following story:—

Petrarch, an eminent Italian poet, who lived about five hundred years ago, secured the confidence and friendship of Cardinal Colonna, in whose family he resided in his youth, by his candor and strict regard to truth.

A violent quarrel had occurred in the family of this nobleman, which was carried so far, that resort was had to arms. The cardinal wished to know the foundation of the affair; and, calling all his people before him, he required each one to bind himself by a solemn oath, on the Gospels, to declare the whole truth. None were exempt. Even the cardinal's brother submitted to it. Petrarch, in his turn, presenting himself to take the oath, the cardinal closed the book, and said, '*As for you, Petrarch, your word is sufficient!*'

What more delightful reward could have been presented to the feelings of the noble youth than this, from his friend, his master, and one of the highest dignitaries of the church? Nothing but the peaceful whispers of his own conscience, or the approbation of his Maker, could have given him more heart-felt satisfaction. Who among you would not be a Petrarch? and, in this respect, which of you could not?

While, then, I would hold up for imitation this beautiful example, I would present a contrast as a warning to you.

There is now confined in the Boston jail a boy of fourteen years of age, who, for the previous six years, had been sinking deeper and deeper into vice and crime, until last October, when he was convicted, and sentenced to two years' confinement within the cold damp cell of a gloomy prison, for aggravated theft. In his own written account of his life, which I have seen, he says that he began his wretched course by playing truant from school. His second step was *lying*, to conceal it. Idle, and destitute of any fixed purpose, he fell in company with others, guilty like himself, of whom he learned to steal, and to use indecent and profane language. He sought the worst boys he could find. He became a gambler, a frequenter of the circus and the theatre, and engaged in various other corrupt and sinful practices. At length, becoming bold in his dishonesty, he robbed the post-office of letters containing very considerable sums of money, and was soon detected and condemned. If you were to visit that abode of misery, you might often see the boy's broken-hearted mother, weeping, and sobbing, and groaning, at the iron grating of his solitary cell, as if she would sink on the flinty floor, and die! 'And all this,' (to use the boy's own words,) 'comes from playing truant!'

Look, then, my young friends, on these two pictures,—both taken from life.—and tell me which you like best; and which of the two characters

you propose to imitate. Will you be young Petrarchs, or will you adopt the course of the unfortunate boy in Boston jail? They are both before you. If you would be like the former, *begin right*. Resist temptation to wrong-doing, with all your might. Let no one entice you from the way which conscience points out.

DEDICATION OF THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL IN CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

After appropriate introductory addresses by the School Committee and Mayor of Cambridge, Hon. Edward Everett, President of Harvard College, responded to an invitation to address the audience, as follows:—

May it please your Honor:—

Connected as I am with another place of education, of a kind which is commonly regarded as of a higher order, it is precisely in that connection, that I learn to feel and appreciate the importance of good schools. I am not so ignorant of the history of our fathers, as not to know, that the spirit, which founded and fostered Harvard College, is the spirit which has founded and upheld and will continue to support and cherish the schools of New England. I know well, sir, that Universities and Colleges can neither flourish nor even stand alone. You might as well attempt to build your second and third stories in the air, without a first floor or a basement, as to have collegiate institutions without good schools for preparatory education, and for the diffusion of general information throughout the community. If the day should ever come, which I do not fear in our beloved country, when this general education shall be neglected and these preparatory institutions allowed to perish;—if the day should ever come (of which I have no apprehension) when the schools of New England shall go down, depend upon it, sir, the colleges will go with them. It will be with them, as it was with the granite warehouses, the day before yesterday in Federal street, in Boston; if the piers at the foundation give way, the upper stories will come down in one undistinguished ruin.

I anticipate no such disaster, Mr. Mayor, though it must be admitted that we live in an age of revolutions, of which every steamer brings us some fresh and astonishing account. But our revolutions are of a more auspicious character, and it occurred to me as I was coming down with your worthy associate (Mr. Whitney,) and your respected predecessor (Mr. Green,) to whom we have just listened with so much pleasure, that we were traversing a region, in which a more important revolution commenced no very long time since, and is still in progress,—far more important for us and our children,—than any of those which have lately convulsed the continent of Europe. I do not now refer to the great political and historical events of which this neighborhood was the theatre; of which the monuments are in sight from these windows, but to a revolution quiet and silent in its origin and progress, unostentatious in outward manifestations, but imparting greater change and warranting brighter hopes for most of those who hear me,—for our young friends before us,—than any of the most startling events that stare upon us in capitals in the columns of the newspapers, after every arrival from Europe. The Reverend Mr. Stearns has beautifully sketched some of the most important features of this peaceful revolution.

When I entered college, Mr. Mayor, (and I believe I shall not tell the audience quite how many years ago that is; you can do it, sir, but I will thank you not to,) there were a few straggling houses, shops, and taverns along the Main street at Cambridgeport. All back of this street to the north, and I believe almost all south of it to the river,—the entire district,

in the centre of which we are now assembled, was in a state of nature; pretty equally divided between barren pasturage, salt-marsh, and what I must admit had no mean attraction for us freshmen, whortleberry swamp. Not one of the high roads had been cut, which now traverse the plain between Main street and the old road to Charlestown. East Cambridge did not exist even in the surveyor's imagination. There was not a church nor a public school east of Dr. Holmes' and Old Cambridge Common; and if any one had prophesied that within forty years a population like this would cover the soil,—with its streets and houses, and gardens, its numerous school-houses and churches, its conservatories breathing all the sweets of the tropics, its private libraries equal to the choicest in the land, and all the other appendages of a high civilization, he would have been set down as a visionary indeed. But this change, this revolution has taken place even within the life time of the venerable lady (Mrs. Merriam) introduced to us in such a pleasing manner by Mr. Stearns; and we are assembled this morning to take a respectful notice of what may be called its crowning incident, the opening of a High School in that primitive whortleberry swamp. I believe I do not over-state matters when I say, that no more important event than this is likely to occur, in the course of the lives of many of those here assembled. As far as our interests are concerned, all the revolutions in Europe multiplied tenfold are nothing to it. No, sir, not if the north were again to pour forth its myriads on central and southern Europe and break up the existing governments and states into one general wreck, it would not be an article of intelligence at all so important to us as the opening of a new school. No, my young friends, this is a day which may give an auspicious turn to your whole career in life; may affect your best interests not merely for time but for eternity.

There is certainly nothing in which the rapid progress of the country is more distinctly marked than its schools. It is not merely their multiplication in numbers, but their improvement as places of education. A school forty years ago was a very different affair from what it is now. The meaning of the word is changed. A little reading, writing, and ciphering, a very little grammar; and for those destined for college, a little Latin and Greek, very indifferently taught, were all we got at a common town school in my day. The range was narrow; the instruction superficial. In our modern school system, taking it as a whole composed of its several parts in due gradation,—viz. the primary, the district, and the High School,—the fortunate pupil not only enjoys a very thorough course of instruction in the elementary branches, but gets a good foundation in French, a good preparation for college, if he desires it, according to the present advanced standard of requirement; a general acquaintance with the applied mathematics, the elements of natural philosophy, some suitable information as to the form of government and political system under which we live, and no inconsiderable practice in the noble arts of writing and speaking our mother tongue.

It might seem, at first, that this is too wide a circle for a school. But the experience of our well conducted schools has abundantly shown that it is not too extensive. With faithful and competent teachers and willing and hearty learners, all the branches I have named and others I have passed over can be attended to with advantage, between the ages of four and sixteen.

Such being the case, our School Committees have done no more than their duty, in prescribing this extensive course and furnishing to master and pupils the means of pursuing it. I cannot tell you, sir, how much I have been gratified at hastily looking into the alcove behind us. As I stepped into it this morning, Mr. Smith, the intelligent master of the school, pointed out to me the beautiful electrical machine behind the door

with the just remark that my venerable predecessor, President Dunster, would not have known what it was. No, sir, nor would the most eminent philosopher in the world before the time of Franklin. Lord Bacon would not have known what it was, nor Sir Isaac Newton. Mr. Smith reminded me of the notion of Cotton Mather (one of the most learned men of his day,) that lightning proceeded from the Prince of the Power of the Air, by which he accounted for the fact that it was so apt to strike the spires of churches. Cotton Mather would have come nearer the truth, if he had called it a shining manifestation of the power and skill, by which the Great Author of the Universe works out some of the mighty miracles of creation and nature. And only think, sir, that these newly discovered mysteries of the material world, unknown to the profoundest sages of elder days, are so effectually brought down to the reach of common schools in our day, that these young friends, before they are finally dismissed from these walls, will be made acquainted with not a few of the wonderful properties of the subtle element, evolved and condensed by that machine, and which recent science has taught to be but different forms of one principle, whether it flame across the heavens in the midnight storm, or guide the mariner across the pathless ocean;—or leap from city to city across the continent as swiftly as the thought of which it is the vehicle; and which I almost venture to predict, before some here present shall taste of death, will, by some still more sublime generalization, be identified with the yet hidden principle which thrills through the nerves of animated beings, and binds life to matter, by the ties of sensation.

But while you do well, sir, in your High School to make provision for these advanced studies, I know that as long as it remains under your instruction, the plain elementary branches will not be undervalued. There is perhaps a tendency in that direction in some of our modern schools: I venture to hope it will not be encouraged here. I know it is not to be the province of this school to teach the elements; but I am sure you will show that you entertain sound views of their importance. I hold, sir, that to read the English language well, that is with intelligence, feeling, spirit, and effect;—to write with dispatch, a neat, handsome, legible hand, (for it is after all, a great object in writing to have others able to read what you write,) and to be master of the four rules of arithmetic, so as to dispose at once with accuracy of every question of figures which comes up in practical life:—I say I call this a good education; and if you add the ability to write pure grammatical English, with the help of very few hard words, I regard it as an excellent education. These are the tools; you can do much with them, but you are helpless without them. They are the foundation; and unless you begin with these, all your flashy attainments, a little natural philosophy, and a little mental philosophy, a little physiology and a little geology, and all the other *ologies and osophies*, are but ostentatious rubbish.

There is certainly no country in the world in which so much money is paid for schooling as in ours. This can be proved by figures. I believe there is no country where the common schools are so good. But they may be improved. It is not enough to erect commodious school-houses; or compensate able teachers, and then leave them, masters and pupils, to themselves. A school is not a clock which you can wind up and then leave it to go of itself. It is an organized living body: it has sensibilities; it craves sympathy. You must not leave the School Committee to do all the work. Your teachers want the active countenance of the whole body of parents, of the whole intelligent community. I am sure you, Mr. Smith, would gladly put up with a little injudicious interference in single cases, if you could have the active sympathies of the whole body of parents to fall back upon in delicate and difficult cases, and to support and cheer you under the burthen of your labors, from day to day. I think

this matter deserves more attention than it has received ; and if so small a number as thirty parents would agree together, to come to the school, some one of them, each in his turn, but once a month, or rather if but 25 or 26 would do it, it would give your teacher the support and countenance of a parent's presence every day ; at a cost to each individual of ten or eleven days in the year. Would not the good to be effected be worth the sacrifice ?

I have already spoken too long, Mr. Mayor, and will allude to but one other topic. In most things, as I have said, connected with education, we are incalculably in advance of other days :—in some, perhaps, we have fallen below their standard. I know, sir, old men are apt to make unfavorable contrasts between the present time and the past ; and if I do not soon begin to place myself in that class, others will do it for me. But I really think that in some things, belonging, perhaps, it will be thought, to the minor morals, the present promising generation of youth might learn something of their grandfathers, if not their fathers. When I first went to a village school, sir, I remember it as yesterday ;—I seem still to hold by one hand for protection, (I was of the valiant age of three years) to an elder sister's apron ;—with the other I grasped my primer, a volume of about two and a half inches in length, which formed then the sum total of my library, and which had lost the blue paper cover from one corner, (my first misfortune in life ;) I say it was the practice then, as we were trudging along to school, to draw up by the road-side, if a traveller, a stranger, or a person in years, passed along, "and make our manners," as it was called. The little girls courtesied, the boys made a bow ; it was not done with much grace, I suppose : but there was a civility and decency about it, which did the children good, and produced a pleasing impression on those who witnessed it. The age of village chivalry is past, never to return. These manners belong to a forgotten order of things. They are too precise and rigorous for this enlightened age. I sometimes fear the pendulum has swung too far in the opposite extreme. Last winter I was driving into town in a carriage closed behind, but open in front. There was in company with me, the Rev. President Woods, of Bowdoin College, Maine, and that distinguished philanthropist and excellent citizen, Mr. Amos Lawrence. Well, sir, we happened to pass a school-house, just as the boys (to use the common expression) were "let out." I suppose the little men had just been taught within doors something about the laws, which regulate the course of projectiles, and determine the curves in which they move. Intent on a practical demonstration, and tempted by the convenient material, I must say they put in motion a quantity of spherical bodies, in the shape of snow balls, which brought the doctrine quite home to us wayfarers, and made it wonderful that we got off with no serious inconvenience, which was happily the case. This I thought was an instance of free and easy manners, verging to the opposite extreme of the old fashioned courtesy, which I have just described. I am quite sure that the boys of this school would be the last to indulge an experiment attended with so much risk to the heads of innocent third persons.

Nothing remains, sir, but to add my best wishes for teachers and pupils ;—You are both commencing under the happiest auspices. When I consider that there is not one of you, my young friends, who does not enjoy gratuitously the opportunity of obtaining a better school education, than we could have bought, Mr. Mayor, when we were boys, with the wealth of the Indies, I cannot but think that each one of you, boys and girls, will be ready to say with grateful hearts, the lines have fallen to me in pleasant places ; yea, I have a goodly heritage.

THE HISTORY OF THE

ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON

FROM ITS INSTITUTION IN 1660

TO THE PRESENT TIME

BY

J. H. BURNETT

ESQ.

OF

THE SOCIETY

AND

OF

THE

ROYAL SOCIETY OF MEDICINE

AND

OF

THE

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS

AND

OF

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Third (for convenience)

FIRST SESSION

OF THE

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION

FOR THE

ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION,

HELD AT

CLEVELAND, OHIO,

August 19th, 20th, 21st, & 22d, A. D. 1851.

PHILADELPHIA:

E. C. & J. BIDDLE, No. 6 SOUTH FIFTH STREET.

1852.


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PROCEEDINGS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

The American Association for the advancement of Education, assembled in the First Presbyterian Church, in the City of Cleveland, on the 19th day of August, 1851, at half-past two o'clock, P. M.

The Association was called to order by the President, the Rt. Rev. ALONZO POTTER, of Pennsylvania.

He remarked that this was the first meeting of the Association. Two National Conventions of the friends of Education had been held in Philadelphia in the two previous years—at the first of which, it was resolved that the Association should be organized; and at the second, the present Constitution was adopted. The first meeting, under this Constitution, takes place now. We have come to the shores of your beautiful lake to inaugurate the Association. It is to be national in its character, and even more, it is to be co-extensive, in its aims and operations, with the North American continent. We witnessed in the conventions at Philadelphia representatives of the cause of Education from both the Canadas. We hope, on future occasions, also to meet gentlemen who come from every section of our own land, and from the dominions on this continent of her Imperial Majesty of England.

By order of the President, the Secretary read the Constitution of the Association, and called the roll.

By invitation, the Rev. Geo. Duffield, D. D., of Detroit, opened the session with prayer.

The President then addressed the Association as follows:

Ladies and Gentlemen,—

It is expected, I understand, that the presiding officer will open this meeting by an Address. It will be seen, by the last article of the Constitution which has just been read, that this duty will properly devolve on me a year from this day, when I shall surrender my office into the hands of my successor. I have accordingly made no adequate preparation for the performance of it now—and if I venture, in obedience to the wish, which has been expressed, to offer a few remarks, I shall have to presume largely on your forbearance. It will be my object to present some hasty thoughts, which, though intended especially for the consideration of my fellow-members of the Association, will not, I trust, prove wholly destitute of interest to others.

The Association which we have ventured to organize—may I not with emphasis say—*ventured?*—since it certainly requires some courage to establish a Society with a title so comprehensive and for objects so vast and important—this Association is not merely *National*—it is as I have already said, *Continental*. It is an *AMERICAN Association for the advancement of Education*. It aspires to embrace within the scope of its unpretending yet ambitious labours, the whole subject of Instruction and training for the rising generation, and it would welcome among its members representatives from all quarters of North America. It would know no barriers between the citizens of our Federal Republic and the subjects on this continent of the Queen of Great Britain. It would know in regard to our own land, no distinctions, no dividing lines between the East and the West, the North and the South. It owns in its humble attempt to do

good, but one country and but one kind. Man as man—in all his high and illimitable capabilities is the subject about whom we propose to counsel together—for whose advancement and elevation we propose to labour.

A period seems to have arrived, in the progress of Education, when every where—but especially in our own land, it becomes all important that its active and earnest friends should have frequent *reunions*—should enjoy opportunities for mutual consultation, for the calm and dispassionate exchange of such opinions as they may have reached through experience or reflection. To give to such reunions their appropriate dignity, and above all to secure their appropriate usefulness, it is evidently desirable that they should combine those who come from every part of our land and who represent Institutions of learning of every class and grade. It is proposed, then, to attain this object by making the meetings of the Association *migratory*. It was cradled near the shores of the Atlantic, in that city which gave birth, seventy-five years ago, to our Declaration of Independence, and where the Constitution which secures our Union was first framed. Would that we could hope, in behalf of the humble Instrument which the Secretary has just read—a career in any degree as steady—as progressive—as rich in blessing to men as a gracious Providence has been pleased to vouchsafe to those Instruments. By meeting at different points in the United States and in the British Provinces, we hope to secure, in our deliberations, an infusion of the best intelligence—of the most enlarged and patriotic enthusiasm—of the most sober practical wisdom which the labours of the last twenty-five years have developed, in connection with the interests of Education, whether Public or Private.

We have met *here* to-day as if to proclaim the *Catholic* character of our Association. Where are we, Ladies and Gentlemen? On the shore of one of those magnificent inland seas which contribute so much to the strength and glory of our whole people. We look towards the South and there is

the vast expanse—teeming with its ever increasing millions of population—which discharges its waters into the Gulf of Mexico. We turn to the North and there roll waters, which at the distance of hundreds of miles, reach the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Trace those same waters up to their source and you come to the territory of the north-west, so rapidly peopling from every part of the earth, and from which as a great hive, multitudes on multitudes are to go forth to the Pacific.

We stand here then, to-day, my friends, in what may be considered as a great moral and social centre. We plant ourselves, here, at the outset of our career as an Association that we may proclaim the *comprehensive and catholic character of our principles*—comprehensive not merely in respect to territory or to civil and political relations, but comprehensive also in respect to *systems*—in respect to *institutions*—in respect to *men*. This is an American Association for the Advancement of Education—for the advancement, permit me to say, of *universal* Education—of education *for* all and *through* all—education for those of every rank and condition in life—and education through every means approved by reason or experience—education, therefore, in all its *stages*, from the humblest rudiments to the highest attainments—from the lowliest seminary for the child to the most exalted college or university for the man. We know here no privileged methods—no proscribed systems or institutions. To every principle and every method we would give a full and impartial hearing. We would judge every thing by its fruits, and as those fruits have approved themselves to the enlightened judgment of the many, or to the well tried sagacity of the few, would we have them stand or fall. It is a mistake to suppose that this Association is interested only in popular and elementary education, that it aims only at the improvement of schools established or fostered by our noble systems of Public Instruction. The education which we desire to promote, is that which lays its deep foundation in the family, and which is carried forward in the common school, the academy, and the college. The

only basis broad enough for our operations, is one broad enough to embrace every seminary and every method which has entitled itself to the confidence and approbation of the wise and good.

But again. In choosing this for our place of meeting, we seem to have proclaimed that the spirit which is to animate this Association shall be *progressive*. Where, my friends, are you sitting? Where do I stand? Fifty years ago, no friend of education, no friend of human improvement came here to plead his cause. No large assembly of civilized or Christian men gathered here in those days to deliberate for the advancement of any good work. Cleveland was then a "forest city" in no such sense as now. Around the spot where we are now met, lay the almost pathless wilderness. The Indian canoe, the Indian wigwam, the hut of the lone trapper or settler, and now and then the distant sail of some small schooner, were the only objects to attest the presence of man. But what do we behold to-day? A state which then contained less than forty thousand souls, numbering now its millions. A town which was then unknown—which was still to be—risen from the bosom of the wilderness, till it contains twice ten thousand inhabitants, and can boast of unsurpassed beauty. Then he who stood in Cleveland felt that he had reached the furthest limit, the outmost borders of civilization. But now, who can put his finger on the map and indicate the extreme western point which has been reached, or shall be reached by the never resting wave of Western emigration? We have come here then, with this Association, that we may announce that they who founded it, did so with hearts beating high and warm with the spirit of *progress*.

But let me add that we have come here, as to an appropriate spot, to announce our further interest in a true and wise *conservatism*. What is this beautiful town? What this mighty commonwealth, this great republic, or this confederation of republics? Is it the creation of the last few years? Is it something that started into being by its own fiat, or has it come down to us as a precious legacy from the past? Does it appear from

history that the United States is a country without an origin, a child without parents? There is no civilization of that kind—there are no blessings of that kind. There is no nation, kindred or people, that can lift up its head to heaven and proclaim its independence of the men and the nations that went before it. We may rather say, with all humility, and with all pride, too, that we are what the past of the world has made us. We boast the energies of the people among whom we live. We can trace them back to our sires and to our fatherlands. Our pledge, our security for the glorious future, which, we trust, is opening before us, is that we sprung from distinguished ancestry, and that our limbs are strong with the moral and political strength that has been breathed into us from generation to generation. We come not ignoring the past then, nor contemning the labors of those who have gone before us in the work of education. When I look to Greece and Rome, and see what was taught in their schools—what the master-pieces that emanated from the hands of their poets and orators, their sculptors and architects, their historians and philosophers, I cannot think that those schools were without merit, or that it becomes us to think or speak of them with disrespect. Be it ours rather to combine the results bequeathed to us by our predecessors, with improvements which shall demonstrate that we are entitled to be named and remembered as their not unworthy sons and heirs.

As the *place* at which we meet is significant and auspicious, so also is the *time*. During this very hour, there are gathered at the capital of a neighboring state which has entitled itself "Empire State," representatives from the SCIENCE of the land. There are our Chemists, our Astronomers, our Naturalists, our Amateur Philosophers, comparing opinions, announcing discoveries, and animating each other to renewed zeal and activity in their noble work. We meet at a point somewhat remote, geographically, yet close at hand in a social and political sense. Ours is a theme no less important to the men of this generation, and more important to those who will come after us. That

theme is at once a *science* and an *art*—a science as it investigates the laws that regulate the normal development of mind—an art as it proposes to apply those laws to the actual culture and improvement of the soul. On such a subject we shall deliberate well and wisely, in proportion as we always recognize the fact that while much has been given to us from the past, much in its speculations and experience, there is still much also to be discovered, and more to be effectually applied. I hold that a perfect system of training and teaching can never be reached till we have first evolved a complete and satisfactory *science of man*. We must understand more perfectly the nature of that wonderfully complex being who is to be reared to the stature of his full and glorious development, before we can be prepared with rules sufficiently precise and comprehensive for the direction of the work. The labours of this Association will be valuable, then, just in proportion as we approach them in the spirit of LEARNERS. If we come, imagining that to us it has been given to discover the last secret in the art and mystery of education, full of the vain-glorious thought that we are to utter the “last words” on the subject, then it needs little sagacity to foresee that we shall soon exemplify the great law that “pride goeth before a fall.” In the whole field of human inquiry there is hardly a subject about which the deliberations of men should be more cautious, and their conclusions more free from dogmatism, than the subject of Education.

There is at this time another Congress in session, which well merits the earnest consideration of civilized men over all the globe, and the assembling of which forms one of those eras that “cast their shadows before.” It is a Congress holding its deliberations in the great metropolis of our father-land, and embodying representations from the INDUSTRY OF THE WORLD. It is more than national or continental. It is cosmopolitan. It collects specimens of all those Arts which are emphatically Arts of Peace, and it lays under contribution the Arts of every civilized nation. Auspicious event! Seeming harbinger that the

time is coming when nations will beat their swords into ploughshares, and learn war no more! Let us see to it that our schools contribute to a consummation so devoutly to be wished. The temple of Janus is now closed. The clangor of arms is hushed and we are permitted to conduct our peaceful deliberations in the midst of a world at peace. Let it not be our fault if this repose of angry passions and bloody strifes is again disturbed. Let the war-spirit be exorcised from our text-books and reading books. Let it be exorcised from our conversation and our influence over youthful and excitable minds. Neither Education, Science nor Industry can flourish to the utmost, where wars and rumors of wars are abroad. In this day, then, of Congresses or Associations, devoted to these great interests, let us see to it, that the bands between Education and Science on the one hand, and Education and the arts of Peace on the other, are drawn closer and closer.

The school house is the proper avenue to improvement in the Industrial arts and to the advancement of Scientific Discovery. How much might not be done, even in the humblest district school, (if it were rightly taught and governed) to awaken that active and undying love for *truth*, which is the surest precursor to Discovery in Science and to Invention in art—which going forth, with the pupil, into life, makes him every where and always a learner—which breathing into him a generous enthusiasm, not only exalts and gladdens all his toils, but ensures that he shall one day be permitted to give to the world some new truth, or to clothe some old one in imagery so beautiful, or in language so fitting, that the world will not willingly let it die.

We now enter upon our deliberations. My friends—members of this Association—let me exhort you to courage—to constancy. The title of our Association—the cause in which we engage—the just demands of our age and land, call upon us to attempt great things. We seem to send forward high promises as a challenge to the coming future. May we not prove unworthy of them. When some ten or twenty years hence the

records of this Association come to be perused, what shall be the story they tell? Shall it be of ignominious failure? Shall this be another specimen of high sounding pretension, followed by weakness and ending in ridiculous defeat? God forbid—but remember, if the history of this Association is to be written—not over its early and inglorious grave—but on a column standing high and bright, it will need your strenuous and persevering support. It will need that you who presided at its birth—who have cheered it thus far, and who are here to-day to install it in full possession of all its powers, should be loyal—loyal to it, and loyal to its legitimate aims and purposes. It will need that the friends of education throughout the country, the professors and presidents of our colleges, and those of every age and sex who are engaged, or who have been engaged in the work of Instruction, shall be brought, through your agency, to its support. If they come not to our help in a work like this—if *they* especially who from their experience and their association with our highest seminaries, exert the most commanding influence, will lend us no aid—then if this effort fails—at their door and at your door we will lay the reproach of that failure.

With regard to those who are here, much will depend on the dignity, the calmness, and the earnestness with which they deliberate. We cannot confer too much; but we may resolve unwisely—we may act hastily. Let us be true to our homely American proverb—“First see that all’s right, and then go ahead.” Too often in this land we maim and mar the maxim. We go ahead first, and then find out that we are wrong. This has been the infirmity of some Associations for the advancement of Education. They have been formed without number; without number they have lingered out a brief and fitful life, and have then expired. They were great in promise, but they were miserable in performance. Let us hope that such is not to be the fate of the little vessel which we launch to-day. Let us labour kindly, wisely, indefatigably to avert it. Let us keep in view the momentous interests which may be promoted or ob-

structed through our instrumentality. With our efforts let our prayers be offered that we may discharge to the full the debt which we owe to the rising generation of our land—to the millions, now children, who in a few years are to become its active and all-powerful inhabitants, and who as parents, teachers, farmers, mechanics, merchants, professional men, are to be invested with a more than imperial sovereignty. In one word, let us be true to ourselves and to Him whose stewards we are, and then whatever may be the result of this experiment, we shall be able to look calmly and trustfully towards the world and towards God, with the assurance that if wrong be done, it is not our work.

On motion of the Hon. Henry Barnard, the following gentlemen were appointed a Committee on Credentials.

Dr. A. L. Bushnell,	- - - - -	Ohio.
William D. Swan,	- - - - -	Massachusetts.
Robert L. Cooke,	- - - - -	New Jersey.
Joseph Cowperthwait,	- - - - -	Pennsylvania.
F. W. Sherman,	- - - - -	Michigan.

On motion of E. C. Biddle, Treasurer of the Association, an Auditing Committee was appointed, to examine and report on the State of the Treasury.

COMMITTEE.

G. F. Thayer,	- - - - -	Boston.
Ira Mayhew,	- - - - -	Michigan.
Rev. G. E. Hare, D. D.,	- -	Pennsylvania.

The Association took a recess of fifteen minutes; after which the Committee on Credentials reported the names of delegates in part.

On motion of William D. Swan,

Resolved, That when the Association adjourns, it be to meet at half-past seven o'clock this evening.

On motion adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association assembled at half-past seven o'clock.

On motion of Joseph Cowperthwait,

Resolved, That when this Association adjourns, it be to meet at nine o'clock to-morrow morning.

The President then announced that the Constitution required the devotion of three evenings during the session of the Association, to the consideration of general topics connected with the subject of Education. In accordance with this provision, the Association would this evening be addressed by Samuel W. Bates, Esq., of Boston, after which the members generally would be at liberty to express their views upon the subject of the Lecture.

Mr. Bates addressed the Association on "The influence of the spirit of the age upon Education."*

The subject was further discussed by Prof. J. H. Agnew, of Michigan. Pres. Mahan, of Cleveland, Prof. William Brand, of Indiana, O. B. Pierce, of New York, Rev. D. Washburn, of Pennsylvania, Thomas Rainey, of Ohio, and Hon. J. R. Giddings, of Ohio.

R. L. Cooke, of Bloomfield, New Jersey, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Constitution be so amended, as to authorize the Standing Committee to fill any vacancy that may occur in their number, during the Annual Session of the Association.

The resolution was laid upon the table.

On motion of G. F. Thayer, adjourned.

*For an abstract of this Lecture, and the succeeding discussion, see Appendix A.

SECOND DAY.

August 20th, 1851.

The Association assembled at 9 o'clock, A. M.

The records of yesterday's proceedings were read and approved.

The Rev. Dr. Hare, of Philadelphia, opened the session with prayer.

The Rev. A. F. Dobb, of La., presented the following Preamble and resolution :

Whereas, The object of this Association is simply the promotion of Education throughout the United States, and delegates from all parts of our common country have been admitted to a participation in its deliberations; *and whereas*, the introduction into its discussion of topics irrelevant to these objects cannot but embarrass its proceedings, and in the end destroy its nationality; therefore,

Resolved, That any gentleman introducing into debate allusions to such irrelevant subjects, shall be considered out of order.

The resolution was laid upon the table.

An invitation was received from Dr. De Lamater, Dean of the Cleveland Medical College, to visit that Institution.

The invitation was accepted.

Dr. Hare, from the Auditing Committee, made the following report.

“The Committee, to whom was referred the Treasurer's account, having examined and compared it with accompanying vouchers, find it correct,—and there remains in the Treasury the sum of one hundred and eighty-five dollars, and five cents.”

The Standing Committee nominated several gentlemen for permanent membership in the Association, who were unanimously elected.*

J. W. Bulkley, of New York, proposed several amendments to the Constitution—which were laid upon the table.

On motion of Prof. Agnew,

Resolved, That the sittings of the Association, hereafter, be from 9 A. M., to 12 M.; from 2½ P. M., to 5½ P. M., and from 7½ to 9½ in the evening.

Mr. Barnard, in behalf of the Standing Committee, reported that they were not prepared, at this stage of the proceedings, to recommend the distribution of the members into Sections.

Mr. Barnard, from the Committee on Educational Systems, reported in part; and by request, the Committee was continued, to make a further report at the next annual meeting.

Mr. O. B. Pierce, from the Committee on the relation of Ignorance to Crime, asked and obtained leave to report at the next annual meeting.

Mr. W. D. Swan, from the Committee on History, and on a School of design for women, reported that it was inexpedient at present to express an opinion upon the subjects submitted to them.

The Committee was discharged.

Mr. T. Rainey, presented the following resolution:

Resolved, That a Committee of three be appointed on Phonetic Alphabets, and that the authors of the different systems be requested to come before the Committee, and explain their different methods.

*For a complete list of permanent members see Appendix G.

After some discussion by C. Gillingham, of Philadelphia, and others, the resolution was laid upon the table.

On motion of Mr. Barnard,

Resolved, That the discussion of the subject of collegiate education, be the order for eleven o'clock, A. M.

On motion of R. L. Cooke, the whole subject of printing was referred to the Standing Committee, with discretionary power.

The Association took a recess of fifteen minutes, after which a letter was read from the Central Rail Road Company, offering tickets to the members of the Association at half fare, and the Treasurer stated that the Camden and Amboy Company would grant the same.

The hour of eleven having arrived, the order of the day was called.

Pres. Mahan, of Cleveland University, read a paper on the subject of the new and the old systems of Collegiate Education.*

On motion, adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Association re-assembled at half past two o'clock, P. M.

The Standing Committee again reported the names of Candidates for permanent membership in the Association, and the gentlemen nominated were unanimously elected.

The subject of Collegiate instruction being in order, by invitation, Prof. Samuel S. Green, of Providence, made detailed statements in reference to the course of studies now pursued in Brown University.

*For the Lecture of Pres. Mahan, and an abstract of the discussion that followed, See Appendix B.

The subject of Collegiate Education was further discussed until the hour of adjournment, by the following gentlemen: Hon. J. B. Sutherland, of Penn; Hon. Samuel Galloway, of Ohio; Prof. J. H. Agnew, of Michigan; Prof. William Brand, of Indiana, and Pres. Mahan, of Ohio.

The hour of half-past five having arrived, the Association adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association convened at half-past seven o'clock.

The discussion of the subject of Collegiate Education was continued by the Rev. Dr. Anderson, of Miami University; Rev. Dr. Duffield, of Detroit; Mr. C. Gillingham, of Pennsylvania; Mr. A. Perry, of R. I., George M. Wharton, Esq., of Philadelphia; Prof. D. Read, of Indiana University; and Rev. Dr. B. Manley, President of the University of Alabama.

On motion of R. L. Cooke,

Resolved, That the discussion of this subject cease to-morrow at eleven o'clock, A. M.

At half-past nine, the Association adjourned.

THIRD DAY.

August 21st, 1851.

The Association assembled at half-past nine o'clock, and the session was opened with prayer by the President.

The Secretary's minutes were read and approved.

On motion of N. Nathans, Esq., of Philadelphia, each speaker was limited to ten minutes in the discussion of the question before the Association.

The discussion was resumed by Dr. Manly, of Alabama, and continued by Mr. G. F. Thayer, of Boston; R. L. Cooke, of N. Jersey; Prof. S. S. Green, of Providence; Dr. Waldo, of Cincinnati; Rev. C. Wilcox, of Ohio; N. Nathans, of Pennsylvania; Prof. C. D. Cleveland, and Hon. J. B. Sutherland of Philadelphia; and O. B. Pierce, of New York.

On motion of the Hon. H. Barnard, the resolution of yesterday, limiting discussions on Collegiate Education to eleven o'clock, A. M., was suspended, for the purpose of hearing the views of the President on the subject.

R. L. Cooke, from the Committee on Credentials, reported additional names of Candidates for permanent membership in the Association, who were unanimously elected.

The report from the Committee on Phonography having been called for, Mr. Wharton, from the Committee, explained, and on his motion, the Committee was discharged.

Mr. Barnard, from the Standing Committee, reported an order of exercises for the remaining sessions of the Association.

The subject of amending the Constitution was discussed by Messrs. Pierce, Rainey, Bulkley, Cleveland, Hare, and Read.

At twelve M. the Association adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

On motion, the article in the Constitution designating the time for holding the annual meeting, was changed so as to read the "*second*," instead of the "*third*," Tuesday in August.

On motion, the time designated in the Constitution for the election of officers, was changed so as to read "*annually*," instead of "at the close of each annual meeting."

The Standing Committee again reported the names of Candidates for permanent membership, all of whom were elected.

On motion, the Election of officers was made the special order for four o'clock, P. M.

Mr. T. Rainey, presented the following resolutions:

Resolved, That in the sense of this Association, the long course of study required in many of the Normal Schools of this country, is inexpedient, and that it is desirable that the term should be so short as to secure the greatest zest of the student and the accommodation of the largest number.

Resolved, That the American Association for the advancement of Education, in view of the scarcity of professional teachers, and of Institutions for their special training, do recommend to the Legislatures of the several States the establishment of Normal Schools for the instruction and preparation of teachers for the responsible duties of their high calling.

After some discussion from Messrs. Rainey, Sawyer, Sutherland, and others, the resolutions were laid on the table for the present.

On motion of E. C. Pomeroy, of Syracuse, New York,

Resolved, That the subject of Collegiate Education be referred to a Committee of six, which shall subdivide itself into two Committees of three each, to report to this Association at its next annual meeting a condensed view of the arguments and facts supporting them, upon each side of the question, whether the plan adopted in Brown University will admit of general application among Institutions of a similar grade.

COMMITTEE.

President Mahan,	- - - - -	Ohio.
President Manly,	- - - - -	Alabama.
Prof. J. H. Agnew,	- - - - -	Michigan.
Hon. H. Barnard,	- - - - -	Connecticut.
Prof. D. Read,	- - - - -	Indiana.
Prof. S. S. Green,	- - - - -	R. Island.

On motion of the Rev. D. Washburn, of Pennsylvania,

The subject of "grades of schools" was sent back to the Committee to whom it had been assigned, with instructions to report at the next annual meeting. Messrs. Washburn and Wickersham were added to the Committee.

The hour fixed for the election of officers having arrived, the Standing Committee recommended the following persons as suitable candidates for the offices attached to their respective names, for the ensuing year, and they were unanimously elected.

PRESIDENT.

RIGHT REV. ALONZO POTTER, of Philadelphia.

Secretary.

ROBERT L. COOKE, of Bloomfield, New Jersey.

Treasurer.

DANIEL S. BEIDEMAN, of Philadelphia.

Standing Committee.

GIDEON F. THAYER,	- - - -	Boston, Mass.
DANIEL READ,	- - - - -	Bloomington, Ind.
LORIN ANDREWS,	- - - - -	Massilon, Ohio.
ELISHA R. POTTER,	- - - -	Kingston, R. I.
J. W. BUCKLEY,	- - - - -	Williamsburg, N. Y.
JOSEPH COWPERTHWAIT,	- - -	Philadelphia.

Prof. Read resigned his place as a member of the Standing Committee, and the Hon. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, was unanimously elected to fill the vacancy.

The Association received invitations from the citizens of Syracuse, Newark, Cincinnati, and Baltimore, to hold the next annual meeting of the Association in their respective cities.

On motion, the invitation from the citizens of Newark, New Jersey, was accepted.

The following gentlemen of Newark were appointed a Local Committee.

Dr. Samuel H. Pennington,
Sidera Chase,
Nathan Hedges,

John Whitehead,
Martin R. Dennis,
Isaiah Peckham.

On motion of R. L. Cooke, of New Jersey,

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be tendered to the inhabitants of the city of Cleveland, for the generous hospitality with which they have greeted the members of the Association,—with the assurance that we shall long cherish with delight, the memory of our short sojourn in their beautiful “Forest City.”

On motion of Prof. Agnew, a vote of thanks was tendered to the officers of the First Presbyterian Church, in this city, the Trustees and Faculty of the Cleveland Medical College, the Local Committee, and to such Steamboat and Rail Road Companies, as have afforded facilities to the members attending this Association.

On motion, the Association adjourned at five o'clock.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association re-assembled at half-past seven o'clock.

By invitation, Prof. Agnew delivered a lecture on “Woman’s Offices and Influence.”*

Remarks on female education were made by Bishop Potter, Dr. Lambert, R. L. Cooke, and S. P. Wickersham.

*For Prof. Agnew’s address, and the discussion that followed, see Appendix C.

The time for adjournment having arrived, on motion of Mr. O. B. Pierce, the time was extended to ten o'clock.

The discussion was continued by Hon. B. Storer, Prof. D. Read, W. S. Baker, G. M. Wharton, Esq., O. B. Pierce, and Hon. H. Barnard.

At ten o'clock the Association adjourned till to-morrow morning at eight o'clock.

FOURTH DAY.

August 22nd, 1851.

The Association assembled at eight o'clock, pursuant to adjournment.

The President opened the session with prayer.

The record of yesterday's proceedings were read and approved.

On motion of R. L. Cooke,

Resolved, That the subject of female education;—its defects, its difficulties, and its necessities, be referred to a Committee of three, to report at the next annual meeting of the Association.

COMMITTEE.

R. L. Cooke,	- - - - -	New Jersey.
C. D. Cleveland,	- - - - -	Pennsylvania.
E. Hosmer,	- - - - -	Ohio.

The States were then called, and statements* in reference to the present state of Education made by Dr. Asa D. Lord, of Ohio; Hon. E. R. Potter, of R. Island; G. M. Wharton, Esq., Bishop Potter, and E. C. Biddle, Esq., of Penn.; Hon. H. Barnard, of Conn.; G. F. Thayer, of Mass.; Hon. Ira Mayhew, of

* For some of these statements, see Appendix F.

Mich.; R. L. Cooke, of N. J.; J. W. Bulkley, Ira Patchin, and O. B. Pierce, of N. York.

Prof. Agnew made some statements in relation to the University of Michigan.

On motion of Mr. Barnard,

Resolved, That four o'clock, P. M., be the hour for final adjournment.

On motion of O. B. Pierce,

Resolved, That the hour for commencing the afternoon session, be two o'clock, instead of half-past two.

On motion of James Johonnot, of Syracuse, the subject of School Libraries was called.

Remarks were made by Messrs. Johonnot, Read, Patchin, Baker, and Andrews.

On motion, a Committee of three was appointed to report on School District Libraries, at the next annual meeting of the Association.

COMMITTEE.

Hon. E. R. Potter,	- - - - -	Rhode Island.
Prof. D. Read,	- - - - -	Indiana.
Ira Patchin,	- - - - -	New York.

On motion of T. Rainey,

Resolved, That a Committee of three be appointed to report on the nature and necessity of Normal Schools, and the character and general organization of the same.

COMMITTEE.

Hon. Samuel Galloway,	- - -	Ohio.
Hon. H. Barnard,	- - - - -	Connecticut.
Thomas Rainey,	- - - - -	Ohio.

On motion of Prof. D. Read,*

Resolved, That this Association considers provisions for school libraries as an important part of every system of general Education.

On motion of G. R. Hand, of Cincinnati, public school systems in cities and villages, were made the order of the day for two o'clock, P. M.

The Association adjourned at twelve M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Association assembled at two o'clock.

Hon. H. Barnard presented a communication from Rev. A. A. Livermore, of Cincinnati, on the subject of an Educational Bureau at Washington.

On motion of R. L. Cooke,

Resolved, That the communication of Mr. Livermore, on the subject of a Public Bureau of Instruction at Washington, be referred to a Committee of three, to report upon at the next annual meeting of the Association.

COMMITTEE.

Hon. Bellamy Storer,	- - - -	Cincinnati.
Hon. Rufus King,	- - - -	Cincinnati.
Hon. Horace Mann,	- - - -	Massachusetts.

Communications were read from Joseph McKeen, N. York, Thomas H. Benton, Jr., Iowa, Geo. B. Emerson, Mass., and others.

*For Prof. Read's remarks on this resolution, see Appendix D.

On motion,

Resolved, That the topic of school attendance, including the school age, and the best methods of securing the regular and punctual attendance of children at school, be referred to a committee, to report to the next convention.

COMMITTEE.

William D. Swan, - - - - Massachusetts.
 Gideon F. Thayer, - - - - Massachusetts.
 Rev. Daniel Washburn, - - Pennsylvania.

On motion of the Rev. Dr. Perry, of Cleveland,

Resolved, That in the judgment of this Association, the best and most certain remedy for the defect now felt, touching the superficiality of our present educational systems, is to be found in the *extension of the time* allotted for the accomplishment of an education.

The resolution was referred to the Committee on Collegiate Education.

On motion of Mr. Joseph McCormick, of Cincinnati,*

Resolved, That a Committee of three be appointed, to report at the next annual meeting of this Association, on the subject of free Lecture Education.

COMMITTEE.

Rev. Dr. Sears, - - - - - Massachusetts.
 James Johonnot, - - - - - New York.
 Joseph McCormick, - - - - - Ohio.

On motion of Dr. Asa D. Lord, of Ohio,

Resolved, That a Committee of three be appointed, to report at the next meeting of this Association, upon the value of Education to all the industrial interests of the country.

*For remarks of Mr. McCormick on this resolution, see Appendix E.

COMMITTEE.

Hon. H. Barnard, - - - - Connecticut.
 G. M. Wharton, Esq., - - - - Pennsylvania.
 John Biddle, - - - - - - Pennsylvania.

On motion of Mr. L. Andrews, of Ohio,

Resolved, That the Hon. H. Barnard be requested to append to the published proceedings of this Annual Session of the Association, a condensed form of the statistics which he has collected in regard to Systems of Education in different States.

On motion of R. L. Cooke, of New Jersey,

Resolved, That the remaining topics presented for discussion by the Standing Committee, be recommitted to the Committee, with instructions, if they shall judge it to be expedient, to procure essays upon them, from gentlemen whom they may designate, to present at the next meeting of the Association.

The remaining topics referred to in the foregoing resolution, are as follows :

- Uniformity in the items and forms of reports, by state and local superintendents and committees ;
- Educational periodicals and books ;
- Text books—their true functions ;
- School Discipline ;
- Cultivation of taste and imagination ;
- Relative value of the Physical and Moral Sciences ;
- Relative value of Mathematics and Languages as gymnastics of the mind ;
- Modes in which this Association can best promote the advancement of Education, in common or public schools ;
- Studies, and methods of teaching ;
- Physiology ;
- Phonotopy ;
- The value of analytical and other questions, in text books ;
- Moral and religious education.

The Secretary's minutes were read and approved.

The hour of final adjournment having arrived, the President addressed the Association as follows :

Ladies and Gentlemen,—

In closing our deliberations and pronouncing the Association adjourned, I have only to say that this, its first regular session, has been to me a source of unexpected and unusual pleasure. At the Convention last year, I was among those who doubted the expediency of holding this meeting in the State of Ohio, and in the city of Cleveland. I apprehended that we might not find here the disposition to appreciate and co-operate in our labors, which we might reasonably look for in older communities. Experience has demonstrated how much I was mistaken.

You have shared in the delight with which I have witnessed the intelligence and hospitality of the people who have welcomed us so nobly to their beautiful city and their homes. We have met here the representatives of Education in the west—we have met many of the Presidents and Professors of her Colleges, all animated with zeal in one common cause. Never can we forget the many agreeable acquaintances which it has been our privilege to form, during these few days in this forest city, in the midst of this vast region of fertile territory and heroic enterprise.

Ladies and Gentlemen, we are about to separate and return to our respective homes. The great benefit of meetings and Associations like this, is the opportunity which they afford for intimate intercourse and communion between active and thinking minds, that may not hold, in all respects, the same opinions. It is not to be expected that on a subject so vast and complicated as Education, we should all hold the same views—*conflict of opinion is the characteristic of every earnest age*. In advocating our respective views, and in considering those which

others present, we have only to cultivate a spirit of candour and forbearance, and that assimilation will gradually take place which secures more and more of truth. Let me urge all of you to be present at future meetings of the Association. Induce your friends and all within the sphere of your influence to come with you. In your discussions and deliberations aim not so much at triumph in debate, as at the promotion of wise and just views, and at the diffusion of a generous interest in the cause which brings us together.

In our efforts to improve Education and widen the field of its operations, our greatest obstacle is the *misconception* which so generally prevails, respecting its true *nature* and *object*, and the *means* by which it can be advanced. The very *first principles* which govern in the development of mind and character are unknown, or grievously overlooked. Accustomed by mere dint of energy and activity to vanquish material obstacles and accelerate our progress in the Arts of Industry, we are ready to imagine that in Education, too, we can substitute rail-road or even telegraphic speed for that to which the world has been accustomed. But there are few short and easy routes to knowledge; there are none to true worth and high excellence. He who would build a house or construct a road in half the time originally proposed, has only to double his force, to employ twice the number of men. It is not so with the growth of body or mind. No forcing process—no hot-bed contrivances have been discovered, nor are any likely to be discovered, through which we can rear the body from infancy to maturity in a space of time materially less than that which seems to have been fixed by the constitution of nature. And if this be true of the physical economy, how much more of that which is spiritual and intellectual. Here the voluntary and self-directed energies of the child are the great instruments of progress, and they conduct to true excellence only along the rugged and laborious path of persevering and ingenuous application. To reach a lofty sta-

ture of mental and moral worth, *time* and *right means* are both alike indispensable.

In respect to *means*, we may say what we will of text-books and systems of instruction, and methods of training; these are not our greatest want. What we most need are not *dead systems*, but *living men*. Men who can breathe soul into these courses and text-books, and cause them to speak with thrilling power to the pupil's mind and heart.

But to have good teachers, accomplished, enthusiastic educators, we must provide the means for their support—we must secure that they enjoy some measure of respect and consideration. This end can be attained only through the joint efforts of practical teachers and of the enlightened patriotic friends of the cause in which they labor. The American people will honour and pay good teachers, whenever they become convinced that such teachers alone can impart a real and high culture. They prize knowledge—they prize exalted excellence, but they need to be taught that these are not to be imparted even in the United States, at rail-road speed. To teach such lessons—to instruct our fellow-citizens in regard to the true character of “a right, noble and virtuous Education,” is one of the first duties of this Association. Need I add, that we can discharge this duty only in proportion as we have *ourselves* mastered the true idea.

Ladies and Gentlemen.—We must now part. While I stand here looking over this assembly, I cannot withstand the mournful reflection that I may never again have the privilege of beholding many of the faces that are now turned kindly towards me. May I express the hope that we shall all so live and fulfill our allotted parts as to win a place in those mansions where separation will be unknown, and where we shall be summoned to still nobler employments. Let us not live for ourselves alone; but for our neighbours, our country, our kind.

A heathen poet has taught us that it is sweet to *die* for our country. Is it not sweeter still to *live* for it; to carry with us

the glorious consciousness that in all our toils, even the humblest as well as the highest, it is our ambition to be the friends of every good work, and the benefactors of our land and of the world.

Immediately after the address, the Association adjourned to meet in Newark, N. J., August 10th, 1852.

APPENDIX A.

ABSTRACT OF MR. BATES'S LECTURE,

AND THE DISCUSSION THEREON.

Mr. Bates introduced his Lecture by an inquiry into the definition of "Education," and the meaning attached to it by different nations.

He proceeded to speak of the influence which the peculiar condition of different nations and the spirit of different ages have had upon Education, inquiring what were the governing ideas of the present age, and their effect in education. He inquired if any one could give a definition of education, which would comprehend all the systems which the world had tried—if any one could tell what was the *essential property* of education.

The Indian warrior, the Chinese, the man of business, the pedantic scholar, each has his notion. But what is the standard? Shall the same systems be applied to all nations, or even to all individuals in the same nation? The great principles of developing the moral, intellectual and physical powers, were common to all systems, being fixed unchangeably by God; men differed only as to which should have the preponderance. But in plans, in systems, no universal rule could be established. The spirit of different ages, the forte of different nations, and, indeed, all conceivable human differences combined to prevent it.—He illustrated this by a review of the peculiarities in the manifestations of education in past ages, and by a brief sketch of national characteristics in modern education, showing that the same differences which characterized them as nations, also manifested themselves in their systems of education—that this underwent a corresponding change, according as the spirit of the age was warlike or peaceful, and

according to the relations which nations had to each other, and to the individuals which constituted themselves—that education had been in turn both the cause and consequent of the condition of the world in all times.

To give vividness to his view he conceived to be present the representatives of different systems—a Spartan, Athenian, Roman, Schoolman of the Middle Ages, a soldier of Cromwell and of Napoleon, a German transcendentalist, a jesuit, an Eastern despot, a practical schoolmaster, and a theoretical friend of education, &c.; that they had just expressed their ideas of the true way to educate. The educational notion of each may have been suited to the time in which they were promulgated; but would they be suited to the present condition of the world, the spirit of the present age, or to any other than to that which produced them. Is there, then, any such thing as abstract education?

The youth must be educated not to meet every emergency, but only such as circumstances determine are provided for him. Educationists, therefore, must study the spirit of the age and the *forte* of the nation, before they put in practice ill-digested theories. Experiment at the hazard of a generation of minds, is a matter too serious for trifling.

The prominent ideas of the present age are equality in all relations, and the practical in all investigations, and in our land are they particularly the governing principles in all relations. They have been of great benefit, and the chief instruments which have given to our country its present rank. But we are liable to carry every good to extreme, and it is the duty of the educator to watch the tendencies of the age, and prevent that which is legitimately a good from being in its extreme perverted into an evil. The lecturer said, therefore, without particularly considering the universally acknowledged advantages arising from the prevalence of these principles, he should consider them in their radical workings, that all might see if there was danger, and better provide a remedy.

He divided the community into the conservative and the reformer—those who think everything is right, and those who think everything is wrong, and have discovered the true way to set all right. Many of these latter were noble minds, sincere, and actuated only by a love for truth, but that they were the more to be feared when wrong, because they were so good; because they contended under the banner of religion and conscience. Yet they often ran to hurtful extremes. The conscientious enthusiast is the worker, the man who most influences the masses. But the very powers which make him an enthusiast, combine to lessen his judgment, and he is no criterion; he needs to be guided.

This class of men are constantly doing many good things, but also many bad ones. They are necessary in order that society may progress. The danger to be feared from them is that they consider one

idea as the panacea for all evils, and work for its universal prevalence at the expense of everything else. Their notions have so pervaded society that many will be satisfied with nothing but agrarianism. This notion of equality has run to such an extreme, and has been so expounded by demagogues, that many of our most ignorant men conceive their crude ideas entitled to the same consideration as those of the mightiest intellect, and the most thorough scholarship. This self-conceit is just in proportion to the man's weakness. The less one knows the more he thinks he knows, the less his real importance the more his fancied, and his obstinacy is in due proportion. They have been told so much about the noble nature of independent man, they conceive themselves of a piece of Divinity. They believe nothing they do not understand. Their self-will, their preconceived notions they call conscience, and sincerely, without doubt, but fallaciously act upon them. There are many among us who *obey* nothing on earth or in heaven. Obedience is for the slave, not for man. The Bible is not obeyed, as the authority from God, but only such portions complied with as are in accordance with their notions.

The age is an excusing age. In our equalic notions we are so trying to exalt the reputation of our nature, that we try to believe that we are too pure for crime, and that society is to blame for every offence. We have books to show that Benedict Arnold and Judas Iscariot were on the whole pretty good men. This spirit extends to the school room. Children imbibe the same notion, and are allowed to be too independent. Instead of being governed, they are consulted, instead of being commanded, they are cheated into compliance, one extreme has followed another till the sugar-plum has taken the place of the rod; and the child is often left uncontrolled till he rules the house, and in another sense "the boy is *father* to the man." The tendency of this is to make disobedient, rebellious citizens, unbelieving, ungoverned men. Childhood is the time to correct these notions and fix habits of obedience. It is the duty of educators to consider this indication of the spirit of the age.

The lecturer quoted a remark from Chipman, M. C., from Michigan, "Democracy is opposed to education." It is a sober truth. Democracy is not opposed to the superficial education of the masses, but pre-eminently to high scientific attainments. Politics consume the talent. Again the envy of the ignorant equalitarian *will* produce a prejudice against learned men. Quacks in everything are sought for. It is the second-rate men that make the money and influence the masses. The success of the quack advertisements are illustrations.—Again, the tendency to immediate action is especially opposed to a long course of preparatory study. Present expediency is preferred to future benefit. Get money rather than knowledge.—Science and Art are cultivated as means not as an end. Practical utility is the watch-word

of American Genius. It is best pleased with that which is most immediately advantageous. With us all is activity and bustle. Restlessness and excitement are the prominent characteristics of American mind. We have power in abundance, but it is physical rather than mental, or rather it is the power of action in contradistinction to the power of thought. The tendency is to superficialness.

The lecturer regretted that time would not permit him to speak of the great benefits resulting from the prevalence of the true ideas of equality and utility. He did not wish to present only the bad side,—to be classed with those who fear every thing, and hope nothing. He had faith in the educated common sense of the people, but the points considered were evils, and ones which it became educators to strive to remedy.

After the lecture of Mr. S. W. Bates, the President invited other gentlemen to offer their opinions upon the subject. It was one, he said, of great interest and importance. It would be observed that in the lecture, great power had been attributed to the spirit of different ages and nations in respect to the systems of education which had prevailed among them. Two questions had thus been suggested. The first was *historical*. Did it appear from History that the system of education prevalent at any period or among any particular people had been determined altogether or mainly by what might be called the *spirit of the age and place*. This seemed to be assumed or argued by the lecturer. The second question was *moral* in its character—supposing that hitherto education had taken its character wholly or chiefly from the prevailing spirit of the age and people—was this right? Ought it to be so? Must it be so? Was no change in this respect to be expected or sought for? On these and on other points presented by the lecturer, he doubted not that the audience would be glad to hear gentlemen express their opinions freely and frankly.

Prof. J. H. Agnew said, “contrary to the lecturer, he should contend that a Republic is the very school of deep scientific attainments; the lecturer himself had admitted this, in the high encomiums he had bestowed on the learning of Greece and Rome; for at the very period when their scholarship shown brightest, they were Republics. The apparent superficiality of American learning, arose from the very fact that our civil and social Institutions invite all to scientific and intellectual culture, and furnish the great *visible mass* with the rudiments of a sound education; it is to this mass that we are apt to turn our attention, and not to search out those quiet, yet studious scholars, who have trod all the paths of knowledge.” What country had given stronger evidences of brilliant scholarship, than America?

He did not agree with the sentiment, that second-rate men made the

money. His observation did not teach him that it was second-rate mechanics or merchants, that became wealthy. It would be found that when educational movements reach all minds, universal human nature would employ and compensate the higher intellectual efforts.

President Mahan, of Cleveland, thought that too often men consulted their fears rather than their hopes. He thought light needed to be thrown on some of the topics of the lecture. It seemed to him that the lecturer mistook the idea of discipline. One class of people, in the government of children, consulted reason only; another held out the rod, and compelled obedience. His experience, as a boy, was in the latter order, and he often felt something within him say, "I won't." His opinion was that reason and the rod should go together. He would convince a child and make him obey. No rules should be imposed on a child that it cannot understand. He would expect little from a school or family governed on either extreme mentioned. The idea that an individual was not to rely on his own judgment, but consult that of wiser men, was one to which he could not subscribe. He had not so read his Bible as to be taught that he must give up his individuality. Every man should act upon his own convictions, or he acts blindly. We are accountable to God, and the human mind should be educated to the principle, "Prove all things, and hold fast that which is good." He could not surrender his judgment.

Prof. W. Brand, of Indiana, remarked that he had listened to the lecture with interest. He thought the subject an appropriate one for consideration. He agreed with the lecturer that the spirit of every age has shaped the education of that age, and vice versa. The spirit of the age incited Newton to those investigations, which have resulted so gloriously to the world, and in turn, those results affected the age. He could say the same of Galileo, of Franklin and of Fulton. It was the duty of the educator to operate upon the spirit of the age; to shape it.

Mr. G. F. Thayer, of Boston, said he should differ from Pres. Mahan, relative to the mode of governing families and schools. He conceived it utterly impossible to explain the reasonableness of a great many requirements, and if we should attempt it, our efforts would be fruitless and only beget disobedience. He would not go into a school for the purpose of governing, of course, but would try to impress upon the minds of teacher and pupils that they had no antagonistic interests; that they were each and all laboring in sober earnest for a good and worthy object. If parents and teachers would take this course, and not begin to *command obedience*, the child would never learn the idea of *disobedience*, but always render a ready submission from the instinc-

tive promptings of its nature. But when wilful disobedience was once learned, and persisted in by the child, he would *conquer* it, without being so fastidious about explaining in every instance the reason for so doing.

Mr. O. B. Pierce, of New York, did not like to hear the lecturer declare so sweepingly, that America has nothing but second and third rate men. It sounded too much like the cant of other times. Galileo was considered by the unthinking herd around him, as a third, fourth or fourteenth rate man, as was Newton, Harvey, Franklin, Fulton and nearly all others who have ever benefitted the world by their researches. How are we to determine the rate or grade of men, except by what they *do*, and, judging by this standard, what country has furnished more great men than America?

He found there were some other tendencies of the address which he could not endorse. He should be sorry to have this Association adopt and promulge the doctrine of blind obedience to God or man, with no thought of investigating the reasonableness of the command. He would have *obedience positive, not contingent*. If man delays his obedience to God, till he can comprehend the philosophy of his *whole code*, could see its length and breadth and depth and height, his laws would never be obeyed—yet, sir, while I regard unqualified obedience to the letter of God's law, demanded by him, I do not forget that its *vitality* with us, and the pleasure we derive from obeying, depend on our understanding and feeling the *spirit* of his laws.

As a parent and as a teacher, I have ever tried to be careful that my commands should be reasonable in themselves—and while I am at all times anxious the child should understand *why* I command, I will *not* allow his ability or inclination to understand my reasons, a *condition of obedience*.—When the child has obeyed my commands, *then* he may ask the motive or reason of my *having commanded* him.

Another feature of the address I deprecate, which is, that the circumstances of a child's education or "bringing up," shall not, even if adverse to virtue, be allowed to palliate his vices or crimes, but that full retributive justice shall be meted out to one whose intellectual, moral and social training have been neglected, just as much as though in these respects he had been highly favored. He illustrated his view in opposition to this, by a fact. A neighbour of his, a very profane man, would often curse his little son, and swear at him, because the boy, from his father's example, would sometimes swear profanely. Now, Mr. President, I ask, did not the bringing up of that boy, the parental and other immoral influences with which that child was surrounded, go far in the mind of God, as well as of man, to extenuate the boy's faults? *Will God—should man—*hold that child as strictly and rigidly responsible as though he had been religiously educated by

the influence of Christian precept and example combined? He further illustrated by allusions to the former lottery gambling by the State of New York, as a State which had assumed the right to monopolize that department of vice, to raise funds for the endowment of her colleges. Still more startling was his allusion to the *license laws*. If a man will pay five dollars, he may sell all the grog he please, but if he will not pay, he must be fined and sent to *jail!* not for the crime of selling poison, but because he refuses to divide the plunder, the result of his crimes, with the Christian State! Besides, the law provides that grog-selling produces naturally and universally, drunkenness and crime. A father and mother neglect their son. He is educated in the streets. The State licenses grog-shops; the boy, at first innocently, not safely for himself, goes to them to hear stories. He soon learns to drink—becomes a drunkard—becomes reckless in his drunkenness, and criminal in his recklessness; he murders or burns, and must now be hung, must feel the utmost rigour of the law, just as much as though his whole circumstances had been wholly favorable to temperance and virtue. In short, he must now lose his life for *being* just what the law by a hundred and fifty years experiment, knew he *must be*, what the law *had made him be*, first the victim and then the victimizer.

Mr. Pierce would not absolve the individual from his responsibility to law, but would hold the *law* responsible for its influence on the *individual!* The *law*—the *parent*—should not be remiss in duty, and then be rigid, and exacting, and retributive, in its demands on the victim of that remissness.

Mr. T. Rainey, of Ohio, said that he regretted that abler gentlemen from the West had not adverted to Mr. Bates's excellent lecture with reference particularly to the great want of *authority* in all our schools. Every individual who has visited the schools of both the East and the West, has observed the superior order, harmony and authority in the former, and the great want of authority in the government of the schools of the latter. This arises partly from the fact, that hitherto teaching among us has not been made a profession, and consequently, as in every new country, those teaching have continued but a short time in office. Hence it is impossible for the community to risk much confidence in their teachers, while on the other hand, as a consequence of this, they assume the exercise of the authority which they cannot delegate to the teacher, or, which is far more prejudicial to the interest of all concerned, delegate it to their children.

Now, sir, let us commence with Germany, and we find that to the teacher is accorded an importance, dignity and authority which no slight breath of opposition may blow away; while all submit to *his* authority as a properly constituted and high officer. He is inducted to his office with religious ceremonies; becomes the conductor of the

Parish Choir; is paid an ample salary; is certain of the continuance of his place, unless guilty of great dereliction of duty, and finally, after exhaustion by the services of his profession, is, in his superannuated condition, supported by the government. Hence the community look up to him, and parents are not permitted to thwart the operations of the school by the continual assumption of petty authority.

You come further, and find that in New England, while the authority is not so strong as in Germany, it is yet far stronger and more salutary than in the West. I am aware that many in the West think that in New England a young man is not supposed to be capable of any common business until he is twenty-five or thirty years old; that he is scarcely accountable, and is to be closely watched by his parents; and however much of this spirit may prevail, yet I conceive that the authority delegated by the New England community to the teacher, is one of the surest guarantees of their permanent success. Human nature is yet depraved, and yet it is true that there are thousands of children unfitted by parental training for submission to *any* authority, whether at home or abroad. So long as parents neglect their children, or so long as they are incapable of properly influencing them, we will find youth incapable of persuasive government, and the consequent necessity of giving to those to whom the State commits them, the authority to bend them to the proper mould.—This is not done in the West; and is the source of continual strife and turmoil; every parent wishes his child peculiar privileges and favors, while he is unwilling to have him bent into the general mould, or sacrifice one ambitious feeling for the general good.

Mr. Bates remarked, that in the narrow limits of a lecture he had had an opportunity only to express the prominent shade of thought, the general tendency of the prevalent ideas of the times, without qualifying remarks, and without making the many exceptions which obviously exist. He had therefore been, he perceived, misunderstood by some of the speakers. It was, perhaps, better that it was so, for it had elicited strong thoughts. "I by no means intend," he said, "to speak disparagingly of the beneficial influences upon our country, of liberty and equality. We all know them, we all admit them; they are the general boast of Americans. It is emphatically true that liberty is the soul of genius, the life of enterprise, the strongest incitement to rigorous thought and vigorous action. But there is no good without its alloy, and it was our design to confine ourself to the evils flowing from the extremes of equality and liberty in their practical operation. *It is true* that our ideas of equality have been so extended and our fear of infringing upon personal rights have been carried so far, that our children are in many cases left ungoverned, that thousands of the young men of our cities (I speak what I know,) openly avow themselves disbe-

lievers in the truths of the Bible, because they do not understand them, or because these truths are not in accordance with their notions of justice; and that many of our citizens boldly proclaim that they will not obey the laws of the land unless they, individually, approve of them.

Again, *it is true*, that the practical utilitarian spirit of the age is a barrier to high literary and scientific scholarship. That the constant cry is "what is its use? The cry is of the whole people. It must be and it is listened to. Scholars hear it, and fashion their studies in accordance with it. In our colleges and schools a smattering of almost everything is obtained, rather than thoroughness in anything.

The object of the first part of the lecture was to show by historical reference that education has in all ages been powerfully affected by the spirit of the times and the views of the controlling men, and that therefore it would be so now; that the governing ideas of the present age are equality and utility; that they are powerful for good when confined within proper limits, but that there is a tendency to carry them to dangerous extremes; that it is the duty of those to whom the education of the people is intrusted, to watch and find out these dangers; that the counteracting power lies with educators and teachers rather than with any other class in the community; that education must control the spirit and tendencies of the age, or they would control education."

Hon. Joshua R. Giddings, of Ohio, said it was late, but he must beg the indulgence of the audience for an opportunity to enter his protest against the general onslaught the lecturer had made upon Reformers. He had condemned, not a class, but the whole. He denounced those who grappled with the vices of the age! It was owing to the reformers that old errors in religion, politics and social life are broken up. He knew that many measures of reform are wrong and dangerous, but it becomes the true philanthropist to point out these errors, and not seek to belittle a great and noble band of public benefactors by casting a stigma upon them. If crime was pressed upon him by an Angel of Light, he would resist it. The Convention had met to promote education, not to condemn progress. When, a few days ago, a woman not many hundred miles distant, had been sent to prison for teaching a child to read the Bible, must he sit idle, and be content with the state of things? He would obey just and wholesome laws, but he must resist unjust and tyrannical ones. To illustrate his idea, Mr. G. referred to the Fugitive Slave Law, and condemned, with severity, the idea of submitting to it.

APPENDIX B.

ADDRESS OF PRESIDENT MAHAN.

In various parts of Christendom the commonly established systems of liberal education, have for some years past been the object of much thought and inquiry among all classes of community. Everywhere inquiry has resulted in sentiments of deep and growing dissatisfaction with things as they are, sentiments which have found utterance in numbers of the leading reviews and other important publications in this country and Europe, and which in this country have occasioned the founding or re-organization of four Universities—Brown, Rochester, Virginia and Cleveland—upon principles differing in many fundamental particulars from those which obtain in other kindred Institutions. The elucidation and comparative merits of these principles, denominated by Dr. Wayland, the “New System of Liberal Education,” will be the object of the present address.

One thought before entering upon the subject. I refer to the spirit with which this subject should be investigated and discussed. That the subject demands full and careful investigation and discussion, no one can doubt. The sentiment of dissatisfaction to which I have referred, renders this quite evident, a sentiment rendering it undeniably certain that a great educational want, real or imaginary, in the public mind, is not met by the old system. “Does the wild ass bray when he hath grass, or loweth the ox over its fodder?” The general mind does not rise up in deep dissatisfaction with that by which its conscious necessities are met.—Discussion, then, is demanded. But with what spirit should it be conducted. Surely the advocates of these respective systems, should not regard themselves, nor should they be regarded by others, as enemies, but as mutual inquirers after what is true and best

on this, one of the greatest and most important of all subjects. Truth, not victory, should be the aim of all concerned. As honest, independent inquirers after truth, then, let the advocates of these systems "take advice and speak their minds."

We will now advance to a direct consideration of the subject of the present address, to wit: *the character and comparative merits of the two systems of liberal education, the New and the Old*. We will first, consider the character and essential elements of these two systems as distinguished the one from the other, and will then contemplate their comparative merits.

In respect to the Old system, the first characteristic which strikes the contemplative observer, is the compulsory element by which it is encumbered, in all its departments. I refer to the fact, that all students alike, whatever their natural capacities, tastes, adaptations and prospective pursuits in life, are, on entering an Institution under the control of this system, required and necessitated to pursue one prescribed and fixed course of study. The course is fixed and compulsory, not only in respect to the *kind* of studies to be pursued, but also and equally in respect to the time allotted to the study of each and every particular science, and to each department of that science.

The principle of exclusiveness is the next characteristic of this system which claims our attention. I refer to its almost exclusive adaptation to educate mind for the learned professions only. If you wish to educate your son for any other sphere of activity, such, for example, as a civil engineer, scientific farmer, or accountant, there is no place for him in our ordinary colleges. Hence, such colleges, located in any particular community, have little or no tendencies to extend the knowledge of the sciences, even of those in which all have a common interest in such community.

This system also was projected with an almost exclusive reference to the education of the *intellect*, and with very little regard to that of the sensibility and heart. Of the truth of this statement none can doubt who will acquaint themselves with the fundamental characteristics of the system.

In this system, also, there is to my mind, a strange and melancholy absence of all adequate provision for a profound and extensive study of the two great volumes that God has written—the Book of Nature and of Revelation. We should suppose, did not stubborn facts contradict the supposition, that the high road of the educated student would lie directly through the centre of these divine volumes. But here is a system, professing to have originated in that profound wisdom which is exclusively qualified to guide in the education of mind, a system, however, in which the great Book of Nature is studied but little, and that of inspiration less, a system in traversing which the mind of the student is but seldom fixed by those visions divine which open upon

the mind on the top of Zion's hill, or his thirst for knowledge refreshed from "Siloa's brook that flowed fast by the oracle of God."

The *essential elements* of this system next claim our attention. After the student has completed his education in the common school, having become sufficiently proficient in such studies as grammar, geography, and arithmetic, he spends from two to three years in his preparatory, and four in the college course. Of this entire period, upwards of one half is occupied in studying the two dead languages, the Latin and Greek. Quite one half of the remainder is spent on the different departments of the mathematics, and the fraction left is divided between some twelve or fifteen different sciences, a smattering of all of which, the pupil, it is thought, must acquire, or he is not properly speaking, a liberally educated man. All these studies are selected, and pursued with no specific reference to the mental adaptations of the student or to his calling when he enters upon the sphere of active life. The simple and almost exclusive end and aim is to secure a degree of mental discipline, by which the graduate will, as far as his course of study is concerned, be equally adapted to any and every calling alike, and to no one in particular.

I refer to but one additional characteristic of this system, a characteristic which deserves very special attention. The *main direction* of the student's mind, while under the influence of this system, is not towards *facts* or realities material or mental. His mind is not drawn into deep intercommunion with the great facts and problems of the universe, nor with the laws and principles by which those facts and problems may be explained and solved. This system seems to have been projected with no particular reference to any such high end as this. Nor is there in it any adaptation to secure that *form* of mental strength which can be secured only by habituating the mind to the endurance of the weight of great thoughts, to long and deep converse with those eternal laws and principles which underlie the vast masses of facts and events which rise up around us, in the universe of matter and mind. The student is indeed disciplined, or attempted to be, to hard mental labor. But the most of that labor is expended in deciphering the meaning of sentences in the dead languages, sentences containing ideas in which most students feel no intrinsic interest, which contain no great principles which they will have occasion to apply in subsequent life, and which, of course, they have no motives to treasure up or recur to for future reflection. It would seem, at first thought, to say the least, that the fundamental aim of a liberal education, should be to familiarize the mind with the nature and application of those universal and eternal laws and principles by a knowledge of which, and by that alone, the great problems of the universe, material and mental, may be solved. It would seem that as mind expands upon those principles, and tasks its powers in the solution of those problems,

that then and only then, the highest forms of mental development would be secured. This, it would seem, must be the soil in which great thinkers will be produced. If we would have mind move in the sublimity of its power, it should be habituated, during the progress of its education, to those forms of thinking by which it shall be long held in deep and solemn converse with the great realities, finite and infinite, within and around it, and with the laws and principles by which such realities are controlled and governed. It is by grappling with the great problems thus presented, and sustaining the weight of the great truths thus laid upon it, that mind towers up to an overshadowing greatness, and stands before us, "with Atlantean shoulders, fit to bear the weight of mightiest monarchies." With no such reference as this, however, was the old system of liberal education projected. The idea of producing such high forms of mental development, seems hardly to have a place in any department of it.

But what of the New system? What are its principles, aims, and fundamental characteristics? And wherein does it differ from the Old? I will present the former as announced by the Board of Trust of the Cleveland University.

"The general design and aim of the Trustees of the Cleveland University, in conducting its affairs, is and shall be, to furnish facilities for such forms of physical, mental and moral training, as will best qualify youth for the various professions and spheres of useful activity, and practical duties of life. This end they will aim to attain by the following instrumentalities, and by the observance of the following principles:

1. They will endeavor to furnish in the University, the best practicable facilities for the most extensive and thorough instruction in the various important sciences, such, for example, as the Ancient and Modern Languages, the Mathematics, Mental and Moral Philosophy, Biblical Science and Literature, Rhetoric, Oratory and Belles Lettres, Law and Political Economy, Chemistry and Physiology, and the Natural Sciences.

2. At the head of each department of science, one or more able Professors shall be placed, whose duty it shall be, to perfect, in their respective departments, the pupils committed to their care.

3. As soon as the means can be secured, they will procure for the University, an ample and choice library, cabinet of minerals, chemical and philosophical apparatus, &c.

4. Individuals of good morals, and of capacities and attainments qualifying them for a profitable study of any of the sciences taught in the University, and wishing to perfect their knowledge of the same, shall be admitted to all the privileges of the Institution, for the attainment of the end desired, without being *compelled* to pursue *other and different* studies.

5. Students commencing particular studies shall not be permitted to drop the same, and enter upon others, till they have become *thoroughly disciplined* in those already commenced, or until radical disqualifications have been disclosed for making such attainments.

6. As Speaking, Composition, and moral and religious action pertain to individuals in every sphere in life, instruction in these shall constitute an essential element alike of all departments of instruction given in the University.

7. When a student has become, in the judgment of the Faculty, thoroughly disciplined in any one or more of the sciences, he shall receive from them a certificate of graduation from such department or departments of the University.

8. For the encouragement of high attainments among pupils, in science and literature, the following degrees may and shall, as occasion requires, be conferred in the University, to wit: B. P., B. A., and M. A. The first shall be conferred upon such as have been thoroughly disciplined in Philosophy, the Mathematics, and the Natural Sciences; the second, upon such as have made attainments in the Sciences and Belles Lettres, equivalent to the usual College course; and the last, upon such as have made still higher attainments.

9. In addition to the usual recitation exercises, members of the Faculty shall be expected to deliver from time to time, courses of popular lectures, on the principles and practical applications of the sciences, and on other important subjects. These lectures shall be open, not only to regular members of the University, but to the community generally, who may purchase tickets of admission."

Such is the new system of liberal education as developed in the Cleveland University. In this system, as it will readily be perceived, the compulsory principle, both in respect to the kind of studies to be pursued, and the time to be occupied in their pursuit, is wholly excluded, the object of the system being not to compel the student to study many things, but to render him truly proficient in what he does study.

Such are the arrangements of the system, also, that its privileges are available, not only to those who wish to pursue a full course of liberal education, but to the vast multitudes who desire to perfect their acquaintance with particular departments of science, without taking the full course referred to.

Education, according to the fundamental aim of this system, too, is to be adapted to the natural capacities and adaptations of the student, and to his sphere of action in subsequent life.

A fundamental object of the system throughout is the education, not merely of the intellectual, but also of the moral departments of our being. It aims at a harmonious development of the whole man. And finally, education is to be pursued on a scale far more extensive under the New system than under the Old. The same sciences will be taught

in each, with the exception of the Modern Languages, which have been incorporated into the former. Under the New system, however, as the time for study is not limited, and riper proficiency of scholarship being always and in all departments of study the fundamental aim, each particular science will be pursued for a far longer period, and to a much greater extent, than under the Old system. But of this I shall speak particularly in another place.

We come now to a consideration of the second department of our subject—the comparative merits of these two systems. In treating this department of the subject, two, and only two great inquiries will be the main topic of remark—the comparative adaptation of the two systems to secure in the pupil *ripe scholarship* or *thorough mental discipline*, and their comparative adaptation as systems of liberal education, to meet the known wants of the public.

It is claimed by the advocates of the Old system, that that system has an almost if not quite exclusive adaptation to secure the high attainment of ripe scholarship or thorough mental discipline in the pupil, and that every departure from that system, in whatever direction it may seem to advance, is in fact a departure in the opposite direction, and tends to but one result, to lower the standard of liberal education. Without the fear of properly incurring the charge of arrogance or presumption, we may modestly ask for the reason and grounds of this high and exclusive claim. For what reason must we assume that ripe scholarship is to be expected from but one system of liberal education only, that in which all minds, whatever their natural capacities, adaptations, desires and prospective spheres of action, are all attempted to be run into one and the same mould; in other words, in which all are compelled to study precisely the same things, and for just the same amount of time? Is it a self-evident truth that thorough mental discipline can be attained under no other system, and that every such system is justly implicated with the charge of lowering the standard of liberal education? It is admitted by all who have properly reflected upon the subject, that the standard of liberal education is by no means too high, that it ought to be elevated rather than depressed. But why should we suppose that any and every departure from the Old system is a movement in the wrong direction?

Is it, I ask in the first place, because it is designed under the New system to shorten the time of study required to attain the form of education of which we are speaking? No such thing is intended by the founders and advocates of this system. They have no intention to shorten the time, lessen the amount, nor lighten the burden of study, nor is there any thing in the system which even looks towards such a result.

On the other hand, this system affords facilities for profitable study for a period of time far more lengthened than the Old. When the

student has completed his four years in any college based upon the Old system, he has gone over the entire circle of studies pursued there, and can spend no longer time with any considerable profit in attending upon the instruction given in the institution. If he would avail himself of the instruction given, he can do it only by entering classes who, for the first time, are passing over the very ground which he has already traversed: this, few graduates will do or can do with advantage.

But how is it in a University based upon the New system? In such an institution the fundamental aim is a full and thorough acquaintance and mastership on the part of the pupil of every study he does go over. Each science, therefore, will be taught upon a scale far more extensive and thorough than in an ordinary College, and a far longer period will be occupied in its study. A student commences the study of as many sciences as he can for the time pursue with profit, and carries in them, till his beard is grown, till he is a proper graduate in them. He then, with the strength required, and with the habit the most important of all others, fixed and settled in his mind of *mastering* what he undertakes, enters upon others and pursues them upon the same principles. Thus, if he chooses, he completes the entire circle of the sciences. The result is, that whereas he can with no considerable profit spend more than four years in a college organized under the Old, he can spend six or ten years with advantages perpetually accumulating in a University based upon the New system.

But shall we find the superior claims of the Old system in its higher intrinsic adaptation to secure ripe scholarship in the student? What, permit me to ask in reply, is the result of education under the Old system? Does it secure as a matter of fact ripe scholarship in students in any one particular science, or in all of them together? Does the degree which they receive at the close of their college course, indicate any such thing? Dr. Wayland affirms that that degree indicates little if any thing more than this, "that the student has remained four years within the college walls, and has paid his bills." Thousands of times has the assertion been made, without contradiction, that one-half of our graduates, on leaving college, cannot, without a lexicon, even read their own diplomas. Dr. Channing pronounced the Old system of liberal education in this country, as far as the dead languages are concerned, a failure; and when has the declaration met with a denial? And, if our liberally educated students do not, and the world cannot but know that they do not, attain to ripe scholarship in the languages, they of course do not and cannot in the other sciences. A superficial acquaintance with many sciences is the highest form of scholarship to which even the best of our students do in fact attain. And how long shall such a form of education be miscalled ripe scholarship? When will the old and homely, but eternally true proverb, "a jack at all trades and good at none," be understood to be as applicable to systems of liberal education as to any and all other forms of human activity?

The leading ideas under the influence of which a course of liberal education is pursued under the two systems, will also help us to decide correctly upon their comparative adaptation to induce ripe scholarship, or thorough mental discipline in the student. The influence of every system of education, in developing the mental powers, must depend, more than upon any thing else, upon the leading idea of the student while under it. Now what is the leading idea of the student on entering a college course under the Old system? It is this. He has to spend four years in the Institution, and to pass with a degree of thoroughness and industry, perfectly undefined, over all the studies prescribed. If he can only contrive to do enough to keep in his class, and to squeeze through his examinations, (and what student can't do this?) he leaves college at the end of his course, with the same diploma in his hand, and standing on the same footing, as far as the testimony of his Alma Mater is concerned, as the best scholar in the Institution. The diploma which he carries is no sure pledge to the world that he is a ripe scholar in any single science which he has studied.

Very different and opposite is the leading idea under the influence of which the student passes through his entire course under the New system. The overshadowing idea throughout his entire course is, ripe thorough scholarship in every particular science which he does study. When he enters upon the study of any particular science, he is not to leave it and advance to others till the Faculty of the University are ready to vouch for his standing as a ripe scholar in those already commenced. When he lays in his claim for any of the higher degrees, that claim is not to rest upon the time which has been occupied in study, nor upon the mere number of studies which may have been dipped into; but exclusively upon certificates of graduation as a ripe scholar in a sufficient number of the sciences to demand such degree. Under which of these leading ideas, that presented in the New or the Old system, is ripe scholarship most likely to result?

I now assume a still more decisive position in respect to the comparative claims of these two systems. While no system can be conceived of more perfectly adapted to secure thorough mental discipline in the pupil than the New system, the leading tendency of the Old is in the opposite direction. He only has attained to thorough mental discipline who has, during the progress of his education, and as the result of it, acquired the power of *deep* and *fundamental thought* upon all subjects upon which they may have occasion to treat. Let us consider for a moment the circumstances of the student during the entire course of his education under the Old system. He commences with three daily recitations in as many important sciences.—These he pursues for a fixed period—a period too short, however, for a thorough acquaintanace with any of them. At the close of such period, he is hurried into other studies, which occupy his entire time, and leave him

none to enlarge and perfect his acquisitions in the fields previously run over. Thus he passes through his whole course of liberal education, at the close of which, without a revision of the past, and in a state of almost total forgetfulness of the most of it, he pushes directly into his professional studies. What kind of mental habits has he been generating all this time, and must have generated, as far as the legitimate influence of his course of study is concerned? Those of hasty superficial thinking on all subjects. The fixed habit of thoroughly finishing whatever is undertaken must be the first and last element in every wisely constructed system of liberal education. Precisely the reverse of this is the fixed tendency of every leading element of the Old system.

The principle of requiring all students alike, diverse as their capacities and adaptations always are, to study precisely the same things and for the same amount of time, tends wholly in the same direction. The result is and must be, that while a large portion of them are for a considerable part of the time compelled to pursue studies for which they have and can have no relish or adaptation, that such an amount of study will be required that the powers of one-half will be either overtaxed, or not drawn upon sufficiently, the fixed tendency in either case being towards the formation of habits of listless or superficial study.

Under the New system, on the other hand, while each science is to be studied till the pupil is thoroughly disciplined in it, and none are compelled to study any thing to which they are unadapted, and which consequently they cannot but dislike, all will be required, from day to day, to carry on as many studies as they can thoroughly master, and none will be permitted to study more. If A can master but one study, he will take but one. If B can master two, three, or even four branches of study in the same time, such will be the task assigned him. If B can really and truly, in the space of three years, master all the studies required for the higher degrees, he will receive his diploma accordingly. If A must study five years to make the same attainments, he ought not to graduate at an earlier period. Such is the fundamental law of the system. Can we conceive of a system better adapted for the attainment of ripe scholarship in the pupil? Who can justly maintain that the Old is equally adapted to secure this high end?

We are now prepared to consider the comparative adaptations of these two systems to meet the *known educational necessities* of the public. That the public imperiously needs a large class of liberally educated men, there can be no doubt. Equally manifest is the fact, that the interests of the public require that among educated men there shall be a great diversity of forms of scientific excellence. We need, for example, our Linguists, Mathematicians, Mental and Moral Philosophers, Chemists and Physiologists, and those who excel in all the

diverse departments of the natural sciences. To attain to excellence in these diverse departments, different individuals have natural adaptations.—If our systems of liberal education would meet the public necessities and meet them most perfectly, they must tend fundamentally to lead out these adaptations, and give them the most full and perfect development wherever they exist. As Americans we are also peculiarly a practical people. To attain to the superior excellence to which as a people we are bound to attain, all forms and departments of activity with us should, as far as possible, be adjusted to scientific principles. No nation on earth is so favorably located for such high attainments, as this. To realize such an end is one of our grand missions among the great family of nations. Institutions and systems of liberal education to meet the educational wants of the nation must be specifically adapted to secure these grand results. Of this no one can doubt. What are the comparative adaptations of the two systems under consideration to realize such results?

If we recur, for a moment, to the circumstances in which the Old system originated, we may obtain some light upon such an inquiry, as far as this system is concerned. At that time almost, if not quite all, the treasures of wisdom and knowledge that then existed, all treatises on all departments of science, lay embalmed in the two dead languages, —the Latin and Greek. Learned men on all subjects pertaining to literature and science, read, conversed and wrote in these languages. The study of such languages was indispensable to a study of any and all the other sciences. Their study, as a consequence, became a leading element in all systems of liberal education, and became so primarily, not as a means of mental discipline, but as the medium of introduction to all forms of knowledge then existing. As this system also was, for the most part, projected under papal influences, two things were, to a great extent, excluded from it, a profound study of the book of nature and of revelation. Such were the circumstances and influences which originally gave birth to this system, a system in most respects wisely adapted to meet the necessities of the student in the then existing state of science. Since then, in the scientific and literary world, there has been a total revolution. “Old things have passed away, and behold all things have become new.” “A new heavens and a new earth” have been created, the old having passed away, and almost ceased to be held in remembrance. In other words, the treasures of science, instead of lying embalmed in the languages referred to, as in former years, are all, the scriptures in their original language, and the classics themselves excepted, translated into our native language. These excepted, no one has occasion to resort to the dead languages as a means of introduction to any of the great sciences commended to the study of the student. In traversing the vast continents of thought which modern science has laid open to his investigation, he reads

everything in his own native language. In the midst of such a total revolution in the world of science, should we not expect that a corresponding revolution would be demanded in our systems of liberal education? Can we suppose that a system adapted to the necessities of the student in one set of circumstances, would be adapted to his wants in circumstances entirely new? As the heathen classics have ceased altogether to be the medium of scientific communication among the literati of the world, as they now appear only as one among the many branches of science that need to be studied by different classes of scientific men, and as all departments of science cannot be properly studied by every student, as a selection must be made, some studied and others neglected, why should every student in a course of liberal education be compelled to study these languages, and that to the necessary neglect of others to which he may possess a natural adaptation? Why should not these languages take their place in our systems of liberal education with other great departments of science, to be studied, like others, at the option of the student, as his natural adaptations and future activities may demand? Why should that be compulsory with the student now, when the reasons which originally rendered it such, have ceased to exist altogether?

We will now contemplate the comparative adaptation of these systems to secure in individual minds of diversified adaptations, such as universally exist among those who are pursuing a course of liberal education, the most full and perfect forms of mental development. It is a maxim which, for ages, has stood the test of time, that "if we would govern nature, we must obey her laws." Every tree, plant and vegetable, has its fixed law of growth and development. The sycamore will not grow upon the top of Lebanon, nor the majestic cedar in the vale below. The orange cannot endure the winter's cold, nor can the tall oak be produced in a hot-bed. The products of the vital powers of nature are brought to the highest perfection, when, and only when each plant or tree is educated in harmony with its own fixed laws of growth and development. The same must be equally true of mind. All men are not constituted for the same forms of activity.—Nor are all minds adapted to the same forms of thinking. The attempt to subject minds of diverse capacities and adaptations to the same iron system of mental training, is as fatal a war upon nature as it would be to attempt to rear all the peculiar productions of all climes in the same degrees of latitude and under the same forms of culture. Had a Newton and a Milton been forced under the same forms of mental discipline, the one would never have produced the "Principia," nor the other "Paradise Lost." It is only when mind is educated under the influence of some great leading idea to which God and nature had adapted it, that it can attain to that full and perfect development which its Creator intended. Educators of mind, like those of trees, plants and flowers,

should be careful to discover leading individual adaptations, and should educate the mental powers accordingly. When each mind has found its proper sphere of mental activity, and is energizing upon its own proper forms of thinking, then it is that all its powers tower up to their full and perfect manhood of development. Force mind to tax and expend its powers upon forms of thinking for which it has no adaptation, and for which it has and can have no deep relish, but a resistless repugnance, and you as certainly dwarf, instead of develop its powers, as you would those of the tree or plant if you should attempt to force its growth out of its proper soil and clime.

Here stand distinctly revealed the fundamental objections against the old system of liberal education. It is throughout a war upon nature, instead of a system of growth and development, in harmony with her laws—a Procrustes' bed, in which minds of diverse capacities and adaptations, are, as occasion requires, stretched and hewn asunder, without mercy, and in my judgment with as little wisdom.

Here stands revealed the wise adaptations of the New System. It aims to educate him by obeying its laws. It aims to educate individual minds by wisely adapting its principles to individual tendencies and adaptations, and thus to secure the most diversified, and at the same time the most full and perfect forms of mental development. And where is the want of adaptation in the system to secure such a result?

There is one feature of the Old system, a feature to which I have before alluded, which demonstrates its total unadaptedness to give to mind the most full and perfect development. I refer to the principle of crowding the study of so many different sciences into the very limited space of time allotted to the acquisition of a liberal education. Suppose a father should attempt to introduce a son to two distinct mechanical trades in the space of six or seven years; thinking that by such a course of training that son would attain to the high degree of Master of Mechanics. To what form of mechanical excellence would he attain under such a kind of education? Would mechanics thus trained, be at all likely to attain to such forms of excellence as the public interest demands in that class of men? But what is this compared with a system of mental training in which an attempt is made to educate mind to proficiency in from twelve to twenty distinct and important sciences during the very period under consideration? To what forms of mental excellence, such as the public interests demand in educated men, are minds thus trained likely to attain? In the study of any particular science there are two distinct periods, that of mere mental labor in which the powers of mind are severely taxed, with little real growth or expansion, and that of rapidly accumulating strength and development. The mind is in the former state in the early stages of investigation, in which the mental powers are strongly taxed

in gaining a mere insight into the first *principles* of the science. To the latter state it attains when it has mastered those principles, and the mental powers expand upon their endlessly diversified applications in the solutions of the great problems of the universe. In the superficial study of any science, the mind never emerges from the state of mere burden-bearing to that of mental growth and expansion. Shallow drafts can do no more than intoxicate the brain, without consolidating the mental powers and preparing them for the endurance of the weight of great thoughts. Now let a pupil attempt to attain proficiency in twenty sciences in four years, and in which of the states under consideration will he continually find himself? One of the most celebrated writers of Europe has expressed the opinion, that the world is to have no more giants in science and literature, such as Newton, Bacon, Locke, and Milton. The reason assigned is that our systems of liberal education embrace, and as he thinks must embrace the study of so many sciences, that a superficial acquaintance with them, and that alone is to be looked for, and consequently that pre-eminence in any is not to be anticipated.—Such is the character of the Old system, its own advocates being judges. The avoidance of such consequences is the fundamental aim of the New system. Whether the period of study is long or short, it designs to task the mind in each science to which it is introduced, till it attains to familiarity with its great principles and problems, and its powers are prepared to expand upon them. Hence the system allows the student to attempt to do no more than he can reasonably hope to do well.

There is still another sense in which the comparative adaptations of these systems to meet the educational wants of the public may be contemplated. I refer to the furnishing of the public facilities for scientific instruction in all the various departments of useful activity. As Americans, we are, as before remarked, emphatically a practical and at the same time an intelligent people. The union of knowledge with action, in other words, the harmonizing of all forms of useful activity with scientific principles, is the great educational want of the American people. Our rising farmers should be proficient in the sciences of Botany, Geology and Mineralogy, and of Animal and Vegetable Physiology and Chemistry. Our mechanics and merchants should be well read in the sciences of their respective departments of activity. And all our youth should be trained to a scientific acquaintance with the laws of their own mental and physical constitution, and of those of our civil and religious institutions. Our Colleges and Universities can be adapted to the growing necessities of our nation when and only when they not only aim to prepare men for these professions, but when they shed the light of science down upon all the great forms of useful activity alike. These Institutions should have as strong attractions for all classes who wish to be guided by the light of science in their respective

departments of useful activity, as for those who are preparing for what is called the learned professions. They should be fountains of universal science. When our Institutions for liberal education become thus adjusted to meet the wants of the public, thousands will be inmates of them in the eager and successful pursuit of scientific knowledge, where hundreds now are, and science, sanctified by religious principles, will everywhere shed its hallowed influence down upon the people, "as the dew of Heaven, and the dew that descended on the mountains of Zion."

That our Colleges do not, and constituted as they now are, cannot meet the known and constantly increasing educational wants of the public, is a fact too obvious to be denied. One of the greatest educational wants of this nation, and especially of the great West, at the present time, is the opportunity for that enlarged acquaintance and discipline in the Mathematics, by which individuals shall be rendered thoroughly scientific, and at the same time equally well qualified practical surveyors and civil engineers. But where have we in the length and breadth of the land such a school, with the exception of the Military Academy at West Point? a school which has sent out more civil engineers than all the Colleges in the United States, and "whose graduates," in the language of one of its most distinguished professors, "have been sought for wherever science of the highest grade has been needed." "Russia," he adds, "has sought them to construct her railroads; the coast survey needed their aid; the works of internal improvement of the first class in our country, have mostly been conducted under their direction." Our Colleges educate, and as now constructed, can educate no such men. The union of science of the highest order, in all the great departments of industry, is, I repeat, the great educational want of this nation, a want which our institutions of liberal education should be adapted to meet in their widest extent, but which they are wholly unadapted to meet.

Now it is to the meeting of this great demand, and to the meeting of it in the most full and perfect manner, that the New system directly and specifically addresses itself. Its fundamental aim is to teach both theoretically and practically, the science of human thought, of human life, and of human action; to introduce the pupil to a most thorough acquaintance with the nature and practical application of those eternal laws and principles which underlie and explain the great facts of the universe of matter and mind, facts which are the grand objects of human research and of human activity. I have already said quite sufficient to demonstrate the adaptation of the system to accomplish this greatest of all ends to be attained in a system of liberal education. I close with an allusion to two or three thoughts of a general nature.

1. The true idea of education, and the principles by which that idea may be realized, first claim our attention. The object of education it is often, and perhaps rightly said, is not solely or mainly to store the

memory with facts, or the mind with knowledge, but to discipline the mental powers. From its etymology, the term education means the leading out or development and consolidation of the vital powers. The intellect is educated when it becomes instinct with great thoughts, and naturally clothes those thoughts in the most perfect forms of speech. It is educated in particular sciences, when it is disciplined to a ripe familiarity with the nature and practical applications of the principles of such sciences, and can handle as playthings the great problems which they involve. The whole mind is educated, when all the mental powers are so harmoniously developed, that they act with the greatest force and perfection in whatever direction they are called to move. The entire man is educated, when the entire powers, mental and physical, are thus developed, beautified and consolidated. But how or on what principles can this great end be realized? How, for example, can the mental powers be most perfectly educated? Not, I answer, by severely tasking mind for years, under an oppressive system of burden-bearing, in the study of that in which it feels no great interest. Suppose that the powers of the student are severely tasked in the acquirement of his lessons, but tasked upon such studies that as soon as his lesson is finished, he throws his book aside as containing subjects of little or no interest to him. Suppose that the main motive that draws him onward is the credit of standing well in the recitation-room, rather than the luxury enjoyed in mastering the great thoughts presented. Can the mental powers be led out, developed, consolidated, and beautified under such a system? They may be under such a system educated to the principle of patient endurance; but it will be rather that of the mule, with a tendency towards his stupidity, than the inspiration and fire, and majestic bearings of the war-horse, with his neck clothed with thunder. Mind can be educated to the highest and most perfect forms of mental development when, and only when its energies are expended upon subjects in the understanding and mastering of which it feels a deep and intense interest, and towards which it is consequently drawn by a strong attractive force, awakening curiosity, and drawing out the mental powers in eager desire and tireless efforts to solve the great problems presented in the field of research around. The burdens which develop and consolidate mind are the weight of great thoughts which it draws down upon itself in efforts put forth from a strong desire to comprehend "the breadth and depth and length and height" of some great subject of deep and intense interest. Newton was notoriously the dullest of all the scholars in his school, until his curiosity was excited to understand the reason and cause of some important facts presented in the world around him. Under the influence of the spirit of inquiry thus awakened, his powers were led out in eager research after an insight into the mysteries of creation and of Providence. As his efforts after that insight drew down upon his mind the weight of the great problems of the Uni-

verse, then it was that his mental powers were consolidated, and towered up to that overshadowing greatness which rendered him the wonder of the world. Mind, I repeat, can be truly educated only when its powers are thus led out by the attractive force of the mysteries of some grand subject of thought and inquiry, mysteries to the depths of which it desires to descend. "My son, if thou cryest after knowledge, and liftest up thy voice for understanding, if thou seekest her as silver and searchest for her as for hid treasures, then shalt thou understand righteousness and judgment and equity; yea every good path." If we would truly and properly educate mind, we must task its powers upon subjects so correlated to individual capacities and adaptations, as to awaken in each this inward cry. As its powers are thus led forth in eager research after the treasures of wisdom and knowledge, the solution of each new problem presented is met with the exclamation, "Eureka, I have found it," and as thus led on, the student continues to climb up the hill of science, till he finds himself standing amid the bright revelations which cover the summit of some high mount of observation, he cries out, "It is good to be here." Let us therefore erect our tabernacles, and as we sit under their shadows, drink in the divine glories of the wide prospect around us. Educators of mind should understand this great principle. They should know, that when they are binding heavy burdens, and laying them upon mind, when they are hardly tasking it in the compulsory study of that in which it feels and can feel no great interest, they are inducing a kind of permanent mental stagnation, rather than energizing and developing the mental powers.

2. We are now prepared to contemplate another important question, to wit, what sciences and what departments of science should, if any, constitute the main, essential or fundamental elements of every system of liberal education. There are, most assuredly, departments of study which should be common ground to all who are pursuing such a course. What are they, is the great question? To decide upon the essential characteristics of the departments of study to which such a high prominence should be given, is easy. They should pertain, fundamentally, to the common necessities of the entire class who are being thus educated, and should possess adaptations to secure alike the interest of all in their study. But what sciences possess these characteristics? On this subject, I will venture the expression of an opinion. It is profound study of the principles of the two great volumes that God has written, the Book of Nature, mental and physical, and the Book of Inspiration. These should be the essentials in such a course, because, that a knowledge of the laws and principles which underlie and explain the great facts which they reveal, is an essential necessity of all alike, and in their profoundest study all may be made to feel a common intensity of interest. No other departments of science can properly lay claim to

this high prominence, for the obvious reason that they do not possess the characteristics referred to.

While all thus meet in the study of these volumes, and start from them, as their point of departure, the high road which different classes of minds will subsequently pursue, will traverse those fields of science to which they are individually adapted. There will then be in the minds of all alike, the strongest attractions toward the objects of study, and the powers of all will receive the most full and perfect development. Education will then deserve the name. It will indeed lead out the mental powers, and render mind instinct with "thoughts that breathe, and words that burn."

3. I have a passing remark to make in respect to the strange prejudice that exists in many minds against the idea that education should, to some considerable extent, have a reference to the pupil's prospective sphere of action. To study the science of certain abstractions to which there will be no occasion to refer in future life, this imparts mental discipline; but to attain to a scientific knowledge of realities which we shall, ever after, have constant occasion to handle, and of principles, which we shall have as constant occasion to apply, in all the walks of life, this is time wasted. This has no tendency to discipline mind, but tends to lower the standard of education. Under the influence of this idea, young ladies in many of our highest seminaries study profoundly the science, abstract to them, of navigation and surveying, and never look into that of domestic economy. Thus it happens in the case of a very large portion of our highly educated ladies, that it may in the language of one of the most noble and illustrious women in this country, be truly said that "as to the knowledge that would qualify them to take care of a young infant, the cat or the sheep would be altogether their superiors in the care of the young of their own species." Things equally incongruous, might be said of many of our liberally educated men. When will the educators of youth understand that the same mental discipline can be acquired in the study of the science of realities as in that of abstractions, that the profound study of all sciences, alike tends to develop and beautify the mind, and that if any must be omitted, those should be the last to be overlooked which lie in the direction of the greater activities of life and existence, and teach us what we ought to be and to do in the midst of them. The time is not distant when this idea will be the general sentiment of the world, that science and religion are to be the common lights of universal humanity in every sphere of human thought and action, and all systems of education will be adapted to perpetuate this grand consummation.

It is hardly necessary to allude to the objection often urged against the New system, that it will make one-sided men, men well educated in some one direction and not at all in others. In reply, it may be sug-

gested that it may be as well to have men with one side well developed and polished, as to have them with no sides at all; to have men well educated in some specific directions, as to have them poorly educated in many, and well in none. But why should we expect such a result from this system? Whenever mankind are left to select their spheres of activity according to natural tastes and adaptations, the result always is a pleasing and desirable variety in the midst of diversity equally pleasing and desirable. The same will be true when the same principle obtains in education. A large portion of the sciences will be common ground to all liberally educated men, and when from this common ground they take their departure according to natural tastes and adaptations, there will be just that beautiful variety and diversity among them, which is best adapted to the highest interests of science, and to the educational wants of the public.

But it is urged that the New system, at the best, is only an experiment, the merits of which are yet to be tested. In what respects is it an experiment? The adaptation of the sciences to be studied to develop the mental powers, is no experiment. If the principle of having no more studies during a course of liberal education than can be studied well, be an experiment, it is high time that the principle were thoroughly tested; and who fears the result? Nor is the principle of educating mind according to leading adaptations, an experiment.—Under what systems were the great writers of antiquity educated, writers whose productions alone are claimed by the advocates of the Old system as worthy of the name of classical, and whose study in their judgment is indispensable to a liberal education? Every one of those giants in thought and literature were educated upon the very principle for which I am contending. The compulsory element had no place whatever in the system of mental training under which they were educated. The Old system is in its origin of quite modern date. There is not an element in the New system, the adaptation of which to secure the highest ends of education, has not been perfectly demonstrated in the experience of mankind.

Such is the system of liberal education to be pursued in the Cleveland University. The system is before you. There it stands. It will speak for itself, and coming generations will rejoice in its results.

Mr. Cowperthwait requested Prof. S. S. Green to give some account of the present condition of Brown University, premising that Mr. Kingsbury, during the last year's session, gave a brief description of the change which had taken place in its educational arrangements.

Prof. Green regretted that Mr. Kingsbury, or some other friend of the University, was not present, as he had but recently become connected with it. He would say, however, that the need of some modification of the prevailing course of study had been felt for several years.

At length a committee,—of which Pres. Wayland was chairman,—was appointed, to prepare a report upon the condition and wants of the College. This report, he presumed, most present had read. It sets forth the defects which exist in the present collegiate systems, and proposes the change which was one year since adopted. He preferred not to call the change a *New system*: he chose to speak of it as a *modification* of the prevailing one.—Brown University is Brown University still, but with its basis enlarged. New studies, brought into existence by the progress of science, had, from time to time, claimed a place in our collegiate courses, till at length the pressure upon the students had become so great as to result either in a superficial education or a broken constitution.

Such is the change, that although all the studies pursued in any of our Colleges are embraced in the various courses, no one student is compelled to go through all of them, to obtain a degree. If a young man from his own choice or that of his guardians, is looking forward to one of the learned professions, he takes a classical course, mingled with a sufficient amount of science to give him a generous culture in every direction. If, on the contrary, a young man is destined to some department of business in which the study of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy will best fit him for his pursuits, more of his time is devoted to science, and less to the classics. Thus it is, that the classical course is freed from the incumbrances which, in the ordinary college systems, must prove seriously detrimental to it. Hence, there seems to be no good foundation for the fear that classical learning will suffer by this change. On the contrary, it would seem that the study of Latin and Greek may be made thereby far more profitable. The experience of one year, so far as that goes, fully sustains the assertion, that classical study is sustaining no loss under the change.

In addition to the ordinary college courses, a course in Agriculture is to be established, and one in Didactics is already established. This is opened for all such students as intend to become professional teachers. The elements of the art of teaching, the best methods of organizing and managing a school, the construction and arrangement of school-houses, are among the general topics embraced in this course. The professor in this department, being, at the same time, superintendent of the Public Schools of Providence, has an opportunity of witnessing, and of exhibiting to his classes the practical application of the principles which he teaches.

Hon. Joel B. Sutherland, of Philadelphia, thought it best to stand by the old land-marks, and keep the beaten track of our fathers. The wisdom and experience of men in other days had denounced such a theory as that recommended by the lecturer, by the adoption of its opposite. He could not see the propriety of a *new* degree. It would

be very unwise to strike down the present standard of collegiate requirements, to help lazy boys to get a college title. He hoped, instead of seeking to become *Bachelors* of Philosophy, they would seek to become *Masters* of Philosophy. He would rather elevate the standard. He desired all education to be free; not only common schools, but colleges, and such a system of instruction maintained in them, as will make the boy a man, and make him fully aware of the duties of life.

Mr. Samuel Galloway, of Ohio, rose to correct what he believed to be an error in fact. Pres. Mahan had called the system which he recommended, *New*. He believed that there had long been several schools in the west, pursuing something of the plan proposed. As far as his observation had gone, if young men were allowed to determine what studies they would pursue, they would select very *few* of them, and even in these they would make but little proficiency. The result would be that you would soon have a heterogeneous class of young men, who would be discreditable to the Institution.

As the result of long experience, educators have arrived at a well digested system of education. Are these men, who have made education the business of their lives, to be the judges as to what is best for their pupils, or are the boys to judge for themselves? Young men at this stage of their education, are not really judges of what their tastes and inclinations are, or will be. I have known young men who had a distaste for some branches at first, who afterwards became passionately fond of them. Taste and appetite in science are only acquired by meeting and conquering the difficulties of science.

What has been termed the *compulsory* feature of our Institutions, is a necessary one;—every one must come to that conclusion, unless he is ready to admit that a young man of fifteen has a wiser head than a man of fifty. If a young man presents himself to study mental and moral Philosophy, Pres. Mahan, and every other man of sound discretion, would say to him, “you must have some mental discipline, before you can fathom the depths of these sciences.” Very properly he would *not be permitted* to pursue studies for which his mind is not prepared.

In conclusion, he remarked that he liked some features of the New system, but on the whole, he was too much of an old Hunker, to adopt it, as it was proposed.

Professor S. S. Green rose to make further explanations in reference to Brown University. He did not think that the arguments presented in favor of the New system had been touched by the gentlemen. There was a mistake as to the spirit of this reform, so far at least as Brown University was concerned. They did not seek to have pupils study less Latin, less Greek, or less Mathematics. They rather sought to

elevate the standard, and make them more thorough in all, and at the same time to accommodate education to the present wants of the age. Instead of diminishing the course of ancient languages, it was designed to free it from its incumbrances.

Professor J. H. Agnew, of the University of Michigan, remarked:—When the system of education is assailed, in which some of us have spent many of our happiest hours, and from which we think the world has derived many of its highest benefits, it cannot be expected that we should sit as unconcerned hearers. I shall therefore be pardoned, if I make a few comments upon the able lecture to which we have listened.

There is often much in the happy selection of a word. The demagogue understands this, and the lecturer has availed himself of it. The very appellation of the two systems—“the *New*” and “the *Old*,” invests one, in the public mind, with all the attraction of novelty, and casts upon the other the stigma of *antiquity*;—of being behind the age.

Then, the first characteristic of the Old system is its “compulsory element;” and, although Pres. Mahan so defines his term, that it shall express the fact, that all are required to pursue the same course, and for the same length of time, yet the idea of *compulsion*,—an unpleasant and ungrateful one, is thus made prominent. Now, sir, there is no compulsion in the Old system that should be regarded as at all offensive. No man is compelled to go to college, but after entering he is simply required to pursue that course which the wisdom of ages has proved to be most effective in attaining the desired ends of a liberal education. Is a manufactory a compulsory thing, because they who conduct it prescribe a specific course for the apprentice or journeyman, and admit none who will not pursue the course? There is prescription it is true, in the Old system,—prescription that can be shown to be wise and utilitarian, but no compulsion in the proper sense of the word.

The next characteristic of the system we love, is *exclusiveness*,—another term well suited for popular effect. By this the lecturer means, however, that it is only adapted to educate men for the professions, and not for the mechanical and other departments of active life. Now, sir, it seems to me that our lecturer is here greatly mistaken. Is it so, that a graduate of the old school is unfit for any other calling than that of a lawyer, doctor or divine? Does he never make a good farmer, mechanic, merchant? When he turns his attention to either of these courses of life, does not his education qualify him to pursue them with more efficiency than he could otherwise? The disciplinary process through which he has passed, in the rigidity and prescription of the Old

system, has made him more of a man, and qualified him for occupying any position in life better than he could have done without it.

But 'tis further said that it educates only the *intellect*, not the heart, and that it scarcely studies either the book of nature or of revelation. Strange assertion! Has the lecturer forgotten the daily prayers, the preaching on the Sabbath, the instruction from the Bible,—which exist in most of our colleges? In what way does he propose more effectually to teach the heart? And is it so that in our Colleges the book of nature is not studied? Who does not know that almost all the sciences that record and classify the facts of nature, are a regular part of a college course? When I remember that Geology, Mineralogy, Botany, Astronomy, etc., unfold to the student in college the wondrous works of God, as manifested in nature, I wonder what the gentleman means. In the prevailing collegiate system, the leaves of the book of nature are successively thrown open, and the student is made familiar with his lessons, and taught to look through nature up to nature's God.

But next we come to the crying sin of the Old system,—the waste of time on Latin, Greek and Mathematics, and the awful fact that under this system the mind does not come in contact with "*facts*," nor is it bent down upon great thoughts. I should like to know, sir, with what but facts is it generally conversant in the study of ancient languages? And that man, I must say, has read little either of Latin or Greek, who has not stumbled on many large, great, mighty thoughts. Where shall we find greater, nobler thoughts, than those which breathe and burn in speeches of Demosthenes? I tell you, sir, many a poor fellow has found it a mightier task for his intellect, to master the mind of Demosthenes, in his Greek pages, than to traverse the *pons asinorum*. Then go to the pure ethical Plato, and tell me whether there are not in him *great* thoughts and *good* thoughts, over which it were well for us to ponder more. Oh! sir, there are richer mines and purer gold in those old dusty pages of Grecian and Roman antiquity, than men ever found in Golconda or California, and it were better far for us and the world, to be delving in them, than in the auriferous rocks or sands of our virgin state.

Then, sir, besides the rich ores stored away beneath the soil of Greece and Rome, the very struggle necessary to reach them, the toil and systematic labor required for the acquisition of Greek and Latin, are the very best discipline of the mind,—the surest road to the symmetrical development of the spiritual being.

I know well, some think that it can be done in other ways, but I truly believe, and I think you do too, sir, that when Latin and Greek are either thrown aside, or placed in the back ground in our systems of study, instead of giants we shall have dwarfs, and American scholars,

even now sufficiently below par with Europeans, will then be ashamed to look them in the face.

I pause, and leave to others to scan other parts of the lecture, and to maintain the superiority of the older system, which has wrought such wonders for the world. We trust it is not yet ready to vanish away.

Prof. William Brand, of Franklin College, Indiana, was sorry that the terms *Old* and *New System*, had been introduced into this discussion. It was calculated to excite prejudice. If the term *modification* had been used, there would not, probably, been as much discussion. He believed that there were many studies pursued in colleges that were productive of little benefit to the students, yet he confessed that he possessed much of a spirit of *conservatism* in relation to this question. He had long been a teacher in a western college, and therefore knew something about collegiate education, by contact of actual experience. He believed that some modification of the present college system, demanded by the requirements of Educational interests. He recognized the principle of *progress*, but at the same time he would hold on to the principle of conservatism. What, then, was the remedy for the acknowledged defects of the Old system? Increased attention to the common school system;—the course of instruction *there* is too limited; and must be enlarged.

Pres. Mahan.—Many of the remarks made by gentlemen are entirely irrelevant to the question under discussion. I should be ashamed to advocate what has been imputed to the *New* system. It seeks to *elevate*—elevate education in all its departments.

The term "New system" is used in no invidious sense. We wish by it merely to place it in contradistinction to the Old. It was so used by Pres. Wayland, and I use it for want of a better. We do not, I again repeat, seek to abridge the study of the languages or the classics. The greatest desire is for higher attainments, and one of the strongest arguments in favor of the New system is, that the study of all branches of education would be made more *thorough*.

The great defect of the times is, that our scholars are too superficial, and the great question is, how shall this defect be remedied? The point presented has not been met. It is simply this,—can the student master twenty different sciences in six years?—or rather, can he master them in four? This is the problem to be solved;—this the principle that we wish to present to this Convention. All are in favor of thorough education;—let us then come up to the practical question;—can this be attained in a four years collegiate course of study?

Mr. Galloway, after introducing a humorous anecdote in illustration of his remarks, said he thought the Old system of education the best calculated to prepare young men for the active concerns of life. What was the Old system? It was the path our fathers had trod.

Pres. Mahan.—That is the difficulty.

Mr. Galloway.—The difficulty! yes. But I prefer to tread old ways, rather than wander in devious paths, illuminated only, perhaps, by *ignes fatui*. Colleges did not entirely educate men—it ought not to be expected of them. Those who are educated under the New system are no better. A mere mathematician, however thorough, is not an educated man;—a mere classical scholar is not an educated man. I do not want one-sided men;—men who look with a squint eye one way, and with an open eye the other; I want men whose eyes are open to *all* nature. Who are the men that exercise the greatest control over the most important events that are transpiring in the world? Collegiates—men who have been thoroughly instructed in the Book of Nature and of Revelation.

He could see nothing in the New system that showed man a better way to get to heaven, or a better way to stay on earth.

Association adjourned to meet at half-past seven o'clock, P. M.

Dr. Anderson, of Miami College, remarked that he could not see how the present mode of teaching, in our colleges, could advantageously be much changed.

In many of the western colleges English Departments are established, in which young men can advance as far as they choose, and receive diplomas accordingly, but we cannot make any change in the regular collegiate course—in collegiate discipline. There is nothing that we can devise that will take the place of such systematic discipline as is afforded by our Institutions as now organized.

It is a dangerous experiment to attempt to alter the present arrangement of instruction in the colleges of our country; we have a regular graduated system, rising from the common school to the University.

Rev. Dr. Duffield, of Detroit, said that he was not addicted to making speeches, and rose, rather in compliance with the request of some he respected, to make a few remarks. He regretted very much the antagonism which, it seemed to him, to have been the tendency, if not the aim of the lecture to induce, between the friends of the *Old* system of Collegiate education, and what the lecturer had called **THE NEW**. He saw no reason for such hostility. There was a vast amount of mind to be educated, and it needed all the various methods that had been adopted. He preferred to have every gradation, from the primary schools, through the union district schools, the High Schools, Academies, Colleges and Universities, and the endless varieties of private in-

stitutions formed by individual or associated enterprize, for the education of youths of either or both sexes. There was work enough for them all to do.

It was manifest, however, that the plan advocated by the lecturer was accounted an advance; nay, a reformation, in the work of education. But he questioned the claim to the name of Reformers, advanced by those who opposed or disparaged the study of the Latin and Greek Classics. Prejudice and envy had often sought to decry those noble models of taste and splendid diction, which had descended to us from the old civilized world. But their claim to the respect of scholars had always been successfully vindicated. He was not going to enter into the merits of the discussions had on the subject of the utility of the Latin and Greek Classics. He considered that matter settled, and was happy to hear that Brown University meant not to degrade, but to advance their importance, by the plan adopted there. He doubted, however, whether the plan is an improvement; and whether its effects will not be injurious. He thought the design of Collegiate education should be distinctly adverted to, and kept in view in the consideration of this subject. The College was not designed for men, who, having quit the pursuits of business and different industrial vocations, sought an education after they had already taken their place as citizens of full age in the walks of life. It was designed and adapted for minors. The object of their education especially, should ever be to draw forth the mental powers, and discipline them for future use. This could only be done by some method which would call the different faculties of the mind into frequent and active exercise. The study of Natural Science, and even of the Mathematics, possessed not half the advantages for the development of true taste and imagination, and the formation of true judgment, as did that of the Greek and Latin Classics. The acquisition of languages was most appropriate to early youth, where the memory was most easily cultivated and its retentive power greatest. But, on the adaptation of classical studies for forming the mind and disciplining its powers, he would not dwell. They were precisely the studies best fitted to the years of youth in College, and calculated to prepare them for any profession or vocation in future life. Should irregulars be admitted to College, or studies be selected suited to the taste of minors, the consequence he feared would be fatally injurious to the purposes of a sound and useful education. It would interfere with the discipline, and would not fail to embarrass the course of instruction appropriate to youth, towards whom professors were expected to sustain the relation, and possess for the time being, the authority of parents.

If young men, having reached and passed their legal majority, saw fit to relinquish industrial avocations, and seek an education that might better qualify them for the learned professions, they ought to submit to the necessary discipline, for the purpose of receiving the greatest good.

He deprecated the idea of conforming the discipline and schedule of studies, heretofore found best adapted for minors, to the exigencies and demands of men, whose reason, judgment and other faculties, were invigorated by age, and required altogether a different style of education. Professional lectures, and the absence of every system of personal surveillance and strict discipline, as in medical and law schools, might be demanded by such, as better suited to their years and individual responsibilities as citizens; but such a system would prove ruinous to the mind and morals, if adopted for boys. Youth were too prone, and especially in this country, to account themselves men; and many parents were too ready, at the earliest possible period, when their sons could be made to earn something or support themselves,—to think or even expect, if not demand, that they should have finished their education. Serious evils must inevitably result to the interests of education, if the two systems are to be blended in the same institution, and still more so, if the New is to supersede the Old, well and long tried method of education for youth. The wants of our country, and the demands of many, may indeed have rendered it necessary, that provision should be made for aiding those advanced in years, in getting what is called a liberal education. He believed that attention should be paid promptly to them; but he hoped that the ruthless attempt would not be made to revolutionize, or *reform*, as it is boastfully said, the system of Collegiate instruction, so extensively adopted in the United States, and in which the Latin and Greek classics hold a conspicuous place. He would rather make a separate and distinct provision for that class of students who are averse, because of their age, to be immersed in College walls, or subjected to College discipline. Institutes appropriate to such persons, might well be organized; but they should not propose themselves as models for our Colleges, nor their friends commence a war against old and established methods. The novelties of the day are not always improvements, and the history of Academical institutions, Schools or Colleges, whatever they might be called, which have attempted to disparage Classical Literature, has not, to say the least, been savoury. He regarded such hostility almost barbarian. It is true that much of late had been said in praise of our Saxon tongue, and the study of it urged, as though it were all sufficient for full interchange of thought, and as though it were pedagogical if not almost treasonable, to use any other than Saxon words in public discourses. To the Saxon rudiment of our English language he awarded all that was its due, and admitted, that in addressing the young, the rude, and the ignorant, the scholar would feel the necessity of using it as far as possible. But there were ideas and shades of thought on many subjects, and of great importance, which no man could fully and accurately express, if he must be restricted to the mere Saxon portion of our language. It formed indeed the foundation, but

a very small part of the noble superstructure, which had been reared upon it. He dared to aver, and it was a view he wished gentlemen particularly to take of the subject, that no man could be said to know, and thoroughly understand his own English tongue, who was unacquainted with the Latin and the Greek, especially the former. It had been urged, that the works in these languages having been translated, and made fully accessible to the English reader, there was no further need for such a waste of time and study, as were generally bestowed by youth to acquire them, and that too, it was said, often so imperfectly, that many cared never to revert to their Latin and Greek authors, after they had graduated. Whatever objections applied to the incorrect and imperfect manner in which youth were drilled, and to the embarrassments thence thrown in the way of Classical study, he thought deserved no attention, except only to counteract the mischief which those who understood not the nature and value of Classical education were producing, by demands and attempts, either to crowd the study of the Latin and Greek languages out of Colleges, or into as limited a space as possible.

The Latin language was the copious fountain of a large portion of our current English,—no man could speak five sentences on any subject, of an intellectual and even moral nature, without using words, the Latinity of which the scholar at once could detect. The most zealous advocates of the natural sciences in contradistinction from Classical education, could not even read to full advantage the noble works of the renowned Lord Bacon, to whom modern philosophy and science owe so much. The very men who raised the loudest cry about the Saxon element, often furnished palpable examples of Latinity, in their expressions, and sometimes awkward Latinity too, as in the case of such words as *conditionate*, &c., which were neither Latin, Saxon, nor English, and which at once betrayed to the scholar the want of thorough knowledge of language in those that used them. It was impossible for a man to speak and write with perspicuity and precision, in his own English, who was ignorant of the source whence so large a portion of his tongue has been derived. He commended the study of the Latin and Greek, and especially the former, as the best method of making a youth thoroughly acquainted with, and at home in the use of the English tongue. Dictionaries would not and could not afford him the help, of which, if conversant in the Latin, he would not even feel the need. But the task of exemplifying in detail, the truth and force of these remarks, he left to others, and would not trespass further on the attention of the Association, than again to say, in conclusion, that he hoped all antagonism in any of the branches or methods of education proposed would cease. He was for multiplying in every direction the facilities for education, and for meeting the wants and demands of our entire population, in every appropriate practicable way. Every addi-

tion, in whatever degree, to the educated mind of our country, was so much redeemed from the empire of darkness. He hoped to see, beside the numerous private and associated enterprises for the education of youth, our national system of free schools universally extended, and parochial schools also established, where practicable, by the churches, for the *religious* instruction of their youth. He rejoiced in the district school, and union schools, and hoped to see, in every city, town, and densely populous region, the high school also, which would bring the benefits and facilities, even of our Collegiate institutions, close to the door of every man, so that those parents and indigent youth, who could not afford the expense of residence abroad, might, near their own homes, be able to procure, and without the need of charity from individuals, the benefits of a sound and liberal education. He wished utterly to destroy every thing like a monopoly, or aristocracy in education.

Mr. C. Gillingham, of Philadelphia, said, I have listened to the discussion since its commencement with much interest, but no friend of the New system has presented it in exactly the light in which I view it, nor have the remarks made in opposition to it, suggested a solution of the difficulties besetting the present system. If my views are erroneous, I know of no surer way of having them corrected than by publishing them here.

In their remarks, gentlemen seemed to confine themselves to the interest of the students, overlooking the fact that if college education is necessary in our country, the prosperity of our colleges themselves is inseparably linked with the true interest of the people at large, and that any diminution of the circle of college influence, is adverse to the good of the community. It was a fact not to be controverted, that the increase of students had by no means kept pace with our rapid increase in population. This might be taken as evidence that the tendency of our people was against high attainments in science and literature, or that the course of study did not meet the popular mind. The latter seems to be the case, and the cause appears to be closely connected with the origin of our universities, or of those after which they have been modelled. In past times, the course of instruction comprehended little more than a thorough study of the Ancient classics, mathematics, English Literature and Mental Science. Since that time the boundaries of knowledge have been wonderfully enlarged, and in addition to these the student must be acquainted with Chemistry, Mechanical Philosophy, Geology and the three great branches of Natural Science. Notwithstanding this increase of labor, the time granted to the student has not been lengthened. As an unavoidable consequence, the old or the new studies, or both, have been neglected, and less thoroughness of mental training and greater superficiality in attainment have marked

the college graduates. Individuals who had maintained an honorable standing in institutions second to none in the Union, had been obliged to spend their vacations under private instruction, to obtain that practical acquaintance with science, that they hoped to attain under the tuition of the very distinguished gentlemen who held the station of professors. It is not asserted nor presumed that this want of success arises from incapacity in the faculty, for such a supposition is impossible in the case to which I refer. It is a legitimate result of the want of sufficient time and of the proper facilities for the study of those sciences, that make the student the practical worker in the world. It could hardly be doubted, that so far as any thorough acquaintance on the part of students with modern science, is concerned, our colleges were barren in their results. The corporation of Brown University had attempted to overcome this difficulty, by allowing a choice of studies, by affording opportunities for thorough, practical study of the most important sciences of observation, and by permitting the student to spend sufficient time in the institution to complete the mastery of his course. It was earnestly to be desired, that the experiment now going on at Providence might show the possibility of a beneficial change.

Some gentlemen feared that we should have more superficial scholars than now. They seemed to forget that the condition of graduation was a complete acquaintance with whatever was undertaken, and that time enough was allowed to accomplish this object, while in the Old system, if it was not done in four years it was left undone. It is difficult for me to see, how superficialism is to arise from five, six or seven years study, while profoundness is to be the fruit of four.

A gentleman, who had contributed largely to the entertainment of the Association, had his fears aroused by an entirely different cause. He thought that by attempting too much thoroughness, in a limited range of studies, we should overlook every thing else. He did not wish to see men looking straight forward on one side, and a squint on the other, but such as were open-eyed in every direction. I have no such fear and no such wish. I hold in no very high estimation men open-eyed upon every side. They are usually very near sighted whichever way they look. It was not in words alone that the divine injunction was applicable: "Keep thine eye single to the light, and thy whole body shall be full of light."

The change proposed had been opposed on the ground of its being a voluntary system, and it was asked, what has produced all our great mathematicians and classical scholars? I answer, the voluntary system, despite old college rules and requirements. It will be found that most of those who have become eminent in any department of learning, owe their success to a devotion to that pursuit which filled their heart's desire, while they neglected other branches, though professors may have insisted upon greater attention. You will hardly find a world

renowned mathematician who maintained a respectable rank in his class as a classical scholar, and the converse of the proposition is equally true.

The term voluntary, seemed to excite the fears of many, and we should infer from their remarks that the compulsory process, if I may use the expression, was universal.

The voluntary system was no new thing. It had been adopted in the best German Universities, to which many of our young men resort, and I have yet to learn that the graduates of these institutions fear a comparison with those of this or any other country.

The gentleman who preceded me, and others who spoke upon that side of the question, thought that the inevitable tendency of the change was to banish or degrade the classics. Without feeling qualified to express an opinion upon their value, I think I may say that those who attach so much importance to them, need be under no apprehension on their account. They will take care of themselves. If they are of such transcendent value in the discipline of the mind; if precision and elegance in the use of our own tongue are impossible without an intimate acquaintance with them; if by their aid we can alone be lifted from the ranks of the vulgar and uneducated to the circle of the elegant and refined, no change in our College requisitions could affect them. They would assert their claims with a force as sure and powerful as that by which the sun holds his place in the heavens; and we might as well legislate that the mother shall love her child, as to insist upon studies that base their authority upon a "higher law" than College enactments.

Admitting the importance of the study of Latin and Greek, I am pained to hear gentlemen cast reproach upon our good old Saxon tongue, as being fit only for the vulgar and uneducated, and incapable of that precision and elegance which are necessary to a vehicle of thought. Did we forget that this much abused Saxon is the language of the fire-side and the family circle, that it contains those "household words" which lie nearest the heart? Did we forget that it formed the bulk of the choicest specimen of literature that the world had ever seen, the English Bible, the combination of all that is sublime, beautiful and attractive in poetry or prose.

Mr. Amos Perry, of Providence, said:—After stating that the adoption of the New system of College instruction would, in their opinion, prove detrimental to classical learning, the advocates of the Old system have brought before us in luminous array the arguments for retaining the ancient languages in our course of instruction. I have listened with interest to these arguments; but what, I ask, is their purpose? Do the friends of the New system, putting a light estimate upon the languages as means of intellectual discipline, propose to exclude them

from or degrade them *in* their course of study? Not at all. On the contrary, I know that many who favor the New system of College instruction are unflinching friends of the classics, and would promote their study in every reasonable way. Now, while I am unprepared to recommend the New system for general adoption, I am also unprepared to see it condemned by any indirect process, or to see destructive radicalism imputed to those who, favoring it, claim to be favoring the most conservative measures. I expressly deny that hostility to the classics forms any part of the New system, properly considered; and I have heard nothing which convinces me that the classics would receive less attention under the New system, than under the Old.

The classics, all must acknowledge, have been too little studied even under the Old system in our country, and it is a matter of practical importance how they may be made more subservient to the high purposes of education. To promote their study and the study of the natural sciences, one College has recently modified its general plan of instruction. It will be understood that I refer to Brown University, whose position, though explained by one of its professors, seems still to be so misunderstood and confounded with other institutions, as to justify further remarks from one who has no official connection or other relations with it, than those which arise from residing in the same city where it is established. The officers of this institution, deeply imbued with the spirit of the classics, desired to extend its course of study and to enlarge its means of instruction; and to carry out their views, the friends of the College, and of popular education generally, raised by subscription an additional fund of one hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars; the income of which is employed in accordance with the design above expressed. The whole movement is one in which the people at large have manifested a lively interest. The new professorships, the increased number of students, and, above all, the increased activity and interest on the part of professors and students in the classics and in the sciences, are facts which none can gainsay or resist. The New system, as it exists in Brown University, is but the Old system, so enlarged and modified as to meet existing urgent wants in the community. Students in the languages and in the sciences can press their investigation further, and with greater advantages than ever before, and very many have already shown a disposition to avail themselves of these privileges; and the University in its various departments shows signs, not of deteriorated scholarship and decay, but of healthy growth, of improved habits of study and thought, and of a higher order of scholarship and character. Practical difficulties may arise in the working of this system, but it will be in season to provide for them when they appear. This College can, at worst, fall back upon its old system, renewed in its energies and enlarged in its means of usefulness.

Mr. G. M. Wharton, of Philadelphia, in substance, said, That in his view, the subject was one of vast practical importance. It involved the question of the proper training of the minds of the young men of our country—of those in whose hands her destinies were placed, inasmuch as they would be her future legislators and governors.

The great mass of our youth had but few years to give to a collegiate course—at most, three or four. The necessity of an education of some kind, in the higher departments of learning, was admitted—the difference of opinion which prevailed, was concerning the particular branches of study to which the attention of young men should be devoted. The demands upon them for active exertion towards their own support, were so urgent, that no time could be well spared in mere experiment, or thrown away in misdirected labor. Hence the importance, that the few years allowed to them for study should be wisely employed.

Under the Old system, which had, at least, the advantage on its side of experience, and of very general acceptance in all civilized countries, the best mental discipline was supposed to be reached by the study of the ancient languages, accompanied or followed up by a course of mathematical science, and the whole concluded by instruction in mental and moral philosophy. The gradation was a natural one. It is known, that youth is peculiarly adapted for the acquisition of languages—and the benefits, in various ways, which resulted from the laborious study of the Greek and Latin tongues, were well known, and had been forcibly stated by previous speakers. A like remark was applicable to the mathematical studies—and prepared in this way, the mind was fitted to grasp and master the abstruse difficulties presented by mental science. If a correct system of education was one (as he supposed it to be) which best disciplined the mind and fitted its possessor for the discharge of the practical duties of life—especially such duties as rested upon *American* young men,—and not merely that which imparted a certain amount of information—then, if the Old system were such a system, it ought to be adhered to by us. We should resist an exchange for any other plan of education, which, whatever might be its apparent immediate advantages, failed of the great results spoken of.

It had been objected to the system of the two English Universities, that while the one paid too exclusive attention to classical learning, the other devoted an undue share of time to the mathematics—in either case, to the neglect of highly important studies. Perhaps the criticism was partially correct—although the error was alleged to consist in the too protracted cultivation of those departments of learning, whence so much benefit was derived. But was not the New system chargeable with the same fault which had been objected by its advocates to the Old, as developed in these famous Universities? Was it not recommended by its friends, to follow in all cases the supposed bent of

mind in the young man—and to cultivate educationally his faculties in that particular direction, to the exclusion of other courses? and was not the preference very clearly indicated for those departments which were connected with physical science—and for the acquisition of the modern languages, to the neglect of the ancient? were these favorite pursuits as conducive to the great purpose of education, viz:—the training and strengthening of the mind—as the studies recommended by the Old system? This was a point of the first importance, which, in his judgment, the advocates of the New system were bound, but had failed to demonstrate.

Professor Read, of Indiana State University. This system, claimed as New, and spoken of as but recently proposed, is in fact by no means of the last year's growth. It is the system of the London University, and was so from its origin. That institution, I doubt not, is a useful one. But does it in reputation stand above all the other Colleges and Universities of Great Britain? A late British Review says of it, it is yet to produce its first eminent name. This remark may be a strong one, and in some degree the offspring of prejudice; but certain it is, the London University has not attained a standing above all other British institutions of higher education.

It is the system of the University of Virginia, and was so from the first. That is an institution highly respectable and useful, and with a Faculty not surpassed for talents and learning in this country. But, graduation in that University is the exception, and not the rule. Few of those who enter ever expect to graduate. I have it on the highest authority, that not more than one out of a hundred takes the degree of A. M., which is the University degree, and, with the exception of modern languages, embraces nothing more as a requirement for its attainment than is embraced in the course for graduation in other Colleges. The course of study and the authors read, are about the same as those of other similar institutions. Whether better attended to is a matter of mere speculation, in regard to which there would of course be varying opinions.

There is another fact which would seem to indicate, that the open, voluntary system of that University, does not in general produce on the part of students a residence in the institution, for a period sufficiently long for the work of education—for the training of the intellectual man—for forming the character, and giving it a permanent and fixed direction. The whole number of students in the Virginia University, was the last year, 374. In the New England Colleges, one-fifth of their total number of students are residents of more than three years' standing, and not more than one-fourth are of one year's standing. But in the Virginia University, out of the 374, two hundred and sixty-one are actually in their first year, eighty-two are students in their

second year's attendance, and but thirty-one of three or more years standing.

Here is the great difficulty. If you have no prescribed time, if you have no regular course marked out for the student, he soon attains the object of his ambition, the honor of having been at the University, and leaves without any valuable mental discipline.

But the free and open course is that of most of our Academies and High Schools, and always has been so, and for them may be best, and indeed necessary. Colleges are designed for higher training, and for a more liberal and extended course of instruction. This great object can never be effected with railroad speed, nor in a democratic way, any more than by a royal way.

It is objected, that in our Colleges there is the same fixed course for all, for the slow of acquisition and for the genius, for the youth of extraordinary powers, and for the dull of apprehension. Let us look at the fact. A course is prescribed such as may be compassed by the youth of ordinary powers. Is there nothing then, beyond this course, which the youth of more than ordinary ability may do? It is well known, that in all our Colleges such young men do go much beyond the prescribed course. They study modern languages; they study other authors than those read by their class; they aim at extraordinary excellence; they attend to subjects out of the course for which provision is now very generally made in our Colleges. There is work enough, and more than enough for any youth, be his industry and his talents what they may.

But is it true, that the dull or idle student is graduated as a mere matter of course after a four years' residence? So far as I know, and I claim some knowledge on this subject, this is not the fact. Such students, it is true, do not advance to the end of the senior year, and then upon final examination are rejected. The class is sifted before that period. Those who do not succeed in their studies, take the dyspepsia, or some other convenient disease, and quit College. Or, it may be, they receive a hint from the Faculty which is not likely to be unheeded. The reason that few candidates for graduation are rejected, is that they are already select men, and have passed a variety of probations indicating some degree of fitness for their standing. I do not mean to say that there are not young men graduated who ought not to be, but I wholly dissent from the opinion endorsed by the lecturer, that in our American Colleges there are but two requirements for graduation, the payment of College bills, and a residence of four years within College walls.

So far as respects the Latin and Greek classics, as forming a part of liberal training, I feel no concern, be the system what it may. They have survived all attacks hitherto made upon them, and within the last ten or fifteen years there have been published more school editions of*

Latin and Greek authors, (I do not say more editions of entire works,) in the United States, than in any country of the world. There has been a constantly increasing demand for such books, which shows how extensively they are used in our American institutions of education.

I regret the tone and spirit of the lecture in regard to our Colleges. These institutions have done some service. Changes and reforms have been made in College education, and still further reforms may be needed. But a reduction of the time of residence required for graduation, and the leaving of the course of study to the option of the student, are not, in my judgment, among the needed reforms. Such reform, if generally introduced into American Colleges, as I think, will diminish the number of those who take a liberal course of instruction, and end in the deterioration of the standard of education.

Dr. Manley, President of the University of Alabama, being present, though not as a delegate, having been invited to address the Association on the subject under discussion, gave a brief history of the Institution over which he presided, portraying some of the difficulties under which they labor in their efforts to elevate the standard of intellectual culture.

His object was inquiry for information, not discussion. The question arises as to the proper function of colleges and seminaries of learning. Is it to prepare young men for *specific* pursuits, or is it for general knowledge. If for the former, the student is not prepared to judge. And another question arises, as to whether colleges *ought* to prepare young men for specific pursuits. Is this their legitimate functions?

We have presented for our consideration the two systems—the close College system, and the open University system. Will not the open University create an indefinite multiplication of classes, of teachers, and an increase of expense in teachers? This, it occurred to him, would be a difficulty. He was of opinion also that the open University system would lead to idleness on the part of pupils. Institutions of a more practical character might, in some places, be of benefit. But if there is a demand for strictly professional or *specific* education, is it not better to have Institutions for that purpose?

He apprehended, moreover, that the open University system was not so new as gentlemen appeared to think. The Old University of Virginia was established by Jefferson on this system. The same experiment has been tried in many other Institutions. Are gentlemen prepared to say what was the result? Had it not been a failure?

Mr. Thayer, of Boston. I am master only of the poor meagre Anglo Saxon tongue, with which to express my thoughts—cannot, therefore, be expected to express those delicate shades of thought, such as *Latin* scholars only can express! He would not, however, deprecate the study of the languages. That the study of languages was of benefit, he would not for a moment deny. But are there not other branches

of study equally calculated to develope and strengthen the mind? Will not mathematical study effect it? and is not history, "philosophy teaching by example?"

It was the voice of the people that demanded the change in Brown University. The people will have what they want; they say what they need, and what they will have.—Diplomas, it is true, are in many instances passports to good society. But give me the man who *knows*—who has his knowledge in his *head*, rather than a certificate from *others* that he knows. He enumerated many distinguished New England men who knew but little more of Latin than himself, yet they carved out their way to the highest posts of distinction.

Mr. R. L. Cooke, of New Jersey, remarked that many minds labored under a misapprehension in reference to the true aims of a Collegiate education. The great object of a College course is not to qualify a man for any *particular* calling or profession,—but simply to fit him to *begin* life. Only after his Collegiate course is closed, is he prepared judiciously and understandingly to choose that path in life, for which, by reason of his constitutional and intellectual peculiarities, he is best adapted. The great question then is, what course of training is best calculated to fit him to make this most important decision of his life? Is it *that* course which tends to educate one faculty of the mind at the expense of *all*, or *almost all* the others? Would not this in effect be like tying up one arm, thereby rendering it powerless, while we stimulate the other to an undue growth, by constant exercise? If we wish fully to develope the physical man, we must exercise every muscle;—we must *educate* every power of the body. Does not the full development of the intellectual man, demand a training analogous to this?

It doubtless should be the design of a Collegiate course, to build a firm and broad foundation, upon which the young man may afterward erect such a symmetrical superstructure, as an *educated taste* and a cultivated judgment might indicate. If his early education is conducted on a one-sided system, he is not prepared to enter upon the active duties of life, except in that particular department for which he has been specifically trained. Are not the graduates of West Point illustrations of the truth of this remark? They leave that institution, thoroughly prepared—as no other institution in our country can prepare them,—for all those pursuits which involve a thorough knowledge of the higher branches of mathematical science, and in those pursuits they have attained pre-eminence; but have they as a class, distinguished themselves in any other department, or are they as well fitted thereby for the ordinary walks of life?

Allusions have been made to distinguished names, whom we all delight to honor, as examples of success, without classical education.

These are exceptions to the rule; they have become great, not from their *lack* of classical knowledge, but in spite of it, and their numbers are comparatively small; but we can point you to thousands in our land, occupying places of prominence and trust, who have been enabled to attain their respective positions, and maintain them with honor, through the influence of that training which is based upon classical knowledge. I doubt not but that some of the gentlemen who have to-day advocated another system of education, with so much zeal and ability, are indebted to their classical education, for their ability so to do.

Prof. Green, of Brown University, wished to explain in relation to the Institution with which he was connected. The change was made at the urgent recommendation of some of the noblest minds of New England. And the change was with reference to the most thorough classical course; and he remarked that a large majority of students in the University entered for the full course. Its practical tendency was not to underrate classical study. It seems to be supposed by gentlemen that we would *lower* the standard. By no means. We would elevate it. We would enlarge the basis, and build higher on the superstructure.

Dr. A. F. Waldo, of Ohio, remarked that the University of Virginia, which had adopted the open or New system, had been stigmatized as a *failure*. He had recently conversed with President McGuffey, who informed him that there were four hundred students in attendance. If this be a failure, it is surely a *splendid failure*.

Rev Mr. Wilcox, of Ohio, looked upon the organization of this Association as an era in the educational history of our country; looked upon it as a mighty means in enabling the people to scale the heights of knowledge; public mind was calling for change in the education of the youth of the country; if the new system was of God it must succeed, perchance those who fought against it might find themselves fighting against God. The question was one of progress; objections were raised against rail-roads; the people had demanded rail roads and rail-road cars, and they had them; they laid aside sloops and demanded steamboats, and they had them; they were now demanding balloons to traverse the ethereal heavens, and he did not know how long it would be before they would have them. He was in favor of modifications, required by the peculiarities of our country and the exigencies of the times.

He thought that this was not a question as to Brown or any other University. It was simply a question of *principle*. It has been supposed that the New system would exclude the *classics*.—Now if it be

contended that they would not thus exclude the classics, then the objectors are getting up men of straw, and knocking them down. He would not exclude one line from the classics—he would rather add to. In all other walks of life young men do select their course. Why should they be denied this privilege in selecting courses of study?

Mr. N. Nathans, of Philadelphia, remarked that he did not represent any University, but he represented the High School of Philadelphia, which might with propriety be styled, “the People’s College.” The New system, as it has now been presented, cannot properly claim that title, for it is not really New. It has been pursued in the High School of Philadelphia, and it works well. He could not say how it would work in Colleges, as he had no experience in them, yet he had heard no valid arguments against this system. He would not advocate any “royal road to education.” He was desirous of giving every child in this country a full, complete and thorough education, and he thought that the time was not far distant, when every young gentleman would have the means afforded to him of being instructed in all the higher departments of study.

He would rather see our schools brought up to our colleges—not bring colleges down to the schools.

Reference had been made to West Point. He thought that great injustice had been done to that Institution, for many distinguished men had graduated there. He felt that the New states at least ought not to disparage that Institution.

Mr. Cooke disclaimed any intention to disparage West Point:—he considered it pre-eminent in *its peculiar department*.

Prof. Charles Cleveland, of Philadelphia, thought that the discussion had taken too wide a range. The discussion concerning the classics was much, if not all of it, irrelevant. It was doing the advocates of the New system great injustice, to suppose that they were opposed to the classics. No such opinion had been expressed by them. He did not suppose that there were six men in the Association, who were opposed to classical study.

No one could be a finished scholar, without a knowledge of classical literature; he might be useful to mankind without Latin, but his ignorance of Latin would not be the element of his usefulness.

He disliked the word *compromise* in its every phase, but he thought that there might be some modification of the Old system, that would be beneficial, yet he would oppose any modification that would lessen the amount of classical study.

Hon. J. B. Sutherland, of Philadelphia, approved the lowering of the grade of college education. He disapproved of a new degree, which

no one understood. We must stand by the old landmarks, in this country and in England. He wanted scholars, in the fullest sense of the word, not half finished ones. Too many studies were undertaken to be taught at Brown University. A man could not be fitted for a profession in a college. He should go to other institutions to qualify himself for a profession.

Mr. Peirce knew it had been said—"fools rush in where Angels blush to look." He felt himself in this position; but he rose only to act as a physician, to attend to the wounds of combatants in the discussion, and dismiss them to other work. He gave an anecdote to illustrate his position; that it was time for gentlemen on both sides to shake hands and make friends.

He had been pleased, greatly pleased, with the discussion. He did not think that the advocates of the Old system would chain the car of education to the PAST; nor did he understand that President Wayland or President Mahan, in their zeal for improvement, would exclude any good thing found in the records of the past. He supposed that the world was progressive. He hoped, therefore, the advocates of the Old system would not strenuously refuse to conform, if necessary, to the spirit or demands of the age. I speak not against the classics; I venerate them and venerate those who drank deep at those fountains.

At the close of the debate on college system, the President, Bishop Potter, was requested by the Convention to express his views on the subject.

In consenting, he said that he could not think of detaining the Convention with more than a few hints. The subject would doubtless come up hereafter, and it had received on this occasion a very full and able discussion. He might remark that to him it was by no means novel.

More than twenty years since he had been invited to become the President of Geneva College in the state of New York, when it was first established, and he had then prepared, at the request of the Trustees, a plan of study, which embraced the most essential feature of what is now termed the New system. In Union College, where he had been an officer for many years, similar attempts had been made. The result in neither of these cases had been so marked or satisfactory as to inspire very high hopes for an extension of the plan. He might be permitted, however, to add for himself, that his sympathies had always been with progress in this as in many other respects. He was far from supposing that our collegiate system was perfect, and he did not doubt that it was our duty, while we cling to all that is valuable in the

existing methods of Instruction, to give a fair trial to every proposed improvement.

To the friends then, of the Old system, (so called) he would say, *Live and let live.* Allow this experiment to be tried, and be thankful for whatever good it may accomplish. We need not apprehend serious disaster to any valuable element in the systems now prevalent. What are the colleges of this country but emanations of public opinion? They are immediately dependent on the people, and are essentially popular in their spirit and influence. They have been greatly modified during the last half century, both in their discipline and in their courses of study. They are incorporated with the habits and affections of the most intelligent and influential minds throughout the country, and nothing is likely to shake their salutary hold on public confidence.

But they are not incapable of improvement, and whoever attempts such improvement in a generous and enlightened spirit, deserves respect, and for any good which he may achieve, he will receive, as he will merit, sincere and enduring gratitude.

To the friends of the New system, on the other hand, he would say, "Let not him that putteth on the harness, boast as him that layeth it off." It is happy for reformers that they cannot foresee all the difficulties which are likely to start up as they advance. Whoever has made any persevering efforts in this direction, must feel that aspiration is easier than success, and that to criticise existing defects and evils, requires vastly less of sagacity and energy, than to discover and apply effectually the proper remedy. These reformers are themselves the children of the Old system. It was under its influence that they cultivated the inquiring and manly habit of mind, which emboldens them now to call it in question, and they can well afford, therefore, to bear themselves towards it with courtesy and respect. The want of such courtesy is much to be deplored, because it must inevitably excite feelings that are unfriendly to truth. Hence the speaker regretted to hear the Old system stigmatized as one that taught *words* in contradistinction from *things*. The insinuation is unjust—for whoever studies the master-pieces of ancient eloquence, Poetry, Philosophy and History, is surely engaged with things in the truest and highest sense. It is to be regretted, however, still more on account of the angry feelings which such epithets are likely to awaken. For the same reason, he regretted the elaborate *contrasts* which had been instituted between the alledged deformities of the Old system, and the fancied beauties of the New.

One or two objections to the proposed system in this place, he would venture to suggest.

1. It seemed to overlook or undervalue the true *object* of a liberal elementary education. This is not to teach any particular art or science, but to develop mental power and activity, and to inspire a generous taste for truth and beauty. The main question is, what

studies, and what methods of teaching are best calculated to obtain that end.

2. It seemed to over-rate the value of *facts* as compared with *principles*, *ideas* and *sentiments*. They are the latter which nourish and expand the soul.

3. It assumed that young men are competent to decide what branches of study they ought to pursue. In German Universities, where students are full grown men, who have previously taken a rigid classical and mathematical course, and who are about to enter on the active duties of life, the elective principle is quite proper. Would it be equally proper in our colleges? and is it not the tendency of the proposed system to dispense altogether with the college proper as an instrument of education? There is a period in the training of every mind where its efforts should be determined—not by its own tastes and preferences—for they will lead it to foster powers already too much developed—but by the wisdom of those who can discern what that mind most needs.

4. This system seems disposed to consult too obsequiously the public taste, and thence the danger that it will yield to the demand for more of Physical science and less of classical and elegant learning. The speaker will not attempt to explain his views as to the relative value of different studies in a course of liberal education; but he may say that one of the duties of a higher Seminary of learning is to *guide*, and if necessary, even to *withstand* the current opinions and tastes of the day. Their duty is to lead rather than follow. He remarked further, that all experience seems to show that there is no adequate substitute for the ancient languages, and that if he were restricted to a single branch as the only means of liberal culture and development for young men, he would take the language and literature of Ancient Greece.

5. This system, by introducing many new studies and professing to retain the Old, is in danger of fostering one of the sorest evils educators have to contend with—and that is the *undue multiplication of studies*. Until this evil is corrected, our scholarship will be sadly superficial.

In conclusion, it should be remembered that much of the deficiency complained of in our colleges, has been the result, almost unavoidable, of the circumstances in which our country is placed. Each state claims the right of having its own Institution—often each Religious denomination within each state. Hence we have more Colleges than can be endowed in a country where capital is scarce. Add to this the pressure of material interests and cares; the desire of young men to gain a diploma in the shortest possible space of time—the foolish ambition to seem to be acquainted with many branches; and the great extension which has been given within the last fifty years to natural science, and you have causes which, working together, have been suffi-

cient to overpower opposition, and to induce a state of things much to be lamented, and which must, at no distant day, be corrected. Whether that correction will come from the quarter to which we are now called to look, time will demonstrate.

Were the speaker called to reconstruct the *course of studies* in colleges, his motto would be *multum non multa*. He would greatly diminish the number of studies which *all must pursue*. These he would have taught for a much longer time—much more thoroughly and in a more scholar-like way. Certain other branches, such as Natural History &c., &c., he would make accessible to all through the ablest and most brilliant Professors, delivering short courses of lectures on the rudiments. Other branches again he would reserve for those who had special qualifications, who would pursue them eagerly and spontaneously.

He must trespass no further on the patience of the Association.—The discussion which is now closed, reflects great credit upon the parties engaged in it, and upon our infant Institution. It is through such discussions that we best contribute to the object which has brought us together, and it is to be hoped that we may have many more distinguished by like ability and courtesy.

APPENDIX C.

PROF. AGNEW'S LECTURE ON FEMALE EDUCATION,

AND THE DISCUSSION THEREON.

Ours is an age of stirring life, an age of notions and novelties, of invention and enterprise, of steam-motives and telegraph-wires. The ocean, for passage, has become a river. The air a medium for the flight, not only of birds, but of thoughts. Distance scarce any more lends enchantment to the view, for 'tis annihilated. The ends of the earth meet, and the watchmen on her walls see eye to eye. Even worlds long buried in the deep unknown are now revealed to human vision, and we almost penetrate the arcana of our own fair satellite, as she nightly looks down upon us in her beauty. And man would fain believe, too, in his wisdom, or his folly, that e'en the rappings of spirits are heard in this nether planet of ours.

But what of all this? Why, we live in this whirl of galvanic motion: we breathe this excited atmosphere: we revolve on this stirring sphere. And, think you, without feeling aught of its forces?

We have our being, too, amid the busy scenes of a new world, a free world, a forming world. Our geologic species is a conglomerate. Whether it shall be of rude, unshapen masses, or of polished gems, fit not only for the pillars of this republican edifice, but for its adornment also, will depend much on the present generation, more on the women of that generation.

Believing that woman not only takes impressions from the age, but emphatically makes them on it too, I select for my theme **WOMAN'S OFFICES AND INFLUENCE.**

To make home happy is one of the offices of woman. Home, blessed word. Thanks to our Saxon fathers for it. Not the name merely, but the realities it expresses. An English, an American home is a Bethlehem-star in the horizon of earth's sorrows, the shadow of a great rock in a weary land.

“There is a magic in that little word:
It is a mystic circle that surrounds
Comforts and virtues never known beyond
The hallowed limit.”
“The tabernacle of our earthly joys
And sorrows, hopes and fears—this Home of ours
Is it not pleasant?”

Yes, home is the centre of all that is sweet in the sympathies, dear in the affections of the soul. There the kiss of love is impressed in its purity, the warm pressure of the hand knows no betrayal, the smile of joy plays no deceiver's part. All is candid, cordial, sincere. The faults and failings which belong to humanity fallen, are there covered by the mantle of charity, and the feeling of every member of the family is, “With all thy faults I love thee still.”

How the traveller climbing Alpine summits, looking forth on the sublime creations of Jehovah, thinks of home, and wishes the loved ones there could share his rapture. How the wrecked mariner on some desert isle longs for a mother's fond endearment, a sister's kindly care. Home is in all his thoughts.

It is worth the while, then, to strive to make *home* happy; to do each his part toward rendering it the spot of all pleasant associations. In the several relations of child, sister, wife, mother, let kindness and cheerfulness reign.

Kindness comes over the spirit like the music of David's harp over the passion of Saul. It softens and subdues. It manifests itself in a thousand nameless forms, but all beautiful. It is a crown of glory on the head of old age, a jewel on the breast of childhood. The light it diffuses is soft, the rays it emits are melting.

“And oh, if those who cluster round,
The altar and the hearth,
Have gentle words and loving smiles,
How beautiful is earth.”

Cheerfulness is another attribute of character tending to the happiness of home: and let me commend it to woman's cultivation. Some there are, ever disposed to look on the dark side of life; and thus they not only becloud their own spirits, but cast a shadow over the smiling precincts of home. Every single sour grape portends a cluster; every flash of lightning a riving thunderbolt. Earth's actual cares are not

enough; troubles must be borrowed. The present does not fill their heart with sadness; the future must be laid under contribution.

All this is just the opposite of cheerfulness. That scatters wide over the soil of the household the seeds of many little joys, that the weeds of small vexations may be kept under, and ever and anon the sickle be thrust in and a harvest of good fruits be garnered for daily use. It gazes on the bright side of the picture, and throws its delighted glances upon every eye. And thus it not only augments present bliss, but in hoary years the memory of other days around the family hearth will be sweeter, and the influence on ourselves better.

“Cheerfully to bear thy cross in patient strength is duty.” “Not few nor light are the burdens of life: then load it not with heaviness of spirit; sickness, and penury, and travail—these be ills enow: the tide is strong against us: struggle, thou art better for the strife, and the very energy shall hearten thee.”

“In thy day of grief let nature weep; leave her alone; the feshet of her sorrow must run off; and sooner will the lake be clear, relieved of turbid floodings. Yet see, that her license hath a limit.”

“For empty fears, the harrassings of possible calamity, pray and thou shalt prosper: trust God and tread them down.” “The stoutest armor of defence is that which is worn within the bosom, and the weapon which no enemy can parry is a bold and cheerful spirit.”

Beautiful in the family is this spirit of cheerfulness; and surely it is an office of woman to cherish it. It can be wooed and won. Wherever woman goes, and especially at home, let it be as an halo of light around her head, and then shall she be a blessing to the circle in which she moves. Despondency is death, cheerfulness life. But remember that levity and boisterous mirth are no essential ingredients of this wholesome cordial. Its chief element is rather that which Paul spake of when he said, “I have learned in whatsoever state I am, therewith to be content.”

Another office of woman is, *to check the utilitarianism, the money-loving spirit of the day.* There is something beside bread and water to be cared for in this probationary world of ours, inhabited by living *spirits*. And yet one is almost compelled to the conclusion that the whole race, at the present day, has given itself up to the worship of Mammon.

That which is a *physical* fact, which is capable of being *used*, is the *summum bonum*. *Cui bono*, in a terrene sense, is the great question. “Will it pay,” the grand idea of the age. And men are hurrying along, life in hand, breathless and bootless, over the highways and by-ways to the Great Mogul’s temple, where there is no spiritual Divinity to revere.

We almost wish the return of the old Grecian’s faith, who enveloped himself with a spiritual world, and this, at least, elevated his intellect,

if it did not renovate his heart. To him the majestic mountain was peopled with august entities. To us it is of no account, if it do not contain in its bowels buried stores of wealth, though it may awaken the feeling of the sublime, and lift the soul up to God. To him the shady tree was the habitation of dryads, the rippling brook of naiads: to us, neither has beauty, unless the one can turn a mill, and the other furnish us fire-wood or lumber.

We have made the soul slave to the body; have stripped the Universe of its glory, as a reflecting mirror, pouring down upon us such rays of Heaven's brilliancy as our vision can endure. God's sun is only to lighten us on our pathway of business; His mighty ocean only to bear the burden of our commerce; His magnificent lakes to carry our trade; His beautiful hills and smiling vales but to grow our corn, feed our cattle, and be the substratum for our railways.

This utilitarianism of the day, too, has but little sympathy with the fine arts. It laughs at music and painting, poetry and sculpture, as things of naught, although they may tend mightily to the culture of the spirit and the refinement of humanity. Classical learning it discards, because with its dusty eyes it can not just see how that can qualify man or woman for the better enjoyment of life, or how it will help us plow or measure our fields, grind our grain, or churn our butter.

The mere discipline of the mind, the symmetrical development of man's higher powers, the æsthetic evolution of himself; all this, though it expand his intellect and enlarge his heart, though it impress on him more of the lineaments of the skies, and bring him nearer to his great Original, is but waste of time and thought, because it falls not within the described circle of the utilitarian. Shades of Bacon and Locke, of Shakspeare and Milton, of Goethe and Schiller, come and alight at least on the daughters of our land!

Here is a wide field of influence for woman. You are the vestal virgins to watch the fires on the altar of the fine arts. Yours it is to check the sensuousness of man, to recall him from his ceaseless toil after the mammon of this life, his restless ambition to turn every thing to account in available funds, in bank-stocks, copper-stocks, railroad-stocks. Tell your sons and your sires that there are higher sources of joy. Point them away from earth's sordid gold to the brighter gems of literature. Direct their energies to the intellectual and moral advancement of their age. Help them to slake their quenchless thirst at the pure fountains of knowledge and religion.

There is a poetry of life worth cultivating. There are spiritual entities around us to which we are linked by etherial chains. Let us not struggle to throw off those chains, but rather to bind them faster about us. And when you see a link broken, and others likely to drop, mend it.

Woman's office is it also *to soften political asperities in the other sex,*

and themselves to shun political publicity. Not that woman need be ignorant of the great questions of the age; better be familiar with them. But let her not become absorbed in them: rather keep so aloof from exciting occasions as to be better qualified to form and express a deliberate and unbiased judgment on men and measures. Let her opinions be well matured, and always uttered with calmness and caution. When her dearest friends of the other sex seem embittered towards others, and in danger of forgetting the sweet charities of life amid the chafings of party rivalry, let her pour out the milk of human kindness into the cup of courtesy, and ask them to drink of it. When the waters are troubled and the billows roar, let her diffuse over them the oil of love to still the waters into a great calm. Surely this is an office higher, better far, than to be pressing on, as some would have her, into the busy bustle of out-door politics. Here is *influence*, and it is better than *power*.

Who that loves woman, that really admires her worth as *woman*, that thinks of her as the delicate, refined, tasteful, sensitive development of humanity, the incarnation of all that is lovely, gentle, modest, peaceful, and pure, the highest earthly manifestation of God as *love*; who that remembers her as the "help-meet," can bear the thought of hurrying her out upon the theatre of politics, the platform of legislation?

"Woman's rights," they cry, and so loud the cry, that even woman's ambition has conquered her judgment and her delicacy, and she has gone forth, out of her appointed and fitting sphere, to be gazed on by a curious crowd, and perhaps to hear the plaudits of a noisy populace. *O tempora! O mores!* Save us from such a race of women!

Now woman has rights, many rights, and let them be well guarded; but she has no right to be a *man*. Yet, no wonder 'tis, if amid the stirring enterprises and new discoveries of the age, some half-amazon should defy the customs of social life, and assume the right of leveling all distinctions between the sexes, walking forth *à la Turk*, and becoming the gazing-stock of the street. Oh, let beauteous, winning woman wear the gracefully-flowing robes of modesty; let her not be met by us "up to the eyes" in politics, nor at the ballot-box, nor the caucus, nor in the legislative hall, nor on the judicial bench, surrounded, perchance, by tobacco-chewing barristers, nor as the public haranguer, addressing promiscuous multitudes.

Let us rather see her in the quiet retirement of home, not doomed to the busy drudgery of hard housekeeping merely, but there the refined woman, whose pure sensibilities are shocked at the thought of a public notoriety; who shuns the wistful gaze of the crowd, and finds in her own family circle her kingdom and her *rights*, and seeks to adorn that with all that is lovely and of good report. Thus will she win our admiration and secure our love. Were her intellect and her eloquence displayed at the bar or on the platform, we might indeed wonder with

deep amazement, but we should not love; and wanting this, both she and we were unhappy.

While sensible, then, of her equality with man in the possession of a soul like his own, capable of the highest enterprises in science and literature, may she yet recognize, as the appointment of her all-wise Creator, subordination to man in power, superordination in influence. Be content to be *woman*. It is a province high enough. If not cherubic, it is seraphic. It is that phase of humanity we think most god-like; for if Jehovah's highest expression of himself is *Love*, then that form of humanity expressing most of it, is most like Him. That form, in our opinion, is woman.

Let her not, then, strip herself of her chief glory, and depart further from her God and Saviour, by shooting out from her own feminine orbit, and aiming to revolve in that of the other sex, under the false impression that it is a higher one. Even if it were, it is not hers, and by thus battling with the order of nature, and swinging loose from the proper relations of her being, she might become a wandering star in the blackness of darkness forever.

Another evident office of woman is, *to regulate the forms and control the habits of social life*. In this land, especially, do the "lords of creation" bow with due deference to their ladies. We give them our arms, 'tis true, and we ask them to lean upon us, yet do we take step with them, and in turn lean on them, amid the trying times of life, and look to them for many of our joys, for most of our happiness. He is vulgar, even barbarous, we think, who does not appreciate her worth and respect her character. Hence, every where, hers is the first place, the best place; and an American gentleman would rather suffer an agony than subject woman to a discomfort.

Such being her relative position, hers it must be to prescribe the customs of social life, and say to man, "hitherto shalt thou go and no further." The tone of morals will be such as she makes it. Man will be conformed to the model she exhibits. He seldom, if ever, rises above the level of his female associates. Surround him with the vulgar, the thoughtless, the impure, and you shall not see him pure, thoughtful, refined. Place him ever in the society of intelligent, dignified, Christian women, and their virtues will be reflected on him.

And is it so, that woman is responsible, in a great measure, for the fashions and habits of the community in which she lives? It is even so. If she discard that foolish frippery and passion for display, which occasionally characterize her own sex, it will not long live. It must be buried in its own foibles, and have no resurrection. If she frown upon him who robs woman of her jewel, he is a fugitive on the face of the earth. If she discountenance the use of intoxicating beverages, the young man will learn that abstinence on his part is the price of respect and love on hers. Her office here is magnified: her influence

has become a power. The other offices were guiding and directory ; this is reformatory. Society looks to her for its type. Its virtues and its vices are of her moulding. *It is what she bids it be.*

What a potency ! Let her wield it for her country's welfare. Then shall it be a beacon light to other lands now in darkness and degradation, because there woman is still the slave of man's passions, and has never risen under Christianity, to know her dignity, and make her brutal master feel her moral equality in the scale of being.

Only one other office of woman shall we notice at present—the *exemplification and diffusion of Christianity*—of Christianity, not so much in its forms and dogmas, as in its spirit ; not solely as a redeeming scheme, but also as a reforming power.

To Christianity woman is emphatically a debtor. It has breathed into her its breath of life, and she has become a living soul. Else had she been but a dead manikin. To it she owes her present advanced position, her commanding influence. Even all the literature and refinement of Greece and Rome could not confer on woman the boon which the religion of Jesus has brought her. He was woman's son, and his religion tells it. Go where that religion is not, and there woman is naught.

Christianity has not only broken down the wall of partition between male and female, but has opened the sealed fountains of her soul, and caused them to send forth rills of gentleness and love, which have refreshed humanity and poured out gladness on a dark and dreary world. Let the cross, then, be woman's standard, Jesus woman's trust, Christianity woman's charter. That thrown overboard, we are wrecked. Its principles abandoned, the world sinks again into barbarism, and woman to brute degradation. "The last at the cross and earliest at the sepulchre," must remember to cling to Christianity as her hope, her life. Let *her* never be ashamed to confess it her ruling principle, her source of joy, nor be hesitant in disseminating its seeds, that she may every where behold its lily-flowers.

Can it ever be well said of woman, "she careth not if there be a God, or a soul, or a time of retribution ; pleasure is the idol of her heart : she thirsteth for no purer heaven." Let such an one be decked in all the gorgeous trappings of wealth, let her brow be crowned with the coronet of rank, let her girdle hold the key which unlocks the treasures of California, and yet she wants that which ennobles her sex, and would render her an object of love and a source of joy to others.

"Oh, what is woman, what her smile,
Her lip of love, her eyes of light,
What is she, if her lips revile
The lowly Jesus? Love may write
His name upon her marble brow,
And linger in her curls of jet :

The light spring-flower may scarcely bow
 Beneath her step—and yet—and yet
 Without that meeker grace she'll be
 A lighter thing than vanity."

Never, then, let the sneer of the infidel, nor the scorn of the skeptic drive woman from compounding the spices to embalm her crucified Master, nor make her ashamed to be seen early at his sepulchre. Rather let her glory in the cross, and make the most of her high mission here to send its healing influences to every sick and sorrowing creature on this green earth. Why should any poor, perishing mortal be left in all the degradation of idolatry, when there is in our possession a power that would lift him to heights of bliss, temporal and eternal? Why should the world be left to its wailings and its woes, when Christianity diffused, in its benign spirit, would convert those woes into joys, those wailings into hallelujahs? How can woman, owing her all to the religion of the Bible, refrain from exerting her energies to place this word of life in the hands of every pilgrim over the deserts of time? And may she so breathe its spirit and feel its power, that it shall never again be thus written of her :

"There came
 A stranger bright and beautiful
 With steps of grace, and eye of flame,
 And tone and look most sweetly blent
 To make her presence eloquent;
 Oh, then I looked for tears. She stood
 Before the prisoner of Calvary.
 I saw the piercing spear—the blood—
 The gall—the writhe of agony.
 I saw his quivering lips in prayer,
 'Father forgive them'—all was there!
 I turned in bitterness of soul,
 And spake of Jesus. I had thought
 Her feelings would refuse control:
 For woman's heart I knew was fraught
 With gushing sympathies. She gazed
 A moment on it carelessly,
 Then coldly curl'd her lip, and praised
 The high priest's garment! Could it be
 That look was meant, dear Lord, for thee!

A few words on *Influence*. This is woman's power. That distinctively belongs to man, and is exercised by authority. Law and penalty grow out of it. It regulates actions, it punishes crime. Influence, on the other hand, awakens feeling, generates opinions, implants sentiments in the soul, silently yet emphatically; and thus it crushes vice, promotes virtue and avoids the necessity of penal infliction.

Now this is pre-eminently the potent lever in the hands of woman for regenerating and reforming the political and moral world. We may stand in awe, indeed, before the exhibition of *power*, whether physical or moral, but we are not won by them to the love of truth and goodness, while *influence* steals in upon our hearts, gets hold of the springs of action, and leads us into its own ways. It is the *inflowing* upon others from the nameless traits of character which constitute woman's idiosyncrasy. Her heart is a great reservoir of love, the water-works of moral influence, from which go out ten thousand tubes, conveying off the ethereal essences of her nature, and diffusing them quietly over the secret chambers of man's inner being.

Even the weakness of woman softens and subdues, and thus unseals the soul for the infusion of her own sentiments. Her winning smiles, her tender sympathies, her sensible expressions, her gentle ways, all influence us, flow in upon our spirits. Who can be long boisterous in the presence of woman? No more can the yeasty waves dash and foam when superinfused by the mollifying touch of oil, than can the passions of man rage with impetuosity in contact with the oleaginous serenity of gentle woman.

Let man, then, exercise power; woman exert influence. By this will she best perform her offices, discharge her duties. Thus will she most effectually make home happy, restrain utilitarianism, allay party asperities, regulate the habits of social life, and both exemplify and diffuse Christianity. Thus will she become *vanqueur des vanqueurs de la terre*—"conqueror of the conquerors of earth," and do more to bless the world, and make it truly happy, than all political institutions, fiscal agencies, and merely intellectual educations.

Surely this is a mission exalted. Let no woman despise it, though it exclude her from the senator's seat and the chair of state. Let her rather remember that she honors herself more, glorifies her God better, and elevates her race higher, by adorning the sphere which her very physical organization prescribes. Never will she be improved in her nature, elevated in her influence, happier in her own spirit, or more potent in effecting the happiness of the world, by aiming at the proper dignities of *man*, throwing herself out upon the arena of public life, meddling and mingling in its chafings and chances. Ah no! let us still hope that woman will have good sense enough to discern the wisdom of God in her proper relation, and that man shall still and ever have the privilege and the joy of admiring and loving her as gentle, retiring, delicate, yet influential *woman*.

At the conclusion of Prof. Agnew's address, the President remarked,—that there was no question better entitled to the attention of educators, than that which had reference to the production of proper results in

female education. He would indicate the existing defects in the domestic and scholastic education of females, as proper subjects for discussion this evening, and hoped gentlemen would make remarks upon this subject. Properly speaking, woman was the educator of the human race, and their education consequently was of unspeakable importance. It was from the mother that a thousand little associations and impulses were derived, which greatly influences the course of subsequent action, and marked the whole future life.

Dr. T. S. Lambert said, it might perhaps be inferred from the lecture, to which all had with so much pleasure listened, that according to the customs of society, ladies were denied the privilege of voting. This was not a correct inference. Ladies can vote, and in fact do vote. It is not the hammer that drives the nail, but the mind which controls the action of the arm that wields the hammer. When a woman neatly spreads her table with well prepared food; when she adorns it with a fresh bouquet of flowers, filling the air with fragrance; when she sees that the chairs are well cushioned and comfortable, and the temperature of her apartments healthful and congenial; when the pleasant tones of her voice, are produced by her actively amiable disposition; when she hushes the discord of irritated feeling, by drawing out the soothing harmony of music; when she thus makes her home happy, and draws to it her husband, her brother, her son, and saves them from the influences of dissipated society,—then it is that woman in every respect exerts a controlling influence, which is beyond description powerful, and useful;—then she does her full share in voting, and becomes to the full the “better half,” which legitimate woman is.

Of all education, therefore, that which exalts woman most, is that which teaches how to make home happy. In doing this, woman raises herself to the highest place, and though we have the *name* of the “Lords of creation,” and hold the shadow of the sceptre, she has the reality.

Mr. J. W. Bulkley, of Albany, spoke of the influence of domestic education. He believed that one great cause of the teacher’s failure, was the want of home co-operation.

A child in its mother’s arms, with its earliest looks, is learning lessons that are to shape its future character. From day to day, that child will drink in the spirit of its mother, that will follow it, and exert an influence upon it through a wayward life. Such an influence reclaimed the profligate John Newton.

He would have the mother educated, so that she might be prepared for these high responsibilities, and her influence, carried to the school room, would bring forth a generation to bless the world.

Did mothers teach their children the first lesson,—that of *obedience*, the work of the educator would be half accomplished,—but the child not trained to obedience *at home*, would be wayward and disobedient to all authority elsewhere. The child should go to school to be taught, not to be corrected. Should the mothers of our land heartily co-operate with the teacher, our sons and our daughters would grow up an intelligent and a virtuous generation.

Mr. R. L. Cooke remarked that he could not reflect or speak on the subject of female education, without feelings of despondency and gloom, for the experience of twenty-five years had taught him its defects, and the difficulties that stand in the way of its advancement. He was sad when he saw so many of those powers that are calculated to adorn the human mind, lying dormant in woman, through the inefficiency of the systems of female education that prevail.

As an educator of females, his attention had been specially directed to this subject, and he had labored to elevate the standard of female education, with all the zeal of an enthusiast, but beyond a certain point all such labors had hitherto been comparatively fruitless.

Where, then, does the difficulty lie? Is it to be attributed to the defective organization of our schools,—to a lack of comprehensiveness in our plans of instruction,—or a want of fitness in those whose duty it is to carry them out?

Does it not rather lie back of the schools, in a defective public sentiment upon the subject,—in a mistaken view of woman's duties,—of her rights and capabilities as an intellectual being, and of what is demanded by the peculiarities of her social position, to fit her for its responsibilities.

Besides the long period of preparatory instruction, a young man must spend from four to six years in the university and the professional school, before his education is deemed sufficiently complete to assume the responsibilities of active life. Not so with the young lady. Two or three years at most, are allowed to her for the completion of her education, and in that period it is expected that she should learn every thing in the whole range of science, natural and moral, including those accomplishments more exclusively feminine, each of which demand a longer period of time for its attainment, than is usually allotted to them all.

Female education could never make any marked advancement, until public sentiment settled down upon the conviction that it required as long a time for a woman to acquire a thorough education as for a man. The unwillingness that at present prevails to appropriate anything like a fitting time for the acquisition of knowledge, renders it impossible to elevate the standard of education.

He anxiously desired to know how the public mind could be operated upon, so in such a manner that the sentiment may generally prevail, that young ladies require systematic discipline as imperatively as young men.

Mr. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, said, that he held views upon the subject of Female Education different from those entertained by some of his friends; but as this was a place in which errors could be corrected, he would freely express them. It is a generally admitted truth—a truth acknowledged by most of the speakers in the discussion just now terminated, upon collegiate education, before this body, that the proper business of education is to expand, and draw out mind, and not to prepare the student for any specific profession or pursuit. If this is true, would not the instrumentalities best adapted to *develope* the minds of boys, be also best *fitted* to *develope* those of girls? The male and female mind is alike in constitution—both have the same faculties—the same noble attributes, and both should have perfect freedom of expansion. It would be seen that whether their spheres in life are different, or should be the same, whether their mental faculties are equal or unequal, as far as development is concerned, the case would not be altered; and the training and studies of the two sexes should be similar, until the customs of society, or the tastes of the individuals led them into different pursuits. Besides, the female mind has aspirations high and holy, and who will take upon himself to say, “thus far shalt thou go and no farther?” She has duties to perform equalling in importance those of the statesman and philosopher, and who will deny her the requisite cultivation to discharge them aright? She has an immortal mind—an eternal destiny, and who would wish to deprive the tender plant of light and heat, when the penalty might be an imperfect tree, and blasted fruit? Women have shown that they can master the mathematics, and successfully cope with the difficulties of the classics, and the *power* seems to argue the *design*. God gave us our faculties, female as well as male, and it is our duty to promote their growth by all means in our power, and any law, custom, or prejudice that counteracts this intention, is wrong, and should be abolished. He went further, and while he maintained that the same studies, to the same extent, as far as they were *pursued* for mental discipline, should be studied by girls and boys alike, he at the same time was of the opinion that both could best be taught in the same Institution. He arrived at this conclusion not only from his own experience, but from that of gentlemen who had enjoyed ample opportunities of forming a correct judgment. The beneficial influence of thus mingling the sexes, under proper regulations, is mutual; while it smooths the roughness, and tames the wildness of boys, it corrects the false delicacy and sentimentalism of girls, and all the bad consequences predicted as likely to arise

from it, have proven to be more imaginary than real. He threw out these thoughts more to *elicit* the opinions of others, than advance his own, and hoped great good might grow out of the discussion.

Hon. Bellamy Storer, of Cincinnati, desired to call the attention of the Association particularly to one point, indicated by the president in his remarks at the commencement of the discussion,—the moral education of females. Much had been said of the intellectual education of woman, but without *this* all else were fruitless. What was Mont Blanc, glistening in the sunlight 16,000 feet high, if some green spot did not exist at its base? The mother had been referred to, as the guardian angel of her children, but he thought that the father also had influence and responsibility. Both should watch assiduously the dawning of intellect, and bring such influences to bear upon their children as will give a healthful tone to their moral character.

There are, however, difficulties in the way. It may be that the teacher is unfitted for his high responsibilities. He may be a *scholar*, but his philosophy may not be one whit above the philosophy of the heathen schools. He too often teaches, not the adoration of the author of mind, but a vicious emulation. Every teacher has *moral duties* that he owes to his pupils, which ought never to be neglected.

Another difficulty arises from the school books that are used. It seems as if every school master before he left the tripod deemed it incumbent on him to send a book of some kind into the world. Thus they had multiplied, until their number, and the consequent necessity for constant change, had become an evil of no small magnitude. But this evil, great as it is, yields to another of far greater importance, on account of the moral influence that it exerts upon education. The character of the matter contained in these books is often very exceptionable. Within their lids may be found all the battles that have been fought between Marathon and New Orleans, and every youth, in making a declamation, selects the speech of some military leader, or closes it with some martial piece of poetry, to be found therein. A common school reading book exerts a mighty influence. Often from reading these books the young mind is led to wander off into the wild regions of fiction, and receives impulses that are pernicious.

But it is not in the school room alone, that the youthful mind should be brought in contact with good books. It is a matter of no small moment that books of the right character should be furnished *at home*. Here is the appropriate sphere for the exercise of a mother's influence. The adornment of the centre table was not a matter of indifference. The books scattered upon it, often contained the gems of incalculable evil. From them emanated impressions that cannot be effaced in *time*, and exert an influence throughout *eternity*. These impressions are not the less powerful, because originally slight; a slight jar in the atmos-

phere produces undulations that extend and widen through the almost boundless regions of the air.

In many families may be found large libraries of books with gilt bindings and attractive exterior, but when opened, they diffused the deadly poison effused by the corrupt minds of Bulwer, Byron, and Moore. These beautiful bindings were like sweet and lovely roses, scattered upon a sepulchre. Books! every man was an author—authorship has become a trade—a hurtful one.

He had often thought that it was well for the world that the Caliph Omar had burned the Alexandrian library—it no doubt contained much *trash*. He had no doubt but that many good books—perhaps some of Livy's—would have been saved, had not the Caliph been so great a “barn burner,” but the evil books would have more than counterbalanced the good.

There was a higher science than that of the school—the science of morals and religion—which must be cultivated. He conceived that no school could be properly conducted without the bible as a class book.

Prof. Read said, there is another view in which the importance of female education has not been adverted to. It is in relation to the mission of women as teachers. Woman is the natural instructor of our race. She is made such by God himself. Upon her education, then, depends the education of the whole human family.

Females make the best teachers. We need a greater proportion of female teachers for our common schools. We cannot carry on the work of universal education in this country, but by the aid of females. Men cannot be had, and could they be had, it were not best.

I should be glad to hear the statements of gentlemen, showing what I learn to be the fact, that the improved condition of common schools, in those states having the best educational systems, dates with the introduction of a larger proportion of female teachers.

Mr. W. S. Baker, of Connecticut, said he had visited over a thousand public schools, and had found the *female* teacher better able to adapt herself to the capacities and feelings of the child, than the *male*. There had been a prejudice in the New England states against female teachers, but that was rapidly wearing away. In Providence, R. I., there are over one hundred teachers, nine-tenths of whom are females, and their administration is most satisfactory. In all his observations, he had seldom found a male teacher that could *teach* a child.

He sent his own child away fifteen miles, to a female teacher, rather than have it under his own training at home, in the school of which he had the charge.

Mr. G. M. Wharton remarked, that he did not propose to discuss the question of the kind of education appropriate to females—nor, of the proper end to be attained by their mental training, as bearing upon the theory of their rights and duties in society. But he wished to draw attention to the comparative neglect shown to the claims of the weaker sex upon the community in the matter of public education. He was satisfied of one thing, which was—that whatever might be the best system of instruction for females, and however much might be doubted the obligation of the public to sustain that best system at the common expense—the girls were clearly entitled to the benefit of a system *comparatively as good* as that which the boys enjoyed. That the former ought not to be postponed to the latter in the distribution of the public funds—but that both sexes should be placed upon a perfect equality, in the point of their claims to education at the public expense. The community owed the debt of education as much to the one class as the other, and should discharge both debts at the same time. He was sorry to say, that this was not done—that as a general rule, the boys were first cared for—and better cared for—in the matter of education. He had, some years since, warmly advocated the establishment in Philadelphia, of a High School for girls as due to the sex—but unsuccessfully. The boys' High School had been established, and was eminently prosperous. One for the girls was still wanting. He could not see, that the community was less interested in the proper mental cultivation of the latter than of the former, and he hoped the time would come when this interest would be felt and practically exemplified in the establishment of that class of Seminaries for Girls. Something had undoubtedly been done in the formation of Normal Schools for female teachers—but of course, the benefits flowing from such Institutions were necessarily limited—while the claim extended far beyond those who intended to devote themselves to the business of imparting instruction.

Mr. O. B. Pierce, said, mothers are very much to blame for the course they *allow*, and often *encourage* their daughters to take. The President would remember that in the good old time, when he was younger than he was now, there were *boys* and *girls*;—that day had passed. Now we have *young* gentlemen and ladies;—they leap at once from the baby-jumper into society.

It is a lamentable fact, that to a wide extent, the mother's influence was in one direction, and the teacher's in another. She does not instruct her daughter in those things which would assist in the development of her immortal soul. Woman should be fitted to meet the realities of life, not for fleeting and irrational amusement.

Hon. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, remarked that in the establishment of High Schools in New England, the education of females was equally provided for. The importance of female teachers cannot be too highly estimated; their services are of the highest importance, and cannot be dispensed with.

He had visited thousands of schools, which the christian minister could not find time to visit, though thereby he might help to educate those who would carry forward the great benevolent enterprises of the day; which the patriot could not find time to visit, though it might have an influence in repressing those passions, which would afterwards disorganize the state,—which the rich man could not find time to visit, though it would tend to extinguish the torch, that might afterwards light up the midnight flames. In these schools, he had ever found the female teacher most faithful, energetic, untiring and successful.

APPENDIX D.

PROF. READ'S REMARKS ON SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

Prof. Read, of Indiana State University, made the following remarks:

For the purpose of obtaining an expression of this Association on a most important subject as connected with education, and the diffusion of knowledge, if it should seem to meet with general approbation, I will offer a resolution to the effect: that in the opinion of this body, School Libraries are essential to every complete scheme of popular education, and ought to be introduced into our common schools.

Could a library of books, suited especially to the young, even though the number should be small, be planted in every school district in our broad land, there is no estimating the effect upon the moral and intellectual habits of the people. The young would grow up in the habit of reading, and with a taste for intellectual pursuits.

Horace Mann, whose praise need not be spoken in any assembly like this, says that one of his earliest and most cherished plans, was that of having a good common school library in all the public schools of Massachusetts; so that there should be no spot on the surface of the State, where a child could be born and brought up at a greater distance than half an hour's walk from a library of good books. He declares, that he regards the project of common school libraries, as one of the grandest enterprises of the age; and again, that this project carried into execution will have an effect in the world of mind, as great as steam has produced in the world of matter. This is strong language, but not stronger than the subject warrants. If our American people are to grow up a reading people, we must have the school library in every school house. It must be there to aid the living teacher, to

afford instruction to the children ; and not to them only, but through them, to the families to which they belong.

The love of books, and a taste for reading, are formed at a very early period of life ; and if not then formed, are seldom afterwards acquired. But how can this taste be acquired, where there are no books, or none adapted to the youthful mind ? Let it also be borne in mind, that books read in youth, are longer remembered, and make the most abiding impression upon character. Hence, above all, books should be provided for the young, and scattered broad-cast over the land.

Should we set about an accurate enquiry as to the want of books in our country, we should be startled at the results. In making this enquiry, we are not to go to our villages and best neighborhoods, merely ; we are to go to our remote neighborhoods, we are to enter our log cabins, we are to go wherever human beings—men and children, reside, in spots however wild and secluded. But even where there are books, how very few are appropriate to the reading of the young, either in the subjects treated of, the manner of treating them, the moral tone of the books, and I may add, in the very form and size of the volumes.

It is not enough, that there are books in the hands of the few. Diffusion—diffusion is the very spirit of our age, and more especially of our country—diffusion of wealth, by abolishing all laws of entail and primogeniture, diffusion of political power, by giving all a part in the government of the State. Diffusion of knowledge, and of the means of acquiring knowledge, we must also have. It is not enough that we have libraries in our Colleges, in our State Houses, or even in our county towns ; we must have them in every school district. Every child must have the means of acquiring knowledge, through books brought to his very hands and bosom, and in the form best adapted to kindle the spark of intellect. By the library as an appendage, the usefulness of our common schools would be so enlarged in extent and increased in efficiency, as to become almost new institutions.

Let us contemplate some of the advantages more in detail.

The teacher will be improved in the standard of his qualifications. No one is fit to be a teacher who is not himself a learner. Unless he is such, he cannot have the spirit of his profession. In the library, he will have constantly before him a stimulus to improvement, and instead of being tempted to spend his leisure moments in idleness and gossip, there will be open to him in the school house itself a never-failing source of enjoyment and recreation, becoming his vocation. Besides, in every school library, there should be standard works on the theory and practice of teaching. Thus the best and most improved means of conducting a school will be brought directly to his knowledge—the means of governing his school, of banishing inertness and the dull routine of

drawling lessons; above all, he will be brought to think for himself, while he avails himself of the aids of professional reading. With what eagerness will the young teacher, with little or no experience, resort to books to aid him in his work? It cannot be doubted but the general introduction of school libraries would greatly tend to quicken and elevate teachers.

The influence of the library upon the pupils in arousing, stimulating, and awakening their energies, cannot be estimated. All the studies of the school will receive improvement and animation; as reading, definition of words, geography, history of the world and of our own country, and the biography of our great men. The children will have the means of interesting themselves in the long winter evenings. They will acquire habits of mental activity and industry. Who has not witnessed the eagerness of a child to read a book, and the alacrity with which he returns to it after being called away? By no other means can stupid trickery, low vices, loafing, running about upon the Sabbath, be so effectually counteracted among our youth, or their character be so certainly elevated, as by furnishing them with the means of reading.

But the usefulness and efficiency of the school may, through the library, be continued during its intermission, and when there is present no living teacher. The library, under proper regulations, may be accessible when the school is intermitted, and thus in effect there will be the school the year round.

Still another effect; there is slumbering genius here and there all over the country. We cannot tell where are the mute, inglorious Miltons. A Franklin, a Fulton, an Arkwright, a Clay, or a Webster may be in our wildest and obscurest neighborhoods. Look at the history of all the self-educated, at that of all who have risen in the midst of great obstacles to high intellectual excellence. What is their history? Why, at some fortunate moment a book has fallen into their hands which has elicited the divine spark.

The history of a single neighborhood in this State remarkably illustrates the power of a library in giving tone, direction and impulse to the youthful mind. It is a small neighborhood, ten or twelve miles from the County Seat, in the midst of hills, with but little wealth, with no important thoroughfare passing through it, and having little communication with the great world. Near the close of the last century there was established in it a library, a small one, it is true, but well selected, and peculiarly adapted to young readers. The original selection was made by Dr. Thaddeus M. Harris, of Boston. There were in this collection of books, Goldsmith's Works, including his histories, and his "Animated Nature," the Spectator, Plutarch's Lives, the Life of Franklin, &c.

Now let us look at the result. In the course of half a century, that simple neighborhood, not containing a population exceeding five hun-

dred, and apart from its library, presenting as few incentives to intellectual improvement as almost any other neighborhood which can any where be found, has produced more men and women of eminence and high standing than the whole county besides. Clergymen, lawyers, physicians, and teachers of high standing, have come forth in remarkable numbers in proportion to the population. Thomas Ewing, late Secretary of the Interior, and who was originally from that neighborhood, on being asked the reason of this phenomenon, and the cause of his own early impulse to intellectual improvement, replied, the library, the Amesville library has done the whole; and proceeded to relate an anecdote of himself, which it may not be inappropriate to repeat, as showing that even the poorest will resort to the library. I had gathered up, said he, a quantity of hickory bark, as usual for my evening light, and was sitting on the hearth intent upon my book. A gentleman, whom he named, happened to be staying at my father's that night, and asked to see my book. In handing it to him, by accident it fell on the hearth, and was soiled by ashes and grease. There was a fine of a *filp* [six and a fourth cents] for every soiled leaf. In my whole life since, I have never been so much distressed to know how I was to meet a demand, which, however, the library directors at their next meeting, generously remitted.

If school libraries could be scattered all over our land, they would be used by the children of many a family by the light of hickory bark and pine knots; and they would be the means of bringing forth from poverty and obscurity many who otherwise would never know their own powers.

I have in my mind many others of high standing and influence, who spent their youth in the neighborhood to which I refer. Among these, I may name the Presiding Judge of the District, who was also a member of the recent Ohio constitutional convention; two gentlemen of Indiana, one of whom recently declined the presidency of a college to which he was elected; and also a gentleman of high standing in Virginia, besides many of the most influential citizens of the county. When in connexion with the Ohio University, at Athens, observing the number of students who resorted to that institution from this particular neighborhood, I was led to inquire as to the cause.

It is indeed in secluded neighborhoods, where there are few causes of excitement, that I should expect the highest and best results from suitable libraries. Were provision made in every State for a library in each school district, or even in each township, as a part of the common school system, who can calculate the result upon the rising generation of men?

APPENDIX E.

MR. McCORMICK'S REMARKS ON FREE LECTURES.

Mr. McCormick, of Cincinnati, offered a Resolution, that a committee be raised to report upon a system of Free Lecture Education at the next annual meeting.

After some prefatory observations on Common Schools, the speaker said :

What he wished to see developed were the results of the system, more than the system itself; he desired to taste the fruits of that tree of knowledge, whose roots ramified through the country, and to whose culture they devoted so much attention. If on that noble tree there were rotten branches, let them be cut off before the total signs of decay presented themselves.

Now, to test the system, he (Mr. McC.,) would direct the attention of the committee to these queries. 1st, Upon what they operated; 2ndly, how their operations were carried on, 3rdly, what were the results—good or bad.

In the elucidation of these queries, it would be necessary to have some data, and he (Mr. McC.,) held in his hand the 21st annual report of the trustees and visitors of Common Schools in Cincinnati, to which he would now beg the special attention of the Convention. He must be pardoned if he spoke truths in plain language, which he would freely give utterance to, for he considered it was better to improve the system by exposing its inadequacies, than destroy it by the concealment of facts.

Now, according to the report, they would find that in the city of Cincinnati there were 35,004 persons from the age of 4 to 20. All

these, we might naturally suppose, were open for instruction. Now, supposing out of that number we allowed 2,000 as educating in private schools and 10,000 as educated or otherwise; there remained then 23,000 prepared to enter our Common Schools. Now of this number how many were receiving the benefit of our common school education? The report alluded to, mentions the number of five thousand, or thereabouts, as in constant daily attendance. What then is done with the 18,000? Where do they receive their education? Then it comes to this, the system is not as universal as it ought to be, nor such as commands universal appreciation. Here, then, we have 23,000 to operate upon, and we educate out of that number 5,000, or thereabouts. The speaker continued—Now for our mode of operation. By looking again at the report, we find a vast majority merely learning how to read and write; and from the small number who seek any further instruction, we are led to suppose that reading and writing are all that is required. Even for the learning of these elementary branches, on the average, not more than two years is devoted to their attainment. Some curious facts are unfolded in the report, to which he (Mr. McC.,) would now direct their attention. Out of 2,591 pupils in these schools—from 10 to 16—a period at which one would suppose a desire for instruction in various kinds of knowledge would manifest itself—what were the facts? Why the number studying the history of the United States, with which every citizen ought to be familiar, was 778; Natural Philosophy, 78; Universal History, exactly 10; whilst learning Vocal Music there were 3,379. Comment on these facts would be superfluous.

To narrow my views, said the speaker, let us come to the results of this system. Shall we look for the fruits of this tree of knowledge in the workshops, in the factory—in the domestic circle? Where can you point to those, who, in after years, reflect honor on the common schools wherein they received their education. Are they in proportion to the numbers whom you yearly turn out?—or who leave by their own accord? Are the results of your system a great moral and social elevation on the part of the working classes? Can you trace your system of education through the body politic—guiding, and directing, and purifying public opinion? Let those who know to the contrary say if there is more moral rectitude of character than lawlessness of conduct in the present generation. Certainly, before you get the pupil I grant there is an education, which may give a good or bad direction to the young mind, but as much has been said of domestic education, I will not allude to it any further. But of the education you do give, where are the fruits? I maintain, Mr. President, there is a help-mate wanted, whose controlling influence over the youth, who are forced at a very tender age, by the avaricious spirit that is amongst us, to become human machines capable of earning \$2 a week, to pay for

their board and washing. This help-mate is a system of Free Lecture Education, which will sustain your present efforts—give a zest to those who go from under your charge to pursue those peaceful and pleasing studies which add respect to the individual, and reflect honor on our country, and by the aid of which instruction can be easily imparted to all classes, rich poor, literate and illiterate.

This brings us to another part of the subject. There are arriving in this country, every year, from 300,000 to 500,000 emigrants. These people come amongst us schooled under European governments, retaining the prejudices of their different countries, and, of course, must have more or less an influence on our times and government. In five years a large portion of these people are admitted to the privileges of citizenship, and without possessing a proper knowledge of our government, our laws, and our history, they become law-makers. If they are ignorant, who is in fault? Not those poor suffering sons and daughters of toil; but we are, who have the power to instruct them, and do it not. If they become the pliant tools of demagogues, who are to blame? Their intentions no doubt are good, no matter what may happen. Now, these people are anxious for information—they want to know all about our laws, history, &c. They come here to be of us, and with us. Why, then, do we not give them a helping hand; and by the establishment of a system of Free Lecture Education, which, while it nourishes and protects these tender plants, that have been raised in our common schools, will, at the same time, instruct and elevate all who thirst after information. I would have, Mr. President, every school house a lecture room; I would have lectures in every market place; I would have a lecture crusade at once begun for a little while; and perhaps it may be too late to turn back the tide of selfishness, sordidness, and venality, which are now sweeping over this lovely land; but which, if stopped in time, by opposing the heavenly influence of education as a barrier to their further progress, will make our country the pride and admiration of all nations. My time, I find is exhausted. I thank you, gentlemen, for your courtesy, and have great pleasure in submitting for your consideration the following resolution:

Resolved: That a committee be appointed to report, at the next annual meeting of the Convention, upon a system of Free Lecture Education commensurate with the requirements of the country.

Passed unanimously.

APPENDIX F.

REPORTS ON THE STATE OF EDUCATION.

OHIO.

Dr. A. D. Lord, of Columbus, remarked that the educational history of Ohio, may be said to commence with its earliest settlement, but time would not permit even a sketch of the early portion of it. A plan was adopted for organizing a college as early as 1802, and from that time forward, colleges and academies had been chartered and organized as the necessities of the country required. Ohio has now twenty or twenty-five colleges in operation, most of which are respectably endowed, provided with suitable buildings, and managed by able instructors. There are also nearly seventy academies, and fifteen or twenty female seminaries, which are generally well sustained. It is an interesting fact that at least three-quarters of a million of dollars had been received or pledged for the endowment of colleges, more than three-fourths of which had been subscribed in the State.

The common school system dates back as far as the year 1825, and has been gradually improving from year to year. In 1833 the whole system was revised and modeled somewhat after that which has been adopted in the State of New York. It provides for the appointment of a State Superintendent, County and Township Superintendents, and City Superintendents, in those places which are sufficiently populous to require their services.

During the last four or five years, great efforts had been made to introduce union schools, and to classify the schools of the larger Cities.

Cincinnati, Dayton, Sandusky, and Cleveland, as well as some other places throughout the State, had thus classified or re-organized their schools.

For the last two or three years there had been but little legislation on the subject of education, its consideration having been deferred in anticipation of the adoption of the new constitution. Something had been done during the last winter; two or three thousand dollars had been appropriated for educational purposes; and towns were authorized to levy an additional tax.

A State Teachers' Association was organized in 1847, since which time its meetings had been attended with increasing interest. Its last session was held in this city, and some four hundred teachers and others interested, were present.

A large number of teachers' institutes have been organized; eighteen or twenty of them during the past year, and they have been attended by twelve or fifteen hundred teachers. A still larger number will be organized during the coming fall.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Mr. G. M. Wharton said, that he would confine his remarks to the City and County of Philadelphia; as with the schools in them alone was he personally acquainted—and would leave it to others to respond for the State of Pennsylvania generally. He believed, however, that a favorable report could be made, as respected the entire Commonwealth.

A summary of affairs since the last meeting of the Association, seemed to be all that was expected.

During this interval, proper lots had been secured, and several new school houses had been erected. He would mention that some changes had been introduced in their construction. Instead of the one large room, with adjoining small class-rooms, a preference was now had for three or four rooms of equal size, separated by moveable partitions, by means of which, when desired, the entire space could be thrown into one apartment. The inconvenience of small class-rooms with their crowded classes, and of the loss of space caused by the withdrawal of the greater portion of the scholars from the large room during the recitations of the several divisions had been very sensibly felt—and the new plan of building appeared to cure both these defects. The difficult subject of ventilation and warming had also received special attention; and the apparatus which had been successfully used for these objects in Boston, had lately been introduced into some of the school houses in Philadelphia.

An increase, which was much required, had been made in the salaries of the assistant teachers.

The night schools had been in operation a portion of the year, with very happy results. These schools had originated from two motives—one, to afford the means of instruction, at a convenient hour, for adults who stood greatly in need of it, and could not spare the time for study during the day from their laborious pursuits,—and the other was, to assist in the preservation of order in a very populous town, by withdrawing from the temptations induced by idleness and destitution of personal comforts, a numerous class, who were driven under the influence of these temptations into turbulence and riot. The system of night schools was yet in its infancy, but could not fail to do good.

The High School for boys, and the Normal School for the education of female teachers, continued in a vigorous and flourishing state. The former was filled to its entire capacity of about 500 pupils. The graduates of both the schools were much in request for the situation of teachers throughout the State.

The expenditure for public school purposes in the City and County of Philadelphia was about \$412,000. Of which, \$27,000 came from the treasury of the Commonwealth, and the residue, \$385,000, was raised by taxation from the citizens of the County. This very large sum of money contributed to the education of 47,000 pupils, under the care of 970 teachers; supplying besides, almost the entire stationery and books for the pupils. In addition to the numerous rented rooms, used chiefly for the primary schools, there were 54 large school houses belonging to the public, and all well filled with attendants.

It was well known that the population of Philadelphia had very rapidly increased. Its present number was 410,000. In 1840, it did not exceed 250,000. It was a matter of interest to know whether the growth of numbers in the public schools corresponded proportionably to that in the whole community; and the friends of public education examined the point with considerable interest, particularly as much of the increase in population was known to arise from unusual immigration. It was gratifying to discover, after an examination of the subject, that while in 1839–40, the common school pupils amounted to 18,800, or about one-thirteenth of the population; in 1850, the proportion stood as more than one-ninth: showing, not only the enlarged demand for public school instruction on the part of the people, but also, that the accommodations furnished by the proper authorities had been sufficient to meet this proportionate increase of numbers.

The general condition of all the schools, both as respected their discipline and the efficiency of the instruction imparted, was satisfactory.

RHODE ISLAND.

Mr. E. R. Potter, Commissioner of public schools in the State of Rhode Island, made a statement of the condition of education there. Of Brown University, he said it was unnecessary to speak, as it had already been a subject of remark. The school law had recently been revised, and he had no hesitation in saying that the new law was a great improvement upon the old. It provides for State and Township Superintendents. The State Superintendent is a judicial officer, having authority to settle any difficulties that may arise between township schools or trustees. Each district receives a certain portion of the public money, as a district, without reference to its size or means, and then receives an additional portion, in proportion to the number of pupils in actual attendance upon the school. Nearly all the villages and wealthier districts in the State are already provided with convenient school houses, of approved construction, and in the matter of school architecture there is a constant advance.

The law encourages the establishment of union schools, and Teachers' Institutes are supported by the State. Appropriations are also made for the education of the deaf, dumb and blind.

Rhode Island is better supplied with school libraries than any other State in the Union. She has a population of 140,000 inhabitants, and her school libraries contain between 90 and 100,000 volumes.

INDIANA.

Prof. C. Mills, of Wabash College, reported unfavorably of the past condition of public instruction in Indiana. It cannot be said that they have free schools in that State. It is true they have a seminary fund, arising from fines, forfeitures, and other sources, but it had disappointed the friends of education.

Some four years since numerous petitions were presented to the Legislature on the subject. As a result, a convention was called at Indianapolis. This was in session two days, and it appointed a committee to draft an address to the citizens of Indiana. Subsequently the question was submitted to the people, whether free schools should be established or not. Of 140,000 votes, 78,000 were in favor, and 42,000 against it. Counting by counties, there were 61 in favor, and 29 against. From this expression of public sentiment, the Legislature felt authorized to enter on more efficient action, and at its next session enacted a law submitting the question to the people of the counties. The next year the vote stood 63 in favor, and 27 against the establishment of free schools. Last year the opposition vote was still less, and

this year it has been very greatly reduced. . From these indications the friends of education are much encouraged for the future.

An important feature has been incorporated into the new constitution of the State,—charging the property of the State with the education of the children of the State.

\$1,690,000 has been provided for educational purposes, chiefly derived from the sale of school sections.

Mr. Bulkley said it was understood that Prof. Read was a member of the late constitutional convention of Indiana, and that he, with others, would be gratified to learn the action of that body on the subject of education, and the provisions relating to it introduced into the new constitution of that State.

Prof. Read replied, I hesitate not to say, that there is no State in which there is at this time a deeper feeling among the people upon the subject of education, than in Indiana. No man could be elected to an office, where the suffrages of the whole people would be required, known to be opposed to free schools. During the last canvass for Governor of the State, both candidates declared themselves the advocates of a system of free schools.

The late constitutional convention adopted the principle, that the property of the State shall be charged with the education of the children of the State. This great principle is a part of the constitution which was adopted on the first Monday of this month, by the unparalleled majority of near ninety thousand votes. It will be the sworn duty of the legislature, “to provide by law, for a general and uniform system of common schools, wherein tuition shall be without charge, and equally open to all.” There is in the provision no reservation or qualification. The committee having this subject in charge, reported the section with this qualification, “so soon as circumstances will permit.” But the convention was prepared to adopt the free school system at once, and by a vote almost unanimous, ordered these qualifying words to be stricken out.

In the convention, vast sums were voted, apparently as a mere matter of course, and without a doubt being interposed, for the support of common schools. While other subjects cost weeks of stormy debate, every member seemed prepared for immediate action on this subject. Congress had just made to the State a donation of the lands known as Swamp lands, a donation estimated to approach a million of dollars in value. Though the State is greatly in debt, with an impending in-

crease of taxation to meet the interest, this magnificent gift was, by the convention, voted to common schools without an opposing argument, and with as little hesitancy as a vote would be made to pay a door keeper his wages.

The convention took another step. The office of State Superintendent of public instruction is created by the constitution, and is fixed upon a constitutional basis the same as the office of State Treasurer and Auditor of public accounts. It was held to be useless to have a system of general education without a superintending agent to give it direction and efficiency. This was a great step, without which, all else that was done would have been, in my judgment, almost in vain.

Here the question was asked by Mr. Rainey, whether the new constitution of Indiana did not provide for houses of refuge for juvenile offenders.

It does; and here again the convention took the responsibility and voted, not that the Legislature *may*, but the Legislature *shall* establish houses of refuge for the correction and reformation of juvenile offenders; and this is now a part of the constitution adopted by the people.

Upon the whole, Indiana, in its constitutional provisions for public education, has gone as far as any other State.

I have not time to present the reasons why the recent United States census exhibits the State so unfavorably in regard to the number of adults who cannot read and write; but this I can say with confidence, that the educational system will soon be such as to embrace every child and youth growing up in the State.

NEW YORK.

Mr. J. W. Bulkley reported that the interests of education in the State were on the advance. The principle of free schools had been submitted to the people of New York, and a law establishing such schools had been adopted by an overwhelming majority.

Dissatisfaction having been felt with the law as it then stood, during the last winter the Legislature modified it, but still recognized the great principle of free schools.

New York possesses many valuable colleges and higher seminaries of learning, all of which receive more or less the fostering care of the State. Liberal provision is also made for the deaf and dumb, and blind.

The school library system had not accomplished all that its friends anticipated. This had resulted not so much from any inherent element

of failure, as from mismanagement, and other causes, not necessary here to enumerate.

This State had been the second to establish Normal schools, and their institution was now in successful operation. To meet the growing want of thoroughly trained teachers, a teachers' department had been added to several academies.

Night schools had been introduced into the educational plan of some of the larger cities, especially New York, with marked and gratifying success. Through their aid, many whose daily occupation forbid them to attend school, were enabled to attain at least the rudiments of an education.

The State Teachers' Association was established in 1845, and had been steadily progressing in interest. A better spirit was beginning to prevail throughout the State, and as a necessary consequence, they were beginning to pay their teachers better.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Mr. G. F. Thayer reported for this state.

Massachusetts has a board of education of which the Governor is *ex officio* Chairman. The Secretary of this board is the active educational officer of the State, and receives a salary of \$1,500. He has an Assistant, with a salary of \$1,000 or \$1,200. The Legislature, at its last session, authorized the appointment of two Agents, at an expense of \$2,500, whose duty it should be to visit the various Counties of the State, and by lectures and other means to excite an interest in and promote the cause of common schools.

The school fund, hitherto limited to one million of dollars, by an Act of the last Legislature is permitted to accumulate to \$1,500,000. The income from this fund, amounting last year to \$45,000, is divided *per capita*, among the children attending the public schools, between the ages of four and sixteen. The dividend last year amounted to about twenty cents per scholar, a sum not very considerable, but still an encouragement to the people, whose property is taxed for the support of the public schools to the amount of one million of dollars annually.

There are three Normal schools—two for pupils of both sexes, and one for young women exclusively; which are supported at an annual aggregate expense of \$8,000, and are highly successful. So satisfactory is the preparation for teaching made in these schools, that it is difficult fully to supply the demand for teachers that is made upon them.

For the last eleven years the Legislature has granted \$300 a year,

in aid of the American Institute of Instruction, and the grant has been extended to the next four years.

The State Teachers' Association receives \$150 a year; each County Association \$50; and each Teacher's Institute a sum adequate for defraying the expenses of their meetings. The school for idiots receives \$5,000.

Cities and towns are authorized to establish the office of Superintendent of Schools. The Superintendent of the City of Boston receives a salary of \$2,500. This City expends annually upwards of \$300,000 for her public schools.

The public schools are entirely free throughout the State. School committees are authorized to take land for the site of school houses—either with or without the proprietor's consent,—to the extent of a quarter of an acre, at the discretion of the committee.

At the last session of the Legislature, a law was passed empowering towns to imprison inveterate truants as common vagrants. Boston adopted the law, and several of these delinquents are at this time suffering the penalty in the houses of correction.

MICHIGAN.

Mr. Ira Mayhew stated that Michigan had incorporated into her constitution the principle, that the property of the State should educate the children of the State.

The State University stands at the head of their educational system, and is in fact a *free* school. By the provision of the new constitution, in five years after its adoption, a system of free schools is to be established, when any child in the State may enter the common school, rise through their various grades, prepare for the University, and graduate at any of the three departments, at a cost simply of \$10 matriculation fee.

Provisions were also made for the establishment of State Normal schools, and Institutions for the deaf and dumb, and blind.

The law of the State provides for raising money by *popular vote*, and it was a gratifying fact, that the people have been inclined to vote the largest sums for educational purposes.

No legislative provisions had been made for the support of Teachers' Institutes, but during the past year thirteen Institutes have been held, and nearly 1,500 teachers had attended. So anxious were the people of the different sections of the State to have and to encourage these Institutes, that they had been willing to pay the expenses attending these meetings.

NEW JERSEY.

Mr. R. L. Cooke remarked, that for the last three years New Jersey has been blessed with a Governor whose whole soul is engaged in the subject of education. By his annual messages to the Legislature, by personal attendance upon educational meetings, both of State and County association, and by the exercise of personal influence, he has done much to advance the interests of education, and secured such action by the Legislature as popular sentiment demanded. In order to understand the difficulties that have stood in the way of the adoption of a thorough system of common school instruction, it ought to be stated that much opposition had in years past been made to the establishment of any general system, by the members of the society of Friends, who in certain parts of the State form a large and respectable body of citizens. This opposition did not arise from any lack of interest in the subject of education, but from the fact that it is part of their religious economy to support their own schools, and from an unwillingness to bring them under the supervision of the State. More recently, however, there appears to be a more liberal state of feeling among them in reference to this matter, and there has consequently been a marked advance in the educational interests of the State.

Prior to the past winter, only \$30,000 was appropriated from the State Treasury for public schools, and the common school law permitted each township to raise by tax *only twice* as much as they received from the State. Consequently, if every township had raised the full amount allowed by the law, only \$90,000 could be raised, or only about 75 cents for each child,—a sum manifestly inadequate for its educational wants.

In addition to this no provision was made for the construction of school houses. With a few exceptions, all the school houses of New Jersey were either private property, or had been built by individual liberality.

A very important modification of the school law was made by the Legislature during the last session. The annual appropriation was raised to \$80,000. Each township was empowered to raise by tax a sum of money, in addition to the State appropriation, equal to \$3 for every child in the township between the ages of five and sixteen. They were also empowered to tax themselves for the erection and repairs of school houses; and above all, any township that desired to establish free schools, might become a corporate body, and raise a sufficient amount of money to carry it into effect.

Probably during no previous year has there been such great and such fundamental advances in education in New Jersey as during the past year, and much of this advancement may be traced to the influence of just such associations as this.

APPENDIX G.

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION.

CONSTITUTION.

This Society shall be known by the name and title of the *American Association for the Advancement of Education*.

OBJECTS.

The object of the Association shall be to promote intercourse among those who are actively engaged in promoting Education, throughout the United States—to secure the co-operation of individuals, Associations and Legislatures, in measures calculated to improve education, and to give to such measures a more systematic direction, and a more powerful impulse.

MEMBERS.

1. (a) All persons enrolled as members of either of the National Conventions, held in the City of Philadelphia, in the years 1849 and 1850, shall be entitled to become members of this Association on subscribing to the Constitution, and on paying an admission fee of \$2.

(b) Also, in like manner and on the same conditions, all delegates from Colleges or Universities, Incorporated Academies, Normal and High Schools, from State, County, or other Associations, established

to promote education, provided that no more than three delegates shall be received from one Association at the same time.

2. All other persons who shall have been nominated by the Standing Committee, and elected by a majority of the members present, may become members in like manner, and on the same conditions.

NOTE.—Those belonging to the above named classes shall be eligible to all offices of the Society.

3. Distinguished Educators and Friends of Education in other countries, may be elected Corresponding Members by a vote of two-thirds of the members present.

4. *Associates for the Year*.—Any person recommended by the Standing Committee shall, on paying the sum of one dollar, be admitted as a member for the year, but shall not be eligible to any office.

5. *Life Members*.—Persons entitled of right to be members, or elected as prescribed by the Constitution, may constitute themselves *Life Members*, by paying at any one time the sum of twenty-five dollars, and subscribing to the Constitution and Rules. They shall be eligible to all offices, and shall be entitled to receive all the published transactions of the Society, free of charge.

PAYMENTS.

1. Regular members paying one additional dollar, annually, shall be entitled to receive the transactions in like manner, free of charge.

2. The omission to pay, for one year, shall forfeit the privilege to receive the transactions, free of charge, and the omission to pay for two successive years, shall forfeit membership. Membership may be resumed, however, by resuming payment—but not the privilege to receive the transactions as aforesaid.

MEETINGS.

There shall be an Annual Meeting on the Third* Tuesday in August, to continue for a period of not less than four days. The place shall be designated at the preceding annual meeting, and the arrangements shall be made by the Standing and Local Committees.

OFFICERS.

They shall consist of a President, Recording Secretary, Corresponding Secretary and Curator, and Treasurer, to be appointed at the close

* Second Tuesday, by amendment, adopted at Session of 1851.

of each annual meeting,* and to hold, with the exception hereafter noticed, their places for one year.

STANDING COMMITTEE.

This Committee shall consist of the Officers for the current and of those for the preceding year, with six other persons to be elected by ballot, who must also have been present at the meetings of the current or preceding year.

It shall be the duty of the Standing Committee to manage the general business of the Association in the intervals between the annual meetings, and it may also sit during said annual meetings. It shall nominate all persons who are to be balloted for as members, and shall recommend suitable candidates to fill the offices of President, Secretary, Corresponding Secretary, and Treasurer, and Local Committee for the ensuing year.

LOCAL COMMITTEE.

This shall consist of persons residing in the place where the next annual meeting shall be held. It shall be their duty to co-operate with the officers in making arrangements for such meeting.

SECTIONS.

The Convention may, at pleasure, through its Standing Committee, resolve itself into *Sections*, the number and designation of said sections to vary, from time to time, as may be found expedient.

Each Section shall meet by itself, and shall elect its own Chairman and Secretary, who shall be ex-officio members of the Standing Committee, and shall remain in office for one year.

It may also have a Standing Committee of its own: it shall discuss such subjects only as are indicated by the title of the Section—may receive communications—recommend subjects to be investigated and reported on, &c.

ARCHIVES.

There shall also be in Philadelphia, a permanent place for the reception of Documents, Reports, and other papers belonging to the Association, which shall be under the care of an officer who shall be elected for the term of five years, and be entitled Corresponding Secretary and Curator.

* Anually, by amendment of 1851, instead of "at the close of each annual meeting."

GENERAL MEETINGS.

These shall be held on three evenings during the annual session of the Association, to discuss such subjects, or hear such reports and communications as the Standing Committee may designate.

At one of these general meetings reports in brief shall be made by the Chairman of the several Sections of the proceedings therein.

ORGANIZING ANNUAL MEETING.

It shall be organized by the President of the preceding year.

The first business in order, shall be the delivery of his Address, The new President having taken his seat, the Association shall then proceed to discuss the number and title of the Sections, if any, into which the Standing Committee shall distribute the members, and to designate the places for their meeting. The Sections shall then proceed to organize.

An Auditing Committee shall be appointed at the opening of each annual meeting, to examine and report on the state of the Treasury.

Alterations.—No article of this Constitution shall be altered except by a vote of three-fourths of the members present, and without one day's previous notice.

OFFICERS FOR THE YEAR.

PRESIDENT.

RIGHT REV. ALONZO POTTER, Philadelphia.

Recording Secretary.

ROBERT L. COOKE, Bloomfield, N. J.

Corresponding Secretary.

P. P. MORRIS, Philadelphia.

Treasurer.

DANIEL S. BEIDEMAN, Philadelphia.

Standing Committee.

GIDEON F. THAYER,	. . .	Boston.
DANIEL READ,	. . .	Bloomington, Ind.
LORIN ANDREWS,	. . .	Massillon, Ohio.
ELISHA R. POTTER,	. . .	Kingston, R. I.
J. W. BULKLEY,	. . .	Williamsburg, N. Y.
JOSEPH COWPERTHWAIT,	. . .	Philadelphia.

Local Committee.

DR. SAMUEL H. PENNINGTON,	}	Newark, New Jersey.
SIDERA CHASE,		
NATHAN HEDGES,		
JOHN WHITEHEAD,		
MARTIN R. DENNIS,		
ISAIAH PECKHAM,		

LIST OF DELEGATES

FROM

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS.

SESSION OF 1851.

- E. A. Adams, }
W. S. Baker, } State Teachers' Association, Connecticut.
Henry Barnard, }
Rev. Thomas Adams, }
O. P. Brown, } Geauga County Teachers' Association, Ohio.
F. J. Thomas, }
P. V. Veeder, Teachers' Association, Allegheny County, Pennsylvania.
Josiah Hurty, Green County Teachers' Association, Ohio.
Lorin Andrews, Stark County Teachers' Association, Ohio.
John Mayhew, }
J. A. B. Stone, } Michigan State Association.
Samuel Burston, }
D. E. Gardner, Washington County School Association.
J. H. Agnew, Michigan University.
A. D. Lord, Board of Education, Columbus, Ohio.
W. D. Huntley, }
John Patterson, } New York State Teachers' Association.
N. J. Hopkins, }
G. McMillan, Superintendent of Blind Asylum, Columbus.
Rev. Thomas Corlett, Knox County, Ohio, Teachers' Association.
Samuel W. Bates, }
Samuel Swan, } Institute of Instruction, New York.
Charles Hutchins, }

- Daniel Reed, Indiana University.
- Harlow B. Hill, }
 E. F. Merwin, } Trumbull County Teachers' Association.
 H. W. Johnson, }
- A. Mahan, Cleveland University, Ohio.
- Rufus King, }
 B. Storer, } Cincinnati Board of Education.
 C. B. Aspinwall, }
- George Willy, Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.
- Thomas Whelpley, }
 Erasmus Boyd, } Monroe County Association, Michigan.
- Samuel Slade, Teachers' Association, Buffalo, New York.
- N. M. Elliott, Belmont County Teachers' Association, Ohio.
- C. E. Pomeroy, }
 James Johonnot, } Onondaga Co., New York, Teachers' Association.
- Rev. S. T. Hickley, }
 V. N. Lester, } Seneca County Teachers' Association, Ohio.
- Amos Perry, }
 H. S. Frieze, } Rhode Island Institute of Instruction.
 A. M. Gamund, }
- A. D. Wright, }
 A. W. Jewett, } Maumee Valley Teachers' Association, Ohio.
- G. R. Hand, Cincinnati Teachers' Association, Ohio.
- Ira Patchin, Grammar School University, New York.
- A. B. Ivins, }
 Asa Jones, } Philadelphia Teachers' Association, Pennsylvania.
- Rev. Dr. J. T. Brooke, }
 Rev. Samuel Smith, } Kenyon College, Ohio.
- J. N. Walker, Allegheny Association of Teachers, Pennsylvania.
- Wm. Carter, Principal of Moscow Seminary, Ohio.
- G. S. Farnham, Syracuse Teachers' Association, New York.
- Geo. Graham, President Western Academy of Natural Sciences, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- S. N. Sanford, Licking County Teachers' Association, Ohio.
- T. H. Lynch, President of Indiana Female College, Indiana.
- Professor W. Brand, Franklin College, Indiana.
- A. F. Waldo, Bellgrove Female Seminary, Ohio.
- C. Mills, Wabash College, Indiana.
- W. Britain, Superintendent of Schools, Adrian, Michigan.
- J. Booth, Crawford County Teachers' Association, Ohio.
- David Anderson, Columbiana County, Teachers' Association, Ohio.
- J. R. Giddings, }
 Geo. Roberts, } Teachers' Association, Ashtabula County.
 P. R. Spencer, }
- Rev. W. H. Beecher, Chillicothe, Ohio.

D. S. Beideman, }
 Geo. M. Wharton, } Controllers of Public Schools, Philadelphia.
 N. Nathans, }
 Joseph Cowperthwait, Girard College, Philadelphia.
 Robert L. Cooke, Essex County Teachers' Association, Newark, N. J.
 Professor E. N. Hartshorn, Stark County Teachers' Institute, Ohio.
 Wetherell Peterson, Public Schools, Salem, New Jersey.
 Rev. Samuel Finley, Chillicothe Female College.
 Edmund B. Fairfield, Michigan Central College.
 D. W. Hearn, Public Schools, Chillicothe, Ohio.
 Professor S. L. Coulter, Teachers' Association, Beaver, Pennsylvania.
 P. L. Grim, Teachers' Association, Beaver, Pennsylvania.
 Rev. L. N. Freeman, } Chillicothe Female College.
 Seneca N. Ely, }
 Jas. D. Dunlap, }
 Ira B. Gara, } Erie County, Pennsylvania, Educational Association.
 A. H. Caughey, }

LIFE MEMBERS.

Rt. Rev. Alonzo Potter, D. D.,	Philadelphia,	1850
Joseph Cowperthwait, . . .	Do	"
John Biddle, . . .	Do	"
George M. Wharton, . . .	Do	"
James Crissy, . . .	Do	"
H. Cowperthwait, . . .	Do	"
Robert Lindsay, . . .	Do	"
Joshua B. Lippencott, . . .	Do	"
Charles Desilver, . . .	Do	"
L. Johnson, . . .	Do	"
John L. Goddard, . . .	Do	"
T. K. Collins, . . .	Do	"
S. Morris Waln, . . .	Do	"
T. G. Hollingsworth, . . .	Do	"
Greer B. Duncan, . . .	New Orleans, La.,	"

CORRESPONDING MEMBERS.

Rev. Egerton Ryerson, . . .	Toronto, Upper Canada.	1850
Prof. Henry Hertzels, . . .	Lausanne, Switzerland.	"

MEMBERS' NAMES.

MAINE.

David S. Holman,	Milo,	1850
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MASSACHUSETTS.

Gideon F. Thayer,	Boston,	1850
Calvin Cutter,	Warren,	"
Samuel S. Greene,	Boston,	"
William D. Swan,	Do	"
D. Forbes,	Do	"
Samuel W. Bates,	Do	1851
Samuel Swan,	Do	"
Eben S. Stearns,	West Newton,	"
Josiah A. Stearns,	Boston,	"
Lewis M. Cutcheon, M. D., . .	Warren,	"
Henry R. Warriner,	Greenfield,	1850

RHODE ISLAND.

John Kingsbury,	Providence,	1850
E. R. Potter,	Kingston,	"
W. C. Chapin,	Tiverton,	"
S. S. Ashley,	Do	"
Amos Perry,	Providence,	1851
A. M. Gammell,	Warren,	"
Henry S. Frieze,	Providence,	"

CONNECTICUT.

Henry Barnard,	Hartford,	1850
E. A. Andrews,	New Britain,	1851
W. S. Baker, Prin. North School,	Hartford,	"
Abijah Catlin,	Harwinton,	"
L. L. Camp,	West Meridan,	"
Charles Cartledge,	Fairfield,	"

NEW JERSEY.

John Griscom,	Burlington,	1850
Hon. Daniel Haines,	Trenton,	"
Robert L. Cooke,	Bloomfield,	"
Isaac Z. Peterson,	Salem,	"
Edward Hazen,	Jersey City,	"
Samuel M. Hamell,	Laurenceville,	"

NEW YORK.

D. P. Lee,	Buffalo,	1850
Solomon Jenner,	New York City,	"
Lyman Cobb,	Do	"
James N. McElligott,	Do	"
Joseph McKeen,	Do	"
J. W. Bulkley,	Albany,	"
F. L. Hanford,	Hobart, Delaware Co.,	"
Ira Patchin,	Livonia,	1851
V. M. Rice,	Buffalo,	"
W. D. Huntly,	Do	"
E. C. Pomroy,	Syracuse,	"
G. L. Farnham,	Do	"
James Johonnet,	Do	"
N. P. Stanton, Jr.,	Buffalo,	"
Nelson J. Hopkins,	Owego, Tioga Co.,	"
Charles R. Coburn,	Do	"
James S. Wadsworth,	Genessee,	"
T. S. Lambert, M. D.,	New York City,	"
Oliver B. Peirce,	Rome,	1850

PENNSYLVANIA.

P. P. Morris,	Philadelphia,	1850
E. C. Biddle,	Do	"
John S. Hart, Principal Central High School,	Do	"
Felix Drouin,	Do	"
Tito Seron,	Do	"
Charles Picot,	Do	"
Christopher R. Kessler,	Allentown, Lehigh Co.,	"
Charles S. James,	Philadelphia,	"
Hon. Thomas H. Burrowes,	Lancaster,	"
John Simmons,	Philadelphia,	"
Benjamin Naylor,	Chester Co.,	"
Hector Tyndale,	Philadelphia,	"
D. McConaughy,	Gettysburg,	"
N. Nathans,	Philadelphia,	"
Asa Jones,	Norristown,	"
Rev. G. Emlen Hare, D. D.,	Philadelphia,	"
Rev. Daniel Washburn,	Do	"
Henry T. Child, M. D.,	Do	"
A. B. Ivins, Prin. N. W. Gram- mar School,	Do	"

Clinton Gillingham, Prin. Friends' Central School,	Philadelphia,	1850
W. H. Hunter, Principal Morris Grammar School,	Do	"
Conly Plotts, Principal Harrison Grammar School,	Do	"
Bennett Yarnall,	Chester,	"
George A. Piper, Prin. North E. Grammar School,	Philadelphia,	"
G. Lewis Stanley,	Do	"
Pearson Yard,	Do	"
B. F. Hancock,	Norristown,	"
William Elder,	Philadelphia,	"
Thomas Fisher,	Do	"
Evan Pugh,	Oxford, Chester Co.,	"
Lyman Coleman, M. D.,	Philadelphia,	"
J. P. Wickersham,	Marietta,	"
H. Aymé,	Philadelphia,	"
W. H. Dillingham,	Do	"
William Whitall,	Do	"
Alfred L. Kennedy, M. D.,	Do	"
Dr. E. W. Gilbert,	Do	"
John Jackson,	Darby,	"
Wm. Mayburry,	Philadelphia,	"
J. A. Kirkpatrick, Assistant Prof. Central High School,	Do	"
George Emlen, Jr.,	Do	"
William Biddle,	Do	"
James Rowland,	Do	"
Andrew Comstock,	Do	"
Daniel R. Brower,	Phoenixville,	"
Wm. Vogdes, Prof. Central High School,	Philadelphia,	"
Henry M. Fine,	Do	"
E. C. Markley,	Do	"
J. M. Thomas,	Do	"
James J. Barclay,	Do	"
John S. Richards,	Reading,	"
C. D. Cleveland,	Philadelphia,	"
George H. Burgin, M. D.,	Do	"
Joseph Parker,	Do	1851
J. A. Walker,	Allegheny City,	"
P. V. Veeder,	Pittsburg,	"
Rev. Nathan Stern,	Norristown,	"
D. S. Beideman,	Philadelphia,	"

Hon. John Galbraith, . . .	Erie,	1851
Walter Chester,	Do	"
Hon. J. B. Sutherland, . . .	Philadelphia,	"
Hon. James D. Dunlap, . . .	Erie,	"
R. E. Peterson,	Philadelphia,	"
Rev. J. W. Nevin, D. D., . . .	Mercersburg,	1850
Isaac A. Pennypacker, . . .	Phœnixville, Chester Co.,	"

OHIO.

T. Rainey,	Cincinnati,	1850
Andrew L. Bushnell,	Do	"
J. Tuckerman, Superintendent Common Schools,	Orwell, Ash. Co.,	"
M. Diehl,	Springfield,	"
Lorin Andrews,	Massillon,	1851
Albert D. Wright,	Perrysburg, Wood Co.	"
Homer U. Johnson,	Braceville, Trumbull Co.,	"
C. C. Giles,	Pomeroy,	"
Darwin E. Gardner,	Marietta,	"
Hon. Bellamy Storer,	Cincinnati,	"
Asa Mahan, Prest. University of	Cleveland,	"
G. R. Hand,	Cincinnati,	"
Josiah Hurty, Sup. Union School,	Xenia,	"
Asa D. Lord, M. D., Supt. of Public Schools,	Columbus,	"
George Graham,	Cincinnati,	"
Hon. Samuel Galloway,	Columbus,	"
George McMillen, Blind Institute,	Do	"
Rufus King,	Cincinnati,	"
Nathaniel M. Elliott,	Mt. Pleasant, Jefferson Co.,	"
George Willey,	Cleveland,	"
Elias Longley,	Cincinnati,	"
Rev. Thomas Carlett,	Fredericktown, Knox Co.,	"
J. W. Booth,	Bucyrus,	"
Frederick Aug. Waldo, M. D., . . .	Cincinnati,	"
William Carter,	Moscow,	"
Nathan P. Seymour,	Hudson,	"
Rev. Samuel Findlay,	Chillicothe,	"
O. N. Hartshorn, Prest. Union Seminary,	Starke Co.,	"
W. C. Anderson,	Oxford,	"
Alfred Newton,	Norwalk,	"
L. E. W. Warner,	Chillicothe,	"
William Travis,	Youngstown,	"
Erastus Chester,	Hudson,	"

W. L. Harris, Ohio Wesleyan University,	Delaware,	1851
P. R. Spencer,	Geneva,	"
Jehu Brainard,	Cleveland,	"
D. W. Hearn,	Chillicothe,	"
Joseph M. Hayes, Prin. N. F. Seminary,	Norwalk,	"
Kent Jarvis,	Massillon,	"
W. W. Rickey, M. D.,	Cleveland,	"
Wm. N. Edwards, Prin. Classi- cal Academy,	Dayton,	"
E. Hosmer, Prin. Young Ladies' Institute,	Cleveland,	"
James A. Briggs,	Do	"
A. A. Smith, G. R. Institute, .	Austinburg,	"

INDIANA.

Prof. Caleb Mills, Wabash Coll.,	Crawfordville,	1851
Prof. Daniel Read,	Bloomington,	"
Prof. W. Brand,	Franklin,	"

ILLINOIS.

Edward W. Brewster,	Elgin, Kane Co.,	1851
D. C. Lockwood,		1850

MICHIGAN.

Samuel Newbury,	Jackson,	1850
J. Holmes Agnew, Prof. Lang. Michigan University,		1851
Rev. George Duffield,	Detroit,	"
Ira Mayhew,	Monroe	"
Francis W. Shearman, State Sup. of Schools,	Marshall	"
M. S. Hawley, Prin. Union Sem.	Ypsilanti,	"
Samuel Barstow,	Detroit,	"
Nathan Brittan,	Adrian,	"

DELAWARE.

J. P. Walter,	Dover,	1850
Samuel Alsop,	Wilmington,	"
R. B. McDonnell,	Do	"

MARYLAND.

W. R. Creery,	Baltimore,	1850
J. Bartlet Burleigh,	Do	"
Dr. John F. Monmonier,	Do	1851
Rev. J. N. McJilton,	Do	"

LOUISIANA.

T. Allen Clarke, New Orleans, 1850

VIRGINIA.

T. Hume, Portsmouth, 1850

R. E. Rogers, M. D., Professor
University of Virginia, “

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Zalmon Richards, Washington, 1850

Prof. Joseph Henry, Smithsonian
Institute, “

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS.

SESSION OF 1851.

NEW YORK.

Oliver Arey, Buffalo.
Samuel Slade, Do
Jesse Ketchum, Do
John Patterson, New York City.
Andrew Hicks, Scott, Cortlandt Co.
Silas Betts, Syracuse.
M. A. Dwight, New York City.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Rev. John Peck, Allegheny Institute, Pittsburg.
John Gregory, Do
S. L. Coulter, Beaver.
P. L. Grim, Do
John M. Pugh, M. D., Philadelphia.
George W. Vaughan, M. D., Do

NEW JERSEY.

Wetherill Peterson, Salem.

OHIO.

Hon. Joshua R. Giddings, Jefferson.
Ira Kelly, Cleveland.
Prof. S. G. Armor, Do
Enoch Woolman, Damascoville.
Mortimer E. Holt, South Charleston.
Henry O. Sheldon, Berea.

C. B. Aspinwall,	Cincinnati.
George Crawford,	Do
George Roberts,	West Williamsfield.
Rev. John C. Hart,	Hudson.
Hon. Samuel F. Vinton,	Gallapolis.
William P. Clark,	Medina.
Ira Tracy,	Streetsboro.
S. N. Sanford,	Granville.
D. F. De Wolf,	Norwalk.
Joseph S. Edwards,	Mount Health.
Rev. Lucius Smith,	Middlebury, Summit Co.
James McCormick,	Cincinnati.
E. W. R. Lord,	Columbus.
James McKinney,	Richland.
Rev. Gideon B. Perry,	Cleveland.
Rev. John J. Brooks,	Gambier.
Rev. Thomas M. Smith,	Do

MICHIGAN.

Thomas Whelpley,	Brest, Monroe Co.
John S. Dixon,	Howell, Livingston Co.
A. S. Welch,	Jonesville.
Edmund B. Fairfield, Michigan Central College,	Spring Arbor.
Harry Miller,	Richland.
O. Hosford,	Olivet.
Rev. S. A. Baker,	Leoni, Jackson Co.

INDIANA.

Thomas H. Lynch,	Indianapolis.
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ILLINOIS.

G. L. Little,	Peoria.
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WISCONSIN.

P. G. McConville,	Cedarburg, Sheboygan Co.
Rev. W. L. Parsons, Normal In- stitute and High School,	Milwaukie.

KENTUCKY.

William Tuft, Jr.,	Lexington.
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LOUISIANA.

Joshua S. Leggett,	New Orleans.
Rev. Alexander F. Dobb,	Do

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Fourth (for convenience)
~~SECOND~~ SESSION

OF THE

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION

FOR THE

ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION,

HELD AT

NEWARK, NEW JERSEY,

August 10th, 11th, 12th & 13th, A. D. 1852.



PHILADELPHIA:

E. C. & J. BIDDLE, No. 6 SOUTH FIFTH STREET.

1852.

CRISSY & MARKLEY, Printers,
Goldsmiths Hall, Library Street.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

THE American Association for the advancement of Education, assembled in Library Hall, in the city of Newark, New Jersey, on the tenth day of August, 1852, at 11 o'clock, A. M., the President, Rt. Rev. ALONZO POTTER, of Pennsylvania, in the chair.

By invitation, the Rev. Dr. Brinsmade, of Newark, opened the session with prayer.

The roll of the permanent members was called, and the Constitution of the Association read.

On motion,

Messrs. W. Travis, of Pennsylvania, J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, and J. P. Walter, of Delaware, were appointed a Committee to audit the Accounts of the Treasurer.

On motion of the Local Committee, it was

Resolved, That the hours for meeting on each day shall be as follows: From 9 to 12½ in the forenoon; from 3 to 6 in the afternoon; from 7½ to 9½ in the evening.

On motion,

The President appointed the Hon. Thomas H. Burrowes, of Pennsylvania; Hon. Joseph McKeen, of New York; and T. Allen Clarke, of Louisiana, a Committee to examine the credentials of delegates, and report upon the same.

A communication was read from the President of the "Newark Library Association," offering the use of their rooms and library to the members of the Association during their stay in the city.

A communication was also read from the "New Jersey Historical Society," offering free access to their library.

These invitations were accepted, and the thanks of the Association returned.

A list of subjects upon which papers might be expected, was read, after which the Association adjourned to meet at 3 o'clock, P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

August 10, 1852.

The Association met at 3 o'clock, P. M., according to adjournment.

The preliminary exercises connected with the organization of the Association, having been completed, the President then addressed the assembly: *

Ladies and Gentlemen,—

The position in which I find myself is somewhat anomalous. When last year I entered on the duties of my office, being without a predecessor, I was required by the Standing Committee to pronounce the address which properly devolves only on a retiring President. This year, owing to the interposition of the same committee, I retain a post, which, both my own inclinations and (if I do not much mistake,) the clear language of the Constitution require me to relinquish. As I was then without a predecessor, I am now without successor. Yet, so autocratic are the tastes of these gentlemen, and so given are they

* The address not having been written, this report of it is necessarily imperfect.

withal to the exercise of "constructive" powers, that they demand of me another address. I yield with such grace as I can command; but I cannot contemplate without some solicitude the consequences to those whom I see before me. Their patience will be taxed by listening to remarks for which I am poorly prepared, and which I shall present with corresponding reluctance.

What shall be the tenor of these remarks? To what object shall they tend? You will expect from me no ambitious display of rhetoric. You have not come here to be dazzled with brilliant declamation, or to be amused with curious speculations. We have all left our homes and pursuits, at the cost of valuable time, and at the sacrifice, to some of us, of more important interests, that we may compass some practical and substantial good for ourselves and others. We have come to have our hearts stirred within us in behalf of what Milton calls "a right virtuous and noble education." We are here that we may have our strength renewed for the duties to which we have been called by Providence or choice; that we may get hints in respect to the precise objects for which we should labor, and the best means of attaining those objects; that we may raise questions which shall occupy our earnest attention while we are together, and which we may carry away with us for more mature consideration hereafter.

In what way, then, can your presiding officer better discharge the duty allotted to him in opening your deliberations, than by offering some thoughts on the present state of education, both in our own land and elsewhere. When Francis Bacon, at the age of sixteen, first directed his attention to the Aristotelian Philosophy, he experienced a profound sense of dissatisfaction. Even at that early age, he could discern that for dialectical purposes—as an instrument for evolving from established or assumed truths, the other truths which might be dependent upon them—it was an instrument of wonderful power. But he saw, at the same time, that it contained no element of progress. It furnished no means by which the human mind could step beyond

the charmed circle of existing knowledge, and make inroads upon the undiscovered continents of truth. In his first work—the *Advancement of Learning*—while he recognises the value of their labors who had gone before him, and discourses wisely of science as it then was, he also “notes as defective” many things which he considered erroneous or insufficient. Would that a second Bacon might arise, who should do for Education now what the first Bacon did for Inductive Philosophy. This subject stands most intimately connected, not merely with learning, but with all civilization and all religion. Happy would it be for the fame of this Association, should some one of its members, or some one who may be inspired by its discussions and labors, be urged to undertake and successfully to achieve a work on the *Advancement of Education*, which shall serve as a guide to those who may come after us. Few works are more needed—few would confer a greater service on mankind. To portray the different methods and institutions of education—to point out what in each is most praiseworthy, and “note in each what is deficient”—to sketch at the same time with clear and bold hand what *might* be done and what should be aspired to—here is a task which might well move the ambition of the wisest and most generous lover of his kind.

I shall not venture to hint at what should constitute the humblest rudiments of such a work. But, as it becomes the duty of each of us, when he appears here to offer his humble contribution to the object of our Association, and as that object is the *advancement* of education, I may be forgiven, if—speaking (as Burke says,) with the “freedom of history,” but yet in all kindness and courtesy, I undertake to put my finger upon some of the unsound places in our systems of instruction and training. I shall endeavour to “note some defects,” and at the same time to suggest some specific undertakings, towards which our infant society might profitably direct its labours.

Every enlightened friend of education and of humanity must have a two-fold wish: *First*, That the number of those who

enjoy the blessings of scholastic culture, may be increased—*Second*, that that culture may be improved both intellectually and morally.

It is most important that the *area of education* be enlarged; that it embrace within the sphere of its beneficent influence many who are now given over to neglect and ignorance. Much has been already achieved in this way. There was a time when the blessings which flow from the well regulated school, were regarded as a prerogative for the favored few. From three to five-fifths of the rising population of ancient Greece and Rome were without them. Even among that people, favored of the Most High, there were, 'till after the era of the great captivity, no schools for the mass of the people. So it was during the middle ages—and so, alas! it has been in lands that have boasted of the inheritance of intellectual and religious freedom, in more recent times. Let us be thankful that a brighter day is dawning on the millions in Christian lands, whose lot is toil. There is no clearer proof of the slow but sure advance of the great democratic principle, than the fact—that the School, the common and public school, which dispenses to every hamlet and household the elements of instruction and moral culture, is now regarded as the incontestable right of the whole people—that the mere circumstance that a child is born in any land which calls itself Christian, involves the privilege of being placed, through the medium of the primary school, in contact with the foundations of all law, philosophy, literature and religion. Every where, even under the most absolute despotism, that School stands a living and most significant appeal in behalf of the rights of the human soul—a protest loud and impressive against the insidious encroachments of tyranny. Absolute princes may think, that by controlling the studies of these schools, they will be able to mould the minds and hearts of a people to their own purposes, and for a time they may seem to succeed. Be assured, however, that in this age, a people who read, and who, with the power of reading, are urged to exercise the faculty of thinking, hold in

their hands a lever by which they can raise the mightiest and most massive despotism from its place, and topple it into ruins. In the prevalence of common schools and common school education, we have a sure pledge that the progress of a large and generous Christian liberty—though arrested at times and at times apparently reversed—is still a fact—a law of Providence.

But while we rejoice that this light shines down into valleys that long lay in darkness, let us not forget that there are multitudes of the young whom it still fails to reach. In every country—but in our own and in our fatherland, more even than where there is less of civil liberty—there are vast numbers who pass from their cradles into the busy world, and thence down to their graves, with none of the training that comes from a well ordered school;—there are still greater numbers who enjoy this training for an inadequate period. It seems to be a sad but inevitable result of the existing arrangements of society in large towns, that there should be a stratum too low to be reached by our common school system, as it is now worked. If reached at all, it must be through the voluntary and well directed efforts of an enlightened, self-denying charity. How many are there, in our cities, who care not for their own or their children's future—who are mindful only of what can minister to the lowest wants or the most unhallowed propensities—who are either unable to give opportunities for education to their offspring, or who dread the stern rebuke which will come forth from a child's enlightened conscience, when he returns from the influence of purer associations. Take those who, in Europe, are called the "dangerous" or "vagrant" classes. In London alone, according to Mayhew's *Work on London Labor and the London Poor*, (a work of simple truth, but with more than the interest of fiction,) there are no less than thirty thousand of this character; and think you that what is truth in London is not, to some extent, aye, and to a frightful extent, truth in New York—truth in Philadelphia—truth in Boston. Suppose you that causes which are operating in the great cities of Europe are powerless here? The evil is

gigantic, and it threatens consequences that merit the consideration of every reflecting mind. It can be met in part, it seems to me, through Associations like this. To what subject can they direct their thoughts more worthy of regard, than the rescue of these little ones from the destiny that otherwise awaits them? Let me, then, commend the matter to your deliberate consideration. How shall they, who in the language of the Germans, are "due to school," be brought to school? The absolute monarchs of Europe are at no loss for means. They march, if necessary, a platoon of soldiers; they lay violent constraint on both parent and child. But these are measures hardly compatible with our institutions, or the spirit of our people. For the present, at least, the work must be devolved on private beneficence; and is there any quarter, from which the call to it can go forth more properly than from a body like this, representing as it does, to some extent, the *educational heart* of our continent, and seeking to know where its members can go, in the name of God, and of humanity, to do good works?

There is another direction in which the area of Education needs to be extended. There are those who have been in our public schools, but who have been prematurely withdrawn. There are others, past childhood, who have just reached our shores, who are hardly able to read, and who are without means of securing more instruction. How many are there in our manufactories and workshops who ought to be under scholastic tuition? How many who make night hideous with their turbulence, that ought to be opening their minds and improving their hearts at good evening schools? When the Roman youth took to himself the manly gown, he did not go forth at once to a world of license; he went from the scene of domestic and school training to the forum or the camp, where he was passed through a severe course of discipline, specially adapted to his future profession. But with us, the young pass directly from school to encounter life's fiercest temptations. Here, then, is a field for our benevolent action. Let us inquire, whether means cannot be devised

for detaining the young longer at school. Let us encourage efforts which are now making to supply those who leave, with supplementary care and instruction. You have heard of *Evening Schools*. It has been my privilege to visit them ; to witness the order and diligence of the pupils, and to admire the untiring, self-sacrificing zeal of the teachers. No one can have seen what I have seen, without feeling that the general introduction of this class of schools into our cities and large towns, is one of the greatest strides, made in our day, in behalf of education.

Voluntary evening classes have also been established, where those among laboring youth, who love knowledge, assemble at their own expense, and receive lessons in drawing, chemistry and other branches. Then, again, courses of lectures are provided. Would that these lectures were always adapted to their purpose—that they imparted substantial information and promoted a taste for profitable reading or thinking. But it must be admitted, and when we consider the amount of misdirected talent which is at work in this department, it is a subject for deep regret, that this is not always, nor even usually the case. They have given us an example in England, in this department, which merits our unqualified praise. Under the auspices of the British Institution, the Geological Society, as well as through other means—the first men of that land—her Faradays, her De la Beches, her Sedgewicks and Lyells devote themselves to the instruction of her humblest artizans. Their lectures are rich in information—they are admirably adapted to the capacity and real wants of the working population—and the consequence is seen in a crowded attendance, and in a most intelligent and lively interest. Hitherto, popular lectures in this country have attracted but a small proportion of those by whom they are most needed. Has not the time come when we should strive to pay the debt, which, in this respect, we owe them? Is it not full time that our artificers, our apprentices, our laboring men, with their families, should have places opened to them, where they can find food for their highest faculties—where they can gain the im-

pulse which comes only from the best minds. They are tired of charlatanism. They know, in their souls, that life is too serious a thing to be trifled away. In their inmost hearts, they are hungering and thirsting for real knowledge—and be it ours as individuals, and as a Society, to contribute our part towards satisfying their demands.

I have thus said something in regard to the extent of the area over which education ought to spread itself; let me now say a word in regard to things which I deem mistaken in the existing state of education.

It seems to me, that one of our greatest wants is that of a truly docile spirit, of a spirit which inclines us to learn from any and every quarter, which does not esteem itself too wise to be instructed by any nation, of any age. A spirit of large and liberal eclecticism is needed in education, as it is, perhaps, in connection with other matters. I well know the inventive turn of Americans, the amazing amount of original genius that there is in this country. If you put a machine or a process of manufacturing before a genuine American, what is the very first question he asks himself? It is not “how can I use this;” but, “how can I *improve* it?” This confidence in our own resources, has wrought wonders in the line of arts and industry; wonders in every line of liberal research; yet after all, the first requisite for improvement, is that we know something, and a great deal, too, of that which has been done by others. From a lack of this knowledge, the same process or machine has been invented over and over again, by minds which, in about the same state of progress, were struggling to meet a want which they felt to exist. Had these men been content to send to Washington to discover what had been already patented in the same line of art, they might have escaped the toil, the disappointment, the heart-burnings, and the final bankruptcy which too frequently follow the career of the original inventor. The same remark applies to education. While we have ample scope for the exercise of our inventive and improving powers, our efficiency would be

greatly increased if we were more familiar with the methods which have been practiced in former ages, and with those which are practiced now in other countries. A report, or memoir, upon the existing state of education, not merely here or in our fatherland, but on the continent of Europe and throughout the world, would be extremely serviceable. There is something to be learned from every nation, even from those despised barbarians, the Chinese. There are, for instance, two principles which lie down at the very basis of their political and social system, which might, without any serious injury, be incorporated into our own; I mean the importance attached to the parental and filial relations, and the prominence given to moral, as compared with intellectual and physical culture. Something may be learned, in short, from each and every system. Could we bring these different systems together, analyze each to its constituent parts—dissect it as an anatomist dissects his subject, until we come to the central organ, which governs its movements, we should find none either among those now existing, or among those celebrated in history, that has not something in it worthy of our profoundest study; none but has principles,—exaggerated, abused, it may be—yet principles which, when combined with those that characterise other systems, would supply that, which in harmony of parts and living power and efficiency, would be another and a better system than any yet dreamt of in our philosophy.

Then there are systems consigned by the ruthless hand of time to oblivion, but which possessed a firmness and vitality that enabled them to mould the hearts of great nations, and fire them with a patriotism which carried them triumphantly to the sway of the world. Who is prepared to stand up and reveal to us the heart of the great Athenian system of education? How was that system formed which made its possessors the masters of their age, and which still continues to wield through their works of art and literature, a royal sceptre over our intellects and

our hearts. Think you not that America can learn something from such men as Aristotle and Socrates—as Plato and Zeno-phon? In addition, then, to a report on education as it now exists, we desire greatly to see an elaborate treatise on education as it has been; education as it was in republican Rome; education as it was in noble and heroic Sparta; education as it was in imperial Rome, and in still later lands and days. I submit to you, ladies and gentlemen, whether here is not a proper sphere for our enterprise; whether “*education as it is,*” and “*education as it has been,*” be not two subjects worthy of the toil and the patronage of this Association. *

We are told that Thucydides was once present at the Olympian games, when he heard a man, his senior in years, but his inferior in ability, read for the delight and instruction of the crowds gathered from all parts of Greece, the pages of a yet unpublished history. There was magnetism in that young heart, or rather, in that reader, and to the emotions which then thrilled through his frame, are we indebted for the best model of ancient classic history. Is there no young Thucydides here? Will there be none at future meetings of our Association, who can be reached by the influence of our example; who will feel the historic fire kindling in his soul, and who will seek by toilsome study and careful and clear analysis, to qualify himself to bring and lay upon your altar, this historical contribution—so much needed—to our great work?

I will venture to note another thing as wanting in the present state of education, and that is, a work on its true *philosophy*. We are to hear a paper on this subject, I am told, and it rejoices my heart to be assured of the fact, from one of the first minds of our land. Under such circumstances, it may seem to be great presumption on my part, if I venture to indicate the stand-points from which the theme should be surveyed. But there are two from which I greatly desire to see it discussed;—they may be called the *divine* and the *human*, or the *providential* and the *anthropological*.

What is man's life? Is it not a school? Is not that the noblest and truest view which you can take of it? A school in which the wisest and the greatest of school-masters is dealing with us as with dear children, where He is gradually training us by the influence of art, of letters, of religion, of civil institutions, of companionships and sanctuaries, to the full station of men and women in Christ Jesus. Now, on what principles is that school conducted? What are the steps and gradations through which, under His guidance, a child is led forward to knowledge and virtue. If we could examine the great school problems merely in this one light, we should learn much in regard to many vexed questions about instruction and discipline. For example, we have heard it said that we are to use no corporal punishment; are never to degrade and debase a child by the application of that brutal instrument—the rod. But when we look to the great school of Providence, do we not find that there the teacher applies his discipline not exclusively to the mind, that sometimes He descends to the degrading task of applying it to our bodies, lacerating them with pain and sickness, and thus imparting salutary lessons to our minds and hearts. Now what is wise for God, cannot necessarily be foolish for man. I am no advocate for the indiscriminate use of the rod; I loathe it;—but when I hear men, in the face of this great revelation of heaven, undertake to forbid its use, charging mothers upon their responsibility never to resort to it even when all other appeals have failed, that even then, they must not though the salvation of their child depends upon it, apply the rod—I tremble for the little ones whose mothers can listen to such folly.

Another question which has vexed teachers and parents in our day, is whether emulation ought to have any, the least place in school discipline. It is one of those easy and vulgar instrumentalities which inferior minds naturally have recourse to; let it be watched, then, and guarded against abuse, but let no man tell me that it is in the power of any education to overturn or to improve the economy of God in the constitution of

the human soul. There I find that principle; I find that the Creator uses it, and for the most beneficent purposes. I find that the All Wise, less fastidious than his creatures, is willing to employ manifold instrumentalities, the humble as well as the noblest, in order to form a character in which the elements shall be so gently mixed, that nature can stand up and say to all the world, "this is a man."

There is a theory of education again, (started I think by Miss Edgeworth,) the principle of which is that you must require nothing of a child which you cannot vindicate to his own judgment; that you are never to exact from his will, obedience to any rules which you cannot explain to his understanding. This is rationalism "with a vengeance." It not only recognizes the right of private judgment, but the right of child judgment; aye, and the right of *baby judgment*, too. It is erecting the judgment of every child who comes into this world, into a remorseless idol, to which must be sacrificed your own judgment, your own convenience, the order of your family and the darling prospects even of your child; all because you cannot convince him that it is best to deny himself. Is self-denial grateful to any human heart until we have been trained to noble deeds and noble thoughts? But above all, let us not be wiser than God. In his school I see continual demands made upon our faith, appeals from our reason to our trust in Him. We know that he is true and wise and good, and we therefore yield to his mandates, and bow submissively to bereavements which break our hearts, but which we still feel will stand vindicated to our enlarged and enlightened judgment in a future and a better world. O! then, for some book on the philosophy of education, written in the light of God's providence, interpreting every one of its principles by the course of that wisest and best of all instructors and disciplinarians.

But there is another stand-point from which it seems to me that the philosophy of education might be viewed to advantage;

that is, *its connection with the philosophy of human nature*. I would take the subject that is to be operated upon, the being that is to be developed and formed by the process of education, and in his own nature, I would seek for knowledge to enable me to perform the task aright. I would endeavor to ascertain what he is in his totality, in all the principles of his complex being. There I find that he is not only spirit, but body likewise; and whatever system overlooks either the one or the other of these elements in his constitution, is necessarily imperfect. We should consider the relation between body and mind; we should ascertain how that relation can be employed to the best advantage. And when we come to man's intellectual nature, to his imagination, for example, we are to remember that here is a most important constituent of that nature, that it has been given to us by the Creator, not to be neglected, not to be repudiated and branded, not again to be unduly fostered; but to be disciplined and trained, to be educated and unfolded, to be placed in its proper relation to the other powers of the soul. Not only should it be addressed in education and in literature, as it is by God everywhere, for the purpose of giving interest and pleasure; but it should be employed to a much greater extent than it now is, as a means of reaching the reason, the judgment, and above all, the affections. We find it thus used in the Bible. Take the precept, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," and let the question once asked, "Who is my neighbor," be answered in general terms, "every one whom you can benefit." How cold and lifeless such a precept so explained, when placed beside that matchless parable, "the good Samaritan!" That picture speaks not only to our heads, our understandings, but it speaks powerfully to our hearts, giving us conceptions of the glory and beauty that there is in doing good even to an enemy, and preparing us to feel in all its force, the injunction, "go thou and do likewise."

We shall find, in this way, that the imagination has not only

its part to perform in after life, but is also to be used in the nursery and in the school-room. It has what may be denominated a *school function*.

Another advantage in surveying the subject of Education from the anthropological point of view, would be to bring into strong relief, some other faults which prevail in our modes of teaching and discipline. I shall enunciate what I suppose will be recognized as truth by every practical educator, and every intelligent parent, when I say that *we teach too much and train too little*.

When you desire a boy to become a shoemaker, you do not send him to listen to lectures on the science and art of shoemaking, but you set him down upon his bench, with leather and last, and you make him sew, and sew, and sew,—botchingly at first, but better and better as he repeats his experiments, until he is able to produce a finished, well made shoe. So far as relates to true excellence, and especially to moral excellence, we may preach 'till doomsday without securing it, unless the knowledge be applied again and again in practice, until its exercise becomes habitual.

The Chinese have sixteen moral lessons which, twice in every moon, they cause to be read aloud in the presence of the whole empire. Here is teaching, in one sense, most wisely. It shows a due regard for the value of repetition. O! that we had a book too, written upon that subject. We have got past repetition, and that is one reason why we are almost past remembering. But what is more to my purpose is the fact, that the Chinese go on and see that in the family and state, these lessons are acted upon. The consequence is seen, we are told by Davis, in the most orderly, industrious and best satisfied people that are to be found in the world. These, certainly, are not the highest graces we could desire to see in a civilized community, but then there would be no great harm done were we, in this land, trained to be a cheerful, an industrious, and above all, a contented people.

There are various other topics to which I intended to advert, but I must not forget, that what I now do without law, I shall

next year be required to do by law, and I may as well be economical, therefore, of my materials.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I think I have shown that there is work enough for us to do, and work which is worthy the best efforts of this Association.

We come here, I trust, for the purpose of being aided in the performance of our several duties; of being animated to do the precise work assigned to us by our great MASTER. "If the Prophet had bid thee do some great thing, wouldst thou not have done it? How much rather then, when He saith to thee, "wash and be clean." We should all be glad, doubtless, to achieve some splendid work for Education; but this is not given to most of us to accomplish. But we *can* wash and be clean. Each one of us *can* clear up his views of what education is, and what it may be; and each one *can* labor to reduce his best conceptions to practice. We can come here with the lofty purpose, which may animate the humblest as well as the highest; which may warm and enlarge the heart of the kitchen-maid as well as of the prince upon the throne; the purpose so to walk daily in the sphere in which we are placed—so to perform the work assigned us by Providence, that when we shall have passed from earth, there may be written upon our tombstone, these few words—*"He hath done what he could."*

On motion of Judge DUER, of New Jersey, it was

Resolved, That the Standing Committee be instructed to take such measures, as they may deem most effectual and proper, to obtain from the Congress of the United States, the appropriation of the future instalments of the surplus revenue, for the benefit of the Common Schools in the several States.

The Committee on Credentials made a report in part.

The Standing Committee reported the names of the following gentlemen as permanent members of the Association, who were unanimously elected.

John C. Cresson, Philadelphia.
 Wm. M. Gillespie, Union College, Schenectady.
 E. B. Huntington, Meriden, Connecticut.
 Wm. Smyth, Owego, N. Y.,
 Isaiah Peckham, Newark, New Jersey.
 John Grant, Newark, New Jersey.
 George Spencer, Utica, New York.
 Samuel H. Pennington, Newark, New Jersey.
 C. H. Anthony, Albany, New York.
 John Whitehead, Newark, New Jersey.
 Hon. Wm. A. Duer, Morristown, N. J.
 Alfred Greenleaf, Brooklyn, New York.
 Wm. Y. Brown, Beaver, Pennsylvania.
 Benedict Starr, Newark, New Jersey.
 Thomas N. Page, Newark, New Jersey.
 Anson J. Upson, Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.
 John D. Philbrick, Boston.

Mr. WM. TRAVIS, from the Auditing Committee, reported that they had examined the Treasurer's Report, comparing his Accounts with the accompanying vouchers, and found them correct. There remains in the Treasurer's hands the sum of \$293 90.

R. L. COOKE, of New Jersey, from the Committee appointed at the last meeting of the Association, read a report on "The Defects, the Difficulties and Necessities of Female Education."*

After the reading of the Report, remarks were made by Bishop Potter and George B. Emerson, of Massachusetts. When,

* See Appendix A.

the hour of adjournment having arrived, the discussion was suspended, and the Association adjourned to meet in the Central Methodist Church, at 7½ o'clock.

EVENING SESSION, AUGUST 10TH.

The Association met in the Central Methodist Church, at 7½ o'clock, and was addressed by the Rev. Dr. B. SEARS, Secretary of Public Instruction, in Massachusetts, on the cultivation of Taste and Imagination.

At the close of the address, remarks were made by the President, after which the Association adjourned.

SECOND DAY.

Morning Session.—August 11th.

The Association met at 9 o'clock, and was opened with prayer by the Rev. W. KENNY, of Newark.

The minutes of the preceding day were read and approved.

The Standing Committee reported an Order of Exercises for the day. The following gentlemen having been previously nominated by the Standing Committee, were unanimously elected permanent members of the Association:—

George B. Emerson, Boston.	Wm. J. Whitaker, Boston.
Wm. D. Ticknor, Boston.	Rev. Wesley Kenney, Newark.

The subject of Female Education was resumed, and the discussion continued by Messrs. John Kingsbury, of Rhode Island; Wm. Smyth, of New York; R. L. Cooke, of New Jersey; George B. Emerson and Rev. Dr. B. Sears, of Massachusetts.

On motion of Mr. THAYER, it was

Resolved, That the remarks of members, in the discussion of the subject, be limited to ten minutes.

The discussion was then continued by J. Jhonnot, of New York; James Henry, of New York; Dr. A. D. Lord, of Ohio; C. Plotts, of Pennsylvania; G. F. Thayer, of Massachusetts; and Bishop Potter, of Pennsylvania.

Mr. E. B. HUNTINGTON, of Connecticut, offered the following resolution, which was adopted.

Resolved, That a Committee of three be appointed, to report to the Association next year, on the capabilities and practical extent of existing modes of Female Education.

The President appointed the following gentlemen on this Committee.

E. B. Huntington,	- - -	Meriden, Conn.
Geo. B. Emerson,	' - - -	Boston, Mass.
Dr. Asa D. Lord,	- - -	Columbus, Ohio.

On motion of G. F. THAYER, Esq., of Boston, it was

Resolved, That a Committee be appointed to prepare a report, to be laid before the Association at its next meeting, on the present state of Education, both *elementary* and *collegiate*, throughout the world; embracing in said report, the peculiarities of the Systems of Public Instruction, and Methods of Teaching and Discipline, adopted in different countries.

COMMITTEE.

Rev. B. Sears,	- - - -	Massachusetts.
Hon. Henry Barnard,	- -	Connecticut.
Hon. Thomas B. Burrows,		Pennsylvania.
Prof. Wm. M. Gillespie,	-	New York.
Greer B. Duncan,	- - -	Louisiana.

Resolved, That another Committee be appointed to make a corresponding report on the systems of Education which were prevalent during the Middle Ages, and the periods which preceded and immediately followed.

COMMITTEE.

Prof. D. Read, - - - - - Indiana.
 Prof. C. D. Cleveland, - - - Pennsylvania.
 Prof. John Kingsbury, - - - Rhode Island,
 Prof. J. H. Agnew, - - - Michigan.
 George Spencer, - - - - - New York.

P. P. MORRIS, Esq., of Pennsylvania, read a report* on "Schools of Design for Women," accompanied by the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted.

Resolved, That this Association has heard with pleasure of the establishment in this country of Female Schools of Design, or Schools of Ornamental Art, as they are sometimes called, beholding in them one of the legitimate fruits of general rudimentary education, and looking upon them as important instruments in opening up proper fields for the exercise of female industry and talents, and as laying the foundation of intelligent independence, in the industrial pursuits of the country.

Prof. W. J. WHITAKER, of Massachusetts, made some observations on the subject of the report.

Association adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION, AUGUST 11TH.

Association met at 3 o'clock.

A communication from Professor J. Henry, of the Smithsonian Institute, was read, expressing regret that circumstances prevented his attendance at this session of the Association.

* See Appendix B.

S. Chase, Esq., Principal of the Newark Wesleyan Institute, invited the members of the Association to visit that institution during the recesses. The invitation was accepted.

Prof. W. J. Whitaker, Principal of the Boston School of Design for Women, read a paper on drawing, as a means of education.*

Remarks were made on the subject of the address, by Messrs. T. Fisher and Evan Pugh, of Pennsylvania, Dr. J. N. McElligott, of New York, and Prof. Haldeman, of Pennsylvania.

The Standing Committee reported the names of the following gentlemen, who were elected permanent members :

- S. S. Haldeman, Columbia, Pa.
- Alfred Crease, Roxborough, Philadelphia county.
- John Lynch, Circleville, Ohio.
- James Henry, New York.
- James H. McBride, Roxborough, Philadelphia county.
- D. Y. Van Norman, New York.
- J. D. Mendenhall, Bristol, Pennsylvania.
- Samuel I. Clark, Newark.
- Joshua Bates, Jr., Boston.
- A. S. Welch, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

Adjourned.

EVENING SESSION, AUGUST 11TH.

The Association convened according to adjournment, at 7½ o'clock, the Rev. Dr. Sears, of Massachusetts, in the chair, in the *absence* of the President.

George B. Emerson, Esq., of Boston, delivered an address on

* See Appendix C.

“the true function of Text Books,” after which the subject was farther discussed by Dr. A. D. Lord, of Ohio.

Adjourned.

THIRD DAY.

Morning Session.—August 12th.

The Association met at 9 o'clock, the Rev. Dr. Sears in the chair, and was opened by prayer by the Rev. Mr. Snyder, of Newark.

The minutes of the preceding day were read and approved.

On motion of N. Hedges, of Newark, it was resolved that in the discussion of all questions before the Association, the remarks shall be limited to ten minutes.

On motion of Mr. Thayer, of Boston, the hour of 11 o'clock was fixed for the election of officers.

The Standing Committee presented an order of exercises for the day.

On recommendation of the Standing Committee, the following gentlemen were elected members of the Association :

Sidera Chase, Newark, New Jersey.

Capt. F. W. Moores, U. S. N., Newark.

Dr. H. B. Wilbur, New York.

The Association was then addressed by the Rev. D. Washburn, of Pennsylvania, on “the progress of civilization as illustrated by history.*”

The discussion of the topic suggested by the lecture, was for the present postponed.

* See Appendix D.

The following gentlemen having been recommended by the Standing Committee, were unanimously elected permanent members :

T. D. P. Stom,	-	-	New Britain, Connecticut.
D. N. Camp,	-	-	do do
P. W. Robertson,	-	-	Troy, N. Y.
Wm. Roberts,	-	-	Philadelphia.

The hour having arrived, the order of the day was taken up, and the Association proceeded to the election of officers.

The following gentlemen having been recommended by the Standing Committee, were unanimously chosen officers of the Association for the ensuing year :

PRESIDENT.

PROF. JOSEPH HENRY, Washington City, D. C.

Recording Secretary.

ROBERT L. COOKE, Bloomfield, New Jersey.

Treasurer.

JOHN WHITEHEAD, Newark, N. J.

Standing Committee (elected by ballot).

DR. ASA D. LORD,	-	-	-	Columbus, Ohio.
PROF. WM. M. GILLESPIE,	-	-	-	Schenectady, N. Y.
E. C. Biddle,	-	-	-	Philadelphia.
WM. D. SWAN,	-	-	-	Boston.
WM. TRAVIS,	-	-	-	Newcastle, Pa.
PROF. CALEB MILLS,	-	-	-	Crawfordville, Ind.

On recommendation of the Standing Committee, the city of Pittsburg, Pa., was selected as the next place of meeting.

On motion of R. L. Cooke, the appointment of the Local Committee was referred to the President.

LOCAL COMMITTEE.

Hon. Wm. F. Johnston,	Rev. Wm. D. Howard,
“ Charles Shaler,	“ Wm. H. Paddock,
D. H. Riddle, D. D.,	F. R. Bruhot,
A. W. Black, D. D.,	D. N. White,
Homer G. Clark, D. D.,	L. Harper,
H. D. Sellers, M. D.,	Prof. James Thompson.

Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK, of Boston, offered the following resolution :

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to report at the next annual meeting of the Association, on the comparative cost of public instruction.

After some discussion, the resolution was for the present laid aside.

A recess of five minutes was taken, after which the Hon. Thos. H. Burrowes, of Pennsylvania, read a paper on educational periodicals.*

WM. S. CHASE, of New Jersey, read a paper on school discipline, after which the Association adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION, AUGUST 12TH.

Mr. JOSHUA BATES, Jr., of Boston, addressed the Association on “Arnold as a Model Teacher.”

Mr. J. B. THOMPSON, of New York, offered the following resolution, which was adopted.

* See Appendix E.

Resolved, That Educational Journals are among the most efficient auxiliaries in the advancement of popular Education, and richly deserve the cordial support of Teachers, and the liberal patronage of the community.

On motion of Mr. C. H. ANTHONY, of Albany, it was

Resolved, That the several gentlemen who have presented papers for the consideration and instruction of this Association, be requested to furnish copies of their Addresses to the Secretary, to be published among the permanent documents of the Association, at the discretion of the Standing Committee.

Capt. F. W. MOORES, U. S. Navy, offered the following resolutions, which were adopted.

Resolved, That this Association recognise the claim of the Seamen of our country, and those engaged in the Navigation of our inland waters, together with their families, upon its efforts, with regard to their Education and Moral Improvement.

Resolved, That a Committee be appointed to draft a plan, the better to carry into effect the foregoing resolution, with power to correspond and communicate with such persons, and portions of the country as they may, in their judgment, deem essential for the furtherance of this object, and to report the same at the next annual meeting.

The Chair appointed the following gentlemen upon this Committee:—

Capt. F. W. Moores, U. S. N., Newark, New Jersey.

Lieut. A. H. Foot, U. S. N., New Haven, Connecticut.

Rev. Timothy Stillman, Dunkirk, New York.

On motion of Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK, the resolution offered by him during the morning session, on the Comparative Cost of Public Instruction, was taken up and passed.

The following gentlemen were appointed a Committee under this resolution.

E. R. Potter, - - - - Rhode Island.
 Lorin Andrews, - - - - Ohio.
 J. D. Philbrick, - - - - Massachusetts.

The Association then took a recess of five minutes.

At the close of the recess, a lecture was delivered by Dr. JOHN H. GRISCOM, of New York, on the importance of the study of Physiology.

On motion of J. W. BULKLEY, of New York, the following preamble and resolution was adopted.

Whereas it is important to secure the composition of able and thorough works, on the History, the Philosophy, and the best Methods of Education: *And whereas* it has been found by experience, that one of the best means of securing specific treatises, is to offer premiums, to be assigned by competent judges to the most meritorious competitors.

Resolved, That a Committee be appointed to consider and report upon the best means of raising a fund, to be entitled the "Premium Fund," and to be applied, under the direction of the Standing Committee, to the object above named.

The Chair appointed upon this Committee.

J. W. Bulkley, - - - - of New York.
 E. C. Biddle, - - - - of Pennsylvania.
 A. Greenleaf, - - - - of New York.

The following gentlemen were nominated, and elected members of the Association:—

Lester Wilcox, - - - - Brooklyn, New York.
 John Joyce, - - - - Philadelphia.
 Rev. John W. Irwin, - - Morristown, New Jersey.
 Martin R. Dennis, - - - Newark, New Jersey,
 Robert Foster, - - - - Bloomfield, New Jersey.
 Charles M. Davis, - - - Bloomfield, New Jersey.

The Association then adjourned to meet in the First Presbyterian Church, at half-past 7 o'clock.

EVENING SESSION, AUGUST 12TH.

The Association met in the First Presbyterian Church, Rev. Dr. SEARS in the Chair.

Prof. A. J. UPSON, of Hamilton College, then addressed the Association, on the "English Language in America."

The address was followed by remarks suggested thereby, from Prof. Haldeman, of Pennsylvania; Prof. W. J. Whitaker, of Massachusetts; and Capt. F. W. Moores, of New Jersey.

Adjourned.

FOURTH DAY.

Morning Session.—August 13th.

The Association met at 9 o'clock, Rev. Dr. SEARS in the Chair.

The Exercises were opened with prayer, by the Rev. Dr. STEARNS, of Newark.

The minutes of the preceding day were read and approved.

On recommendation of the Standing Committee, the following gentlemen were elected permanent members.

S. L. Sawtelle, Frederick City, Maryland.

Nathan Hedges, Newark, New Jersey.

Rev. Wm. Bradley, Newark, New Jersey.

D. W. Warren, Philadelphia.

Stephen J. Sedgwick, New York.

Leonard Hazeltine, New York.

The order of Exercises for the day was reported by the Standing Committee.

J. W. BULKLEY, Esq., of New York, was called to the Chair.

The Association was addressed by Dr. Asa D. LORD, of Ohio, on the value of Education to the Industrial Interests of the country.

On motion of P. P. MORRIS, Esq., it was resolved, that when the Association adjourn this morning, it adjourn to meet in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, on the *second* Tuesday of August, 1853, at 11 o'clock, A. M.

On motion of Mr. Morris,

Resolved, That the thanks of the Association are hereby tendered to the citizens of Newark, for their generous hospitality extended to the members of this Association; to the authorities of the Central Methodist and First Presbyterian churches, for the use of their respective buildings; and also to the various literary associations, railroad companies, &c., which have afforded facilities to the members.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Association are specially due, and are hereby tendered to the "Newark Library Association," for the generous appropriation of their building, free of charge, to the use of this Association during its sittings.

Mr. W. D. SWAN, of Massachusetts, presented a report on School Attendance, offering at its close, the following resolution, which was adopted.*

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to report

* See Appendix G.

at the next annual meeting, how far compulsory education by the State is desirable.

The chair appointed upon this committee,

W. D. Swan,	-	-	of Boston,
J. W. Bulkley,	-	-	of Williamsburgh, N. Y.,
P. P. Morris,	-	-	of Philadelphia.

The discussion of the subject of school discipline being the order of the day, was resumed, and remarks were made by Rev. G. Emlen Hare, D. D., of Philadelphia; Alfred Greenleaf, of New York; Hon. Ira Mahew, of Michigan; Rev. S. Newbury, of Ohio, and W. D. Swan, of Massachusetts.

At 11 o'clock Prof. S. S. Haldeman, of Pennsylvania, addressed the Association on the true method of teaching Etymology.*

JOSEPH McKEEN, Esq., of New York, presented the following preamble and resolutions, which were unanimously adopted.

Whereas, A suitable commemoration of the worthy who pass out by death from our midst, is peculiarly appropriate; and *whereas*, the late John Griscom, LL.D., of Burlington, New Jersey, who was one of the founders of this Association,—a gentleman venerable from his age, wise from his experience, and universally respected for the agency which he has exerted in the cause of education and philanthropy,—has died since the last meeting of the Association, therefore

Resolved, That this Association sympathize and condole with the family and numerous friends of the deceased, and desire to record our high respect for his memory.

* See Appendix H.

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Association be requested to communicate this preamble and these resolutions to the family of the deceased.

Mr. A. GREENLEAF, from the Committee appointed to consider the subject of a premium fund, reported as follows :

“The Committee to whom were referred the preamble and resolution on the subject of raising money for the creation of a “PREMIUM FUND” for the best treatise on the ‘history, philosophy, and the best methods of education,’ would respectfully report, that they consider the plan one of great importance to the best interests of education. They believe that if the subject be properly laid before the community, subscriptions may be obtained, which will enable the Standing Committee to make liberal offers for the best treatise or treatises on the subjects specified.

They believe, also, that the Standing Committee is the proper body to carry the resolution into effect, therefore

Resolved, That the preamble and resolution be referred to the Standing Committee, with power to act.

Mr. W. Y. BROWN, of Pennsylvania, offered the following resolution :

Whereas, A complete education embraces the development of the whole man,—his physical, mental and moral nature ; and whereas, the development of the latter is of equal or greater importance than either of the others ; therefore *Resolved*, That the bible should be read daily in all the schools of our land, and the pupils instructed in the general principles of christianity.

After some discussion by Messrs. P. P. Morris, J. N. McElligott, S. Newbury, John Whitehead, James Henry, Joseph McKeen, and W. D. Swan, the resolution was laid upon the table.

The Standing Committee recommended the recommitment of

those subjects upon which reports were expected, but were not presented, to the respective committees, to report at the next annual meeting of the Association.

The recommendation was adopted, and the following subjects were recommitted :

1. School Libraries,

Hon. E. R. Potter,	-	-	-	Kingston, R. I.
Prof. D. Read,	-	-	-	Bloomington, Ind.
Ira Patchin,	-	-	-	Livonier, N. Y.

2. Normal Schools,

Hon. H. Barnard,	-	-	-	Hartford, Conn.
“ S. Galloway,	-	-	-	Columbus, Ohio.
T. Rainey,	-	-	-	Cincinnati, “

3. Free Lecture Education,

B. Sears, D. D.,	-	-	-	Boston, Mass.
James Johonnot,	-	-	-	Syracuse, N. Y.
J. McCormick,	-	-	-	Cincinnati, Ohio.

4. Grades of Schools,

Rev. D. Washburn,	-	-	-	Philadelphia.
J. P. Wickersham,	-	-	-	Marietta, Pa.
Sidera Chase,	-	-	-	Newark, N. J.

5. Uniformity in the items and forms of Reports by State and Local Superintendents.

Hon. S. S. Randall,	-	-	-	Washington City.
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6. The modes in which the Association can best promote the interests of Education in Common or Public Schools.

E. C. Benedict, Esq.,	-	-	-	New York City.
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7. The Philosophy of Education, and the importance of Moral as well as Natural Science,

Prof. J. Henry, - - - Smithsonian Institute.

8. The relative value of Mathematics and Languages, as gymnastics of the mind,

President Wm. H. Allen, - Girard College, Phila.

9. The relations of Ignorance to Crime, and the comparative cost of Crime and Education,

O. B. Pierce, - - - Rome, N. Y.

On motion of Mr. J. P. Wickersham, it was *Resolved*, That a Committee be appointed to inquire into the proper mode of pronouncing the Latin and Greek languages, and report at the next meeting of the Association.

The chair appointed

Prof. A. J. Upson, - - - Hamilton College.

Geo. B. Emerson, - - - Boston.

Dr. J. N. McElligott, - - - New York.

Dr. H. PEET, President of the New York Institution for the instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, addressed the Association on the subject of Deaf Mute Instruction.

The hour for final adjournment having arrived, the minutes of the morning session were read and approved.

After a few closing remarks from the chair, the Association adjourned to meet in the city of Pittsburg, Pa., on the second Tuesday of August, 1853, at 11 o'clock, A. M.

APPENDIX A.

REPORT ON FEMALE EDUCATION,

READ BEFORE THE ASSOCIATION

BY R. L. COOKE, OF NEW JERSEY.

In discussing the subject referred to this Committee, it is deemed expedient to adopt the order suggested by the resolution under which we act. "Resolved that Female Education,—its defects and difficulties, and its necessities, be referred to a Committee of three, to report to the next Annual Meeting of the Association."

The difficulties, defects, and necessities, of female education, are then, the three points presented for consideration; but as the relation between the defects and difficulties of any Educational System is very intimate, usually mutually aggravating each other, we may with propriety consider them as forming one topic.

On no subject, so extensively and so vitally important, are there more seriously conflicting views, more pertinaciously maintained, than on that of education. Every one professes to understand it in all its phases,—almost every one considers his own views of the means of its attainment, and its end, as correct, no matter what may have been his opportunities for arriving at just conclusions; whether his days have been spent in the shop, the counting house, or the study.

This fundamental difference of sentiment upon what are frequently the essentials of an education, in its true sense, may be stated as the foundation of most of the difficulties attending the perfection of any educational system, or at least the attainment of any great degree of uniformity therein—whether designed for males or females—and this is specially true of female education.

Probably none are more ready to learn—more ready to attach proper value to other's experience—more ready to make use of knowledge thus acquired, than practical teachers—those who have made the science of education the study of their lives, and best know the difficulties with which it is surrounded, yet there exists even among them scarcely less diversity of sentiment and practice, tending to fix and perpetuate those difficulties.

Although many of the defects of our modes of education are from their nature common to males and females, they are not less deserving of our attention than those which more exclusively pertain to female education, we therefore first occupy a few moments in giving a hasty glance at a few of them.

1. No notion is more prevalent or more erroneous than that education consists chiefly in the acquisition of such knowledge as may be obtained from books, or the devotion to scholastic pursuits of a given number of years, variable as the caprices of men, the result of which is to be the treasuring up in the mind of a certain number of facts, historical, physical and intellectual, &c. Almost all our educational arrangements are made to conform to this idea. Children are sent to school, six hours each day, for a period longer or shorter according to the respective capacities of their mental faculties for absorption. While there their time and their minds are fully occupied in committing to memory the various text books of science, often with very little reference to their practical application, and most teachers are satisfied if their pupils succeed in retaining the facts thus gathered up, or in the language of the school room, "if their lessons are learned." From the School House they are transferred to the Boarding School, the College or the University, to follow out substantially the same course, until they graduate, and their education is complete. In our estimate of the intellectual character of an individual, we seldom take into account the training that may have been received outside of the school room, which, in truth, may be of far greater intrinsic value than that which has been received within, or at least may have imparted to it every thing that was requisite to render it practically useful.

This error is not confined to the uneducated. It influences in a great variety of ways many, I may say without disparagement, most educators in the discharge of their daily duties. Let me illustrate. One teacher aims to impart instruction mainly by lectures, familiar conversations, &c., making the text book quite a secondary matter, sometimes even discarding hard study altogether, as an unnecessary waste of time in this day of progress. This is an exceedingly delightful way of acquiring and imparting knowledge—delightful to the *Pupil* because it throws the *drudgery* of study upon the teacher, while it gives him only the results; to the *Teacher*, because it relieves him in a great measure from the task—oh how irksome!—of hearing ill learned lessons, or of urging forward indolent scholars. It is no wonder, therefore, that this plan is po-

pular with many, and readily usurps the place of any other that requires a personal and patient application of the mind to the acquisition of knowledge. The evil effects of such training are not at first apparent; indeed, it promises fair and abundant fruit. A pupil of ordinary intellectual quickness, by such means will soon store up a great variety of facts on various subjects, which having been presented to the mind in a popular form, can be brought forward for immediate use, and present an appearance of erudition more specious than real; but as the memory has been cultivated almost exclusively, while other and more important mental faculties have been suffered to remain dormant, when *that* fails, as it most assuredly will, the mind proportionably relapses into its original ignorance, while the golden opportunity of acquiring proper habits of study and of thought has forever passed away. Of course we shall not be understood as objecting to the introduction of lectures, either formal or familiar, in any educational course, they are highly important, and in some branches essential to the greatest success, but they should be made subservient to the text book, and should never be permitted to interfere with those severer studies, which, while they add to our stock of knowledge, are calculated also to induce habits of thought, and the power of mental concentration.

Another teacher, with a laudable desire to relieve his young charge from irksome labor, and to push them forward rapidly in their course, is ever ready to assist them by working out the solution of an arithmetical problem here, or translating a line of Cæsar or Virgil there, relieving them of all their difficulties with indiscriminate but misjudged kindness. Pupils thus aided never think of attempting to master a difficulty, their ready resource is the obliging teacher, who they know, from frequent experience, will save them from the trouble, and the consequence is a total loss of self reliance, for which no new acquisition of knowledge can sufficiently compensate.

As a necessary consequence of this mistaken notion of the means and ends of education, increasing the difficulties of which we are speaking, may be noticed the amazing multiplicity of school books, which descend upon us like the locusts of Egypt, like them too, becoming insufferable plagues, and eating up our substance. This evil is two-fold, resulting in the first place from the immense variety of the books put forth, and in the second place from the defective principles upon which a great majority of them are constructed. *Most* of the authors of these school books, I am not willing to endorse them all, have prepared them from a mistaken idea that the public good demanded them, that the interests of education were suffering for want of them. Could the history of these contributions to science be recorded, it would doubtless read somewhat on this wise:—A man well prepared for its duties, engages in the business of instruction. More than usually prepared, perhaps, in some one particular branch, say, for the sake of illustration, arithmetic—he commences the instruction of a class in that department with unusual enthusiasm, making use

of the text book then enjoying popular favor. When the class has finished the book he is not satisfied with the result; something is lacking to bring his pupil up to the standard of excellence that he has assumed. Conscious of faithfulness on his own part, he concludes that the deficiency is chargeable solely to the text book that has been used. He immediately discards it, and adopts another, with a similar result. He now begins to give form to his own ideas on the subject, and to write out his own plan, supplying by his manuscript the deficiencies noted in the text books that he has used. His manuscripts grow upon his hands, until eventually they attain the size and the completeness of an entire treatise. With the use of these he is enabled to train his pupils according to his heart's desire, and with pardonable complacency, to present them to the world as arithmetical prodigies, rendered so by a system exclusively his own. Pitying the hapless condition of other teachers, who are toiling on under the disadvantages that he has so happily overcome, he is seized with a benevolent desire to relieve their distress by extending to them the benefits of his labors, and the result is the appearance of a "New and Complete Arithmetic," which, in his estimation, ought to banish all other arithmetics from the schools.

This book, so perfect in all its parts—so admirably adapted to the school boy's wants, is, perhaps, adopted by another teacher, equally anxious with the first to produce thoroughly trained mathematicians, with high hopes of deriving "aid and comfort" therefrom. To his surprise and mortification, he finds that with it, he is unable to accomplish all that he expected,—his pupils make no more rapid progress under the new system than they did under those that had already been discarded. He in turn is compelled to depend upon his own resources, and like his predecessor, finally produces another book. In this way the work of book making has steadily progressed from small beginnings, until it has attained an importance of which few form any conception.

The great mistake of these authors often lies not so much in the manner in which they treat their subjects; for, doubtless, in their own hands respectively, no other system could be made to work as well; but in supposing that what fills their ideas of perfection must necessarily be the standard for every one else, forgetting that the mental idiosyncrasies of men are as varied as their features, and consequently no system that human ingenuity or learning can devise, will meet the wants, or fill the conceptions of all.

But the *multiplicity* of school books is not the most serious evil with which we have to contend. As has already been intimated, many of them are constructed upon fundamentally defective principles. We doubt not that the application of the power of steam so extensively to the practical purposes of life—the consequent wonderful increase in facilities for intercommunication both by sea and land, by means of steamboats and railroads, enabling men to count time by hours and even minutes, in the transactions of business, when formerly they were

compelled to reckon by days, has exerted no inconsiderable influence upon our modes of instruction; an influence that has been far from happy. Like our fathers in the days of the Revolution, though in a very different sense, we have become literally "minute men." Our motions are regulated by the clapper of an engine bell. We must not only *travel* fast, but we must *think* fast, or we fall behind the spirit of the age. *Progression* is the great watch-word of the day; *rapidity of execution* the great end to be attained, in all things—education has formed no exception to the general rule; knowledge must be attained with a degree of rapidity, approximating, in some measure, at least, to that which characterized everything else, otherwise time could not be afforded for its attainment at all. Teachers began to dream of a royal road to learning, by which their own labors might be lessened, and their pupils borne onward to the goal for which they aimed, with magic speed and ease. To aid in the accomplishment of this pleasant dream, these book-makers have stepped forward and proffered their assistance; every branch of science has been simplified, and reduced to the unaided comprehension of the feeblest intellect, so that it has even become a question with some, whether they cannot do better "without a master" than with; every study that has any disciplinary tendency upon the mind, that requires the application of thought, or demands mental effort, has been emasculated until the learner has nothing left for him to do, but to let knowledge, such as it is, pour into his mind with scarce an effort, 'till its capacity is satisfied.

As well might the man whose sunken chest and nerveless arms, demand vigorous exercise to strengthen them, complain of his iron dumb-bells, because they were heavy and required an irksome effort to use them, and exchanging them for a pair of cork, expect that they would equally profit him, as the scholar, desirous of rendering himself worthy of the name, might hope to become so by the use of most of the text books of the present day. Even in our male schools, where more thoroughness of training is usually expected, the idea of severe mental discipline is becoming more and more obsolete, at least practically. The true import of education, the *drawing out* of the mind, the bringing up from its depths of thoughts that have there been elaborated, evincing the self-reliance that results from a consciousness of inward power, is, in a great degree, lost sight of, and in its place is substituted a shallow superficial training that lives only on the labors of the past, and shines only by the light that is reflected from a past and brighter day.

In what we have said respecting the authors of school books, and the results of their labors, though we have spoken in general terms, we would not include in the same category, all who have presented themselves as candidates for popular favor. The contributions of many have been creditable to their authors, and have added much to the material and the method of instruction, but a majority of them have

been "*got up*," if we may use an inelegant, though expressive phrase, purely as pecuniary speculation, with little regard to the literary *wants* of the community. Should the whole of such be buried beneath the waters of Lethe, the interests of education would not in any great degree, be prejudiced thereby.

The truth is, book-making and book-publishing has increased to such an extent, that it now overshadows the whole land. It has become merely a matter of dollars and cents, and the amount of capital invested in it is almost incredible. Many publishers employ men to write school books, just as others are employed to write novels, and for precisely the same end—to make money. A subject is selected, no matter what, provided it is likely to be popular; and treated, no matter how, provided too much time is not consumed in its execution. The *end*—the production of a saleable book; the means—a skilful, facile subservience to popular prejudice.

The practice of sending children, particularly girls, to school at too tender an age, before either the body or the mind is sufficiently developed to be profited thereby, is an evil of no small magnitude. With many mothers it is a matter of pride to teach their children to read at as early an age as possible. A reputation for peculiar intelligence or smartness thus acquired for her child, is too flattering an unction to a mother's feelings to be easily resisted. The little victim is entrapped on all occasions, into learning a letter. Her very play-things are fashioned according to the various shapes that the alphabet assumes. Whenever the father, for a few moments' recreation, snatches up her darling, instead of tossing her in the air in joyousness and glee, helping her to give vent to the exuberance of her spirits, in nature's own way, the chances are ten to one that he will point to some painted block, on which is inscribed some literal hieroglyphic, and attempt to seduce her to lisp its name. The child's daily attainments are duly chronicled and paraded before admiring friends, until her little mind is impressed with the idea that learning to read is the great business of her life. When at length this end has been attained, she is of course prepared for the school-room, and thither she is sent, as soon as her toddling limbs can bear her there, without any reference to her age or her physical capability of enduring confinement, and every inducement that parental solicitude can suggest, is held out to quicken her in her intellectual progress. The effect of this anxious desire for the development of precocity, is doubly pernicious; first, in stimulating the intellect of the child to an undue degree before it has strength to bear it; and secondly, in neglecting its physical training at the very period of all others of its life, when it needs it most. During the years of infancy and early childhood, the *body* should be the most anxious source of solicitude to the mother; the development of *its* powers—the establishment of *its* health—the bringing into vigorous exercise all its faculties, should be her ceaseless aim.

The *mind* will not suffer by this training ; it is not in the meantime lying dormant ; if it does not learn the things that are found in books, it is learning other things not less important, that strengthen, while they do not stimulate. We venture the assertion that the child who at the age of six or seven, did not know a single letter of the alphabet, will in no wise suffer at the age of twelve, in comparison with others of the same age, provided in the meantime proper attention has been paid to her physical training. The *man*—the *woman*, has to pay the penalty of precocity in childhood. The fires of intellect blazing up in early life, before it has sufficient material upon which to spend itself, speedily burn out ; and if they do not at the same time consume the body, they leave it, in too many instances, a frail and failing tenement, scarcely able to contain the enfeebled, though restless inhabitant within.

As a natural sequence of this early introduction into the school room, we may mention another practical evil, viz. : *that of leaving it too soon*. Probably, in no enlightened country on the globe, are *children* more anxious to be esteemed, or earlier permitted to become men and women, than in our own ; it has been with much truth remarked, “that in the United States there is no such period as *youth* ;” we jump at once from childhood to fancied maturity. Those (of the other sex) who design to fit themselves for professional life, are compelled from the necessity of the case, to prolong their time of study to a period somewhat commensurate with the wants of the intellectual man ; but others hasten to release themselves from scholastic trammels, to leap unflinched into the arena of life, and engage in all its conflicts.

In female education is this evil most apparent and most serious in its consequences. As soon as a young lady has attained that age when she begins to appreciate the advantages of a well stored mind, and the influence that it will secure for her in society ; when she is prepared and inclined to profit most by instruction ; when the soul goes out in anxious yearnings for something that will fill its conceptions and satisfy its desires ; at this important period, the usages of society, perhaps the mistaken eagerness of parents themselves, call her away from her studies, to assume her position in society, soon it may be, herself to become the head of a family, destined to train up other immortal minds, while as yet her own is only just dawning into maturity. The idea that young ladies who have reached this point will perfect their education by the aid of private tutors, or by personal application, after they have given up the duties and the tasks of the school-room, is a delusion that deceives at first, but is soon abandoned. The consequence of this is, that the general standard of female education with us, is low compared with that of England, and, perhaps, most of the countries of Europe ; low in comparison with that of the other sex in our own country ; and it is only here and there that one country arises to assert her intellectual independence, and maintain it by pursuing a course of thorough

mental discipline. It is often objected to this, that woman's sphere and woman's duties are not compatible with high intellectual culture; that the kitchen, rather than the library, is her appropriate domain, but there are not a few examples to which we might point, that give the lie to such a libel upon the sex, for while they take their position among the choice spirits of the earth, they also afford illustrations of domestic virtues which shine not the less conspicuously because connected with high literary attainments. While it is true that woman should be familiar with every domestic duty, it is not less emphatically true that she should be fitted to preside with dignity in the parlor, and intelligently to meet the high and holy responsibilities of the nursery.

And here another evil naturally obtrudes itself upon our attention. While the *time* usually allotted to the acquisition of an education has not been extended, the rapid advancement of science in all its departments, and its increasing application even to the domestic concerns of every day life, *demand* a more extended programme of studies than formerly. It is no longer a mere matter of taste or inclination whether certain studies shall be pursued, that not long since were placed rather in the category of accomplishments than of necessary branches, they must now receive some attention. The consequence is that the studies of pupils are multiplied beyond endurance, and for want of sufficient time all must be carried on together, and all be alike neglected. However important these studies may be, it is useless, it is worse than useless to pursue them unless sufficient time be allowed to acquire an adequate knowledge of them *successively*.

Again, some parents are always dissatisfied with the schools which their children attend, whatever their character may be. If a teacher believes that thoroughness in a few branches is preferable to diffuseness in a great many, and acts accordingly, they think that nothing is accomplished because the *number* of studies is so limited. If, on the other hand, he crowds them with a great variety of studies, there is soon good ground for dissatisfaction because no improvement is made. In a great majority of cases, however, parents themselves are responsible for this lack of improvement by insisting that almost every branch shall be pursued in every department of science, often assigning as a reason that the school days of their children will soon be over, the very reason of all others why their attention should be confined to a few. The children are therefore removed from school, each successively affording no better satisfaction. We have even known parents to start in the education of their children with the avowed intention of having them spend a year in one school to study French, in another to become accomplished in music, in a third to receive the finishing stroke to their manners and morals, in order that they may glean from each respectively those advantages which each is supposed peculiarly to afford. The idea never seems to occur to such parents that possibly their children may be more apt to learn those things that are most objectionable in all, and fail to

acquire those which are most desirable. Few persons are aware of the injury inflicted on the mind of a child by unnecessarily changing the place and consequently the means and modes of its education. Every teacher who is worthy of the name has a method of his own, which it is his aim to adapt to the mental peculiarities of each individual pupil, more or less time is requisite to ascertain what these peculiarities are, but when they are once elicited, he holds in his hand the key to his pupil's character, to her intellect, and to her heart. At this very moment, perhaps, when the teacher begins to bring all his energies to bear advantageously upon the advancement of his charge, who also is now prepared to profit by it, she is removed to another school, when it will be necessary for her to undergo a similar process of breaking in and training. Thus a good portion of her best days are frittered away in making preparations to begin that which she is consequently seldom able satisfactorily to accomplish. Better, far better, would it eventually be in most cases for her to remain in one spot, and, if possible, finish where she began, even under some disadvantages, for like a transplanted tree every removal checks if it does not stunt intellectual growth.

In truth, parents often demand of teachers and of their children much more than they ought reasonably to expect. This is especially the case in boarding schools, and is a fruitful source of dissatisfaction which can not be removed by the utmost diligence and faithfulness. Many a teacher labors under the imputation of incompetency or unfaithfulness when every energy of soul and body has been brought into exercise, and that too with reasonable success, because unreasonable expectations have been excited in the parent's mind, which have not been and never can be realised. "I cannot see," said a mother to the Principal of a certain female Seminary, of whose family her daughter had been a member some five or six months, "I cannot see that my child has corrected all her bad habits since she has been with you. She is almost as careless as she was before. It was to overcome these habits that I sent her from home." "Do you expect, madam," was the reply, "that we are able to undo in five months, what, under your maternal care, it has taken sixteen years to establish? We are not omnipotent; in the short space of time that you have allotted to us we cannot break up habits or overcome propensities which you have not been able in a lifetime either to prevent or to subdue." It was a frequent remark of Prof. Henry, when connected with Princeton College, "that it was many times more difficult for him to eradicate that which had been incorrectly learned, than it was to impart correct knowledge." It is not in colleges only that such experience is recorded.

Once more, and then we will arrest the enumeration of the difficulties and defects of our educational arrangement, as an unavoidable consequence attending the wrong views and practices to which we have called your attention. Female education has not been, and except to a limited extent under peculiarly favorable circumstances, cannot be reduced to

a system, embracing a regular and thorough course of instruction, as in the other sex. Irregularity of attendance, frequent changes of schools, parental caprices, stimulated into activity more readily by the capriciousness of daughters than of sons, and a low estimate of woman's powers and mission, conspire to prevent those who would elevate the standard of female education from making the attempt. Unlike the higher institutions designed for the education of males, the higher female seminaries of our land, with perhaps a few exceptions, are unendowed. Being the property of Associations, or of private individuals whose only income is derived from tuition fees, they are dependent upon popular favor for their very existence, and are from necessity modelled in conformity with popular sentiment, whether right or wrong. Few teachers have the inclination, and fewer still the means, to make any radical innovation upon our present modes of conducting female education, lest, unsustained, their Institutions should fall to the ground, and they be buried beneath their ruins.

Before the education of woman can make any marked advancement, either in mode or in results, it is necessary that there should be in the public mind a more just appreciation of the end for which woman is to be educated. She is indeed to be the superintendent of the domestic arrangements of her family, and the manager of all the concerns of the kitchen; but 'tis not for this alone that she is to be educated; she is to be the centre of the social circle, to preside at her husband's board, and to form the brightest ornament of his parlor; 'tis not even for this, as the highest end that she is to be trained. She is to be the mother of children; to her care is to be entrusted the development of immortal minds; upon her tact, wisdom, judgment and knowledge, does the future destiny of those minds depend, in a far greater degree than the casual observer would suppose, for *this* should she be educated; for *this* should every faculty of her mind, and every susceptibility of her soul be trained to the utmost, for in no other way can she fully meet the high responsibilities of her position. In what such an education consists, and how it is to be attained, are questions that demand more time for their elucidation, than now remains to us; yet we cannot close without adding a few words in reference to the great end of education, equally applicable to males and females.

Education in its true and highest import, comprises the full development of *all* the powers with which an individual may be endowed, whether physical, moral, or intellectual; so balancing and training them as to produce the most perfect harmony in their actions, of which the individual is susceptible; and this can be attained only by a judicious and persevering application of such means as are adapted to the character and peculiarities of each. In this sense, education is the work of a lifetime; it commences literally, in the cradle—it terminates only in the grave;—*terminates*? No! when freed from the bonds of the body, like the balloon whose cords are loosed from earth, the mind

soars away in an endless flight, and revels forever in the full revelation of those glorious truths of which we catch but distant glimpses here.

As has already been intimated, infancy and childhood should be almost exclusively devoted to *physical* training. Then is laid the foundation of future vigor or decrepitude. By the course then pursued, in a much greater degree than we are accustomed to consider, is the future destiny of the man—of the woman, determined. It may fairly be questioned, whether the eminence of self-made men may not be referable in no small degree, to the fact that the poverty of early life, precluding those indulgencies that would tend to enervate, compelled them to engage in such employments as would necessarily strengthen their physical powers, so that when in after life their intellectual deficiencies began to press upon them, and to rouse them to exertion, they were enabled to grapple with the difficulties that stood in the way of the attainment of knowledge, with a sound mind, in a sound body, and success was consequently inevitable. We believe that it will be found upon examination, that most self-made men are physically as well as intellectually strong.

The connection of the material with the immaterial, in the human constitution, is too intimate, and they mutually suffer too much from each other's frailties, to permit the neglect of the one in order to promote the cultivation of the other. But during this season of physical education, the mind is not at rest. Every passing event adds something to the little learner's intellectual treasures, as well as to his experience. When with infantile glee the child watches the blaze of a lighted candle, he is drinking in facts with regard to the nature of light; and when for a moment his nurse intermits her watchfulness, should he put his finger into that blaze, as a compensation for his suffering, he will not only learn a lesson of experience which will not soon be forgotten, but he will also receive correct impressions of heat and of its connection with light. Thus, in a thousand ways, his mind is gradually filling up even without the aid of books, adding new and richer treasures, as life advances. And here we may add that though early youth is the appropriate time for physical training, at no period of our educational career, can it be with impunity neglected. Could, however, the experience in this matter of the studies and school-rooms of our land be related, it would reveal a sad, heart-sickening tale. Prostrate strength, deformed bodies, stunted minds, disappointed hope, and early graves, would be its mournful burden, as the direct consequence of the neglect of this fundamental law of our being. Ill constructed, ill seated, ill ventilated school-rooms, we believe, have had more to do with rendering the ladies of this country a feeble, sickly race, than any other single cause that can be named.

We sometimes hear of "martyr students," whose minds have worn out their bodies, and consigned them to early dust; but we have no faith in such martyrdom, 'tis too often nothing less than suicide. The

laws that God has implanted within us, as the condition of our being, designed to preserve a just equilibrium between the material and the immaterial, have been wilfully violated; the mind has not yielded its appropriate fealty to the body; the penalty has been a premature grave. But we digress.

The body in childhood having received its due proportion of attention, then comes the appropriate season for intellectual culture, when with every nerve strung, and every muscle fully developed, this youth, like a vigorous wrestler, is prepared to contend with every difficulty, and obtain the mastery. But in this contest, it will not do to fight by proxy; while the teacher should stand by and see fair play, offering a word of encouragement here, and then removing a stumbling-block out of the way, the young mind that desires to secure its own highest advancement, must struggle, and toil, and think for itself, and seize with its own hand the prize for which it strives. The great object *now* should be to acquire the power of *thinking*; the power of abstracting the mind from every thing that is irrelevant; the power of all others most desirable, of bringing every faculty of the soul to bear with concentrated energy upon any subject of investigation, and searching it to its lowest depths. This, however, cannot be attained simply by the knowledge that is obtained from books. Here lies the great educational error of the age. Men seem to think that the great ends of education are attained when they have gathered together an amount of facts sufficient for all the practical purposes of life, and gleaned all the knowledge of the schools. Mistaken notion! They have then only acquired the tools with which they must work; they have only clothed themselves in the armor, and furnished themselves with the weapons with which they must fight.

If the idea that we have advanced of the true import and ends of education is correct, it follows that we are not to look for its full development on this side the grave. The highest attainments of the most cultivated intellects, are only preparatory to an introduction to the only true university, embracing all wisdom, all knowledge, to an initiation into another state of existence, unattainable in time, that shall continue to expand as long as eternity shall endure. But as that existence is to be modified by moral considerations, apart from and independent of the simple cultivation of the mind, it is manifest that moral instruction ought never to be divorced from intellectual, much less ought it to be made subordinate, or be altogether abandoned. Those err most grievously who contend that the school-room is not the appropriate place for that kind of instruction which is peculiarly adapted to our immortal natures; and by this I do not mean simply the cold morality of the moral law, but those glorious truths of revelation being at the foundation of christianity, which take hold of the heart and become, when heartily embraced, fixed principles of life. In order to do this, it is not necessary to teach the dogmas of any sect, or

to insist upon the importance of any forms; there is a platform sufficiently broad for all to stand upon harmoniously, and sufficiently firm to endure when all created things are shaken to their foundations.

The mind *thus* educated, though possibly less richly stored with scholastic lore, can look forward with eager yet confident expectation to a period when all mysteries shall be revealed—when all that is now dark and unsatisfactory shall become as clear as the sun-light; when the increasing developments of an infinite existence shall perfectly fill the longing desires of the soul.

MR. EMERSON, of Boston, said he had been pleased with the paper just read. He differed on some points; but perhaps the difference of residence might partially account for it. He would give the school lecture a good place; it was highly important that pupils should learn how to listen well, and this faculty would be best cultivated by listening to lectures. This power of giving undivided attention to a speaker is of great consequence, and is of much value as a discipline for the mind. Reading well, not prettily, but *well*, is another matter of great importance. To learn how to read a book properly, understandingly, with close attention, with logical acumen, is one of the most important of school acquisitions for ladies. Females have incomparably more advantages for education than males. Girls generally have all their time from infancy to womanhood for purposes of education; boys are drawn into temptation or sent to labor, and have far less time for study and naturally less disposition. The speaker said he would be glad to hear further, and especially from Mr. LORD, of Ohio, upon the subject.

The PRESIDENT called upon Mr. J. KINGSBURY, of Providence, R. I., to address the Association.

MR. KINGSBURY remarked that he found himself in an awkward position—one in which a speech was expected and yet none was prepared. He proceeded, however, to say that the report of Mr. Cooke in its general features, merited his high approbation. In a report, that was full of general truth, there might be important exceptions. One or two of these were pointed out yesterday by his friend Mr. Emerson. He would take the liberty of naming one or two others. It is true that there are defects in female education, which have arisen from the want of richly endowed institutions, wherewith ample means that education might be conducted without fear or favor. It is also true there are private seminaries in our country which can challenge a rigid comparison with endowed institutions in regard to all questions of independence, faithfulness and perpetuity.

Again, the report named as one of the difficulties of female education, the entrance upon high school duties at too early an age; and a consequently greater fault, leaving school too soon. The report might have

added, that between these points of time—the entrance into and the leaving of school—parents often allow their children to be drawn away after other things, so that the short time of attendance is almost useless. Yet a great improvement has been made in some portions of our land within the last twenty years. It would not be difficult to point you to a community where an advance of two years in the time of entrance, and three or four years in the time of leaving school, has taken place; where more young ladies now remain at school till nineteen and twenty years old than there were twenty years ago who remained till they were fifteen and sixteen years of age. But, Mr. President, the question which you brought before the Association yesterday, whether the education of the sexes should be the same, and how far the same, is one of the deepest importance. Errors have sprung up from this very point. It was formerly thought that women needed accomplishments only in order to be educated. Hence many a girl has left school under the impression that she was educated, merely because she could paint the parting of Hector and Andromache, or embroider a weeping willow over the tomb of some friend—or even Napoleon. Are we not, however, liable to a different extreme now, and to suppose that in every respect woman is to be educated as man? Is it not proper to inquire how far the feeling in regard to woman claiming the elective franchise has arisen from this cause? Allow me, Mr. President, to say that the education of the sexes should be the same, so far as it may be necessary to give woman perfect attention, concentration of all the faculties of the mind, and a full command of the reasoning powers; provided that we do not lose sight of that playful fancy, that susceptibility of feeling, of delicate emotion, which are the crowning glory of woman, and without which she could not execute her mission on earth. Allow me briefly to allude to three particulars in which there should be, in my estimation, a difference in the education of the sexes:

First. The education of girls should not be so public. Is there no danger, by bringing girls before the public in unnecessary display at exhibitions, of exciting that very feeling which leads women to demand the forum as their sphere of action? The education of girls should be as parental as possible, while at the same time they should have the advantages of that discipline which comes from contact of mind with mind in the school room. I do not mean by *parental*, education at home. Because, if a girl is educated at home, she loses that great lesson by which she is to be fitted to live with those around her, and to shape her conduct wisely in all the duties of life.

Second. The imagination should receive a different cultivation. That of girls is more susceptible, more easily misdirected, and when so ends in sickly sentimentality. That of boys is less easily excited, and its extravagant tendencies are readily corrected by the every day realities of life. Now, in what way can we find that counterpoise to the imagination of girls, which boys find in the rough-and-tumble of life?

I answer, in the cultivation—yes, *cultivation*—of common sense. It may be said that common sense is the gift of God. So is the memory; and common sense, whether it be a function or power of the mind, is not less susceptible of cultivation than memory. If due regard, therefore, be paid to common sense, you may educate women in the whole circle of science and literature, and she will never disturb you with her pedantry. The more thoroughly and extensively she is educated, the more fully she will be fitted for all the foreseen and unforeseen duties of life.

Third. There should be a difference in the management and discipline. The government which is adapted to boys may be unsuitable to girls. It is more difficult to govern girls than boys; that is, more persons will fail in the government of the former than of the latter. Some suppose that they are so amiable that they need no government. They soon find out their mistake, and then proceed by harsh and severe measures to correct it. Thus proceeding from one extreme to the other, they lose their influence, their patience, and make shipwreck of their school. Let me say, then, that no teacher requires more firmness and decision than he who directs female education. Therefore, he who would aspire to the highest results in female education, should know how to blend firmness and tenderness together, so that neither the one or the other should lead him astray.

Mr. SMYTH, of New York, made some observations on the relative merits of male and female education. He held that females labor under many disadvantages. They have not before them an ulterior aim, a something to live for; and hence the stimulus which the human heart requires, is wanting. They fail not in the world for want of ability, but because society, in its present condition, gives them nothing to aim at. The President of the Association had referred to the question of Education in our Public Schools. The speaker believed, with the gentleman who had read the paper to which the Committee had already listened, that emulation is an instinct of our nature, and we cannot do without it. To meet the evil of which we complain, we must have united education. If we keep the sexes separate, we shall but make matters worse. We have, then, at once a monastery and a nunnery. The speaker urged the importance and necessity of instruction of the sexes in union. There should be education, also, both for males and females, from male and female teachers. He believed that there are departments of instruction in which woman is a better instructor than man.

Mr. COOKE, of New Jersey, remarked, that in advocating a thorough female education, he did not desire to draw any comparison between males and females as regards their intellectual capacities. Each have their appointed spheres, each their appropriate work, for which each requires appropriate and peculiar training.

In determining what should be the elements in a thorough female education, our first duty is to inquire what is the true mission of woman, what the appropriate sphere in which she is to move, and what, consequently, will be the character of the demands upon her talents and energies. When these questions are once settled, we are prepared to mark out her educational course, and then let that course be so thorough and so extensive as to secure to her the same fitness for the proper discharge of her duties as is secured to the other sex in their preparation for the most exalted walks in life.

He thought that the peculiar mission of woman was to *be a teacher*. The school-room is a place peculiarly appropriate for her, but it is not there alone that she is to fulfil her mission. When the school-room is closed, and she enters upon another sphere, and assumes other responsibilities, she is still to be a teacher in a higher and more important sense. To her is committed the culture of the rising generation—in her fitness for this task rest the hopes of the future.

The great aim, then, of the education of woman, is to qualify her for that sphere with which she must, from the very nature of things, be ever intimately connected, and to accomplish this it is necessary that it should be as broad, comprehensive and thorough, *in its kind*, as that of the well-trained man.

Mr. GEORGE B. EMERSON, of Boston, followed in a speech of considerable length, particularly in regard to emulation. He deemed emulation to be a natural and universal instinct, which it would be in vain to endeavor to repress or eradicate; but he feared that there was great danger of urging it too strongly; while he would not repress, he would be careful not to stimulate it too strongly; he would rather carefully guide it and give it proper force and direction. In place of a desire to excel he would establish the desire for excellence. Our usual systems of education give too little exercise to the faculties of the mind; its faculties are virtually repressed. He referred to the faculty of government on the part of a teacher; he thought that if one found himself not properly qualified in that particular, he ought to turn aside into some other profession or calling. And in the exercise of this authority there should be at the same time an appeal to the affections, in order to convince the student that authority was not exercised for tyrannous purposes, but for the highest good of the individual. The speaker thought that many of the plans of treatment adopted for boys were altogether unfitted for females. He further discussed the effect of a proper degree of kindness in school discipline, and enforced the idea that children should be made to realize that whatever of severity might be administered, was for their ultimate benefit and happiness. He urged that teachers should make the child know that they loved her, that they sought no personal benefit, but the real welfare of the pupil. He would diminish materially the periods of time allotted to certain studies; as in arithmetic, where many of the

processes usually studied might be dispensed with to advantage. But if a girl had much time to devote to study, he would give her a clear knowledge of mathematics, if for no other purpose, to regulate and discipline the mind. Of course he did not expect every woman to measure the earth and compute distances of stars; these higher branches of geometry might be left to the other sex. He was impressed with the paramount importance of a careful study of Physiology. If that important science is to be studied and thoroughly understood by any one, it should be by that being who stands at the portals of Creation and brings into existence and rears to maturity the human race. He would have every female thoroughly versed in the true principles of Physiological science, to know all that can be known of the laws of life, of physical culture, of proper training of the body. He would further require that female education should be perfect in the matter of understanding and teaching a perfect system of morals, based upon the Word of God. If any one can sow the good seed of morality in such a manner and at such times as to produce righteous fruit, it is the mother; she teaches with a power that no one else can possess, no one else can command. He closed by repeating the points he had made, and urging their importance.

Rev. Dr. SEARS, of Boston, was the next speaker. He would view the matter of Female Education, both from the Divine and the human point of view. He scarcely knew any subject which required so much knowledge and practical talent. The good book says of woman that she is to be a keeper at home. She is also to be the mother and teacher of the race. These points have been discussed, and he would pass them over. But she is to be the companion of man—the presiding genius of the social circle. He thought we need not discuss whether the rights and privileges of women and men are equal; these matters were foreign to the objects of this Convention. So long as the two sexes keep in their appropriate spheres, man will always give to woman more than she could even ask in an independent condition. Let her lean upon the love and the gallantry of man, and she will need no new rights and privileges. The speaker proceeded to depict the absurdity of making females the persons to hear all the details of crime and iniquity in our Courts, and the effect of such mental experience on the part of those we love to look upon as angels. How delightful to see females struggling for office in the dirty field of politics; to see, in the language of Addison, “a pair of stays ready to burst with sedition.” [Laughter.] But we find a radical difference in the natural strength of male and female; man alone is formed for greater and enduring strength. There is also a wide difference in the natural minds of either sex. There is certainly a peculiar feminine tone in the mind of woman, of which man never partakes. Though the minds of both are approached by the same means, there should be a differ-

ence of treatment. Men are prone to seek the higher and more abstruse pursuits of science. He thought that woman should study things more in concrete exhibition—man might pursue the more abstract investigations. Woman's quicker perceptions fit her more for observation than for research. But there are many difficult problems to be solved, in regard to the relations of the sexes, and in solving these we must have in view a high sense of the truths and influences of Christianity. He referred to the degradation of woman in early times, her idolization in the middle ages, or the days of chivalry, of her remarkable devotion to education in the sixteenth century. In that latter time, there were more learned (not better educated) women than now. There were more who understood Latin, Greek, Arabic, &c. But they were not well educated. They figure well in history, but did they make good wives? He thought it would be hard to show the affirmative. He referred to the scholastic attainments of certain women of Germany, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In France, under the old regime, woman had a higher position than anywhere else. He was sorry to say that we now have some women who ought to be men, and some men who ought to be women. These French female politicians, were the means of destroying the family circle, the home. Look at the result. The home fell, and all other institutions followed in its train. In England, at the same time, woman was treated as an inferior being, openly and undeniably so.—There, it is said, she made her home a paradise, but let me add, a paradise without a soul, an Eden of the body only. Ignorance was universal; scarcely any of the noble ladies of England could write a note without desecration of grammar and logic; and she knew just enough to listen to compliments and read loose plays. But the necessity of education had been felt, and now no one disputes the right of females to knowledge. Here, in America, woman has a nobler sphere, a grander opportunity for development; here, she must and will be educated in a liberal and noble manner. It may be that we, glorying in our freedom, have made too high a standard—that we are tending toward the making of woman a merely intellectual being; perhaps we must retire slightly from this high standard; our progress must recognize not alone intellectual, but moral and physical education, to make her the thoroughly educated companion of man.

Mr. JOHONNOT, of Syracuse, spoke substantially as follows :

Mr. President :—

Before proceeding to speak of distinctive female education, it is necessary to settle the question in regard to the great end of all education. Without examining the various theories which have been advanced, I will define the objects of education to be co-incident with the great objects of life itself, viz. : development.

Education may be divided into two kinds, the elementary and general, to develop all the powers, and the professional and special, to fit us for the various duties of life. First, we must make the man, and then from the man we can derive the professional man, the artisan, or mechanic. We must not lose sight of the proposition that we wish above all to develop all the powers of the whole man, and that the *business* of life is only a modification of the man so developed. Acknowledging these first principles, it is not difficult to decide upon the character of the education to be extended to females. The first duty is to develop all her powers, and make her a woman, and then she is fitted for any position which it may be her lot to fill. If she is specially educated for a wife, mother, or nurse, without first developing her nature, a failure may be surely expected.

The distinguished head of Genesee College, in a lecture upon this subject, happily remarks, that "When it is said, as it is often unwisely said, that the end of female education is to fit her for the responsibilities of a mother, because in the providence of God she is liable to be a mother, the saying is not a philosophical one. For the same reason, and with as much propriety, we should educate her to be a grandmother."

In regard to the different studies to be pursued by the different sexes, the same writer remarks:

"It cannot be said that a common system of education will tend to destroy the proper distinction of sexes, making the woman too much of a man, and the man too much of a woman. Those who advocate this opinion, forget the universal law, that it is not the aliment on which an organism feeds, by which its specific difference from all other organisms is produced, but that the difference is in the organism itself. Out of the same goodly air from which the infant extracts its soft and delicious breath, the bloated blow-snake manufactures death. If you send your dairy to a mulberry orchard, they will not fail to bring home milk; but if the inhabitants of the cocoonery go out to their leaf-laid tables, though they feed exactly upon the same substance, each one of these nature's manufacturers, produces nothing but his little ball of silk. If a lady and gentleman sit down together at the same board, they may divide a biscuit if they please, into equal parts. The one part that is eaten by the woman, goes to the formation of woman's flesh. The other part which is eaten by the man, goes to the formation of the flesh of man. The product is therefore quite different, though the aliment is the same. In like manner you may supply the materials of study in exactly the same way to two individuals of different sexes, and in the one case you will have as the product of the same nourishment, the exquisite delicacy and grace of the female, and in the other the more massive and stubborn proportions of a man. Supply what you will, the mind of each individual, whether male or female,

will work over and mentally digest and assimilate the intellectual food according to its own organization, purposes and wants.”

Now, Mr. President, to me, the idea of withholding from females the better-half of science and literature, because it is beyond her sphere, is an absurd one, and believing that woman's mental powers should be developed through precisely the same course of study prepared for males, I must enter my protest against the belittling system which has here been advocated.

Dr. LORD, of Ohio, said that the friends of female education in Ohio arranged for a Convention of Teachers, which was held at Sandusky, in July. Very much the same subjects were discussed as are now on the tapis here. He hoped to hear the question how far males and females should pursue the same course of study more definitely settled. Their Convention had arranged committees to make reports upon several prominent points in regard to female education. He gave a short account of the number and condition of exclusively female schools in Ohio. He invited friends of education to attend the next meeting of the Ohio Association.

The PRESIDENT, in closing the discussion, asked one or two questions in regard to the true vocation of woman. Some say her vocation is teaching; but perhaps this definition smells of the shop. Dr. Sears adds that she is not only to teach, but to be the companion of man. Matrimony is evidently a “ruling” idea with all the gentlemen here. The speaker would ask whether “housekeeping” and “property-keeping” might not be in the true sphere of woman. He asked whether to cultivate the faculty of common doings was not truly important to woman. He did not agree that woman's highest purpose of education should be to prepare for marriage. He believed woman was made to be an angel of mercy, a heart consoler, to bind up the broken spirit. He spoke of his own observation of the treatment of daughters—of their lounging in the parlors while the mother is slaving in the kitchen. These girls are taken by husbands who desire some beautiful toy, and are all unfitted for the responsibility which follows. Men are so much engrossed in business that woman ought to be capable of taking care of the house; in case of the death of the man, to assume the charge of an estate and manage the interests of her posterity. He suggested that such education should be secured to females.

APPENDIX B.

REPORT ON SCHOOLS OF DESIGN,

READ BEFORE THE ASSOCIATION

BY P. P. MORRIS, OF PHILADELPHIA.

At a meeting of the Association, held in Philadelphia in the year 1850, a "Plea for History," and a memorial touching "A School of Design for Women," were referred to a Committee to report to the Convention what, if any, steps should be taken by that body in the premises. The Committee reported that "it was inexpedient at present to express an opinion upon the subjects submitted to them," and were discharged. At a meeting of the Standing Committee, at Newark, on the 26th of May last, held for the purpose of preparing business for the Association, the question of schools of design was again introduced by Mr. Barnard, when it was Resolved, That a paper should be prepared setting forth the claims of schools of design, especially schools of design for women, to the attention of educators generally, pointing out some of the advantages that may be expected to flow from them.

I was requested to prepare the paper, and with some reluctance agreed to do so, the subject being entirely aside from the usual current of my thoughts and occupations—but the perusal of certain documents and reports laid before the House of Commons, (kindly furnished by the lamented Mrs. Hill, late the directress of the Philadelphia School,) together with a personal inspection of that School, and conversations with gentlemen largely engaged in manufactures, who testify freely to the great usefulness, present and prospective, of that institution, have placed me in possession of facts, the presentation of which would seem to be sufficient at once to arrest the attention and secure for the schools the hearty co-operation of all friends of education, of those more

particularly interested in the general diffusion of taste and refinement as social and moral purifiers, and of those who look primarily to the material independence and prosperity of the country.

My duty will be best discharged by setting forth in a few words the object of schools of design, the mode of conducting them, and the success which has attended them where already established. These three points I shall endeavor, briefly, to set forth in the following statement—The object of “Schools of Design,” or “Schools of Ornamental Art,” as they are now called in England, the end to be attained, is the improvement of decorative art, or the introduction of taste, as well as of dexterous manipulation, into the workshop and factory, so that what is made shall neither be servile imitations of works already produced, or whimsical incongruities unlike any thing either in heaven or earth. “Decorative art,” says a writer quoted in the *Edinburgh Review* for October 1849, in an article headed “Schools of Design,” “like architecture, has a double end to answer; it has to serve some purpose of man’s physical life, and, at the same time to convey an impression of beauty. It may be assumed, that unless it does the former it cannot do the latter permanently. The consciousness of the unfitness of an object for its purposes, soon vitiates the pleasure derived from its beauty. In having this double object, decorative art resembles nature, who seems, as far as we understand her, always to provide for the existence and comfort of her creatures by means which are in themselves exquisitely beautiful, and seldom lavishes upon us effects of beauty which do not also answer some other end. It would, then, occupy a very high place as compared with other art, were it not for the infinite inferiority of the human artist, whose limited means frequently compel him to purchase utility by the sacrifice of beauty, and who is obliged, when he wishes to attain the latter in purity, to pursue it alone. Nature, however, does not do so, and the decorative artist, if he would succeed at all, must watch and diligently learn the means which she uses to produce this double effect.” Upon which the reviewer observes, “These remarks are in themselves sufficient to show what a great amount of labor the education of an ornamental artist involves; and if to the necessity of giving him the power, first, of correctly imitating what he sees, then of discerning beauty in the works of nature, then of analyzing the causes of that beauty, and then of applying the principles on which nature works to the materials he is called upon to decorate, we add the necessity which also exists of instructing him in the capabilities of those materials, and again of making him acquainted with the history of decorative art from the earliest times, and with the conventionalities adopted at different periods, the magnitude of the task is such as might well alarm us.”

This is all very true, but if it alarms, it should at the same time suffice to convince us that no great proficiency, as leaders in the industrial arts, is to be attained without such education—without it we

must be copyists, not designers, and be content with acknowledging the superiority of some people better instructed than ourselves, in the theory of art. It is their early attention to this subject (for national schools of design were, under the direction of Colbert, established as early as the reign of Louis the fourteenth,) which has given to the French people the character they have in the department of taste, and which has induced other nations to recognize them as the leaders of fashion. There are at this time, as I am credibly informed, not less than ten thousand children of the working classes, in constant daily attendance on these schools in Paris. When we compare this with our own condition, or that of England, can we wonder that the Parisians are recognized as the arbiters of taste.

About eighteen years ago, the subject was introduced to the Parliament of Great Britain, and the importance of proper instruction in the arts of design to the manufacturing prosperity of the nation, made so apparent, that the government established a School of Design at Somerset House, in 1835, which has been followed by Provincial schools in most of the important towns of England and Ireland. I have before me the report from the Government School of Design, presented through the Board of Trade, to Parliament, and printed by order of the House of Commons, on the 15th August, 1850. The principal report, as well as the report of the provincial schools, abound in evidence of their growing importance in the eyes of the manufacturers.

The following extract is from the report of the Manchester School, for the year 1850: "The school is undoubtedly gaining in the estimation of the manufacturers. In fact, the practical effects of the school upon the manufacturers of the town, are making themselves manifest in a way which may waken the interest of the most indifferent, by showing that good art possesses a money value. In the case of those manufacturers who produce goods to compete with the French manufactures in the American markets, attention to design has at all times been indispensable; and previously to the establishment of the schools, they were under the necessity of employing foreigners, not only to sketch their designs, but also to draw out their patterns, at great expense, and under the disadvantage of much uncertainty.

"Those manufacturers who have had the intelligence to understand the manner in which the schools would become available, are now able to produce with certainly better patterns, at far less cost, by means of their own apprentices pursuing their studies in the school; the apprentices at the same time obtaining higher wages than were ever paid to artisans of the same class before. Many of these young men, as they acquire experience and knowledge of their business, are exhibiting much talent as designers, in the strict sense of the term. So limited, however, is the supply of good draughtsmen, that the same manufacturers are still obliged to be content with inferior patterns for the markets where they are saleable, for want of hands to execute the

better sort. There may, nevertheless, be discerned upon very common goods, a superiority of drawing unknown in such articles previously to the establishment of the school."

The English schools are common to male and female pupils, but a difficulty seems to exist there, in regard to the employment of females, which is highly discreditable to those who entertain it, and nothing like which, I believe, is to be anticipated in this country. The report from the schools of Stoke and Hanley, (the Potteries) uses this language:

"There is the usual difficulty to be reported in the maintenance of the female classes in these schools,—whatever reasons may be put forward for the failure of these classes, the real and sufficient cause is in the enmity and jealousy of the male artisans and the oppressive regulations with respect to the employment of females in the manufactories. It is to be hoped that the prizes now offered to the female students, may have the effect of stimulating their exertions; and it is satisfactory to record the declaration of one of the principal manufacturers, on the occasion of these prizes being offered. That he hoped to see the restrictions placed on the efforts of the female sex, removed! Much as it is to be desired that this declaration might be a prelude to extending among the females, employments so congenial to them as many of those connected with the decoration of porcelain, and for which the schools could not fail to qualify them rapidly, it is probable that no female classes can be established permanently, until young men, receiving their education in the school, shall have displaced the existing generations of artisans, and with them some of their habits and prejudices. This, like other results of the School of Design, can be effected by time alone, but, in the meanwhile, no exertions ought to be spared to keep the female classes alive, until circumstances become more favorable to their increase and efficiency."

This jealousy of female labor, is an exceedingly repulsive feature in the character of the English operative, and one which has not, I believe, tainted our more chivalrous people—yet, the same effect is produced here by the narrow circle in which the woman seeking to support herself is obliged to move, and the numbers who are driven by necessity within that narrow circle, *there*, by competition, reducing compensation to a point startling to think of.

The first movement in the United States, on the subject of Schools of Design, was made by Mrs. Peter, of Philadelphia, in the year 1848, and was due to an intelligent sympathy with the position of such of her countrywomen, who from reverses of fortune or otherwise, were under the necessity of supporting themselves. The limited range of occupations open to women, and the inadequacy of remuneration in most of those open to them, struck her very forcibly. The assertion of woman's rights (to use a common form of expression,) in conventions, she felt was not the true method of relief. But she

thought she saw in the cultivation and exercise of those faculties and powers in which her sex excel, avenues to independence and proper remuneration for their labor consistent with their native delicacy and modesty; avenues, too, which were as yet unoccupied by the other sex.

She began with a class of some twenty young women, who were instructed in drawing, and in the application of that art, to the various branches of industrial pursuits, in which it is an absolute requisite. As the class advanced, it was found that to carry out the plan as it should be, was too heavy an undertaking for a single patroness. Mrs. Peter accordingly addressed a letter to the Franklin Institute of Pennsylvania, inviting their co-operation and patronage of the school established by her. The Institute, after a consideration of the subject, on the 20th of June, 1850, *Resolved*, That a school shall be and hereby is established by the Franklin Institute of the State of Pennsylvania, for the promotion of the mechanic arts; for the instruction of women in the arts of design, and in the various practical applications thereof. This resolution was accompanied by a plan for raising funds and of organization, which having been adopted, the school was formally opened at No. 70 Walnut street, Philadelphia, on the second of December, 1850, and the school established by Mrs. Peter, merged in it.

From the first annual report of the Committee on the School to the Franklin Institute, I extract the following statement of the order of studies—

“The school consists of three departments.

First, Drawing, from its elementary principles, through the course of copies from prepared studies, to original compositions, and the application of coloring and shading by crayons and pencils, so as to produce complete pictures.

This department is specially under the charge of Mrs. Hill, the Principal of the School, and now contains thirty-two pupils.

Second. The Industrial Department, in which the applications of drawing, shading and coloring, to the art of design, are taught. In this department original sketches for designs in calico printing, paper hangings, oil cloths, carpets, furniture, &c., are prepared and offered for sale. Applications are also received from manufacturers and others, for the preparation of designs from sketches, or ideas furnished by such applicants, so that particular branches of trade, or special tastes, may be consulted with the best promise of advantage or success. Designs and patterns prepared in the school are secured under the copyright law of the United States, which, to the extent that the law gives any security, will protect those who purchase designs from the school in the entire property in such designs, and tend to avoid piracy of the patterns by others.

The pupils in this department evince much taste and skill, and all that is now wanting to give it activity and entire success, is a full supply of orders from our extensive manufactories, which will stimulate

the talents of our pupils to the production of original designs, or combinations of existing patterns, equalling any that may come from foreign countries.

This department, as before stated, is now under the charge of Mr. Thomas W. Braidwood, and contains sixteen pupils.

Third. The Department of Wood Engraving and Lithography with six pupils. In these branches the pupils have made very satisfactory progress, and in the orders for work there has been a good degree of encouragement. Here, as well as in the Industrial Department before noticed, there is abundant room for the display of original talent and taste.

Independently of the constant demand for wood engraving, for the illustration of works treating on the arts and sciences, and on natural history, there are great outlets for labor in this branch in the embellishment of our periodical literature, and the Committee anticipate that all the pupils who may perfect themselves in the knowledge of these arts, will command constant and well paid employment."

I may add that the pupils of the School have the privilege of attending the lectures and exhibitions of the Institute, and of visiting and inspecting the cabinets of models, minerals, and specimens of the arts and manufactures, and the use of the library, free of charge.

Every facility and advantage is afforded to the school by the Directors of the Academy of Natural Sciences, and the Academy of Fine Arts. The pupils are admitted, without charge, to the collections of these institutions, as well to copy as to inspect, and the owners of private gardens are very liberal in supplying specimens for the use of the school.

Since the establishment of the Philadelphia School others have been opened in New York and Boston, with prospects equally flattering. Perhaps more so, as I understand they began in both those cities by raising an ample fund for permanent endowment, whereas the Philadelphia School is still unfortunately dependent upon annual subscriptions for its support.

Personal inspection of the Philadelphia School has convinced me of the great advantage even to one accustomed to the use of the pencil, of a few months well directed instruction by a practical and accomplished industrial artist. And the pecuniary results of the experiment thus far have been such as to stimulate the industry and attention of the pupils to a high degree—by the plan pursued, whenever a piece of work is purchased, or ordered, the successful artist receives three-fourths of the sum paid, while one-fourth is retained by the school as a proper return for the materials and other advantages furnished by it. It was my intention to have produced for the inspection of members of this body some specimens of pattern drawing done by the pupils. They had been promised to me by Mrs. Hill, the excellent, accomplished and efficient head of the school. But the terrible tragedy which has lately taken

place on the Hudson has deprived the institution of her invaluable services. Had her's been the only life lost on that melancholy occasion, the occurrence would still have been one to be deplored with no common degree of sorrow.

The American Association for the Advancement of Education cannot be indifferent to the success of this great branch of their subject. To train and exercise the powers of the mind for the benefit of the individual and of the community of which he is a part, is the object we have in view. If there be, as there surely is, this department of industry undeveloped in our country, and which is peculiarly adapted to the capacity of women, no better service can be rendered to the cause of humanity, than to open the way, and point out to them how it is and where it is that they can exercise to the best advantage, those finer faculties which God has given to them in more general perfection than to man. The branch of education here urged to favorable consideration and encouragement, is important no less to the community than to the individual, no less in a national than in a social point of view. As an instrument of social improvement it stimulates and encourages while it chastens our love for the beautiful and graceful, and brings into active exercise all those faculties which conduce to the perception and right understanding of the proprieties and amenities of life—and while it holds out remunerative, and at the same time fitting employment for the fairer part of the human family, it is calculated no less to endow them, and through them, society at large, with the additional grace of cultivated and refined tastes.

In the broader or national point of view, the education sought to be imparted by these schools is more important than tariffs or any other partial scheme which can be devised by legislatures. As long as our manufacturers proclaim the superiority of foreign tastes and foreign looms, by producing nothing but imitations of fashions set abroad, we may be sure that the world will take them at their word, and even though they produce a better article, will still prefer the foreign. Our climate, the productions of our forests and our plains, will suggest to educated industrial artists, improvements adapted to our position and wants, which, when once suggested, will soon supersede the hack-nied and oftentimes inappropriate decorations borrowed from other lands. The sure path to independence, as a manufacturing people, is to perfect ourselves in all those arts, which enter into the idea of a complete master of the business. The result is as certain as the growth of the grass after the summer shower.

In every view which may be taken of them, schools of design, and especially female schools of design, appear to be highly deserving of the attention and countenance of all enlightened friends of education, and it is believed that a little active exertion at this time will go far to secure the field to female laborers.

APPENDIX C.

PAPER ON

DRAWING, A MEANS OF EDUCATION.

READ BEFORE THE ASSOCIATION

BY PROF. W. J. WHITAKER, OF BOSTON, MASS.

In considering the subject of our present lecture, it is not necessary to premise that every person who wishes to learn to draw, requires all the talent and varied powers requisite for an artist.

This narrow view of the matter has led to the mistake of making drawing a somewhat exclusive study, or what is generally termed an accomplishment, and as it is frequently taught, it scarcely deserves even that name; for it gives no power to the mind, but simply trains the hand to mechanical productions and mechanical skill.

It is too often made a mere dead letter, instead of a living, active principle, and in place of enlarging the mind and prompting the heart to investigate nature and her beauties, it is considered sufficient to copy the thoughts of others, without attaining the power to express a single one of our own, or to delineate faithfully the simplest object placed before our eyes. Such is not drawing.

Suppose that the old masters, whose works we so much admire for their truth and beauty, had been mere copyists of the dead past, or remote antiquity, would it have been possible for the sublime productions their minds and hands have brought forth, to have been given to the world? Never! But instead of these, we should have had innumerable pictures, statues, and temples, all resembling each other, rather retrograding than advancing in form, for it is utterly impossible to copy faithfully, unless we catch the spirit of the original designer, and

the power is not given to all, any more than the poet's dream of beauty, or the nice analytic power of the man of science.

In speaking of methods of imparting instruction in this, to me, delightful art, I advocate no individual's exclusive one, nor do I deny that there is merit in all, but I would have drawing taught universally, and in a manner that should be at once natural, truthful and productive of the highest good to all who may undertake to learn. How this is to be accomplished, remains to be shown. How others, who have reached high eminence in art, have accomplished it, let them tell for themselves; of Claude Lorraine, it is said "He studied nature from sunrise to sunset." John Van Haysan, "He painted everything after nature, and was so exact as to watch the hour of the day when his model appeared to the greatest perfection." Murillo, "He was a faithful imitator of nature, always true and natural." And of the illustrious Gainsborough, it is said, "He would return to his studio from a country ramble, with pockets laden with stores from nature's treasure-house—stores? Yes, 'frightful weeds,' 'ugly misshapen stones,' and 'leaves withered and dead,' but he saw in them beauties, and laid them up either for future use or imitation."

We may not all acquire the great powers of these great men, but shall we scorn a part because we are incapable of grasping the whole? Shall we refuse to write because we cannot be Shakspeares or Miltons? Refuse to study mathematics because we can be neither Newtons or Franklins? Deny our love of country if we cannot prove ourselves Alfreds or Washingtons? Never dare to speak because we have not the eloquence of a Clay or a Webster? Such reasons are absurd. We must take our talents as they are, God given, use them with the highest hopes, cultivate them for the noblest purposes, and with lofty aim, and if we never reach it, what then? The winged arrow drops ere it can reach its destination, and shall we, beings gifted with immortality and created for eternity, be less than this? No, it may not be. We all aspire to more than we can reach, and if we could reach that height which now appears perfection, we should look so far beyond it then, that the perfection of our present hour would seem only perfect in its imperfections.

That art has been admired and cultivated by all countries and all people, none can deny, as we have undeniable proofs of the truth of such an assertion, in the works they have left behind them. That the study has sometimes preceded writing, it would be no hard matter to prove. Nay, it stands on the monuments of Egypt, Nineveh, and Mexico, a living proof of this statement. It has in times long since past away, been the very means of symbolizing language and imparting instruction, and it still stands in the hands of the teachers of the rising generation of the present times, a powerful instrument of progression, if rightly used. It has been said that this is an age of illustration, and with much apparent truth; for we have pictorial books of

art and science, pictorial magazines and papers, and pictorial illustrations of invention in the various branches of industrial skill and human enterprise.

We use art everywhere, in the temple, the school-house, the dwelling. In the articles of daily use and daily wear in the household, and who thinks a house furnished if it is without a picture? Then, if it is of such importance as to belong to the every occupation and sphere of human life and activity, should it not be cultivated, and with the nicest care? Should it not be universal, that all may be enabled to appreciate the beautiful, and made capable of being impressed and elevated by it?

But the common objection is, that all have not the power to learn. Before we accede so much, let us endeavor to ascertain what drawing is, and what powers are requisite to enable us to use the pencil or crayon with facility enough to illustrate such lessons as may require it at our hands.

First, What is drawing? Not what it is usually supposed to be, simple delineation of copies placed before the pupil. But it is the art of representing truthfully, any real object we see, or can remember to have seen, or can imagine, on a flat surface. To represent any object drawn by another, thus copying only from a flat surface, will never enable any one, unless gifted to an extraordinary degree, to delineate the smallest natural object, or to express by this means, any thought, however simple.

But if it is cultivated in the right way, it will give to the person acquiring such a knowledge, (and that not necessarily a very extended one,) the power to draw from nature—to delineate the flower, the bird, the tree or shrub, the well remembered haunts of childhood, the forms of all things loved, and besides, it will lead to a closer investigation of all around us in this garden of God; it will expand the intellect, and open up the deeper feelings of the heart, it will gift with energy those who pursue it, and afford many a pleasant hour to the mind when weary and worn with the heavier duties of life.

Next, the powers required to attain a knowledge of the art of drawing.

First, A willing, persevering mind; secondly, a knowledge of geometric form, and lastly, sufficient patience to enable one to begin at the beginning, and go on as nature prompts.

From the seed to the gum, the gum to the young plant, and so on through the various stages of being, until maturity is reached. I know full well this does not agree with the popular notions of the necessary requirements, which include talent and genius, and all the other excuses for hard work, that the lazy mind is capable of inventing, but I have no faith in these things, and have found in a life of sometimes hard and painful experience, that everything can be accomplished by industry and perseverance; what there is not genius for,

labor can do right well, and this, nobody doubts. Genius may have invented railways and steam engines, but labor, *glorious, earnest labor-worship*, makes the roads and puts the machines in motion on them. Talent may have applied steam to transport ships across God's mighty waters, and explained how the swift electric current might pass along little wires from one end of the land to the other, conveying thought and transacting business; but it was *work, skill, industry*, that made them available, and so we might enumerate how genius conceives the picture and the statues, how it supplies thousands of ideas to mankind, but we shall always have to conclude the chapter with the good old proverb, "Orate et Laborate," and in our day, we especially want to remember the prayer—the labor we seldom forget.

But in what respect is Drawing of consequence to the Educator? I was asked this question not many days ago, and answered as I was told, in true American fashion, by asking another. In what respect is it *not* of importance to the Educator? Where can the line of its utility be drawn?

Take Geography, Botany, Natural History, Geometry, Natural Science, Geology, Architecture, it goes into all these, and you cannot do without it. Who does not know that anything described is imperfect, if it is not also represented. This every Teacher is well aware of, from the exaggerated ideas children form of objects they have only read of; there is not one child in a thousand, that by reading of the little Island of Britain, can form the most distant idea of its real size, appearance or grandeur;—and it is a well known fact, that Europeans who come to America, have the most absurd notions of what sort of a place it is. The pictures they have in their minds are too ludicrous to describe, and too well known to need description from me. But if the means of knowledge, that faithful delineation can present to the mind, was made bountiful use of; these errors could not well exist. Again, we speak to children of Tropical plants, which they cannot get a sight of at the time needed, and how many get a truthful idea of their luxuriance and beauty? but if the Teacher can step to the black-board, and faithfully portray the objects spoken of, naming at the same time their extent in height and breadth, do you not think the impression is not only likely to be more correct, but also more enduring?

All things that tend to elevate the character or forward intellectual progress, are worth our most earnest consideration, and while I may speak strongly in favor of Art, I would by no means elevate it unduly. Education is like the human frame, made up of many members, and all I claim for the member now spoken of, (as I am prepared to prove it is,) is its proper place—it has not yet had it, but it shall be no fault of mine if it does not find it. It has been hitherto the addendum to Education, not part of it—a patch put on, not part of the whole garment—but it is time it became incorporated into our educational systems, and was looked to as an essential to sound instruction, and not

placed among the things that may or may not be learned, according to the whim or humor of the individual.

The faithful Teacher knows full how vast a power it gives to him to conjure up living realities before the young mind, to incite generous criticism, to awaken thought, to create a love for the abstract sciences, to infuse into the innocent soul of childhood, bright hopes and happy thoughts, to hang as it were, a silver cloud of beauty over life, and make the remembrance of our early days a picture that shall soothe the rough and troubled ways of manhood, and soften down the asperities of declining years, and cause our exit from this glorious world, to be a foretaste of the more glorious one beyond.

This may be called dreaming, but it is the dream of waking hours to me; the blest remembrance of my early days, it is the light of home, the smile my mother wore when she sent me forth with kiss and blessing on my mission in the world—and with the growth of years I find, thank God, there is no decline.

Art is still my mistress, and a faithful one, for she woos me forth to nature, and makes the heart bound light with love for all things, because they are beautiful and good.

The trees are still as pleasant, the grass as green, the flowers as fragrant, and the streams as musical, as when my mother told me, "flowers were so beautiful, because he who made them was so, too."

I love art because it surrounds me with beauty, but for other reasons likewise—I can and do dream often, and frankly confess my fault, and hope never to be rid of it; but it is useful, it aids Education, it assists science, it forwards commerce, it glads the heart, it brings to us the loved faces of distant friends, it decorates our homes, and makes our temples glorious—it places the fountain on the green lawn, and plants the glorious trees, to give refreshing shade. It is the breathing forth of the innate forces of the inmost soul, the expression of a spark divine—a living, longing after goodness, and that goodness throned in beauty.

It should be common, because all love it—and it would not, as it is often said, injure any by being so, but would answer the best ends of life, the commoner it grew.

Where, say some, would be your designers if all could draw? They would be more in demand than now, and for this reason, we like beauty of the highest order we can possibly appreciate, and by all learning to draw, it would only elevate the standard of Design, and that which now passes current for beauty, would then be cast aside as not beautiful, or treasured, as it should be, to show the growth of human skill.

Design would be more in demand because it would cheapen, and it would be as profitable to the Designer, because it was in demand. But the Artists, where would they be? Where they should ever be, when they are true to their mission on the earth. In the highest realms of holy thought, painting for God and immortality—not pan-

dering to bad taste, or painting to live, but living to paint! We should then see a revival of the days of Angelo, Raphael and Guido, a renewal of the sublime in Religion and History, a picturing of scenes that should elevate and bless every beholder—pictures that should exalt and not degrade—arousing feelings of holy awe, and an acknowledgment of the presence of God in their works. Men whose lives should beam forth from the canvass in their pictures like living things, awaking thought that blesses, not degrades—things fit for men to look upon, without coming away with polluted eyes and unhallowed thoughts.

Fear not for the Artists! They have no fears for themselves! There is not one in this wide world who does not thank God from his very soul, for every effort made to advance the cause in which he labors.

Therefore we may strive to use Art, and make it every body's property, and if it accomplishes no higher end than fitting the Artizan and Mechanic, to better understand the works their hands produce, it will not be in vain. While speaking of its utility in the industrial productions of our country, let me endeavor to show its commercial importance to this land.

America is becoming every day more and more a manufacturing country—that its progress in this department has been rapid, no one will be foolish enough to gainsay, because it would be *untrue*, and therefore *unjust*.

Now what is the reason, or is there any, why it may not become especially in some departments, one of the first if not the foremost in the world? Cotton grows here, and is therefore cheaper and more available as a commercial commodity, than it can be on the other side of the Atlantic. It is manufactured, and in many instances manufactured with great care and skill, but it is not, as yet, as much in demand beyond our own shores—what is the reason? Surely the raw material is not improved very much by a transit over the ocean—therefore it cannot be that. But it is for other reasons, widely different from cost, or weaving, or peculiarity of country—it is simply from the character of the design made use of in printing. I have strong feelings about this, and they cannot be said to be very selfish, when a desire is expressed to see this, my adopted country, shine in Art and manufacture both.

She has all the right sort of stuff in her composition to do it; and do it she must.

Her children are as tasteful as the French, and, thank God, much more reliable; they have French taste and Anglo-Saxon earnestness of character; they have everything to aid them in nature, and the only thing wanting is the determination to make use of it. I would not see the worn-out designs of France and England always used here, for they are out of harmony, and consequently out of taste.

Europe has one Flora, and America another. That which is known, and perfectly correct in taste and design on one side of the Atlantic, may be as perfectly unknown and incorrect in taste and design on the other. I would not be understood to desire an exclusiveness of application in this respect, but I would have the design of this country nationalized. I would have it adapted to the wants of the community and the necessities of the climate. I would have those things used in design that are known, and therefore more likely to be appreciated than those which are quite unknown, and unappreciable for that reason.

But these things cannot be brought about by talking. True—but talking is essential to promote action, and that action, once commenced, only needs direction to do its work faithfully and surely. Academies of Art and Schools of Design are not the prime movers, as is sometimes thought in this direction, it must begin lower than this, it must commence with the educator and his pupils in the Primary Schools. There is the place to sow the seed, its use must be demonstrated by practical example, the mode of training must be efficient to be successful. And I will here cite one instance that occurred in the City of Roxbury. A lady came to me to have some talk about Drawing, and brought her folio with her; she showed me specimens of her work in Monochromatic Drawing, and they certainly were very finely executed. She stated she had learned to draw from nature, and, on further conversation, she told me she did not understand perspective or its laws. I asked her if she could draw a little card basket of India work that stood on the table. She admitted that she could not, and I would not admit, as a consequence, that she could draw from Nature. Now, such cultivation in Art is not only useless, but worse than useless, it is positive waste of time and labor. It is making a great show of nothing. Yet I do not want even to disparage this, although I would not use it. There are times when it may be useful—there are times when certain effects are wanted to be produced in haste, then by one who knows how to do it in the right way, but has not the time, it may be made use of to advantage. So of copying, it is not only good, but absolutely essential, but not when commencing to learn. The first thing, it appears to my mind, to be done, is to attain a power of execution, combined with original thought, and by such means a niceness of perception, a clear critical taste, a careful development of power is attained both for the eye and the hand, and this is requisite to all who want to be able to draw well.

Sir Joshua Reynolds says of copying, "I consider it as a delusive kind of industry, the student satisfies himself with the appearance of doing something, he falls into the dangerous habit of imitating without selecting, and of laboring without any determinate object; as it requires no effort of the mind he sleeps over his work, and those powers of invention and composition which ought particularly to be called into action, lie torpid, and lose their energy for want of exercise."

The opinion of such a man is worth something, and it is not only the opinion of Reynolds, but of every true artist in the world. One of my old teachers, writing a month or two ago, tells me not to refrain from drawing from Nature, and says that I shall achieve more in one lesson from her than all he ever gave me himself. I do not quite endorse his saying, but admit freely the necessity of that he recommends. If we cannot procure such teachers as we could desire, we can go to Nature, her tuition fee is very low, she is never absent when needed, and never teaches anything that has to be unlearned, which is more than can be said of the best teachers among us. One thing I would mention particularly, to guard those who desire to learn from making the sad mistake of paying much money for literally nothing, in the form of "Perspective in One Lesson," or "The Art of Sketching from Nature in Ten or Twelve Lessons." It is false to say it can be done—it is mockery to attempt it. There are no more "Royal Roads" to Drawing than to "Geometry." That Drawing in all its branches has been miserably shrouded in the dirty rags of conventional custom, I hope I have more regard for the truth than to deny—but that it can be learned in any number of set lessons is impossible.

All may learn, but some much quicker than others. Some have more power of execution, some keener perception, some greater taste, others more earnestness, time and other things at their command.

The only way I know of is to pursue it steadily, to go forward with care, to be sure of having accomplished one thing before another is attempted, and then no mistake will be made.

How far may we go, is a very common inquiry, and the only requisite answer is, to that which seems to you the end of the chapter. With some it never begins, and consequently, has no end at all. With many the end is the beginning, for they commence, and then lay it down forever. With others, who are earnest, the end is with life—there are perfections beyond our most sanguine perfectness, but that surmounted shows how much a mole-hill the mountain was we last passed over—and these are the true spirits, the men and women whose enthusiastic love of the beautiful and true, incite them to exertion. They accomplish a line, and so from step to step, until the flower and landscape, the figure and the group are drawn—and then opens up their own imagination, and a rich harvest, indeed, is found—then every book is filled with pictures, and every sheet of canvas beams with high art—shapeless blocks of marble possess the statue's form, and only want the cunning hand to make the things appear as they are mirrored in the mind. The daily walk becomes a field of interest, and we walk the world with open eyes, and see beauties we had never dreamed of—life wears a new face, and love, earnest christian love, peeps out from the eyelids of the heart, until we indeed "Read sermons in stones and good in everything."

There is one thing, that were Drawing universally taught, would be

mightily improved, I mean Architecture. This is, of course, in a crude state, as it must ever be in new countries. The beautiful villages of New England and the other states, show how much love of taste there is among the people, and one thing much delights me in going about, the great cleanliness and neatness of the cottages and dwellings, not only of the rich and great, but of the humble poor. But these will not always satisfy the increasing wealth and power of this great nation. She will need an Architecture, and I trust she will be independent enough to make a style for herself, and not be content with an imported one, and for this reason. The climate of America *needs* a different style of building altogether to that of the Old World. The summer has more intense heat, and the winter more cold and snow, than most parts of Europe; therefore such a style as would be suitable to England, France or Germany, or Italy, would be unsuitable here. True, modifications of the many styles might be introduced, but this does not satisfy the patriotic mind. It needs something original and in good taste. For instance, we want our dwellings so arranged that they may be close and warm in winter, open and cool in the summer, and Europe has nothing adapted to such a purpose.

We want the verandah and piazza to ward off the winter snows and summer heats—we want them tasteful and strong, and adapted somewhat to the situation in which they may be placed, and we do not want to adopt or to borrow—we want them our own, our country's, and not another's. In my ideas of what the Architecture of this country should be, I am borne out by the late lamented A. J. Downing of Newburg, and here let me offer a just and honest tribute to the memory of one whom it has been my good fortune to know. Mr. Downing's own house is one of the finest I have seen in America, and its internal arrangement corresponds with its external appearance and situation, at once tasteful, elegant and grand, and the life of its inmates corresponded with the beautiful order and arrangement around them. Mr. Downing was a christian, a perfect gentleman in manner, an artist and a scholar; and America owes him a large debt of gratitude for his services and example. The days I spent beneath his roof, will ever be like a bright star in the firmament of my existence, and I bless God from the deepest recesses of my soul, that he has given us such men and such families, so young and so devoted, not only to pursue Art, combined with industrial skill, but who, by their lives, exalt their profession, and are exalted by it. The memory of the just is written on the eternal records of Heaven's high chancery, but their acts and words are the guiding stars of the destiny of the races that follow them. May he find a happier sphere in the world he has now entered, and may all who knew him, pray earnestly and devotedly, "Lord keep his memory green."

Mr. Downing has done much to improve the Rural Architecture and Horticulture of his country, and the best remembrance we can

show, and the most grateful tribute the nation can pay him, is to follow in the career he had so nobly and so earnestly entered upon.

One other thing in connection with Architecture. It is oftentimes regretted that the models of the Old World are not here to guide us in pursuing it. Is it to be lamented? I certainly think not; for the scenery of this land and the circumstances of its growth, do not require any such aids. If we turn our eyes to antiquity, and investigate the growth of the Arts and the nations, long, long since passed away, we shall find they were original thinkers, and cared not to borrow styles that had preceded them, but studied them only to strive and rival them in beauty and grace. Grecian Architecture is of a different stamp altogether to the Egyptain, and the Roman is unlike either in many respects, but that each has striven to improve upon the other, cannot be doubted. Each style bears, also, the peculiar stamp or mould of the character of the nations to which they belong. The Egyptain, massive, lofty and overbearing. The Greek, easy, flowing, and almost voluptuous. The Roman, beautiful, but stern and unbending; and so with the Architecture of the Feudal times—it is massive, heavy and dark. The middle ages also gives its peculiar characteristics to its buildings; they were gloomy, solemn and mystic, and who that knows the history and description of those times, cannot trace these things for themselves. But are these the moulds in which to cast the models of this land? No; for its circumstances are entirely different.

We have no bloody remembrances to bar out, no despotic tools to immure, no religion that seeks to shut up within gloomy walls its followers, and we walk abroad without fear.

And nature, she too wears a different face—her trees are loftier, her sky more serene, her atmosphere clearer, and this should be taken into account in adopting any thing to place in her midst. If we follow the plan of the great Designer of the universe, we cannot fail to go right, that the ancients did it, is certain, as investigation will prove. Of this I will give a single illustration from the temples of Egypt. What is the reason they were carried up so high? Simply, that the air might circulate more freely, and not become heated to any great degree when made use of. Where was their model? In the o'er-arching canopy of Heaven; and they were wise in adopting it.

But an objection is often started, that these studies take all a man's life. It is true in part, but it is also true that they are for the most part commenced very late in life, instead of being, as they ought to be, incorporated with the earliest lessons in our schools. From a want of as much elemental knowledge of these things as might be taught in one hour, a week, for a single year, the most absurd errors are daily committed in almost every branch of manufacture where decoration is made use of, and after all, our advances in literature, art, science and manufacture, it is time such mistakes were corrected.

I do not want, after all that has been said, to make all men and women, either artists, designers or architects, all that needs be done is to give them as much knowledge of the art of drawing, in connection with other things, as will enable them to detect blunders when they are made, so as to prevent them being perpetuated. All are not adapted for the professions mentioned, and therefore, would not of themselves choose them. I have heard it said that it fosters conceit, but I must confess that I never saw a solitary instance to substantiate the truth of the statement.

The skilled laborer is generally the most modest, and who does not know that the educated man always, without exception, pursues his path of duty with a higher purpose than the uneducated? The reason is apparent—the one goes on his way a minister of progression to mankind, feeling a responsibility for the end that is by his labor to be achieved; the others consider only the quickest way to earn the most money with the least possible trouble.

Education in any department, never yet lifted a man above labor, but on the contrary, it dignifies it in his eyes, because he feels its origin is Divine.

There is not, however, the slightest danger of many, if of any, at all falling into the career of artistic studies, even though drawing should become common as household words. To those who think the artist's is a pleasant, easy, downy path, all I have to say is, let them *try* it for a year or two, and if they have not the patience of Job, combined with high-souled enthusiasm, they will soon "faint by the way," for instead of smooth and verdant paths, they will find rude, craggy, unknown ones, in place of roses, briars and thorns, in lieu of pleasure, poverty, scorn, contempt, repeated failure, blighted hope even when the fair star seemed brightest, and it will be only by religious faith and trust, and earnest prayer, they can be borne through the many trials, to the temple where sits enthroned in smiles, Success.

But there needs not be this in our way, if we are content with small things because we are not strong enough to grasp the large ones.

To be enabled to draw the objects around us, to sketch from nature, and even to take the portrait of those we cherish in our heart of hearts, needs not these trials, it needs only steady perseverance, and that for comparatively a limited time; and if it can never be used to advantage in the utilitarian sense of this work-a-day world, it may at least serve to make us love beauty, and from the love of it to its possession, is not a very wide step.

I look back upon the past, and see the glorious martyrs of art shutting themselves out from the world, that they may, in the quiet communion of their own studios, feel more deeply the spirit of holiness resting around them. I behold their works and wonder not, for I feel that God was with them.

I love beauty, and admire the worshippers at her shrine, because I feel that the beautiful is of God, that we can only fully appreciate it

when we commune with him ; then the world is for a time shut out, and the spirit takes possession within. I may not accomplish what they accomplished, but I have learned to believe that beauty permeates the whole universe, is present everywhere, in nature and in art, in the recesses of the solemn forests and the silent glen, looks forth from the gorgeous flowers of the South, and beams from the lowly weeds of the North ; in ocean's roar and in the rippling brook ; in the sacred music of the cathedral worship ; in the merry laugh of childhood ; in the homes of the nobly great, and of the honest poor. In the study and the field, above, below, around and in us ; it is God's free gift to all his creatures ; it is a talent lent, of which strict account will be required. It is often slighted, because common, when it should be prized for the self-same reason.

That the love of art is universal, is apparent in every household in the land ; the poor picture, the broken vase, the road-side grasses, the summer flowers, all attest its truth, and where shall we not find them ? In the hut of the Indian, in the palace of the king, and in every place between, shall we find some display of taste, some mark of beauty, some silent tribute to its power.

Then is not this a reason for its culture ? But it is only ornamental ! So are flowers, and yet who loves them not ; who does not delight to see them grace his table, be he high or low. Who loves not bright gems ? but they are ornamental, too ; but their beauty and purity are their recommendation.

Who despises modesty and virtue ? None ! But they are looked upon as the brightest *ornaments* that grace the human mind ; and so we might enumerate much that is ornamental, and by its being so, prove its utility.

Art is to Education what flowers are to a field ; it garnishes and relieves it—it gladdens and beautifies at the same time, and in the eye of utilitarianism, when there is so much danger of making labor, not worship, but the worshipped, not prayer, but the God,—anything that is likely to counteract such a tendency, should not be neglected, and the general study of Drawing would, in some degree, aid in the development of ideality and mind, instead of mammon and utility.

To each Teacher before me I would say, if you cannot use it yourself, at least encourage it in your pupils, and should you find among their number, any who display great aptness for it, show them that it must not be studied in isolation, or be used for impure purposes ; if they incline to the grotesque or brutal, endeavor to direct to a higher purpose and a holier aim ; if they love nature, encourage them to imitate her, but never allow them to outrage the works of their Creator, without correction.

Do not puff them with the idea that Genius can accomplish every thing, but let them see that genius is a power, a gift of Divinity, but it must be combined with something else to render it what it should be, useful to themselves and mankind.

Let them pursue without profaning—point out a purpose at which to aim, and let it be steadily followed, keeping within the bounds of, and “never over-stepping the modesty of nature.” Thus mingling with the great stream of intellectual progress, adding to it as the rivulet adds to the “mighty father of waters,”—not muddying the stream, but, by its clearness, purifying that which was already pure.

Not exalting any part over the other, but combining all in one harmonious whole, rendering the education of our youth what it should ever be, ennobling in its tendency and effect.

In conclusion, I shall quote the words of one of America’s own Poets—who has taken a lofty view of the matter.

ODE ON ART.

CHARLES SPRAGUE.

When from the sacred garden driven,
 Man fled before his Maker’s wrath,
 An Angel left her place in Heaven,
 And crossed the wanderer’s sinless path;
 ’Twas Art! sweet Art! new radiance broke
 When her light foot flew o’er the ground,
 And thus, with seraph voice, she spoke:
 “The curse a blessing shall be found.”

She led him through the trackless wild,
 Where noontide sun had never blazed;
 The thistle shrunk, the harvest smiled,
 And Nature gladdened as she gazed.
 Earth’s thousand tribes of living things,
 At Art’s command to him are given,
 The Village grows, the City springs,
 And point their spires of Faith to Heaven.

He rends the oak, and bids it ride,
 To guard the shores its beauty graced;
 He smites the rock,—upheaved in pride,
 See towers of strength and domes of taste.
 Earth’s teeming caves their wealth reveal,
 Fire bears his banner on the wave,
 He bids the mortal poison heal,
 And leaps triumphant o’er the grave.

In fields of air he writes his name,
 And treads the chambers of the sky;
 He reads the stars, and grasps the flame,
 That quivers round the throne on high.
 In war renowned, in peace sublime,
 He moves in greatness and in grace;
 His power subduing, space and time,
 Links realm to realm, and race to race.

APPENDIX D.

ABSTRACT OF A PAPER

READ BEFORE THE ASSOCIATION

BY REV. D. WASHBURN, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Mr. WASHBURN commenced by saying that, notwithstanding the assurance from Mr. Emerson, and that, too, on the authority of Bacon, that the world was mainly indebted to young men for its great progressive impulses in education, still he preferred to listen to such older men as Mr. E. and the Right Reverend President. It was with great diffidence that he proceeded to lay his first offering on the altar of the American Association for the Advancement of Education.

In presenting his subject with a view to disclosing *the Career of Civilization*, the speaker alluded to the difference of opinion concerning the origin of mankind. But without entering upon the discussion of that point, he assumed it as settled, among the wisest and best of men, that no account of the universal Genesis is more entitled to confiding credit than that recorded by Moses.

There was the first authentic history. It alone was reliable as primeval record. Its statements relative to creation and the fall of man being received, and its account of the subsequent prevalence of sin with the consequent deluge, being accredited, we may take our position by the Babel of Shinai, to note and ponder the unfolding problem. Here are gathered the survivors of the flood, but soon to be scattered. From that strange confusion of tongues, with its deep philosophy, we may follow the separating bands. Shall we fail to perceive the unsteady, tottling step of humanity as guided by natural affection under patriarchal rule, towards that which we term civilization? Babylon and Nineveh, in Asia, and Meroë, far up among the Ethiopian branches

of the Nile, each in its own way, might be seen performing their allotted part. And slowly that religious influence which was beginning the career of man's improvement, moved like the sluggish waters of the Egyptian river, towards the Mediterranean. For if it reared the gloomy magnificence of India and China, it doomed them to a dreary monotony of physical and spiritual despotism, which only now, and very reluctantly, acknowledges the superiority of European civilization.

Placing ourselves, then, in the midst of those out-going pioneers, we may see how they strive in utter unconsciousness of what they are achieving. Do they see far down the vista of futurity, that the struggle must never end till mankind regain their lost happiness? Do they feel themselves the heralds of an heavenly attainment? Do they realize how slow and painful the task "revocare grandum superasque evadere ad auras?" Do they know that an invisible power will conduct this grand drama of earth to a glorious consummation? And can they anticipate that three thousand years after them, the sons of learning will dwell upon the representation of their incipient labors with somewhat of that sympathy which Æneas felt when standing with his faithful Achates, in the temple of Juno, he saw pictured on its walls the bloody battle and its heroic characters of a far-off shore?

But this great historical painting has not yet been wrought.

Here and there detached portions, of more or less perfection, lie scattered along the way.

The age calls loudly for the great artist who has time, talent, inspiration and means, for both conceiving aright this magnificent design, and expressing it on the living canvass.

This occasion, however, will only allow us to glance at the *summa vestigia verum*—only a bird's-eye view of the elemental streams from their orient source, till, singly great, and unitedly irresistible, they commingle in American civilization.

Such a panoramic view must, of course, be so extremely rapid as to forbid any protracted dwelling upon particulars, however interesting.

Our purpose only contemplates such a bold sketching of outline as shall disclose that *human history is a grand and yet unfinished system*.

Taking the elemental constituents of our nature as *physical, intellectual* and *spiritual*, Mr. Washburn proceeded to trace, with peculiar discernment, their separate development, and subsequent tendencies to combination.

After sketching the first manifestations of the intellectual among the post-deluvians, the speaker alluded to the Persians, and proceeded thence to trace the progress of this element, the intellectual, as it passed from Meroë through Thebes and Memphis, and uniting with the Indo-Phenician, culminated in Greece.

Radiating, said he, from the sacred books of the land of Pharaohs, gleams of light had already glanced, from the temple-top of Cretan Ida, upon the stalwart form of the wild Pelasgian.

Awakened and interested by its morning gleams, the blind old Maconian, startled by the fearful shout that rolled up from the tumbling walls of Ilium, commenced his ecstatic song of the wrath of Achilles. The proud Grecian, whose eye had hitherto kindled only in the fierce conflict, where himself acted a conspicuous part, listens with wrapt delight to the passionate rhapsody which recounts the exploits of heroes and the gods. Thought is excited—wild and passionate, undoubtedly, yet verily thought. By degrees their public gatherings from the crowd around the Thespian cart, up to the applauded contest of the Olympic games, lose somewhat of their grossness, as there grows around them, brighter and brighter, a splendid halo of intellectual light.

There, in “thoughts that voluntarily move harmonious numbers,” the poet breathes the sentiments of love, the goodness of virtue, and the lofty deeds of heroism. Years afterward the simple and child-like Herodotus, under the special guardianship of the lovely nine, and the artistic, yet circumstantial Thucydides, record the varied events of history. The orator, on the *βήμα*, or in the *αγορά*, touches the passion-strings of an imaginative throng, “with all the omnipotence of words,” increasing, if possible, their idolatrous devotion to the State. Painting on the glowing canvass, and sculpture in the breathing marble, bespeak the well-trained hand, the practised eye, refined taste, and bold conception. Socrates tarries in the marble city of Minerva, commending all manner of virtues, reverence, honesty, temperance, industry and chastity, and having cited the ever-instructive example of the tempted, but triumphant Hercules, receives his thankless reward in the poisoned cup. With an eye steadily fixed on his departed master, Plato soars far away above his fellow-mortals, till almost seeming to have caught a glimpse of the twilight dawn of a better day, soon to be ushered in by a bright particular star in the east.

These are the men at whose departure history records, verily the *Intellect* has done its best for sin-stricken humanity. While yet truth, sorrowing, adds, in the language of Coleridge: “Philosophy flitted across the night of heathenism like the lanthorn fly of the tropics, a light and an ornament to itself, but alas! only an ornament to the surrounding darkness.”

Whence, then, cometh a better element?

To this the speaker proceeded to respond by reviewing the historic chart, and tracing, with nice delineation, the introduction, progress and final high manifestation of the *spiritual* element. The Bible and History coinciding through all, he had no difficulty in pursuing the pathway of this other and indispensable element of civilization. From Shinai and Chaldea through Egypt and by Sinai, it led through deep baptisms and painful sufferings to the marvellous love of God, manifest in the flesh. To this beginning of the Christian Era these two elements of all true civilization, the intellectual and the spiritual, were separately

traced. The question of their uniting leads to further investigation, when the inscription upon a heathen altar, "to the unknown God," is seen, arresting the attention of one who presented a beautiful combination of these very elements. Paul, the scholar and the christian, standing on Mars Hill, kindles a light in presence of the Athenians, a light touching at once the Author of creation and the destiny of man, a light, illustrating the character of the one and the duties and privileges of the other, such as Demosthenes had never seen. But the seat of empire had passed over to the banks of the Tiber. Rome worships in the temple of Mars, and Minerva receives the homage of few. Rome's eagle hath stretched its wings over half the earth, but the fierce bird is drunk with the blood of millions. There are few who have garnered the rich fruits of Grecian intellect for consumption or for seed, and their number is still less, who in the midst of avarice and ambition and sensuality, are ready for the reception of the better element.

Grecian polity, running on into Roman citizenship, had doubtless opened a way for the reception of Christianity, but their mythological religion, however much it had lost of the mysterious influence which it had in the valley of the Nile, was still deeply interwoven with their most cherished institutions.

When it was endangered, all the darkest passions were roused to violence. Hence the tragic terror of those evil days—the mob's wild shout and the lion's roar over the dying Christian! And, we are ready to ask, what is this bloody and boastful empire to contribute for the promotion of human welfare?

Where shall we look for a reply if not to the long-wrought civil law partially inscribed on the twelve tables transmitted and condensed by Tribonian into the Code and Pandicts of Justinian, and so standing out amid imposing monuments and trophies of a conquered world, prepared for the service of Christianity? This was a product of the Roman national life, whose use is yet untold. But after years of torture and suffering, the votaries of the new religion, having organized an ecclesiastical body, are seen striving amid the solemn mockery of the royal purple, to place their chosen chief on the imperial throne. Alas! for the aim—is this all? True, the intellectual element had found a Cicero and Horace and Tacitus, and a holy fervor has inspired Tertulian and Origen and Chrysostom, but still to the eye that comprehendeth all, there is something wanting.

To determine this want is next the requisite. To this end the speaker surveyed with rapidity the salient points of the era, and said:—

Who knows wherefore the hordes of the northern forests are wandering to and fro, and warring with each other?

Be assured they have their mission to fulfil. Their career is accordingly traced, till they stand commingled, rudely, yet vitally, with the powers that were. They might seem to represent the physical element—liberty with a vengeance—personal independence that needed to come

in contact with the achievements of intellect, and aspiring enterprise, that wanted, also, the spiritual of Christianity.

These were the elements whose conflict threw a pall of darkness over continental Europe. A thousand years can scarce unite them.

The religious principle represented by the Christian church, and the others, as represented by Charles Martel, Charlemagne, and Feudalism, or acting through them, were successively touched upon, while in the institutions of chivalry, and its effects, the conflicting principles seemed almost blending.

Thence, over the sea of human life, the eye was guided to catch, with philosophic ken, the tendencies of its restless currents, till at length, their commingling tide is "taken at its flood."

The Moor and the Northman, the Bible and the School, Roscelin and Abelard, Petrarch and the art of Printing, Charles V. and Francis I., the Church and Luther, Kepler and Galileo, the Italian Medici and the Free Cities, all are summoned as to a telegraphic testimony. Catching thence the verdict of History, that not on the continent was to be the *first* vital union, the speaker arrayed another people who taught to bear prosperity and adversity by the varied fortune of their struggles with the Danish invaders, had yielded to the Norman conqueror as if to practise the lesson imposed on Cedric the Saxon, in that inimitable story of Ivanhoe. Here again, from the accumulated evidence of both past and present, the time and place were clearly shewn of a "splendid approximation toward the harmonious union of all the elements of civilization."

"The very year that the revived religion was assuming 'a local habitation and a name,' the myriad-minded Shakspeare was born, Sir Francis Bacon was three years old, and their sovereign was winning, from improving millions, the affectionate title of the good Queen Bess."

* * * * *

"Well might the world look up with admiration at this most nearly perfect union it had ever yet beheld, of *faith reformed, law renewed, and knowledge revived.*"

* * * * *

But now, as if no time or opportunity was to be lost, another witness, even the "New World," stands at the tribunal of history.

Without an attempt to rehearse the graphic account of this consecutive testimony, one or two statements only shall be cited, and the conclusion briefly given.

"The rarest union of prudent, intellectual foresight, tempered fervor of religion, and earnest love of liberty, stands out in the bold relief of WASHINGTON, to guide the little van-guard of American nationality through the dark storm-night of septennial warfare, up to the glad sunlight of perennial victory. And as if warned by heaven to teach his people that true national, as well as individual life, con-

sists in the union of *intellect*, *religion* and *freedom*, he combines in the unity of his first cabinet, the most worthy exponents of these three elements of civilization, Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, and Thomas Jefferson."

* * * * *

"Far enough, then, from vain-glorying, humbled rather with a sense of untold responsibility, *can* we, not merely as Americans, but as *men*, can we feel that the spot on which we stand to do or die is other than peculiar, and peculiar, too, with privileges? Is it not a vantage-ground at once commanding and awful?"

* * * * *

Here, at last, every part of our nature is brought into action, and left free for confluent development. Is not this the result of a well-ordered concurrence along the eventful past, a superhuman provision of air, earth, fire and water, such as no other continent can boast, and the conciliation of antagonist forces in the adoption of a constitution wisely adapted to the government of a people from every clime, kindred and nation?

* * * * *

If this theory of the philosophy of history, thus imperfectly, because from the necessity of the occasion all too rapidly sketched, be true, what a flood of light is let in upon those dark places in the record of the past, which have bewildered some of the brightest intellects of the world! Its very simplicity is its strongest commendation. Such a view of historic truth, once thoroughly received by the generous mind of Gibbon, could his vigorous pen have wrought an impress so cheerless and desponding? Could the gifted Hume have recorded such lessons of fatalism and misanthropy? The more the mind dwells upon it, more and more, it is confidently believed, will this hypothesis reveal its possession of the true electric chain. No fact disclosed by the Neibuhrs, the Champollions or Humboldts, conflicts with it. Every conclusion of philology and science but confirms it. And probability hails it from the investigations of the scholar, the philanthropist and the christian. Here, indeed, the first prophecy after the deluge, uttered with humiliation in an hour of weakness, seems fulfilled by the enlargement of Japheth dwelling in the tents of Shem, and holding Canaan in bondage.

And why may not far more glorious fulfilments be anticipated in a land rich with yet uncovered treasures, and teeming with every requisite of climate, soil, and physical formation? Very peculiar and wonderful, it is true, is our connexion with a people of whom it is prophesied, "Ethiopia shall soon stretch forth her hands unto God." And so near are we brought to the cradle of the race in the circling career of civilization, that heathen Chinamen on our "gold coast" have been permitted to rear their temple as it were a standing reminder to nominal christians, that there is a covetousness which is idolatry. But

humiliating lessons are sometimes wholesome, and their influence is none the less salutary, whether upon individuals or nations, when summoned to their highest enterprises.

To us we seem to hear the voice of history distinctly summoning the American people.

Awarding to other nations and kindreds their full share in the achievements of the past, we may challenge the best on earth, to a noble emulation in the working out of what is yet to be.

Such, gentlemen of the Association, is the interpretation of the teachings of history, which is humbly submitted to your consideration. It shrinks from no severity of investigation. It deprecates only the condemnation of neglect. It invites the educator, the scholar and the philanthropist, divested only of prejudice, to probe and examine it without reserve. Let them question the muse of history till convinced that no answer can even be tortured from her to conflict with this interpretation.

I speak to many practical teachers, who know, from painful experience, how very difficult it is for their pupils to discern anything in history but an aggregation of isolated facts. They may learn, indeed, from text books, the arbitrary divisions of ancient and modern, but any dependent relationship in this or that, any unity of design in all human history, is not perceived. From myriad earnest hearts, I hear the prayer of Ajax, "O give me light!" To all such, universal history is a vast labyrinth without definite beginning, and of manifold mazes. How important then to know, and to be able to disclose to others, that through its darkest places there surely runs a guiding clue, let down from the habitation of Deity, far back in the illimitable past, which, extending round this world of ours and reaching up to the one step lower than the angels, is fastened to the throne.

Gentlemen of the American Association for the Advancement of Education, by the consciousness of my own motives in participating in your deliberations, I am persuaded that you would have the children of another generation grow up, if possible, to the stature of a perfect manhood. To this end you, at least, should understand what is the nett product evolved, thus far, in human history. In all the elementary training of children, and certainly not less in academic and collegiate instruction, the teacher should distinctly perceive both what is desirable and what mankind have already demonstrated to be attainable. While educating the intellect, let it not be forgotten that reason's standard for humanity includes also the physical tenement and its immaterial spirit. To develope these all in perfect symmetry, is the supreme attainment of education. We have all the lessons of history, national, sectional and individual—we have all external facilities, all noble inducements, and a glorious cloud of witnesses,—it were a burning shame not to excel.

APPENDIX E.

ON EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS.

READ BEFORE THE ASSOCIATION

BY HON. THOMAS H. BURROWES, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The periodicals in the United States, wholly devoted to the course of Education, are :

1. THE COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL, 16 pages, 8vo., published semi-annually, in Boston, Mass; commenced Nov. 1838, and now in the 14th vol. William B. Fowle, Editor. Terms one dollar per annum.
2. THE CONNECTICUT COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL, 32 pages, 8vo., published monthly, at Hartford; commenced August, 1848, and now in the 6th vol. Henry Barnard, Editor. Terms one dollar.
3. MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER, 32 pages, 8vo., published monthly, in Boston. Edited by a committee of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association; commenced in Jan. 1848, and now in the 5th vol. Terms one dollar.
4. JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 8 pages, 4to., published semi-monthly, at Bath, Maine; commenced Oct. 1851, and now in the 2nd vol.. J. H. Huston, Editor. Terms one dollar.
5. OHIO JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 32 pages, 8vo., published monthly, at Columbus. Edited by a committee appointed by the Ohio Teachers' Association; commenced in Jan. 1852, and now in the 1st vol. Terms one dollar.

6. RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE, 16 pages, 8vo., published monthly, at Providence; commenced in Jan. 1852, and now in the 1st vol. E. R. Potter, Editor. Terms one dollar.

7. AMERICAN EDUCATIONIST, 32 pages, large 8vo., published monthly, at Cleveland; commenced in Jan. 1852, and now in the 1st vol. K. Maltby, Editor, and A. D. Wright, Associate. Terms one dollar.

8. PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL JOURNAL, 32 pages, large 8vo., published monthly, at Lancaster, Penna; commenced in Jan. 1852, as the Lancaster County School Journal, and now in its 1st vol. Thomas H. Burrowes, Editor. Terms one dollar.

There are some other periodicals, whose columns are devoted, in a greater or less degree, to the cause of education, published in various parts of the union, and rendering valuable service. But, as the titles and character of only a few are known, they will not be named here.

The circulation of the periodicals exclusively devoted to the cause of education, is unknown; but it is believed that the allowance of 2000 subscribers to each, is rather above than under the actual number.

These facts show a list of eight periodicals, wholly devoted to education in the United States, with an aggregate circulation of 16,000 copies.

Taking Pennsylvania, which is a medium State in educational rank, as the basis of calculation, it is supposed that in her population of about 2,400,000, there are now at least 14,000 Teachers of all grades, and 10,000 Directors, Trustees and other persons, officially connected with the management of Educational Institutions; making 24,000, or one one-hundredth of her whole population. The population of the United States being, in round numbers, called 24,000,000, the same ratio would show 240,000 as the number of teachers and others officially connected with the business of education in the whole Union. But, throwing off one-half of this last number, in order to be far within the bounds of a safe estimate, there still remains 120,000 persons of this description, to whom educational periodicals naturally look for support, and without a living support from whom, they cannot exist.

The number of educationalists by profession and office being thus at least 120,000, and the number of subscribers to educational periodicals not more than 16,000, it would seem that the ratio of circulation is less than one in eight of those mainly interested, and chiefly intended to be aided.

This state of things naturally gives occasion to the following questions:

Are educational periodicals really so necessary, and calculated to be so beneficial to the cause of education as is generally supposed ?

If they are, why are they not more fully appreciated and better supported ?

What are the best means of causing them to effect their full measure of benefit ?

Are educational periodicals really so necessary, and calculated to be so beneficial to the cause of education as is generally asserted ?

When the mass of mind is to be influenced by mind, that mode of operation is to be preferred which will reach efficiently the greatest number of minds in the shortest time. This agency is, beyond all question, that of the press ; and the iteration of this agency is the periodical press.

A spoken discourse has its attractiveness and its charms beyond a printed one. Whether these are caused by the graces of delivery, the absence of all labor or effort from the hearer, except that of sitting still and being delighted and instructed at the same time, or the somewhat selfish feeling on his part, that he is one of the favored few who are receiving the pleasure and the benefit, it is here needless to determine. But the fact is certain, that the effect is the most unreliable and fleeting of any produced by the operation of mind on mind. For want of that habit, or rather, acquired faculty, of "right listening," which has been so well explained and so properly insisted on before the Association, as one of the best fruits of a sound education, and the production of which, it is feared, will be one of its last fruits in this rapid and impatient generation of ours, spoken discourses, in addition to their fleeting nature, do not always make the same impression on all the minds to whom they are addressed ; or, what is as unfortunate, the main object, the master-idea of the speaker is frequently lost sight of, in the glare of some ornament, or the beauty of a mere illustration.

But *littera scripta manet*, the printed page remains with us. If we do not fully comprehend its meaning at one reading, we can recur to it, or rather, it will come back and back and back again, to us, till it have done its perfect work. At first, too, its beauties may dazzle, or its profundity bewilder ; but there seems to be that peculiar provision in the unperverted human mind, for its own improvement, which causes it, whenever even the inkling of a sound idea is presented to it, never to rest satisfied, but by, frequently, a kind of involuntary action, to labor and stretch forth, and try round, until the whole be realized and the longing satisfied.

Again, as in the case of the speaker often failing, no matter how eloquent, profound or logical, in effecting just the kind of impression on the minds of his hearers that he intended ; so, in the case of the

writer, his first effort may not, even upon review by himself, so clearly express, or so fully convey his sentiments as he designed. Hence the iteration or periodicity of communication between him and his readers, would seem to be an essential feature in this kind of instruction.

But is it possible that the school-master needs instruction? For, if the object of an educational periodical be to afford instruction on matters connected with general education; and if teachers form the greater proportion of their expected readers, it must follow that they are the class intended mainly to be instructed. That this is so, seems strange at first sight, to many. Let them, however, apply for answer to the intelligent, improving, and conscientious teacher; and he will say, yes! I do need instruction. I need to know what has been done by the great masters before my time. I need to know wherein they succeeded, and wherein they failed, and why. I need to know what others are now doing, and how they do it. I need to know what improvements are contemplated; what reasons are adduced for them; what means are suggested to give them form and success. In short, I desire to know my profession, and its condition over the whole land. I want precisely the kind of instruction to be received through the pages of well conducted educational periodicals.

This is the reply of the sensible, improving teacher, and it is decisive. What the other kind of teacher might say, it is here unnecessary to stop to ask. He will be put on the stand in reply to the next inquiry, which is:

If educational periodicals be necessary and beneficial, why are they not more fully appreciated and better supported?

The answer has no doubt been anticipated. It is because the great mass of teachers and directors and trustees, are so careless of their own best interests, as neither to have inquired into the matter, nor discovered the true relation of educational periodicals to themselves, nor even their own true relation to the profession of teaching, and through it to the world. Surely, if they were properly informed on these subjects, or wished properly to inform themselves, they would not merely support, but they would combine and force into existence, all over the land, these most efficient agents of professional instruction, intelligence and distinction.

That they have not heretofore done so, is proof undeniable of the truth of the answer. If there had heretofore been a sufficient proportion thoroughly aroused and convinced on this subject, the necessity for these remarks would not have existed. They would have constituted that resting point for the lever, by means of which, the ancient philosopher felt he could move the earth. That educational periodicals do now exist at all; and that the question is not, shall or shall they not be established? but, why are they not better supported? is also proof that this requisite proportion of thoroughly aroused teachers,

does now exist. Hence it is, that within the present year, the number of periodicals has been doubled, and the general admission and determination seem to be, that they must be supported. This leads to the last, and most important of the inquiries proposed.

What are the best means of causing Educational Periodicals to effect their full measure of benefit?

In the first place: What is an Educational Periodical? It is a publication put forth at regular intervals, and containing matter intended to raise and spread and increase the means of improving the physical, moral and intellectual condition of the youth of any given community. To effect this great object, it must continually present, thoroughly investigate, and attractively illustrate these means. Short of this, it fails.

But, in the second place: Who are qualified to perform this difficult task? Scarcely any one man, however learned or devoted. Its complete performance demands too many varied gifts and kinds of knowledge, both theoretical and practical, to be possessed, with rare exceptions, by any single person. The same writer may, for a time, render such a publication sufficiently interesting and useful, to ensure its existence during that time; but soon, either his sources of knowledge will become exhausted, or his peculiar views obnoxious to its readers; and in either event, the withdrawal of interest and of support must result. It would therefore seem, that a combination of gifts and knowledge is indispensably requisite to continued success. Hence,

In the third place: Of what shall this combination consist? It must consist of the combination of those talents, acquirements and professional experience, which, from their own fulness, will be able to pour out all that is necessary to the wants of those to be instructed. In other words, to be efficient, influential and thorough, it must mainly consist of *Teachers*. The volunteer theorist may, now and even again, strike out and advance an useful idea, or a valuable improvement in the art of teaching and in the management of a school, or in the other details of the educational process; and the communications and aid of such will be, to this extent, valuable, and ought to be sought for. Even the erroneous propositions of well-meaning theorists, will be productive of good, by the truth which must necessarily be evolved in their refutation. But for permanent attractiveness, interest and utility, the Educational Periodical must mainly depend on the Educational Profession.

Finally: What grade of teachers should contribute to these periodicals? As *all* are to be instructed by the experience of *all*, every grade, from the teacher of the lowest primary school, who may have settled a sound principle of instruction or discipline, or encountered an insurmountable obstacle, to the President of the college, who has, spread out before his view, the broad expanse of mind, with all its

apparent irregularities, wants and difficulties, but with its real harmony and convergence to the same common centre,—instruction of every rank and gift, should combine, to render this medium for mutual improvement, what it ought to be, and what it cannot be, without this general union of effort.

Let the teacher who has never pondered on this subject, only now do it, and attempt to realize the comfort and aid to himself, which such a periodical would produce; and it would seem almost impossible that he should still hold back from receiving and conferring its benefits. The most hesitating on this point, will admit that our accidental meeting with another intelligent teacher, and interchange of sentiment and experience with him, have often proved beneficial. He will also admit, that he goes away improved and strengthened for his work, from every educational meeting which he attends. Then here is an easily attended meeting of mind with mind—a regularly recurring association of opinions and ideas, and a permanent report of both, which can neither be distorted by a wrong, nor lost by a bad memory. And among its best results, will be that of speedily bringing into existence, that actual personal association of Teachers—that professional acquaintance and *esprit de corps*, which are so much needed at the present time. After frequently reading the contributions of others, each will naturally desire to see and converse with them; and teachers' institutes and associations will thus be among the first and best fruits of the periodical.

But it would occupy too much space to attempt to enumerate all the good effects of the educational periodical. They will all be certainly realized, if teachers shall only determine to make those periodicals what they ought to be, and what they alone can make them.

APPENDIX G.

REPORT

READ BEFORE THE ASSOCIATION,

BY WILLIAM D. SWAN, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The Committee to whom was assigned "the topic of school attendance, including the school age, and the best methods of securing the regular and punctual attendance of children at school," have considered the subject, and present the following

REPORT.

Children should be permitted to enter the common schools at the age of four years, and to continue in attendance until they shall have completed the course of studies prescribed in them. Your committee would not recommend that children should be sent to school in all cases, at so early an age; but that schools should be provided for those children whose parents have not the means of directing and superintending their early education at home. The children of the poor, inhabiting the narrow lanes and alleys of our large cities, and often living in small rooms and cellars, without proper light and ventilation, can hardly be received into the school-room at too early an age, both for their moral and physical good; but when proper attention can be bestowed upon them at home, a more advanced age would be recommended.

The best method of securing the regular and punctual attendance of children at school, is a subject which has long engaged the attention of practical teachers, and is one of the utmost importance. Most of the teaching and recitations in our large schools, are conducted in classes; consequently, every absence is not only a hindrance to the individual

absent, but it retards the progress of the whole class. All teaching to be effective, must be thorough. The steps to be taken in acquiring an education, must be gradual and certain. Our class-books are so arranged, and the course of instruction is such that no recitation can be omitted without serious injury to the individual or to the school; as the class must wait for him to make up the lessons omitted, or he will experience the want of them in all his future progress.

The cause of these absences may in most cases be traced to the negligence or indifference of parents, and this negligence or indifference arises principally from a want of knowledge as to the extent and magnitude of the evil. Some of them are influenced by their affections, and yield readily to the wishes of their children, granting them permission to be absent for trivial causes, whenever they desire it. Others have not sufficient control over them to compel their attendance. Every experienced and thoughtful teacher has witnessed the baneful effect which these absences have upon the progress of a school, and many have been the expedients adopted to remedy the evil. Much has been, and may be accomplished by a faithful and conscientious teacher, by appealing directly to the children. He should make it unpopular in the school-room, to be absent at any time, without good and sufficient cause. Public sentiment in the school-room is as powerful in directing the actions of children, and may be used with as much effect, as it is in directing and controlling the actions of men in the social and political affairs of life. The teacher should therefore impress it upon the children that he regards absence from school as a serious offence; and every instance of it should be made a subject for investigation and comment. He should endeavor at all times, to interest them in everything which pertains to the reputation and welfare of the school; for it will always be found that those children who are really interested in the studies of the school, will be the most regular and punctual in their attendance. Whenever these means do not accomplish the object, as in all cases they will not, let him appeal to the parents themselves, personally or by letter, and arouse them to a sense of the importance of the subject. Let him call upon all the friends of education through the public press, to aid him in forming and directing public sentiment aright upon this topic, and the evil, so far as it exists among the virtuous and intelligent portions of the community, will soon be remedied.

But there is a large class of children who frequent the streets, wharves and depots of our large cities, that all these influences will fail to reach. They are principally the children of our foreign population, who are for the most part ignorant of the character of our institutions, and of the importance of education to their offspring. The number of them is increasing to an alarming extent. More than 300,000 men, women and children, landed upon our shores during the last year, and there is every reason to believe that the numbers will be

hereafter annually increased, rather than diminished. We would that it were so. May God in his mercy, speed them hither in their flight from oppression, misery and starvation. There is room enough and bread enough, for them all. May we not believe that our heavenly Father intended from the beginning, that this wide and beautiful domain should be the asylum for the oppressed of all nations? That all our free institutions are but a part of his wise designs for ameliorating and improving the condition of man? It cannot be otherwise. What, almost more than human progress has been made even in our own day and generation, in everything which pertains to our moral and social condition. The mountains have been laid low, and the very ends of the earth been brought into communion. Art has usurped the place of nature. Improvements have been designed and carried forward within a few years, which in past times would have required the labor of centuries; and these could not have been accomplished without the patient and persevering toil of our foreign population. Let us not, then, indulge in useless repinings at their coming hither, but let us rather in the spirit of true wisdom and philanthropy, direct them to useful and profitable employment, and furnish their children with the means of education, and even compel them to receive it.

Their descendents with ours, will soon occupy the places we now occupy upon the great theatre of life. All our institutions, civil and religious, are soon to be transmitted to their hands. What a responsibility is here resting upon us. What a responsibility is imposed upon this association. Thousands and tens of thousands of children are growing up in our midst, in ignorance far beyond the reach of moral and religious culture, and daily familiarizing themselves with every species of vice and crime. The records of our Courts bear lamentable testimony to the fearful increase of crime among them, and no one as yet, has raised a voice or lifted a hand to stay the progress of the disease. The clink of the hammer may be heard in all our cities, building anew or repairing and enlarging the jails and prisons for their daily reception, while our legislators and philanthropists seem to have forgotten, or never learned the old and true maxim, that "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." Who then but this association shall arouse the public to a sense of their danger? We, who are engaged in the immediate duties of public instruction, are more fully sensible of the extent of the evil; of the baneful and withering effect which such children exert upon the morals of every youth in the community, than any other class of persons possibly can be. The merchant is in his counting-room from morn to night. The mechanic in his work-shop, and the husbandman in his field,—all are pursuing their various avocations in pursuit of gain, and pause not to consider the moral leprosy which is infesting even our national character.

Laws must be enacted upon the subject. All children, not engaged in any lawful calling, who habitually frequent the streets and other

public places, should be deemed vagrants, and treated as such. They should be compelled to go to school. In most of the States, our schools are supported by direct taxation upon property. The man of wealth, every citizen in the community, whether he has children to send to school or not, is taxed directly or indirectly for the education of youth; and if he complain, he is told that the support of common schools is essential to a Republic, even for the better security of personal property, and even of life itself. He is compelled to pay his money for the support of schools, and has a right to demand, in return, that every child in the community shall receive the benefit of a good education.

In consideration of these views, your Committee would recommend, that a Committee of three be appointed, to report at the next annual meeting, how far compulsory education by the State is desirable.

APPENDIX H.

ON THE PROPER MODE OF TEACHING ETYMOLOGY.

READ BEFORE THE ASSOCIATION

BY PROF. S. S. HALDEMAN, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

(ABSTRACT.)

As usually taught, the study of Etymology is an exercise of the memory alone, the reasoning powers being left unemployed, and as the chief end of education is to teach the pupil to think, judge and act, every study which admits of it, should be taught in such a manner, as to develop these faculties.

In the old treatises on arithmetic, the answer was supplied to every question, and the pupil was taught to work for this answer, the result of which was, that he could not trust his operations when his necessities required a knowledge of *real* arithmetic, or that which teaches us to work out *unknown* results. So in teaching Etymology, the pupil is told not only the more obscure derivations from a root, but even the most obvious ones.

Instead of being taught analytically alone, Etymology should also be taught synthetically; and to do this, the elements of speech, and the laws which regulate their interchange, should be carefully studied, as they vary, somewhat, in different languages. Without this knowledge, we will be likely to mistake a derivative form for a primitive, and refer an English word, to a German or Latin one, which may not be as old as the English form.

The relations of the elements are given in most of the grammars, but in general so incorrectly that they are of no use for etymological purposes. In fact the grammarians have not yet been able to distinguish between *analogy* and *affinity*. Thus, N is merely *analogous* to M, in its flowing quality, its *affinity* being with B as that of N is with D. When the relations of the elements are understood by the pupils, and illustrated by appropriate examples, the teacher may pro-

ceed to give them a root word, and ask them to run it through its possible changes, reporting the results they may meet with.

Let the word chosen, be the Latin VENENUM—*poison*. Now as the Latin V is the English *w*, and E has its power in *vein*, the first syllable (equivalent to) *wane*, may become *bane*, as *William* becomes *Bill*, when shortened. But the English *tent* and Danish *telt* show that *l* and *n* are interchangeable, so that *baneful* may become *baleful*, a word for which no satisfactory etymology has been assigned.

The lexicographers say that *fine* (a mulct) is allied to *finish*, because a fine finishes a transaction. Yet a child taught upon phonetic principles, who knows that *punish* is allied to POENA and PUNIO, will refer *fine* to the same class. Webster has not found *big* "in any other language," yet it is plainly the Latin MAGNUS and Greek *meγas* and *pachys*.

To succeed in deducing etymologies in this manner, the correct pronunciation must be given, as far as possible, to the languages used. If for example we turn the *cay* of FAC-*io* (to make) into *sh*, we get a supposed root *fash*, from which *make* can never be derived; we need not wonder, therefore, that it is not found under FACIO, in those books which teach the pupil to mispronounce Latin.

I have recently tried this mode of teaching Etymology, with perfect success, in a class of five young ladies, each one of whom discovered important etymologies of words, some of which the best lexicographers have failed to elucidate.*

* An outline of this mode is given in my *Elements of Latin Pronunciation*, p. 66, where the word *mug* is deduced from its primitives.

DISCUSSION

OF

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

Dr. HARE, of Philadelphia, said he thought a chief error in discipline, is omitting to use the nearer and more obvious method, and resorting to the ulterior. Instead of appealing to the child's sense of right, threats are sometimes used; these threats presuppose and suggest bad conduct, and subject the teacher to an obligation to carry out the promise, when circumstances may demand a very different course. He would not say corporeal punishment should be abolished; but he was opposed to making it brutal or offensively public. Such a work unfits the teacher for his duties, and infuses terrors into the minds of the innocent witnesses. He would have correction private, mild, calm, appealing to the conscience rather than subjecting the mind and body to fear. Another error in discipline, is the great multiplicity of rules adopted in some schools. The child who looks over this long list of rules, thinks he can do anything not therein prohibited. This leads to new rules, and you will never get enough to cover all points. Teachers should rely rather upon the unwritten moral rules in each child's soul. He would depend, also, upon judicious public commendation as a stimulus to good conduct.

Mr. GREENLEAF, of Brooklyn, said the school was a Daguerreotype of the teacher; if the school was disorderly, the teacher is the same. He said punctuality was a most important element of good discipline. He said that his friend John Kingsbury, of Providence, had taught school for twenty-four years, and during the whole period, he had never been behind time but once, and that was to the amount of just *two minutes*, and he tells me to this day, he is sorely ashamed of it. Another element is regularity. In some schools, the first question in the morning was, "Well, what is to be done to-day?" This was a great draw-back to discipline. Further, as an element of discipline, he would give a child something to do; he never knew a child worth anything, who could keep still without something to do. Again, he would impress his scholars with the fact that they would be obliged to

labor in after-life ; he would tell them that they must work, and how ? Would they row the long-boat, or go as captain ? Would they be servants, or masters ? This would show how necessary good scholarship would be. He would not separate the sexes in juvenile schools ; he found them mingled by the command of God, in families, and knew it was right. When he first went to school, he was sent to sit with girls, by way of punishment, but it did him good. These were some of his ideas of good discipline.

Mr. MAYHEW, of Michigan, observed that Providence has so wisely ordered it that it is made man's highest duty, his highest pleasure, his highest inclination, all to point in the same direction. The teacher should persuade his school that what it is their duty to do, it must be their highest pleasure to perform. In the school-room, as throughout nature, there should be no antagonism. Punctuality had been referred to ; Mr. Mayhew deemed the subject highly important. He cited an instance of an exemplary young man who had been under his tuition ; what was true of him, was true of many others to whom the speaker's mind reverted. The great thought he wished to bring out, was the one he had already enunciated, that in the school-room there should be no antagonistic elements.

Mr. NEWBURY, of Ohio, said we had been exhorted to imitate Dr. Arnold as a teacher. He asked whether the doctor was correct in using corporeal punishment for the moral offences of swearing and lying. He believed this course would increase the evil. The speaker had pursued a system of bible instruction in such cases. On Monday he gave a question to be answered the next Monday, by a single text from the bible. On one instance, hearing that a boy had used an oath, he used the question, "What says the bible of profane swearing ?" The effect of the necessary reading to answer this question, he believed, cured the boy of his sin.

Mr. SWAN, of Boston, gave a history of the contest at the East, in regard to corporeal punishment. He thought it was settled that we must have sound discipline, at any rate. As to rules, he would have but one ; it should be, "Do right ; do as well as you can." This should be constantly repeated. He would have teachers frequently converse with their pupils upon moral questions. He would have children taught kindness of manner, by the example of the teacher. He did not belong to the new school ; he had been a strong advocate of corporeal punishment. He thought all the diseased sentiment in the community, was the product of a lack of independence, if not of honesty, on the part of teachers themselves. They did not begin right. Stand before your school like a father in his family, and let the children know that you are in earnest.

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION.

CONSTITUTION.

This Society shall be known by the name and title of the *American Association for the Advancement of Education*.

OBJECTS.

The object of the Association shall be to promote intercourse among those who are actively engaged in promoting Education throughout the United States—to secure the co-operation of individuals, Associations and Legislatures, in measures calculated to improve Education, and to give to such measures a more systematic direction, and a more powerful impulse.

MEMBERS.

1. (a) All persons enrolled as members of either of the National Conventions, held in the City of Philadelphia, in the years 1849 and 1850, shall be entitled to become members of this Association on subscribing to the Constitution, and on paying an admission fee of \$2.

(b) Also, in like manner and on the same conditions, all delegates from Colleges or Universities, Incorporated Academies, Normal and High Schools, from State, County, or other Associations, established

to promote education, provided that no more than three delegates shall be received from one Association at the same time.

2. All other persons who shall have been nominated by the Standing Committee, and elected by a majority of the members present, may become members in like manner, and on the same conditions.

NOTE.—Those belonging to the above named classes shall be eligible to all offices of the Society.

3. Distinguished Educators and Friends of Education in other countries, may be elected Corresponding Members by a vote of two-thirds of the members present.

4. *Associates for the Year*.—Any person recommended by the Standing Committee shall, on paying the sum of one dollar, be admitted as a member for the year, but shall not be eligible to any office.

5. *Life Members*.—Persons entitled of right to be members, or elected as prescribed by the Constitution, may constitute themselves *Life Members*, by paying at any one time the sum of twenty-five dollars, and subscribing to the Constitution and rules. They shall be eligible to all offices, and shall be entitled to receive all the published transactions of the Society, free of charge.

PAYMENTS.

1. Regular members paying one additional dollar, annually, shall be entitled to receive the transactions in like manner, free of charge.

2. The omission to pay, for one year, shall forfeit the privilege to receive the transactions free of charge, and the omission to pay for two successive years, shall forfeit membership. Membership may be resumed, however, by resuming payment—but not the privilege to receive the transactions as aforesaid.

MEETINGS.

There shall be an Annual Meeting on the Third* Tuesday in August, to continue for a period of not less than four days. The place shall be designated at the preceding annual meeting, and the arrangements shall be made by the Standing and Local Committees.

OFFICERS.

They shall consist of a President, Recording Secretary, Corresponding Secretary and Curator, and Treasurer, to be appointed at the close

* Second Tuesday, by amendment, adopted at Session of 1851.

of each annual meeting,* and to hold, with the exception hereafter noticed, their places for one year.

STANDING COMMITTEE.

This Committee shall consist of the Officers for the current and of those for the preceding year, with six other persons to be elected by ballot, who must also have been present at the meetings of the current or preceding year.

It shall be the duty of the Standing Committee to manage the general business of the Association in the intervals between the annual meetings, and it may also sit during said annual meetings. It shall nominate all persons who are to be balloted for as members, and shall recommend suitable candidates to fill the offices of President, Secretary, Corresponding Secretary, and Treasurer, and Local Committee for the ensuing year.

LOCAL COMMITTEE.

This shall consist of persons residing in the place where the next annual meeting shall be held. It shall be their duty to co-operate with the officers in making arrangements for such meeting.

SECTIONS.

The Convention may, at pleasure, through its Standing Committee, resolve itself into *Sections*, the number and designation of said sections to vary, from time to time, as may be found expedient.

Each Section shall meet by itself, and shall elect its own Chairman and Secretary, who shall be ex-officio members of the Standing Committee, and shall remain in office for one year.

It may also have a Standing Committee of its own: it shall discuss such subjects only as are indicated by the title of the Section—may receive communications—recommend subjects to be investigated and reported on, &c.

ARCHIVES.

There shall also be in Philadelphia, a permanent place for the reception of Documents, Reports, and other papers belonging to the Association, which shall be under the care of an officer who shall be elected for the term of five years, and be entitled Corresponding Secretary and Curator.

* Annually, by amendment of 1851, instead of "at the close of each annual meeting."

GENERAL MEETINGS.

These shall be held on three evenings during the annual session of the Association, to discuss such subjects, or hear such reports and communications as the Standing Committee may designate.

At one of these general meetings reports in brief shall be made by the Chairman of the several Sections of the proceedings therein.

ORGANIZING ANNUAL MEETING.

It shall be organized by the President of the preceding year.

The first business in order, shall be the delivery of his Address. The new President having taken his seat, the Association shall then proceed to discuss the number and title of the Sections, if any, into which the Standing Committee shall distribute the members, and to designate the places for their meeting. The Sections shall then proceed to organize.

An Auditing Committee shall be appointed at the opening of each annual meeting, to examine and report on the state of the Treasury.

Alterations.—No article of this Constitution shall be altered except by a vote of three-fourths of the members present, and without one day's previous notice.

OFFICERS FOR THE YEAR.

PRESIDENT.

PROF. JOSEPH HENRY, Washington, D. C.

Recording Secretary.

ROBERT L. COOKE, Bloomfield, N. J.

Corresponding Secretary.

P. P. MORRIS, Philadelphia.

Treasurer.

JOHN WHITEHEAD, Newark, New Jersey.

STANDING COMMITTEE.

Dr. ASA D. LORD,	- - - - -	Columbus, Ohio.
Prof. WM. M. GILLESPIE,	- - - - -	Schenectady, N. Y.
E. C. BIDDLE,	- - - - -	Philadelphia.
WM. D. SWAN,	- - - - -	Boston.
WM. TRAVIS,	- - - - -	New Castle, Pa.
Prof. CALEB MILLS,	- - - - -	Crawfordville, Ind.

LOCAL COMMITTEE.

HON. WM. F. JOHNSTON,	} Pittsburg, Pa.
“ CHARLES SHALER,	
D. H. RIDDLE, D. D.,	
A. W. BLACK, D. D.,	
HOMER G. CLARK, D. D.,	
H. D. SELLERS, M. D.,	
REV. WM. D. HOWARD,	
“ WM. H. PADDOCK,	
F. R. BRUNOT,	
D. N. WHITE,	
L. HARPER,	
PROF. JAMES THOMPSON,	





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