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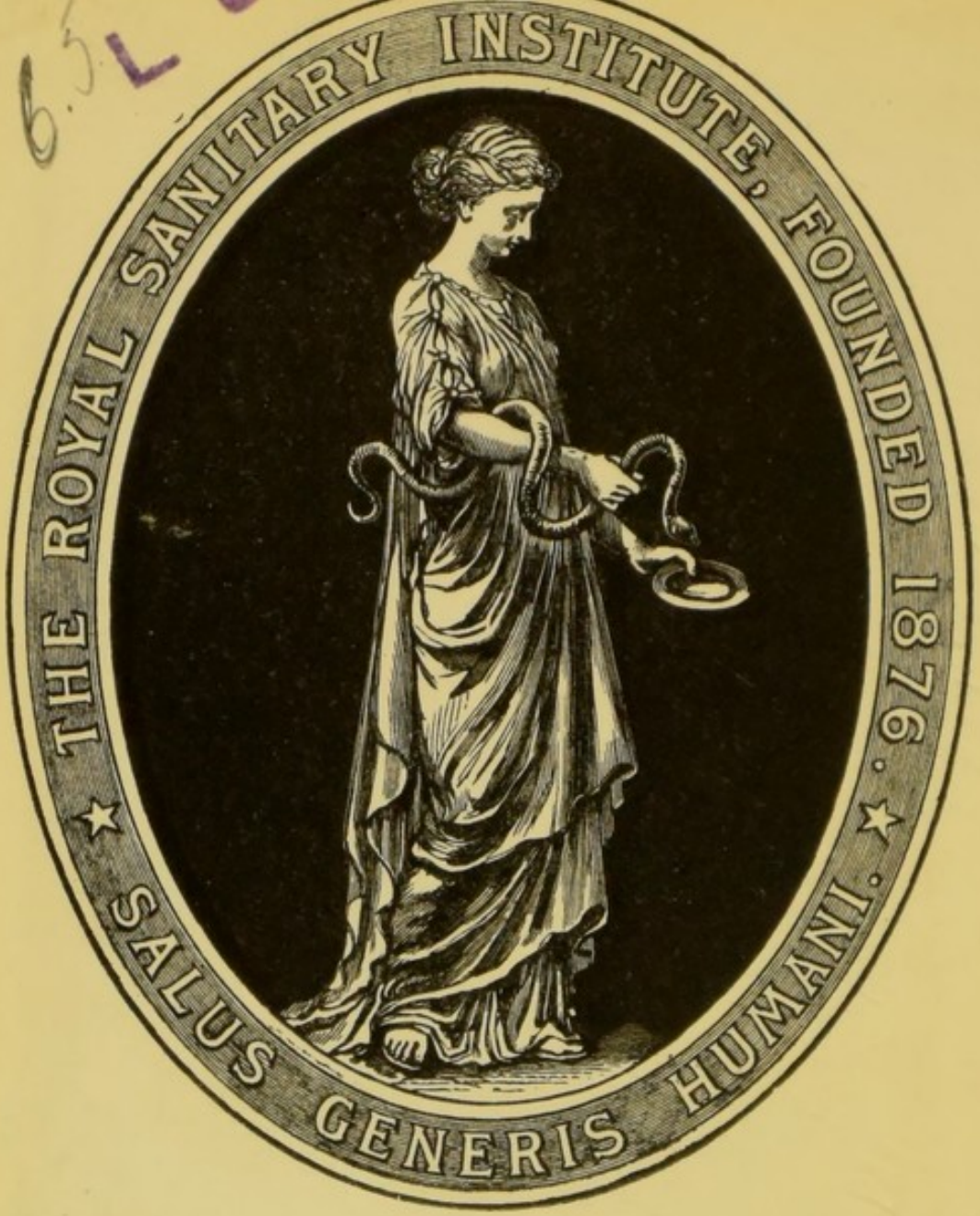

METHODS OF EDUCATION

IN THE

UNITED STATES

BY

ALICE ZIMMERN

Late Scholar of Girton College, Cambridge
Mistress at the High School for Girls, Tunbridge Wells

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PREFACE

In view of the growing interest in Secondary Education in the United Kingdom and the important problems awaiting solution, the Gilchrist Trustees decided in the early part of 1893 to send five women teachers to America, for the purpose of studying and reporting upon Secondary Schools for Girls and Training Colleges for Women in different parts of the United States. The Trustees made their intention widely known, and invited the governing bodies of the various women's colleges and associations of teachers to submit to them names of persons specially qualified. Out of the list of able and experienced women teachers thus furnished to them, the Trustees, after careful consideration of the qualifications of the numerous candidates, selected the following five and awarded to each of them a travelling scholarship of £100 to enable them to spend two months in the United States in prosecuting their enquiries:—Miss A. Bramwell, B.Sc. (Lecturer at the Cambridge Training College); Miss S. A. Burstall, B.A. (Mistress at the North London

Collegiate School for Girls); Miss H. M. Hughes (Lecturer on Education at University College, Cardiff); Miss M. H. Page (Head Mistress of the Skinners Company's School for Girls, Stamford Hill); and Miss A. Zimmern (Mistress at the High School for Girls, Tunbridge Wells). The five scholars visited America in the summer of 1893, and submitted to the Trustees carefully prepared reports, one of which—viz. that by Miss Zimmern—is presented to the public in this volume. The Trustees have aided in the publication of these reports, because they believe that a knowledge of the educational systems and experiments which have been tried in America cannot fail to be of interest and value to those engaged in teaching in the United Kingdom.

R. D. ROBERTS,
Secretary to the Gilchrist Trustees.

17, Victoria Street,
London, S.W.
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INTRODUCTION

In the summer of 1893 I was enabled, by the kindness of the Gilchrist Trustees, to spend some time in the United States, with a view to obtaining information on educational matters. I left England at the end of April, visited New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington, then travelled by way of Newhaven and Northampton to Boston, in which city I spent nearly three weeks. From Boston I went by Rochester and Niagara to Ann Arbor, the seat of Michigan University, thence to Chicago, where I spent four weeks. From Chicago I returned by the beautiful Canadian route *viâ* Toronto, the St. Lawrence, and Montreal; thence by Lakes George and Champlain to Albany, and down the Hudson to New York. I sailed for England on August 5th.

During seven weeks of my stay the schools were open, and I was able to visit these, hear lessons, and converse with the teachers. I saw schools in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Newhaven, Boston, and neighbourhood; visited the Educational Bureau at Washington, the Universities of Yale, Harvard, and Michigan, and the colleges of Vassar, Smith,

Wellesley, Bryn Mawr, and Swarthmore. During my stay at Chicago I attended the Educational Conferences, the meetings of which occupied a fortnight. I found the educational exhibits at the World's Fair useful in supplementing much that I had seen. I had the privilege of spending a week in one of the halls of the University of Chicago with members of the Society of Collegiate Alumnæ, who were then holding their annual meetings, and this gave me an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the views of the best women on educational matters.

A stay of three months is, of course, insufficient for any exhaustive inquiry into the educational systems of so vast a country. I have only tried to deal with certain points, and on these too I desire to express my opinion with extreme diffidence. The subjects I chiefly investigated were: Arrangement of Studies; Methods of Teaching, in particular of Classics, Modern Languages, History and English Literature; Manual Training; and Women's Colleges.

I desire to take this opportunity of thanking the Gilchrist Trustees for enabling me to take so interesting a journey, and the Council of the Girls' Public Day School Company for giving me three months' holiday in which to travel, and for the kind interest they have taken in my tour.

METHODS OF EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The difficulties which beset any attempt to describe even a small part of the American educational system are very great. The vast size of the country, its division into States, each with its own organization, the absence of all central or national control, the mingling of public and private effort, all these circumstances tend to complicate and hinder the work of the investigator. Indeed, it may be safely said that the English system of education no longer seems complicated to those who have made any study of the American.

The one connecting link which binds together all parts of America is the universal love of education, expressed in the constitution of almost every State by the well-known formula—"Religion, Morality, Knowledge, being necessary to good government

and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be for ever encouraged." Non-educational visitors to the States are sometimes a little tried at being dragged from school to school by their host as a means of entertainment. To educational visitors the way is made very plain; all doors are open to them, and the courtesy and kindness of principals and assistants add much to the pleasure and interest of their investigations. American schools are public in the fullest sense of the word. The doors are open to friends and strangers, and parents need never feel that their children's education is a matter of which they have no knowledge, since they can easily obtain access to any of the classes.

The diversity of system is due to the circumstance that each of the older States worked out the problem of education for itself, and gradually settled down into its present methods. Thus, in New York, the Public Free School Society did much towards forming the present system of common schools; and when these were organized in 1853, it handed them over to the State. In Massachusetts, progress was largely due to the efforts of Horace Mann. The newer States had only to follow the lead of the

others; the school system was organized from the first as a matter of course, and they had plenty of models before their eyes on which to form their own.

In the older States, the funds for school purposes were originally raised independently in each particular district, and voted for one year only. This was the extreme of decentralization. As the fund became a certain one, and was partly placed under State control, a tendency towards centralizing set in; but this operated unequally in different States, and thus in some it is the State Board which determines what schools shall be required of different districts, how teachers shall be examined and appointed, what registers shall be kept, what special grants made for building purposes, etc.; in others this is determined by the district or county, and the control of the State is a purely general one. The greatest need now in many States is more centralization and greater stability, for at present a new Board in some towns may completely overthrow the existing system of studies.

There are, however, a few very important points on which there is a good deal of agreement throughout the States. To begin with, all the public schools

are free, at any rate to residents in the district to which each school belongs. In some cases admission is refused to children outside the district, in others it is granted in return for a not particularly low fee. This is the case with the Boston High School. Another important point is that the common schools are open to all, and not meant merely for the children of the poor. Legally there is nothing to prevent rich parents in England from sending their children to State-aided schools, though as a matter of fact it is a rare, though not unknown, occurrence. In the United States the theory is that all children, whether rich or poor, of whatever class, attend the same schools, and receive the same education. As a matter of practice, the exceptions to this rule are so numerous that it can only be stated with considerable modifications.

I took some pains to find out whether the children of people I met in the various places I visited attended public or private schools, and the answer was almost invariably private, with a few exceptions in districts where the character of the streets and residences was such that no poor people could live there, and the schools, though free, were almost entirely filled by the well-to-do classes. Again and

again I have been told, in recommendation of a particular school, that no poor children attended it. The construction of an American town, with its regular system of blocks and absence of back streets and alleys, lends itself to a division into rich and poor districts as an English town would not. Again, the higher grades of the schools, in particular the High Schools, are largely attended by boys and girls of a better social position; for in the United States, as in England, the majority of children of the wage-earning class are very early withdrawn from school. Some few States have compulsory laws, but they are not much enforced; and the fact that the number of pupils in the primary and grammar schools (ages about seven to fourteen) is 96½ per cent. of the whole number under tuition shows that free secondary education does not suffice to fill the schools. It is roughly estimated that the number of children attending private schools is one-twelfth of that attending public schools, and this cannot differ very greatly from the proportion in England. Many leading educationalists in the States deplore the tendency of the richer classes to send their children to private schools, as they consider the mixture of classes in itself an educational

factor. Frequent allusions were made to it at the Chicago Conference; but whether with approval or disapproval, it was regarded as a fact that must be acknowledged.

Nearly all the public schools are divided into grades corresponding to our standards. Some large schools are so classed that each grade only occupies half a year; other smaller ones generally have a grade for each school year. Most schools provide for eight or sixteen grades, of which half are spent in the primary and half in the grammar school. The work for each grade is carefully planned out and fitted to the next, and no child who has not mastered the work of one class may pass to another. There is no miscellaneous promotion during the year, as is so frequent in our secondary schools. It is possible, therefore, to plan out courses of study which shall be taken in turn by each child who passes through the whole school, and thus the work of each class is firmly linked on to the next. A girl who has passed through all the grades is said to "graduate" on leaving the grammar school, and is then qualified to continue her education at a High School, or, in some cases, at a Normal School. Graduation at the grammar school is for a large

majority the limit of education; hence the need of regarding the work of the primary and grammar schools as a whole, since it is by no means safe to reckon on a continuance of instruction.

As to the teaching which is most valuable during these years opinions differ widely, as indeed they must, where what is the end for some pupils must be regarded as the beginning for others. One of the sessions of the Chicago Conference was devoted to discussing the question—"What shall our public schools teach?" and very various opinions were enounced by many educationalists of standing, some advocating merely the "three R's," to which the Chicago schools are now forced to confine themselves, and others pleading for the fullest and richest course that can be supplied. As a matter of fact the subjects taught do not differ very greatly from those of our elementary schools, in which the pupils continue through the seventh and ex-seventh standards. Pupils remain in the grammar school till the age of fourteen or fifteen; hence they can and do pass beyond what we should call the seventh standard stage. There is less choice of subjects in America than in England. The school committee or superintendent generally marks out the exact

time-table to be followed by the schools under his charge, and each subject must be taken by each child. Speaking generally, more attention is given to sewing and singing in England, and to drawing and science in the United States. Again, the penmanship seemed to me inferior in America. United States history is taught in every school, while many English schools are content to leave their pupils in absolute ignorance of the past of their country. As a rule, neither Latin nor modern languages are taught in the grammar school; and this is a great disadvantage for those pupils who proceed to the high schools, and have there to take up what would have been easier and pleasanter at an earlier age. Manual training of some sort is gradually finding its way into most schools in the States as in England. American boys and girls seem expected to work much harder than English; for after school hours, lasting from nine to twelve, and two to four, there are a good many home-lessons to be prepared, chiefly, it seemed to me, learning from text-books. I also fancied that American children had less play than English. As far as it is possible to compare, the American primary and grammar schools more closely resemble our own elementary schools than

the lower classes of our high schools. In these Latin and French are usually begun at an early age, and even the smallest children of the school are allowed to reap some advantage from the presence of University-trained teachers; the classes are smaller, and each class is taught by a variety of teachers. In America it often happens that a teacher is only licensed to teach a single grade, and cannot proceed to another without further examination; hence she is bound always to teach her own class only, and though she no doubt acquires great familiarity with her subjects and with various methods of teaching them, yet the children lack the life and brightness gained from a teacher with a fuller and deeper knowledge of her subject.

The next step in the educational ladder is the high school, which takes the pupils on till the age of eighteen, when they graduate and enter a college or a technological school, or else pass straight away to the occupation of their lives. Of course one of the functions of the high school is to form the link between the grammar school and the University. Hence the studies are such as would prepare for a college entrance examination. With an elementary system that teaches no Latin, and, as a rule, no

modern language, when children reach the age of fourteen or fifteen without going beyond the limits of United States history, and where in many cases science has no place at all, the work left for the high school is very great; and for any student to take up all subjects would be impossible. Hence separate courses are absolutely necessary. The college candidate takes the classical; the pupil whose studies end with school, the English course; the boy or girl who has definitely chosen science as life-work finds a scientific course prepared; and a new feature is the manual training course. Sometimes all these courses are found in one school; at others they are accommodated in different buildings. Boston has a Latin and English school for boys, and one each for girls, and a magnificent Mechanical Arts High School is now in process of erection, for which the town has voted the sum of 160,000 dollars. Of course only a large town can afford such ample provision for the small proportion of pupils that continue beyond the grammar-school age; but in places that are not very large the custom, prevailing very frequently in the United States, of teaching boys and girls together in the same school, brings together sufficient numbers to

justify the establishment of a high school. The high school is the American answer to the secondary education problem, for in the United States the logical division holds good, that it is the nature of the teaching, and not the social class of the taught, that distinguishes between primary and secondary education. Primary, in its wider sense, is that which is offered to all alike up to the age of fourteen, and is meant to fit them either to enter with some measure of intelligence on the occupations of daily life, or else to proceed thence to the high school. Secondary is the education of the high school, whether special or general. Superior is the work of the college or the University.

The curriculum of the high school is often under discussion by educationalists, and even when all the sub-divisions are possible, it presents a good many difficulties; in particular, the demands of the various colleges are often conflicting, and even the demands of the same college differ according to the nature of the course to be pursued by the student. When schools are small the difficulty becomes a serious one. An extreme case was quoted at the Chicago Conference of a school with four teachers that had to prepare pupils in four distinct courses:

—(1) classical; (2) literary with French or German substituted for Greek; (3) Latin scientific course; (4) business course, emphasizing English. Hence there is much discontent expressed in schools with college requirements, and this has culminated since the establishment of Chicago University with its six different groups of entrance requirements, which must be chosen according to the subjects to be taken up for a degree. To an outsider these difficulties seem vexatious and useless. Surely an examination like that of Girton and Newnham, with a few elementary compulsory subjects, and a choice of one or two advanced, would be enough to show that the student was fit to enter, and it would rest with the college to see that he did not leave without submitting to such tests as should prove his ripened scholarship.

Sooner or later some kind of agreement will doubtless be found between colleges and schools. This difficulty is in some respects an artificial one, and cannot compare with that of maintaining the right adjustment between what we should call the classical and modern sides; but this too is gradually approaching a solution in both countries, except that while we in England have for some time

grasped the need of division in boys' schools, little progress has been made in the case of girls. Many of our high schools allow a choice between Latin and German; but this is often an arbitrary one made by the children themselves, or by not very wise parents, and not always with due regard to the girls' future. In the sixth form girls drop some subjects and give additional time to others, with a view to future work; but there is little system about this, and it is often very disturbing to the school work. In America the fact that boys and girls often attend the same high school leads to the same careful arrangement of the girls' curriculum as of the boys'; in fact, it is usually the same for both, with slight modifications and a system of carefully chosen electives.

In Boston, the Latin and English High Schools for girls are quite distinct, but in the same building, and under the direction of the same head master. Thus it is possible for many of the special teachers to teach in both, and a general harmony in work results. The course of the English High School lasts three years, and there is also an advanced fourth year course.

Course of studies in the English High School at Boston.

First Year:—

English language and literature, four hours a week. Ancient history, two hours.

Language (French, German, or Latin), four or five hours.

Algebra, with generalisations of arithmetic, about four hours.

Botany, four hours.

Drawing, two hours.

Singing, one hour.

Physical training, two hours.

Second Year:—

English language and literature, three hours.

Mediæval history; modern history begun, two hours.

Language continued, three or four hours.

Plane geometry, three or four hours.

Zoology, followed by short course in physiology and hygiene, three hours.

Drawing, two hours.

Singing, one hour.

Physical training, two hours.

Elective substitute for zoology, book-keeping, including commercial arithmetic.

THIRD YEAR:—

English language and literature, three hours.

Modern history, civil government, three hours.

Language continued, or French or German begun, three hours.

Algebra and plane geometry completed, two hours.

Physics, three hours.

Chemistry, three hours.

Singing, one hour.

Physical training, two hours.

Electives: substitute for foreign language—phonography; substitute for mathematics—drawing.

In the fourth year nothing is required but English and gymnastics, and there is a large choice of electives.

In the Latin School a plan is adopted which makes it possible for the pupils to begin Latin at an earlier age than fourteen or fifteen, which for most is too late. They are admitted as early as twelve, if they can pass a certain examination, and are then enabled to have a six years' course in the high school.

Course of Studies in the Latin High School at Boston.

First Year:—

English, including history, five hours.

Latin, five hours.

Geography, two hours.

Physiology and hygiene, half an hour.

Arithmetic, four hours.

Objective geometry, half an hour.

Gymnastics and singing, two hours.

Second Year:—

Almost the same division. A little botany begun.

Third Year:—

English, five hours.

French or German, three and a half hours.

Latin, five hours.

Elementary science, half an hour.

Mathematics, four hours.

Physical training and singing, two hours.

In the fourth and fifth years, science is dropped; English, Latin, and mathematics each reduced one hour, and the foreign language one hour and a half. The five hours thus obtained are given to Greek.

SIXTH YEAR :—

English, including history, two hours.

Latin, four hours.

Greek, four and a half hours.

Elementary science (physics), three and a half hours.

Mathematics, four hours.

Physical training and singing, two hours.

The physics are required for the Harvard entrance examination, and thus a pupil who has passed satisfactorily through the six years is ready for college work.

If she has not taken up both French and German, she can substitute another subject for one of these languages.

I quote the course of studies in the High School at Newtonville, near Boston, and that at the High School of Newhaven, in Connecticut, which is, of course, under different State control, while the end in view is Yale rather than Harvard. (See page 171.) Both are attended by boys and girls. Newhaven is also on the point of opening a manual training high school. (See page 132.)

Newtonville High School.—General Course.

First Year:—

English language and literature, history. Five exercises a week.

Science: physics (first course), five months; botany or zoology (first course), five months. Four exercises a week.

Military drill (elective), calisthenics (for girls). Two exercises a week.

Elective studies: Latin, three; algebra, three; drawing, three; commercial arithmetic and book-keeping, three.

Second Year:—

English language and literature, history. Five exercises a week.

Science: physics or botany (second course), five months; chemistry (first course), five months. Four exercises a week.

Military drill and calisthenics. Two exercises a week.

Elective studies: Latin, three; plane geometry, three; French, three; German, three; drawing, three.

THIRD YEAR :—

English language and literature, history. Five exercises a week.

Science: chemistry (second course) or mineralogy, five months; political economy or geology, five months. Four exercises a week.

Elocution, one; military drill and calisthenics. Two exercises a week.

Elective studies: Latin, three or five; solid geometry, three; French, three; German, three; drawing, three.

FOURTH YEAR :—

English composition, rhetoric, history of English literature, the reading and study of authors, and history. Five exercises a week.

Science: psychology or physical geography, $\frac{1}{3}$ year; ethics or physiology, $\frac{1}{3}$ year; logic or astronomy, $\frac{1}{3}$ year. Four exercises a week.

Elocution, one; military drill (elective), and calisthenics. Two exercises a week.

Elective studies: Latin, three or five; trigonometry and surveying, three; French, three; German, three; drawing, three.

Four Years' Classical Course.

First Year:—

English language and literature, three; ancient history, two; algebra, five; Latin, five; military drill (elective) and calisthenics, two; drawing (elective), three.

Second Year:—

English language and literature, two; Latin, five; Greek, or French, or German, five; geometry, three; French, three; military drill and calisthenics, two; drawing (elective), three.

Third Year:—

English language and literature, one; ancient history, two; Latin, six; Greek, six, or French or German, five; algebra, two; French, three; elocution, one; military drill and calisthenics, two; drawing (elective), three.

Fourth Year:—

English language and literature, two; Latin, seven; Greek, or French, or German, five; geometry, two; physics, four; elocution, one; military drill (elective) and calisthenics, two; drawing (elective), three.

This course of studies is subject to such modifications as the High School Committee, the superintendent, and the master of the school may from time to time think necessary.

Institute Course.

First Year :—

English language and literature, history. Five exercises a week.

Latin, five ; algebra, five ; military drill (elective) and calisthenics, two ; drawing (elective), three.

Second Year :—

English language and literature. Five exercises a week.

Latin, five ; French, three ; plane geometry, three ; military drill and calisthenics, two ; drawing (elective), three.

Third Year :—

English language and literature, history. Five exercises a week.

French, three ; arithmetic, three ; algebra, three ; plane geometry, three ; elocution, one ; military drill and calisthenics, two ; drawing (elective), three.

FOURTH YEAR :—

English language and literature. Two exercises a week.

Advanced algebra, three ; solid geometry, three ; physics, four, or German, four ; chemistry, three, or French, three ; elocution, one ; military drill (elective) and calisthenics, two ; drawing (elective), three.

This course of study shall be subject to such modifications from year to year as may be necessary.

Course of study in the Hillhouse High School, Newhaven.

Classical :—

FIRST YEAR :—

Algebra, Latin (7 rec.), English.

SECOND YEAR :—

Latin, English, algebra, plane geometry, Greek.

THIRD YEAR :—

Latin and Roman history, German or French, Greek and Greek history.

FOURTH YEAR :—

Latin, German or French, Greek, solid geometry, and English.

Scientific :—

First Year :—

Algebra, Latin (7 rec.), English, drawing (op.).

Second Year :—

Latin, English, algebra and geometry, English and United States history, drawing (op.).

Third Year :—

Latin, geometry and trigonometry, physics, English.

English :—

First Year :—

Algebra, Latin (7 rec.), English, drawing (2 rec.).

Second Year :—

Latin, English, algebra and geometry, general history, drawing (2 rec.).

Third Year :—

Botany and zoology, Latin, civil government lectures, German or French, physics, drawing.

Fourth Year :—

English literature, German or French, astronomy, physical geography, geology, physiology and hygiene.

Three Years' Commercial :—

First Year :—

Algebra, English, German, arithmetic, office work, penmanship.

SECOND YEAR:—

English, German, civil government, book-keeping, actual business, penmanship.

THIRD YEAR:—

English, German, physics, type-writing, stenography, commercial law.

Third year commercial is optional.

High schools are gradually making way throughout every State in America. Massachusetts requires every town of 500 families to establish one, and of more than 50,000 inhabitants an evening high school.[1]

Obviously the high schools in these small places cannot be as efficient as in the large ones, since the greater part of the work falls on one master; and very small schools are allowed to reduce the number of subjects taught. Two or more small towns may join together for the purpose of a high school, thus obtaining a larger and more efficient one. I had no opportunity of visiting a high school in one of the country districts, but I saw a primary and grammar school which convinced me

[1] It is worth noting that the word "town" may in America be applied to a collection of villages, and that what we call a town they usually designate as a "city."

that the high standard of the large towns was by no means kept up in the small ones. Two of the most important elements of success are wanting there—numbers to facilitate proper grading, and money to pay efficient teachers and procure needful apparatus. Hence a school in which the children are occupied but not taught; where one class reads aloud while the teacher, who is engaged with another set of children, pays no attention to them. The teacher receives a starvation wage, which may be all she is worth, seeing that she has perhaps never even attended a high school, but is certainly not such as to attract good teachers. The average salaries in American schools are low—£70 in New York State, £60 in Maryland, £100 in Massachusetts; and when we take into consideration that at Boston the teachers are fairly well paid, and there are two or three salaries of £700 for head masters, whilst some of the high school assistants get as much as £300, it is clear that there cannot be much left for the country teachers. Hence the enormous inequality of American schools, greater than anything that can be found in England.

Some towns have not yet adopted the high school for girls, but instead have a normal school, to

which graduates of the grammar schools may proceed. The normal school does some of the work of the high school, but mingles with it professional training for teachers. This has the disadvantage of giving the professional bias too early, and it is doubtful whether either kind of work is as well done as it would be in separate institutions. There are schools of this character at New York and Philadelphia. At New York the course lasts four years, and is much like that of a high school, except for two hours a week given to pedagogy in the third year, and three in the fourth year, out of which last time is taken for a very little practice in teaching. At Philadelphia, all the actual practice that falls to the lot of each student is one single week, and she watches the teaching of another student for a week before that. Hence it is but fair to regard such institutions as high schools with a slight professional bias. There are other normal schools, such as that at Boston, where only pupils from high schools are taken, and these are meant exclusively for teachers.

All work in all the States that forms part of the public school system is under supervision; there is usually a State superintendent, whose duty it is, directly or indirectly, to examine and license

teachers, and to control the schools of the State generally. With him co-operate the county or district superintendents, and in some cases each city has its own superintendent. The work allotted to these officials varies a good deal, but either the superintendent or the Board of Education, or both, has the power to determine which subjects shall be taught in the schools, and often how they shall be taught, to fix the school hours, to appoint teachers, etc. Very little liberty is left to the teachers; they may sometimes be consulted about the choice of a text-book, but they have no right to expect this, and, as a rule, this duty falls to the Boards or superintendents. Some towns have, besides the superintendent, a system of supervisors, who are specialists in particular subjects, which they organize and direct in all the schools of that town. It is their duty to study new methods, to direct the teachers, and see that the work is rightly carried out, and the needful accommodation and apparatus supplied, and they report to the Educational Board on their own particular subject. It is believed that careful supervision and superintendence may do much towards obtaining good work from a merely average teacher; and as the great majority of the American

teachers are untrained, and may have had no teaching beyond that of the high school, and not always that, some such system is absolutely necessary to keep up the standard of work. It appears on the whole to work well and economically, though it is impossible that it should not sometimes be galling for a really capable teacher to have to follow such minute directions as are laid down in many of the courses of study.

CHAPTER II

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

THERE is probably no country in the world where private schools are so numerous and so good as in the United States. It must be borne in mind that in America our own girls' high schools, started by companies or endowed, would be called private, as the term "public" is only applied to State-supported schools; but even schools started and managed by individuals play a part in the States which is rarely accorded them in England, and many of them do excellent work. A glance at the calendars of the various colleges shows how large is the number of pupils entering from private schools. Thus, out of a total of 351 students who entered Harvard in 1890, only ninety were prepared in the public schools. At some of the women's colleges the proportion of pupils from private schools is even greater.

In America, as in England, the question is some-

times raised—"Ought not the State to take some cognizance of the schools that are not under Government control?" And the answer has, as yet, always been in the negative. I am not aware that any such proposal as that in our Teachers' Registration Bills has yet been made; indeed, such a scheme could not be worked in the States without much alteration in the present system, under which license to teach in one State does not apply to any other; nor is there a plan on any large scale like that of our local examinations, which enables schools to compare their standards and the public to gain some notion of results. The Regents of the University of New York have done something in this direction, but it applies chiefly to public schools. Harvard has also instituted a sort of "local examination," which is taken by some private schools. Occasionally a State University—for instance, Michigan—undertakes to inspect the schools, whose graduates it exempts from entrance examination; but this, too, applies chiefly to public schools.

The great advantage of private effort is that it makes new experiments possible which would only be sanctioned in public schools by a very enlightened Board, such as is by no means found in every

American town. Often these private schools serve as what the Americans call an "experiment station," and the results, if satisfactory, gradually make their way into the public schools. In some cases, a successful venture is actually made over by the originator to the town.

A very interesting experiment in early education is the Working Man's School in New York, started by the Society for Ethical Culture, of which Dr. Felix Adler is the President. Its purpose was a protest against the dull round and mechanical methods of the schools in that city. It was started as a free kindergarten for the children of the poorer classes in one of the very poor districts of New York. At the end of two years some of the children were ready to leave the kindergarten, and the promoters, unwilling to sacrifice the good foundation already laid, determined to form classes for older children, in which the principles of the kindergarten should still be carried out. The school was originally started only for the children of the poor, and admission was free; but as the value of the teaching became known, rich people applied to send their children there; and a limited number were admitted on payment of a tuition fee to help defray

the expenses of the school. The promoters say, "The Working Man's School aims to be a model public school, and to serve as an experimental field in which new methods of education as they arise may be tried for the benefit of the entire public school system." Such work will always be done best by voluntary effort, since a large school system cannot be easily swayed or changed.

The aim of the school is summarised thus: "Not merely to teach the three R's, nor to enable pupils to earn a living, nor to endow them with accomplishments, nor to make them intellectually efficient, but to build up manhood and womanhood." Its special features are:—

I. Manual training in all classes for pupils of every age and both sexes.

II. Freehand drawing and modelling in all classes.

III. Science teaching in all classes. The aim is to develop a power of observation and the love of nature. Pupils work from their own specimens, and assist in conducting experiments.

IV. Weekly natural history excursions, and visits to leading industrial establishments in the upper classes.

V. Unsectarian moral instruction in all classes.

VI. Regular examination of pupils by the school physician, and study of their psychic characteristics by the entire corps of teachers.

I quote the paragraphs on method :—

"The method pursued is the creative method of learning by doing."

"The various special features introduced are so many tests to assist the teachers in discovering the pupil's natural bent."

"The plan is to use the special talent of the pupil as a point of vantage, in order to make him interested in knowledge generally, and also to develop the more gifted along the lines of their particular individualities."

"All-round culture is the end, special culture the means."

"The system of instruction is designed to be an organic whole; the co-relation and co-operation of all departments of the school towards a common end is the principal feature always kept in view."

I spent a morning at this school, and was much impressed by the manner in which the teachers used the intelligence of the children.

I heard a lesson in form-geometry, in which the class were led to discover, by observation, facts in

connection with parallelograms. They were thus prepared, by independent discovery of the fact, for the abstract proof which would be presented to them much later. In geography a class was revising, and therefore the work was a little disconnected; but though a text-book had been used, there was none of the routine question and answer which had struck me in the public schools. The child's intelligence was always brought into play. The same may be said of the mechanical drawing, which in some cases consisted in making a plan of a building that the child had himself sketched from the real object. Each boy in the class was doing a different piece of work, and all seemed eager and keen. The girls' sewing was equally good and careful.

One special feature of this school is the careful co-ordination of studies. In England, and in particular in our high schools, the specialization of teachers is apt to result in keeping each study as a thing apart. History is taught by one teacher, geography by another, often without any regard for the period of history which is being studied at that time; drawing by a third, geometry as a thing apart by a fourth, and morality in connection with Bible teaching by a fifth, without any attempt to draw

into this study the lessons to be learnt from all the others. Hence ensues a rivalry of subjects, instead of an attempt to work all into one harmony. Each teacher plays for her own hand, and seeks to secure the maximum of time for her own subject. As the teaching of a large number of subjects by one teacher is certainly not desirable, the remedy would be that advised by Dr. Adler, carefully to plan out the work, and from the first co-ordinate drawing with form-teaching and geometry, reading with literature and moral instruction, as well as with science and history, and composition with all.

The school is rich in zoological, botanical, and mineralogical collections. It possesses a library of nearly 1,700 volumes for the use of teachers and pupils, as well as a full collection of all the leading educational journals, American and foreign, for the use of the teachers.

The Working Man's School, though private, is graded in the same way as a public school. It is divided into three kindergarten, three primary, and five grammar classes. The average age for leaving is fourteen. It works on the assumption that up to that age teaching should be alike for all, rich and poor, boys and girls.

The Bryn Mawr Girls' School is one of the schools sometimes called "fitting" or "preparatory," because its course is arranged with a view to the entrance examination of a college; in this case of the Bryn Mawr College. It is very difficult for the public high school, with the many and varied demands upon it, to prepare satisfactorily for entrance to college; and though the problem is being gradually solved in large schools by sub-division of courses, yet the work of the private schools that prepare for college is a very important one. At Baltimore the standard of the high school is low, and the Baltimore College has found it necessary to start its own Latin school in order to ensure the proper preparation of the students. The Bryn Mawr School was started by some rich educationalists of Baltimore, and no money has been spared in making it good in every particular. Pupils pay fees, 160 dollars a year (£32); but this is not expected to cover the expenses. The school is not a large one—under 200. It is worked much on the lines of our high schools, but the surroundings and equipment are far superior. Girls are admitted at the age of ten. The plan is that of specialist teaching, and all the teachers are college graduates. Each teacher presides over a room,

which is sacred to her own special subjects, and equipped accordingly with appropriate photographs, books of reference, maps, etc. There is a large central schoolroom, adorned with a fine copy of the Parthenon frieze, and out of this opens a library for the use of the girls. Each girl has her own seat and desk in the schoolroom, but during study hours she may, if she please, work in the library, in order to have books of reference at hand. The girls go for their lessons to the subject rooms, and return afterwards to the schoolroom. The excellent construction of the building enables this to be done without disorder. A very interesting feature is the gymnasium, presided over by a special teacher, and the girls do all their exercises under the superintendence of a lady doctor, who examines each, and assigns to her the exercises she specially requires. There is also a swimming tank, in which the girls are taught to swim, and luxurious little dressing-rooms with shower baths, for refreshment after gymnastic exercises. There is a playground in which the girls play tennis, an unusual sight in an American school. The courses of study are carefully planned, and where possible made to co-ordinate. The teachers are all fitted to direct their subjects,

and infuse originality into the teaching. In fact, the whole school leaves the impression of thorough work amid pleasant surroundings.

At Philadelphia much of the best work is under the direction of the Society of Friends, many members of which live in that city. The Friends' Select and Central Schools for boys and girls do excellent work, and so does the William Penn Charter School, which, though meant for boys, has admitted the daughters of the Principal, and may some day extend the privilege further. These schools take children at an early age, and are thus enabled, like our High Schools, to begin Latin and modern languages early, instead of cramming all advanced work into the last years of school. The gymnasium, workshops, and laboratories are supplied with all that is most helpful in apparatus.

The Packer Institute, at Brooklyn, was founded as early as 1845, therefore before the establishment of any of the Women's colleges. Its aim was to provide a liberal education for girls, and it still works on these lines; but it also undertakes to prepare pupils for the entrance examination of a college, or else enables them to continue their studies for the first two years of a college course. There are

Primary, Preparatory, Academic, and Collegiate departments. The academic department is entered at about the high school age, and girls who have graduated at one of the Brooklyn grammar schools are admitted to this without further examination. The academic and college courses each occupy three years; thus the full course continues two years longer than the ordinary high school work. There are two main courses of study; the Latin course, which includes Latin for at least four years, and a modern language or Greek; and the mathematical course, in which advanced mathematics are substituted for two years' Latin. Appended are these preparatory and academic courses.

Conspectus of Studies in the Preparatory Department.

FOURTH GRADE.—I. September to February.

II. February to June.

Barnes's Arithmetic.—Cancellation, fractions, greatest common divisor. Least common multiple. Fractions through multiplication.

Whitney and Knox.—Elementary lessons in English, through the year.

Maury's Elementary Geography, through the Middle States.

A Modern Language.—Oral, twice a week, through the year.

Reading.—Daily.

Science Lessons.—Plants and animals. Once a week.

Drawing.—Twice a week.

THIRD GRADE.—I. September to February.

II. February to June.

Barnes's Arithmetic.—Division of fractions. Review of fractions. Relation of numbers. Decimals. Tables of denominate numbers.

Reed and Kellogg's Graded Lessons.—Through the year.

Maury's Manual of Geography.—To South America. To Europe and review.

A Modern Language.—Oral, twice a week, through the year.

Composition.—Once a week, through the year.

Elocution.—Twice a week.

Science Lessons.—Elements of astronomy. Once a week.

Drawing.—Twice a week, through the year.

SECOND GRADE.—I. September to February.

II. February to June.

Barnes's Arithmetic.—Denominate numbers. Percentage to discount (omitting stocks).

Reed and Kellogg's Higher Lessons.—To lesson seventy-one.

Maury's Manual of Geography.—Beginning at Europe, complete the Manual. Review the Manual.

A Modern Language.—Oral, twice a week, through the year.

Composition.—Once a week, through the year.

Elocution.—Twice a week.

Science Lessons.—Elements of physiology. Once a week.

Drawing.—Twice a week, through the year.

First Grade.—I. September to February.

II. February to June.

Barnes's Arithmetic.—Stocks to partnership. Algebra.

Reed and Kellogg's Higher Lessons.—Continued, completed and reviewed.

History of the United States and its People.—Through the year.

A Modern Language.—Oral, twice a week, through the year.

Composition.—Once a week, through the year.

Elocution.—Twice a week.

Science Lessons.—Lessons about air and water. Once a week.

Drawing.—Twice a week, through the year.

Conspectus of Studies in the Academic and Collegiate Departments.

THIRD ACADEMIC GRADE.

I. *September to February.*

Latin. Modern language. Zoology.[1] English history. Readings from Scott.

II. *February to June.*

Latin. Modern language. Algebra. Through Simple Equations. (The whole year.)

SECOND ACADEMIC GRADE.

I. *September to February.*

Latin. Modern language. Algebra. Through quadratics. (The whole year.) *Rhetoric.* Goldsmith and Irving.

II. *February to June.*

Latin. Modern language. Physical geography. Roman history. Macaulay and Addison.

FIRST ACADEMIC GRADE.

I. *September to February.*

Latin. *Modern language.*[2] Physiology. Al-

[1] Students qualified to enter the second semester of a modern language may substitute it for zoology.

[2] At this point Greek may be substituted for a modern language. Studies italicized are required of all regular students.

gebra. *Plane geometry.* Mediæval history. (American literature.)

II. *February to June.*

Latin. Modern language. Plane geometry. Modern history. Milton and Shakespeare.

THIRD COLLEGIATE GRADE.

I. *September to February.*

Latin. Modern language. Advanced algebra. English literature.

II. *February to June.*

Latin. Modern language. Botany. Solid geometry. Ancient history. Victorian poets.

SECOND COLLEGIATE GRADE.

I. *September to February.*

Latin. Modern language. Chemistry. Trigonometry. Constitutional history. Rhetoric.

II. *February to June.*

Latin. Modern language. Conic sections. Biology. English literature.

SENIOR YEAR.

I. *September to February.*

Latin. Modern language. Qualitative analysis. *Physics.* Calculus. Geology. Lectures on American history once a week. *Logic and psychology.* English literature. Early English.

II. *February to June.*

Latin. Modern language. Astronomy. Physics. History of art. *Psychology.*

I saw something of the Latin and Greek work, both of which were excellent. I was greatly interested in a history lecture dealing with very modern events in Europe, and, in particular, discussing the recent foreign policy of the two political parties in England.

The number of pupils last year was 756, and the number of teachers 53. As a result of this liberal proportion, small classes, and a great deal of individual attention are possible. The school was founded and built by Mrs. Harriet Packer, and the fees charged amply cover the working expenses; they range from eighty dollars (sixteen pounds) in the Primary Department, to one hundred and sixty dollars (thirty-two pounds) in the Collegiate. The buildings, equipments, etc., are admirable.

The Cambridge School for Girls is largely attended by the daughters of professors at Harvard. The teachers are specialists, and they are numerous enough to make small classes possible. There are two departments: (1) A preparatory department, for pupils between eight and twelve; the subjects

taught are reading, writing, spelling, elementary science, arithmetic, geometry, singing, drawing, French or German, geography, English language, and use of the voice. (2) The academic department, ages from twelve to twenty. Here the subjects are elective. There is a special classical course, which prepares for college; the subjects it includes are French, German, history, Latin, Greek, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, English, physics, and astronomy. Pupils who complete this course may enter Harvard "Annex" with advanced standing; that is, they are excused one year's work.

The fees range from one hundred dollars (twenty pounds) to one hundred and seventy-five dollars (thirty-five pounds) a year. There are two boarding houses connected with the school, and board and lodging and tuition together range from nine hundred dollars (one hundred and eighty pounds) to one thousand dollars (two hundred pounds) a year. At present the school is struggling under the difficulties of insufficient housing; but a site for a new building has already been chosen, and before long it will doubtless be as excellent in accommodation as it is already in plans and methods of teaching.

CHAPTER III

METHODS OF TEACHING

The great difference between American and English schools lies, not so much in the time-table and arrangement of work, as in the nature and aim of the teaching. Broadly, the English school aims at written, the American at oral, work. The work of an English school could be tested with some fairness by an examination of the written work of the classes. The corresponding idea of the American school would be gained by going in to the actual lesson and questioning the pupils. The English idea of home work is something to be written; the American, something to be said. In the very lowest classes, great attention is paid to the answering of questions in complete sentences, arranging thoughts in the child's own language, describing objects exhibited to the class, and expressing something for the teacher to write on the blackboard. Arithmetic generally means mental arithmetic; science, obser-

vation by the class. Sometimes a teacher will take home a pile of papers, look them hastily through, and comment on important points; but the idea prevalent in England that every written exercise should be converted into a perfect piece of work by corrections on the teacher's part, is contrary to the whole spirit of American teaching. I did not hear one lesson in which the teacher dictated notes to be written out by the pupils, and to be again read by the teacher. Facts are taken from the text-book; comment and discussion belong to teacher and class alike, the teacher directing the discussion, but sometimes taking very little part in it. When writing is required, the blackboard plays a very important part. This generally goes round three sides of the room, and is available not only for the teachers, but also for the pupils. My impression was that American teachers use the blackboard less than we do, while their pupils use it more. Pupils are called out to work sums and problems before the class, and quick questioning, leading the others to take part in what is going on, enables this to take the place of a good deal of written home work. Similarly, in foreign languages, translating sentences on the blackboard takes the place of many of our exercises,

and has the immense value of being done quickly and forcing the pupils to have their knowledge ready for use. In drawing the blackboard is of great importance. Often a girl is called up to draw an object from memory, and the rest of the class criticise her effort.

The effect of this system is to throw the pupils a good deal on their own resources, and this is largely to the good. They are expected to put their own work right, to see that they get the greatest benefit from the teacher's explanation, to express themselves in their own words, and record what they themselves have observed. It makes them self-reliant, quick and ready of expression, but it does not make them neat, or methodical, or accurate. English teachers would be greatly shocked at the style of much of the American written work. American teachers would be even more shocked at the untidy, scrappy answers given by many of our pupils, at their inability to think quickly, and their very slight power of using books unless the exact reference has been given by the teacher.

A mixture of the two systems would produce admirable results, but even an interchange would

be valuable. The American child thinks quickly, but dislikes being tied down by rule or method. Some of our drill and mechanical work would be of value to him. The English child thinks slowly, naturally relies on his teacher, and rather likes mechanical work. For him the quick questioning and training in expressing his own thoughts would be of the greatest value. As a matter of fact, each nation does what it finds easiest. At a lecture given in one of the normal colleges, I heard this statement:—"It is a well-known fact that we all express ourselves more easily and better in speaking than in writing." To the English present this sounded startling, for we are accustomed to regard the opposite as almost axiomatic.

A noticeable feature in American schools is the large amount of apparatus used. Plentiful blackboards, maps, pictures, models, scientific collections, etc., are regarded not as luxuries, but as necessities. Teachers show with pride the various contrivances for facilitating their work and adding to the vividness of the teaching: maps arranged in cases so that they can be drawn down by springs when wanted; gas laid on by the side of the teacher's desk, so that when experiments have to be per-

formed in the class-room, this can be satisfactorily done; large flat-topped desks for the teachers, with plentiful drawers and shelves, on which are arranged the most important books of reference connected with their work; special stands for exhibiting objects to the class, and other countless devices helpful to teachers and taught. Many schools have two large laboratories—one for physics, and one for chemistry—a studio, and a gymnasium. Some have rooms specially fitted up as libraries, in which the pupils are allowed to work during study hours. They have also access to the splendid free libraries found in every American town, and this accessibility of books greatly influences the teaching, since it is possible to refer older pupils to many original sources, which, under any other system, would be quite inaccessible to them. In some large schools and in colleges, specially trained librarians are able, by method and arrangement, to make the contents of the library of real use to the students. When manual training is taught, there is a good supply of benches, tools, etc. The needs of object lessons are considered by the school. Again and again American teachers have said to me, "We are very well supplied. Yes, we have everything we

need for our work;" and it was impossible not to feel many a jealous pang at the thought of our schoolrooms at home, of ordinary class-room often turned for the occasion into studio or laboratory, to the great discomfort of all parties concerned, and the detriment of the pupils.

The discipline seemed to me good in nearly all the schools I visited, less rigid than ours, and more dependent on the mutual good-will of teacher and taught, than on mechanical rules. Too little attention seemed to be paid to the manner of sitting, and supposing a pupil did not care to attend, and occupied herself in some other way, little notice was taken. As a rule, the classes seemed interested and anxious to learn. If they did not, it was assumed that the loss was theirs. Here again the idea of individual responsibility seemed strongly marked. I carried away a very pleasant impression from nearly all the classes in which boys and girls were taught together. The pupils seemed generally alert, and the whole work seemed brisk and full of interest. It is impossible for an outsider to judge of the difficult question of co-education. As regards the intellectual results, the general opinion is in its favour. I have heard such contradictory reports of

the moral effects, that I hesitate to pronounce an opinion, and would rather give that of an experienced teacher who had herself studied, first at Vassar College (for women only), then at Cornell (mixed), and had taught for several years in a mixed and afterwards in a Girls' High School. Her opinion was that the good effects outweigh the bad, and that the evil springing from the closer contact between boys and girls is slight compared with that resulting from keeping the sexes too much apart. All seemed to agree that more supervision was required in a mixed school, and that of course must add somewhat to the difficulty. The economic gain is a great one, as it makes larger schools with better grading possible.

Teaching of Literature.

The teaching of English literature in America possesses peculiar interest for the English visitor. If it is true that to understand Old England we ought to see New England, where many of our old customs are still fresh and living, it is equally true that, if we want to find a real living love for our own English classics, we had better seek it in the United States than on this side the water. In many of our schools there is hardly such a thing as

literature teaching at all. There is a lesson bearing that name on most time-tables, but it is often a lesson in language, not always of a systematic character, a great part of the time being given to studying etymology of out-of-the-way words, and discussing little unimportant details in set books. This deterioration in our literature teaching is due to the too successful attempt to make literature an examination subject, coupled with the disastrous system of prescribing set books to be read, re-read, criticised, paraphrased, patronized, and found fault with by young, immature critics. The whole aim of literature teaching, to train the mind to love of the beautiful, is forgotten in the necessity of cramming notes for examination. Reverence and awe, which it should produce in young minds by the presentation of the beautiful, is exchanged for a desire to spy faults quickly, and thus gain marks on questions set in the examination about Shakspeare's inconsistency, anachronisms, misinterpretations of history, etc.

It was a great pleasure to find some of the old literature teaching surviving in the United States, and, curiously enough, I found it at its best in schools that were in other respects rather behind the times,

while a tendency to degradation of literature seemed observable in some of the more advanced schools. In the Baltimore High School, whose general standard and attainments are far below the New England schools, the instruction in literature was admirable. There is a carefully-planned course to extend over the whole three years, and give briefly the history of English literature, with detailed study of the more important authors. I saw essays on Browning and Tennyson written by the highest class, and was greatly pleased with the interest and appreciation shown by the pupils. They bore tokens of careful teaching, but there was no monotonous repetition of the teacher's views. The pupils had evidently read and thought for themselves. I heard a lesson in another class who were studying Swift. The pupils had been set to do different work, and communicate the results to the class. One girl was called on to read a summary of arguments she had made from Swift's "On the inconvenience of abolishing Christianity," which was really excellent. A discussion ensued on Swift's own religious views; and the manner in which it was treated showed how wide was the girls' reading, and how keen their interest. I was

similarly impressed, at the New York Normal College, by a lesson on Ruskin, in which the teacher was illustrating Ruskin's views on certain subjects by extracts from his writings. Here, too, the girls had read and thought for themselves, and were encouraged to express their views. It is interesting to note that those schools whose curriculum is specially directed towards preparation for college, are not those that do the best work in literature. They are to some extent hampered by the entrance examination, though this has, I believe, nowhere the cramping influence exercised by our own local examinations. Set books for outside examinations must always to some extent cramp the work, besides introducing the necessity of different work for different colleges, but the colleges do their best to minimise these evils. Yale is just adding literature to the subjects of its entrance examination, and set books are required which are, to quote the Catalogue, "selected as well for their probable attractiveness to the preparatory student, as for their intrinsic importance." We are also told that "the questions will be constructed with a special view to testing the candidates' familiarity with the subject matter." Michigan University, which, by

its inspection of schools is in a position to direct their teaching somewhat, requires an essay to be written on some subject taken from one of the set books, and lays down particular directions as to the mode of study, among which I note (1) daily recitations for at least one term in some such work as D. J. Hill's "Elements of Rhetoric and Composition," or A. S. Hill's "Principles of Rhetoric"; (2) a careful study of one of Shakspeare's plays in an annotated edition; (3) weekly exercises in original composition. The set subjects for 1894 are, "Julius Cæsar," Addison's "Sir Roger de Coverley," "Tom Brown at Rugby," "Marmion," "Rasselas," "Oliver Twist." The examination for the Bryn Mawr entrance is similar. The 1894 subjects are: Chaucer:—"The Nonnes Tale," Shakspeare:—"Midsummer Night's Dream" and "Twelfth Night," Addison's "Sir Roger de Coverley," Macaulay:—"Essays on Addison and Johnson." This was what was required of the candidates in 1892:—"Give an account of Lamb's boyhood and early impressions, as made known to us in the essays of Elia; or give as full an account as possible of the life of an English Country Gentleman in the Eighteenth Century, as described in the Coverley papers." Harvard also

requires set books, but distinctly states: "The student should read the prescribed books as he reads other books; he will be expected not to know them minutely, but to have freshly in mind their most important parts." In the manual of the Boston High School course of study, these directions are given to the teacher:—"The purpose and spirit of the author and the merits of his thought and style should be pointed out, his defects should be but lightly touched"; and again:—"Of course the authors should be mainly studied for their literature; if the pupils will but read with a genuine interest, and with a fair comprehension of thought and sentiment, not only will their standard of reading and thinking be raised, and their literary taste improved, but also their ability to use good English will be increased. Merits rather than defects in the exercises used for improving the style of expression should be emphasized." I quote in full the English course of the Washington High School. This work is compulsory, for though the principle of that school is the elective one, certain subjects are prescribed for all, and among them English.

First Year:—

Representative discourse. Structure and ex-

pression, description, narration, comparison and exposition. Twenty-seven hours.

Brief outline of English literature. Twelve hours.

Selections from standard authors. Seventy hours.

Tennyson, Dickens, Macaulay, Coleridge, Byron, Goldsmith, etc.

SECOND YEAR:—

Argumentative discourse — proofs *a priori*, proofs by example, proofs by evidence. Eighteen hours.

Principles of rhetoric. Thirty-six hours.

Addison, Milton. Eighteen hours.

Shakspeare (comedy). Thirty-six hours.

THIRD YEAR:—

Chaucer, "Prologue" and "Nonnes Tale." Twenty-eight hours.

Bacon, "Essays." Twenty-four hours.

Milton, "Paradise Lost." Twenty hours.

Shakspeare (tragedy). Seventy-two hours.

FOURTH YEAR:—

The English essayists. Thirty-six hours.

The English novel. Thirty-six hours.

Topics for research, criticism and invention, connected with a study of modern poetry and a review of grammar and rhetoric. Seventy-two hours.

The Manual Training High Schools, in spite of the great importance attached to the actualities of life, are far from neglecting the literary side. All have a careful course in English literature, even when the exigencies of other subjects crowd out foreign languages. At the Pratt Institute High School the literature is very carefully connected with history teaching. Thus the first year's history work is in ancient and mediæval history, and the reading consists of Hawthorne's Tanglewood Tales, Bryant's translation of Homer, Macaulay's Lays of Ancient Rome, Shakspeare's Julius Cæsar, and other classics treating of the history period. The second year is given to general history, beginning with the Renaissance, and special prominence is given to English history. The corresponding literary work is on those English classics of Shakspeare, George Eliot, and Dickens, which are concerned with the period from the Renaissance to the French Revolution. The third year is given

to modern history, and, not quite consistently, to Chaucer's "Prologue," one of Shakspeare's historical plays, and Fisk's "Critical Period of United States History."

Besides the study of authors, much stress is laid on rhetoric, by which is really meant the principles of style and composition; though we are inclined to smile at the high-sounding title, it is certain that some study of the broad principles underlying literature must be valuable and stimulating. In the United States this study is very common, and compulsory in many of the colleges for the first and second year students.

If the Americans are more successful than we in teaching literature, the same can hardly be said of language. The public schools here labour under very serious difficulties, especially in cities like New York, that receive large numbers of foreign immigrants. Some of the children can speak hardly any English; others, who come from poor and ignorant homes, are quite unable to express themselves correctly. Hence the work of the American teacher is made exceedingly hard. It is impossible under the circumstances to aim very high, and in many cases the requirements even of

college admission go no further than the putting into correct English of incorrect expressions. This kind of work is at all times of doubtful value, since it often serves rather to impress the fault on the pupil's mind; but when we find candidates for Harvard asked to correct such sentences as—"Would not Shakspeare have been likely to at least have heard of these savages?" "He claimed that Smith, whom he supposed was an American, had written him a letter"; "I never have, and I hope I never will, see him"; "I do not know but what I ought to have been clearer"; and the following in the Harvard examination for women: "The prince asked her for most every dance"; "She said that she had lain the book on the table"; "I studied Latin some when I was at home"; it does cause a very disagreeable shock of surprise. Undoubtedly, the general standard of English language teaching is low, though there is great compensation in the excellence of the literature.

Teaching of History.

It would not be easy to make any general statements as to the teaching of history in either America or England. In both countries the geo-

graphical position makes a certain amount of isolation possible, and they can if they please collect from the great mass of universal history that which specially concerns themselves. This facilitates history teaching in the schools, but detracts much from its real value, tending to give a distorted view of the progress of the world, and to accentuate the narrowness of outlook to which both these nations are liable. The United States and England agree in the great prominence each gives to its own history, often to the exclusion of all others. In the United States this is deliberately done, because the aim of the public schools is to produce good citizens, and for this purpose a somewhat exaggerated view of their own importance is beneficial rather than otherwise. A child from the primary school upwards is taught to believe that "America licks creation," much as our own boys used to be taught that one Englishman could beat three Frenchmen; and they are accustomed to hear their own country lauded over every other. Undoubtedly this frame of mind is useful in producing a certain narrow-minded patriotism, very useful for ordinary working purposes; but it is, of course, fatal to anything like a true historical outlook. In England, where, till

quite lately, there has been no attempt to combine citizenship with history teaching, the narrowness seems to have less deliberate purpose, and is due partly to insularity, and partly to the extreme difficulty of general history. Whatever the cause, it is certain that England and the United States are much in the same case; with this difference, that United States history is much shorter than English, and therefore, when the children in primary and grammar schools have again and again worked through the text-book, until every little detail is imprinted on their minds, they are sometimes allowed in the High Schools to turn to "fresh fields and pastures new," and learn something about the rest of the world. This may be called the rule in the public high schools, but some of the private schools have attempted a wider course of study. Here, again, the New York Working-man's School is to the fore with a course so interesting that I quote it in detail:—

First Grade:—

Myths and fairy tales, primitive peoples (Eskimos, North American Indians). The coming of the white men, meaning of holidays, simple biographies.

Second Grade:—

Myths, stories from the Odyssey and from German mythology, primitive peoples, poems bearing on history, simple biographies.

Third Grade:—

Stories of inventions and inventors, Robinson Crusoe, early history of New York.

Fourth Grade:—

Representative stories from universal history. The Pilgrims and Puritans.

Fifth Grade:—

American History, from discovery of continent to the present time, in outline, based on readings from Montgomery's Beginner's United States History.

Sixth Grade:—

The Oriental nations, History of Greece (Fyffe's History Primer of Greece) and Rome (Creighton's History Primer of Rome).

Seventh Grade:—

Sheldon Barnes' Studies in American history.

Eighth Grade:—

Review of ancient history, mediæval and modern European history in outline.

It must be remembered that this only takes children to the age of fourteen or fifteen, and those who go on to the high schools will have further opportunities of detailed work.

Another well-arranged course is that of the Bryn Mawr School at Baltimore, which girls enter at the age of twelve:—

CLASS I.:—

A six months' course, three lessons a week.

Geography of the Western World.

Physical features studied by use of outlines, filled in under the direction of the teacher.

Map drawing. School collection of photographs used.

CLASS II.:—

Six months, three lessons a week.

Description work. Physical features of European countries, studied according to their historic development. Order:—Greece, Italy, Spain, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Great Britain. Slight notes on other countries in connection with these.

History Proper.

CLASS I.:—

Elementary ancient history.

CLASS II. :—

Legendary age of Greece.

CLASS III. :—

Roman institutions.

CLASS IV. :—

English history. The girls read some of Shakspeare's historical plays, Scott's novels, and portions of Macaulay's History.

CLASS V. :—

American History. N.B.—Ancient history may be substituted.

CLASS VI. :—

In 1892 and 1893, American history as above ; 1893 and 1894, European history (elective). N.B.—If possible, this should be all lecture and library work. Once a week a talk on current topics is given to the whole school.

Here geography and history are connected where possible, and the study of Roman history is brought into connection with the study of Latin, while literature is closely correlated in all periods.

The teaching of history in most schools is from text-books. Often the book is used as a reader in the lower classes, and later on certain portions are

set to be learned, not as a rule by heart, but in such a way that the pupil can answer intelligently the questions put in class. These questions are generally printed in the book at the end of each chapter, an arrangement that was described to me as "labour-saving," on an occasion when I made some protest against it; to which the obvious comment is, that printing the answers would still further conduce to this end, if that is all we have in view. The American text-book is a peculiar institution, self-contained and complete in itself. It is plentifully illustrated with pictures and maps; it is divided into lessons or portions; it supplies questions for the teacher, names all other books that throw light on each particular lesson, in fact, does the teacher's work for her. I can hardly believe that such a text-book would seem satisfactory to a real student of history, who would wish to lead on her pupils by the method that seemed clearest to her own mind; but work in the primary and grammar courses is seldom in the hands of such students. A mistress who has to teach all the subjects in her own grade would gladly welcome all possible help, and in a case of this kind it is probable that the class suffers less from over-direction than it would from the opposite. Even

with this minute detail the difference between intelligent and mechanical teaching is apparent. At a school near Boston, I learned that the class had been taken by their teacher to visit some historic monuments in that city, and a living interest was thus brought into the work; but the danger of the text-books is that a dull teacher can and does entirely rely on it, and the work degenerates into a mere hearing of lessons.

Besides history teaching in many of the grammar and some of the high schools there is instruction in "Civics," particularly interesting to us just now that it is being introduced into our own schools. Here, too, there are text-books, and this is probably necessary, for to keep such instruction impartial in any country in which the party system of government prevails, is a very difficult matter, and a book that can clearly and impartially set forth the constitution of a country is a real boon to the teacher. In Civics teaching two methods seem to prevail. One is the over-patriotic one, which I was sorry to find in the schools of New York. Its aim is to declare that the United States is the best-governed country in the world, and prove it by more or less inaccurate statements about other countries. From the text-book

in use at New York I cull the following:—"It was during Henry's reign that an old man, Wolsey by name, who had been a life-long friend of Henry the Eighth, received a death sentence, because he would not do a dishonest act for the King." "Elizabeth organized a Church, and said there must be no other kind, and if any one was found attending any other church, he was executed." "In England they have what is called a House of Commons, which many people think is like our House of Representatives. President Lincoln is said to have asked the following question of some gentlemen:—'Gentlemen, if we were to call a sheep's tail a leg, how many legs would the sheep then have?' 'Why,' said they, 'five legs, of course.' 'Not so, gentlemen,' answered Mr. Lincoln. 'Why not?' asked they. 'Because, gentlemen, calling a sheep's tail a leg does not make it one.' And so, calling the House of Commons like our House of Representatives does not make it so." "In the House of Commons many of the members are only twenty-one years old—mere boys to make the laws for one of the largest countries in the world." "We have no King John, who can imprison us at his will, or smother innocent little boys. We have no Queen Elizabeth to dictate how we

shall worship the ever-living and true God. None such are found in this glorious Republic, in which the supreme power is vested in the people." Further confusion is created by the absence of all dates, and the impression left on the reader's mind that King John, Henry the Eighth, etc., are all alive at the present day, ready to torture or behead any one who annoys them. American Institutions are also represented as of indigenous growth, and English ones treated as though they were feeble copies. The value of such teaching seems rather doubtful.

Happily the problem has been taken up by more competent writers, who realize that no description of the American Constitution is complete without some warning reference to the prevalent corruption, and the tendency of power to fall into the hands of the worst men. In Boston I found an excellent book—"The American Citizen," by C. S. Dole, which is really a text-book of morals and elementary political economy, as well as an admirable introduction to the Constitution of the United States. This is the plan:—Part I. The beginnings of citizenship. This includes the family, the schoolroom, playground, club or debating society, personal habits, principles that bind men together,

duties that men owe each other, etc. Part II.—The Citizen and the Government. This discusses the purpose of Government; Local, State, and Federal Government, Courts of law, taxation, the school system, voting, political parties, etc. Part III.—Economic duties, or the rights and duties of business and money. Part IV.—Social rights and duties, or the duties of men as they dwell together in society. Part V.—International duties.

This book is intended for the higher classes of grammar schools and for high schools; and it necessarily touches on subjects of some difficulty, which are most skilfully dealt with. Thus :—"The ideal or best possible citizen is Conservative and Progressive at once, for he prefers the old and familiar methods of government as long as they continue to do good service, but he is perfectly willing to listen to any plan which promises better service. He is cautious in trying political experiments, but fearless as soon as he sees that the change is right." "Many see no valid reason why women should not exercise the suffrage equally with men. In England this is now allowed in the case of women owning property. Some steps have been taken towards it in the United States. It is

at present one of the open questions upon which women as well as men are divided." The practices of cheating at elections, rings, office-seeking, etc., are boldly faced and condemned, while the writer points out that the best citizens desire the removal of these abuses. The spirit that animates the whole is well summed up thus:—"A citizen's duty and responsibility bind him to his own country, as family ties bind him to be faithful to his own relatives; but while patriotism urges us to serve the interests of our own country, it never requires us to serve our own country to the injury or loss of other nations. It is not patriotism to cry, 'My country, right or wrong,' or to help and uphold one's Government in doing injustice to another country."

In the high school it is generally assumed that United States history is known, and here an attempt is made to give some sketch of the history of other countries. In some schools several hours a week are given to the subject, and it is therefore possible to take a brief outline of general history, beginning with ancient, and proceeding in chronological order to modern times. No attempt is made to specialize in set periods at school. All such work is left for college, its fitting place. Happily, the

United States have avoided the error into which so many of our schools have fallen, and sought their models rather in German than in English schools.

I have already quoted (page 59) the course in the Pratt Institute High School. That in other schools is very similar. Speaking generally, the work of the three years is :—

First Year :—

Ancient history.

Second Year :—

Mediæval history.

Third Year :—

Modern history.

With four or five lessons a week, a very good general outline may be given. Sometimes, but not always, there is a special review of American history in a fourth year. Of course even better results would be achieved if some of this work could be begun at an earlier stage, especially the stories from Greek and Roman history, which are so popular in the lower grades of a school, and which, by presenting the human and picturesque aspect, stimulate a love of the subject. Here is another disadvantage of the division into primary, grammar, and high schools, each separate and independent. A course cannot

be begun in one school and finished in another. Besides, in the grammar school there is "grade" and not "subject" teaching, and so difficult a subject as history cannot be profitably taught by a teacher who has also to take every subject with her own class. In these schools, history must be confined within the narrowest limits, and the text-book must, as a rule, be the limit for teacher and pupil. The better class of private schools can, of course, aim at something higher. The need of combining subject with class teaching is beginning to be felt by educationalists, and many are expressing their desire for the appointment of college women in grammar, as well as in high schools. When this becomes general, history teaching will improve, and traditionary text-book methods gradually disappear. At any rate, the need for better teaching is acknowledged by advanced teachers, and the present state of things is thus summed up in the preface to an admirable volume—"Methods of Teaching History," in the Pedagogical Library, edited by G. Stanley Hall: "History was chosen for the subject of the first volume of this educational library, because, after much observation in the school-houses of many of the larger cities in the

eastern part of our country, the editor, without having a hobby about its relative importance, or being in any sense an expert in history, is convinced that no subject so widely taught, is, on the whole, taught so poorly. Most text-books now in use are dry compilations, and yet are far more closely adhered to than even the best should be in this department. Teachers of history generally give instruction also in several other often unrelated branches, and, worst of all perhaps, history is crowded into a single term or year."

The editor lays great stress on—first, the importance of beginning early with story-telling; second, the need of beginning historical instruction earlier, and not crowding all together into the last years of school life. For this special teachers are required. "The high educational value of history is too great to be left to teachers who merely hear recitations, keeping their finger on the place in the text-book, and only asking the questions conveniently printed for them in the margin or back of the book, teachers who know that their present method is a good illustration of how history ought not to be taught, and who would do better if opportunity were offered them."

The inductive method in the ordinary sense is not applicable to history; hence one of two methods is generally adopted—that in which the pupil does all the work, that is, learns the lesson from the text-book, and is questioned by the teacher; and that in which the teacher does the work and lectures to the pupil, dictating some notes to be committed to memory. Roughly speaking, the American method is the first, the English the second. A compromise is hard to find. It has been attempted in some colleges, and is sometimes described as the "laboratory method" in history, or better, as the method of "independent research." The plan here is to assign different topics to individual students, let them work these up in all the books at hand, and communicate the results to the class. At other times they are set to search special authors for references to subjects indicated, and to collect all the allusions that throw light on them, compare with those found by other students, and thus a class may between them, with the Professor's direction, collect all the evidence obtainable on a given subject. This is admirable training for original research, which is expected in the best universities from those who take graduate work in

history. It is not, however, a school method, and the exigencies of school work, with its multiplicity of subjects, would make this impossible, even if it were desirable. Some intelligent teachers, who are themselves historical students, induce the pupils to read, and discuss with them the results of their reading, and this work is facilitated by cheap reprints of such documents as Magna Charta, Bill of Rights, Declaration of Independence, etc., which bring them within reach of all.

It may be said that history teaching in the United States is still in the transition stage; the carefully-planned courses and elaborate methods are a counsel of perfection; they will not be found in the average school, where the text-book still holds undisputed sway, but they will penetrate some day; for the desire for better things has grown strong. It has taken root in the universities, and it will penetrate down into the schools and work a revolution there.

Teaching of Classics.

In the United States, as in most other countries, a classical education falls to the lot of the minority, but while in England the right to it is still largely a matter of class, in the United States the High

School system opens it to all who can afford sufficient time for a study which does not bear on the practical needs of life. These must always be the few, and hence, in spite of the ambition for college implanted in so many young Americans, the classical courses and Latin schools never attract as many pupils as the English substitutes. But it is interesting to note that Latin does keep an honoured place in American schools, and some of our English revolutionists would be surprised to find that the go-ahead Americans, far from throwing it overboard altogether, find a place for Latin in some of the English and scientific as well as the classical courses, and that at the newest of all Universities—the University of Chicago—Latin is compulsory for all the Academic Courses, even that in Science, and Greek as well for that in Arts. It is interesting to note that at Boston Latin is compulsory in both English and Latin schools, Greek in the Latin. At the New York Normal College, Latin is required of all students, Greek only of those that take the Academic Course. At Newhaven, Latin is required of all high school pupils except those that take the commercial course.

I believe I am right in stating that nowhere in the public schools is Latin begun in the grammar school. Here, again, the whole burden falls on the high school. Three or four years, of which a great portion is given to other difficult subjects, are all that can be spared for Latin and Greek. In comparing the results with those obtained in England, we meet the difficulty of defining the English standard, which probably varies more in classics than in any other subject, while the teaching given to boys and girls is very different. Of course there is nothing in the American high schools that can be compared with the achievements of our great public schools, which boys enter from good preparatory schools; but again in many of our inferior schools the results in classics bear no proportion to the time spent on them. Perhaps the boys and girls in the American High School can best be compared with the girls in our own High Schools, who, though they begin the study much earlier, yet have fewer lessons a week, and therefore at the end of their course have probably spent about the same amount of time on it as their American sisters. Whether it is better to begin early and learn slowly, or late and learn fast, is a disputed

question. In the American school it is not opinion, but necessity, imposed by the system of grading, that causes this late beginning. Many of the teachers regret it, and indeed the Boston plan of admitting promising pupils at an early age to the Latin schools aims at avoiding the evil. The shortness of the course necessitates the greatest economy of time. Nothing superfluous must be learned; of course there is no verse composition; practically there is no prose, though there is a good deal of retranslation of sentences from the books in reading. The study of grammar is limited to what is absolutely essential, that is chiefly accidence. The aim throughout is a reading and not a writing knowledge of the language, and all efforts are concentrated on this with a good deal of success.

Of course, teachers and pupils differ in the United States as elsewhere, and it would be impossible to pass any sweeping criticism on the teaching of Latin; but, as a rule, I found the construing good and spirited, and the knowledge of the subject matter considerable. Almost everywhere some history and literature are connected with the teaching, and the aim seemed to teach not only Greek and

Latin, but also Greece and Rome. At the Boston Latin School the historical course for Class IV., which begins Greek, is "reading Plutarch's 'Lives of Famous Greeks,' reading descriptions of and studying the great events in the history of Ancient Greece, and making oral or written reproductions or abstracts of the same." Class III. takes up Plutarch's "Roman Lives," and adds to them Macaulay's "Lays of Ancient Rome." Ancient literature is also studied wherever possible, and in some of the colleges lectures are given in this subject, not of an advanced character, but simply to supply a framework into which to fit the works read by the students. This is of great assistance in giving life to the study.

Great stress is laid on sight reading as well as on prepared translation, and this is usually taken orally in class, instead of being written work as with us. Even work set for examination is often read in this way, for it is chiefly translation that is required, with questions on subject matter, and I have never seen an American examination paper that dealt with the small points of scholarship and different readings to which so much time must be given in our schools. Exercises are usually pre-

pared by pupils, and read in class, or else written on the blackboard, each pupil taking a different sentence. There does not seem to be anything like our drill in exercises or grammar, but this is in no sense what is aimed at.

In some places an attempt has been made to teach Latin by what is called the "natural method," but this does not seem to have been a success, and it has been generally abandoned. One school which I visited had tried this plan, but was now using more accurate grammatical methods, and the superiority of the construing in the lower classes, which had been taught more grammatically, was very marked.

All the classical work is mapped out with a view to economy of time. Pupils commence with accidence, and soon begin to read. The directions for the Boston Latin Schools give this suggestion:— "Beginners should hear much easy Latin read and translated, and should read aloud the same or similar passages, and translate them into English, so that Latin words, the changes in their forms, and the force of their changes, may become familiar." Reading is the main object, and everything else subordinate to it. Syntax is largely taught in

connection with reading, and special exercise books are published to accompany certain books of Cæsar, Cicero, etc., thus enabling the reading and writing to be pursued side by side on a plan somewhat resembling that of our Parallel Grammar Series. Not much attention seems given to irregular forms, which absorb so much time in our schools. There is a good deal of retranslation, but no composition, except in very advanced classes, which are said to be doing college work. Great stress is laid on a knowledge of ancient history, institutions, etc., and photographs, maps, casts, even magic lantern slides are used to emphasize this part of the work.

In classics, as in many other subjects, much waste is saved by the careful planning of courses. I append those of the Boston Latin School, the Packer Institute, and the Cambridge Girls' School.

Latin Course at the Boston Latin School.

CLASS VI.

LATIN:—Five hours a week.

1. Forms and constructions, with exercises thereon.

2. Oral and, occasionally, written translation of (*a*) easy Latin, and (*b*) at least Books I., II., and III. of Cæsar's Gallic War. (*c*) Unprepared translation of easy Latin.

3. (*a*) Reading aloud, copying, and writing from dictation familiar passages from Cæsar. (*b*) Repeating aloud or writing passages from Cæsar that have been carefully studied and committed to memory.

4. English into Latin, including simple oral and written exercises based upon passages from Cæsar.

Class V.

Latin :—Five hours a week.

1. Regular forms, with simple exercises illustrating their use.

2. (*a*) Oral and written translation of easy Latin into English. (*b*) Unprepared translation of easy Latin with the help of the teacher.

3. (*a*) Reading aloud, copying, and writing from dictation Latin simple in construction, and composed of words familiar to the pupils. (*b*) Simple oral and written translation of English into Latin.

Class IV.

Latin :—Five hours a week.

1. Oral and, occasionally, written translation, at least, (*a*) of Books IV. and V. of Cæsar's Gallic War ; (*b*) of 1000 lines of Ovid ; and (*c*) of Book I. and a part of Book II. of the Æneid. (*d*) Unprepared translation of average passages from Cæsar and of the easier passages from Ovid.

2. (*a*) Writing from dictation, and committing to memory passages from Cæsar. (*b*) Reading metrically and committing to memory passages from Ovid.

3. English into Latin, including oral and written exercises based upon passages from Cæsar.

CLASS III.

LATIN :—Four hours a week.

1. Oral and, occasionally, written translations (*a*) of the remainder of Book II., and the whole of Books III. IV. and V. of the Æneid; (*b*) of Sallust's Catiline; and (*c*) of at least one of Nepos' Lives; (*d*) Unprepared translation of average passages from Cæsar, and of the easier passages from Sallust, Nepos, and Virgil.

2. (*a*) Writing from dictation, and committing to memory, passages from Sallust or Nepos. (*b*) Reading metrically, and committing to memory passages from Virgil.

3. English into Latin, including oral and written exercises based upon passages from Cæsar, Sallust, or Nepos.

CLASS II.

LATIN :—Four hours a week.

1. Oral and, occasionally, written translations (*a*)

of at least three more books of the Æneid and the Eclogues of Virgil; (*b*) of at least four orations of Cicero; and (*c*) of some of Nepos' Lives. (*d*) Unprepared translation of average passages from Cæsar and Nepos, and of the easier passages from Virgil and Cicero.

2. (*a*) Writing from dictation and committing to memory passages from the prose writers studied; and (*b*) reading metrically and committing to memory passages from Virgil.

3. English into Latin, including oral and written exercises based upon passages from Cæsar, Nepos, or Cicero.

Class I.

Latin:—Four hours a week.

1. Prepared and unprepared translations, oral and written, from Virgil and Cicero.

2. (*a*) Writing from dictation and committing to memory passages from Cicero; and (*b*) reading metrically and committing to memory passages from Virgil.

3. English into Latin, including oral and written exercises based upon passages from Nepos and Cicero.

Latin Course at the Cambridge School for Girls.

1. Lindsay and Rollins' Easy Latin Lessons. Reading of connected stories.

2. Cæsar's Gallic War begun, together with a systematic study of Latin Grammar. The contemporary Roman history in its relation to Cæsar is kept in view as far as possible. A written translation every week.

3. Parts either of the Gallic War or the Civil War are read the first term, and the grammatical study is continued. Later Virgil is taken up, and several books of the Æneid and some of the Eclogues are read.

4. Six of Cicero's most important orations are read carefully with reference to the contemporary history. Parts of Sallust's Catiline are read in connection with Cicero's orations against Catiline.

5. Cicero and Virgil are read more extensively than in previous years. The course is in preparation for the advanced elective in Latin in the college examinations.

6. Work in Cicero, Livy, and Terence corresponding to the work of the Freshman year in Harvard College. The Course prepares its students to enter the Sophomore Latin classes of the college. Pupils

who do not expect to enter college may take this course, if qualified.

7. Latin composition. In preparation for the examination for admission to college.

Packer Institute.

First and Second Years :—

Elements of grammar, four books of Cæsar, Cicero's First Oration against Catiline, prose composition begun.

Third and Fourth Years :—

Other orations of Cicero, parts of Virgil and Horace, prose composition[1] completed.

Fifth and Sixth Years :—

Selections from Livy, Juvenal, Pliny, Cicero's philosophical works and Roman histories.

The two last are private schools, which lay great stress on classics, and the smaller classes and greater liberty enable them to achieve more than can be done by most of the public schools. The Boston Latin School has a six years' course (see page 15). The last two years' work at the Cambridge School and Packer Institute is classed as college work, and

[1] Of course the term "prose composition" is not used in the sense we give it.

pupils who have done this are admitted with advanced standing. As an example of an ordinary three years' course, I give the Latin course at the Maryland High Schools.

First Year:—

Latin grammar and reader.

Second Year:—

Cæsar, three books.

Third Year:—

Virgil, Æneid, four books, Sallust, Conspiracy of Catiline.

As an example of a Greek course, I quote that of the Boston Latin Schools.

Class III.

Greek:—Five hours a week.

1. Forms, with simple exercises illustrating their use.

2. (*a*) Oral and written translation of easy Greek into English. (*b*) Oral translation of, at least, a part of Book I. of the Anabasis. (*c*) Unprepared translation of easy Greek, with the help of the teacher.

3. (*a*) Reading aloud, copying, and writing from dictation Greek, simple in construction, and composed of words familiar to the pupils. (*b*) Simple

oral and written translation of English into Greek, including exercises based upon passages from Book I. of the Anabasis.

CLASS II.

GREEK:—Five hours a week.

1. Forms and idioms, with exercises thereon.

2. (*a*) Oral and written translations of, at least, Books I.–IV. of the Anabasis or its equivalent. (*b*) Unprepared translation of simple Attic prose. (*c*) Reading aloud, writing from dictation, and committing to memory familiar passages from Greek.

3. English into Greek, including oral and written exercises based upon passages from Xenophon.

CLASS I.

GREEK:—Four and a half hours a week.

1. Either translations from Homer, including unprepared translations of average and easier passages; or translations from both Homer and Herodotus, including unprepared translations of the easier passages.

2. Reading metrically and committing to memory passages from Homer.

3. English into Greek, including oral and written exercises based upon passages from Xenophon.

Teaching of Modern Languages.

In modern languages the same difficulty of late beginning has to be faced, and here it is the more to be regretted, as much trouble is taken to impart a speaking knowledge of the language, often by methods which, delightful to young children, are not quite suitable for older ones. I heard an admirable lesson on the Berlitz method, in which no English was spoken, and the objects in the room were used as far as possible to provide subjects for conversation; but the children were too old for this, and the sense of absurdity checked their power of expression. Such teaching could be introduced with very great advantage into the public schools, and indeed in New York German is taught, and often very successfully, by German teachers. Except that the natural methods seem to have won a wider popularity in the United States than in England, I do not think there are any essential differences between our methods of teaching modern languages; but we carry our girls further in them. Sight translation of moderately easy French and German is generally the end aimed at in the United States high schools. There is no literature, or composition, or advanced grammar. The college entrance re-

quirement is usually sight translation, sometimes accompanied with very easy questions in grammar. It is desired that students should be able to use reference books in French or German if required, and the teaching is directed to this end. Sometimes the lesson is given in the foreign language, and this is helpful in familiarizing the pupil with the sound, though not much is really gained by it, as it is often a mere repetition of the same phrases.

At the Boston Latin School French or German is studied for three years. These directions are given:—

"Pupils should, with the help of the teacher, read, at the outset, French or German, and translate it into English. They should be trained to observe forms and idioms, and the force of these; and thus should acquire some real knowledge of the foreign language before they begin to study its formal grammar."

Sight translation is usually taken from a continuous narrative, and not selected passages, as with us. The continuous reading is particularly useful at first, as children becoming familiar with one style soon read with some ease, and thus gradually acquire a grasp of the language. The aim is not to

read, re-read, and re-translate one particular set book, but to read a great deal, until the words and idioms of the new language sink into the mind. The object is to learn the language, not to get up a book. There is so much that is good in the American modern language teaching, that it is impossible not to hope that some day it may be begun lower down in the schools, and thus achieve its best results. I quote the French and German courses at the Bryn Mawr School and the German at Washington High School, where French is not taught.

Bryn Mawr School.

FRENCH:—The whole course lasts six years, with four lessons a week.

CLASS I.:—

Vocabulary learnt through words written on the board. Practice in question and answer is given on these. Some poetry is learnt and short stories; *avoir* and *être;* little games played in French.

CLASS II.:—

Cogery's Elementary French, short exercises and vocabulary learnt through these; exercises worked orally and then written, auxiliary verbs and four conjugations. Book

read: "Mémoires d'un âne." Answers in French to questions. Games and exercises in writing letters.

CLASS III.:—

Chardenal's First French Course, case, gender, etc., feminines and plurals, verbs irregular; Book read, "Le Roi des Montagnes."

CLASS IV.:—

Chardenal continued, construction of sentences, irregular verbs finished; Book read, Daudet, "Lettres de mon Moulin."

CLASS V.:—

Demogeot: Extracts of French writers in the sixteenth century to our day, prose and poetry, set translation, review irregular verbs, and work to end of Chardenal.

CLASS VI.:—

Five lessons a week.

Selections read from different authors, a large vocabulary acquired; Bué, French idioms.

GERMAN:—Four lessons a week.

CLASS I.:—

Nouns, adjectives, possessive and personal pronouns, easy conjugating, strong verbs, reading

short stories with questions given in German, a few poems learnt.

CLASS II. :—

Exercises, largely oral. Reading Schiller: die Glocke and Wilhelm Tell; short stories used for sight reading, some poems learnt.

CLASS III. :—

Grammar reviewed. Reading Goethe's Iphigenie, and Kluge's Literature.

CLASS IV. :—

Optional; literature and conversation.

Washington High School.

FIRST YEAR :—

Bernhardt's Sprach and Lesebuch, Vol. I.; conversation, writing German, stories. Storm's Immensee. One hundred and eighty hours.

SECOND YEAR :—

Bernhardt's Sprachbuch, Vol. II.; Im Zwielicht, Vol. I.; Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur, conversation, composition, grammar. One hundred and forty-four hours.

THIRD YEAR :—

Bernhardt's Goethe's Meisterwerke; Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur; conversation, ad-

vanced composition, grammar. One hundred and forty-four hours.

FOURTH YEAR :—

Sheldon's German Grammar, Goethe's Meisterwerke complete, selections from Schiller, Lessing's Nathan der Weise.

CHAPTER IV

MANUAL TRAINING

This is the name used in America for instruction in hand-work, given for educational purposes, and is really preferable to our English term, "technical education." The word "technical" implies acquaintance with the details of a particular trade or profession, and it is an anomaly to have it stated in our Technical Instruction Act that "it shall not include the teaching the practice of any trade, or industry, or employment." This anomaly is the cause of much confusion, and it even hampers to some extent the work of our Technical Institutes, since one section of the community regards them as training schools for trades, and another as continuation schools, where the chief aim is a development of the hand and eye. The Americans define sharply between manual training and technical education, and gain thereby the advantages that belong to greater definiteness of aim.

There are three objects that may be sought by the pupil in manual work.

I. Education: the purpose being the harmonious development of the faculties. This is the aim of the manual training high school, and of course of the kindergarten. Attempts are now being made in many parts of the States to bridge over the gap between the kindergarten and the high school by a continuous and carefully developed course of manual exercises interwoven with the ordinary school work. This training in the kindergarten, primary, and grammar schools is for all. The manual training high school marks the first step in specialization, and the point when the pupil must decide whether his further education is to be on the practical and scientific, or literary and classical side.

II. Technical skill in the various branches of industrial and domestic art, handicrafts, and mechanical trades. This is the work of trade schools, of which some few exist in America. They labour under considerable disadvantages, owing to the hostile attitude of the local trades' unions; still they are gradually making way, and doing something to replace the system of apprenticeship, which is non-existent in the States. This is also the character of

a great part of the work done in those magnificent foundations known as the Drexel, Pratt, and Armour Institutes.

III. Special instruction given to those who wish to supplement the training of school by attention to particular branches of manual training. This work is somewhat of the character of that done at our Polytechnics and Technical Institutes, and by many classes held under the direction of the County Councils. This is given in the institutes already named, and also in many others ; thus, classes for cookery and dressmaking, woodwork, etc., are held by the guilds in connection with the churches in most American cities, and by the Young Men's and Women's Christian Associations, which are established on an extremely broad basis, and admit to the benefits of such classes Christians of every shade of belief, and even Jews and Freethinkers.

Of these the first class is the only one directly concerned in secondary education.

The subject of manual training is at present exciting great interest in America. This is due largely to a feeling of reaction in a country where hand-work has for long been completely without honour, and labour was both dear and bad, and the

workman's pride in his work almost unknown. With this feeling prevalent, the great development of the schools, with their exclusively mental training, was a doubtful blessing both to the individual and the community. Indeed an American writer thus describes the situation :—"Our system of education trains boys, not to become craftsmen, but to be unwilling to be put to any kind of craft." Gradually the idea gained ground that the schools themselves should be used as a means of combating this evil. Gradually too, the idea spread that it was the harmonious development of body and mind that was required, and when once this was fully grasped, the Americans set to work with their usual energy to provide a remedy. To quote from the address given at the Chicago Educational Conference by Dr. Woodward, Director of the Manual Training School, St. Louis :—"Manual training, as an educational factor, owed its existence to a widespread conviction that the attention of the schools has been dealing too exclusively with the abstract and the remote, and not enough with the concrete and present. The thought-product of the schools was too dim and uncertain, and the knowledge gained had no sufficient bearing on matters of daily life. Consequently, the

pupil lacked mental vigour and clearness, and his school experience was deficient in practical elements. Manual training embodies prominently the modern idea of substituting things for words, observation for printed description, and personal experience for the recorded experience of others." This new impulse to the schools spread upwards and downwards; it led on the one hand to the endowment by generous millionaires of the splendid institutes already mentioned, on the other to the spread of the kindergarten movement, which has found such favour in some American cities as to be almost a religion to its most ardent votaries. The whole salvation of the child—moral, mental, and physical—is to be sought in the kindergarten.

I am not aware that anything very new has been introduced into the kindergarten in the United States, but energetic attempts are being made to make the transition from kindergarten to primary work less sharp, and to carry Froebel's principles up beyond the kindergarten stage. This is at present engaging the attention of many practical teachers, and formed an important part of the discussion at the Chicago Conference. Different schools have different methods. Work in cardboard, paper-fold-

ing, etc., is popular in some, clay-modelling in others; woodwork of an easy kind, by Slöjd or other systems, is popular, but this is chiefly left to the grammar grades.

I quote a few courses to show how the problem has been handled by different schools. I give the boys' as well as the girls' work, because the former has been as yet far better worked out than the latter, and also because there is much in it that might be adapted to the use of girls :—

The Colorado State Normal School teaches Slöjd from the kindergarten to the high school.

1. Stick-laying, paper-folding, cutting, pasting, sewing, clay-modelling, etc.

2. Geometric solids and objects involving them, made in paper and paste-board.

3. Moulding and carving, in putty, clay, and paraffin.

4. Work in thin wood with tools.

5. Work in thick wood.

Here the word "Slöjd" is obviously used in its original sense of "skill," and not in the narrower sense of making a particular series of models in woodwork.

The Jewish School at Chicago teaches :—

1. Slöjd from grades eight to five.
2. Cardboard work from eight to five.
3. Woodwork for boys, four to one.
4. Machine-work for boys, two and one.
5. Sewing for girls, eight to one.
6. Cutting for girls, four to one.
7. Domestic economy, two and one.

N.B.—Here the first grade is the highest.

The Working-man's School at New York gives form lessons and manual work to boys and girls in the first and second grades. In the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, the boys do more advanced manual work, mechanical drawing, etc., and the girls sewing and easy dressmaking.

Clay-modelling is taught from the second to the eighth grades. In this last they model heads from casts.

Designing is taught from the fifth to the eighth grades, accompanied by studies in historic ornament.

Freehand drawing is taught from the third to the eighth grades.

In Washington, Brookline, Brooklyn, and Boston, the kindergarten work is continued in the primary grades by stick and canvas laying, paper-cutting and folding, clay-modelling, working in cardboard,

drawing and designing. Sewing for the girls is but slowly making its way into the schools. The diversity of American systems allows, of course, an infinite variety; each state—or in some states each town—is at liberty to take up or neglect manual training as it pleases; and as it is just now one of the burning questions of American education, the war between the advocates of manual training, generally known by their adversaries as the "faddists," and its opponents, is being very eagerly waged. As far as it is possible to prophesy, after so short a stay in the country, I am inclined to think that the manual training advocates will carry the day, and that the education which tends to train both mind and hand will be more and more firmly established throughout the States.

Among interesting experiments in manual work for primary and grammar grades, I note the following:—

Slöjd.—The Slöjd work, as taught at Nääs, in Sweden, under Dr. Salamon, is too well known in England to require detailed description. Excellent as are its aims, it has not taken a very strong hold in English schools. There can be little doubt that this is due to its being a system adapted to the

needs of a very different country, and to the inelastic methods of transplanting that system bodily into England without regard to our different circumstances. The Swedish theory that Slöjd should be taught by the ordinary class teacher, combined with the English theory that the teacher must be trained in Sweden, must necessarily hinder the spread of Slöjd. Other objections are: its unsuitableness for class teaching, the unsatisfactoriness of the models, and the slight acquaintance with tools possessed by teachers after a short course of six or twelve weeks' training.

In 1887, an attempt was made at Boston to introduce Slöjd by way of an experiment. At first the system was imported ready-made from Sweden, and failed altogether through lack of interest in the pupils. In 1888 a new teacher, fresh from Sweden, took the work in hand, and proceeded to adapt it to American needs. His first step was to change the models, many of which are totally meaningless to English and American boys. Objects used in American life were introduced, many of the earlier models were made larger than the Swedish, and care was taken to avoid too monotonous repetition of an exercise or form. Next the working

prints were abolished, from which the pupils had simply copied the drawings on the wood, and they were required to make and work from their own drawings on paper. This added immensely to the educational value of the work. The small classes of ten or fifteen were found quite useless, when it became a question of really embodying Slöjd in the school system; a successful attempt was made to teach classes of twenty or thirty, and by careful arrangement of the benches, it was found possible to work this. To avoid the serious expense of fitting up workshops in the individual schools, a system of centres has been adopted at Boston. Here workshops have been fitted up, and these are attended on different days by boys from different public schools. An interesting centre in a very poor district, is the industrial school at North Bennett Street. This, like much of the best educational work at Boston, was started by Mrs. Quincey Shaw, and afterwards made over to the town. Classes from different schools attend here once a week for lessons of two hours. The boys learn shoemaking, printing, or carpentering. The carpentering here is a mixed system of Slöjd and joint-work. It has a somewhat more practical tendency than the or-

dinary Slöjd work, and is meant for boys who will early have to earn their living, and may wish to take up carpentering as a trade.

Another variety was introduced last year, namely, a course of models, beginning with saw work. Some large models were made first, as being really easier, and the knife brought in later on. Another experiment was to bring the work into the ordinary schoolroom, thus obviating the expense of special workshops. The apparatus for this consists simply in a small tray or board, 19 inches by 13 inches, with a wooden rim, two triangles, dividers, rules, file, and a knife with a stout handle and a blade an inch and a half long. Very thin board is used; the object to be made is first drawn upon it, and then cut out with the knife, and the various parts are put together in some permanent form.

Similar in its aim is a course of whittling in wood, accompanied by simple exercises in mechanical drawing. This course is given in the regular schoolroom to the whole class. A desk cover table has been designed to fit on the regular school desk, containing a drawer with a block of paper $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches by $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches, ruler, try-square, pencil, Slöjd knife, compasses, gimlet, and a sand-paper block.

In most of the Boston schools the actual Slöjd work is confined to the second grammar grade; but the expedients described above with cardboard work, paper-folding, etc., afford excellent and cheaper opportunities for manual development in the lower grades. There is no definite system laid down for all Boston schools, but considerable freedom of choice is allowed, and different plans are purposely tried, with a view to testing the efficiency of each.

The system of centres facilitates the appointment of specialist teachers, and makes a longer and more careful training possible than would be the case were the already overburdened form teacher expected to add another to a long list of teaching subjects. The requisites for a teacher's diploma are:—

1. The satisfactory completion of thirty-one models.

2. Proof of ability to make and use working drawings, and of skill in the sharpening and care of tools.

3. Evidence of teaching ability.

4. A short essay on the theory and educational value of manual training, written in class.

The conditions of entering the training class are :—

1. Graduation from a Normal school, or training and experience, which is considered as an equivalent.

2. Twenty-five hours a week for six months must be given to the study of the theory and practice of educational manual training.

3. Students are received on probation. Those showing little aptitude for the work will be advised to discontinue the course.

As yet no attempt has been made at Boston to teach girls Slöjd. In the manual training department of the New York Normal College, I saw a class of students working at it. They used some Swedish and some American models, and those who showed inventive power were encouraged to devise and work out fresh models for themselves. The blackboard was largely used in explaining and illustrating, and the class, although small, seemed to be full of life and interest. I was told that the demand for Slöjd teachers was very small in New York, and that there was little inducement for the students to take it up. Indeed, manual work has not yet gained much ground in the public schools there.

Philadelphia, though in many respects behind-hand in educational matters, has made an excellent start in this direction. In fact, it was really here that manual work first originated in the States, and this was largely due to the efforts of Mr. Charles Leland, who is chiefly known in this country as a writer, and is probably most popular as the author of the "Breitmann Ballads." It was he who chiefly influenced the Board of Education to introduce hand-work into the public schools, and, in conjunction with Mr. Liberty Tadd, who still directs the school, he worked out a scheme of instruction. The fact that seventeen different methods were tried and rejected before the inventors were satisfied, shows the earnestness with which they grappled with the problem. To quote Mr. Liberty Tadd's own words: "Only after striving and struggling up above the use of instruments of precision, rules, compasses, mechanical methods, etc., could we recognise the futility of their use in developing the mind, the judgment, and the hand; only by trying, testing, and proving the fallacy of the old methods, did we emerge into the light of better ways. Flat copies, feeble art methods, abuse of geometric forms and blocks (making blockheads),

false, artificial, and unnatural systems, devised for money-making purposes, were tried and proved wanting."

The special points of this system are these:—

1. All work is freehand.

2. Much work is done by pupils on the blackboard, to promote freedom and firmness of hand.

3. Pupils are taught to use both right and left hands, sometimes alternately and sometimes together, in particular in drawing symmetrical figures and pairs of circles on the blackboard.

4. Imitation is avoided.

5. All work in wood, clay, etc., must be done from original designs.

Unfortunately, I was unable to visit the Industrial Art School at Philadelphia, but the exhibits were so admirably arranged at the World's Fair, that it was possible to get a very good idea of the system, with the help of the Director who was in charge. Some little girls who were present illustrated the work, and one little one, not much above kindergarten age, showed the greatest delight in drawing on the board, and seemed willing to go on indefinitely. It is worth noting that this work could not be done at all without the ample supply of blackboard

so common in America. The advantage of space when working to obtain freedom of movement is so obvious, that I do not believe any teacher who had once seen the equipment of an American school, would ever again rest content with an English allowance of blackboard. The difference in value of a drawing lesson in which it is possible for teacher and pupil to work before the whole class, and let the work stand till the end of a lesson, and the English plan, where the teacher alone can use the few inches of board, and must rub out the work before any one has had time to look at it, is just the difference between economy and waste of power.

This Industrial Art School is attended by pupils of the primary and grammar schools, but attempts to bring the work into the schools themselves have been attended with considerable success. Classes in drawing, modelling, and carving have been established for teachers in the public schools. The American plan of keeping each teacher entirely to her grade facilitates matters here, as special attention is paid in each course to the nature of the instruction required in the particular grade over which the teacher presides. Certificates are furnished to teachers finishing the required courses.

It is found that sufficient teachers apply voluntarily for instruction to facilitate the gradual introduction of the system into the schools without much friction. With regard to expenses, it has been calculated that the working of the system costs, on an average, from two to four dollars for each pupil per annum, that is, from 8*s.* 4*d.* to 16*s.* 8*d.* of our money. This is much cheaper than any other American system of manual training—Slöjd, for instance, involving very serious expenses in the way of benches and tools. But money is seldom an insuperable difficulty in America, for if once the Educational Board is convinced of the need of a reform, it is generally ready enough to vote the money. I append a table of the courses of instruction (pp. 114, 115).

One of the most fully developed schemes of handwork is the Prang system of drawing, which prevails through a great part of the States. It owes its name to Mr. Louis Prang, a German refugee of 1848, who has succeeded in happily combining German pedagogy with the American practical spirit. This work is really the outcome of the Boston Normal School of Art, which was started in 1870 on the lines of South Kensington. For ten

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE INDUSTRIAL ART SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA.

Class D, 1st Term.

First Year.	1st Month.	2nd Month.	3rd Month.	4th Month.
Elementary Drawing and Designing. Blackboard Drawing. Model and Object Drawing. Clay Modelling. Wood Carving.	Non-Imitative and elementary line work. Units of above. Simple Geometrical forms in linear.	Non-Imitative and elementary forms.	Conventional forms. Units of above. Plant and Vase forms.	Linear, square, straight, and angle cutting.

Class C, 2nd Term.

First Year.	5th Month.	6th Month.	7th Month.	8th Month.
Elementary Drawing and Designing. Blackboard Drawing. Model and Object Drawing. Clay Modelling. Wood Carving.	Plant forms. Units of above. Animal forms.	Conventional and Plant forms.	Combination of preceding forms. Units. Arrangements of preceding forms.	Simple low relief.

Class B, 3rd Term.

Second Year.	1st Month.	2nd Month.	3rd Month.	4th Month.
Drawing and Designing. Blackboard Drawing. Model and Object Drawing. Clay Modelling. Wood Carving.	Greek elements and style. Units of above. Geometric forms in Perspective.	Elements used in drawing for the preceding month.	Roman elements and style. Units of above. Plant or Vase forms in Perspective.	High and low relief in style.

Class A, 4th Term.

Second Year.	5th Month.	6th Month.	7th Month.	8th Month.
Drawing and Designing. Blackboard Drawing. Model and Object Drawing. Clay Modelling. Wood Carving.	Moresque elements and style. Units of above. Animal forms foreshortened.	Elements used in drawing for the preceding month.	Gothic elements and style. Units of above. Arrangements of preceding forms.	Original panel.

years it continued in this manner, without making much impression on the schools. Then Mr. Prang, who was one of the directors, made an effort to abolish the old-fashioned methods, and work out a system which should be more in harmony with educational principles and the needs of class instruction. A number of able teachers joined him in the attempt to develop a system which should be firmly founded in kindergarten methods; and from the first the work has had the advantage of being under the direction of a number of practical teachers. The scheme has been gradually organized and developed in view of the actual needs of the schools, and at present it provides for eight years' instruction in the primary and grammar schools.

The work of the first two years is closely linked on to the kindergarten, in fact, we might say it is actual kindergarten work. It is known as "form study from objects." The purpose of this form study is "to build up in the child's mind clear and correct conceptions of form as a basis for thinking and doing." The forms are presented to the children in such a manner as to lead them to grasp the idea of types. Thus, beginning with Froebel's "Second Gift," the first year's study takes in the

sphere, cube, cylinder, hemisphere, square prism, right-angled triangular prism. The second year adds to this the ellipsoid, ovoid, equilateral triangular prism, cone, square pyramid, vase. The children study these by the help of sight and touch, and are then allowed to express the results of their observations in various ways:—

1. Stating in words clearly and correctly what they see.
2. Modelling the objects in clay.
3. Making them in cardboard.
4. Tablet and stick-laying to express the parts.
5. Paper-folding and cutting.
6. Freehand drawing.

As drawing is looked on in these early stages rather as a mode of expression than an attempt to present perfect form, the children's work is very little criticised, and no attempt is made to correct it. They are merely encouraged to express themselves as clearly as they can by means of clay, pencil, etc.

From the third year onwards all the work is arranged under three heads :—Construction, Representation, Decoration.

Construction includes "the study of the facts of

form in their relation to each other as observed in types and in common objects, the presentation by drawing of these facts so arranged as to convey definite ideas of form, size, and structure of the objects in their reality, the making of objects from drawings, and the application of this study and drawing in elementary constructive design."

"Representation includes the study of the appearance of form in objects viewed under various conditions, and in various relations; the expression by drawing of ideas derived from such study, and the application of this study and drawing in elementary pictorial composition or representative design."

"Decoration:—This includes the study of beauty in geometric form, in historic ornament, and in natural forms; the expression of this beauty by modelling, paper-cutting, and drawing, and the adaptation of beautiful geometric, historic and natural forms to purposes of decorative drawing."

Construction has in view the constructive arts, representation the representative arts, decoration the decorative arts.

Under the heading of Construction comes the following:—

1. Form study in models and objects.

2. Pattern-making from models and objects.

3. View drawings and working drawings.

4. Conventions of constructive design.

5. Constructive design.

The means of expression in constructive design are :—

1. Freehand drawing (particularly in the lower grades).

2. Instrumental drawing in the higher grades.

3. Making simple objects in paper, card-board, wood, etc.

The work in Construction is thus the proper foundation for any kind of manual training, and leads, by a gradual process of transition, from the kindergarten to the manual training high school or workshop.

Under the heading of Representation come the following :—

1. Form study, leading to the discovery of the principles of perspective.

2. Outline drawing.

3. Rapid sketching.

4. Drawing in light and shade.

5. Study of good examples.

6. Pictorial use of colour.

7. Representative design, *i.e.* pictorial composition.

As yet, not much has been done in shading or the pictorial use of colour in the eight grades for which the course is mapped out. These subjects are more fully treated in the high school, for which the course is being gradually arranged.

Under Decoration are included :—

1. Study of typical forms of beauty as found in historic ornaments.

2. The study of elementary principles of decoration.

3. Adaption of natural forms to decorative design.

4. Type forms and geometric arrangement in their relation to decorative design.

5. Creation of the beautiful in ornament by the pupil himself through the use of geometric, historic, and natural forms, in accordance with decorative principles derived from geometric and historic ornament.

A very important feature in this part of the work is the study of historic ornament brought into connection with styles of architecture, and closely related to some study of the nations that express themselves in these styles.

The drawing in schools is brought into connection with many other studies; for instance, language, arithmetic, nature study, geography, history, etc., and it is also the basis of all manual training work. It is treated as a mode of expression more natural to the child than writing, and the desire common to most children to draw on note-book, desk, etc., is utilised and turned into its proper channel by encouraging them to illustrate their written work, to tell stories in pictures, in fact, to use the pencil as freely as the pen.

Much of the work exhibited at the World's Fair was excellent.

The plan of combining drawing with other teaching necessitates some knowledge of the subject on the part of all teachers, and in order to help those whose training in the subject has been insufficient, a correspondence class has been organized, by which the ordinary grade teachers are trained in the methods of the Prang system. A scheme of circuit instruction and supervision has also been devised. Circuits of from four to seven places are put under one supervisor, who visits each place in the circuit seven times during the school period from September to June. During these visits teachers receive

instruction, hear lessons given by the supervisor, and generally obtain help and direction. Thus the directors of the work are kept in sympathy with all the teachers. The Pratt Institute now carries on normal classes in the Prang system, and many teachers are trained there.

Like all American schemes of instruction, the work suffers rather from over-direction than the opposite. Minute manuals are published for the use of teachers, and there are special drawing-books for the pupils, which often supply external aids; for instance, points from which to start work, flat copies, something like what the pupil has to produce, etc. These drawing-books have led to some controversy, resulting in the temporary abandonment of the system in the Boston schools, but they are not an essential part of the scheme. When the work has been thoroughly taken up by training colleges and by technical institutes, teachers will be able to dispense with many of these artificial helps; and the real value will increase rather than diminish thereby.

Sewing for girls is taught in some towns, but not as generally as with us. I had some opportunities of inspecting this work, and did not think that, as a whole, it was either as well-planned or executed as

that of our English schools. This opinion seemed shared by the teachers, who told me that children coming fresh from England, and entering the schools, were always remarkable for the excellence of their sewing. I append a six years' course of sewing in the Philadelphia schools :—

Synopsis of the Course of Instruction and Training in Sewing for Girls' Schools.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

FIFTH GRADE :—Five months.

Position of the pupils while engaged in sewing.

The proper use of the thimble finger, first finger and thumb of the right hand. Position of the left hand for holding the work. Drill in the same.

Exercises in the action of taking a stitch and drawing the thread through the material.

Drill in the threading of the needle. (Needles and thread may be given out at the beginning of the lesson.)

Turning, basting, and sewing plain hems. Attention to be given to accuracy in width of hems and size of stitches used in basting and hemming. Correct use of the scissors (paper may be supplied for this purpose).

Over-seaming on turned edges; the raw edges may be turned in and hemmed down.

If more material is needed than that furnished by the Board of Education, towels, wash-rags, and similar articles may be hemmed.

SIXTH GRADE:—Five months.

Questions and exercises in the use of thimble, scissors, threading the needle, the direction of the needle as used in basting and sewing a hem. Time for these exercises, five minutes.

Over-seaming, with explanations and exercise in joining a new or broken thread.

Running seam, composed of one running and one back-stitch; the raw edges to be overcast.

Cutting out and making simple articles, *e.g.*, children's bibs, plain over-sleeves.

Work brought from home may be table-napkins, towels, bags, desk-covers, and pillow-slips.

SEVENTH GRADE:—Five months.

Questions on position, the proper use of the thimble and scissors. Exercise in threading the needle. Questions on the direction of the needle when used in basting, hemming and over-seaming. Time for this exercise, five minutes.

Reversible seam.

Plain fell, sewed with running stitches, strengthened by an occasional back-stitch, and finished with hemming.

Back-stitched seam overcast on the raw edges. Patching commenced.

Cutting out of plain under-waists without seam under arm.

Work brought from home may be towels, table-napkins, pillow-slips, ruffles to hem, bags and worn articles that may need patching.

EIGHTH GRADE :—Five months.

Questions on the work of lower grades. Time for this exercise, five minutes.

Plain fell repeated. Gathering, placing or stroking the same.

Sewing the gathers into a band, using half back-stitching ; the band finished with hemming.

Darning commenced. Work to consist of stocking darning and dress darning.

Cutting out patterns of under-waists and aprons of all kinds.

Work brought from home may be aprons, under-waists, combing-towels, shoe-bags, ruffles to hem and gather, darning and mending.

GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

NINTH GRADE:—One year.

Narrow hems; hems of medium and broad widths.

Tucks. Threads should not be drawn from the material to secure straight tucking.

Narrow plain fells. French fells.

Fine gathering, hemmed to a band.

Button-holes. Gussets.

Shirt, or other four-holed, buttons sewn on.

Stocking mending and patching.

Cutting out and making drawers from actual measurements.

Shoe-bags, sleeves, aprons, muslin skirts, and plain under-garments may be brought from home to be made and kept in school until finished.

TENTH GRADE:—One year.

Bias seams of all kinds.

Gathering, as done on dress skirts, to be over-seamed to a band.

The two stitches used on flannel under-garments, viz., herring-bone stitch and feather stitch.

Button-holes.

Cutting out and making gored skirts.

Children's plain underwear, boys' shirt-waists, collars and cuffs, dusting-caps and plain flannel skirts may be supplied from home.

Mending of all kinds must be encouraged by the teacher.

ELEVENTH GRADE:—One year.

Questions and review of all work done in previous grades.

Paper patterns drawn and cut for undergarments from actual measurements.

Material for such garments brought from home and cut out in school. Pupils taught to place the patterns properly and economically on the muslin.

Work basted and fitted on the pupils.

TWELFTH GRADE:—One year.

Review of all work done in previous grades.

Pupils should be required to decide which seams should be used for the several parts of garments cut and made in this grade.

First steps in dressmaking.

Method of basting lining and material together, for dress waists and sleeves. Trying on and fitting the same.

Adjusting facings to lined, gored skirts, sewing on braid, etc.

In Cookery teaching, as in so many other good works, Boston took the lead, and here again the effort was made by private individuals; and only after the work was established and made a success was it handed over to the town. The credit of this is almost entirely due to Mrs. Quincey Shaw. In the year 1883 she offered to give pupils in certain schools free training in cookery, housekeeping, and laundry work for girls; and printing, shoemaking, and carpentry for boys. In May, 1885, classes for cooking were begun, and in October a regular cookery school, with one hundred and fifty pupils, was opened here, and a second in another part of the town. These were the pioneer schools in the country; and Boston became the centre of cookery, and sent out teachers to other towns which followed its lead. Other schools were started by private enterprise, and gradually one by one taken over by the towns.

Cookery is taught in the grammar grades at Boston, Philadelphia, Newhaven, and many other towns. The system of teaching was imported from England, and does not differ much from that in use at our elementary schools. A great convenience is an arrangement by which gas-pipes are made to pass

along the whole length of the tables, with burners at intervals, covered by little gratings; so that two pupils can share the use of one of these burners, and thus do their cooking without moving backwards and forwards to the other stoves. Of course this only adds to the facility of the pupil's work, which is already made much easier than it can possibly be at home; and amid the present out-cry against gas-stoves for cooking classes, it would hardly be likely to find favour in this country. I append the course in use at the Newhaven Cookery School.

1. Food, its uses. Why we cook our food. Making and care of fire. Kitchen utensils, how to use them. Questions.

2. Rules for housekeepers. Rules for cleaning dishes, etc. Care of kitchen. Receipts for baked potatoes. Croutons. Bread crumbs. Questions.

3. Classification of bread. How to measure. Table of weights and measures. Abbreviations. Receipts for baked crackers. Baked crackers with cheese. Cracker brewis. Questions.

4. Cooking in boiling water. Difference between boiling and simmering. Composition of potato. Preparing vegetables for cooking. Time of cooking vegetables. Receipts for boiled potatoes. Rice

potato. Mashed potato. Potato cakes. Boiled eggs. Questions.

5. Steaming and other forms of cooking in boiling water. Combination of food. Milk. Use of double boiler. How to make one. Receipts for oatmeal mush. Baked apples. Steamed rice. Soft custard. Coddled eggs. Questions.

6. Meats. Classes of meat. How to tell good beef. Care of meat. How to use different cuts of meat. General rule for cooking all meat. Draw in note-books diagram of ox; divide it into the different cuts. Write name of each piece. How used. Receipts. Boiled mutton. Gravy for mutton. Smothered beef. Clarified fat or drippings. Questions.

7. What to do with pieces of cold meat. Gravies. Sauces. Thickening. Receipts for minced meat on toast. Cottage pie. Scalloped mutton. Macaroni. Hash. Tomato sauce. White sauce. Questions.

8. Soups. Stock. General rule for stock. How to use flour in vegetable soups. Why. Receipts for soup stock. Mixed vegetable. Rice. Potato soup. Questions.

9. Bread. Yeast. How made. Chemical change that takes place in yeast bread. Time of baking.

Heat of oven. General rules for baking. Receipts for yeast bread, graham bread. Cleaning tins. Questions.

10. Invalid cookery. Cooking. Caring for invalids. Food for invalids. Tea. Digestion. Receipts for lemonade, apple water. Rhubarb water. Irish moss jelly. Milk. Porridge. Tea. Chipped ice. Questions.

11. Invalid cookery continued. Nutritious and innutritious foods. Proper proportion of food. Receipts for toast. Water toast. Milk toast. Egg nog. Beef juice. Beef tea. Ice cream. Questions.

12. Broiling. Pan broiling. Time table for broiling. First lesson in doughs. Baking powder. Action of baking powder. How to chop suet. Clean currants. Stone raisins. Receipts for broiled steak. Mutton chop. Meat cakes. Suet pudding. Ginger and fruit suet puddings. Lemon sauce. Hard sauce. Questions.

13. Stews, haricot. Ragout. Salmi. Chowder. Fricassee. Pot pie. Braising. Receipts for beef stew. Dumplings. Biscuit. Stewed prunes. Questions.

14. Rolling. Frying. General directions for mixing. Proportion of soda and acids to be used.

Receipts for corn cake. Gingerbread. Soft and hard molasses cookies. Doughnuts. Questions.

15. Care of food. Pies. Receipts for pastry. Apple pie. Custard pie. Lyonnaise potatoes. Creamed potatoes.

16. The cheapest foods. Serving. Receipts for split pea soup. Scotch broth. Steamed brown bread. Questions.

17. Poultry: to prepare poultry for cooking. Salads. Receipts for chicken fricassee. Veal fricassee. Cranberries. Boiled dressing. Bread pudding. Vanilla sauce. Tomato soup. Questions.

18. Fish. Receipts for broiled, baked, boiled, fried. Stuffing for fish. Drawn butter sauce. Egg sauce. Fish chowder. Fish balls. Questions.

19. Eggs. Cake making. Baking. Receipts for plain cake. Water sponge cake. Frosting. Omelet, Egg. Vermicelli. Opening lobster. Coffee.

20. Laying table. Waiting on the table. Table manners. Pouring coffee. Cleaning tins.

Next in order come the Manual Training High Schools, though the aim of these is still educational rather than technical. The entrance into one of these schools must usually be the turning-point in a

career. Boys and girls who attend the manual training high schools have decided against a college course, and made their choice between a theoretical and practical career. Their literary work is not ended, but it is reduced to a minimum; so are modern languages, while ancient ones are altogether discarded, and the whole tendency of the work is scientific and practical.

There are two excellent manual training high schools at Philadelphia. I visited one under the direction of Mr. Sayre. This is only for boys, but as there is much in the work that can be adapted for girls, I give the curriculum:—

Course of Study.

The course of study covers three years. The school-time of the pupils is about equally divided between literary and manual work. One hour per day is given to drawing, two hours to shop work, and three hours to the usual academic studies.

The course of study embraces five parallel lines, as follows:—

First. A course in language and literature, including the structure and use of English; composition, literature, history, economics, and German.

Second. A course in Mathematics, including

arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, analytical geometry, bookkeeping and surveying.

Third. A course of science, including geology, physics, chemistry, physiology, economic botany, mechanics, steam engineering, and applied electricity.

Fourth. A course in freehand, constructive, and architectural drawing, designing and modelling.

Fifth. A course of tool instruction, including joinery, parquetry, pattern-making, wood-turning, wood-carving, forging, soldering, ornamental iron work, moulding and casting, vice work, and mechanical construction.

I saw a good many of the boys' drawings, and was much pleased with some of the original designs and the problems worked out in the architectural drawing. As treated here, drawing is the first step in manual training and it is the practical, useful side rather than the artistic that is considered. The work is arranged under the three sub-divisions of the Prang system—Construction, Representation, and Decoration, and to these is added a course in architectural drawing. In the tool instruction, each exercise involves a mechanical principle; all articles

must be of precise forms and dimensions given in a drawing made by the pupil himself. The first year's work is partly in wood, the course including sawing, planing, squaring, chiselling, morticing, mitreing, dove-tailing, and turning. This is followed by a course in parquetry from pupil's own designs. In iron, it consists in chipping, filing, and fitting of plain and curved surfaces.

SECOND YEAR:—

1. Wood, pattern-making, moulding, and turning. Wood-carving from designs furnished by pupils.
2. Iron, course in smithing.
3. Casting in lead.

THIRD YEAR:—

Advanced course in pattern-making, vice and machine tool work. The final exercise is the construction by the class, from their own drawings, designs, and measurements, of the model of a steam engine, dynamo, or some other machine.

The Pratt Institute Manual Training High School is a school for both boys and girls, in connection with the Pratt Institute at Brooklyn. In the words of its founder: "The idea of the school is not to teach any

trade, but to educate the pupils to work patiently, systematically, and constantly in the use of hand, eye, brain." Many pupils prepare in the high school for work in the other special departments of the Institute, or for advanced scientific schools and colleges elsewhere. The organization of the high school as an integral part of the Pratt Institute greatly facilitates the equipment and teaching. The course of instruction is as follows:—

PRATT INSTITUTE.

High School Course of Instruction.

FIRST YEAR.

LANGUAGE.—Composition, English classics.

HISTORY.—Ancient.

MATHEMATICS.—Algebra, plane geometry.

SCIENCE.—Physical geography, physiology, botany.

DRAWING.—Freehand and instrumental working drawings; freehand, perspective, and cast drawing; design, developments, and intersections.

MANUAL WORK.—*For Boys:* Bench work in wood, wood-turning, pattern-making.

For Girls: Sewing, hygiene, home nursing, and wood-carving.

MUSIC.—Chorus singing.

PHYSICAL CULTURE.

Second Year.

Language.—Rhetorical analysis, English classics.

History.—Mediæval and modern.

Mathematics.—Plane and solid geometry, trigonometry, surveying.

Science.—Physics, with laboratory practice.

Drawing.—Historic ornament, clay-modelling, sketching, and design, mechanical and architectural drawing, pen-and-ink sketching.

Manual Work.—*For Boys:* Foundry moulding, tinsmithing, forging.

For Girls: Dressmaking, wood-carving.

Music.—Chorus singing.

Physical Culture.

Third Year.

Language.—English literature, essays, French or German.

History.—Modern.

Civics.—Political economy.

Mathematics.—Principles of construction.

Science.—Chemistry, with laboratory practice; metallurgy.

Drawing.—*For Boys:* Advanced freehand and mechanical drawing.

For Girls: Cast drawing, pen-and-ink sketching, water colour and design.

Manual Work.—*For Boys:* Machine shop, vice work; machine tool work, construction.

For Girls: Cooking, dressmaking, millinery.

Music.—Chorus singing.

Physical Culture.

School hours are from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m., with an interval of half an hour for lunch. The day is divided into six working periods, and about three hours a day are given to home work. This amount appears somewhat excessive, especially for girls. Nine hours a day given to school work, with scarcely any interval for exercise, games, or recreation, must be a very severe strain, and it is difficult to believe that this can be counteracted by the three half-hours a week spent in the gymnasium, even though the work there is supposed "to teach the pupil how to sit and walk well, to breathe correctly, and to obtain perfect control of all the movements of the body, in order that she may gain health and strength, and learn to preserve her nervous force."

I have no statistics to enable me to compare the health of the English and American high school girls, but I have no hesitation in saying that the

average English girl, though in some respects stronger, could not bear the strain put on her American sister.

The manual work of the boys is on much the same lines as in the Philadelphia school. That of the girls is, with the exception of wood-carving, rather confined to what are commonly regarded as the feminine arts. The work in sewing is above the average of what I saw in America. It is necessary to begin with the simplest stitches, as sewing is not taught in the public schools of Brooklyn. Patterns are given on small pieces of cloth, muslin, cashmere, etc., and each pupil fills a little book with specimens of her work. On the blank page opposite each is pasted a type-written description of the particular process illustrated. This volume thus becomes a note-book and sampler in one, and is doubtless useful for future reference. The teaching is characterised by the thoroughness belonging to all the Pratt Institute work. A great deal of time is given to mending and darning, which is practised on articles brought from home. Talks are given by the teacher on the practical application of stitches, the growth of cotton, etc., the nature and durability of different materials. The pupils are required to take notes, and at the end of the course they have to pass

an examination in theory and practice. Machine-sewing is also taken up; and it was pleasant to see a class of girls, each seated at a little table exactly the right height, busily plying her machine.

Dressmaking is begun in the first year. The knowledge of mechanical drawing greatly facilitates the draughting of skirts and bodices. The skirts are first made up, then simple bodices and jackets. During the last term of this year some time is spent in making freehand drawings and water-colour sketches of hats and dresses.

In the second year a great deal of time is given to measuring and draughting, and then the pupil makes for herself a simple dress of cotton or wool. The teacher now talks to the class on dress materials, and also on colour in its relation to dress.

In the last term of the third year each pupil makes a dress for herself from an original design.

Millinery is not begun till the third year. It is taught in so careful and systematic a manner as to acquire thereby distinct educational value. The pupils first practice trimming upon discarded straw and felt hats, which they bring from home, using coloured flannelette, sateen, and cheese-cloth, to represent velvet, ribbon, and crape. Later on they

learn to make complete hats, using these materials; and some that I saw were so pretty and the colours and designs in such good taste that even in the cheap material they might well be used for travelling or ordinary rough wear. The last stage is for the pupil to apply the principles learned in making a finished hat for herself.

The instruction in Cookery is both theoretical and practical. The theory consists of the study of foods from the chemical, physiological, and economic point of view. The calculation of dietaries affording sufficient nutriment for the body's needs is a form of work which, as far as I know, has not yet been attempted in connection with English cookery classes. The splendid equipment of the Pratt Institute, with the opportunities for chemical analysis of food, etc., of course facilitates this work. The practical kitchen is a magnificent room supplied with all that the heart of a cookery teacher could desire.

Household science deals with the situation of the house, the removal of wastes, water supply, ventilation, heating and lighting, architecture, decoration and furnishing, and the care in detail of every part of the house. Such teaching ought some day to

bear valuable fruit, and it is much needed in America.

The instruction in drawing follows the lines laid down in the Prang system. Lectures are given on the history of architecture and ornament, illustrated by photographs. The pupils make studies of historic ornament in colour and in pen and ink, and also originate simple decorative designs. Architectural drawing forms an important part of the work. The girls devote a great deal of attention to colour and design, and drawing of draperies, etc. They are encouraged to illustrate written work by designs, and the end throughout is to make drawing the basis and helper in other work instead of a thing apart.

This is not a free school, nor a part of the common school system. The fees—30 dols. (£6) for the first year, 45 dols. (£9) for the second year, and 60 dols. (£12) for the third—are called merely nominal, but they are not much lower than those of our high schools, which are expected to be self-supporting and capable of paying a dividend as well. Of course the whole equipment is much more complete and expensive than anything ever attempted in our high schools.

I quote the syllabus of the girls' work in the Toledo High School, because an attempt is here made to give them the benefit of the healthier exercise in wood-work, as well as the specially feminine arts. The course lasts four years.

First Year :—

1. Arithmetic.
2. Physical Geography.
3. Grammar, spelling, and English composition.
4. Freehand and mechanical drawing.
5. Light carpentering, wood-carving, and use of tools.

Second Year :—

1. Algebra, arithmetic.
2. Physiology, botany.
3. Grammar, rhetoric, writing.
4. Freehand drawing and modelling, designs for wood-carving.
5. Clay modelling, wood-carving.
6. Introductory course in cooking and garment cutting and making.

Third Year :—

1. Geometry, revision of arithmetic.
2. Physics.
3. English composition and history.

4. Freehand drawing.
5. Instruction in preparing and cooking food, purchasing, care of sick room, etc.

FOURTH YEAR:—

1. Plane trigonometry, mechanics.
2. Chemistry.
3. Book-keeping, ethics, rights and duties, laws of right conduct, etc.
4. Political economy, English literature and composition.
5. Draughting, cutting, making, fitting of garments, household management, typewriting, etc.

The Chicago Manual Training School is exclusively for boys. Its course does not differ much from those already quoted. Five hours a week are given to drawing, and seven and a half to ten hours to shop work.

The Boston Mechanical Arts High School is still in process of erection, and a splendid building is being constructed for it.

Pupils of these high schools who wish to continue their course are ready to enter Technological Institutions, such as the splendid Massachusetts Institute of Technology at Boston, whose classes are open to

men and women alike; or the Scientific Departments of those colleges that do not require Greek or much Latin for admission. Here the work is of course distinctly technical.

The splendour of private munificence in America is nowhere seen to better advantage than in the Drexel, Pratt, and Armour Institutes at Philadelphia, Brooklyn, and Chicago, each bearing the name of its founder. Of these, the oldest is the Institute founded by Mr. Charles Pratt six years ago, with an endowment fund of two million dollars. Similar in aim is the Institute at Philadelphia, founded by the late Mr. Drexel in a building which combines artistic beauty with practical utility. The Chicago Institute, which takes its name from the founder Mr. Armour, did not open till the autumn of last year.

The wide scope and large number of subjects taught suggests a resemblance to our own People's Palace and the Polytechnic Institutes, but the greater thoroughness and the more careful planning of the work suggests rather the City Guilds Technical Schools, the National Training School for Cookery, and the South Kensington Art Schools. The Pratt Institute "seeks to provide facilities by which persons wishing to engage in educational, artistic,

scientific, domestic, commercial, mechanical, and the like pursuits, may lay the foundation of a thorough knowledge, theoretical and practical, or may perfect themselves in those occupations in which they are already engaged." Similar is the aim of the other Institutes.

The several departments of the Pratt Institute include, besides the high school already described:—

I. The Department of Industrial and Fine Arts, sub-divided into:—

1. Regular art course.
2. Normal art course.
3. Clay modelling.
4. Technical design.
5. Architectural drawing.
6. Mechanical drawing.
7. Wood-carving.
8. Art needlework.

In each of these the course of study is arranged to meet the requirements of three classes of pupils,—those who give to the work five days a week, those who give three afternoons, and those who give three evenings. No. 1 takes four years, the other courses two years each.

II. Department of Domestic Art, including physical culture, sewing, dressmaking, millinery.

III. Department of Domestic Science, divided into a Technical and an Educational Section. The Educational Section affords theoretical and practical instruction in :—

1. Normal domestic science.
2. Household science.
3. Emergencies, hygiene, and home nursing.
4. Public hygiene.
5. Cookery.

The technical section includes the practical side of cookery and laundry work.

IV. Department of science and technology, including mathematics, physics, chemistry, electrical instruction, work with steam and machinery, and the Trade School, in which carpentry, machine work, plumbing, house, sign, and fresco painting, are taught as actual trades. In some of these classes the Trade Associations co-operate.

V. Department of Commerce, subdivided into :—

1. Regular commercial course.
2. Phonography.
3. Typewriting.
4. Book-keeping.

5. Arithmetic and penmanship.
6. English.
7. Spanish.

VI. Kindergarten Department.

VII. Free Public Library.

VIII. Department of Museums.

I visited all the rooms of the building, and everywhere was struck by the suitability and completeness of the equipment. Thus, in the carpenter's shop, there were little wooden houses constructed by the pupils, each complete in its kind. I was equally impressed by the courses in dressmaking and millinery, which seemed more systematic than anything we have attempted in England. In particular the freehand drawing seemed very valuable.

The complete course in Dressmaking consists of four grades of three months each; three lessons a week are given—two of two hours each to practical work and one hour to freehand drawing and design.

I append the course of each grade.

Dressmaking Course at Pratt Institute.

First Grade:—

Talk on colour and textiles applied to dress.

Instruction in the choice of materials.

Cutting foundation skirt from measure.

Finishing skirt for trimming or draping.

Talk on form, line, and proportion, in relation to draping and trimming.

Planning skirt.

Draping skirt.

Cutting bodice and sleeves from pattern.

Basting, fitting.

Trimming, finishing.

Examination.

Drawing.

Pencil practice.

Study of the appearance of cylindrical objects.

Study of drapery.

Drawing of skirt, bows, etc.

SECOND GRADE :—

Talk on woollen textiles and their manufacture.

Choice of materials and colours.

Practice in taking measures.

Talk on form, including artistic and hygienic principles of dress.

Instruction in draughting close-fitting bodice.

Cutting and fitting bodice linings.

Cutting and fitting plain cloth waist.

Cutting and matching striped or plaid bodice.

Draughting waist with extra seam for large figures.

Trimming and finishing bodice.

Examination.

Drawing.

Drawing of bodice and gowns.

Notes on form and colour.

Practice in the use of colour.

THIRD GRADE :—

The third grade is designed for those pupils who have satisfactorily completed the second, and includes the making of house and evening dresses, which embody artistic lines and harmony in colouring.

Course of Study.

Instruction in choice of materials for house and street wear, considering colour and texture.

Talk on the growth and manufacture of silk.

Taking measures and draughting Princess dress.

Talk upon the contour and poise of the body as essential in artistic dress.

Planning Princess dress.

Cutting and making Princess dress.

Practice in draping, illustrating the principles of variety, unity, and repose.

Cutting and making house or evening dress from original design by pupil.

Review draughting.

Examination.

Drawing.

Problems in design.

Sketches in water-colour, of gowns, etc.

Outline and proportion of the human form.

FOURTH GRADE :—

Talk on the manufacture of cloths.

Draughting jackets of various styles.

Cutting, basting, fitting, and pressing.

Making various styles of pockets and collars.

Lining and finishing jacket.

Draughting child's dress and coat.

Examination.

Drawing.

Problems in design in pencil, pen-and-ink, and water-colour.

Since hygienic dress is as important as artistic dress, lessons in physical culture are given to all the dressmaking pupils.

The aim is to produce a healthy body, and to clothe it suitably and beautifully.

The millinery course is also very interesting.

Millinery Course at the Pratt Institute.

First Grade:—

Talk on colour and textiles.

Instruction in choice of materials.

Wiring.

Folds.

Binding.

Fitted facing, full facing.

Puffed edge.

Varieties of bows.

Talks on the manufacture of straw and felt hats, and of ribbon.

Talks on form and line.

Plain covered hat, made, trimmed, and lined.

Principles applied to a hat of choice materials.

Examination.

Drawing.

Pencil practice.

Study of the appearance of cylindrical objects.

Drawing untrimmed hats.

Drawing drapery, bows, etc.

Second Grade:—

Talks on colour, form and line.

Plain covered bonnets made, trimmed, and lined.

Full-crowned, fancy edge bonnet.

Talk on the manufacture of crape, and on the growth and manufacture of silk.

Crape bonnet.

Silk hat or bonnet.

Shirred bonnet.

Fancy toque or turban.

Principles applied to a bonnet and to a toque or turban of choice materials.

Drawing.

Drawing trimmed hats and bonnets.

Notes on form and colour.

Practice in the use of colour.

THIRD GRADE:—

Making buckram and wire frames.

Winter Season.

Fancy toque.

Evening bonnet.

Large velvet hat.

Summer Season.

Fancy toque.

Lace bonnet.

Large net hat.

Drawing.

Time and memory sketches.

Problems in design.

Sketches in water-colour, of hats, etc.

The courses at the Drexel Institute at Philadelphia are very similar to these. Additional interest is given to the work by a collection of old costumes, which is to be made as complete as possible, so as to furnish a real history of dress. The teacher was engaged in collecting into scrap-books patterns of every kind of material, and of everything used in the finishing of a dress.

I saw a cookery class at work at the Drexel Institute, and it seemed very home-like to find the pupils struggling with the familiar difficulties of puff-paste "to be rolled out seven times." This, however, was a class of occasional pupils, who were allowed to choose their subject. There is a very full and thoroughly scientific course for those who are working for a certificate or to become teachers. I did not think, however, that the work differed much from that of our Cookery Training Schools; indeed, I saw the familiar South Kensington Cookery Books, and learned that they form the basis of instruction (with the necessary changes required by the difference between American and English food).

Chemistry and the study of disinfectants form part of the full course, and so does a certain amount of bacteriology.

A class in Laundry work at the Pratt Institute interested me chiefly as initiating me into the mystery of "set tubs," so dear to the heart of the American help. I append the course:—

LAUNDRY-WORK AT PRATT INSTITUTE.

Day and Evening Classes.

The articles washed in one lesson are ironed in the following one. The course covers three months, and includes the following lessons:—

1. (*a*) Some historical notes regarding laundry-work, location of the laundry, appointments, care of appointments.
   (*b*) Classification of articles to be laundered. White — table-linen, bed-linen, body-linen. Coloured—flannels.
2. (*a*) Theory: talk upon water, washing soda, soaps, bleaching-powders, bluings, with tests. Methods of removing stains.
   (*b*) Practice work: scalding, rinsing, and bluing bed-linen and towels.
3. (*a*) Theory: sprinkling, stretching, folding, and ironing. Starch—history and preparation.
   (*b*) Practice work: starch-making. Table-linen.

4 and 5. Body-linen and handkerchiefs.

6 and 7. Shirts, collars, and cuffs. Cold and boiled starch.

8. Underwear—silk, merino, flannel.

9. Prints and hosiery.

10. Clear-starching: infants' dresses, fancy handkerchiefs.

11. Lace and embroidery.

12. Crewel embroidery, coloured silk embroidery.

CHAPTER V

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COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

To give an account of American colleges for women with any degree of accuracy would require a stay of at least a week in each, and the number of these colleges is so large that a year's study would be by no means too much to devote to them. There are about 600 institutions in the United States with the power of conferring degrees, and the value of these differs so much that it would be impossible to make any general statement concerning them. Opinions differ in England as to the relative values of Oxford, Cambridge, and London degrees; how much more, then, as regards the 600 universities and colleges of America!

The number of women seeking a college education in America is very much larger than in England, as it is quite usual there for girls on leaving school to proceed to college without any idea of

taking up distinct professional work afterwards. The graduates of the leading women's colleges have formed themselves into a body known as the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ with a view to social and educational work. Owing to the large number and varying standard of the American colleges, it has been found impossible to admit all the women having degrees, and a list of colleges has been made whose graduates may claim admission to the Association. These are fifteen in number, and include some colleges for women only, and some co-educational institutions. The colleges included are Oberlin, Vassar, Michigan, Cornell, Wisconsin, and Boston Universities, Smith and Wellesley Colleges, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Wesleyan, Kansas, Syracuse, North-Western, and Californian Universities, and Bryn Mawr College.

The Association now numbers over 1,500 members.

It occupies a very important position in the States and is regarded as a body to be consulted on all leading educational questions. It is divided into State branches, and different committees take up different work. Questions of college admission,

degree examinations, school curriculum, etc., have been considered and influenced by it; and a successful labour bureau has been started by its members. Its work has been of the greatest value in procuring acknowledgment for the work of university women.

The position of women at most of the universities and colleges that admit both sexes is that of students for whom the institutions were not originally intended, but who have been more or less warmly welcomed when once their admission was secured. Co-education at college is a far later institution in America than we in England generally suppose. The State University of Michigan at Ann Arbor, and Cornell University, which are now regarded as strongholds of co-education, did not open their doors to women till 1870 and 1874 respectively, though Oberlin had led the way as early as 1835, and Boston, Swarthmore, and the University of Missouri followed. It is only the very youngest of the American universities that from the first have put both sexes on an equal footing, while Chicago, the very latest, has even given some women a place in the faculty and a voice in the government of the university. Most of the universities now admit women, though some few

still refuse admission to them; but even Johns Hopkins, one of the last to hold out, is making a few concessions. Yale, though still closing its doors to women undergraduates, has freely admitted them as graduate students, and gives its fellowships to men and women without distinction. Undoubtedly this is a first step to full admission, and, after granting the greater boon, it is not likely that the less will be withheld.

Harvard has adopted a somewhat curious line, based on an imitation of Girton and Newnham. An "Annex" for women (now known as Radcliffe College) was opened thirteen years ago, where lectures are given by Harvard professors, and the students have every facility for following the Harvard undergraduate course. They have to pass the same entrance examination as the Harvard students, and if they pass satisfactorily through the prescribed course, they receive a certificate to that effect, but are not allowed to take a degree. They have not the privilege of Girton and Newnham students in being allowed to attend most of the university and college lectures, and, as the "Annex" authorities do not undertake to provide board and lodging, and there is thus no need for what we should call a

woman's college connected with the University, there seems little reason for this system of separate lectures. The feeling that this is an anomaly is growing, and it seems probable that before long the "Annex" will be incorporated as part of the University, and the lectures and degrees thrown open to women.[1]

The colleges for women only which take the chief place in the United States are Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, and Bryn Mawr. I name them in the order of their establishment. I visited all these, and also the women's college at Baltimore.

These institutions give their own degrees, hence the exceeding difficulty of obtaining a standard of comparison. We, in England, are accustomed to look on a new degree with suspicion, and our desire is usually to assimilate new colleges to some existing institution. In America all universities are new, with the exception of Harvard and Yale; hence an institution started for women alone may win quite as good a position as one for

[1] The matter is just now under discussion; and it seems very probable that the efforts of those who desire to win the Harvard degree for women will be crowned with success.

men alone, and there is no prejudice against a self-centred college, which does its own examining and confers its own degree.

A college course in America usually occupies four years, which are known as the Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior years. The students who enter in the same year are known as a class, and each class bears as its designation the name of the year in which it will graduate. Thus, a student who enters in 1893 belongs to the class of 1897, and so forth. The class feeling is very strong, and corresponds in a way to the loyalty of one of our university men for his own particular college. The class is also the unit of teaching, and in the first two years of college life the students are grouped much as they would be in the higher classes of a school, where the greater part of the course is compulsory. But something is left in a few subjects to individual choice. There is no sharp transition between school and college, no sudden change from work under supervision to individual choice and responsibility. The number of classes that must be attended is fixed, and is usually alike for all students, whether they come well or ill prepared.

The feature that strikes a newcomer as strange is

the valuing of work by the number of hours given to it, rather than by the amount done. Fifteen hours a week spent in the class-room is the usual requirement, with, of course, the necessary time for preparation. Examinations play a subordinate part, and there is no great final test of work done; hence the importance of counting the number of hours spent in the class-room. In some cases an examination is specially set to a student who has been absent more than the permitted number of times, in order to determine her fitness to remain with the class.

Specialising, as we understand it, is unknown in an American college, and in considering the work, we have to put aside all our preconceived notions of Triposes and Honour Schools. The work more nearly resembles that for the Ordinary London Degree, with this important difference, that there is no one great examination in which the work of all the years is tested, but the standing of a student depends on the work in and out of the class-room throughout her course, and it is the teacher in each subject whose opinion is decisive.

The examination for admission is usually a very comprehensive one, and the requirements have an

important influence on the schools that prepare for them. Occasionally the requirements differ according to the course to be taken up in college, and this must further complicate the work of the schools.

Thus, at Smith College, where there are three courses, leading respectively to the degrees of Bachelor of Art, Bachelor of Science, and Bachelor of Literature, the requirements for admission to the first are Latin, Greek, mathematics, English, ancient history; for the second the Greek and Greek history are omitted, and either French or German or some science substituted; for the third, either Latin and Roman history or Greek and Greek history may be omitted, and French or German substituted.

The Bryn Mawr entrance examination allows some choice to the individual candidate. Elementary mathematics, Latin, easy history, English, and science are required of all. Then comes a choice between three groups—Greek and French, Greek and German, French and German. Further, some advanced mathematics (solid geometry and plane trigonometry) and the omitted fourth language are required, but need not be taken at matriculation, if the candidate prefer to postpone them till her college course.

At Wellesley the requirements are, for the classical course, English (including grammar, literature, and rhetoric), geography, history of the United States, Greece, and Rome, mathematics, Latin, and Greek. For the scientific course French or German is substituted for Greek.

Vassar requires the same subjects from all candidates—viz., English, history, mathematics, Latin; and either Greek, German, or French as a second language.

Most colleges accept certificates from schools approved by the particular college, and the system appears to work well on the whole, though in the case of certain colleges of inferior standing there is a good deal of laxity. If candidates from one of these schools prove unsatisfactory, the college can refuse to accept future certificates, and every really good college values its standard too highly to admit pupils on too easy terms.

The curriculum of any of these colleges is a bewildering study for the uninitiated. As a rule there are compulsory and "elective" studies, and it seems a little difficult to see why each student should not be allowed to choose her own courses, subject to the approval of the college authorities, and irrespective

of the fetish of "fifteen hours spent in the recitation room." But further examination reveals a good deal of method in the arrangement. The aim being, not to produce special knowledge, but rather an all-round training, certain subjects are chosen as a necessary foundation for the others, and here the modern languages, so much neglected at school, come in for their due share of consideration. It is very common to insist on the study during the first year of either French or German, whichever has not been taken up at the entrance examination. This is work of a school character, often very elementary, and even in some cases open to beginners. The object of this study at college is to enable students to use French or German books of reference as well as English, and for this purpose it is chiefly a reading knowledge that is sought. Advanced grammar, composition, and literature are reserved for those courses which belong properly to degree work, and not to preliminary study. The same plan is pursued with regard to Greek when this is required for a degree. In some colleges elementary knowledge of modern languages is required for all courses, in others only for the scientific and literary courses. But, in nearly all,

the first year is largely devoted to filling up gaps in elementary work, which cannot be avoided without disturbing the ordinary curriculum of the public schools. Some private schools, through their greater freedom, are able to go much further in college preparation, and it is not unusual to hear that a certain school does "college work" in its highest classes. This is in no sense university work, but rather what is done in the sixth form of our best high schools, where small groups of girls can receive individual attention.

In some colleges no electives are allowed in the first year. This is the case at Vassar, and was formerly at Wellesley, but now much choice is allowed in the latter college.

At Vassar, Smith, and Wellesley, work is divided into compulsory and elective subjects in such a way that the number of electives gradually increases, and, in the last year only three or four hours a week are given to compulsory work, the rest being left to the choice of the student under competent advice. The Smith College Calendar distinctly states that "the design is to require of each student a sufficient amount of prescribed work to ensure a high grade of scholarly culture, and yet leave room

for the exercise of individual taste." This aim is well borne in view, and, I think, attained, and though, amid the mass of subjects taught, it is impossible to attain a standard that could be really called a "high" one, yet it is worth considering whether, for the average girl, who neither desires to become a teacher nor a specialist, it is not of greater value than our own specialising work. I have no hesitation in saying that, in careful co-ordination and choice of subjects, it is far more valuable than the Ordinary Degree course of Oxford or Cambridge.

Bryn Mawr follows what is known as the group system. There is very little compulsory work, and of this much may be done before entrance, and that which is required after need not be taken in specified years. When it is once completed the student may devote herself entirely to elective and group work, thus aiming at a higher standard of scholarship than would be attainable were the class system strictly adhered to. In all departments there is a course of five hours a week for two years, called a major course. Whenever one year of this course is of such a nature that it can be taken separately it is marked as a minor course. Every

candidate for a degree is required to take two homogeneous courses, which constitute a group. The object of this is to lay the foundations of a specialist knowledge. The required studies—viz., English, philosophy, science, and history are intended to ensure a more liberal training than could be gained by devoting all the time to one group of studies, and yet they are not so much as to divert the student too much from the central subject of study. Some portion of time is also given to "free electives," which enable a student with specialising tendencies to give more time to her chosen subject, and one who prefers to range at will to take up some entirely new study. The requirements for the degree of B.A. may be summarised thus :—

1. Every candidate must possess a reading knowledge of French and German, and some acquaintance with Latin.

2. Required studies : English, five hours a week for two years; science or science and history, five hours a week for two years; philosophy, five hours a week for a year.

3. Two major courses of five hours a week for two years each, constituting a group.

4. Free electives five hours a week for a year and a half, to be chosen by the student.

All this is in addition to the requirements for matriculation.

It is interesting to note that the system of major and minor electives has been borrowed from the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore; and undoubtedly Bryn Mawr, like Johns Hopkins, will do much to raise the standard of both school and university teaching in America. Nearly all the Bryn Mawr professors hold high European degrees, and the learning and thoroughness of the Old World, combined with the greater freedom of the New, should result in excellent work, the influence of which ought to react favourably on our own English colleges, if we could make up our minds to admit that there is something to be learned, even from a new university.

Harvard and Yale, the oldest and best known of the American universities, represent the two extremes of the college system—Harvard inclining to give the student large choice, both at entrance and throughout his course, while Yale keeps rigidly to the old class system. As these universities do much to mould the school system of many States,

a brief outline of the courses may be interesting.

Yale accepts no certificate from any other institution in place of its entrance examination, nor does it allow candidates any choice of subject. The requirements are :—

1. Latin grammar.

2. Cæsar—Gallic War (books 1–4).

3. Cicero — Orations against Catiline and for Archias, and, in addition, either the Milo, or the Manilian Law, or the Cato Major, or the Marcellus and the Fourth Philippic.

4. Virgil—Bucolics, and first six books of the Æneid, including Prosody.

5. Ovid—Metamorphoses, translation at sight.

6. The translation at sight into simple and idiomatic English of passages from prose Latin.

7. The translation into Latin of connected passages of English prose.

8. Roman history to the death of Augustus.

9. Greek grammar.

10. Xenophon—Anabasis (four books).

11. Homer—Iliad (three books) with Prosody.

12. The translation at sight into simple and idiomatic English of a passage from some work of Xenophon.

13. The translation into Greek of connected passages of English prose, employing the vocabulary and idioms of the first four books of Xenophon's Anabasis.

14. Greek history.

15. Higher arithmetic — including the metric system of weights and measures.

16. Algebra—so much as is included in Loomis's Treatise, up to the chapter on Logarithms.

17. Plane geometry.

18. French or German—so far as to translate at sight easy prose into English, and also to translate easy English exercises into French or German, the candidate being at liberty to decide for himself in which of the two languages he shall be examined.

In 1894, and after, some English literature will be added to these.

The studies for the first two years are compulsory, and as students may be admitted at the early age of fifteen, though it is hardly likely that many avail themselves of this privilege, the work of these years may be regarded as advanced school work. During these years the time is assigned as follows:—

I. Freshman Year.

Greek, Latin, and Mathematics	12	hours
Modern languages	3	,,
English	1	,,
Total	16	,,

II. Sophomore Year.

Greek, Latin, and Mathematics	10½	hours
Modern languages	2	,,
English	2½	,,
Total	15	,,

Supposing a student can pass a satisfactory examination in any of these subjects he is excused attendance at that class, and allowed to choose an elective occupying the same amount of time.

Thus far the work is preparatory. In the Junior year two-thirds, and in the Senior over four-fifths, of the time is given to elective studies. It is the work of these two years that determines the standing of each graduate. Special honours are conferred at the end of the senior year in elective studies, grouped so as to constitute a homogeneous series. The whole work in that group is taken into consideration, and a thesis dealing with a related subject must also be presented.

Harvard allows a good deal of choice to the

candidate for admission, though certain subjects must either be presented on entrance, or else taken up during the college course. The requisites are: some knowledge of English, Greek, Latin, German, French, history, algebra, plane geometry, and physics, with advanced preparation in two subjects chosen from among the languages, mathematics, or physical sciences. But if a candidate prefers to omit either Greek or Latin, and either French or German, he may do so by passing in an additional number of advanced subjects. Under some circumstances a student may enter without passing in all subjects—that is, he may be "conditioned" (a mild term for failing) in some, and allowed to make up the work afterwards.

The work of the freshman year consists of sixteen hours a week of lectures and recitations. In the three later years only twelve hours are required, but there is more laboratory work, thesis writing, and outside reading and research. Some specially well-prepared students take the whole course in three years. The requirements are eighteen courses of study, of which two are prescribed and the rest elective. There is very little work of a really elementary character, and the elective principle

makes a much nearer approach to specialising possible; hence the generally acknowledged high standard of Harvard.

A student's standing is determined by annual examinations throughout his course. The degree of B.A. is given in four grades—the degree without distinction, the degree *cum laude*, *magna cum laude*, and *summa cum laude*. The only examination which plays a really important part in an American college is the entrance, and it is almost the only one in which the work of one teacher is tested by another. The rule throughout American schools and colleges is that the teacher is the examiner. This is so contrary to our principles that it is a little difficult at first to realize that anything can be said in its favour, and there can be no doubt that sometimes in the case of institutions of inferior standing it does lead to abuse. But a system that would be impossible where so much depends on the final examination, may work quite well when the examination is only an accessory, and the class-room work and general progress of the student really determine his position.

An important feature of most American universities is graduate work, leading on to the degrees

of M.A. and Ph.D. These degrees are also conferred by some of the women's colleges. Such work is often called university work, as distinguished from college work. In fact, the American use of the words "college" and "university" differs greatly from our own. Harvard College is that part of Harvard University which prepares for and confers the degree of B.A. The college, together with the scientific school, the graduate school, and six professional schools make up the university. College work is general liberal training, university work is specialising and professional. It is very common for those who have taken the bachelor's degree of one university to take up their graduate studies in another; and facilities are everywhere offered for admitting graduates from other universities, provided the degree is considered of equal value. This possibility of study at different universities without loss of standing is an enormous gain, and it is a privilege of which women very largely avail themselves. One of the Vassar professors told me that they did not encourage their students to stay on after graduation, but rather advised them to go elsewhere and study under fresh teachers and in fresh surroundings. Many continue their studies

in Europe, and European Fellowships for this purpose are given by the Society of Collegiate Alumnæ, the Women's Education Association, and Bryn Mawr College. Of the Collegiate Alumnæ, whom I had the privilege of meeting, many had pursued their studies in two or more places, and I am sure that it had given them a width of outlook that our students often lack.

An interesting feature of the American University is the "Summer School." This is not, like the Long Vacation Term, meant as an additional help for undergraduate students, but as an opportunity for graduates to refresh their knowledge, and to be brought into contact with the latest ideas on their own subjects. The advantage of thus enabling teachers and others to keep in touch with the work of their university is very great, and this is a measure which might with immense advantage be introduced into our own women's colleges.

Much of the work is done by what in America are called "recitations," which we should call classes or lectures, in which the students are called on to take some part. Advanced work is largely taught by lectures, but the students are encouraged to resort to original authorities, and occasionally

individual students are asked to work up a particular part of the subject, and communicate the results to the class. I heard some interesting lectures in history and literature, and several construing classes in Latin and Greek, which did not differ much from the work in our best sixth forms or beginners' work at college; and at Bryn Mawr, where graduate work plays a very important part, one advanced class in Greek for graduate students with much discussion of nice points of scholarship. Probably the work at Bryn Mawr and the Harvard Annex most closely resemble that of Girton and Newnham; but here, as elsewhere, comparisons are difficult and apt to be misleading.

Butler & Tanner, The Selwood Printing Works, Frome, and London.