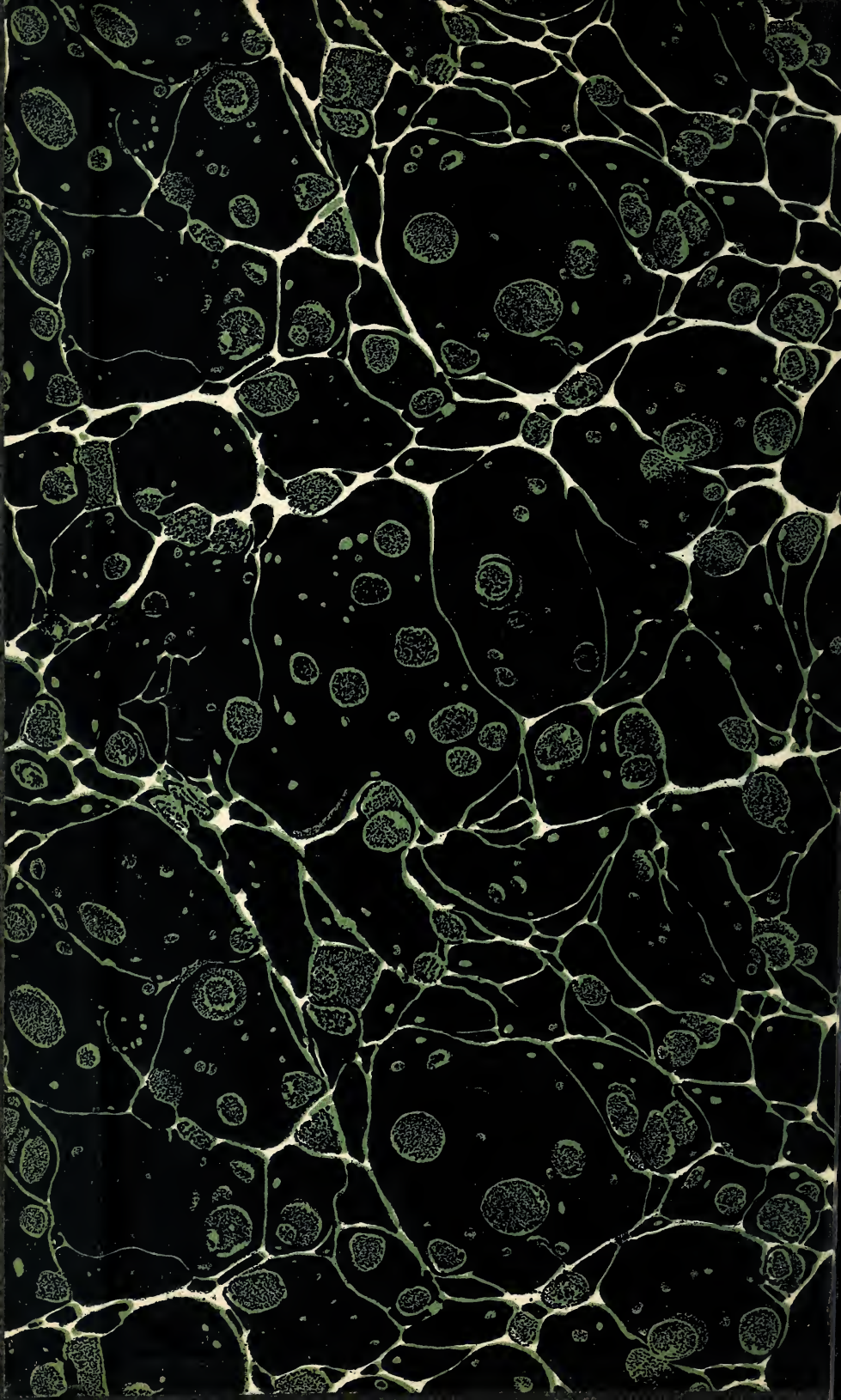
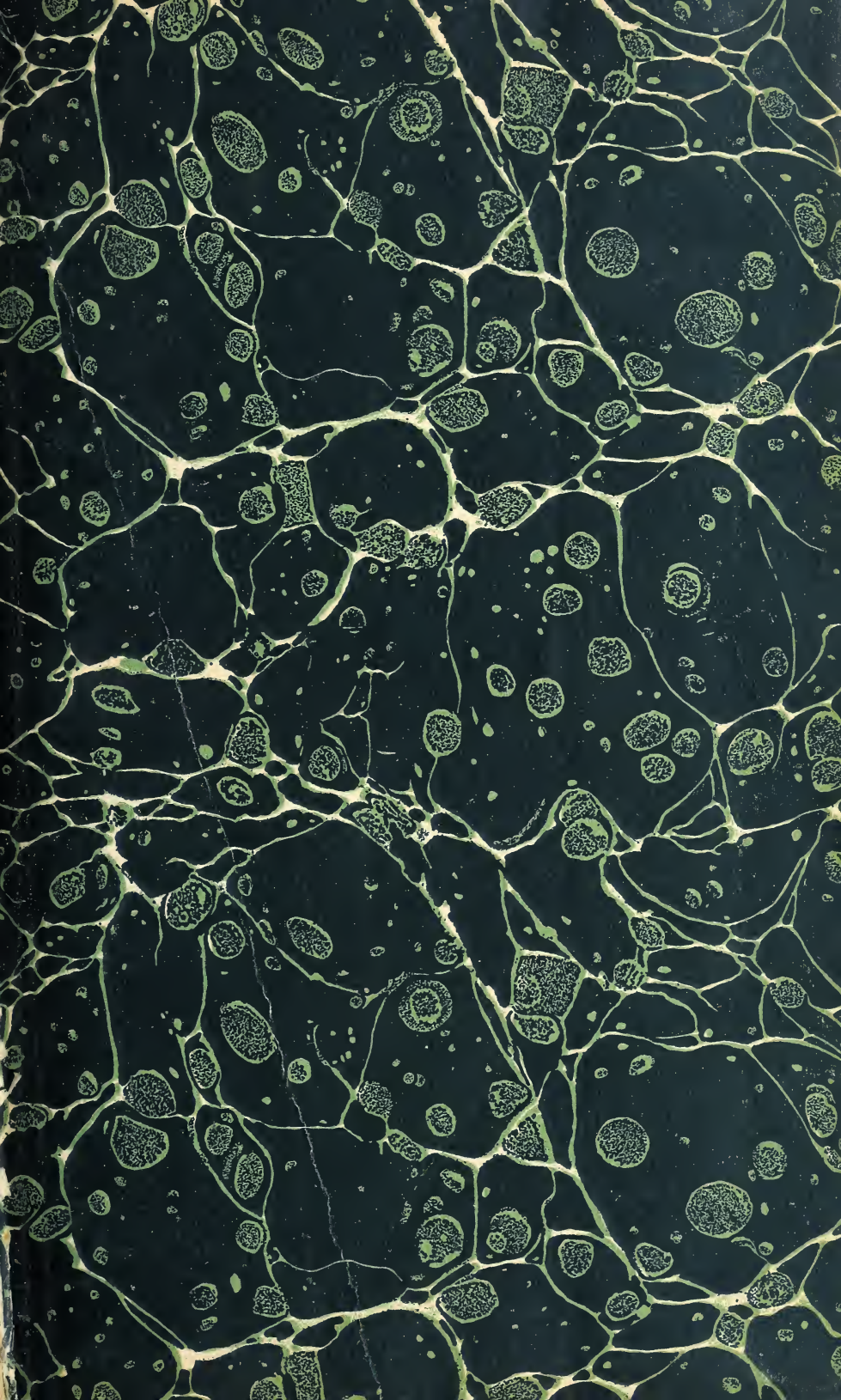


For Reference

Not to be taken from this room











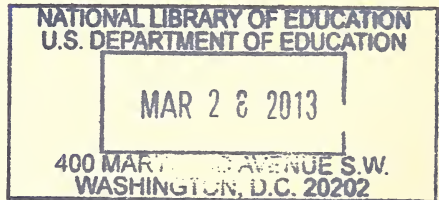


REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

FOR



THE YEAR 1894-95.

VOLUME 2.

CONTAINING PARTS II AND III.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1896.

NATIONAL LIBRARY OF EDUCATION
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

MAR 28 2013

400 MARYLAND AVENUE S.W.
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20202

CONTENTS OF VOLUME 2.

CHAPTER XXIII.		Page.
THE BELL AND LANCASTER SYSTEM—What there is in it for the schools of the South.....		1153
CHAPTER XXIV.		
AT WHAT AGE DO PUPILS WITHDRAW FROM THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS		1161
CHAPTER XXV.—ADMISSION TO COLLEGE BY CERTIFICATE.		
Introductory notes.....		1171
State institutions.....		1173
Private and denominational institutions.....		1181
Institutions admitting students upon presentation of certificates from approved high schools, but having no published list.....		1187
CHAPTER XXVI.		
TECHNOLOGICAL INSTRUCTION IN THE LAND-GRANT COLLEGES		1189
Federal laws regarding institutions created by the act of 1862 and modified or enlarged by those of 1887 and 1890.....		1196
Statistics for 1894-95 of land-grant institutions.....		1204
CHAPTER XXVII.		
INSTRUCTION IN SOCIOLOGY IN INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING.....		1211
Statistics of instruction in sociology, including charities and correction.....		1217
CHAPTER XXVIII.—PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.		
Comparison of professional schools.....		1223
Medical education.....		1224
Schools of pharmacy.....		1239
Theological seminaries.....		1242
Law schools		1245
A better education the great need of the profession.—Address of Justice David J. Brewer to the American Bar Association.....		1254
CHAPTER XXIX.		
MEDICAL SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.....		1261
CHAPTER XXX.—EDUCATION IN THE SEVERAL STATES.		
Letter of Dr. J. L. M. Curry to the gubernatorial candidates of Alabama.....		1277
Educating girls.....		1280
The tendency of men to live in cities.....		1282
Address of Dr. Curry before the general assembly of Georgia.....		1291
Origin and development of the public school system in Louisiana.....		1297
Tributes in honor of the memory of Mrs. Mary Hemenway.....		1305
Why educate? What is the philosophy of education?.....		1319
The public education association of Philadelphia.....		1325
Address of Dr. Curry to the general assembly of South Carolina.....		1326

CHAPTER XXXI.—EDUCATION OF THE COLORED RACE.

	Page.
Prefatory remarks.....	1331
Illiteracy of the colored population.....	1332
Secondary and higher education.....	1334
Statistics of institutions for the colored race.....	1334
Industrial education of the blacks.....	1356
Higher education of the negro.....	1360

CHAPTER XXXII.—THE SLATER FUND AND THE EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO.

Difficulties, complications, and limitations connected with the education of the negro.....	1367
Education of the negroes since 1860.....	1374
Occupations of the negroes.....	1384
Statistical sketch of negroes in the United States.....	1396
Memorial sketches of John F. Slater.....	1415
Documents relating to the origin and work of the Slater trustees.....	1419

CHAPTER XXXIII.

EDUCATION IN ALASKA.....	1425
--------------------------	------

CHAPTER XXXIV.—THE SOCIAL UNIT IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The origin of the school district.....	1457
Legal and political character of the school district.....	1459

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE CONVEYANCE OF CHILDREN TO SCHOOL.....	1469
---	------

CHAPTER XXXVI.—CHECK LIST OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

Position and objects.....	1483
The first summer schools.....	1484
Bibliography of American summer schools.....	1486
Check list.....	1488

CHAPTER XXXVII.

ORIGINAL ESTABLISHMENT OF STATE SCHOOL FUNDS.....	1505
---	------

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

EDUCATION IN THE NORTHWEST DURING THE FIRST HALF CENTURY OF THE REPUBLIC, 1790-1840.....	1513
--	------

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL IN NEW ENGLAND FROM 1790 to 1840.....	1551
--	------

CHAPTER XL.—PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS.

Introductory remarks.....	1617
General demand for religious instruction.....	1617
Educational conditions in countries furnishing immigrants.....	1620
High ratios of foreign parentage.....	1631
Current discussion in England.....	1632
Current conditions in the United States.....	1634
Want of uniformity in the use of terms.....	1638
Noted periods of discussion of religious education.....	1640
Recent discussions.....	1641
The so-called Bennett law.....	1647

CHAPTER XLI.

EIGHTY YEARS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF WASHINGTON, D. C., 1805-1885.....	1673
---	------

CHAPTER XLII.

EARLY EDUCATIONAL LIFE IN MIDDLE GEORGIA.....	1699
---	------

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE COTTON STATES AND INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION AT ATLANTA, GA., IN 1895.....	1735
--	------

	Page
CHAPTER XLIV.	
ENGLISH METHODS OF TEACHING AMERICAN HISTORY.....	1757
CHAPTER XLV.	
PROTECTION OF ITALIAN EMIGRANTS IN AMERICA.....	1789
CHAPTER XLVI.	
EDUCATION AND THE TALMUD.....	1795
CHAPTER XLVII.	
PUBLICATIONS OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.....	1821
CHAPTER XLVIII.	
SCIENTIFIC TEMPERANCE INSTRUCTION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.....	1829

PART III.—STATISTICAL TABLES.

Statistics of population and school enrollment in cities of over 8,000 inhabitants.....	1837
Teachers, school term, and property of city public schools.....	1848
Receipts from all sources by city public schools.....	1859
Expenditures by city public schools.....	1869
School statistics of cities and villages containing between 4,000 and 8,000 inhabitants.....	1879
Public high schools.....	1890
Public high schools failing to report in 1894-95.....	1998
Private secondary schools.....	2018
Universities and colleges.....	2115
University extension.....	2148
Colleges for women.....	2156
Schools of technology.....	2166
Manual training schools.....	2170
Schools of theology.....	2171
Law.....	2179
Medicine.....	2182
Dentistry.....	2188
Pharmacy.....	2190
Veterinary medicine.....	2192
Schools for training nurses.....	2193
Public normal schools.....	2198
Private normal schools.....	2210
Business colleges.....	2222
Institutions for the deaf.....	2248
Institutions for the blind.....	2261
Institutions for feeble-minded.....	2267
Reform schools.....	2273
Elementary education in foreign countries.....	2280



PART II.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE BELL AND LANCASTER SYSTEM—WHAT THERE IS IN IT FOR THE SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTH.

By G. B. MORRISON.

The method of instruction known as the Bell and Lancaster system carries forward the work of the school, including instruction, order, and discipline, by the mutual activities of the pupils, under the supervision of one master. In this system the pupils teach one another; the more advanced of each grade are selected to teach those of the next lower. This method of instruction does not belong exclusively to Bell and Lancaster. It is as old as the human race; it has been practiced in all ages and is still in vogue. Wherever children congregate there exists a school of mutual instruction, wherein the knowledge possessed by each child is imparted to those not already in possession of it. Children in the home teach one another. The first steps of the baby are often directed by the older children, and in every well-ordered home each child is made to feel in a certain way a responsibility for the safety of the younger and more inexperienced members.

Mutual instruction is natural. Knowledge is contagious and will spread wherever artificial conditions are not set up against it; wherever the vaccine of pedagogic proscription is not thwarting it.

The mutual or monitorial method of discipline and instruction was in vogue in the schools of the Hindoos as early as 1600. It is said of John Sturm, a teacher of the sixteenth century, that he employed monitors both to perform the work of instruction and to attend to the practical details of the schoolroom.

In 1565 Trotzendorf in his school at Goldberg appointed monitors from his highest class—which he taught himself—to teach the lower and less advanced. He gave two reasons for the practice: (1) That his financial resources would not permit the employment of assistant teachers, and (2) that by teaching the pupil-teachers learned more, and more thoroughly, than they possibly could by being continually instructed.

As early as 1680 the Abbé de la Salle, in order to relieve the pressure of large numbers of pupils at Rheims, inaugurated a system of mutual instruction which rapidly spread throughout France.

But a complete history of this system is beyond the scope of this paper. I shall therefore limit my remarks to some of the leading facts in the life work of Andrew Bell, of Joseph Lancaster, and of William Bently Fowle.

Andrew Bell was born in St. Andrews, Scotland, in the year 1753. At a very early age he showed a strong inclination and ability for learning. In school he was an apt pupil. He learned his Latin well, but had a decided preference for scientific and

mathematical studies. While a pupil he manifested a dislike for the methods and practices of the schools, and sought to correct them. He managed, however, to keep in school, and had one or two favorite teachers who understood him and offered him encouragement. He maintained himself in the further pursuit of his studies by private teaching. At the age of 21 he came to America. Concerning his stay of about seven years in this country little is known except that he was engaged a part of the time in private teaching. At the time of his return to Europe he was private tutor in the family of Carter Braxton, a wealthy merchant of Virginia. Two of Mr. Braxton's sons accompanied their tutor to St. Andrews, where they pursued their studies with him, both as teacher and fellow-student, Mr. Bell attending the classes with them. This experience gave Mr. Bell the opportunity of seeing the advantage of serving at the same time as pupil and teacher. He soon afterwards took orders in the English Church and was sent to India, where he received an offer to take charge of a military male orphan asylum, situated at Madras. At the "asylum he found one master and two ushers employed in teaching less than twenty boys." These teachers knew nothing of school management, and, notwithstanding the small number, the pupils had only one lesson a day. The boys seemed dull and stupid, and the work was formal and spiritless. Dr. Bell first tried to educate the teachers, but soon found that with qualification for their work came dissatisfaction with their positions.

While endeavoring to devise some plan to overcome these difficulties, Dr. Bell chanced one day to pass some Malabar children who were writing in sand that had been strewn for them on the ground. Like Archimedes when discovering the law of floating bodies, Dr. Bell went back to his school saying, "Eureka! I have found it!" He at once directed that his ushers try the sand process. This they did against their own wills and under protest. As might be expected, they soon pronounced that method of teaching a failure.

But Dr. Bell was a man of clear head and determined purpose. He saw that the success of his plans must be reached through control of the minds of his assistants. He therefore appointed a boy of 8 years to teach the alphabet class. (This, let us remember, was before the "word method" came in vogue.) The immediate effect of this experiment filled Dr. Bell with hope and a determination. He saw before him a great principle; he saw Frisken—the boy first selected—rise suddenly from dull-eyed indifference to something like manly pride and dignified responsibility.

The little children, under their youthful teacher, at once showed an interest, seeming to see that, after all, the alphabet was not so far off if Frisken could teach it. They saw that one of their own number had been honored, and they were full of hope for their own possibilities. Being relieved from a feeling of distance which they had felt existed between them and the ushers, they wrestled with Frisken and the alphabet as they would with sticks and stones in building a dam across a stream. They soon learned their letters and were ready and anxious for more victories. The ushers became disgusted, leaving the field to Dr. Bell and the pupils.

From this time the work of appointing teachers from among the pupils became the distinctive feature of the school. The success of the plan is thus spoken of by Dr. Bell in one of his official letters: "Let me add," says he, "that having had the charge of this school almost six years, from its infancy, and feeling all that interest in its welfare which arises from my situation, from the years I have spent, and the toil I have bestowed upon this favorite object, I can not conceal my joy and satisfaction in observing that since the late dereliction of our masters the school has improved beyond what it had ever before done in the same period. A new teacher from among the boys, whom I had trained for the purpose, had been introduced, and the more the boys teach themselves and one another, the greater I have always found the improvement. Nor has their comfort, in every other point of view, been less promoted."

Dr. Bell resigned the school to other hands and returned to Europe in 1796. He published a voluminous report and several pamphlets on his system, which has ever

since been known as the Madras system—"a mode of conducting a school by the medium of the scholars themselves." His writings attracted wide attention, and the plan was taken up and tried by many leading educators of the time. All of these trials were made in connection with the education of the poor, who, on account of the expense of tuition, would not otherwise have received any educational advantages.

Another important feature of the system was the industrial element which entered into it. Dr. Bell organized a school at Swanage almost wholly on the industrial plan, the manufacture of straw plait being the medium for the exercise.

From about the year 1800 the Madras system assumed a religious significance, and was used and fostered for the promotion of political, educational, and religious ends. This new impulse was probably excited by apprehension for the work of Joseph Lancaster (of whom we are soon to speak), who was educating thousands of poor children by a similar monitorial system and under dissenting auspices.

The efforts of Dr. Bell and many other high churchmen resulted in the organization of the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church. As a result of this, large sums of money were raised and expended in the establishing of schools on the Madras plan in various parts of Great Britain and Ireland. The system did not end with the lower but was carried to the teaching of the higher branches, and, according to the testimony of those who practiced it, with much success.

Thus wrote Dr. Russell in 1818: "It is now about five years since the Madras system was first introduced into the Charter House School. The difficulties which we encountered at first have gradually decreased, and I have no hesitation in declaring, after the experience of five years, that the system is as well adapted for the communication of classical instruction as it is for the education of the poor in the first elements, and I observe the interest and attention of the scholars increases in proportion to their advancement in learning."

Dr. Bell was a financier as well as educator and philanthropist, and the large fortune which he amassed was devoted to religious and educational institutions, the most noted of which is the Madras College of St. Andrews.

Closely allied to the work and methods of Dr. Bell was that of Joseph Lancaster, who was born in London in 1778. This unique character was the exact opposite of Dr. Bell, except in his insight into and faith in the system of mutual instruction. His parents were respectable, but not wealthy; he was possessed of an earnest, sincere, and philanthropic nature; he was a reformer by instinct, fervid in his affections, and had an abounding love for children. He saw the condition of the children of the poor and opened a school, free to those who could not pay, in his father's house.

Mr. Lancaster's school soon became so large that after several changes he had a building erected at his own expense. His pupils, both boys and girls, soon numbered over 1,000. Over the entrance to his door appeared this notice: "All that will may send their children and have them educated freely; and those that do not wish to have education for nothing may pay for it if they please."

Mr. Lancaster joined the Society of Friends and made the Bible a part of the course of study. His school attracted much attention and excited great interest. The idea of pupil-teachers did not occur to Lancaster before he opened his school. The mother of his invention, as in the case of Bell, was necessity. Bell first used it to improve the quality of the teaching in a school previously existing. Lancaster devised it to meet the demands of large numbers with small expense, and both were inspired at its results.

Lancaster soon found himself with three prominent possessions, viz, some strong friends, many bitter enemies, and numerous debts. His generous nature and lack of financial ability involved him so deeply in debt that he went to prison in default, but was soon released through the kindness and faith of his friends. He even attracted the attention of King George III, who gave him money to extend his system by travel and lectures. Mr. Lancaster's friends—those that stayed by him

in adversity—were few, but they were of the right sort. It is not always the number of a man's friends, but the character of those that he has, that speak most for his real character. Lancaster was fortunate in his. Among these were William Allen, William Corston, and Joseph Fox. They paid Lancaster's debts, amounting to £4,000, and afterwards, by the aid of others, raised £11,049 with which a new school was built, in which thousands of poor children afterwards received the elements of an education. These steadfast friends were all business men noted for their piety, integrity, and philanthropy.

Mr. Allen thus describes his first visit to Lancaster's school: "I can never," he says, "forget the impression which the scene made upon me. Here I beheld a thousand children collected from the streets where they were learning nothing but mischief, all reduced to the most perfect order, and training to habits of subordination and usefulness, while learning their lessons and the great truths from the Bible. The feelings of the spectator while contemplating the results which might take place in this country and the world in general by the extension of the system thus brought into practice by this meritorious young man were overpowering and found vent in tears of joy."

Lancaster's embarrassed financial affairs were assigned to trustees. The British and Foreign School Society was formed, and Mr. Allen became treasurer. The Borough Road School, as Lancaster's school was called, became, under the auspices of this society, "the model training school."

The society became one of the greatest educational forces the world has ever known, sometimes spending during a single year the sum of \$100,000. This powerful organization to carry on the work started by Lancaster was, like those of Bell, ostensibly for the education of the poor. Both were Christian, and made Bible teaching an important factor. The Bell organization was under the Established Church. That of Lancaster was an organization of the friends of humanity in general, and was much broader and more liberal in its scope. The fundamental rule of the Bell society was that the catechism was to be taught. The fundamental rule of the Lancaster was that it should not be.

These facts are here given merely to show the great amount of good which has been accomplished through the agency of mutual instruction under earnest and intelligent leadership. It is unnecessary here to detail the weaknesses of Mr. Lancaster and the misunderstandings which sometimes existed between him and his best friends; neither is it to our purpose to discuss the validity of the respective claims of Bell and Lancaster as to the rights of possession and priority in the use of the monitorial system. In its time the controversy was tinged with bitterness, but at the present we can afford to give credit, free and unstinted, to both of these men for doing a great and good work. It was in 1818 that Mr. Lancaster came to America; he came to introduce his system into this country. His reception here was by some cordial and by others hostile. The hostility was chiefly from the teaching class, whose practices and methods Mr. Lancaster did not hesitate to denounce.

Lancaster had the faculty of enlisting the cooperation of the influential classes. As an illustration of this, I quote from De Witt Clinton, governor of New York, in a speech which he made on the opening of a free school in New York City:

"I confess," he says, "that I recognize in Lancaster the benefactor of the human race. I consider his system as creating a new era in education, as a blessing sent down from heaven to redeem the poor and distressed of this world from the power and dominion of ignorance. Although the merits of this apostle of benevolence have been generally acknowledged in his own country, and he has received the countenance and protection of the best men in Great Britain, yet calumny has lifted up her voice against him, and attempts have been made to rob him of his laurels."

Among Lancaster's many friends in America were John Adams, Cadwallader Colden, Dr. Hosack, Thomas Scattergood, President Nott, and Robert Vaux. By a class this movement in America was called a delusion. In the vivid educational parlance of our own time the same class would have called it a fad or a craze.

Monitorial schools were established in Albany, Boston, Hartford, New Haven, Baltimore, New York, Philadelphia, Montreal, Quebec, Washington, and other cities.

Mr. Lancaster was again overtaken by poverty and ill fortune and was again, as he had been in London, partially relieved by friends. He was reduced by sickness and discouragements, and was finally, in the fifty-first year of his age, run over and killed in the streets of New York City.

The monitorial system in the United States underwent changes from time to time, never being popular with the rank and file of the teaching class. It has long since lost all of its original characteristics, and may now be counted among the things of the past.

The value of the system in this country may be fairly judged by studying the work of William Bently Fowle, of Boston. A bookseller by occupation, Mr. Fowle had good opportunities for study. A self-educated man, he could look at the prevailing methods without that blinding prejudice with which love of Alma Mater usually veils the vision of the stock product of the schools.

Mr. Fowle studied Mr. Lancaster's methods, listened to his lectures, and shared with him the belief that prevailing methods were not perfect. He also shared the rocky road of all that class of heroes who sacrificed popularity and personal comfort for a principle. But, like all men of true motives and a determined purpose, he found friends and supporters. He was appointed a member of the lower school committee, whose duty it was to look after all those schools in which grammar was not taught.

There being many children in the town for whom the schools did not provide, the city council was finally induced to appropriate \$1,000 to try an experiment on the monitorial plan for their benefit. After making several unsuccessful attempts to procure a master, Mr. Fowle undertook the task himself. By the personal assistance of Mayor Quincy an appropriation was made by which the Hancock schoolhouse was fitted up so as to be adapted to the application of the monitorial system.

The public teachers now opened hostilities, and by smooth maneuvers known only to the politician united to down Mr. Fowle's school. They hunted up every prejudice and worked it to its full carrying capacity. These teachers were true to their advertisement—that the Boston schools were "the best in the world." Mr. Fowle defended his school by a series of articles in the newspapers, wherein he clearly showed up the inefficiency of the grammar schools and the great waste of time and money occasioned by them. Mr. Fowle gained by the controversy. The course of study was greatly modified, and he was placed on a grammar master's salary, and allowed to go on with his experiments.

Mr. Fowle's school was composed of the worst juvenile element in the town, but notwithstanding this fact, corporal punishment was entirely abolished. Pupils of all grades were taught in the same room, and every child kept busy.

In the Boston schools at that time it was the custom to spend about a month to prepare especially for the examining committee. Mr. Fowle made no preparation, but nevertheless his pupils easily passed the ordeal and took their places in the next grade. Mr. Fowle then resigned from the public schools.

The great success of this school led to Mr. Fowle's promotion to a higher grade of work, and 100 wealthy and influential citizens raised a fund sufficiently large to equip a building with philosophical and other scientific apparatus, superior to any school then in existence in the United States. Some of this apparatus was imported, but the most of it was made under the direction of Mr. Fowle especially for his school.

The school was called the Female Monitorial School. It opened with about 100 pupils, and was conducted on the mutual plan, modified to suit the existing circumstances.

The great success of this school aroused the professional spirit of Boston's educators to such a degree that the school board was induced to build a high school for girls on the monitorial plan. The number of pupils who presented themselves in

excess of the school's capacity led to parental dissatisfaction. Rather than build other schools the pupils were scattered among the grammar schools, where high school grades were provided for them. Notwithstanding the favorable report of a special committee appointed to investigate the monitorial schools, they were soon discontinued. Their success was the cause of their defeat.

Mr. Fowle was in different ways connected with the Boston schools for seventeen years. In his later years he was chiefly known by his free scientific lectures, which were through a period of several years attended by thousands of devotees.

The foregoing facts in the personal history of Bell, Lancaster, and Fowle have been related, not to reflect glory on particular individuals, but because the true merits of the question before us can not be properly understood without the information which these lives furnish. So far as I have been able to discover in the investigation of this system, the men who succeeded with it were uniformly of that class who will sacrifice ease and comfort for a principle—men with a definite aim, a philanthropic spirit, and a persevering and fearless disposition. The chief characteristics of Pestalozzi's school were monitorial and industrial. He believed that children should be exercised in the arts of industry, and through this industry they should teach one another.

The application of the monitorial system to a school will have to be determined by the existing conditions. But certain general features may be outlined sufficient to give an idea of how several hundred children may be handled by one teacher.

The schoolhouse mainly consists of one large room. For illustration, I shall suppose it to be arranged for pupils between the ages of 6 and 13 years. The room is about 18 feet wide and of indefinite length, to suit the number of pupils attending. Along one side are arranged the seats and desks. Each seat is long enough to accommodate 8 pupils. These seats are arranged in groups of four parallel with the side wall and placed one in front of the other. This makes what is called a section. The sections are separated from one another by drop curtains which extend out from the wall far enough to conceal each section from a view of the others. This leaves nearly one-half of the entire space in front of the sections for general purposes. This space is used by the master for conducting a class in full view of the school and for easel blackboards in front of the sections. The seats of each section are graduated in size according to the size of the pupils. Each section contains all four grades, the primary ones in front and the highest the first from the wall. Each section is in charge of a pupil-teacher of the highest or teacher class. A further division into what is called "drafts" is made, and presided over by monitors appointed by the master according to merit. Every class has its separate monitor-teacher, and the class unit can of course be made of any desired number of pupils, as determined by the number of monitors. No monitor is required to teach for a longer time than two hours, there being different sets of teacher-pupils and monitors for the different hours. Appointment to monitorships are rewards of merit. At stated times the pupils are taught collectively in groups by the master. This may be done by raising the curtain between certain sections, throwing any desired number of pupils together.

Another and better form of collective teaching is done in galleries. This is done in a room at the end of the building seated in gallery style. It is here that the master does his real teaching, and where he stimulates to thought, leaving the memorizing and the parts requiring individual practice to the monitors. In the gallery the master teaches pupils of the same grade.

One hour per day, usually in the morning, the master teaches his pupil-teachers, and dwells on both methods and subject-matter. This forms the germ of a normal school, and it was thus that the modern normal school had its beginning. Two classes of monitors were appointed, one for teaching and another for keeping order, arranging materials, reporting misbehavior, and so forth.

From an educational standpoint the monitorial system has its advantages and disadvantages. Among the advantages may be considered the following:

1. In those processes which simply have to be learned and remembered, such as

the alphabet, the calling up of words at sight, spelling, and the fundamental rules of arithmetic, and so forth, pupils can teach one another as well as or better than can a teacher, because of a feeling of freedom and ease in one another's presence and from the frequent repetitions and familiar ways in which children talk to one another. This is true in the home, and the natures of children are the same in the school as in the home. Children can teach one another what they really know, i. e., facts which do not require development, as well as or better than the average teacher. There is, I believe, a current fallacy that teachers need methods more than facts and principles. Children can without methods teach what they know better than a teacher can teach what he does not know with a method. Much of our modern normal training consists in the training of teachers in how to teach what they do not know, i. e., what they have not a clear comprehension of. More time should be spent in getting an education and less in methods of imparting it. I have often noticed that an unlettered man will explain a machine he has invented better than a college professor could do it, simply because he understands it.

2. The beneficial effect of acting as pupil and teacher at the same time. All teachers know that we truly learn only when we teach. The sense of responsibility which a pupil selected from his fellows feels can scarcely be overestimated. He prepares his lessons in a way quite impossible with a pupil who has never felt this responsibility. His pride is awakened, and the whole force of his being is aroused to activity.

3. The monitor's position depends on merit, and he is training in the same process of rewards that he will be in after life. It is the natural system; it is a powerful incentive to study, to gain the distinction of teacher.

4. Its disciplinary effect. Any organization which calls for government by the members themselves is most effective. This is so chiefly because the individuals are thus brought into a position to see the side of the governor as well as the side of the governed.

5. The absoluteness of the appointing power of the master. Having a large number from which to select his assistants, he can secure the best natural talent; and if it prove unsatisfactory he can change without giving offense. This is a very important advantage. An ingenious and able master can in a short time, by making the proper appointments, simply multiply himself in the school, a thing wholly impossible where the assistants are less dependent.

6. Its moral effect. This is coordinate and coextensive with the intellectual effect. Pupils are less liable to do what appears wrong in the eyes of their equals than to raise themselves to the standard of one who is far above them. Besides, the governing units are so multiplied that the evildoers lose by the weakness of smaller numbers.

7. It is more economical. By the monitorial system it is possible to carry on a school of several hundred children by the employment of one master. This necessity led to the establishment of Lancaster's celebrated school at Borough Road. By a diminution of expense, such as is possible with the monitorial system, it places the means of an education within the reach of all.

Some of the objections which may be used against the system are—

1. The simultaneous working of many recitations in the same room is attended with more or less noise and confusion. The extent of this objection will depend largely on the master, but it must be admitted that with the best management the order will fall far below the modern normal-school standard. But while this feature must stand as a disadvantage, it is not without its compensating advantages. It would at least cultivate the habit of conversing in subdued tones. The tendency of the uncultured is to talk in a high key, and when animated to approach in boisterousness the tones of a town crier or an auctioneer. It might do something toward the amelioration of that oratorical buncombe which large-chested pedagogues sometimes inflict upon their charges; while the unavoidable confusion arising from many working within hearing distance is somewhat disturbing, it carries with it the constant reminder of the rights of others.

2. Much of the pupil's time in the school is spent in contact with immature minds. It is certainly true that while there are advantages to be derived from the freedom of children teaching one another, it is not on the whole to be counted equal in value to an equal amount of time spent with a full-grown and sympathetic teacher. It should be remembered, however, in weighing this objection, that the same amount of time is seldom realized even in schools which are not overcrowded, and that the teachers, as we find them, are not always full-grown and are not invariably sympathetic. Ideal conditions, even with teachers enough to supply all the classes, are seldom found.

3. The time occupied by pupils when teaching is lost to their studies. This objection is entirely invalid, for, as has been shown, the exercise in teaching—in the habits of thought and clearer understanding which it inculcates—more than compensates for any supposed loss of time from the lessons.

4. The monitorial system lessens the number of professional teachers needed, and would therefore diminish the number of persons who gain a livelihood by this means. While this is not the most ostensible, it is nevertheless the most formidable objection to the establishment of schools on the monitorial plan. Any argument which lessens an individual's chances for employment will not weigh heavily with him. It was this objection, though not outspoken, which rang the knell to mutual instruction in Boston and other American cities. This is strictly a class objection. It weighs not against the system as such, but against the probability of its successful establishment.

5. It would be difficult to find masters with the requisite ability to carry on the monitorial system. It is evident that the management of a monitorial school requires unusual ability. The master must possess the qualities of generalship combined with great teaching power and unbounded sympathy. Without such a master a monitorial school could not carry on its face even the semblance of success. In schools conducted on the usual plan, where the teacher does all the work, defects may be covered by superficial show. But this would be impossible on the mutual plan.

As to the number of teachers in this country possessing the requisite characteristics, it would be difficult to furnish any estimate; but I am quite certain that there would be many, were the conditions favorable for their development, if there were a positive demand for such talent.

The considerations which bring us to the answer of the main question in the subject of this paper have now been briefly and imperfectly pointed out. What is there left in the monitorial or mutual system for the schools of the South?

From the foregoing analysis of the subject we are forced to the following conditional answer: If the schools of the children of the South are supplied with all the modern means of obtaining an education; if they have sanitary school buildings, equipped with apparatus to accommodate all the pupils who ought to attend the school; if these buildings are supplied with first-class teachers with first-class salaries, then any argument that could be urged in favor of the monitorial schools would be futile. But if, on the contrary, there exists to-day in the South a large number of children who, for lack of these provisions, are not being educated, and if for these children monitorial masters could be obtained, then there is certainly something in the monitorial system for the children of the South.

CHAPTER XXIV.

AT WHAT AGE DO PUPILS WITHDRAW FROM THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.¹

By Prof. C. M. WOODWARD, *Washington University, St. Louis.*

1. Before attempting to answer this question, I desire to call attention to the obvious importance of a correct answer. The best planned course of study takes into consideration both the probable duration of a school course and the age of the pupils. The direct bearing of this question is seen in the fact that an estimated average length of the period of pupilage is frequently made the basis of arguments for or against some proposed modification of the course of study, or some other detail of school management.

2. I use the word "withdraw" in a somewhat restricted sense, and as properly excluding the effect of mortality among school children; that is to say, I exclude from the number of those who can with propriety be said to "withdraw from school," those whose school course is cut short by death. Fortunately, this allowance is small, but it is not on that account to be ignored. The propriety of omitting from my calculations those who die can not be seriously questioned. The practical inquiry is: At what age do pupils leave school to enter upon the active duties of life, or to enter private schools?

3. The data for my calculations are the reports of the superintendents of the public schools of St. Louis, Chicago, and Boston. In these reports the ages of all the children enrolled are recorded either at the beginning, or in the middle of the school year, and the number for each year of age is given without any regard to the grading of those pupils. For example, we have the number that are between 7 and 8 years old, and the number between 8 and 9, the number between 9 and 10, and so on. These numbers are given in every annual report, and I have taken them from the annual reports of twelve or thirteen consecutive years. I am bound to assume that these reports are accurate, although they exhibit certain anomalous results. By grouping these reports as exhibited in Tables I, II, and III, and then considering the figures in any vertical column, I am able to follow the same group of children through their course in the public schools. I have assumed that no pupils withdraw before the age of 8 years. By following down any vertical column we can see how the numbers increase or diminish from the combined effect of immigration, emigration, death, and withdrawals from school, till the class disappears altogether at the age of 20.

4. To extend my investigations over as much ground as possible I have entered on Tables I, II, III sufficient data to enable me to make three independent calculations from each table. I have named the columns A, B, C in each case, so that in all I have applied my analysis to nine sets of pupils—three in each city. I will add that I limited my study to the cities St. Louis, Chicago, and Boston for the reason that all the other large cities failed to furnish me with the requisite data.

¹ Read before the Academy of Science of St. Louis, April 20, 1896. Published in the Transactions of the Academy, Vol. VII, No. 8; issued May 21, 1896.

5. It is a source of regret that the data furnished by the three cities are not uniform in character. In the Boston schools the reports give the number "16 years old," "17 years old," "18 years old," "19 years old and over." In the Chicago reports all pupils "17 years old and over" are lumped together. In the St. Louis reports all pupils "16 years old and over" are lumped together. It has been necessary to distribute the pupils thus lumped together, according to their ages, as accurately as possible.

It was useless to refer to the unpublished records in St. Louis and Chicago for the exact details of such distribution, as they could give no additional information. In this emergency I adopted the following method, based upon an examination of the distribution in the Boston schools and of the ratio which the 16-year-old pupils bore to those "17 and over" in the city of Chicago. I will not give the details of my investigation, but will plainly state that I assumed in the case of St. Louis that 52 per cent of those who were reported to me as "16 years old and over" were 16 years old; 30 per cent were 17 years old; 13 per cent were 18 years old; 5 per cent were "19 years old and over." This distribution is made for each of the numbers at the bottoms of several columns in Table I.

In the case of the Chicago schools I assumed that 63 per cent of those who were enrolled as "17 years old and over" were 17 years old; 27 per cent were 18 years old; 10 per cent were "19 years old and over." This, I may say in parenthesis, corresponds to the distribution in the St. Louis schools for those three years. This method of distribution is applied to the last numbers in several columns in Table II. The fact that nearly all of these tables show the withdrawal of the 20-year-old pupils in the years 1895-96, and even later, was an inevitable consequence, but the results are not on that account to be called in question. All my results are based upon averages, and are the consequence of laws which vary very slightly from year to year in any given city.

6. Other data essential to my calculation are: First, the rate at which the population is increasing on account of the excess of the number of births over the number of deaths. Secondly, the rate at which the population is increasing, or diminishing, from all causes, whether by accession of new territory, the moving in or the moving out of children, or from births or deaths. The internal growth (by which I mean that arising from the excess of births over deaths) I calculate from data furnished by the city officials. The growth from excess of immigration over emigration and death, added to the growth from the accession of new territory (as in the case of Chicago in the year 1889) I call the "external growth." The total growth is, of course, the sum of the "internal" and "external" growths. I may here remark that the growth in school population shown by the enrollment in the public schools may differ from that shown by a general census. There may be a general movement toward private schools, or from private schools. When a pupil leaves a public school and enters a private one, he practically "emigrates;" when he enters the public schools in one of the higher grades, he practically "immigrates."

7. *The rate of internal growth.*—As the number of children of school age in a city bears a very nearly fixed ratio to the total population, the increase in the number of school children from year to year is the same as the rate at which the total population increases. This is true of both the "external" and the "internal" growth. Now the internal growth of a city is exactly measured by the increase of births over deaths. Hence I calculate the rate from the official reports of births and deaths. All cities give accurate reports of deaths; the reports of births are incomplete. In Boston they are more nearly complete than in Chicago, and in Chicago they appear to be better than in St. Louis. In Boston, as would be expected, the internal growth is least, viz, 7-1000, or 0.7 per cent. In St. Louis it is, as nearly as I can learn, 16-1000, or 1.6 per cent. In Chicago it is greatest, viz, 20-1000, or 2 per cent. While these rates are not uniform they are approximately so. In fact these results are averages of several years. In a former discussion of this problem in May, 1879, I did not distinguish the two kinds of growth, but allowed for the death rate of school children directly.

8. *The total rate of growth in school population.*—This rate is readily found by comparing the enrollment of any one year by the enrollment for the same ages for the preceding year. For example, take the two years 1889-90 and 1890-91 in the table of the Chicago schools. The attendance of children above 7 years of age in 1889-90 was 115,366. The next year the enrollment was 124,144, a growth of 7.6 per cent. This approximately represents the growth of the city. In the last column but one on Tables I, II, and III, representing the attendance in St. Louis, Chicago, and Boston, this total rate of growth of school population for each year is given. It will be seen that in some cases it is small, in others very large. Thus in Chicago schools the increase from 1882 to 1883 was 5.7 per cent; from 1883 to 1884, 4.5 per cent; from 1884 to 1885, 5.8 per cent; from 1886 to 1887, 2.5 per cent, and so on. In the year 1888 to 1889 I find the enormous increase of 41.5 per cent; this signalizes, of course, an immense accession of territory with a school population two-fifths as large as that of the former city itself. This explains the unexpected showing made by the city of Chicago in the census of 1890. The growth since 1890 has been all the while rapid, reaching in the year 1892 to 1893, 9 per cent.

It is probable that the increase in the school population as shown by the public school report was relatively greater than the increase in the population of the city, for two reasons: (a) The ratio of children to population was greater in suburban than in urban districts; and (b) the proportion of children in the public schools was greater in the suburbs than within the old city limits.

It is evident that both the rate of internal growth and the total rate of growth are affected by the mortality rate of school children, so that element needs no further consideration.

9. Now it is evident that the increase with which we are concerned when we are considering any group of pupils is that which arises from "external" growth alone. No increase in the number of births over deaths can add to the number of those who were 10 years old last year and who are 11 years old this year; though such increase does help to explain why the number who were 10 years old this year is greater than the number who were 10 years old last year. Consequently, in order to find the possible increase (which may be shown as we read down any vertical column) we must, from the total rate at which the school population increases, subtract the rate of internal growth, and then apply the remaining rate to the number enrolled the previous year. For example: I found that in 1890-91 the rate of increase of school attendance in Chicago was 7.6 per cent. I had already found that the internal rate of growth was 2 per cent; the difference is 5.6 per cent. This is the rate at which the number of pupils of certain ages in 1889-90 would have been increased during the next twelve months had there been no withdrawals. In the year 1889-90 there were 7,029 pupils in the Chicago schools who were between 14 and 15 years old. Five and six-tenths per cent of that number is 394; hence the "possible number" of pupils between 15 and 16 years old at the registration in 1890-91 was 7,423, as given in Table VII. By means of the final rates, which I have in the same way calculated for each and every year in the series, I have calculated the possible attendance for each year.

10. Now turn to Tables IV-XII. I have here in every case in the third column one of the columns from Tables I, II, and III. In the fourth column I have the rates of external increase already obtained. The next column gives the theoretical "external" increase in numbers, and in the sixth column the "possible" or ideal number for each age, obtained by adding the increase to the enrollment of the previous year. Now subtract the actual attendance from the "possible" attendance and we have, of course, the number who during the year withdrew.

11. It is evident that the average age of those withdrawing during any one year is one year greater than their age when they were last enrolled. For example: At enrollment the pupils in their fifteenth year are enrolled as 14, and it is evident that their average age is $14\frac{1}{2}$. Then those who withdraw before the next enrollment are on the average half a year older, so that those 14-year-old pupils who do not reappear withdraw on the average when just 15 years old. Hence it makes no

difference at what date during the year the ages are registered, provided the date is always the same.

12. The average age of withdrawal is of course found by adding all the products found by multiplying the number of pupils withdrawing each year by their age, and dividing the sum by the total number of withdrawals.

13. It will be noticed in certain tables that not only is the rate of external gain minus, showing loss of school population, but in some cases they show a negative withdrawal, or an abnormal entrance of new pupils. This involves, of course, an unusual withdrawal during the same year from other groups or columns, as the rate of increase is calculated from all ages. I have carried out all such negative results, subtracting such amounts as have prefixed a minus sign.

14. *Results.*—Table XIII gives the results of the nine calculations. I submit them without comment.

15. *The average age of withdrawal v. The average age of children in school.*—I was originally led to this discussion by what I regard as erroneous statements in regard to the average length of time that the children attend school; and I am convinced that a great deal of confusion exists on this point in the minds of both teachers and school superintendents.

For the purpose of clearing up this matter, I desire to state, first, the average age at which pupils withdraw from the public schools is a very different thing from the average age of pupils in the public schools. For example: I have shown by the results in Table XIII that the average age at which pupils withdraw from the St. Louis schools is approximately 13.3 years. Now the average age of the pupils in the St. Louis schools at the time of their enrollment in the year 1894-95 was 10.2 years, which is evidently a very different thing. In the same way the average age at which pupils withdraw from the Chicago schools I have found to be approximately 15.5 years. The average age of pupils in the Chicago schools at the time of their enrollment in the year 1894-95 was 10.1 years. So in the Boston schools the average age of withdrawal is approximately 15.9 years; while the average of those in the Boston schools at the time of their registration in 1894-95 was 10.52 years. However, this result must not be compared with the averages in St. Louis and Chicago for the reason that in the Boston schools pupils are admitted under 4 years of age, while in St. Louis no pupils are admitted until they are 6 years old. In Chicago all those under 7 years old are grouped together without specifying how old they are, whether 4, 5, or 6; consequently no comparison can be made except for those who are 7 years old and over.

Using the figures given in Tables I, II, and III for the year 1894-95, for the three cities, I find the average age of all those children who were above 7 years of age at the date of registration in the public schools in 1894-95 to be as follows: St. Louis, 10.83; Chicago, 10.87; Boston, 11.56.

I wish now to show how entirely reasonable it is that the average age of those in school should be very different from the average age at the time of withdrawal. Let us suppose that in an ideal city 1,000 pupils enter the schools every year at exactly the age of 6 years. Let us also suppose that this number of pupils remains without change—that is, there are no deaths, no removals, no additions, no withdrawals, but every pupil remains in school until the age of 20, and then withdraws. Under such an ideal condition of things it is evident that the average age at the time of withdrawal would be exactly 20 years; and yet the average age at the time of registration at the beginning of any one year would be exactly $12\frac{1}{2}$ years, which is clearly seen to be a very different thing. This, of course, is an ideal and an extreme or limiting case toward which results may approximate more and more as the attendance is extended more and more generally throughout the course of the public schools.

TABLE I.—St. Louis public schools.

Year.	A.										B.										C.										Actual rate of extor- sion of mal- grain.									
	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	*16	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	*16	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	*16	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	*16
1881-82																																								
1882-83											7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045		7,273	6,611	5,669	5,704	4,997	4,540	3,311	2,105	1,016	1,034										
1883-84											8,614	7,171	6,805	6,192	5,102	4,839	3,459	2,212	1,196	1,026	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1884-85											7,896	7,180	6,590	6,306	5,430	4,803	3,552	2,513	1,462	1,262	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1885-86											7,670	7,286	6,675	6,301	5,568	4,885	3,716	2,385	1,407	1,333	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1886-87											7,824	6,978	6,534	6,477	5,732	5,262	3,735	2,576	1,502	1,558	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1887-88											7,794	7,084	6,705	6,334	5,720	5,611	4,142	2,813	1,442	1,607	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1888-89											7,959	7,075	6,207	6,167	5,826	5,464	4,279	2,581	1,604	1,567	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1889-90											8,427	7,327	6,811	6,097	5,698	5,301	4,214	2,944	1,587	1,853	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1890-91											8,719	7,743	6,793	6,353	5,850	5,475	4,158	2,946	1,741	1,853	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1891-92											9,389	8,101	7,086	6,910	5,245	4,236	2,978	1,946	1,091	639	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1892-93											9,657	8,472	7,605	6,966	6,270	5,574	4,500	3,163	2,049	1,085	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1893-94											10,166	8,649	7,452	6,507	5,985	4,957	3,335	2,054	1,257	726	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											
1894-95											9,972	8,632	8,080	7,672	6,884	6,145	5,212	3,481	2,135	1,218	7,885	6,295	5,610	4,953	4,726	3,510	2,137	1,098	1,045											

* AND OVER.

TABLE II.—Chicago public schools.

Year.						A.	B.	C.											Actual rate of exten- sion of gain.
1882-83																			15 16 *17
																			5.7
1883-84																			4.5
1884-85																			5.8
1885-86																			2.5
1886-87																			2.5
1887-88																			5.8
1888-89																			4.1
1889-90																			41.5
1890-91																			7.6
1891-92																			8.3
1892-93																			6.2
1893-94																			9.0
1894-95																			7.4

* And over.

TABLE IV.—*St. Louis public schools, Column A.*

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1883-84	7	8,614	8,614
1884-85	8	7,180	-0.3	- 26	8,588	1,408	11,264
1885-86	9	6,675	-1.0	- 72	7,108	433	3,897
1886-87	10	6,477	+0.3	+ 20	6,695	218	2,180
1887-88	11	5,720	+0.6	+ 39	6,516	796	8,756
1888-89	12	5,464	-2.1	-120	5,600	136	1,632
1889-90	13	4,214	+0.9	+ 49	5,513	1,299	16,887
1890-91	14	2,946	+1.5	+ 63	4,277	1,331	18,634
1891-92	15	1,946	+2.5	+ 74	3,020	1,074	16,110
1892-93	16	1,085	+2.8	+ 54	2,000	915	14,640
1893-94	17	726	+4.3	+ 47	1,132	406	6,902
1894-95	18	305	-0.1	- 1	725	420	7,560
	19	119	0	0	305	186	3,534
	20	119	119	2,380
						8,741	114,376

114,376 + 8,741 = 131 years.

TABLE V.—*St. Louis public schools, Column B.*

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1882-83	7	7,835	7,835
1883-84	8	7,171	+3.2	+250	8,085	914	7,312
1884-85	9	6,590	-0.3	- 22	7,149	559	5,031
1885-86	10	6,301	-1.0	- 66	6,524	223	2,230
1886-87	11	5,732	+0.3	+ 19	6,320	588	6,433
1887-88	12	5,611	+0.6	+ 34	5,766	155	1,890
1888-89	13	4,279	-2.1	-118	5,493	1,214	15,782
1889-90	14	2,944	+0.9	+ 39	4,318	1,374	19,236
1890-91	15	1,741	+1.5	+ 44	2,988	1,247	18,705
1891-92	16	1,091	+2.5	+ 44	1,785	694	11,104
1892-93	17	626	+2.8	+ 31	1,122	496	8,432
1893-94	18	314	+4.3	+ 27	653	339	6,102
1894-95	19	117	-0.1	0	314	197	3,743
	20	117	117	2,340
						8,117	108,345

108,345 ÷ 8,117 = 13.3 years.

TABLE VI.—*St. Louis public schools, Column C.*

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1881-82	7	7,273	7,273
1882-83	8	7,066	+3.2	+ 233	7,506	440	3,520
1883-84	9	6,605	+3.2	+ 226	7,292	687	6,183
1884-85	10	6,306	-0.3	- 20	6,585	279	2,790
1885-86	11	5,568	-1.0	- 63	6,243	675	7,425
1886-87	12	5,262	+0.3	+ 17	5,585	323	3,876
1887-88	13	4,142	+0.6	+ 32	5,294	1,152	14,976
1888-89	14	2,881	-2.1	- 87	4,055	1,174	16,436
1889-90	15	1,587	+0.9	+ 26	2,907	1,320	19,800
1890-91	16	1,069	+1.5	+ 24	1,611	542	8,672
1891-92	17	630	+2.5	+ 27	1,096	466	7,922
1892-93	18	271	+2.8	+ 18	648	377	6,786
1893-94	19	121	+4.3	+ 12	283	162	3,073
1894-95	20	-0.1	- 0	121	121	2,420
						7,718	103,884

103,884 ÷ 7,718 = 13.5 years.

TABLE VII.—Chicago public schools, Column A.

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1883-84	7	10,438			10,438		
1884-85	8	10,058	+ 2.5	261	10,699	641	5,128
1885-86	9	10,061	+ 3.8	382	10,440	379	3,411
1886-87	10	10,270	+ 0.5	50	10,111	— 159	— 1,590
1887-88	11	9,673	+ 3.8	390	10,660	987	10,857
1888-89	12	9,471	+ 2.1	203	9,876	405	4,860
1889-90	13	10,805	+39.5	3,741	13,212	2,407	31,291
1890-91	14	6,431	+ 5.6	605	11,410	4,979	69,706
1891-92	15	4,564	+ 6.3	405	6,836	2,272	34,080
1892-93	16	2,441	+ 4.2	192	4,756	2,315	37,040
1893-94	17	1,603	+ 7.0	171	2,612	1,009	17,153
1894-95	18	815	+ 5.4	86	1,689	874	15,732
	19	336	+ 5.0	41	856	520	9,880
	20				336	336	6,720
						16,965	244,268

244,268 ÷ 16,965 = 14.4 years.

TABLE VIII.—Chicago public schools, Column B.

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1882-83	7	10,161			10,161		
1883-84	8	9,932	+ 3.7	376	10,537	605	4,840
1884-85	9	10,006	+ 2.5	248	10,180	174	1,566
1885-86	10	9,953	+ 3.8	380	10,386	433	4,330
1886-87	11	9,356	+ 0.5	50	10,003	647	7,117
1887-88	12	9,103	+ 3.8	355	9,711	608	7,296
1888-89	13	7,593	+ 2.1	191	9,294	1,701	22,113
1889-90	14	7,029	+39.5	2,999	10,592	3,563	49,882
1890-91	15	4,540	+ 5.6	394	7,423	2,883	43,245
1891-92	16	2,563	+ 6.3	286	4,826	2,263	36,208
1892-93	17	1,637	+ 4.2	107	2,670	1,033	17,561
1893-94	18	687	+ 7.0	115	1,752	1,065	19,170
1894-95	19	302	+ 5.4	37	724	422	8,018
	20				302	302	6,040
						15,699	227,386

227,386 ÷ 15,699 = 14.5 years.

TABLE IX.—Chicago public schools, Column C.

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1882-83	8	9,336			9,336		
1883-84	9	9,551	+ 3.7	345	9,681	130	1,170
1884-85	10	9,363	+ 2.5	239	9,790	427	4,270
1885-86	11	8,820	+ 3.8	356	9,719	899	9,889
1886-87	12	8,469	+ 0.5	44	8,864	395	4,740
1887-88	13	6,874	+ 3.8	322	8,791	1,917	24,921
1888-89	14	4,748	+ 2.1	144	7,018	2,270	31,780
1889-90	15	3,959	+39.5	1,875	6,623	2,664	39,960
1890-91	16	2,391	+ 5.6	222	4,181	1,790	28,640
1891-92	17	1,491	+ 6.3	151	2,542	1,051	17,867
1892-93	18	702	+ 4.2	63	1,554	852	15,336
1893-94	19	254	+ 7.0	49	751	497	9,443
1894-95	20				254	254	5,080
						13,146	193,696

193,696 ÷ 13,146 = 14.7 years.

TABLE X.—*Boston public schools, Column A.*

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1884-85	7	5,649			5,649		
1885-86	8	5,924	+1.7	+ 96	5,745	-179	-1,432
1886-87	9	6,146	+1.7	+101	6,025	-121	-1,089
1887-88	10	6,278	- 2	- 12	6,134	-144	-1,440
1888-89	11	6,053	+1.9	+119	6,397	344	3,784
1889-90	12	6,028	-2.2	-133	5,920	-108	-1,296
1890-91	13	5,734	- 3	- 18	6,010	276	3,588
1891-92	14	4,544	- 3	- 17	5,717	1,173	16,422
1892-93	15	3,105	+ 8	+ 37	4,581	1,476	22,140
1893-94	16	1,886	+1.8	+ 56	3,161	1,275	20,400
1894-95	17	1,018	+1.6	+ 30	1,916	898	15,266
	18	509			1,018	509	9,162
	19	254			509	255	4,845
	20				254	254	5,080
						5,908	95,430

95,430 ÷ 5,908 = 16.2 years.

TABLE XI.—*Boston public schools, Column B.*

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1883-84	7	5,770			5,770		
1884-85	8	6,097	+ .8	+ 46	5,816	-281	-2,248
1885-86	9	6,197	+1.7	+104	6,201	4	36
1886-87	10	6,234	+1.7	+105	6,302	68	680
1887-88	11	5,941	- 2	- 13	6,221	280	3,080
1888-89	12	6,192	+1.9	+113	6,054	-138	-1,656
1889-90	13	5,698	-2.2	-136	6,056	358	4,654
1890-91	14	4,539	- 3	- 17	5,681	1,142	15,998
1891-92	15	2,991	- 3	- 14	4,525	1,534	23,010
1892-93	16	1,672	+ 8	+ 24	3,015	1,343	21,488
1893-94	17	973	+1.8	+ 30	1,702	729	12,393
1894-95	18	565	+1.6	+ 16	989	424	7,632
	19	282			565	283	5,377
	20				282	282	5,640
						6,028	96,074

96,074 ÷ 6,028 = 15.9 years.

TABLE XII.—*Boston public schools, Column C.*

Year.	Age.	Enrolled.	Per cent of external gain in population.	Amount of increase.	Possible number.	With-drawn.	Year pupils.
1883-84	8	6,215			6,215		
1884-85	9	6,215	+ .8	+ 50	6,265	50	450
1885-86	10	6,223	+1.7	+106	6,321	98	980
1886-87	11	6,074	+1.7	+106	6,329	255	2,805
1887-88	12	6,025	- 2	- 12	6,062	37	444
1888-89	13	5,843	+1.9	+114	6,139	290	3,848
1889-90	14	4,546	-2.2	-128	5,715	1,169	16,366
1890-91	15	3,039	- 3	- 14	4,532	1,493	22,395
1891-92	16	1,777	- 3	- 9	3,030	1,253	20,048
1892-93	17	921	+ 8	+ 14	1,791	870	14,790
1893-94	18	491	+1.8	+ 16	937	446	8,023
1894-95	19	299	+1.6	+ 8	499	200	3,800
	20				299	299	5,980
						6,466	99,934

99,934 ÷ 6,466 = 15.5 years.

TABLE XIII.—*Average age of withdrawal.*

Column.	St. Louis.	Chicago.	Boston.
A	13.1	14.4	16.2
B	13.3	14.5	15.9
C	13.5	14.7	15.5
Average	13.3	14.5	15.9

CHAPTER XXV.

ADMISSION TO COLLEGE BY CERTIFICATE.

The question of requirements for admission to college is receiving considerable attention at the present time from educators and educational journals and magazines. This is evidenced by the large number of articles on the subject published in the periodicals and by the formation of associations of colleges and secondary schools, the leading objects of such associations being to secure uniformity in admission requirements and to improve the standard of collegiate as well as secondary education. One of the most important educational publications bearing upon the subject is the report of the Committee of Ten on secondary school studies. The intention of the Committee of Ten, in formulating the four different courses of study recommended in the report, was to provide courses of study for pupils who can not take a college course, and to provide courses, the completion of which could and should be accepted by the universities and colleges for admission to corresponding courses in such institutions, believing "that this close articulation between the secondary schools and the higher institutions would be advantageous alike for the schools, the colleges, and the country." That this report has borne fruit is shown by the fact that the courses of study recommended therein have been adopted with modifications by some of the secondary schools and by preparatory departments of colleges. There is, however, still a wide divergence in the courses of study of secondary schools as well as in the requirements for admission to the freshman classes of the various universities and colleges of the country. These facts have thus far rendered it impossible for all of the institutions to agree upon uniform entrance requirements or upon uniform lists of accredited or approved schools, but it can not be doubted that the tendency is in this direction. This may be seen by examining the lists of schools accredited or approved by the several institutions given on the following pages.

The two general methods of admission to the freshman class of colleges at the present time are by examination and by certificate. To these may be added another method which is in use only by institutions maintaining preparatory departments. Such institutions admit students to the freshman class who have completed a course of study in their respective preparatory departments.

Prior to the year 1871 the plan of special examination by college authorities was in almost universal use by the better class of colleges, but since that date the plan of admitting students upon certificates of public, high, and private preparatory schools has been inaugurated, and received a remarkable impetus. This movement was started by the University of Michigan, and has now been adopted by all of the State universities of the North Central and Western Divisions, as well as by some of the State institutions of the other divisions, and by a large number of the denominational and other private institutions of the country. The adoption of the certificate system by State institutions has generally been followed by the adoption of the same or a similar plan by other institutions in those States. The Michigan plan, adopted in 1871 and given in detail in the following pages, provides for an examination of the courses of study and methods of instruction of the schools, to be approved by a committee of the faculty of the university. In Indiana the high schools of

certain grades are commissioned by the State board of education, and their graduates are admitted to the State institutions.

The purpose of the system of admission by certificate, when inaugurated by the University of Michigan, and its advantages, as stated by Dr. Charles Kendall Adams, president of the University of Wisconsin, in the *Educational Review* for June, 1893, are as follows:

At the time the system of admitting students on certificate was adopted at the University of Michigan, now more than twenty years ago, the purpose was to bind the university and the preparatory schools of the State into a closer alliance for the purpose of mutual helpfulness. A somewhat thorough study of the systems of admitting students in other countries to the higher institutions of learning led to the belief that a carefully guarded method by which pupils of approved schools should be admitted without examination would prove beneficial to the schools as well as to the university. The system was constructed in such a way as to throw upon the university the responsibility of examining the school, and also to throw upon the individual school the responsibility for the preparation of the students admitted. * * * After five years of trial an examination of the records showed that the standing of students admitted by certificate was considerably higher than the standing of those admitted by examination. There seemed, moreover, to be conclusive evidence that the schools were greatly benefited by the arrangement. After the examination of a school its weak places were pointed out to the school board, and it was generally found that the boards were very willing to make any changes suggested. * * * I have been from the first an earnest believer in the system, and I believe that history has fully justified the predictions of those who had to do with its first introduction in Michigan. The advantages of it are threefold:

In the first place, it relieves the officers of the university of the labor of the preliminary examinations. This point should not receive serious consideration, if it is certain that the examinations so conducted are likely to secure a better grade of scholarship. But to suppose that that is the case would be to ignore or defy the experience of more than twenty years.

In the second place, a very great advantage is experienced by the preparatory school. The visit of the committee from the university is an event looked forward to as an affair of great importance to the teachers and pupils. The examination, when properly conducted, includes an inspection of the class work of every teacher and a careful report upon the nature of the work done. Such a visit is, and must be, of the very greatest importance to the school in question.

The third advantage is in the fact that all the pupils become accustomed to thinking that the academy or high school is not the end of a good education. A large number who would otherwise complete their school days at the end of the high school course are fired with a desire to go forward to a further term of study in a college or university.

These considerations, especially the second and third, are advantages of great importance, and I know of no disadvantages from the system that can, in any true sense, be regarded as of counterbalancing significance.

President Northrop, of the University of Minnesota, states that the advantages of the system are: "(1) It raises the grade of the preparatory schools; (2) it gives us students better prepared for university work; (3) it does away with an immense amount of work and worry incident to examinations; (4) it gives us better results from the student when he is once in the university."¹

No attempt has been made to obtain expressions of opinion concerning the certificate system from the various institutions of the country, but the few State institutions which publish annual reports commend the system for the close relation which is established between the universities and the common school systems of the States, as well as for the well-prepared students furnished thereby. The annual catalogues show that the system has now been adopted, in some form or other, by 42 State universities and agricultural and mechanical colleges, and by about 150 other institutions. This shows that, while some of the more conservative institutions of the country, especially in the East, still adhere strictly to the method of examination by college authorities, the certificate system is continually gaining ground. Some of the institutions surround the system with various safeguards to insure against its abuse. In nearly all of them admission by certificate is probationary—that is, the

¹ *Educational Review*, February, 1893.

student is admitted to the freshman class on the condition that he is able to maintain a satisfactory standing in his class during a term, or, in some cases, the entire freshman year. Some provide that if a school sends several ill-prepared students the privilege of sending students on certificate is taken from such school, and in nearly all cases the privilege is limited to three years, when a school may be reexamined in order to ascertain whether it shall continue to be considered as an approved or accredited school. The certificates of the principals must generally show the nature of the course of study completed, with a statement that in the principal's opinion the student is able to maintain the studies of the course for which he is an applicant. Some of the institutions require the certificate to show each branch of study pursued, the text-books studied, the time spent thereon, as well as the standing attained by the student. Only a few of the colleges admit students on diplomas unaccompanied by certificates.

In the following pages will be found statements, gleaned from annual catalogues, concerning the conditions under which schools are accredited or approved and students therefrom admitted to the several universities and colleges. The list of schools approved by each institution is given, so far as possible, in connection with such institution. The material collected is presented under several different heads, as follows:

I. State institutions.

II. Private and denominational institutions.

III. List of additional institutions admitting students upon presentation of certificates from approved high schools and academies, and which do not publish a list of such schools.

IV. Institutions accepting certificates or diplomas of the regents of the University of the State of New York.

V. Institutions admitting students upon presentation of diploma or certificate from approved high schools or academies, and which do not publish a list of such schools.

I. STATE INSTITUTIONS.

University of Alabama, University, Ala.—Any school of the State of Alabama for boys and young men whose course of study comprises the requirements for admission into the freshman class in any course of the university may, upon written application of the principal, submitting curriculum of study, be declared by the president and faculty of the university a university auxiliary school, and be awarded a certificate to that effect. Any young man, of the age required for admission shall, upon presentation of a certificate signed by the principal of a university auxiliary school, be admitted into the freshman class. The auxiliary schools are: State normal college, Florence; University high school, Tuscaloosa; Marengo Military Academy, Demopolis; Livingston Military Academy, Livingston; University school, Montgomery; Greenville public school; Brundidge high school; Millwood school, Anniston; University Military School, Mobile; University Military School, Clanton; South Highland Academy, Birmingham; Butler high school; Huntsville Male Academy; Prattville Academy; Birmingham high school; Lafayette College; Mount Willing high school; Talladega Military Academy.

Arkansas Industrial University, Fayetteville, Ark.—Any high school or academy whose course of instruction covers all the branches requisite for admission to the university may be placed upon the accredited list of preparatory schools, after examination and approval by an officer of the university. Graduates of such schools are admitted without examination, and students who are not graduates are admitted upon certificates of proficiency. The accredited schools are: Fort Smith high school, Rogers Academy, Little Rock high school, Marianna Institute, Lonoke high school, Jonesboro State normal school.

University of California, Berkeley, Cal.—Students are admitted on examination and on certificates from accredited schools. The regulations concerning accredited schools are as follows:

“Upon the request of the principal of any public or private school in California whose course of study embraces in kind and extent the subjects required for admission to any college of the university at Berkeley, a committee from the academic senate will visit such school and report upon the quality of the instruction there given. If the report of such committee be favorable, a graduate of the school,

upon the personal recommendation of the principal, accompanied by his certificate that the graduate has satisfactorily completed the studies of the course preparatory to the college he wishes to enter, may, at the discretion of the faculty of such college, be admitted without examination."

There are now 48 accredited schools, as follows: High schools of Alameda, Berkeley, Coronado, Fresno, Grass Valley, Healdsburg, Kern County, Los Angeles, Marysville, Nevada City, Oakland, Pasadena, Petaluma, Pomona, Riverside, Sacramento, Salinas, San Diego, San Francisco (boys', girls'), San Jose, San Rafael, Santa Ana, Santa Barbara, Santa Cruz, Santa Monica, Santa Rosa, Stockton, Vallejo, Ventura, Visalia, Watsonville; Alameda County union high schools (No. 1, Livermore, No. 2, Centerville, No. 3, Haywards); Armijo union high school, Suisun; Belmont school; Boone's University school, Berkeley; Hoitt's Oak Grove school, Millbrae; Lompoc union high school; Mount Tamalpais Military Academy, San Rafael; Oak Mound School, Napa; Redlands union high school; San Bernardino Academy; Santa Barbara Collegiate school; Sonoma Valley union high school; St. Matthew's school, San Mateo; Trinity School, San Francisco.

University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo.—Students are admitted upon certificate of graduation from the following accredited schools: High schools of Denver (District No. 1, District No. 2), Colorado Springs, Greeley, Pueblo (District No. 1, District No. 2), North Denver, Georgetown, Cañon City, Durango, Aspen, Fort Collins, Golden, Grand Junction, Jarvis Hall Military Academy.

Colorado State School of Mines, Golden, Colo.—Certificates of proficiency from approved high schools will be received in lieu of examination.

University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.—Certificates from branch colleges are accepted in lieu of examination only when they show that the student presenting them has completed a course of study identical with that pursued by classes below the one which he wishes to enter.

University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho.—High schools will be accredited only after visitation and recommendation by the president. So far no schools have been accredited. Certificates from the superintendents of the Boise, Lewiston, Moscow, and Pocatello schools, setting forth the industry and proficiency of the applicant, will be accepted for all requirements for admission covered by such certificate. Clear and definite statements from the teacher who has prepared the applicant for the university, explaining the ground covered and the quality of the work done, will be given due consideration.

University of Illinois, Champaign, Ill.—The faculty, after personal examination, appoints accredited high schools, whose graduates may be admitted to the university without examination. These must be schools of first-rate character, whose course of instruction includes all the studies required for admission to some one of the colleges of the university. If so requested, a member of the faculty will examine a school as to its facilities for teaching, its course and methods of instruction, and the general proficiency shown. The university bears the expense of this examination. If the report is favorable, a certificate of that fact is forwarded, and the name of the school is entered in the published list of high schools accredited by the university. The graduates of these schools are admitted to any course for which their high school studies, as certified by the principal, have prepared them. Annual reports are asked from these schools. A reexamination will be made whenever it may be deemed necessary. The list of accredited schools now embraces 120 high schools and 6 other institutions, as follows:

High schools of Alton, Arcola, Atlanta, Aurora (east, west), Austin, Beardstown, Belvidere (north), Bement, Bloomington, Cairo, Camp Point, Carthage, Canton, Carrollton, Charleston, Chicago (Auburn Park, Englewood, Hyde Park, Lake, Lake View, north division, north west division, south division, South Chicago, west division), Clinton (Iowa), Danville, Davenport (Iowa), Decatur, Delavan, Dundee, Elgin, Elmwood, Evanston (township high school), Farmer City, Freeport, Galena, Galesburg, Galva, Geneseo, Griggsville, Jacksonville, Jerseyville, Joliet, Kankakee, Keokuk (Iowa), Kewanee, La Grange (township high school), Macomb, Mattoon, Maywood, Mendota (west), Moline, Monmouth, Morrison, Nashville, Oak Park, Ottawa (township), Paris, Pekin, Peoria, Pittsfield, Pontiac (township), Princeton (township), Quincy, Rockford, Rock Island, Roodhouse, Shelbyville, Springfield, Sterling (third district), Streator (township), Taylorville (township), Tuscola, Virden, Wilmington, Waukegan, Yorkville, Aledo, Augusta, Batavia (west), Belleville, Cambridge, Champaign, De Kalb, Dixon, East St. Louis, Effingham, Harvard, Hillsboro, Keithsburg, La Salle, Lewistown, Lexington, Le Roy, Lyons (Iowa), Marengo, Mason City, Milford, Monticello, Mound City, Oregon, Paw Paw, Paxton, Peru, Polo, Ridge Farm, Rochelle, Rossville, Savanna, Sparta, Sterling (Wallace), Sullivan, Sycamore, Tolo, Virginia, Warsaw, Washington, Winchester; Chicago manual training school; Chicago English high and manual training school; Western Military Academy, Upper Alton; Jennings Seminary, Aurora; Southern Illinois Normal University, Carbondale; Illinois Normal University, Normal.

Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.—The State board of education examines the high schools of the State from time to time, and to those that reach a satisfactory standard is granted a commission which recognizes them as preparatory schools to the university. A certificate of graduation from any one of these commissioned high schools admits the student without examination to the university, except that it does not exempt him from the test in English composition. There are now 118 commissioned high schools in Indiana, as follows: Albion, Alexandria, Amboy, Anderson, Andrews, Attica, Auburn, Aurora, Bedford, Brookville, Butler, Bloomfield, Bloomington, Bluffton, Boonville, Bourbon, Brazil, Cambridge City, Carthage, Clinton, Converse, Columbia City, Columbus, Connersville, Crawfordsville, Crown Point, Danville, Decatur, Delphi, Dublin, Edinburg, Elkhart, Elwood, Evansville, Fort Wayne, Frankfort, Franklin, Garrett, Goodland, Goshen, Gosport, Greencastle, Greenfield, Greensburg, Hammond, Hagerstown, Huntingburg, Huntington, Indianapolis, Jeffersonville, Kendallville, Knightstown, Kokomo, Lafayette, La Grange, La Gro, La Porte, Lawrenceburg, Lebanon, Liberty, Ligonier, Lima, Logansport, Madison, Marion, Martinsville, Michigan City, Middletown, Mishowaka, Mitchell, Monticello, Mt. Vernon, Muncie, New Albany, New Castle, New Harmony, North Manchester, Noblesville, North Vernon, Orleans, Oxford, Pendleton, Peru, Petersburg, Plymouth, Portland, Princeton, Remington, Rensselaer, Richmond, Rising Sun, Roann, Rochester, Rockport, Rockville, Rushville, Salem, Seymour, Shelbyville, South Bend, Spencer, Sullivan, Terre Haute, Thorntown, Tipton, Union City, Valparaiso, Vevay, Vincennes, Wabash, Warsaw, Washington, Waterloo, Williamsport, Winamac, Winchester, Worthington, Zionsville.

Purdue University, La Fayette, Ind.—Applicants who have completed their course of preparation in high schools which have been commissioned by the State board of education will be admitted without examination. For list of commissioned high schools see under Indiana University. An arrangement has been made with the directors of the Chicago Manual Training School, Toledo Manual Training School, Rugby School, of Louisville, Ky., Classical School, of Evansville, Ferris Industrial School, Big Rapids, Mich., and the manual training high school, Louisville, Ky., by which graduates of these institutions are received and will be given credit for all work previously accomplished.

State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.—At a meeting of the board of regents in June, 1891, the following scheme was adopted for the inspection of high schools and for examinations to be held thereat:

(1) Any school may be placed upon the accepted list upon application of its principal or board of directors, provided the collegiate faculty of the university is satisfied as to its course of study, methods of teaching, facilities for instruction.

(2) The course of study of such school must be adapted for fitting its graduates for some of the collegiate courses of the university, or it must be in the direct line of such preparation.

(3) Whenever any accepted school in any of the classes requests it, its pupils may be examined by the university at a convenient time in any subject or subjects selected by the school authorities from the schedules of studies required for admission to the university, and each pupil will receive from the university a credit card for each subject passed.

(4) The university shall provide, for schools desiring the same, a syllabus of each of the subjects in which examination is to be taken.

(5) All schools in accepted relation shall be inspected at the pleasure of the university, the expense of the inspection to be borne by the university.

(6) The authorities of accepted schools shall report annually to the university all changes made in the course of study and submit a list of names of the instructors employed in the high school, with subjects taught by each. The list of accepted schools has not yet been published.

Iowa State Agricultural College.—Certificates from the following schools will be received: High schools of Adel, Albia, Algona, Ames, Anamosa, Atlantic, Battle Creek, Belle Plaine, Belmont, Bancroft, Boone, Brooklyn, Burlington, Carroll, Cedar Falls, Cedar Rapids, Chariton, Charles City, Cherokee, Clarinda, Clarion, Clinton, Colfax, Columbus City, Corydon, Corning, Council Bluffs, Cresco, Creston, Davenport, Denison, Des Moines, De Witt, Dunlap, Eldora, Emmetsburg, Estherville, Fairfield, Forest City, Fort Dodge, Greene, Guthrie Center, Hamburg, Hampton, Harlan, Humboldt, Ida Grove, Independence, Iowa City, Iowa Falls, Jefferson, Keokuk, La Porte, Lo Mars, Leon, Logan, Maquoketa, Manchester, Marengo, Marion, Marshalltown, Mason City, Monroe, Monticello, Montour, Missouri Valley, Mount Pleasant, Muscatine, Nashua, Nevada, Newton, Odebolt, Onawa, Orange City, Osage, Osceola, Oskaloosa, Ottumwa, Oxford, Red Oak, Reinbeck, Rock Rapids, Rockwell City, Sac City, Scranton, Sheldon, Sioux City, Steamboat Rock, Storm Lake, Stuart, Sumner, Tama City, Tipton, Toledo, Traer, Vinton, Villisca, Washington, Waterloo, Webster City, West Union, Wilton, and Winterset; Albion Seminary, Algona Academy, Burlington Collegiate Institute, Decorah Institute, Denmark Academy, Epworth Seminary, Howe's

Academy, Iowa City Academy, Northern Iowa Academy, Northwestern Classical Academy of Orange City, Springdale Seminary, and Washington Academy.

Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kans.—The following diplomas and certificates will be received in lieu of entrance examinations: (1) Diplomas received on the completion of a county course of study which has been approved by the faculty, when properly signed by the county superintendent. (2) Certificates of passing the grammar grade in any city school with a course of study approved by the faculty, when properly signed by the city superintendent. (3) Kansas teachers' certificates issued by the county board of examiners, showing that the above-named studies have been passed with a grade of at least 70 per cent.

The faculty have approved the courses of study adopted by the following counties and cities; others may be submitted for approval at any time:

Counties.—Allen, Anderson, Barber, Brown, Bourbon, Butler, Chase, Cherokee, Clay, Cloud, Cowley, Dickinson, Doniphan, Douglas, Elk, Ellis, Ford, Franklin, Geary, Greenwood, Harper, Harvey, Jackson, Jefferson, Jewell, Johnson, Kingman, Labette, Leavenworth, Linn, Lyon, Marshall, Marion, McPherson, Miami, Mitchell, Montgomery, Morris, Nemaha, Neosho, Ness, Osage, Osborne, Ottawa, Pottawatomie, Republic, Reno, Rice, Riley, Rooks, Rush, Russell, Saline, Sedgwick, Shawnee, Sumner, Wabaunsee, Washington, Wilson, Woodson, Wyandotte.

Cities.—Abilene, Alma, Anthony, Argentine, Arkansas City, Atchison, Augusta, Baldwin, Belleville, Beloit, Burlingame, Burlington, Caldwell, Chanute, Cherry Vale, Chetopa, Clay Center, Clifton, Coffeyville, Columbus, Concordia, Council Grove, Dodge City, Eldorado, Ellsworth, Emporia, Eureka, Fort Scott, Fredonia, Garden City, Garnett, Gaylord, Girard, Great Bend, Hiawatha, Holton, Horton, Humboldt, Hutchison, Independence, Iola, Junction City, Kanopolis, Kansas City, Kingman, Larned, Lawrence, Leavenworth, Lincoln, Lyons, Manhattan, Mankato, Marion, McPherson, Minneapolis, Neodesha, Newton, Olathe, Osage City, Osborne, Oswego, Ottawa, Paola, Parsons, Pittsburg, Pomona, Pratt, Russell, Salina, Scranton, Seneca, Solomon City, St. Marys, Topeka, Valley Falls, Wamego, Washington, Waverly, Wellington, Winfield, Wichita.

University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans.—Students will be admitted upon the certificate of the president, superintendent, or principal of any college, academy, or other incorporated institution of learning, or of any public high school of the State, showing that such students have completed all the preparatory prescribed studies as laid down in the catalogue. Students who present certificates showing that they have completed all the required studies except three terms' work will be admitted with conditions. The following schools fully prepare for the freshman class: High schools of Abilene, Alton, Ill., Atchison, Atchison County, Belleville, Beloit, Blue Rapids, Burlington, Burrton, Caldwell, Carbondale, Cawker City, Chanute, Cherokee, Coffeyville, Concordia, Cottonwood Falls, Dickinson County, Dodge City, Downs, Ellsworth, Emporia, Eureka, Fort Scott, Frankfort, Fredonia, Garden City, Great Bend, Hartford, Hays City, Hiawatha, Holton, Horton, Howard, Hutchinson, Independence, Iola, Junction City, Kansas City, Kansas City, Mo., Labette County, Lawrence, Leavenworth, Lincoln, Marion, Marysville, Minneapolis, McPherson, Neodesha, Newton, Norton, Oklahoma City, Okla., Olathe, Osborne, Ottawa, Paola, Parsons, Peabody, Phillipsburg, Pittsburg, Pleasanton, Pratt, Sabetha, Salina, Sedgwick, Seneca, Topeka, Troy, Valley Falls, Wamego, Washington, Wellington, Wichita, and Winfield; also, Arkansas City (Kans.) Academy, Fairmount Institute, Wichita, Kans.; Friends' Academy, Tonganoxie, Kans.; Hesper (Kans.) Academy, Hiawatha (Kans.) Academy, Lowell (Kans.) Polytechnic Institute, and Wentworth Military Academy, Lexington, Mo.

The following schools report courses which fall short of preparing for the freshman class by not more than three terms work: High schools of Alma, Anthony, Argentine, Burlingame, Centralia, Cherry Vale, Enterprise, Clyde, Council Grove, Garnett, Girard, Goodland, Halstead, Herington, Hill City, Humboldt, Jetmore, Lakin, Lyndon, Lyons, Moran, Mound Valley, Osawatomie, Oskaloosa, Smith Center, Solomon, Sedan, Sterling, Wathena, Waverly, and White Cloud; also Friends' Academy, Washington, Kans.; Grellett Academy, Glen Elder, Kans.; Lewis Academy, Wichita, Kans.; Southern Kansas Academy, Eureka, Kans., and Stockton (Kans.) Academy.

Maine State College, Orono, Me.—Any preparatory school whose course of instruction covers the requirements for admission may be admitted to the list of approved schools after visitation and examination by the faculty. The list of approved schools is as follows: Bangor high school; Bar Harbor high school; Bath high school, Boynton high school of Eastport; Brewer high school; Bridgton Academy, North Bridgton; Coburn Classical Institute, Waterville; Cony high school, Augusta; Corinth Academy, East Corinth; Deering high school; Dover high school; East Maine Conference Seminary, Bucksport; Ellsworth high school; English high school; Foxcraft Academy; Framingham (Mass.) high school; Gardiner high school; Greeley Institute, Cumberland Center; Hampden Academy; Lincoln Academy, West Poland;

Maine Wesleyan Seminary, Kent's Hill; Milo high school; Monson Academy; North Yarmouth Academy, Yarmouth; Norway high school; Orono high school; Portland high school; Ricker Classical Institute, Houlton; Rockland high school; Skowhegan high school; Thornton Academy, Saco; Waterville high school; Washington Academy, East Machias; Westbrook high school; Yarmouth high school, Yarmouthville.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.—The privilege of sending pupils for admission on diploma, originally limited to approved schools in Michigan, has been extended to include schools in other States. On request of the school board in charge of any school the faculty will designate a committee to visit the school and report upon its condition.

If the faculty are satisfied from the report of the committee that the school is taught by competent instructors and is furnishing a good preparation to meet the requirements for admission to any one or more of the courses of study, then the graduates from the approved preparatory course or courses will be admitted without examination. The diplomas of their school board must be presented within one year and three months after graduation. They must also present certificates stating that they have sustained examinations in all the studies prescribed for admission and are recommended for admission to the university. The schools which shall be approved shall be entitled to send their graduates on diploma for a period of three years without further inspection, provided that no important changes affecting the course of study and the efficiency of the instruction are made. Each approved school is expected to send annually a copy of its catalogue to the university. There are now 144 approved schools, as follows: High schools of Adrian, Albion, Allegan, Alpena, Ann Arbor, Aurora, Ill. (east side and west side), Austin, Ill., Battle Creek, Bay City, Belding, Benton Harbor, Big Rapids, Birmingham, Buchanan, Cadillac, Caro, Cassopolis, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, Champion, Charlotte, Chicago, Ill. (north division, northwest division, south division, west division, Calumet, Englewood, English high and manual training school, Hyde Park, Jefferson high school, Lake, Lake View, South Chicago), Cincinnati, Ohio (Hughes School, Woodward School), Cleveland, Ohio (central, west), Clinton, Iowa, Coldwater, Constantine, Corunna, Decatur, Ill., Denver, Colo., Detroit, Dowagiac, Duluth, Minn., Eaton Rapids, Elgin, Ill., Escanaba, Fenton, Flint, Geneseo, Ill., Grand Haven, Grand Rapids, Greenville, Hancock, Hastings, Hillsdale, Holly, Houghton, Howell, Hudson (west side), Ionia, Iron Mountain, Ironwood, Ishpeming, Ithaca, Jackson (east side, west side), Joliet, Ill., Jonesville, Kalamazoo, Kansas City, Mo., La Grange, Ill., Lake Linden, Lansing, Lapeer, La Porte, Ind., Ludington, Manistee, Marine City, Marquette, Marshall, Mason, Maywood, Ill., Michigan City, Ind., Milwaukee, Wis., Minneapolis, Minn., Monroe, Mount Clemens, Muskegon, Negaunee, Niles, Oak Park, Ill., Omaha, Nebr., Ottawa, Ill., Owosso, Paw Paw, Peoria, Ill., Petoskey, Pontiac, Port Huron, Portland, Princeton, Ill., Rockford, Ill., Romeo, Saginaw (east side, west side), St. Clair, St. Joseph, St. Paul, Minn., Sault Ste. Marie, Schoolcraft, South Bend, Ind., Springfield, Ill., Tecumseh, Three Rivers, Toledo, Ohio, Traverse City, Union City, Vassar, Vicksburg, Washington, D. C. (Eastern High School), West Bay City, West Des Moines, Iowa, Ypsilanti; also, Normal and Collegiate Institute, Benton Harbor, Mich.; Granger Place School, Canandaigua, N. Y.; Harvard School, Kenwood Institute, Manual Training School, and University School, Chicago, Ill.; Detroit School for Boys, Home and Day School, Detroit, Mich.; Michigan Female Seminary, Kalamazoo, Mich.; Peabody Normal College, Nashville, Tenn.; Normal University, Normal, Ill.; Scoville Place School, Oak Park, Ill.; Michigan Military Academy, Orchard Lake, Mich.; Oxford College, Oxford, Ohio; Northeast Manual Training School, Philadelphia, Pa.; Raisin Valley Seminary, Vermont Academy, Saxtons River, Vt.

Michigan Agricultural College, Agricultural College, Mich.—Graduates of graded schools having a regular course of study approved by the faculty and persons presenting teachers' certificates are admitted without examination.

Michigan Mining School, Houghton, Mich.—Candidates who desire to enter by certificate are divided into two divisions—first, those 18 years of age and upward, and second, those under 18 years of age. A candidate 18 years of age or over may present a certificate from the superintendent or principal of any high school, academy, or seminary in good standing, certifying that the candidate has studied not less than one year in that institution; has been examined under the direction of the superintendent or principal who has signed the certificate, and that the candidate has passed in arithmetic; metric system; algebra through quadratic equations; plane, solid, and spherical geometry; bookkeeping; elementary physics and elements of astronomy, with a rank of not less than 85 on a scale of 100 in each and every study required for admission. Conditions in bookkeeping and astronomy are allowed when necessary. Candidates who are under 18 years of age must present a certificate from the superintendent or principal of some reputable high school, academy, or seminary that they have completed one of the regular courses of study in that school, and have graduated, obtaining a rank of not less than 85 in a scale of 100 in each

and every subject required for admission, and that the candidate's rank in all other studies in the school's prescribed course is not less than 75 for each and every one.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.—By a resolution of the board of regents, graduates of St. Paul and Minneapolis high schools are admitted to the freshman class upon presentation of their diplomas. The State high school board has inspected and classified the schools under its supervision, and the graduates of the schools of the first rank are admitted to the freshman class upon presentation of their diplomas. At present the following schools are in this rank: Albert Lea, Alexandria, Anoka, Austin, Crookston, Duluth, Faribault, Fergus Falls, Hastings, Henderson, Lake City, Litchfield, Mankato, Northfield, Owatonna, Red Wing, Rochester, Sauk Center, Spring Valley, Stillwater, and Worthington. The diplomas of these schools should be accompanied by a certificate from the principals, giving a list of the studies actually covered by the diplomas. The diploma will be accepted for all that it really represents of work done. As a rule, the records of graduates of normal schools, or schools which admit to the freshman class of other reputable universities without examination, will be accepted for entrance to the university.

University of Mississippi, University, Miss.—Students coming from approved high schools are admitted without examination to the classes of the university for which they may be prepared, provided they have reached the required age and present themselves within one year after leaving the high school. The following schools are recognized as affiliated high schools as long as their efficiency is approved by the faculty: Warren Institute, Oxford; Crystal Springs high school; private school of T. G. Smith-Vaniz, Canton; Winona high school; West Point high school; Union Church Academy; private school of B. M. Lovejoy, Aberdeen; private school of C. F. Kemper, Vicksburg; P. H. Saunder's summer school, University; Waverly Institute, Byhalia; city school, Jackson; city high school, Helena, Ark.; Carrollton Male Academy, Carrollton; city school, Senatobia; New Albany high school. High schools are affiliated after visitation and inspection by the faculty.

University of the State of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.—It is proposed that schools be articulated upon the adoption of a course of study outlined by the university, and that the sign that this course has been adopted be an agreement between the university and the school authorities. This agreement is to be signed on the one hand by the president of the university, and on the other hand by the principal of the high school, the president of the school board, and the superintendent of public schools of the town in which the high school is situated. In the case of private schools or colleges it should be signed by the principal or president and by the president of the trustees or curators. The agreement shall specify—

(1) That the school authorities have made their course of study meet fully the requirements proposed by the university.

(2) That the first diploma issued under the new course of study will bear a specified date.

(3) That the employment of inefficient teachers in the school will at any time justify the university in severing the relation.

(4) That the university on its part will, after the date prescribed, admit without examination to the freshman class, in any course for which they have been duly prepared, such graduates of the school as bring proper credentials of the fact that they are recommended for that class by the school authorities; and it will admit free of tuition for the first year the student graduating from the school with the highest honors.

(5) That the university will send from time to time a representative to visit the school, and will use its best efforts to promote in whatever way it can its welfare.

The following schools are on the approved list: High schools of Bethany, Bollivar, Carthage, Carrollton, Clinton, Fort Smith, Ark.; Harrisonville, Higginsville, Independence, Jefferson City, Joplin, Lamar, Lancaster, La.; Marshall, Maryville, Miami, Mexico, Moberly, Monroe City, Mound City, Montgomery City, Nevada, Paris, Richmond, Rockport, Sedalia, Shelbina, Slater, Springfield, Trenton, Westport, Cameron, Chillicothe, Hannibal, Kansas City, St. Joseph, St. Louis; Mountain Grove (Mo.) Academy; Brookfield (Mo.) College; Mount Vernon (Mo.) Academy; Appleton City (Mo.) Academy; Cooper Institute, Boonville, Mo.; Marionville (Mo.) Collegiate Institute; Buchanan College, Troy, Mo.; Kemper Family School, Boonville, Mo.; Marmaduke Military Academy, Sweet Springs, Mo.; Michigan Military Academy, Orchard Lake, Mich.; Missouri Military Academy, Mexico, Mo.; St. James Military Academy, Macon City, Mo.; University Academy, Columbia, Mo.; Wentworth Military Academy, Lexington, Mo.

University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.—There are about 75 public schools in Nebraska upon the accredited list of the university, but of these not more than half a dozen fully prepare for entrance to the university proper.

New Hampshire College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, Durham, N. H.—A certificate from any academy or high school will be accepted upon any subject required for admission.

New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Mesilla Park, N. Mex.—The principals and superintendents of the following high schools are authorized to prepare students for admission: Raton, Las Vegas, Albuquerque, Deming, Eddy, and El Paso. Graduates of these schools will be admitted without examination.

University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.—The university admits, without examination, students with certificates from certain schools in the State whose courses of study and methods of instruction are approved by the faculty.

Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.—Certificates of high schools and normal schools in Ohio are accepted, if found satisfactory, in lieu of examination for preparatory studies under the following conditions:

(1) Each certificate must show that the candidate has completed the course of study in the school from which he comes and must, further, contain a detailed statement of the studies pursued, the text-books used, the amount of work done in each study, the amount of time devoted to it, the date of the examination, and the rank of standing of the candidate in it. A copy of the course of study should accompany the certificate.

(2) From time to time the faculty has approved the course of study in certain high schools of the State, and the graduates of these schools are admitted to freshman work on presentation of their diplomas, subject, however, to conditions in all required studies not included in their high school course.

The list of high schools to whose graduates a definite standing has been assigned is as follows: Akron, Alliance, Barnesville, Batavia, Bellaire, Bement (Ill.), Canton, Carey, Chardon, Chillicothe, Cincinnati, Cincinnati Technical School, Circleville, Cleveland, Columbus, Coshocton, Dayton, Defiance, Delaware, East Liverpool, Elyria, Fremont, Galion, Gallipolis, Grand River Institute, Hamilton, Hillsboro, Ironton, Jefferson Educational Institute, Lancaster, Lima, Lorain, Mansfield, Marietta, Massillon, Marion, Martins Ferry, Miamisburg, Middletown, Mount Sterling, Mount Vernon, Newark, New South Lyme, New Vienna, Norwalk, Piqua, Pomeroy, Portsmouth, Richwood, Sandusky, Salem, Sidney, Springfield, Steubenville, Tiffin, Toledo, Troy, Urbana, Van Wirt, Warren, Wooster, Xenia, Youngstown, and Zanesville.

Oregon State Agricultural College, Corvallis, Ore.—Those applicants who have completed a high school course will be admitted upon presentation of their diplomas.

University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.—Students presenting credits from reputable schools will be allowed their equivalents in the university.

Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.—Graduates of State normal schools and of a select list of high schools and academies in Pennsylvania, whose standard of requirements has been ascertained to be satisfactory, will be admitted without examination in studies which as shown by their diploma or certificate they have successfully completed in such institution. Diplomas must be accompanied by a certificate.

South Carolina College, Columbia, S. C.—The faculty are authorized to admit applicants who shall present from superintendents or principals of graded schools and other approved schools where they have been pupils, certificates that they have passed satisfactory examinations on the subjects required for admission.

South Dakota Agricultural College, Brookings, S. Dak.—Certificates from schools or teachers, approved by the faculty, will be accepted.

University of South Dakota, Vermilion, S. Dak.—High schools and public or private academies whose methods and courses of instruction are approved by the faculty may, upon application to the president, enter the list of university fitting schools, this relation to continue as long as the approved grade of work is maintained in the accredited school, or until the university requirements are modified. Pupils from such schools receive credit, without examination, for subfreshman or preparatory work only, upon presenting certificates definitely setting forth the amount of work done and the time spent on each subject. At present the accredited schools are those of Aberdeen, Deadwood, Elk Point, Flandreau, Hot Springs, Huron, Millbank, Mitchell, Parker, Pierre, Rapid City, Sioux City, Iowa, Sioux Falls, Watertown, Yankton, Scotland Academy, Wessington Springs Seminary.

University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.—All approved State secondary schools are accredited schools. They were established by an act approved March 25, 1891. This law says: "In every secondary school shall be taught the following branches: Orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history of Tennessee, history of the United States, elementary geology in Tennessee, elementary principles of agriculture, elements of algebra, elements of plane geometry, elements of natural philosophy, bookkeeping, elementary physiology and hygiene, elements of civil government, and rhetoric, or higher English. Practice shall be given in elocution, or the art of speaking. Vocal music may be taught, and no other branches shall be introduced." Any high school, academy, or other institution whose course of study covers the branches required for admission to the freshman class may be put on an accredited list, after application, examination by some officer of the

university, and approval by the faculty. In lieu of the sciences provided in the secondary school course, these schools may offer Latin, Greek, and other good equivalents. Graduates or proficiently recommended by the principals of such accredited schools will be received into the collegiate department without examination. The following institutions are on the list of accredited schools: In Tennessee: Training school, Brownsville; high school, Chattanooga; University school, Chattanooga; high school, Columbia; training school, Cumberland; high schools of Dyersburg, Johnson City, Jonesboro, Knoxville; university school, Knoxville; classical school, Knoxville; Haynes-McLean school, Lewisburg; high schools of McMinnville, Memphis, Milan, Morristown, Greeneville, Nashville, North Knoxville, Pulaski, West Knoxville; Memphis Institute; University school, Memphis; Howard Institute, Mt. Pleasant; University school, Academic School, Montgomery Bell Academy, and Garrett Military Academy, Nashville; training school, Paris; McMinn Academy, Rogersville; Rugby School, Rugby; Southside Preparatory School, Southside; Bolton College, Stewartville, and Peabody high school, Trenton. In other States: Asheville (N. C.) high school; Bingham School, Asheville, N. C.; South Highlands Academy, Birmingham, Ala.; training school, Bridgeport, Ala.; Donald Fraser School, Decatur, Ga.; Male Academy, Huntsville, Ala.; School for Boys, Little Rock, Ark.; Peabody high school, Little Rock, Ark.; university school, Monticello, Ark.; Yerkes School, Paris, Ky.; Male Academy, Raleigh, N. C.

University of Texas, Austin, Tex.—Graduates of approved high schools will be admitted without examination provided they present themselves for admission within a year after their graduation. The following have been approved and are now affiliated with the university: High schools of Abilene, Austin, Beaumont, Belton, Blanco, Brackett, Brenham, Bryan, Calvert, Cameron, Cleburne, Corpus Christi, Corsicana, Dallas, Denton, Dublin, El Paso, Ennis, Flatonia, Fort Smith (Ark.), Fort Worth, Gainesville, Galveston, Gonzales, Hempstead, Houston, Lagrange, Mexia, Mineola, Navasota, Orange, Palestine, Paris, Rockdale, San Antonio, Taylor, Temple, Terrell, Tyler, Vernon, Waco, Waxahachie, Weatherford; also Belton (Tex.) Male Academy; Cole's Select School, Dallas; Columbia College, Van Alstyne; Coronal Institute, San Marcos; Franklin College, Pilot Point; Grayson College, Whitewright; Institute for the Blind, Austin; Marmaduke Military Academy, Sweet Springs, Mo.; San Antonio Academy; Staunton (Va.) Military Academy; Summer Hill School, Owen; Thomas Arnold High School, Salado; University Academy, Columbia, Mo.

Agricultural College of Utah, Logan, Utah.—Students may be admitted on certificate from an accredited high school, academy, or other institution.

University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah.—Graduates of accredited high schools or academies may be admitted without examination. Their applications must be accompanied by certificates from the principal stating the subjects completed, the extent of each subject, and the percentages obtained. The following schools are on the accredited list: High school, Salt Lake City; Rowland Hall, Salt Lake City; Hammond Hall, Salt Lake City; Brigham Young College, Logan; Brigham Young Academy, Provo; high school, Ogden; Latter-Day Saints' College, Salt Lake City. Schools will be accredited after application to and examination by the faculty of the university.

University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.—Candidates will be admitted without examination in case they bring certificates of graduation from preparatory schools whose courses of study fully meet the admission requirements.

Washington Agricultural College and School of Science, Pullman, Wash.—Graduates of high schools whose course of study has been examined and approved by the faculty will be admitted on the presentation of the certificate of the principal or superintendent. Teachers holding a first grade certificate will also be admitted without examination.

University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.—Students shall be admitted without examination upon presentation of certificates from those public high schools and other educational institutions in the State whose courses of study shall have been approved by the faculty, such certificates to show the completion of a course of study on the part of applicants which the faculty shall deem equivalent to the course of study necessary for admission under examination.

West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.—Graduates of the academic department of the normal school or any of its branches, or from approved high schools and academies, are admitted upon presentation of a proper certificate of such graduation.

University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.—Any high school or academy whose course of instruction covers the branches for admission to one or more of the courses of the university may be admitted to its list of accredited schools after a satisfactory examination by a committee of the faculty. Application for such an examination may be made by an officer of the school to the president of the university, on the basis of which a committee of the faculty will examine the course of study and the methods of instruction in the school, and on their favorable recommendation and the concurrence of the faculty it will be entered upon the accredited list. No school will be

placed upon the list whose course of study is not fully equal to the four-year course of high schools recommended by the State superintendent. The graduates of such an approved school will be received on presentation of a proper certificate into any of the courses for which they have been fitted. The accredited schools are: High schools of Ashland, Austin (Ill.), Beloit, Chicago (Ill.), Fond du Lac, Ia Crosse, Madison, Marinette, Milwaukee (east side, south side), Oshkosh, Rockford (Ill.), Appleton (Ryan), Baraboo, Beaver Dam, Brodhead, Burlington, Chippewa Falls, Columbus, Darlington, Decorah (Iowa), Delavan, De Pere, Eau Claire, Elkhorn, Fort Atkinson, Freeport (Ill.), Green Bay, Janesville, Lake Geneva, Lancaster, Manitowoc (north side), Menomonee, Monroe, Neenah, Racine, River Falls, Sheboygan, Stevens Point, Superior (west end), Waupaca, Wauwatosa, West De Pere, Whitewater, Evansville, Prescott, Sparta, Tomah, Viroqua, Watertown, Waukesha, Appleton (Third Ward), Black River Falls, Boscobel, Centralia, Cumberland, Dodgeville, Edgerton, Fort Howard, Fox Lake, Grand Rapids, Hudson, Kenosha, Lodi, Mayville, Mazomanie, Menasha, Neillsville, New London, Oconomowoc, Prairie du Chien, Prairie du Sac, Ripon, Sauk City, Stoughton Academy, Wausau, West Bend, Manston, Medford, Mineral Point, Portage, Sheboygan Falls, Arcadia, Durand, Elroy, Hartford, Horicon, Jefferson, Kewaunee, Lake Mills, Merrill, Necedah, New Lisbon, New Richmond, Oregon, Reedsburg, Richland Center, Sharon, Shawano, Spring Green, Stoughton, Sturgeon Bay, Sun Prairie, Washburn, Waupun (South Ward), Wayland Academy, Beaver Dam; Harvard School, Chicago, Ill.; School for Boys, Detroit, Mich.; Shattuck School, Faribault, Minn.; Downer College, Fox Lake; Wisconsin Academy, Madison; Milwaukee Academy; Racine (Wis.) College; Carroll College, Waukesha; Kenwood Institute, Chicago, Ill.; Evansville (Wis.) Seminary; Grafton Hall, Fond du Lac; Hillside (Wis.) Home School; Notre Dame School, Chippewa Falls; St. Clara's Academy, Sinsinawa. The certified standing of any student in the regular courses of the normal schools of the State will be accepted in the studies which it covers.

University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyo.—High schools in the various counties which adopt the university's preparatory course of study, and give competent instruction in the same, will be enrolled as "accredited high schools" of the university, and work done in such schools will be accepted on presentation of grades. The accredited high schools are: Cheyenne, Evanston, Lander, Laramie, Rawlins, Rock Springs, and Sheridan.

II. PRIVATE AND DENOMINATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

Southern University, Greensboro, Ala.—Certificates from A. B. or A. M. preceptors will be sufficient to waive examination on any branch required for the freshmen class.

Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal.—The university does not agree, in advance, to exempt the graduates of any school from all entrance examinations. Recommendations from the principal of any reputable preparatory school will be considered, and examinations waived in all entrance subjects fairly covered in the applicant's course of study, subject to the following conditions:

(1) The applicant must have completed a full course in the school, and have been duly graduated.

(2) The applicant must be specifically recommended by the principal in the subjects in which exemption is granted.

(3) The faculty reserve the right to require an examination in any recommended subject, if for any reason the work is deemed insufficient or unsatisfactory.

(4) For the present, certificates will not be accepted in English composition, Latin prose composition (except by special arrangement), physiology, botany, zoology, and drawing.

(5) In physics and chemistry recommendations must be accompanied by the laboratory notebooks of the applicant. These notebooks should contain the actual notes taken in the laboratory, not copies, and must be certified by the teacher.

(6) Recommended graduates of the San Jose, Los Angeles, and Chico State normal schools may be admitted, without examination, except in English, to provisional undergraduate standing, such standing subject to revision after one year's attendance.

Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Colo.—Candidates who offer satisfactory evidence of having completed the subjects required for admission will be admitted without condition into the freshman class.

University of Denver, University Park, Colo.—Certificates from high schools and other secondary schools will greatly aid the student in securing admission. Whenever it is possible to accept a certificate instead of requiring an examination it will cheerfully be done. Students who present themselves with certificates from a Colorado high school, showing that they have completed any one of the courses of study adopted by the State Teachers' Association, will be admitted without condition to the freshman class.

Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.—Certificates covering the major part of the requirements for admission to college are received from certain schools of good standing, which have been approved by the faculty, but no certificates are received

covering the entrance requirements in Latin prose composition, sight reading of Latin (both prose and poetry) Greek prose composition, sight reading of Greek, French, German, English (study and practice) natural science.

Columbian University, Washington, D. C.—Candidates may be excused from examination in some or all of the required subjects by presenting certificates from the Washington high school or from other schools of good standing.

Howard University, Washington, D. C.—Graduates of the Washington high schools are admitted to the scientific course without examination if they satisfy the instructors concerned that they will make up any deficiency in chemistry and physical geography. Others may be admitted by vote of the faculty on showing that they have passed a preparatory course embracing as broad a scope as that indicated in the admission requirements, and that they are qualified to pursue all studies in course successfully.

Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Ill.—Graduates from accredited seminaries and high schools may be admitted on certificate without examination. The accredited schools are: Grand Prairie Seminary, Waynesville Academy and high schools of Bloomington, Decatur, Edinburg Township, Farmer City, Geneseo, Gibson City, Joliet, Elpaso (west side), Lexington, Macomb, Peoria, Pontiac, Sheldon, Springfield, Tuscola, Watska, and Kewanee.

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.—Students who come from an accredited academy or high school may be admitted on certificate upon the condition that if the work of a student in his first term shall prove unsatisfactory he may be required to enter a fitting school and review his preparation in the study in which the failure has occurred. School boards desiring to have their schools placed on the accredited list should make application to the president of the university, who will provide, if practicable, for a proper inspection by committee. The following information is expected in the letter of application:

- (a) The names of all the teachers, with a statement both of their preparation for teaching and of their experience in that work.
- (b) The latest printed catalogue or annual report of the school, containing an outline of the course of study and text-books used.
- (c) A careful statement of the methods pursued in teaching mathematics, language, and the sciences.
- (d) The amount and kind of scientific apparatus and the extent of library facilities accessible to students.

The schools which are approved by the faculty after inspection are placed on the accredited list, and the relation thus established will continue for three years unless the faculty becomes satisfied that such changes have occurred as make further inspection desirable. There are now on the accredited list the following: High schools of Aurora (east side, west side), Austin, Chicago (Englewood, Hyde Park, Jefferson, Lake View, north division, northwest division, Oak Park, west division, south division), Decatur, Evanston, Geneseo, Joliet, Kansas City (Mo.), Keokuk (Iowa), Milwaukee (Wis.), Minneapolis (Minn.), Ottawa, Peoria, Rockford, Sioux City (Iowa), Springfield, St. Paul (Minn.), Wichita (Kans.); Jennings Seminary, Aurora; Allen Academy, Chicago; Chicago Academy; Harvard School, Chicago; University Academy, Chicago; Academy of Northwestern University, Evanston; Milwaukee (Wis.) Academy; Michigan Military Academy, Orchard Lake, Mich. Also schools in California, Iowa, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, that are on the accredited list of the State universities of their respective States, will be recognized as if accredited by this university.

Lake Forest University, Lake Forest, Ill.—Schools are accredited by vote of the college faculty only after visitation and recommendation by a committee of the same. A certificate of graduation from such school will be accepted in place of entrance examinations in so far as the course pursued by the student has conformed to the requirements for admission. There are now on the accredited list Carroll College, Waukesha, Wis.; Elgin Academy; Geneseo Collegiate Institute; Racine (Wis.) Academy; high schools: Aurora (west), Bloomington, Chicago (north division, south division, west division), Elgin, Englewood, Evanston, Highland Park, Hyde Park, Jefferson, Joliet, Kewanee, Lagrange, Lake, Lake View, Normal, Oak Park, Ottawa, Peoria, Rockford, Rock Island, Springfield, Waukegan, Clinton (Iowa), Milwaukee (Wis.).

Monmouth College, Monmouth, Ill.—Candidates, on furnishing proper certificates of their standing, shall be admitted from any one of the following schools to the freshman class, in so far as these completed studies correspond with the studies below the freshman class: Albany (Oreg.) Collegiate Institute, Marissa Academy, Geneseo Collegiate Institute, Waitsburg (Wash.) Academy, Pawnee (Nebr.) Academy; high schools of Monmouth, Xenia (Ohio), Burlington (Iowa), Kewanee, Davenport (Iowa), Rock Island, and on regents' pass cards, New York.

Shurtleff College, Upper Atton, Ill.—Certificates from the following schools will be recognized: Pillsbury Academy, Minnesota; Wayland Academy, Wisconsin, and the

high schools of Alton, Jerseyville, Springfield, Lexington, Decatur, Cairo, Williams-ville, and East St. Louis, all in Illinois.

Wheaton College, Wheaton, Ill.—Graduates of the following academies and high schools are admitted without examination: In Illinois: Cairo, Charleston, Decatur, Dwight, Elgin, Freeport, Geneseo, Highland Park (Northwestern Military Academy), Jacksonville, Kewanee, Ottawa, Paxton (Rice Collegiate Institute), Princeton, Rock Falls, Rockford, Springfield, Sterling, Wheaton, Anamosa, Brighton, Greenville, Lena, Mason, Naperville, Nauvoo, Mount Pulaski, Paxton. In Indiana: Aurora, Bristol, Decatur, Delphi, Garrett, Frankfort, Kokomo, Michigan City, Greencastle, Rensselaer. In Iowa: Decorah, Oskaloosa, Waverly, Wilton. In Kansas: Wichita. In Kentucky: Ashland. In Michigan: Adrian, Caro, Cassopolis, Constantine, Howell, Jackson, Muskegon, Niles, East Saginaw, St. Joseph. In Washington: Tacoma. In Wisconsin: Appleton, Monroe, Racine, Richland Center, Sheboygan.

Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Ind.—Graduates from commissioned high schools of Indiana, who present a full statement of work done in these institutions, signed by the principals of the schools, will receive credit for the same without examination. Spiceland Academy, Bloomingdale Academy, Union high school (Westfield), and Fairmount Academy, together with certain other schools of high standard, both within and without the State of Indiana, which have been approved by a special vote of the faculty, are entitled to the privileges of commissioned high schools.

De Pauw University, Greencastle, Ind.—Graduates of the commissioned high schools of Indiana are admitted without examination, except that they are required to give, by a practical test in composition, satisfactory evidence of ability to write the English language correctly. Candidates must in all cases present evidence of their graduation and a certified copy of the high school course as pursued by them. Certificates from high schools of known reputation in other States, and those of all approved fitting schools will be accepted.

Butler College, Irvington, Ind.—Certificates of work done in public or private schools of approved standing are accepted in lieu of examinations, subject to the following conditions: (1) The student's application must be accompanied by a certificate from the principal of the school from which he comes. (2) This certificate must furnish full and specific information concerning the applicant's studies, the time devoted to them, and should indicate his proficiency therein. (3) The candidate not to be exempted from the examination in any particular subject unless his certificate shows that he has satisfactorily accomplished the full amount of work in that subject. Every candidate, whether from a commissioned high school or other, shall be subject to examination in English for the purpose of determining his ability to use the English language correctly. (4) Admission on certificate will, in every case, for the first term, be regarded merely as provisional.

Union Christian College, Merom, Ind.—Students who come from commissioned high schools and other reputable institutions will be given credit for all work done elsewhere, provided such work is properly accredited.

Earlham College, Richmond, Ind.—A certificate of scholarship, signed by the principal of any one of the following schools, is accepted in place of examination on any of the branches required for admission to the college: Fairmount Academy; Spiceland Academy; Bloomingdale Academy; Union high school, Westfield; Central Academy, Plainfield; Raisin Valley Seminary, Adrian, Mich.; Damascus (Ohio) Academy; Friends' Academy, Union Springs, N. Y.; Vermilion Academy, Vermilion Grove, Ill.; Friends' Academy, Tonganoxie, Kans.; North Branch (Kans.) Academy; Hesper (Kans.) Academy; Washington (Kans.) Academy; Lowell (Kans.) Institute; and all high schools commissioned by the Indiana State board of education.

Taylor University, Upland, Ind.—Students bearing the personal certificates of a former teacher, concerning studies satisfactorily completed, will be given credit for the work they have done.

Tabor College, Tabor, Iowa.—First-class teachers' certificates or satisfactory marks from schools whose standing is known will be accepted in place of examinations in the studies so provided for.

Western College, Toledo, Iowa.—The graduates of high schools and academies accepted by the Iowa State University, and such other schools as the faculty may approve, will be received on proper certificate.

Baker University, Baldwin, Kans.—Graduates of the following schools are admitted to the freshmen class: High schools of Abilene, Atchison, Atchison County, Burlington, Burlingame, Dickinson County, Hiawatha, Iola, Labette County, Lawrence, Kansas City, Paola, Pleasanton, Seneca, Wichita, and Wamego in the State of Kansas; Hesper (Kans.) Academy, Olathe (Kans.) Academy, and Kansas City (Mo.) high school. In addition to the above there are a number of schools whose work falls but little short of fully preparing students.

Washburn College, Topeka, Kans.—Certificates from teachers and schools of recognized standing will be received, except for the work in French, chemistry, and part of the work in German and mathematics.

Central University, Richmond, Ky.—Students from high schools of recognized good standing, if certified to have completed a course of study which can be fairly accepted as an equivalent, and to have passed satisfactory examinations on the same, will be received on trial into the freshman class. This privilege has been granted to the following: Alleghany Academy, near Lexington; Shelbyville high school; Hogsett's Academy, Danville; Rugby high school, Louisville; Almond's University School, Louisville; Training School for Boys, Louisville; Waddell's high school, Louisville; Cynthia high school; Henry County high school, New Castle; Henry Academy, Versailles; Jordan's high school, Pine Bluff, Ark.; Versailles high school; Wentworth Military Academy, Lexington, Mo.; Presbyterian high school, Campbellsville.

Tulane University, New Orleans, La.—The following regulation has been adopted by the board of administrators: That if any public or private high school or academy in the State shall furnish to the president of the university satisfactory proof (1) that it has adopted the curriculum of studies recommended by him, or its equivalent, (2) that it has a corps of teachers competent for instruction therein, and (3) that it has enforced an adequate standard of examinations, the president is hereby authorized to accept the certificate of the principal of such school that the student has followed the course and passed successfully the required examinations as entitling such student to admission to the appropriate college course without further preliminary examination, provided that this shall not take effect until after said school shall have furnished one or more students who have successfully passed the ordinary entrance examination; and provided further, that if on trial the students from such school shall prove to be insufficiently prepared, this privilege shall be promptly withdrawn from such school. The following schools have met the above requirements: New Orleans City high school; T. W. Dyer's University School; L. C. Ferrell's Select School for Boys; Thatcher Institute, Shreveport, La., and New Iberia high school; also Soulé's Commercial College, in English and mathematics.

Colby University, Waterville, Me.—Graduates of the four academies, Coburn Classical Institute, Waterville, Me.; Hebron (Me.) Academy, Ricker Classical Institute, Houlton, Me., and Higgins Classical Institute, Charleston, Me., constituting the preparatory department of the university, will be admitted on the certificate of the principal that they have completed the course and attained an average scholarship of at least 70 per cent in each study, provided that the said certificate shall be granted with approval of the faculty of the college. A similar arrangement has been made with other approved fitting schools.

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.—When a school approved by the academic council shall certify that a candidate has satisfactorily completed all the studies requisite for matriculation, such candidate will be exempted from examination in all except the following subjects: Trigonometry, analytic geometry, Cicero or Virgil, Latin prose composition, Homer or Herodotus, Greek prose composition, and the minor courses in French, German, English, and science.

New Windsor College, New Windsor, Md.—Students who come recommended from approved schools or by persons able to attest their proper preparation are admitted to any of the courses without examination.

Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.—From certain preparatory schools of approved standing certificates of fitness to enter college are received in place of entrance examinations; but such certificates must be filled out in detail in accordance with forms printed and furnished by the college. The pass cards, certificates, and diplomas given by the regents of the University of the State of New York are accepted in the subjects which they cover. These are not accepted in English, and only partly satisfy the requirements in Greek.

Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.—The privilege of sending students to this college by certificate is granted to schools which ask for it and which comply with the conditions on which this privilege is given, but it is not granted to private tutors and is revokable in all cases when it is not properly exercised. No certificate will be accepted for the French and German required for admission to the course without Greek, nor for an optional examination in science.

Albion College, Albion, Mich.—Certificates are accepted from all schools which (a) have been approved by the faculty of Albion College; (b) have been approved by the University of Michigan; (c) have supplied evidence that in extent, quality, and completeness of work the pupil has gained the scholarship and culture required for admission.

Hillsdale College, Hillsdale, Mich.—Students who bring certificates of work done in other institutions will be admitted to classes in Hillsdale College without examination as follows: (1) In accordance with arrangements already made, and until further notice, students will be admitted to the freshman class who have completed the three preparatory years in Rio Grande and Parker colleges. (2) Certificates of preparatory instruction under Hillsdale graduates will be accepted for what they will cover. (3) Students will be admitted without examination in studies covered by the regents' certificates of New York and Minnesota. (4) Certificates of standing

will be accepted from those high schools in Michigan whose courses of study and the instruction are satisfactory to the faculty. (5) Certificates will be accepted from such other schools as a committee from the faculty may recommend.

Olivet College, Olivet, Mich.—Candidates from schools on the university list and from other schools approved by the faculty are admitted on certificate.

Northwestern Christian College, Excelsior, Minn.—State certificates of work done in any of the high schools of Minnesota will be accepted in lieu of examinations in the studies for which certificates are presented. Certificates from other schools will also be accepted upon the faculty becoming satisfied of the scholarly standing of the school from which the certificates come.

Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.—Certificates from the State high school board or from approved high schools and academies will be accepted. Students holding diplomas of high schools which are ranked by the State board as of the "First class" will be admitted to the freshman class without examination in all subjects represented by the diplomas.

Tarkio College, Tarkio, Mo.—Certificates from the following schools are accepted: High schools in Tarkio, Villisca (Iowa), Clarinda (Iowa), and the Pawnee (Nebr.) Academy.

University of Omaha, Bellevue, Nebr.—Any academy or high school which furnishes satisfactory instruction will be placed on the list of schools accredited as preparing for this college. Any school asking to be accredited will be examined by a representative of the college faculty.

Gates College, Neligh, Nebr.—Certificates from high schools on the university list and from academies of good standing will be accepted for such parts of the admission requirements as their work covers.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.—Diplomas issued by the regents of the University of the State of New York are accepted in place of examinations in all the subjects required for entrance which are covered by such diplomas, including, upon the recommendation of the university departments concerned, the subjects of French and German. A statement from the teacher of the work done in these two subjects must be submitted by the holder of the diploma. Certificates and pass cards issued by the regents are not accepted unless they are presented by a holder of a regent's diploma.

The following rules and regulations have been adopted by the faculty on the subject of admission by certificate:

(1) Certificates of work done in public or private schools, in or out of the State, will not be accepted in lieu of examinations unless the applicant has completed a full course in the school and has been duly graduated, and the university authorities are satisfied regarding the standing of the school.

(2) The application for the admission of a student by certificate must be made by the principal and not by the candidate himself.

(3) The application from the principal must be accompanied by full and specific information with regard to the completeness and thoroughness of the studies and course in which instruction is given. In case a catalogue or circular is published, a copy thereof should also be furnished.

(4) Certificates from schools whose students prove to be imperfectly fitted will ultimately not be considered.

(5) Subjects in which an examination has been passed for admission to the school may be included in the certificate, but in all cases the full information called for by the blank should be given.

(6) No school certificate will be accepted in place of entrance examination in English.

(7) The committee having charge of the acceptance of certificates may meet at any time during the collegiate year, but the certificate should be forwarded as soon after the graduation of the student as is possible, and at least as early as the 1st of September.

(8) The university does not engage in advance to accept the certificates of any school, and the previous acceptance of such certificates merely raises the presumption that similar certificates may be accepted again, but does not establish a permanent right to such acceptance.

Fassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.—Students are admitted without examination in the following cases: (1) When they bring certificates from schools from which pupils have previously been admitted without condition. (2) When they have been prepared by a graduate of the college engaged in the work of private instruction, one of whose pupils has before been admitted without condition. (3) When they bring certificates from schools which have been visited by a committee of the faculty and approved by them, or in regard to which the faculty have other sufficient means of information. (4) The certificate of the regents of the State of New York are accepted. (5) The certificate of the president of Harvard College offered by

persons who have successfully passed the examinations for women will be accepted. The final examination in any subject covered by a certificate must have been taken within two years of the time of the candidate's entrance to college.

Union College, Schenectady, N. Y.—As a means of raising the school standards in preparatory English, all candidates will be examined in English, but in other subjects pass cards and certificates of the regents of the University of the State of New York and diplomas of schools approved by the faculty will be accepted.

Trinity College, Durham, N. C.—Students bringing certificates of proficiency in subjects required for admission to the freshman class only from preparatory schools on the "scholarship list" will be admitted without examination. The affiliated schools are: Trinity (N. C.) High School, Jonesboro (N. C.) High School, Burlington (N. C.) Academy, Bellwood (N. C.) Academy, Trinity Academy, Pilot Mountain, N. C.; Morven (N. C.) Academy, Hartland (N. C.) Academy.

Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio.—Applicants from the Barnesville, Cambridge, New Concord, Zanesville, and Dresden high schools and Fultonham Academy, and from other high schools and academies whose work the faculty may accept, will be given credit for the work they have done.

Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.—The following regulations have been adopted by the faculty in regard to admission by certificate:

(1) Diplomas issued by high schools and academies whose work has been examined and approved are accepted in all subjects in which the requirements are fully covered by the diploma. The list of schools examined and approved is as follows: Akron, Ashtabula, Austinburg, Bellevue, Bucyrus, Canton, Chardon, Hughes High School of Cincinnati, Cleveland Central, Cleveland West, Columbus, Dayton, Elyria, Geneva, Jefferson, Kinsman, Lima, Mansfield, Massillon, Monroeville, Mount Vernon, Newark, Norwalk, Oberlin, Painesville, Salem, Sandusky, South New Lyme, Tiffin, Toledo, Troy, Warren, Wellington, and Zanesville, in Ohio; Buffalo and Warsaw, in New York; Perkiomen Seminary, Pennsburg, Pa.; Lansing High School, Michigan; Ottawa and Princeton, in Illinois; Sioux City, in Iowa, and Denver, in Colorado.

(2) Applications for such approval of the work of a school must be made by the principal and accompanied by full and explicit information concerning the studies and courses.

(3) Conditional permission may be granted to the principal of a school to send students for admission upon certificate for a limited period. When three or more students so received have shown by their subsequent standing that their preparation was satisfactory, the permission may be extended to a longer period.

(4) All students entering in whole or in part upon certificate must send a full statement by their teachers of the work done in each study.

Wilmington College, Wilmington, Ohio.—Certificates of work done in Friends' academies and in public high schools whose principals are known to the faculty will be accepted in lieu of examination.

Willamette University, Salem, Oreg.—Students bearing certificates from the following correlated academies will be admitted: Wasco Independent Academy, The Dalles, Oreg.; Santiam Academy, Lebanon, Oreg.; Pendleton Academy, Pendleton, Oreg.

Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.—Certain preparatory schools of approved standing are allowed to examine their own students, who will be admitted on the certificate of the principals. Diplomas or certificates of graduation from schools and seminaries are not accepted unless accompanied by statements from the principal or faculties that the applicants have completed in a satisfactory manner the work required for admission to college.

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.—Candidates are admitted, in certain cases, either wholly or in part upon diplomas of public high schools. Candidates who present such diplomas will be referred to a committee, who will examine each case and decide whether the diplomas shall be accepted in lieu of examinations, and what subjects they properly cover.

Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.—Graduates of the following schools are admitted upon presenting regular certificates, properly filled up by the principals: Friends' Central School, Philadelphia, Pa.; Friends' Seminary, New York City; Friends' High School, Baltimore, Md.; Woodstown Academy, Woodstown, N. J.; Friends' School, Wilmington, Del.; Friends' High School, Westchester, Pa.; Friends' High School, Moorestown, N. J.; Buckingham Friends' School, Lahaska, Pa.; Friends' Academy, Locust Valley, Long Island; Friends' Select School, Washington, D. C.; Sherwood School, Sandy Spring, Md.; Friends' School, Kennett Square, Pa.; Providence Preparative Meeting School, Media, Pa.; Oakland Boarding School, Fallston, Md.; Friends' Normal Institute, Risingsun, Md.; Abington Friends' School, Jenkintown, Pa.; Swarthmore Grammar School, Swarthmore, Pa.; George School, Newtown, Pa.; Friends' School, Christiana, Pa. Blank certificates are furnished each year to the principals of these preparatory schools and to such private teachers as may be named for the privilege.

U. S. Grant University, Athens and Chattanooga, Tenn.—Realizing the importance of thorough and systematic preparation for higher studies and extended courses, the trustees have arranged for concerted and harmonious action among the principal seminaries and academies that are tributary to the university by the adoption of a uniform course of study leading to the regular college and technical classes. The following schools are comprised in the association: Powell's Valley Academy, Well Springs, Tenn.; Fuller Institute, Chucky City, Tenn.; Roanoke Academy, Roanoke, Va.; Leicester Academy, Leicester, N. C.; Mount Zion (Ga.) Academy; Oakland Academy, Laurel Gap, Tenn.; Parrottsville (Tenn.) Academy; McLemoresville (Tenn.) Academy; Bloomington (Tenn.) College; Kingsley Academy, Bloomingdale, Tenn.; Mountain City (Tenn.) Academy; Mallalieu Academy, Kinsey, Ala.; Ellijay (Ga.) Academy; Graham Academy, Smyrna, N. C.; Murphy Collegiate Institute, Sevierville, Tenn.; Fair View College, Trap Hill, N. C.; Sunbright (Tenn.) Academy.

Carson and Newman College, Mossy Creek, Tenn.—Graduates of Jonesboro high school, Harrison and Chilhowee Normal Academy, and other preparatory schools of acknowledged standing will be admitted on the certificates from such schools.

Washington College, Tenn.—Graduates from the incorporated high schools of the State are admitted without examination.

Austin College, Sherman, Tex.—Students completing the course through any school recognized by the University of Texas will be admitted to the freshman class without examination. In addition, the high schools of Sherman and Summer Hill are also recognized.

Lawrence University, Appleton, Wis.—Graduates of any school which has been approved by the faculty may be admitted on the presentation of a certificate giving their standing. Graduates of the high schools accredited by the State University may be admitted for courses corresponding to the courses they have taken, excepting those accredited in the English courses. Graduates of normal schools of Wisconsin are accepted upon their record at these schools. Certificates of standing from high schools not accredited are received in some studies.

Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.—Graduates of any school which has been approved by the faculty after personal visitation will, when recommended by the principal of the school, be admitted without examination. Applicants for admission to the science course from accredited schools will be admitted without Latin provided the applicant is a graduate from a four-years course of study, which is the equivalent of the general science course issued for Wisconsin high schools. Graduates of the normal schools of Wisconsin are accepted upon their record at those schools. Certificates are received from more distant schools of established reputation. The following schools are on the accredited list: Beloit College Academy; Carroll College, Waukesha; Rochester Academy; Warren (Ill.) Academy; Smith Academy, St. Louis, Mo. In Wisconsin: High schools of Beloit, Delaware, Eau Claire, Elkhorn, Fort Atkinson, Janesville, La Crosse, Milwaukee (East Side and South Side), Monroe, Racine, Sparta, Whitewater. In Illinois: High schools of Chicago (north division, south division, west division, northwest division, Lake View, Lake, Englewood, and Hyde Park), Aurora (east), Austin, Elgin, Lagrange, Oak Park, Ottawa, Rockford; Sioux City, Iowa; Duluth, Minn.

III. INSTITUTIONS ADMITTING STUDENTS UPON PRESENTATION OF CERTIFICATES FROM APPROVED OR ACCREDITED HIGH SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES, AND WHICH DO NOT PUBLISH LISTS OF SUCH SCHOOLS IN THEIR ANNUAL CATALOGUES.

Hendrix College, Conway, Ark.
 Pomona College, Claremont, Cal.
 Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena, Cal.
 University of Southern California, University, Cal.
 San Joaquin Valley College, Woodbridge, Cal.
 Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.
 Georgetown University, Washington, D. C.
 Seminary West of the Suwanee River, Tallahassee, Fla.
 Rollins College, Winter Park, Fla.
 Hedding College, Abingdon, Ill.
 Eureka College, Eureka, Ill.
 Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.
 Lombard University, Galesburg, Ill.
 Franklin College, Franklin, Ind.
 Hanover College, Hanover, Ind.

Ridgeville College, Ridgeville, Ind.
 Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
 Amity College, College Springs, Iowa.
 Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.
 Parsons College, Fairfield, Iowa.
 Upper Iowa University, Fayette, Iowa.
 Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa.
 Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa.
 Iowa Wesleyan University, Mount Pleasant, Iowa.
 Cornell College, Mount Vernon, Iowa.
 Penn College, Oskaloosa, Iowa.
 Central University, Pella, Iowa.
 College of Emporia, Emporia, Kans.
 Central College, Enterprise, Kans.
 Kansas Wesleyan University, Salina, Kans.
 Cooper Memorial College, Sterling, Kans.
 Southwest Kansas College, Winfield, Kans.

Kentucky Wesleyan College, Winchester, Ky.	Ashland University, Ashland, Ohio.
Bates College, Lewiston, Me.	Baldwin University, Berea, Ohio.
Woman's College of Baltimore, Md.	Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Boston University, Boston, Mass.	Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.
Tufts College, Mass.	Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio.
Smith College, Northampton, Mass.	Hiram College, Hiram, Ohio.
Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.	Lima College, Lima, Ohio.
Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass.	Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio.
Adrian College, Adrian, Mich.	Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.
Alma College, Alma, Mich.	Heidelberg University, Tiffin, Ohio.
Battle Creek College, Battle Creek, Mich.	Otterbein University, Westerville, Ohio.
Benzonia College, Benzonia, Mich.	University of Wooster, Wooster, Ohio.
Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Mich.	Pacific University, Forest Grove, Oreg.
Hamline University, Hamline, Minn.	Ursinus College, Collegeville, Pa.
Macalester College, St. Paul, Minn.	Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
Drury College, Springfield, Mo.	Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg, Pa.
Missouri Wesleyan College, Cameron, Mo.	Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.
Central Wesleyan College, Warrenton, Mo.	Monongahela College, Jefferson, Pa.
Union College, College View, Nebr.	Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa.
Nebraska Wesleyan University, University Place, Nebr.	Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa.
York College, York, Nebr.	Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa.
Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.	Brown University, Providence, R. I.
Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J.	Black Hills College, Hot Springs, S. Dak.
Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.	Redfield College, Redfield, S. Dak.
St. Lawrence University, Canton, N. Y.	Cumberland University, Lebanon, Tenn.
Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.	Maryville College, Maryville, Tenn.
Elmira College, Elmira, N. Y.	Fort Worth University, Fort Worth, Tex.
Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y.	Add Ran Christian University, Thorp Spring, Tex.
Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.	Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vt.
University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.	Norwich University, Northfield, Vt.
Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.	Walla Walla College, College Place, Wash.
Buchtel College, Akron, Ohio.	Whitman College, Walla Walla, Wash.
Mount Union College, Alliance, Ohio.	

IV. INSTITUTIONS¹ ACCEPTING CERTIFICATES AND DIPLOMAS OF THE REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

Monmouth College, Monmouth, Ill.	Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y.
Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.	Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.
Hillsdale College, Hillsdale, Mich.	Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
St. Stephen's College, Annandale, N. Y.	Manhattan College, New York City.
Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.	Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Polytechnic Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.	University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.
St. Lawrence University, Canton, N. Y.	Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.
Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.	Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
Elmira College, Elmira, N. Y.	Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa.

V. INSTITUTIONS ADMITTING STUDENTS ON DIPLOMAS OR CERTIFICATES FROM APPROVED HIGH SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES AND WHICH DO NOT PUBLISH A LIST OF SUCH SCHOOLS.

Northwestern College, Naperville, Ill.	Lane University, Lecompton, Kans.
Midland College, Atchison, Kans.	Cotner University, Bethany, Nebr.
Highland University, Highland, Kans.	Lebanon Valley College, Annville, Pa.

¹Does not include State institutions accepting such certificates and diplomas.

CHAPTER XXVI.

TECHNOLOGICAL INSTRUCTION IN THE LAND-GRANT COLLEGES.¹

Probably the earliest chair explicitly though partly concerned with instruction in science was created by an American college. In 1727 Thomas Hollis, a merchant of London, "though jeered at and sneered at by many" (in England), persisted in his design to endow Harvard College with a "professorship of mathematics and physical science." It was not until 1730 that the "Principia" were firmly established even at Newton's own university of Cambridge, while at Oxford it is said that the "majority of the residents regarded mathematics and Puritanism as allied and equally unholy subjects."

I.

In America the first institution of higher education that was induced by the liberality of an individual to recognize industrialism was Harvard College, which in 1816 established "a new institution and professorship in order to teach by regular courses of academical and public lectures, accompanied with proper experiments, the utility of the physical and mathematical sciences, and for the extension of the industry, prosperity, happiness, and the well-being of society." The founder of this chair was the celebrated experimental scientist, Count Rumford, a native of Woburn, Mass., where he had been known as Benjamin Thompson. How unprepared for the introduction of this subject the pedagogical world was at that date may be inferred from the fact that the college authorities, in view of the "novelty of the institution," required only four annual lectures to be given by the first professor while he prepared himself for the duties of his chair. In 1827 the professor resigned, and for seven years the vacancy remained unfilled.

At Yale and Princeton a chair of chemistry had been more fortunate. The study of general chemistry since the days of the alchemists has been found well adapted to inspire interest. Besides, the early chairs for this science were created at an epoch in European history when the discoveries of Cavendish and Priestly and the system of Lavoisier had made chemistry the order of the day; though even at Harvard chemistry was for years joined at first with *materia medica* and then with mineralogy.

During the decade 1820-1830 a strong protest was made against the college curriculum in America. Efforts were made at Harvard, Amherst, and Yale to modify the course, and Union had alternatives as early as 1824. It is rather hazardous to attempt to account for this. After the close of the Revolutionary war Washington had deeply lamented that so many of the youth of this country studied in Europe, and after the close of the Napoleonic wars it again became quite fashionable for American students to continue their education in European universities. A constantly accelerated impetus may thus have been given to higher education in the United States by these students as they returned to their native land. Yet it seems

¹ By Mr. Wellford Addis, specialist in the Bureau for obtaining and collating information relating to colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts.

more probable that a new conception of a college curriculum was due to the example afforded by the University of Virginia, which was established 1818-1825, rather than to the slow process of organic development brought about by the efforts of individual professors.

It is not difficult to say where Mr. Jefferson got his idea of a university curriculum that bears a pretty close resemblance to the several bills (or projets, as they are called in France) introduced into the National Assembly by Mirabeau, Talleyrand, and Condorcet (1789-1793), the representatives of a party with which Mr. Jefferson had very intimate relations during his residence at Paris from 1785 to 1789. But irrespective of the mere question as to the origin of the idea, the first comprehensive attempt in America to change the college curriculum was the founding of the University of Virginia. Gradually the practice of having parallel classical and scientific courses came to be a feature of our higher education. But there was room for another type, and as the idea of a Harvard came from England, and as the idea of a University of Virginia came directly or indirectly from France, so the idea of a Johns Hopkins came from Germany.

Such are the three university types of North America;¹ but beside them there has arisen another type, which at first had the character which Count Rumford desired to give to his chair at Harvard, but is now developing a strong tendency to claim for itself the disciplinary power that, in the sphere of literary research, the individual effort in the seminaria of Johns Hopkins is known to give, and for similar reasons. In this type the laboratory or shop takes the place of the library and quasi original manuscripts, and activity and concentration of thought are sought to be developed by the study of industrial operations and appliances rather than the power of philosophic generalization and the delicate sensibilities and discernment of the literary man through the study of the classics or other literature exclusively.

II.

In 1824 Stephen Van Rensselaer made an effort to do for the people directly through lectures what Count Rumford had desired to do for them through the medium of a college. Mr. Van Rensselaer had satisfied himself that great defects existed in the ordinary and prevailing systems of education; he "saw that some of the most useful subjects of human knowledge were scarcely communicated at all in quarters where they seemed most needed for the practical purposes of life." His first movement was to send a scientific person, with competent assistants and adequate apparatus, to deliver familiar lectures on chemistry, natural philosophy, and natural history. Having difficulty in finding competent lecturers, his next effort was to found a normal school of science, such perhaps as he may have heard that the first French Republic had established under the name *L'École Normale*. The principal object of the American school, as indeed the object of the French school, was to qualify persons to instruct the sons and daughters of tradesmen and farmers in the application of experimental chemistry, physics, and natural history to agriculture, domestic economy, arts, and manufactures. Such was the origin of the Rensselaer Institute. In 1839 "it was stated as a fact from calculations actually made, that the institute had itself furnished more experimental teachers and professors, engineers, geologists, etc., than had been furnished in the same time by all the colleges in the Union." Ten years later, however, it was found that "there were certain radical defects in the fundamental features of its organization, and that the course of study was undeniably somewhat vague, unsystematic, and incomplete." The course was altered to conform to the character of the instruction given in the polytechnic schools of Europe, and the word polytechnic added to the title of the school.

The munificence of Count Rumford began to tell at Harvard about 1847 in an unexpected way. Mr. Abbot Lawrence desired to found a school of practical science at Boston, and to encourage him Harvard appointed a chemist to fill the Rumford

¹ Only one of which can be said to be in a European sense of university grade.

professorship, chemistry then being the practical science of the day, with headquarters at Liebig's laboratory in Hesse-Darmstadt and Boussingault's farm in Alsace. Mr. Lawrence, in establishing the school now known by his name, considered that elementary and classical education had been amply provided for in Massachusetts. The classical schools would supply the professions with educated men, while the counting-house or the ocean was the proper school for the votaries of commerce; but, he asked, where could industry educate her far more numerous votaries? As established, the Lawrence Scientific School was composed of three departments, with the Rumford professor as dean and the Rumford endowment as the financial foundation. These departments were practical chemistry, zoology, and civil engineering. The professor of chemistry had studied in Liebig's laboratory; Professor Agassiz organized the departments of geology and zoology, but what the department of engineering was to be no one knew. After considerable delay the ex-president of the college, Mr. Edward Everett, was appealed to to say what form this new department of higher education should take, and he is reported to have replied: "Well, my idea would be that you, the professor of engineering, should come to Cambridge and put up a sign as a surveyor and receive young men into your office." At first the school seems to have been a university all to itself, but in 1871 it was brought into close connection with the college, and the Rumford professorship "made to follow its particular objects, light and heat and the higher physics."

The influence of the researches of Liebig, Boussingault, and others in animal and vegetable chemistry and physiology has been already spoken of as sufficiently powerful to cause the Rumford professorship to be given to a chemist, and it may be inferred that the same influence was the efficient cause in the establishment of the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale. As early as 1846 the corporation of Yale College established two professorships of a scientific character. One of these was to give instruction in agricultural chemistry and animal and vegetable physiology, the other in practical chemistry. Like the Harvard venture in the same direction, "this department was left very much to take care of itself. No one in particular either helped or hindered its growth. Indeed, outside of those immediately and specially interested in it, no one troubled himself about it at all; and its position from the first was anomalous." About 1852 a third professorship or department was added to the other two, and to organize it the professor of civil engineering in Brown University came to Yale, bringing a class of 26 students with him. These professorships—dissecta membra of a school of science—were in the course of a year or two united into a "hypothetical institution called the Yale Scientific School," but there was no real connection between them until Mr. Sheffield, emulating Mr. Lawrence, gave \$50,000 to support the Sheffield Scientific School, after purchasing a building in which to house it. The income derived from the fund given by Congress to the State of Connecticut, and then by the State to the Sheffield School, made its future doubly secure.

III.

In Vermont and in Virginia scientific schools of a peculiar character were founded during the fourth decade of the present century. This characteristic was the military feature. As the founder of the northern school resigned the superintendency of the Military Academy at West Point to establish the institution that in 1834 became the Norwich University, and as Virginia Military Institute was confessedly established upon the basis of the West Point institution, it may be assumed that the military features were copied from the national school rather than adopted for the pedagogical or humanitarian reasons that the classicists assign for the retention of Latin and Greek. Both of these institutions have been eminently successful in their way. A president of the northern school was killed while leading his regiment, the Ninth New England, up the heights of Chapultepec, and his son, another alumnus and a major-general, was killed in the late war, while five of the professors of

the southern school lost their lives as general or regimental officers; and it is related with melancholy generality that 200 of its alumni were slain in battle and 350 maimed for life.

IV.

Let us pause for a moment to summarize what has been said. It has been found that shortly after the close of the war of 1812, and the beginning of a manufacturing era in the United States, a series of attempts was made to teach the people, or a portion of them, the scientific facts which underlie the mechanic arts. Indeed, in 1830 this connection of the practical or useful with an institution of learning took a very singular turn, for at perhaps a dozen institutions, notably at the Oneida Institute of Science and Industry, a system of exercises was adopted on the farm or in a mechanic shop that was not only to serve as a means of physical exercise, but also to afford support to the student. Perhaps it is not just to charge this eccentricity to the account of the effort to supply American superintendents and foremen to American industry; yet in our polytechnic institutions established before the civil war we find no effort to impart skill as well as directive power. Civil engineers were called surveyors, and the other great branch of technical instruction, chemistry, was also of a character which may be denominated genteel.

In the "fifties," and therefore coincident with the influx of first great foreign immigration, a demand sprang up for instruction in agriculture. Agricultural schools were established in Pennsylvania, in Iowa, and in other States, and in Michigan and Illinois the State normal schools, established about the same time, were to give instruction in husbandry, agricultural chemistry, and animal and vegetable physiology. But these schools and departments never flourished.

Attention was drawn from the genteel trades of chemistry and surveying, and the management of that very crude factory called a farm, to the business of making machines and industrial apparatus by the revival of industry that followed the civil war. Thus a class of institutions was called into life that had as their cardinal features—theretofore unknown—the performance of manual labor in a shop, and in a systematic manner.

Practical schools of mechanical engineering appeared almost simultaneously at Worcester, Mass., at Hoboken, N. J., and at Champaign, Ill. As the founders of the Worcester Free Institute were undoubtedly the first to provide for the practical laboratories or shops adapted to this mechanical instruction, it will be considered here as the type of the others. This school was founded by John Boynton, esq., of Templeton, in 1865, for the purpose of giving instruction in those branches of study which were not taught in the public schools, but which are essential and best adapted to train the young for practical life, especially as mechanics, manufacturers, or farmers. These rather vague instructions would, in all probability, have entailed the usual literary course in books on mechanics, steam engines, boiler making, and the like, with the usual work in the chemical and physical laboratories. The school was rescued from this fate by the generosity of Ichabod Washburn, of Worcester, who, in 1866, added to its outfit a new feature which he described as follows:

"There shall be a machine shop of sufficient capacity to employ twenty or more apprentices, with a suitable number of practical teachers and workmen in the shop to instruct such apprentices, and provided with all necessary steam power, engines, tools, apparatus, and machinery of the most approved models and styles in use, to carry on the business of such machine shop in all its parts as a practical working establishment."

It will be observed that this indicates a museum and laboratory rolled up into one, and such an innovation can not be too greatly emphasized; for the study of books in which scientific facts are recorded can never compete successfully with the literatures of Greece or Rome as a means of mental training, unless the principles accepted by a society which those literatures have made are fundamentally changed. The ruling oligarchy which produced and supported those literatures left industry to

slaves and applied itself to war, literature, and art, and, to a moderate degree, to the most elevating business in which a people can engage—that is to say, commerce upon the high seas.

V.

Other than as given in schools for the defective or delinquent classes, it has been shown how technical instruction in the United States has been broadening down from the education of a few chemists and surveyors toward the instruction of a number of young men who are taught by manual and visual familiarity the business at which they are to earn their daily bread in future life. It would be but to repeat what is already well known to attempt to show how such instruction for boys of 14 or 15 years was systematized by the introduction of the Russian system as in operation at the Strogonoff School at Moscow, and the effect of the kindergarten and industrial drawing propaganda awakened by the experiments of Massachusetts and several of our great cities, but there is one feature connected with the growth of technical instruction in the United States which is of special interest. In Europe trade schools have long existed, and are mainly supported by the community in which they are located, for they have been established in order to teach the industries peculiar to their environment. Indeed, many of the so-called industrial schools of Europe are only complementary to an apprenticeship. They are merely drawing schools for apprentices in decorative or industrial fine art, or are courses of elementary lectures on the scientific facts underlying industrial operations of a far more substantial kind. At these complementary schools the apprentice, after the completion of his day's work, or on Sunday, is taught to design or is told in an entertaining way of the principles which guide the work at which he has spent the day or week. It thus appears that the instruction given by the American "manual training school" is very much more generalized than that given in Europe. Yet this is not the special point adverted to above. That point is that only in the United States has any wide attempt been made to inaugurate a comprehensive system of instruction which would be for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts; and the basis of this provision is even more material than the history of the motives and the course of legislation which allowed the provision to be made. This basis was the possession of large bodies of land by the Federal Government given to it by the States or purchased by it to consolidate its territory.

The people inhabiting this country when it was discovered were regarded by the European Governments as *feræ naturæ*, and the title of the land upon which they ranged being in European law vacant, they granted it, not by local metes and bounds as in Europe, but by parallels of latitude which they suspected ran from the Atlantic to another ocean. Some acquaintance with the eastern coast, indeed, made it possible to be less lavish in granting the continent away; but the inexhaustible supply of territory perpetuated the liberal spirit that had from the very beginning prevailed. It was therefore natural that communities, poor in purse but rich in good will and land, should use their surplus for fostering education. The first public school of Boston was endowed with public land, the college at Cambridge during the first century and a half of its existence received nearly 100 square miles, and one year before the Puritans landed upon the New England coast 10,000 acres had been granted by the Virginia Company to found an English university in America. Nor did this munificence stop with the endowment of the schools; the Boston school-master, the Cambridge president, and the university superintendent were also endowed, the first with 30, the second with 500, and the third with 300 acres.

But of all the grants of public land for education two stand preeminent. One of these is thought to have laid the foundation of the school systems of the States which were formed from the Northwest Territory and settled by a people bred to believe in public schools, and the other, though granted for the purpose of benefiting agriculture and the mechanic arts, is considered with the same show of reason to have promoted the study of science, for their "leading object shall be * * * to

teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." Various interpretations have been put upon this act. In some cases State universities have been founded, in other cases old State universities have been endowed; sometimes the school which has been established is almost entirely an agricultural school, in other cases it is almost entirely an institution for technical instruction. In Missouri an institution already in existence was charged with the agricultural branch of the work and an institute of technology established in another part of the State, while in Massachusetts an institute of technology already in being was intrusted with work of giving technical instruction and an agricultural college established at a distance. But whatever differences in organization may appear, owing to the generality of the terms of the act or inadvertency, this much remains—that these schools have never been anything but schools of agricultural and mechanical engineering. The trade school of Europe—the school for the common people, the caste school, the school for the "industrial classes"—has no or next to no following in America.

VI.

The first attempt to investigate and in a measure, probably, to coordinate the work of the schools established for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts was made by this Bureau. Commissioner Eaton had the fortune to secure the services of an agent in the person of Prof. D. C. Gilman,¹ who reported at some length upon their condition, advising that a report such as his own be made at least once in ten years.

At the date of his report, November 1, 1871, 28 States of the 34 having received the land grant were known to have taken definite steps toward the establishment of such colleges as the act of Congress in 1862 contemplated. Those efforts had been usually put forth in good faith, but in some States the unsettled condition of affairs, and in others vague notions respecting the possibility of securing the end in view had been a disturbing factor. A great difficulty had been experienced in securing the services of accomplished and able men as professors in the departments of science of the institutions, which to Professor Gilman appeared to be one of the greatest obstacles which impede the success of the new movement. In almost every State the national grant had been added to the funds of some existing institution, in order that by the concentration of resources greater power may be acquired; but almost invariably, in cases, the Congressional funds, with others, expressly given for scientific purposes, have been separately invested and employed, so that they may not be diverted to classical or literary studies. The reporter deprecates the use of the term agricultural colleges, and hopes that something more proper as well as generic will be adopted, such as "national," "governmental," or "United States," as a prefix for a class of colleges so largely indebted to the Congressional endowment.

The first want felt in the establishment of this class of schools was the education of men of science to man them, but the first purpose for which they were established was the instruction of able, educated, trustworthy technologists, such as well-informed engineers, architects, mechanics, manufacturers, miners, agriculturists, and the like for which the country was at that time loudly calling. The third need was the education of skillful laborers, men who add to dexterity and muscular ability an appreciation of their work, an acquaintance more or less profound with the nature of the materials, the natural laws underlying the manufacturers' processes, etc. It was safe to say that at the date of 1871 in all the institutions enjoying the benefit of the act of 1862, the second or technological need was being met. Some of the institutions also appear to have had closely in mind the wants of those who are to labor with their hands upon the farm and in the workshop, and there was one or more in which the presence of a post-graduate

¹Now president of the Johns Hopkins University, but then a professor in the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University, his report for the Bureau being "vacation work."

course indicated a desire to supply men of science. In other institutions agriculture predominated over the mechanic arts, and this variation seemed to Professor Gilman to be about to be made more manifest in the future, and he regarded it on the whole, as desirable that each national college should have an office and aim of its own based upon a careful study of the want of the State in which it is located.

In regard to agriculture, Professor Gilman observes: "There is no doubt that many of those who urged upon Congress the bestowal of a grant of land to the several States were deeply interested in the culture of the soil. There is also no doubt that in many cases the end to be gained was better understood than the means which should be employed, or, in other words, that the theory of agriculture was vaguely worked out."

As to the military feature of the law of 1862, Professor Gilman found that it had given a great deal of trouble, and, as far as his observation had gone, in most of the States the repeal would be welcome.

VII.

Professor Gilman was perfectly correct in prognosticating that as time elapsed the institutions he had reported upon would tend to direct their energies along one certain line rather than another. The absolute necessity of making a good secondary education the base of a good technological education, everywhere recognized—in Germany, England, and France—the inability of the country boy to get such an education at home, the literary character of the corps of the instructors, all tended to make secondary instructions, properly so called, play a very important part in this class of institutions, especially in those which had been connected with a higher institution of learning. Technology was rescued from the fate of agriculture by the wave of enthusiasm for manual training and the happy exhibition at the Centennial Exposition of the Stroganoff School of Della Vos's scheme of manual instruction without a view to remuneration. But agriculture lagged behind until Congress again came to its aid by passing two laws, one known as the Hatch Act and the other as the Morrill Act. These and the law of 1862, to which they are supplementary, are the financial foundation of the schools created for the "liberal and practical education of the industrial classes" and thereby "for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts." A conspectus of these laws is given for convenience of reference.

Federal laws regarding institutions created by the act of 1862 and modified or enlarged by those of 1887 and 1890.

SYNOPSIS OF THE LAW OF JULY 2, 1862.

To establish colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts.

1. *The grant.*

Each State now existing and each new State admitted into the Union shall be entitled to as many times 30,000 acres of public land (not mineral bearing) as it had in 1860 or has, at the time of its admission, representatives in both Houses of Congress. When there is not enough (or no) public land within a State, scrip shall be issued; but no State shall locate land in another State save through assignees, nor shall any portion of land be located smaller than a quarter section.

2. *The object of the grant.*

Ten per cent or less of the entire gross proceeds of the grant may be used, if authorized by the legislature, in the purchase of land for sites or experimental farms.

The interest of the entire remaining gross proceeds of the grant shall be used for the endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life.

An annual report shall be made regarding the progress of each college, regarding improvements and experiments made, with their cost and results, and such other matters, including State, industrial, and economical statistics, as may be useful, one copy of which shall be transmitted by mail free by each to all the other colleges of the same class, and one copy to the Secretary of the Interior.

SYNOPSIS OF THE LAW OF MARCH 2, 1887.

To establish experimental stations in connection with colleges established by the law of July 2, 1862. [Wherever the word State is used the word Territory is implied.]

1. *The annual subsidy.*

There shall be appropriated annually, until the provision is amended, suspended, or repeated, the sum of \$15,000 to each State, to be paid quarterly out of any moneys in the United States Treasury arising from the sale of public lands, to the treasurer or other officer duly appointed by the governing boards of the colleges that have been or may be established in virtue of the act of July 2, 1862. The sum so granted is to be used for the following purposes:

2. *The object of the subsidy.*

There may be expended out of the first annual appropriation the sum of \$3,000 or less, in the erection, enlargement, or repair of necessary building or buildings, and \$750 or less of subsequent appropriations may be so expended.

There shall be established under the direction of the college or colleges, or agricultural departments of colleges, created by the law of 1862, in each State a department to be known as an "agricultural experiment station." Such experiment station shall conduct original researches or verify experiments, to wit: (1) On the physiology of plants and animals and the diseases to which they are severally subject, with remedies for the same; (2) on the chemical composition of useful plants at their different stages of growth; (3) on the comparative advantages of rotative cropping as pursued under a varying series of crops; (4) on the capacity of new plants or trees for acclimation; (5) in the analysis of soils and of water; (6) on the chemical composition of manures, natural or artificial, with experiments designed to test their comparative effects on crops of different kinds; (7) on the adaptation and value of grasses and forage plants; (8) on the composition and digestibility of the different kinds of food for domestic animals; (9) on the scientific and economic questions involved in the production of butter and cheese; and such other researches and experiments bearing directly upon the agricultural industry of the United States as may in each case be deemed advisable, having due regard to the climate of the State.

SYNOPSIS OF THE LAW OF AUGUST 30, 1890.

To more completely endow the colleges established under the law of July 2, 1862. [Wherever the word State is used the word Territory is implied.]

1. *The annual subsidy.*

There shall be annually appropriated until the provision is amended, suspended, or repeated, out of any money arising from the sale of public lands not otherwise appropriated, for the more complete endowment and maintenance of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts, the sum of \$15,000, and an annual increase of \$1,000 until the appropriation shall be \$25,000. [Territories not yet States may be beneficiaries of this law though not of the law of 1862.]

2. *The object of the subsidy.*

The amounts annually received by each designated school or college shall be applied only to instruction in agriculture, the mechanic arts, the English language, and the various branches of mathematical, physical, natural, and economic science, with special reference to their applications in the industries of life and to the facilities for such instruction.

An annual report shall be made by the president of each college to the Secretary of Agriculture, as well as to the Secretary of the Interior, regarding the condition and progress of the college, including statistical information in relation to its receipts and expenditures, its library, the number of its students and professors, and also as to any improvements and experiments made under the direction of any experiment stations attached to the college, with their cost and results, and such other industrial and economic statistics as may be regarded as useful, one copy of which shall be transmitted by mail free to other colleges of the same class.

3. *The conditions attached to the grant.*

The State legislature must formally accept the grant within three years, establish, at least one school of the character set forth, above within five years, must replace all losses to the fund, must invest the entire gross proceeds, after a permitted expenditure of not more than 10 per cent thereof for sites or experimental farms in safe stocks yielding not less than 5 per cent on their par value, and must use the interest wholly—excluding the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or buildings—in support of the school or schools established by this act.

3. *Conditions attached to the subsidy.*

The legislature of each State must formally accept the grants, must apply the appropriation to paying the necessary expenses of conducting investigations and experiments and printing and distributing the results, must connect the station with the institution endowed by virtue of the act of July 2, 1862, unless the State has an experimental station separate from the college, or the college is nondistinctively an agricultural college or school though having connected with it an experimental farm or station, in either of which cases the legislature may apply the whole or in the case of the nondistinctively agricultural college or school the whole or a part to a distinctively agricultural school having a station, and no State shall disable itself from so doing by contract express or implied.

Each station shall annually, on or before February 1, make to the governor of the State a full and detailed report of its operations, including a statement of receipts and expenditures, a copy of which shall be mutually interchanged among the stations, and one sent, respectively, to the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of the Treasury.

Bulletins shall be published by each station at least once in three months, which shall be sent by Government frank to each newspaper in the State and to such persons who are actually engaged in agriculture who shall request the same, as far as the means of the station permit.

4. *Federal jurisdiction.*

The Secretary of Agriculture shall furnish forms, as far as practicable, for the tabulation of results of investigation, shall indicate from time to time such lines of inquiry as shall seem to him important, and in general shall furnish such advice and assistance as will best promote the purpose of this law.

Whenever there is unexpended a portion of an annual appropriation, the Secretary of the Treasury shall deduct it from the next, so that each station shall receive no more than is necessary to maintain it.

3. *The conditions attached to the subsidy.*

The State legislature must formally accept the grants, may in certain States propose an equitable division of the fund between one school for white and one school for colored students, shall designate the officer to whom the annual appropriation shall be paid, who shall immediately pay it to the treasurer of the respective institution or institutions, who shall be required to report to the Secretary of Agriculture and to the Secretary of the Interior by detailed statement the amount received and disbursed, and shall replace all amounts lost by any action or contingency, and no portion of the amount annually received shall be applied directly or indirectly to the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or buildings.

4. *Federal jurisdiction.*

The Secretary of the Interior is charged with the proper administration of this law, and the treasurer of each college shall report to him (and the Secretary of Agriculture), on or before the 1st day of September of each year, a detailed statement of the amount received in virtue of this law and its disbursement, and if any State misapplies or loses any portion of the appropriation and does not replace the same the Secretary of the Interior shall withhold all subsequent appropriations, and notify the President of the United States of his reasons therefor; but the State may appeal to Congress, and if Congress uphold the Secretary the amount withheld shall be covered into the Treasury.

VIII.

The tendency at present manifested by the institutions founded on the sale of public lands is one of separation from the literary institutions with which, in England at least, at the present day, it is thought advisable that they should be conjoined. We have seen how slowly in the past our large existing institutions absorbed the conception that the empirical laws of nature should have a footing on the platform occupied by the subjects occupied more particularly with the ideal conception of what a man ought to be as distinguished from what, under the given conditions of his age, he is, and it seems evident that as the German, Hecker, in establishing his *realschulen*, about the middle of the last century, was obliged to place them in opposition as it were against the classical colleges of his native land, and as Jefferson was obliged to found a new university, so the endowments given by Congress have endeavored to divorce themselves from a connection with institutions more particularly based on the pedagogical conceptions of the Renaissance or Reformation.

In no other countries of the world has education been left more to local initiative than in the United States and England. In neither is there a minister of public instruction, as in continental countries, and in neither is anything more obnoxious and irritating than a fussy interference by the General Government with local concerns. But in both the General Government has been appealed to for aid in establishing technical education. One country has given "public lands," the other its "whisky money,"¹ for the "practical and liberal education of the industrial classes."² But here the similitude ceases. In America the technical departments are "overshadowed by the literary departments of the institutions with which they are connected;" in England the universal complaint before the late secondary education commission was that by exacting fifteen hours a week for instruction in science literary instruction was being pushed to the wall. This difference is to be attributed to one of two things, or rather to both, more or less, in combination. The English grant is a capitation payment given on results obtained and witnessed to by the inspectors and passed on by the examiners of the science and art department at London; the original American grant was outright; the other cause is the difference in grade of the English and American literary instruction conjoined with technical instruction as here considered, the American literary instruction being higher.

At home we have the president of one of our most promising technological institutions observing in a report to this Bureau that if agricultural and mechanical colleges could receive like recognition from the State that the State classical institutions do it would be far better that such institutions as his own should be separated, but if the State classical college is permitted to do technical work, and thus compete with the technological college, it might be better to have them united. By an answer of this kind we are landed in the domain of educational economics. It is asserted by two of our correspondents that the answer to the question of separation depends upon the financial conditions in each State, and that the best interest of the technical school as a machine of instruction may be subserved by independence, but its existence would be precarious without affiliation with the treasury of the State university. But the conflicting claims are in general these:

Elevated atmosphere of the humanities.	Frigidity of that atmosphere.
Economy of staff.	Predilections of staff for literary work.
Economy of general expenses.	Temptation to divert land-grant money to literary department necessities.

The direct solution of questions of this kind is not within the power of legislation or of any other form of exterior control. Our old colleges not only were not specifically for the education of the "industrial classes" (whatever that may mean in

¹ So called from its being the "excise revenue," £750,000 annually.

² Meaning in England parents receiving from any source less than £400 annually (\$2,000).

America), but were intended for all classes who were desirous of opening and enlarging their intellects, irrespective of the emoluments legitimately flowing from the capital of time and money spent in the effort, and when an institution having traditions of that kind has affiliated itself to one "for the industrial classes" it is but the exhibition of a familiar tendency of the human mind, unless carefully guarded against, that the newcomers en bloc should be regarded as something of an inferior order. At Cornell or California University (new universities), where both classes were familiarized with each other and placed upon an equal footing from the beginning, this difficulty may be supposed to be unfelt. It is probable that the term "industrial classes" used in the act of 1862 was borrowed from England, where a science and art department for the industrial classes had been established, just before the first attempt to pass the bill in 1858, which was vetoed by President Buchanan.¹

The suggestion that the resources of the State have something to do with the question of keeping conjoined the two classes of institutions invites an inquiry as to the sum obtained by the institutions endowed by the acts of Congress.

In ten States there is no income from State endowment or from appropriation, and from three no reports.² In twenty-three States there are received specifically for agricultural and mechanical departments ² \$338,282. In twelve States there were received all told by State universities having land-grant colleges connected with them \$751,633.² Nearly all of which was contributed by Wisconsin, Minnesota, Ohio, and California.

Let us take the cases of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and California. The three universities of those States received in 1894-95 collectively \$706,726 from the State for the purpose of support and building. Of this, \$152,050 were devoted to the purposes contemplated by the act of August, 1890—that is to say, over \$21 in every \$100 appropriated by the State, either originally as endowment or by annual law. In these same institutions, however, there were 27 students in land-grant departments in every 100 students in attendance at the three universities, including the preparatory department of one. At an Eastern institution, not aided by the State, but having land-grant departments among its colleges, in every \$100 spent from all receipts except from the Federal Government subsidy, but for all purposes, \$25 was spent for matters contemplated by the act of August 30, 1890 ("Morrill Act"), and that, too, upon a very narrow, not to say too rigorous, interpretation of the meaning of the words of that act. But in that institution, which has no preparatory department, 35 in every 100 students were in technical (including, of course, agricultural) departments. These grants by these States or universities just mentioned have been made in face of the fact that the land-grant endowed departments received \$20,000 additional from the Federal Government to be wholly used for persons actually teaching, for actual instruction as specified by the law, and for actually necessary apparatus required by such instruction, and it can not be regarded as but liberal. It certainly can not be assumed that there is any general desire on the part of those charged with the administration of literary institutions at the present date to be niggardly to departments endowed with the national land grants.

The value placed by the land-grant colleges upon their instruction, as compared with the literary degree of A. B. on one hand and the scientific degree on the other, is capable of being illustrated by replies they have made to special inquiries from this office. The opinion is about equally divided for and against the proposition that the training furnished by the land-grant college making the answer is equal in value to the degree of A. B., and in two or three instances it is thought that such training is not equal to the degree of B. S. given in our larger colleges. For instance, on one side President Francis A. Walker says, in regard to the value of the training furnished by the technical courses of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology as

¹ The ideas of the English on this question are given in the extracts from the testimony of the Bishop of London and the Rev. Mr. MacCarthy, pp. 610, 615.

² Excluding colored schools.

compared with the mental-developing power of the ordinary A. B. or B. S. course: "Yes; without any qualification. But this is only so (1) because in all our courses a modicum of philosophical theory (political economy, history, etc.) and of language studies is required, and (2) because in every course the mastery of principles is held to be more important than the acquisition of technical knowledge or skill, the technical applications of science being chiefly valued (1) because they serve to interest the student in the principles made use of and (2) because by such applications the student acquires the principles, not only in a higher degree, but in a different way than where he studies them in the lecture and recitation room only." President Schurman, of Cornell, replies: "Yes; but I think the comparison should be made, not between the technical courses and the A. B. or B. S. course, but between A. B. and B. S. or the technical courses, i. e., that humanistic studies (which appeal to something more than the intellect) should be contrasted with rationalistic or scientific (including pure science and applied science courses). I regard the technical courses as the equivalent of the courses for B. S." A somewhat different way of saying the same thing is the response of President Cyrus Northrop, of the University of Minnesota, to this effect: "No; technical knowledge is valuable, but it is gained at the sacrifice of culture and mental training if it occupies a large part of the undergraduate course. It may be more important to the student, however, than culture and training (along literary lines) would be; I mean more important to some students." Probably one or other of these answers would be acceptable to all other presidents who have favored the Bureau with replies. In several cases the educational value of laboratory work is considered as fully equal to literary training, and in several others it is intimated that were the students more thoroughly grounded in secondary studies before entering the college an affirmative answer might be given, though it is testified by a president of a transmississippi college that most students can not be made to believe they ought to take a general course of literary and scientific study before entering upon technical studies.

As admission requirements now are, there is a heavy preponderance of opinion that technical degrees (bachelor of engineering, agriculture, etc.) should follow a post-graduate course; in other words, should be preceded by the degree of B. S. or A. B. President Alston Ellis, of the Colorado Agricultural College, remarks upon this point, "Both plans have advantages. If the scientific and literary course did not beget a distaste for any work outside of the so-called learned professions, its training would form a good foundation upon which to build special technical work. Were proper conditions in existence I would favor technical work by post-graduates; as things exist, I believe that the degrees named can be best given for undergraduate work that unites some degree of general culture with special technical training." President Charles S. Murkland, of the New Hampshire College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts: "My reason for preferring a general A. B. degree of four years as preliminary for all post-graduate work is that the technical degree should mean something in addition to the general degree. It commonly means something less than the general degree." On the other hand, the opposite opinion is succinctly stated by President J. S. Smart, of Purdue University, as follows: "I think the training in our technical schools can be and should be upon a plane comparable with that of the classical institutions; therefore engineering degrees should be given for undergraduate work. But very few technical degrees would be given, if given only for post-graduate work." General Walker, in advocating "an ordinary college course of four years, to be followed by three years, or, in cases of exceptional ability, by two years, in a technological school," favors us with the following judgment: "I do not think that the degree mechanical engineer, civil engineer, etc., should ever be given for academic work, whether undergraduate or post-graduate. The engineer becomes such only by practice. It is his characteristic work to make choice between different methods of accomplishing a certain result, and the judgment required for this can not be taught in schools. So much for the word 'engineer' in a college degree."

The foregoing almost answers the question, "At what age shall specialization be begun?" because it is quite apparent that the question is, in a large measure, dependent upon the mental condition rather than upon the completion of a year of life usually varying from the fourteenth to the nineteenth year. In general, it may be said that a synopsis of the definite replies to the question as to the age at which technical specialization should be begun is well represented in the reply of President Patterson, of the State College of Kentucky: "I would prefer to receive students in the mechanical engineering course of about the age of 18, and would expect them to be well grounded in algebra, geometry, English, chemistry, and physics." Another president observes: "Chemistry, physics, and mathematics can not be begun too early for the purpose of mental development and training. Their special applications to scientific-economic problems should not be entered upon before 17 or 18, but a year later will not find the pupil at a disadvantage."

The number of students pursuing courses of a technical nature in the institutions endowed by the national land grant are given below. It necessarily follows that there should be some duplication not only from there being practically related subjects such as agriculture and veterinary science, but also from the combinations in study offered by the institutions as leading to a degree. All due allowance being made for this difficulty, however, attention may be called to the close equality of the totals given for students in the mechanic arts and those in agriculture. On the other hand, however, the students in agriculture and veterinary science are together only little more than 50 per cent of the whole body of engineering students.

Students pursuing courses in—

Agriculture.....	2, 712
Mechanical engineering.....	2, 413
Civil engineering.....	1, 107
Electrical engineering.....	1, 349
Mining engineering.....	163
Architecture.....	264
Household economy.....	321
Veterinary science.....	395
Chemical engineering.....	21
Biology.....	13
Military tactics.....	7, 741

IX.

Proportion of time (answered for the most part as though the question had been "Number of hours during the week") which should be allotted to the following subjects in a technical course on a basis of twenty recitation hours a week, one recitation hour equating two hours in a shop or laboratory.

[NOTE.—In justice to the institutions concerned it is to be remarked that for the most part they seemed to suppose that it was not an expression of opinion but the actual facts as existing in each institution that was asked for. Again, the multifarious details of an actual existing course of study can not be represented in questions so general as those that were asked in the form of inquiry.]

Institution answering. (The word hour to be understood with each figure.)	Languages.					Mathematics.					Pure science (chemistry, etc.).					Laboratory and shop.					Should political economy, ethics, and history be given a place?					
	Undergraduate.					Undergraduate.					Undergraduate.					Undergraduate.										
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Post-graduate.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Post-graduate.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Post-graduate.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Post-graduate.						
Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College.	5	3	3	2	(a)	5	5	5-10	3-8	5	(a)	3	3-8	3-13	4-14	15-20	4 ¹	5	6	5	15	Yes.		
Alabama Normal and Industrial School (colored).	4	4	4	0	2	5	5	5	0	4	4	5	5	5	0	6	6	6	0	Yes.		
University of Arizona.	5	5	5	7	7 ³	10	15	7	5	5	5	An outline.		
Arkansas Industrial University.	6	6	3	3	2	5	7	6	8	8	8	3	4	6	3	4	4	6	9	5	6	6	Yes.	
Branch Normal College of Arkansas Industrial University (colored).	10	10	10	10	20	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	20	20	10	10	10	10	20	20	Yes.	
University of California.	4	4	2	6	5	5	8	7	7	10	2	4	6	10	Yes, as electives.	
Colorado Agricultural College.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	6	6	Yes.	
Storr's Agricultural College.	7	6	5	4	3	5	5	5	4	4	6	7	7	2	2	3	3	Yes.	
Florida Agricultural College.	10	8	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	3	2	0	2	2	3	3	Yes.	
Purdue University.	5-10	2-3	2-3	5	3-5	3	0	4-8	4-8	5	5	5	5	To a limited degree.	
Kansas Agricultural College.	5	3	2 ¹	2 ¹	5	5	5	5	(a)	(a)	(a)	5	7	5	5	5	(a)	5	5	5	5	7	7	Yes.
State College of Kentucky.	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	0	10	5	5	5	Yes.	
Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.	5	3	3	5	5	5	3,5	3,5	3,5	3,4,5	3,6	3,4	5,6	2,6	Yes.	
Maryland Agricultural College.	5	4	3	2	4	3	4	2	3	2	2	3	5	4	4	5	5	1	4	4	4	5	5	Yes.
Michigan Agricultural College (approximately).	5	3	5	2	10	10	13	15	3	5	9	10	11	10	Yes.	
University of Minnesota.	5	5	8	8	5	5	2	2	4,6	3,10	15	2	4	6	8	Yes.	
Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College (colored).	7	5	5	3	3	3	3	6	6	5	5	4	5	5	6	4	4	2	4	4	4	8	8	Yes.

Statistics for 1894-95 of institutions endorsed by the act of Congress in 1862 and 1890 with public lands or a part of the proceeds arising from the sale thereof, or both.

Institution and its post-office address.	President.	Faculty.				Students, by departments.				Library.		Property.		
		Staff of experiment stations.		Preparatory.		Collegiate.		Graduate.		Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Acres under cultivation.	Value of farm lands.	Value of buildings and equipments of agricultural and mechanical departments.
		Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.					
Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, Auburn, Ala.	William Leroy Brown.....	6	22	19	235	4	12	1	9,939	8,800	140	\$3,000	\$197,260
University of Arizona (agricultural and mechanical department), Tucson, Ariz.	Theo. B. Comstock.....	5	8	1	10	17	14	12	1,000	2,300	90	4,500	106,500
Arkansas Industrial University, Fayetteville, Ark.....	John L. Buchanan.....	7	20	4	114	32	1	6,241	9,300	80	9,600	245,000
University of California (agricultural and mechanical department), Berkeley, Cal.	Martin Kellogg.....	17	108	280	28	13	5	60,465	3,863	100	12,322	190,000
Colorado Agricultural College, Fort Collins, Colo.....	Alston Ellis.....	7	18	3	40	22	118	42	6	4,838	7,500	225	26,750	76,192
Delaware Agricultural and mechanical department), Newark, Del.	Albert N. Raub.....	5	10	37	6,736	5,714	4	3,000	33,000
Florida Agricultural College, Lake City, Fla.....	O. Clute.....	0	14	3	61	8	50	32	1,695	2,000	95	3,635	43,710
State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts (University of Georgia), Athens, Ga.	H. C. White.....	21	103	5	27,377	6,850	50	10,000	296,000
University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho.....	Franklin B. Gault.....	7	11	3	117	74	20	9	2,585	1,500	375	10,000	32,000
University of Illinois (agricultural and mechanical department), Urbana, Ill.	A. S. Draper.....	10	67	9	116	31	493	84	22	27,669	5,895	600	100,000	650,000
Purdue University of Indiana, La Fayette, Ind.....	James H. Stuart.....	9	44	6	529	69	26	10	5,935	273	149	70,000	495,000
Kansas Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kans.....	George T. Fairchild.....	27	8	348	194	13	17	15,940	4,000	319	38,700	62,158
Kentucky Agricultural and Mechanical College, Lexington, Ky.	James K. Patterson.....	7	24	1	80	12	129	43	2,509	78	45	25,000	73,000
Louisiana State University (agricultural and mechanical department), Baton Rouge, La.	J. W. Nicholson.....	22	21	111	18,800	310	33,300	50,000
Maine Agricultural and Mechanical College, Orono, Me.	A. W. Harris.....	9	20	1	191	9	3	9,782	2,580	120	3,600	73,300
Maryland Agricultural College, College Park, Md.	R. W. Silvester.....	9	12	115	1,350	400	140	1,100	20,000
Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, Mass.....	Henry H. Goodell.....	19	19	192	14	16,383	250	41,000	56,853
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass.....	Francis A. Walker.....	42	120	58	5	36,930	14,600	957,216
Michigan State Agricultural College, Agricultural College, Mich.	Lewis G. Gorton.....	15	31	363	24	13	2	18,726	4,000	500	47,320	491,499
University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.....	D. W. Sprague, accountant	15	152	16	41,500	15,000	337	375,000	225,000
Agricultural and Mechanical College of Mississippi, Agricultural College, Miss.	S. D. Lee.....	5	25	230	9	3,794	5,760	450	42,773	57,746

Statistics for 1895 of institutions for colored persons endowed by the act of Congress in 1862 and 1890 with public lands or a part of the proceeds arising from the sale thereof, or both.

Institution and its post-office address.	President.	Faculty.				Students, by departments.				Property.			
		Staff of experiment station.		Preparatory.		College.		Graduate.		Library.	Acres under cultivation.	Value of farm lands.	Value of buildings and equipments of agricultural and mechanical departments.
		Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Volumes.	Pamphlets.		
State Normal and Industrial School, Normal, Ala.	W. H. Council.	2	11	105	1	65	1	1,985	549	230	\$7,449
Branch Normal College of Arkansas Industrial University, Pine Bluff, Ark.	J. C. Corbin.	9	43	19	80	41	2,625	764	20	30,000
State College for Colored Students, Dover, Del.	Wesley Webb.	3	22	7	293	155	90	6,000
Florida State Normal and Industrial College for Colored Students, Tallahassee, Fla.	T. De S. Tucker.	5	3	20	15	547	337	91	7,600
Georgia Industrial College for Colored Youth, College, Ga.	R. R. Wright.	143	63	5,500
State Normal School for Colored Persons, Frankfort, Ky.	John S. Jackson.	2	12	31	633	27	5	1,000
Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, New Orleans, La.	H. A. Hill.	6	110	186	115	104	727	412	40	6,000
Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College, Westside, Miss.	Thos. J. Calloway.	15	245	53	2	2,804	3,309	90	2,500
Lincoln Institute, Jefferson City, Mo.	Imman E. Page.	4	63	66	50	24	15	2,300
Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race, Greensboro, N. C.	J. O. Crosby.	7	70	77	8	920	11	2,500
Cliatt University, Agricultural College, and Mechanical Institute, Orangeburg, S. C.	L. M. Duntton.	9	11	243	132	17	1,800	600	120	15,000
Prairie View State Normal School, Prairie View, Tex.	L. C. Anderson.	8	2	80	96	15	896	95	110	15,000
Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, Hampton, Va.	H. B. Prissell.	3	4	191	144	7,232	516	500	32,000
West Virginia Colored Institute, Farm, W. Va.	J. H. Hill.	2	2	15	25	19	500	100	20	2,750

Financial statistics for 1894-95 of institutions endowed by act of Congress in 1862 and 1890 with public lands or a part of the proceeds arising from the sale thereof, or both.

Name of institution.	Balance on hand July 1, 1894.	Receipts.			Expenditures.		
		State aid by endowment and appropriation.	Federal aid—		Fees and all other sources.	For college of agriculture and mechanic arts.	All other department.
			From act of July 2, 1862.	From act of August 30, 1890.			
Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	\$3,409	\$5,011	\$20,280	\$11,050	\$4,708	\$7,540	\$20,215
University of Arizona (agricultural and mechanical department).....	4,901	8,500	10,400	20,000	15,000	308
Arkansas Industrial University.....	18,429	20,560	14,545	13,545	2,972	13,917	\$82,560
University of California.....	2,069	195,593	43,860	20,000	15,000	80,841	14,996
Colorado Agricultural College.....	33	41,783	4,250	20,000	15,000	68,741	17,750
Delaware College (agricultural and mechanical department).....	1,435	3,000	4,980	10,000	15,000	16,103	7,143
Florida Agricultural College.....	45,227	9,107	16,954	16,000	15,000	21,125	16,796
State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Georgia.....	7,214	24,811	16,954	13,334	15,000	30,637
University of Idaho.....	7,863	148,269	26,744	20,000	15,000	17,650	2,000
University of Illinois (agricultural and mechanical department).....	3,946	25,000	12,750	20,000	15,000	34,664	8,917
Purdue University of Indiana.....	167	5,430	29,162	20,000	15,000	32,805	4,263
Kansas Agricultural College.....	12,086	7,863	9,116	17,100	15,000	6,992	15,000
Agricultural and Mechanical College of Kentucky.....	35,308	20,240	4,950	17,100	15,000	8,284
Louisiana State University (agricultural and mechanical department).....	3,284	15,500	5,915	20,000	15,000	10,670	8,217
Maine Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	4	18,000	6,143	20,000	15,000	2,713
Maryland Agricultural College.....	17,053	25,000	7,300	13,333	15,000	32,384	48,697
Maryland Agricultural College.....	167	18,637	7,300	13,333	15,000	560
Massachusetts Agricultural College.....	12,086	11,785	5,469	6,638	284,713
Massachusetts Institute of Technology.....	35,308	296,453	21,130	18,750	15,000	15,070	13,637
Michigan State Agricultural College.....	3,284	22,500	5,915	18,916	15,000	64,800	273,183
University of Minnesota.....	17,053	10,434	13,800	18,916	15,000	7,768	9,039
Agricultural and Mechanical College of Mississippi.....	14,531	3,963	4,729	30,663
University of Missouri (agricultural and mechanical department).....	1,787	20,000	15,000	2,068
School of Mines, Missouri.....	69,000	4,800	20,000	15,000	2,437
Montana Agricultural College.....	9,140	6,924	20,000	15,000	8,794
University of Nebraska (agricultural and mechanical department).....	23,827	19,000	20,000	15,000	5,603
State University of Nevada.....	2,831	90,463	20,000	15,000	7,995
University of Nevada.....	17,947	8,954	20,000	14,701	13,640
New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.....	2,477
Rutgers Scientific College.....	23,740
College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, New Mexico.....	17,477
Agricultural College of Cornell University.....	20,233
North Dakota Agricultural College.....	15,000
Ohio State University (agricultural and mechanical department).....	15,000
Oklahoma Agricultural College.....	15,000

a This is the total expenditure of this technological school.
 b This is to meet the expenses for two years; \$45,000 of the amount is for "building and other special purposes."

Financial statistics for 1894-95 of institutions endowed by act of Congress in 1862 and 1890 with public lands or a part of the proceeds arising from the sale thereof, or both—Continued.

Name of institution.	Balance on hand July 1, 1894.	Receipts.			Expenditures.		
		Federal aid—		Fees and all other sources.	For college of agriculture and mechanic arts.	Experiment station.	All other departments.
		From act of July 2, 1862.	From act of August 30, 1890.				
State Agricultural College of Oregon	\$3,777	\$5,153	\$20,000	\$6,106	\$34,399	\$15,000
Pennsylvania State College	\$40,714	20,000	18,898	15,000
Rhode Island College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	1,992	25,637	20,000	84,005	69,686	16,753
Clemson Agricultural College	67,000	10,000	8,396	72,358	15,000	\$6,000
State Agricultural College of South Dakota	3,735	7,700	20,000	2,664	28,568	15,000
University of Tennessee (agricultural and mechanical department)	23,760	20,000	11,695	40,748	15,000	15,991
Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas	25,000	15,000	54,280	15,000
Agricultural College, Utah	7,500	15,000	5,569	19,721	19,523	8,253
University of Vermont and State Agricultural College	6,000	20,000	28,395	31,730	19,966	27,819
Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College	18,500	13,333	15,509	66,036	20,594
Washington Agricultural College and School of Science	2,488	20,569	20,000	2,442	95,109	15,000
West Virginia University (agricultural and mechanical department)	58,962	20,000	4,016	7,609	19,642	39,347
University of Wisconsin (agricultural and mechanical department)	14,235	20,400	17,000	5,388	56,100	30,733	276,432
University of Wyoming (agricultural and mechanical department)	215,700	20,000	93,475	18,239	15,428	5,194
	1,775	3,250	20,000	1,411

a For the year ending December 31, 1894.

Financial statistics for 1894-95 of institutions for colored persons endowed by act of Congress in 1862 and 1890 with public lands or a part of the proceeds arising from the sale thereof, or both.

Name of institution.	Balance on hand July 1, 1894.	Receipts.			Expenditures.		
		Federal aid—		Fees and all other sources.	For col- lege of agricul- ture and mechanic arts.	Experi- ment station.	All other depart- ments.
		State aid by en- dowment and ap- propriation.	From act of July 2, 1862.				
State Colored Normal and Industrial School.....	\$70	\$4,000	\$8,918	\$19,710	\$11,301		\$18,405
Branch Normal College of Arkansas Industrial University.....	8,941	5,142	5,455	694	3,102		4,373
State (Delaware) College for Colored Students.....	445		4,000	853	4,825		
Florida State Normal and Industrial College for Colored Students.....		2,800	10,000	112	10,000		2,912
Georgia Industrial College for Colored Youths.....		8,000	6,667	565	3,739		4,144
State (Kentucky) Normal School for Colored Persons.....		2,000	2,900	3,085	2,900		6,180
Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	4,021	7,500	10,314	2,882	21,778		
Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	4,519	2,071	\$5,679	1,678	3,730		
Lincoln Institute.....	164	2,562	1,084		2,544		
Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race, North Carolina.....	11,001	7,500	7,012	1,250	5,075		200
Cladin University Agricultural College and Mechanics' Institute.....	2,078	2,000	10,000	10,000	11,849		17,754
Prairie View State Normal School.....		12,750	5,754		17,500		250
Rampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.....	6,168		10,329	6,668	121,848		
West Virginia Colored Institute.....	3,810	7,367	3,000	1,017	2,898		6,658

a For all departments; but it is to be remarked that the school is founded on the idea of self-help.

The degrees given by the institutions treated of in this chapter are indicated in the following tabulation. It is a question how far these degrees may be depended upon as showing the ultimate professional aim of the students who have received them. Wherever the information received has warranted it, such, for instance, as the expression 10 B. S. in engineering, the degrees have been considered engineering degrees.

Degree.	Number given.			Degree.	Number given.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.		Men.	Women.	Total.
B. S	570	75	645	A. M	22	2	24
A. B.	121	55	176	B. Arch.	16	2	18
B. L.	64	61	125	Ph. D.	10	5	15
B. M. E.			118	M. E. E.			9
B. C. E.			74	D. Sc.	6	1	7
Ph. B.	45	32	77	D. V. M.			4
Ph. G.	61	3	64	M. Agl.			2
M. S.	34	12	46	B. Chem. & Metal.			2
B. E. E.			45	B. Mining Eng.			2
M. E.			35	Ph. M.			2
B. Agr.			32	E. M.			1

CHAPTER XXVII.

INSTRUCTION IN SOCIOLOGY IN INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING.¹

By DANIEL FULCOMER,

Acting Chairman, Lecturer in Social Science, University of Chicago.

About two months ago I wrote all the college presidents of the United States, intending to present my results at a different gathering from this, and on a broader subject, embracing not only "Instruction in sociology," but in all the other social sciences, such as history and economics. Upon President Finley's request to read a paper at this conference, a second circular letter was sent out, and this paper was prepared with reference only to sociology in the strict sense and to the related studies in charities and correction in which the conference is especially interested. My material naturally falls under the following heads: (1) Statistics of this year's courses and students in sociology and philanthropy; (2) the growth of these studies during the last ten years; (3) a description of the best courses thus far developed; (4) a consensus of opinion as to definition, methods of teaching, etc.; and (5) the importance of these subjects, as testified to not only by educators but by the demands shown among students for them. It is possible that we shall be led to see in sociology a rival of the classics and physical sciences for the chief place of honor in an ideal education.

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS TEACHING SOCIOLOGY.

From the 422 colleges and universities written to, 146 replies were received. Of this number 29 have regular courses in sociology, using the word in the looser sense to include charities and correction, while 24 have sociology proper, defining the term as the study of society. In other words, one-fifth of all the colleges reporting teach what they call sociology, while one-sixth have sociology strictly speaking. These figures do not include the institutions that give instruction in charities and corrections or the science of society incidentally to ethics, economics, etc. Of this sort there are 6 more in sociology and 20 in charities and correction, some of which give quite extended instruction in these subjects. As regards the subjects of chief importance to this conference, regular courses in charities and correction are reported by 17 institutions; that is, by 12 per cent of all the institutions reporting.

The 14 leading women's colleges, as classified by the Bureau of Education, were written to also; but their replies are used only in the synopses of opinion that follow, not in the statistics of students and courses. It must be said, in passing, that they have had some of the best sociological work of the United States, one of the strongest men in the country undoubtedly being Professor Giddings, who goes this year from Bryn Mawr to Columbia College. Five of the 8 women's colleges reporting have courses in sociology, some of them being well equipped, while 4 have courses in charities and correction.

One-half, or 11, of the colleges reporting courses in sociology give the number of students, which ranges from 8 to 250 in each course, or an average of 50. The number of students in courses in charities and correction ranges from 8 to 119, with an average of 43.

AN HISTORICAL SKETCH.

That there has been an increase of remarkable rapidity in sociological instruction within the last few years will be seen by comparing these figures with the courses of study in 101 colleges and universities printed by the United States Bureau of

¹ Reprinted from the Proceedings of the Twenty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction, 1895.

Education five years ago. In that year only 6 of the institutions reporting had courses in sociology; that is, one-sixteenth of the total number, as compared with one-sixth at the present time. The institutions then teaching sociology were Yale, Williams, Cornell, Trinity, Tulane, and the University of Pennsylvania. Harvard offered the same course as now, "Ethics of social reform," it being claimed that this was the earliest course in the country devoted to charities and correction.

From the fact that this was the only course in this subject in 1889 out of 101 institutions, the report that 45 courses were found three years previously in 103 institutions, as made to the American Social Science Association, seems very questionable. My second circular letter was addressed particularly to these institutions, and I failed to find more than 8 or 10 which had either now or in the past the courses in question. The University of the State of Missouri replied, "More of this work, I fear, was reported on paper than was done in actual fact;" while President Green writes, "The subjects mentioned in the inclosed circular have never been taught in Cumberland University."

The evidence is clear at least as regards sociology proper. The first course entitled to that name dates back less than ten years; the number of courses has been quadrupled in the last five years, and has been perhaps doubled in the year just passed; while, as regards the immediate future, at least seven institutions have written me that they are planning to introduce the study soon.

The rapid increase of courses in sociology which we have found is not confined to America. The continent also which produced a Comte, a Spencer, a Schäffle, and a De Greef is awakening to the supreme importance of this work in the university. The universities of Brussels, Paris, Berlin, Munich, Freiburg, Heidelberg, and many others gave courses last year in sociology proper; while anthropology, so closely related to it, has for many years held a most honorable position abroad.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

As regards the history of courses in charities and correction alone, Mrs. Talbot wrote in 1886, in connection with the statistics already mentioned, as follows: "These three topics—crime, vice, and charities—receive far less attention in our colleges and universities than the other topics of our schedule (economics, etc.). The fact is due, doubtless, to the unformulated character of this department of social science. It is still in a state of empiricism, and no fundamental principles have been as yet reached, or at least generally recognized and adopted as such."

Professor Peabody sends an interesting history of his course in charities and other social questions at Harvard. He says, "The teaching of ethics applied to social questions was begun by me in this university in 1880 in the Divinity School." The figures given for each year show an increase from 2 students in 1881-82 to 48 in 1885-86, 100 in 1888-89, and 133 in 1892-93. This year's attendance is 119. The number of hours per week has increased from one to three. He continues, "The present constitution of this course under our elective system is as follows:

Graduate students.....	7
Divinity students.....	20
Senior students.....	55
Junior students.....	24
Sophomore students.....	2
Special students.....	8
Scientific students.....	3

119

"There is a students' department library of about 450 volumes to which each member of the class has a key. A Paine fellowship of \$500 is designed for students of these subjects. Two Paine prizes are offered at \$100 each, one for a special research in some problem of charity, and one for a practical study of some aspect of the labor question."

SOME COURSES DESCRIBED.

No adequate conception will be had of the importance sociology has reached in this country or its probable future without describing in some detail the vast variety of work going on in the department of social science and anthropology at the University of Chicago. There are already several times as many courses given there as at any other university in the world. There are in this department 10 professors and instructors who teach in no other, namely, Small, Henderson, Bemis, Talbot, Starr, West, Thomas, Zeublin, Gentles, and Fulcomer. Of these, two give mainly university extension lectures, one spending nearly his entire time outside of the city

of Chicago. There are 31 courses of study given by these professors. Those in pure sociology are:

22. The methodology and bibliography of social science.
23. Seminar. The psychology, ethics, and sociology of socialism.
24. The province of sociology, and its relation to the special social sciences.
25. Social psychology.
26. The organic functions of the state and of Government.
27. Problems of social statics.
28. Problems of social dynamics.
29. The sociology of the New Testament.
30. The historical sociologies.
31. The elements of sociology.

The courses of most importance to this conference are, among others given by Professor Henderson, the following:

16. Social treatment of dependents and defectives: Lectures, discussions, visits to institutions, reports. Second term, autumn quarter.

17. Criminology: Criminal anthropology and social treatment of crime. Lectures, visits of inspection, study of living cases, reports. Winter quarter.

18. Seminar: This will continue throughout the year, and will cover topics relating to all organization for promoting social welfare. Individual needs and tastes of students will be considered, but a system of research and analysis will control the work for the year.

The seminar methods of work are of most value to specialists. There are no lectures or text-books, but each student puts the entire year on some subject worthy of publication, such as an investigation of the charities or the missions of the city. Much practical work is required in all these courses. This year, for instance, the most of the students have been visitors in charity work, have assisted Mr. Wines, and have taken censuses of the unemployed sleeping in the City Hall and of "Randall's Army."

CONSENSUS OF VIEWS ON SOCIOLOGY.—DEFINITION.

To return to the letters on sociology sent by me, among the questions asked were the following:

"What is your definition of sociology (as used distinctively from the other social sciences)?" "How is it related to political economy, moral philosophy, etc.?"

The main reason for asking these questions was to be sure that the figures given me really referred to sociology, and that the term was not used in the inaccurate way which is very common. It was by no means supposed that the average definition would be the true one. What sociology is can not be learned from the president of a Tennessee college, who said that "Under ethics and economics, most of the substance of sociology is already taught," or from the Iowa president, who, when asked to name his text-books on charities and correction, the family, anthropology, and ethnology, answered, "The Bible." It is to the few specialists in the country that we look for definitions of any value. Among these we find at least two radically different views, the old and the new, which are intimated in President Finley's answer: "I am disposed to give 'sociology' the larger scope, considering it as the science of man in society, and not the science of dependency and delinquency, of the pauper and the criminal in 'society.'" Although the older English and American workers in charities and in other social reforms had reduced the term sociology from the broad meaning given to it by its inventor, Comte, as the science of society, to the science of abnormal society, the later specialists do not fall into this error. Professor Peabody, of Harvard, who has for many years been the most prominent instructor in social reforms, says: "Sociology is a much larger subject than the practical problems of charity and reform. If it can be taught at all, it may be taught quite apart from these. It is the philosophy of social evolution." Professor Henderson, the author of the best work on charities and correction, defines sociology in the larger sense as "the study which seeks to coordinate the processes and the results of the special social sciences. It aims to consider society as an organic unity; to study its movement as a whole, its purpose, the conditions of progress. It aims to show the legitimate place and dignity of each department of social investigation by considering it as a vital part of a vast and uniform movement of thought." One of the foremost professors of sociology, Giddings, of Columbia College, says: "Sociology is not an inclusive, it is the fundamental social science. It studies the elements that make up society * * * and the simplest forms in which they are combined or organized, (1) by composition (family, clan, tribe, nation), (2) by constitution; that is, involuntary organizations for cooperation or division of labor." The most agree in calling it "a comprehensive science, including politics, economics, etc." Others call it "a science of sciences;" "the study of the social nexus that

underlies the various phenomena that are included in the various departments of social science;" "it is the philosophy of all;" "it treats of the evolution of society in its broadest sense."

RELATION OF CHARITIES TO SOCIOLOGY.

In answer to the question how charities and correction are "related to sociology, ethics, economics, etc.," all the replies make a distinction between them. The general view is expressed by Professor Henderson, who says: "General sociology treats society in its normal light, social pathology studies morbid conditions, remedies, etc." Many regard these studies as "applications of the principles of ethics."

The general answer to the questions, "Should they be taught separately from sociology?" and "Before or after the latter?" is expressed by Professor Peabody, who says: "These social questions should be dealt with late in liberal education. They presuppose both ethics and economics. In my own course a student is advised to take both before coming to me, and must have taken one or the other." Professor Commons, of Indiana University, alone would place them before, but says: "The organic nature of society should be constantly prominent."

Of the eighteen answers to the question, "Would you put sociology before or after political economy, ethics, etc.? Year?" two-thirds say, "After," two "Before," and three make the same distinction as Professor Giddings, who says: "Logically, sociology precedes political economy; * * * yet in the educational scheme political economy should be taught first, at least for the present." Professor Henderson says: "I would have a 'sketch' course in the sophomore year of college and in the last year of normal school work, and then ethics, economics, political science. In graduate work the subject can be taught again in its deeper and wider forms."

The opinion as to the best year for teaching these subjects is best indicated by the statistics received. Of the 26 institutions teaching sociology proper in 1894, 16 designate the year. Nine of the 16 put it in the senior year. The junior year comes next, with only 2 institutions. Courses in charities and correction also are found for the most part in the senior year, both in 1886 and in 1894.

THE IMPORTANCE OF SOCIOLOGY.

Question 20 asked: "Would you advise or require sociology as a part of a general education, defining it broadly as the study of society taken as a whole? Why?" Of the 24 who answered, not one replied in the negative, more than one-half expressed themselves strongly in its favor, and 3 would require it even as a common school study. The replies of the 11 presidents in this number are of interest, they being no doubt more impartial than those in charge of special departments. Six of these earnestly advise the study of sociology. One, the president of a Catholic institution, thinks it should be reserved for the university, and not the college period. The severest denunciation is that of the president of the University of Vermont, who says: "In my judgment, the so-called 'sociology' taught in our colleges, preached in our pulpits, and disseminated in our periodicals, is erude, semi-communistic, and harmful; and, until a new race of strong thinkers take hold of the subject in a new spirit, we shall make no real progress in either social science or social life." But the edge of his criticism is taken off when it becomes known that his institution was one of the earliest (1886) to give instruction in charities and correction "as a department of sociology."

Professors who teach economics are thought in some quarters to be critical of the new science; but the nine who answered this question all favor it, although one thinks the time has not yet arrived for it, and says: "Yes, when the universities have turned out a force of educators competent to direct the work, so that it will not fritter away in worthless study." A few would go as far in the opposite direction as Professor Commons, who says: "I should like to see history, economics, and sociology given equal place with language and science from the beginning of high school through to the senior year of college." This energetic young professor is on a committee of the teachers' association of his State to investigate and promote the study of sociology and related subjects in the high schools. Professor Henderson takes the broad view that is gaining ground on the continent when he says: "I would advise that teachers be prepared to treat all the studies of the primary and secondary schools in the sociologic spirit, but that text-books on sociology should not come in till the sophomore year in college. In connection with all studies children and youth should be led gradually, as they are able, to take their place as members of the community. This begins in the kindergarten, and ends only with life."

REASONS FOR ITS STUDY.

A classification of the reasons assigned for the study discovers the following:

(1) It is a practical preparation for life. Professor Thomas, of Baltimore, says: "I advise that sociology be made a part of every student's education. * * * No

one is prepared for life who is ignorant of the laws that govern the social organism of which he is an integral part." The president of the University of Wyoming also would require it for the reason that "the rising generation will not be able to co-rectly solve the problems now arising in society and government without this educational training." This reason is the most common one given.

(2) "The culture possibilities of sociology, together with its immense practical importance, warrant the fullest attention to it." (Professor Powers, of Smith College.)

(3) "The problems of sociology that are now agitating our civilization must not only be mastered by the leaders of the social reform, but they must be understood by everyday, honest middle classes before any healthy and permanent solution can be obtained." (President Wagner, of Morgan College.) "Americans must soon meet anarchism, communism, and a score of wild theories of land, goods, and government." (Professor Ford, of Elmira College.)

(4) "Sociology is a help to economics and ethics." (Professor Weaver, De Pauw University.)

(5) The professor-prophet of sociology, Herron, of Iowa College, must be put in a class by himself—the ethico-religious. He answers: "Because man is a social being, because society is man, because the knowledge of how to live an associated life and how to express that life in actual human relations is the chief end of man, and, if one's creed be called in question, the only way to glorify God."

THE TIME NECESSARY FOR IT.

The question, "How much time should be given to it?" brought out answers ranging from "Very little at present" to "So much as possible." The average amount suggested is about six months. The following expresses the minimum requirement: "I think that at least three months should be given to the study of sociology in all our undergraduate institutions. Of course, much more time should be given in post-graduate work." (President Johnson, University of Wyoming.) The number of months actually given to these studies in the institutions reporting to me this year averages as follows: Sociology, five months, 22 institutions reporting; charities and correction, five months, 14 institutions reporting. The length of the courses in the latter ranges from one and one-half to nine months, and of those in sociology from one and one-half months in some institutions to a total of forty-nine and one-half in the University of Chicago.

"What other studies could best be cut down to make room for it?" The answer is, "The ancient languages," four times as frequently as any other. Among the other studies named are economics, history, and mathematics. "Any subject pursued for a longer time than two years may well have a term taken from it rather than have a student graduate with no training in sociology," says Professor Freer, of Mount Vernon, Iowa. Professor Herron would cut down mathematics, or even omit biology. He says: "We can get through life without knowing much about beasts and snakes and toads, but it is becoming quite necessary that we know something about man." Several would solve the problem, not by cutting down anything, but by making sociology elective.

IMPORTANCE OF INSTRUCTION IN CHARITIES.

The answers to the question, "What place should these subjects (charities and correction) have in education?" were all in favor of them, although some said "It depends on the institution," or "They are of changing importance," more called them "very important," and "an essential part of a liberal education." President Mosher says: "I can think of but few subjects that I think would be of greater practical importance to our country than these would be if they could be taught by the laboratory method." Professor Commons would put them "along with the elements of political economy in high schools." Their need to specialists is admirably represented by Professor Henderson, who says: "Every man or woman who intends to engage in the work of charity should study the scientific principles and methods of charity. Those who expect to deal with criminals or to write and speak on prison reform and prevention of crime and vice should give some systematic study to this subject. We have arranged to give double time to those who wish to specialize at this point."

The answers of Professor Small, as given below, tersely cover the main points of the investigation, and may be taken as representing the high-water mark of sociological thought:

Definition.—"Sociology is the philosophy of human welfare. As such, it must be the synthesis of all the particular social sciences."

"Would you advise it * * * as part of a general education?"

Answer. "Yes, in general, in the descriptive parts, to prepare the way for history, political economy, political science, and ethics."

"How much time should be given to it?"

Answer. "Last half of sophomore year and first half of junior. I would have a half year at the end of the senior year devoted to philosophical sociology after a study of the special social sciences."

"What other studies could best be cut down?"

Answer. "Latin, Greek, and mathematics."

"What place have charities and correction in education?"

Answer. "Coordinate with political economy for general students."

"How are they related to sociology?"

Answer. "As pathology to physiology."

"Should they be taught before or after the latter?"

Answer. "After or contemporary."

STUDENTS DEMAND THESE COURSES.

We have seen the importance of sociology demonstrated both from the united testimony of educators and from the rapidity of its adoption into colleges and universities. If any further evidence is necessary, it is forthcoming from the student's side. So far as statistics can be brought to this inquiry, sociology is shown to have already reached the first rank in popularity. The only place in which a fair comparison can be made is in the graduate school of the University of Chicago, where this department is put upon an equality with all others, and where students are free to elect it. The 232 graduate students attending in the autumn quarter of 1893 would give an average of 8 or 9 to each department, while the department of social science had 20. More students have chosen it for their specialty—that is, their major work—than have gone into any other study, with the exception of English and history, each of which excel it by only 1 student. The theological students who have chosen courses outside of their specialties are almost exclusively in social science, there being 22 in this department, but only 4 in all other departments combined.

The showing for this department as to the number of professors and courses given during that quarter is much the same. Sociology had 8 courses as compared with an average of 6 in other departments, and 5 professors as compared with an average of 3½. During the year there were 30 courses in this department, while the other humanities offered only the following: Political economy, 19; political science, 16; history, 48; philosophy, 15; comparative religion, 4; and ethics, 3.

Hardly any of the courses in social science can be taken by juniors and seniors, but the fact that 66 per cent of them in this one quarter have elected the humanities, or the studies of man, of which social science is the culmination, makes the argument complete.

If we turn to courses in charities and correction alone, we find these also among the most popular courses in the institution. The attendance on them is more than twice that of the average course.

CONCLUSION.

This paper has been all of fact, none of theory. There are many questions that remain to be discussed, but they must be left to other speakers, and, indeed, in part to future years. What is the relation of charities and correction to sociology? What preparation is necessary for work in this field? Are the needs properly met by training schools and by other existing institutions? What changes, if any, will the systematic study of society make in the related fields of economics, ethics, education, or government?

In view of the difficulty and the importance of the task, he is a fool who presumes to answer with authority. Were it not that I have something more to suggest than others have said, I should not add my opinion to theirs.

But the best of my provision for the present is this, that education will some day be considered the most important function of society, and the study of mankind the most important part of education; that the college education of the future is not to center around the ancient languages nor the physical sciences, but the humanities; that they will be the keynote of the public school as well as of the college; that all questions affecting man, as charities and correction, will be seen to depend upon a broad and scientific conception of the whole; that the evils done in the name of charity will largely disappear with increasing knowledge of that most complex of all studies, the science of mankind; that the curing of dependency and crime will be subordinated in large part to its prevention, and that the need for specialists will be seen in all divisions of social labor as well as now in industry and commerce.

Statistics of instruction in sociology, including charities and correction.

[Explanation of marks used: Course 1, punishment and reform of criminals; course 2, prevention of vice (intemperance, prostitution, vagrancy, etc.); course 3, public and private charities (care of the poor, insane, blind, idiotic, deaf-mute, foundlings, orphans, etc.); course 4, sociology (in the strict sense). Marks in college year columns: 1, 2, 3, and 4, freshman, sophomore, etc., year; 5, post-graduate; 6, law school; 7, medical school; a, preparatory department; i, taught incidentally; x, year not stated; —, not taught; blank, unknown; $1/4$ (e. g.), freshman and senior years; $1-4$ (e. g.), freshman to senior year; p, school of political science; $4/3$, senior or junior year.]

State.	Name of institution.	1886.		1894.			
		Course.	College year.	College year.	Months.		Number of students.
					Elective.	Required.	
Arkansas	Little Rock University	1	4				
California	University of the Pacific	1	x				
Do	California College						
Do	Leland Stanford Jr. University	1-4		x			
Do	Santa Clara College						
Do	University of Southern California	2	2				
Colorado	University of Colorado						
Connecticut	Trinity College						
Do	Yale University	1-3		i			
Do	do.	4		4	9	250	
District of Columbia	Howard University	1	x	4			
Do	Columbian University	1-3					
Florida	John B. Stetson University						
Do	Florida Conference College						
Georgia	Atlanta University	2	a				
Do	Emory College						
Do	Clark University						
Illinois	Hedding College						
Do	Illinois Wesleyan University	3	3				
Do	Carthage College						
Do	University of Chicago	1		3-5	1 1/2	15	
Do	do.	2-3		3-5	3	20	
Do	University of Chicago, course 23	4		5	9	9	
Do	University of Chicago, course 24	4		5	3	17	
Do	University of Chicago, course 27	4		5	9	18	
Do	University of Chicago, course 14	4		5	9	14	
Do	University of Chicago, course 15	4		3-5	1 1/2	15	
Do	University of Chicago, course 25	4		5	3	21	
Do	University of Chicago, course 26	4		5	3	20	
Do	University of Chicago, course 18	4		3-5	1 1/2	33	
Do	University of Chicago, course 19	4		3-5	1 1/2	18	
Do	University of Chicago, course 22	4		5	1 1/2	(?)	
Do	University of Chicago, course 20	4		3-5	1 1/2	(?)	
Do	University of Chicago, course 30	4		3-5	3		
Do	University of Chicago, course 31	4		3-5	3		
Do	Eureka College						
Do	Northwestern University						
Do	Ewing College						
Do	Northern Illinois College						
Do	German-English College	1-3	i				
Do	Knox College	1-3		i			
Do	Knox College (1895)	4		4	6		
Do	Lake Forest University						
Do	Illinois College	1-3	4	4			
Do	McKendree College						
Do	Monmouth College						
Do	Northwestern College						
Do	Chadock College	1	4				
Do	do.	3	4				
Do	Shurtleff College						
Do	University of Illinois	1-3		4/3	3		
Do	do.	4		x			
Do	Westfield College	1-3					
Do	Wheaton College	2	4				
Indiana	Indiana University	1	3/4	3/4	4		
Do	do.	2-3	x	3/4			
Do	do.	4	x	3/4	5	20	
Do	Franklin College	3		i			
Do	De Pauw University	3		i			
Do	do.	4		2-4	8	100	
Do	Hanover College	1-2	i				
Do	do.	3	i	x	x	15	

Statistics of instruction in sociology, including charities and correction—Continued.

State.	Name of institution.	Course.	1886. College year.	1894.			
				College year.	Months.		Number of students.
					Elective.	Required.	
Indiana	Hartsville College		—				
Do	Butler University	1	4				
Do	Earlham College		—				
Iowa	German-English College		—				
Do	Amity College		—				
Do	Des Moines College		—				
Do	Drake University	2	a				
Do	Parsons College		—				
Do	Upper Iowa University		—				
Do	Iowa College	4		$\frac{5}{4}$	9	43	
Do	Lenox College	1-3		i			
Do	State University of Iowa	1-3		—			
Do	Iowa Wesleyan University			—			
Do	Cornell College	1-2	4				
Do	Oskaloosa College						
Do	Central University of Iowa						
Do	Tabor College		—				
Do	Western College						
Kansas	University of Kansas	1-3		x	5		
Do	do	4		x			
Do	St. Mary's College						
Do	Kansas Wesleyan University						
Do	Washburn College		—				
Kentucky	Berea College	1-2	4				
Do	Center College of Kentucky	1-3	i				
Do	Ogden College		—				
Do	Kentucky Military Institute	1-2	2				
Do	Georgetown College		—				
Do	St. Mary's College						
Louisiana	Louisiana State University						
Do	Centenary College of Louisiana	2	i				
Do	Keatehie College						
Do	Leland University						
Do	New Orleans University						
Do	Tulane University of Louisiana						
Maine	Bowdoin College	1-3	—	4	3		
Do	do	4		4	3		
Do	Colby University	1-3	i	i		43	
Do	do	4		4	2 $\frac{1}{2}$		
Maryland	St. John's College	3-4		i			
Do	Johns Hopkins University	1	5	x			
Do	do	3	5	x			
Do	Morgan College						
Massachusetts	Rock Hill College	3	1-4				
Do	Amherst College	1-2	4				
Do	Boston University	1-3	7				
Do	Harvard University	1	x				
Do	do	2	x	3-5	} 9	119	
Do	do	3	x	3-5			
Do	do	4		x	9		
Do	Freneh Protestant College						
Do	Tufts College	1-2		2-4	5		
Do	do	3	i				
Do	Williams College	1-3	i	i		83	
Do	do	4		$\frac{3}{4}$	6		
Do	Clark University						
Do	College of the Holy Cross						
Michigan	Alma College	4		i	4		
Do	University of Michigan	1-2	—	i			
Do	do	3	x	i			
Do	Battle Creek College	1-3	—				
Do	Benzonia College	4		i			
Do	Hillsdale College	1	1	i	} 3	15	
Do	do	2	3	i			
Do	do	3	4	i			
Do	Western Michigan College	1-3		i			
Do	do	4		x			
Minnesota	University of Minnesota	1-2	—	i		150	
Do	do	3	4	i			
Do	do	4		4	3		
Do	Dr. Martin Luther College						
Do	Carleton College	3	4				

Statistics of instruction in sociology, including charities and correction—Continued.

State.	Name of institution.	Course.	1886.		1894.		
			College year.	College year.	Months.		Number of students.
					Elective.	Required.	
Minnesota	Parker College						
Missouri	St. Vincent's College						
Do	University of the State of Missouri	1	6				
Do	do	2-3	4				
Do	do	4					
Do	Central College	1	4				
Do	do	2		i			
Do	do	3	4	i			
Do	Pritchett School Institute						
Do	Harris College						
Do	Western College						
Do	William Jewell College	1-3	i				
Do	Missouri Valley College						
Do	Park College						
Do	Washington University	1-3	i				
Do	Drury College	1	4				
Do	Stewartsville College						
Do	Tarkio College						
Do	Central Wesleyan College						
Nebraska	Doane College						
Do	Cotner University						
Do	Creighton College						
Nevada	University of Nevada						
New Hampshire	Dartmouth College						
New Jersey	Rutgers College	1-3	i				
Do	College of New Jersey						
New York	Alfred University						
Do	Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn						
Do	Chautauqua College	1-3		x		1½	
Do	do	4		x		1½	
Do	Hamilton College						
Do	Elmira College	4			3		5
Do	Colgate University						
Do	Cornell University	1	³ / ₄	x			
Do	do	2	³ / ₄	x		9	45
Do	do	3		x			
Do	do	4		x		9	45
Do	College of the City of New York	1-3	i				
Do	Columbia College	1-2	p	x		5	
Do	do	3	p	x		5	
Do	do	4		x		5	
Do	do	4		x		5	
Do	University of Rochester	1-3	4				
Do	Union University						
Do	Syracuse University	1-3	4				
North Carolina	Davidson College						
North Dakota	University of North Dakota	3-4		i			
Ohio	Buchtel College						
Do	Mount Union College						
Do	Ohio University	1-2	3				
Do	Baldwin University						
Do	St. Xavier College						
Do	University of Cincinnati						
Do	Capital University						
Do	Ohio State University						
Do	Ohio Wesleyan University	1-3	i	i			
Do	do	4		4		x	85
Do	Kenyon College						
Do	Hiram College	2-3	i				
Do	Marietta College						
Do	Franklin College						
Do	Rio Grande College						
Do	Urbana University	1	4				
Do	Wilberforce University	1	4				
Do	University of Wooster	1-2	i	4			
Oregon	Pacific University	1	2	4			
Do	do	2	4	2			
Do	Willamette University	4		3		10	
Pennsylvania	Western University of Pennsylvania						
Do	Lebanon Valley College						
Do	Geneva College						
Do	Lafayette College	4		i			

Statistics of instruction in sociology, including charities and correction—Continued.

State.	Name of institution.	1886.		1894.			
		Course.	College year.	College year.	Months.		Number of students.
					Elective.	Required.	
Pennsylvania.....	Haverford College.....	4	—	4	8	—	8
Do.....	Franklin and Marshall College.....	1-3	4	i	9	—	—
Do.....	do.....	4	—	4	9	—	—
Do.....	Central Pennsylvania College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Westminster College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	University of Pennsylvania.....	1	3	—	—	—	—
Do.....	do.....	3	$\frac{3}{4}$	i	—	—	—
Do.....	Swarthmore College.....	1-3	—	4	4	—	8
Do.....	Washington and Jefferson College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rhode Island.....	Brown University.....	1	4	$\frac{3}{4}$	6	—	80
Do.....	do.....	2	4	$\frac{3}{4}$	6	—	80
Do.....	do.....	3	i	$\frac{3}{4}$	3	—	80
Do.....	do.....	4	—	$\frac{3}{4}$	3	—	15
South Carolina.....	College of Charleston.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Presbyterian College of South Carolina.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Allen University.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	University of South Carolina.....	1	6	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Furman University.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Dakota.....	Pierre University.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	University of South Dakota.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee.....	U. S. Grant University.....	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	—	—	—	—
Do.....	do.....	2	$\frac{3}{4}$	3	—	—	—
Do.....	Knoxville College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	University of Tennessee.....	1-3	i	i	—	—	—
Do.....	Cumberland University.....	1-2	6	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Maryville College.....	2-3	—	i	—	—	—
Do.....	Christian Brothers' College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Central Tennessee College.....	1-3	i	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Fisk University.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	University of the South.....	2-3	i	—	—	—	—
Texas.....	Southwestern University.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Add-Ran Christian University.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vermont.....	University of Vermont.....	3	4	4	x	5	—
Do.....	do.....	4	—	x	—	—	—
Do.....	Middlebury College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Virginia.....	Randolph-Macon College.....	3	—	i	—	—	—
Do.....	Hampden-Sidney College.....	1-3	i	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Washington and Lee University.....	1	6	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Roanoke College.....	2-3	4	—	—	—	—
Washington.....	Colfax College.....	—	4	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Whitman College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wisconsin.....	Beloit College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Milton College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	University of Wisconsin.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Ripon College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Seminary of St. Francis of Sales.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wyoming.....	University of Wyoming.....	4	—	i	—	—	—

COLLEGES FOR WOMEN (14 were written).

Maryland.....	Women's College of Baltimore.....	1-3	—	3	—	4	30
Do.....	do.....	4	—	3	—	6	30
Massachusetts.....	Radcliffe College.....	4	—	x	10	—	4
Do.....	Smith College.....	1	—	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	—
Do.....	do.....	3	—	$\frac{3}{4}$	3	—	25
Do.....	do.....	4	—	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	—
Do.....	Wellesley College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
New York.....	Wells College.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Do.....	Elmira College.....	1-3	—	x	—	—	—
Do.....	do.....	4	—	3	—	5	—
Do.....	Vassar College.....	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	—	—	—	—
Do.....	do.....	2-3	x	4	4	—	35
Pennsylvania.....	Bryn Mawr College.....	4	—	4	8	—	10

[Inclosed in circular letter to all colleges.]

SOCIOLOGY.

SCHEDULE No. 1.

..... State and town or city.
 Institution.
 Name of officer making report.

Please answer at least Columns I and II, underscoring the subjects taught. In filling out Column IV denote the preparatory department by "p," post-graduate by "g," freshman year by "1," sophomore year by "2," etc.

Give text-book in—	Number of months.		In what year?	Number of students.
	Required.	Elective.		
I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
1. Political economy.....				
2. Economic movements (the labor question, socialism, etc.).....				
3. Political science (theory of government, etc.).....				
4. Law (international, etc.).....				
5. History.....				
6. Education (theory, social significance, etc.).....				
7. Charities and correction (defectives, crime, intemperance, etc.).....				
8. The family; divorce.....				
9. Anthropology and ethnology.....				
10. Statistics.....				
11. The industrial and fine arts (as a social study).....				
12. Any other social science.....				
13. Sociology, as different from each of the above (perhaps inclusive of all).....				

14. What is your definition of sociology as used in question 13?
15. How is it related to political economy, moral philosophy, etc.?
16. When was it first taught in your institution? What changes since, in professors, books, etc.?
17. If you do not have it now, is its introduction proposed or decided upon?
18. What institution gave the first course in sociology to your knowledge?
19. Can you give the address of any educator favoring its introduction into the public schools?
20. Would you advise or require sociology as a part of a general education, defining it broadly as the study of society taken as a whole? Why?
21. If so, how much time should be given to it?
22. What other studies could be best cut down to make room for it?
23. Would you put it before or after political economy, ethics, etc.? Year?

To DANIEL FULCOMER, *University of Chicago.*

[Second circular letter.]

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, *April 16, 1894.*

DEAR SIR: Your institution was reported in 1886 to be giving instruction in the subjects named below. As I am to read a paper on College and University Instruction in Charities and Correction at the May meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, I should like to report just what you are doing now. Will you kindly indicate this in the following schedule? If you can also answer the appended questions, your contribution will be especially gratifying.

Underscore the subjects taught.	In what year?	Number of months.		Number of students.
		Required.	Elective.	
1. Punishment and reform of criminals.....				
2. Prevention of vice (intemperance, prostitution, vagrancy, etc.).....				
3. Public and private charities (care of the poor, insane, blind, idiotic, deaf-mute, foundlings, orphans, etc.).....				

4. What place should these subjects have in education? Why?
5. How are they related to sociology, ethics, economics, etc.?
6. Should they be taught before or after the latter?
7. Should they be taught separately from sociology?
8. When were they first taught in your institution? What changes since, in professors, books, etc.?

Very respectfully, yours,

DANIEL FULCOMER.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.¹

COMPARISON OF PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

Theological schools lack but 1 of numbering 150, while medical schools number 1 more than 150. Law schools are about half as many, 72, and dental schools about one-third, 45.

There are more than twice as many students of medicine as of either law or theology—medical students, 22,887; law, 8,950; theological, 8,050. These figures show an increase in the number of medical students of 1,085, of law students 1,639, of theological 392.

According to the statistics, the number of law students has nearly doubled in the last five years. It is probable this increase is attributable to the fact that when young men now begin the study of law they are no longer content with the desultory instruction of private offices, where so frequently they can obtain only a superficial knowledge of law, but they now seek the doors of a regular law school, where instruction is given systematically to a group of young men who receive fresh inspiration from the pursuit of a common purpose; where there is an esprit de corps giving constant stimulus to delve into the labyrinths of jurisprudence.

There was an increase of about 1,200 in the number of dental students—from 4,152 to 5,347.

There were 1,413 women engaged in the study of medicine, a variation of only 6 from the number of the previous year, and 65 studying law.

Although there was an increase of about 1,100 in the number of medical students, there was a decrease of 306 in medical graduates. This decrease in the percentage of graduates is due to the lengthened course, and will probably become still more noticeable in the future when several other schools shall have lengthened their courses, a step they have already determined upon.

The whole amount of endowment funds of theological schools was \$16,083,683. While theological schools probably have relatively larger endowments than any other class of institutions whatever, unless the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts should be excepted, medical and law schools have practically no endowments. The funds of all the medical schools combined, so far as reported, do not equal that of Chicago Theological Seminary alone, or of Princeton Seminary, or of Union Theological Seminary, New York. The same is probably true of the law schools.

It is true that both medical and law schools sometimes receive benefits from the funds of the universities to which they may be attached, but these are to some extent incidental benefits, the donors of the funds bestowing them on the universities with perhaps little thought of helping the professional schools, and the university officers dispensing them a share with a grudging hand.

Probably one reason why medical and law schools receive so few benefactions is the already crowded condition of these two professions. One thinks, why should aid be given to these institutions, when there is already a superabundance of lawyers and doctors who must contend against sharp competition and who find the struggle to maintain themselves in their vocations becoming harder each year, and when the number of students is still constantly increasing. If there are so many now, the bestowment of benefactions would only increase the number. But when medical schools shall have elevated their entrance requirements, and law schools shall have adopted courses equaling those of medicine, the number of candidates will probably be smaller, or at least the number completing the courses will probably be smaller.

In respect to libraries the contrast is nearly as great. The whole number of volumes in theological libraries was 1,089,897; in medical libraries, 87,259; in law libraries, 188,645. Of the 151 medical schools, only 21 can really be said to possess libraries at all, and only 6 of these have over 5,000 volumes. The medical department of the University of Pennsylvania is the only one having 10,000 volumes;

¹ By A. Erskine Miller, M. D.

Hahnemann Medical College, of Philadelphia, has 8,000; the University of Michigan medical school, 6,000, and Johns Hopkins University medical school, Nashville Medical College, and the University of Buffalo medical school have each about 5,000 volumes. It should be remembered, however, that medical libraries are not so important, for, on account of the constant variation in medical treatment, it is more important that physicians have access to current medical periodicals rather than to antiquated volumes of a library.

Union Theological Seminary, New York, has the largest library of any seminary, viz, 65,716; Hartford Theological Seminary, Connecticut, comes second with 63,000, and Princeton Seminary third with 57,203. Fifteen other seminaries have libraries of over 20,000 volumes each. Eighteen other seminaries have between 5,000 and 20,000 volumes.

Volumes in theological libraries.

Union Theological Seminary, New York.....	65, 716
Hartford Theological Seminary, Connecticut.....	63, 000
Princeton Theological Seminary, New Jersey.....	57, 203
Seminary of the Reformed Dutch Church in America, New Jersey.....	42, 750
Divinity School of the University of Chicago.....	40, 000
Drew Theological Seminary, New Jersey.....	32, 138
Rochester Theological Seminary.....	28, 034
Theological Seminary of St. Sulpice and St. Mary's University, Baltimore....	27, 000
Meadville Theological Seminary.....	27, 000
Divinity School of Harvard University.....	26, 013
General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church, New York.....	25, 900
Concordia Theological Seminary, Missouri.....	25, 400
Western Theological Seminary, Allegheny.....	25, 000
Theological Seminary of St. Charles Borromeo, Pennsylvania.....	23, 000
Auburn Theological Seminary.....	22, 352
Newton Theological Institution.....	20, 600
Southern Baptist Theological Seminary.....	20, 000
Presbyterian Theological Seminary, South Carolina.....	20, 000

Law schools also, with a few notable exceptions, show a great deficiency in regard to libraries. Of the 72 law schools about one-third have libraries. Harvard University law school heads the list with 33,000 volumes, and is spending about \$6,000 annually in enlarging and improving its library. Columbia College law school comes second with 25,000 volumes. The law school of Cornell University has a larger number of volumes than most other schools, viz, 23,400. "The famous library of the late Nathaniel C. Moak, of Albany, N. Y., which was reputed the finest private law library in the United States, was purchased and presented to the Cornell law school by the widow of the Hon. Douglass Boardman, the former dean of that school."

But if medical colleges have no endowments and no libraries, yet when we consider the number of professors and instructors the tables are turned completely; medical colleges rank far ahead of theological schools in this particular. If an institution has no productive funds, only rented buildings, and but few students, it can fill up the catalogue with names of professors of all kinds of subjects. This is easily done with little or no cost in medicine, where there are so many young men seeking a practice and who see in a professorship a stimulus to medical study, and who hope that in trying to instruct others they themselves may acquire some knowledge (*docendo discimus*), and that a college professorship will give them some of that practice they stand in such need of. On the other side there are great hopes, strengthened by occasional hints, that each professor will endeavor to secure the attendance of at least two or three students. But this expectation is sometimes disappointed, for in some cases there are more professors than medical students.

Chicago Theological Seminary, with an endowment of over \$1,250,000, has only 15 professors; the same number reported by a medical school with an even dozen of students. Seventeen medical schools, with less than three dozen students each, have as many professors as Princeton or Union Theological Seminary, with endowments of over \$1,000,000.

MEDICAL EDUCATION.

Of the whole number of 22,887 medical students, over one-third are to be found in the three cities, Chicago, New York, and Philadelphia. St. Louis and Baltimore also have large numbers. Chicago has a larger number of medical students than any other city in the United States, viz, 2,856, post-graduate students being included. New York comes second, with 2,726, followed by Philadelphia with 2,339; and St. Louis with 1,399, and Baltimore with 1,293. It may cause some surprise that the list is not headed by New York, the great metropolis of America, with the largest

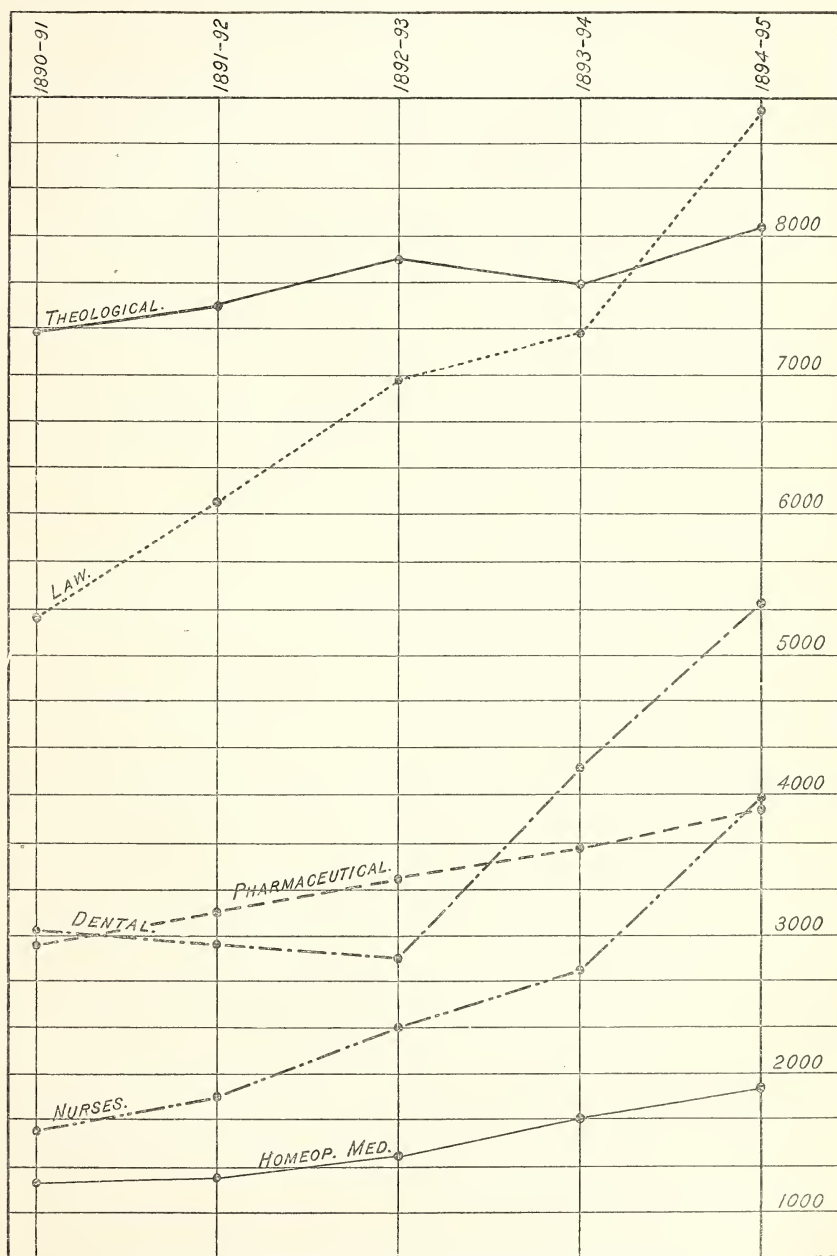


DIAGRAM 1.—Showing number of professional students for five years.
ED 95—39*

population within its narrow confines of any American city, where there is no longer room for growth except on the tops of houses, not to mention the immense population in its vicinity, all of which really make one great city, divided only by arbitrary civic lines, with numerous hospitals unsurpassed in the United States, and furnishing abundant material for clinical instruction, as well as providing many openings for resident physicians in hospitals.

It is perhaps probable that New York would have the largest number of medical students if it were not for the restrictions upon matriculation in medical colleges in the State of New York. Medical schools in other cities have restrictions by State boards upon graduation, but none of them have to contend against restrictions upon the entrance of students like we find in New York. Although the qualifications required by the State board in New York for entrance to medical colleges are not at all difficult, they no doubt keep away many young men on account of their uncer-

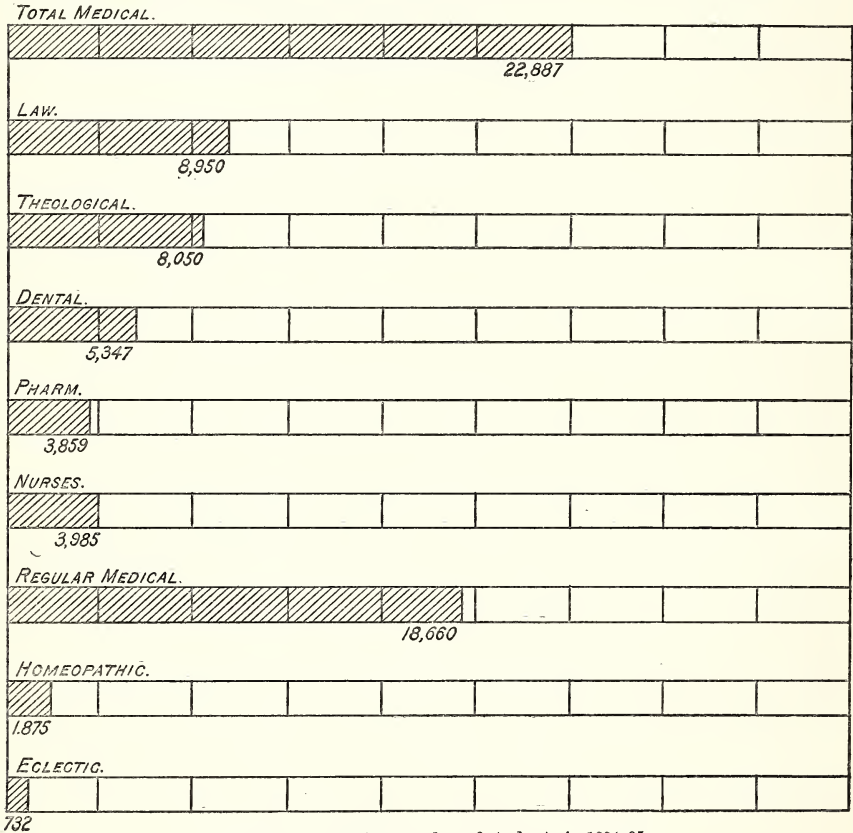


DIAGRAM 2.—Showing number of students in 1894-95.

tainty as to what is required, and also because determination to enter a medical college is frequently deferred till the last moment, when it is too late to investigate requirements.

That the matriculation requirements of the State board deter students from attendance in New York is to be inferred from comparison of the number of students in the different cities now and in 1888-89, before the requirements were made (students in post-graduate schools being omitted):

<i>Students in 1888-89.</i>		<i>Students in 1894-95.</i>	
New York.....	2,081	Chicago.....	2,294
Philadelphia.....	1,515	Philadelphia.....	2,201
Chicago.....	1,338	New York.....	1,893
Louisville.....	990	St. Louis.....	1,399
Cincinnati.....	816	Baltimore.....	1,293
Baltimore.....	698	Louisville.....	947

In 1888-89 the medical schools in New York enrolled nearly one-seventh of the whole number of medical students in the United States (students in post-graduate schools not being included); in 1894-95 they enrolled only about one-eleventh of the whole number. If, however, the medical schools in New York shall give a better training than those in other cities they will eventually attain superior results in attendance. Moreover, if the New York schools have better student material, young men of higher preliminary attainments than other schools, they will undoubtedly be able to graduate students with better medical attainments, and especially with better qualifications for continued progress in medical knowledge. Whether these results shall be attained or not is a question which time alone can determine.

It must be remembered that it was a Chicago medical college which first took the advance step of requiring three annual courses of lectures, arranged on a graded system, and since then continued progress has been made in still further lengthening the courses and providing equipment for laboratory and clinical instruction. As there seems to be no deficiency of financial resources necessary to consummate many stupendous enterprises, its medical schools will probably fare as well in this regard as those in any other part of the country. The Illinois State medical board will furnish an effective stimulus to the highest medical instruction, for although it does not require an examination of graduates of certain recognized institutions, it has possibly accomplished more in elevating the medical standard than any other State board.

But one of the most favorable conditions to a large attendance of students at Chicago is its central location. Not only from more eastern States will it gather students, but on the western side the limit is only reached at the Pacific, while on the south extends to the Gulf of Mexico the vast territory with a larger proportion of youth than in any other section of the Union.

"No pent-up Utica contracts our powers;
The whole boundless continent is ours."

This probably explains to a larger extent than otherwise the growing number of students at Chicago, and this same condition of centrality will operate to swell the number still larger for several years to come.

Although it may be said that in these days of rapid transit, of flying vestibules and palace cars, the East and West are brought closer together, and that for a few extra dollars the medical students of a far Western State can easily reach the metropolis of the East, yet the barriers of distance are still not entirely annihilated. There is always a larger acquaintance with the conditions and opportunities, educational or other, to be found in the nearer city of nearly equal importance, besides the many ties of friendship and business intercourse.

It should occasion no surprise to see a university with its many departments grow in the number of students in attendance until it reaches one or two thousand or even three thousand; nor even to see so many students in a literary college, where a general education is being sought by young men, who go up higher, from the many thousands in the secondary schools, afterwards to branch out into every calling. But it is a matter of surprise to see the large number of students in some medical schools, all of them preparing for the same kind of work, especially when consideration is had of the numerous medical schools to be found on every side.

If the number of medical students continues to increase during the next few years as it has of late there will soon be some medical schools with more than 1,000 students. Already the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania has reached an attendance of 818 students, and the Jefferson Medical College of Philadelphia follows closely with 726. The College of Physicians and Surgeons of Baltimore, the Harvard medical school, and Bellevue Hospital Medical College have each nearly 500 students. But in medicine, as in everything else, "Westward the star of empire takes its way," and we must go to the great metropolis by the Lakes to find the largest medical concourse. Rush Medical College, of Chicago, a department of Lake Forest University, has a larger number of students than any other medical college in the United States, namely, 840. This, too, notwithstanding the fact that in Chicago there are 10 medical schools, besides several post-graduate schools.

MEDICAL STUDENTS TO POPULATION.

Much has been said about the large number of medical students to population in this country as compared with the number in other countries—England, France, Italy, Brazil, etc.—as if it were something to be greatly deprecated. It was partly on account of the large number of medical students in this country that the course in medical colleges was lengthened to three years, and when this did not diminish the number of students it was lengthened to four years, and now the matriculation requirements must be elevated for the same reason.

It is not to be denied that the proportion of medical students in this country is

much greater than in other countries. Moreover, this proportion is bound to become still more noticeable. At the time of the American Revolution, and even as late as the war of 1812, the number of physicians in this country was exceedingly small, and the medical colleges could be counted on one's fingers. During the long period of over sixty years from 1765 to 1826 only 12 medical colleges attained a permanent foothold in the United States; and the number of medical students was as small as the number of schools, in comparison with those of the present time.

The medical school of the University of Pennsylvania was the first established in the United States—opened in 1765. The Harvard medical school followed in 1782, and Dartmouth in 1796. The twelve oldest medical colleges are as follows, the date being that of opening, not the date of the charter:

1. University of Pennsylvania, medical department.....	1765
2. Harvard University medical school.....	1782
3. Dartmouth Medical College.....	1796
4. College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia College, New York.....	1807
5. University of Maryland, faculty of physic.....	1808
6. Yale University, medical department.....	1813
7. Medical College of Ohio, Cincinnati.....	1820
8. Medical school of Maine at Bowdoin College.....	1821
9. University of Vermont, medical department.....	1823
10. National Medical College, Columbian University, Washington, D. C.....	1824
11. University of Virginia, medical school.....	1825
12. Jefferson Medical College of Philadelphia, Pa.....	1826

While it took sixty years in those days for the establishment of 12 medical schools, half as many were established in one year, in 1893, namely:

- Council Bluffs Medical College, Iowa.
- Johns Hopkins University medical school.
- Tufts College medical school.
- North Carolina Medical College.
- University College of Medicine, Richmond, Va.
- Wisconsin College of Physicians and Surgeons, Milwaukee, Wis.

The following statistics from Dr. William Pepper, of the University of Pennsylvania, show the ratio of physicians to population in various countries:

Russia.....	1 to 8, 551
Norway.....	1 to 3, 961
Austro-Hungarian Empire.....	1 to 3, 857
Italy.....	1 to 3, 536
Spain.....	1 to 3, 375
German Empire.....	1 to 3, 038
Belgium.....	1 to 2, 841
France.....	1 to 2, 666
British Islands ¹	1 to 1, 164
United States.....	1 to 500

It is said, too, that there are twice as many medical students in the United States as in France or Germany, and it is equally true that the number is still more striking when compared with the number in Mexico, Brazil, or China. In some portions of Africa there are some entitled to be called medical students; in Brazil, a larger number; in Italy still more; and in the United States, where the enlightenment of the masses of the people is highest and material prosperity greatest, is it surprising that the number of medical students is greater than in any other country? Instead of the relative number of physicians in the United States being the same as in Brazil, or Italy, or Spain, is it not a matter of congratulation that the people of this country are so well informed that they always endeavor to obtain a cure of disease, and that they are also so generally able and willing to give proper remuneration for medical services?

Moreover, it is fortunate that in this country so many young men can secure the means necessary to obtain a full medical training, while in some other countries the conditions are so hard and exacting that it is with difficulty people can barely maintain a livelihood. Instead of deprecating the fact that there are so many more physicians in the United States than in Italy, we should point to this as evidence of greater prosperity.

The people themselves are making no complaint that there are too many physicians; they content themselves with the thought that it is the same with physicians

¹According to British Medical Register for 1896.

as with any commodity—the greater the supply, the less the cost. The medical men themselves are the only ones who have reason to complain, and is it not probable that some of them are falling into the way of some trades unions in endeavoring to shut out accessions in order that they may enjoy exclusive possession—a monopoly?

Not only are the people in this country better able to pay for the services of physicians than in other countries, and a larger number of young men able to bear the heavy expenses of securing a medical education, but the same conditions hold in regard to any of the higher pursuits. There is a larger number of lawyers than in other countries, a larger number of dentists. In whatever country the largest number of people can elevate themselves above the condition of day laborers, there will we find the largest number of doctors, lawyers, dentists, etc.

Moreover, on account of their wide distribution the people of this country really need a much larger number of physicians than the crowded nations of Europe, just as the scattered agricultural population of a Western or Southern State will need three or more times as many physicians as the industrial population of some Eastern city, crowded together in adjoining houses. One physician can serve 2,000 people in a manufacturing town as easily as 3 physicians the same number of people in a scattered agricultural community.

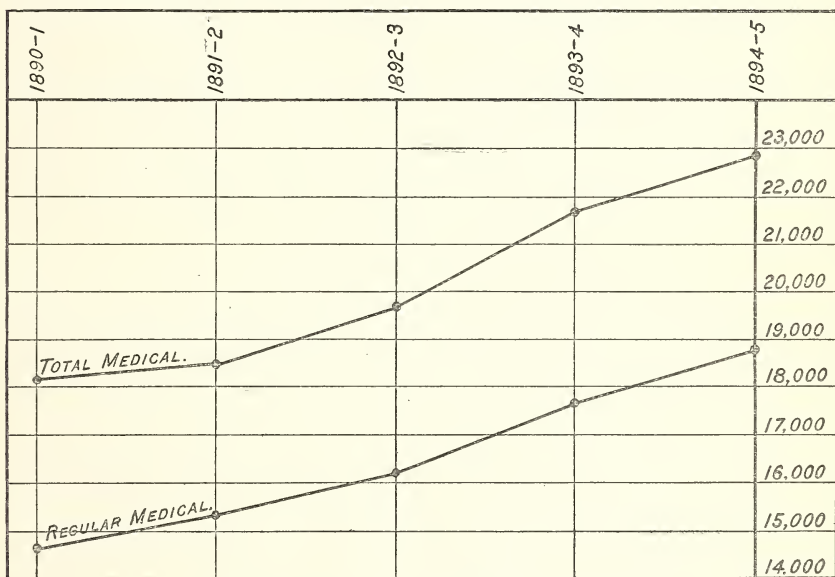


DIAGRAM 3.—Showing medical students for five years.

MEDICAL DEPARTMENTS OF STATE UNIVERSITIES.

If the 3 homeopathic schools in the universities of Iowa, Michigan, and Minnesota are considered distinct schools, there are then 17 medical schools forming part of State universities, the faculty of physice of the University of Maryland also being included, although its connection with the State is only nominal, the university having only the professional schools, law, medicine, and dentistry. The departments in State universities are as follows: California, Colorado, Georgia, Iowa (regular and homeopathic), Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan (regular and homeopathic), Minnesota (regular and homeopathic), Missouri, North Carolina (preparatory medical), Oregon, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

With two or three exceptions, the annual charges for tuition are much lower than in other medical schools. The medical department of Texas University has the distinction of being the only medical school which makes no annual charge to resident students, and it has no diploma fee. Nonresident students must pay an annual fee of \$50.

Heretofore Colorado had no tuition fee, but after September, 1895, an annual fee of \$35 will be charged.

In Michigan University the fee is quite small, only \$25 per annum; in Missouri it is only \$20 the first year and \$50 the second and third; in Iowa and Minnesota it is less than \$50.

Notwithstanding the large endowment funds of such institutions as Harvard, Yale, Columbia College, and the University of Pennsylvania, the annual charges to medical students are higher than in other schools. The tuition fee in the medical department of Harvard University is \$200, and cost of the entire course about \$714; in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia College, New York, tuition \$200, entire cost about \$850; in University of Pennsylvania, tuition \$150, entire cost \$612. In the collegiate departments, which receive the main benefit from the endowment funds, the charges to students are not apparently diminished. On the contrary, as the productive funds have increased, the costs to students have seemingly endeavored to keep pace with them. If one of these schools were now to receive a legacy of an additional million of dollars, it is quite probable that the charges to students would be increased. In justification of this it is said that the receipt of a large fund enables the institution to secure additional instructors of the highest attainments, to erect buildings specially adapted to the purposes intended, and to secure all necessary apparatus. Consequently, in consideration of the quality of instruction offered to students, the charges for tuition can not be considered unnecessarily high. Moreover, the attendance of a much larger number of students would diminish the possibility of the high quality of instruction which might otherwise be bestowed.

On the contrary, it seems scarcely possible that an institution with no endowment fund and no assistance from State appropriations can be able to afford full and complete facilities for acquisition of medical knowledge, unless it has a large attendance of students who pay ample fees for laboratory, clinical, and other instruction. If such instruction is not given, and students are left to gather what information they can from lectures read by young men seeking a reputation as physicians or by old physicians struggling to retain one, the institution may, of course, be conducted with little cost, but the instruction given will be correspondingly meager.

MEDICAL PRACTICE LAWS.

Besides the District of Columbia and the Cherokee Nation of the Indian Territory, there are 21 states which require an examination of every candidate for a license to practice medicine. These states are Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Utah, Virginia, Washington, and West Virginia.

It is noticeable that the South Atlantic States without a single exception require an examination, the District of Columbia also requiring an examination now according to a late law of Congress. In fact, in every Southern State east of the Mississippi, except Kentucky and Tennessee, an examination is required, and two of these states, Virginia and North Carolina, were among the first to adopt restrictive medical regulations. The District of Columbia law was approved June 3, 1896.

In Texas the medical law is interpreted differently in different parts of the State. A new law regulating the practice of medicine in Ohio was passed February 27, 1896, requiring a diploma from a reputable college.

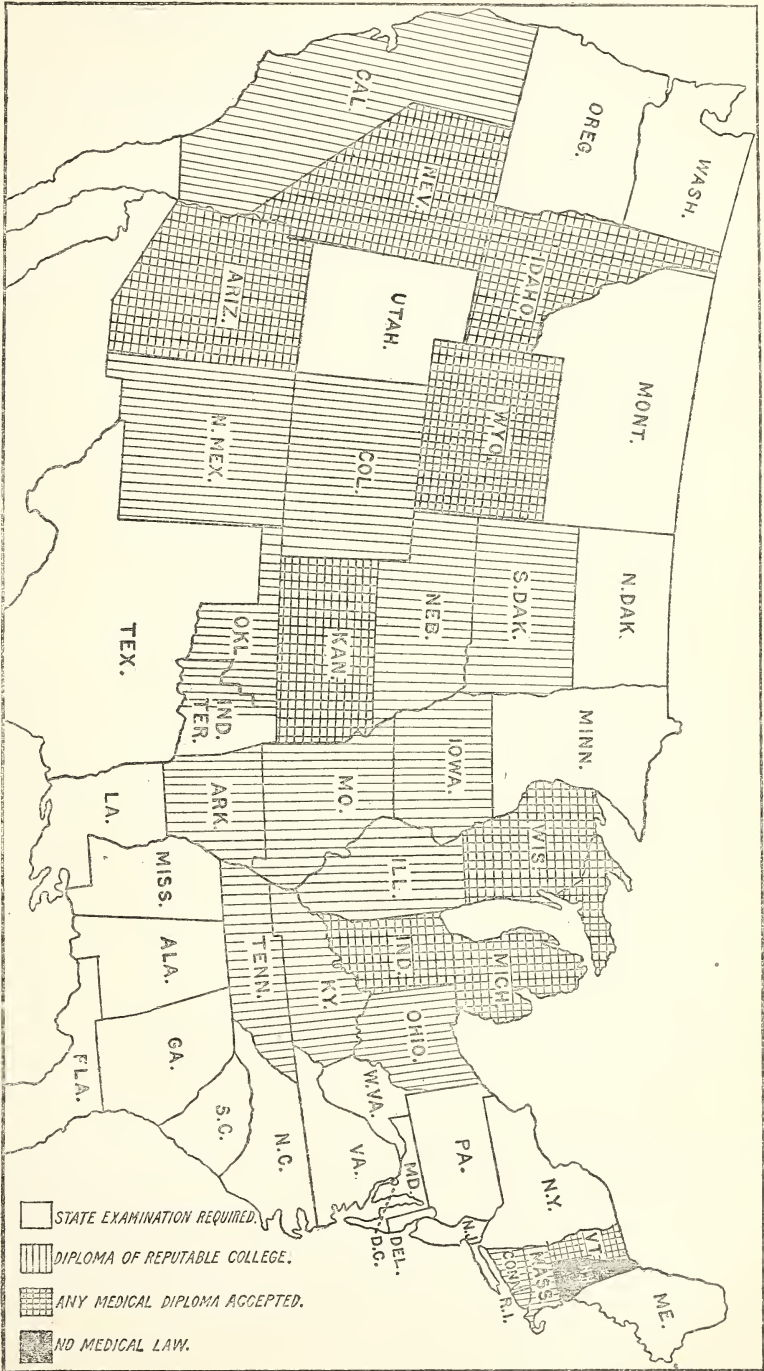
It is an auspicious promise of the further development and extension of restrictive measures that the two most influential States of the Union in wealth and population, New York and Pennsylvania, are among the strongest supporters of restrictive medical laws, and require of every candidate for a medical license that he shall first submit to a strict examination in order to determine whether he is qualified to take the health and lives of citizens in his hands. In the State of New York still other safeguards have been adopted in order to insure both general education and professional skill.

While examinations are not required in the populous State of Illinois, other measures have been adopted and have hitherto been enforced with such rigid adherence by the State board of health that not many quacks and impostors could find a resting place there.

In fourteen States and Territories no one can practice medicine who is not a graduate of some medical school recognized as reputable by the State or Territorial board. Although examinations are not required in these States, in some of them the laws are so strictly enforced that only those who have received full and complete medical training are allowed to practice.

In ten States and Territories the diploma of any chartered medical college gives the right to practice, and in one other State not even a diploma is required. In Massachusetts anyone with a diploma from a medical school in that State can practice medicine; all others must undergo an examination.

Requirements for license to practice medicine.



Requirements for the practice of medicine in the United States.

State or Territory.	Requirements.
Alabama.....	Examination by State or county board of medical examiners.
Arizona.....	Registration of diploma.
Arkansas.....	Diploma of college in good standing, or examination by State or county board of medical examiners.
California.....	Diploma of college in good standing. ¹
Colorado.....	Do.
Connecticut.....	Diploma of a college "recognized as reputable by one of the chartered medical societies of the State."
Delaware.....	Examination by one of the two State boards.
District of Columbia.....	Examination by one of the three boards.
Florida.....	Examination by State or district board of medical examiners.
Georgia.....	Examination by one of the three State boards after showing diploma of a college requiring three years of six months.
Idaho.....	Diploma.
Illinois.....	Diploma of college in good standing.
Indiana.....	Diploma.
Indian Territory:	
Cherokee Nation.....	Examination.
Choctaw Nation.....	Diploma of college in good standing.
Iowa.....	Do.
Kansas.....	Diploma.
Kentucky.....	Diploma of reputable college.
Louisiana.....	Examination by one of the two State boards after showing diploma of college in good standing.
Maine.....	Examination by State board of registration.
Maryland.....	Examination by one of the two State boards of examiners.
Massachusetts.....	Diploma of some medical college in the State, or examination by State board.
Michigan.....	Diploma.
Minnesota.....	Examination by State board of examiners.
Mississippi.....	Examination by State board of health.
Missouri.....	Diploma of college in good standing.
Montana.....	Examination by State board of examiners.
Nebraska.....	Diploma of college in good standing.
Nevada.....	Diploma.
New Hampshire.....	No requirement.
New Jersey.....	Examination by State board of examiners.
New Mexico.....	Diploma of college in good standing.
New York.....	Examination by one of the three State boards of examiners.
North Carolina.....	Examination by State board.
North Dakota.....	Do.
Ohio.....	Diploma of college in good standing.
Oklahoma.....	Do.
Oregon.....	Examination.
Pennsylvania.....	Examination by one of the three State boards of examiners.
Rhode Island.....	Diploma of college in good standing.
South Carolina.....	Examination by State board after showing diploma.
South Dakota.....	Diploma of college in good standing.
Tennessee.....	Do.
Texas.....	Examination by law; diploma sometimes accepted. ²
Utah.....	Examination by State board.
Vermont.....	Diploma.
Virginia.....	Examination by State board of examiners.
Washington.....	Do.
West Virginia.....	Do.
Wisconsin.....	Diploma.
Wyoming.....	Do.

¹ The words "in good standing" denote that the regulations of the college comply with the conditions established by the State boards.

² The law is interpreted differently in different parts of Texas, or rather is not enforced.

MEDICAL BOARDS.

Effort has been made to ascertain what States and Territories have separate boards for different schools of medicine, what States have mixed boards, number of members in each, and how appointed. Over one-half of the States with medical boards do not mention different schools of medicine at all. Seven States have special boards appointed by the Governor without regard to schools of medicine, viz, Arkansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Montana, Oregon, Washington. In 8 States the boards of health constitute the medical boards, viz, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Mississippi, Missouri, Rhode Island, South Dakota, West Virginia. In 6 States and the District of Columbia there are three separate medical boards, regular, homeopathic, eclectic, viz, California, Connecticut, Georgia, New York, Pennsylvania, Vermont. In 3 States there are two boards, regular and homeopathic, viz, Delaware, Louisiana, and Maryland. Seven States have mixed boards, Colorado, Nebraska, New Jersey,

New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Virginia. In 9 States and Territories there are no medical boards at all, and all laws on the practice of medicine are left to enforce themselves, and consequently have little effect, as can be seen in Kansas and Wisconsin.

In New York the medical examining boards are placed under the direction of the State Board of Regents, in Pennsylvania under a Medical Council, in the District of Columbia under a Board of Medical Supervisors.

Medical examining boards.

State.	Number.	Schools represented, etc.	Members.
Alabama.....	1	Regular (a).....	10
Arizona.....	0
Arkansas.....	b1	5
California.....	3	Regular, homeopathic, eclectic.....	e7
Colorado.....	1	Mixed.....	d9
Connecticut.....	3	Regular, homeopathic, eclectic.....	e5
Delaware.....	2	Regular, homeopathic.....	e5
District of Columbia.....	3	Regular, homeopathic, eclectic.....	e5
Florida.....	e8
Georgia.....	3	Regular, homeopathic, eclectic.....	e5
Idaho.....	0
Illinois.....	1	Board of health (b).....	7
Indiana.....	0
Iowa.....	1	Board of health (b).....	7
Kansas.....	0
Kentucky.....	1	Board of health (b).....	7
Louisiana.....	2	Regular, homeopathic.....	e5
Maine.....	b1	6
Maryland.....	2	Regular, homeopathic.....	e7
Massachusetts.....	b1	7
Michigan.....	0
Minnesota.....	b1	9
Mississippi.....	1	Board of health (b).....	12
Missouri.....	1	do (b).....	7
Montana.....	b1	7
Nebraska.....	1	Mixed.....	f7
Nevada.....	0
New Hampshire.....	0
New Jersey.....	1	Mixed.....	g9
New Mexico.....	1	do.....	h7
New York.....	3	Regular, homeopathic, eclectic.....	e7
North Carolina.....	1	Regular.....	i7
North Dakota.....	1	Mixed.....	j9
Ohio.....	1	Mixed (k).....	7
Oklahoma.....	1	3
Oregon.....	b1	5
Pennsylvania.....	3	Regular, homeopathic, eclectic.....	e7
Rhode Island.....	1	Board of health (b).....	7
South Carolina.....	1	Regular.....	7
South Dakota.....	1	Board of health (b).....	5
Tennessee.....	1	6
Texas.....	(l)
Utah.....	1	7
Vermont.....	3	Regular, homeopathic, eclectic.....	e3
Virginia.....	1	Mixed.....	m13
Washington.....	b1	9
West Virginia.....	1	Board of health (b).....	8
Wisconsin.....	0
Wyoming.....	0

a Board of censors of Alabama State Medical Association; also county boards under its authority.

b Appointed by governor; medical schools not mentioned.

c Each.

d 6 regular, 2 homeopathic, 1 eclectic.

e 1 for each judicial district, and 1 for the State at large for homeopaths and eclectic.

f 2 regular, 1 homeopathic, 1 eclectic, and 3 ex-officio—governor, attorney-general, superintendent of public instruction.

g 5 regular, 3 homeopathic, 1 eclectic.

h 4 regular, 2 homeopathic, 1 eclectic.

i Appointed by State medical society.

j 6 regular, 2 homeopathic, 1 lawyer.

k No one school to have a majority of the board.

l 1 board for each judicial district; appointed by the district judge.

m Must have 5 homeopathic.

A full report of the results of the examinations conducted by the different boards has not been obtained, but the following presentation was made by Dr. Perry H. Millard, of St. Paul, Minn., before the American Academy of Medicine, at Baltimore, May 6, 1895:¹

State.	Examined.	Licensed.	Rejected.	Per cent.
Alabama.....	647	558	89	86.2
Maryland.....	150	105	25	80.6
Minnesota.....	641	499	142	77.8
New York.....	967	797	170	82.4
New Jersey.....	447	417	30	95.5
North Carolina.....	615	508	207	71
North Dakota.....	81	76	5	93.8
Virginia.....	835	613	222	73.4
Washington.....	207	167	40	80.6
Total.....	4,670	3,740	930	82.2

One of the difficulties liable to arise from having independent boards for the different schools of medicine is that the character of the examinations may vary so much as to have a serious effect on the applications of students. If one examining board allows all applicants, except 5 per cent, to pass successfully, while another board rejects 30 or 35 per cent of its applicants, it will not be long before the students will be seeking the lenient board, for after receiving a registration certificate there is nothing to hinder a candidate from practicing according to whatever system he prefers, even if he be registered by another board; and unless he choose to make known what system he follows it need not become known at all except to those who examine the records. It is useless to expect students to apply to one board when they have a far greater probability of being successful before another. The leniency of the boards will be considered by students when beginning the study of medicine. Even if the different boards had no intention whatever of influencing students in this way, the result would be the same, the student never considering the motive at all. Some variation must necessarily occur in the per cent of students rejected, just as the per cent rejected at different times by the same board will vary. In New York the results of the examinations for the year ending August 1, 1895, were as follows:

	Total.	Successful.	Rejected.	Per cent rejected.
Examined by regular board.....	606	445	161	26.5
Examined by homeopathic board.....	60	52	8	13.3
Examined by eclectic board.....	11	10	1	9.1

There should be as near an approach to uniformity as possible in the per cent of rejections, and in order to secure this all applicants might be required to pass the same examination in all subjects except practice and materia medica. In such subjects as anatomy, physiology, and chemistry there certainly can be no room for different schools, and the same applies equally well in obstetrics and surgery. This method is probably adopted where there are mixed boards, or else the boards avoid questions which would be answered differently by different schools.

BENEFACCTIONS.

In 1894 Mr. William Deering gave to the medical school of Northwestern University, Chicago, Ill., \$50,000 to endow the N. S. Davis professorship of physiology. He had given in 1890 \$20,000 toward the purchase of the land on which the schools of medicine and pharmacy are located.

In 1893 Dr. Ephraim Ingals gave the medical school of Northwestern University \$10,000 to aid the construction of the laboratory building.

SCHOLARSHIPS IN MEDICAL SCHOOLS.

Reference is intended to be made here to schools of medicine, for scholarships and theological schools are almost contradictory terms. The chief end of a scholarship being instruction without cost to the student, and tuition fees occurring as rare exceptions in theological schools, there is little association between the words. The benefits of scholarships in medical and law schools would be recognized at once,

¹ Some slight errors will be observed in the table, but we give it as found.

but it would be as readily recognized that they are not of frequent occurrence. From the munificence of wealthy individuals universities and colleges and theological schools have received liberal endowments and expensive buildings and apparatus, but medical and law schools have been left to depend upon their own resources. Wherever a theological seminary has not been endowed it is sustained by funds received from churches or societies, tuition fees not being considered an element in sustaining the institution. In the table of theological schools in the Commissioner's Report for 1888-89, only 8 seminaries are reported as having received tuition fees, and 4 of these were colored schools, which are usually supported by the gifts of friends, which in these instances were possibly accredited to tuition fees. Not only do theological students receive free instruction, but in a large number of cases their board and lodging are also furnished them.

In the reports received from law schools in 1894-95 40 scholarships are said to have been given to students. This does not average 1 scholarship to each school. In the 23 schools of law which form part of State universities tuition fees are charged with but three exceptions, so that the law schools are really not supported by the States.

In the medical schools 295 scholarships are said to have been bestowed, but many of these are not scholarships in a strict sense. Thirteen, carrying possibly the largest amounts in the aggregate, were in the Harvard medical school. The scholarship having the largest amount of any, \$700, was in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York.

In the Leonard medical school of Shaw University, Raleigh, N. C., an institution for the education of colored students in medicine, there were 56 students in attendance, and 56 scholarships are reported to have been given. This probably is equivalent to saying that the medical school was supported entirely by charitable contributions, no tuition being charged.

Quite a number of medical schools, especially of those not fully established and which are anxious to secure a large attendance, make a reduction in annual charges to young men of limited means. Others make reductions to sons of ministers and physicians. Notice is intended to be taken here, however, only of those scholarships which are bestowed from the income of invested funds or which are contributed directly by friends, and not of those instances where new schools remit charges in order to obtain students.

In the medical school of Harvard University, Boston, Mass., 13 scholarships were distributed in 1894-95. There are 2 Barringer scholarships of \$300 and \$200, respectively, the Cheever scholarship of \$200, the Isaac Sweetser scholarship of \$200, 4 faculty scholarships of \$200 each, the Claudius M. Jones scholarship, the Orlando W. Doe scholarship, the Charles Pratt Strong scholarship of \$100, the Lewis and Harriet Hayden scholarship of \$100 for colored students, and the income of the John Foster fund, amounting to about \$150, payable every other year. There are also 3 fellowships in the medical school, established by Mr. William S. Bullard, amounting to \$225 each.

The Boston University school of medicine (homeopathic) has 2 alumni scholarships besides the Garfield and Wade scholarships. The Fenno Tudor loan fund provides for loans, in sums not exceeding \$50, to meritorious young women. The George Russell loan fund does the same for young men.

The woman's medical school of Northwestern University, Chicago, Ill., has 5 endowed scholarships for missionaries. One of these was endowed by Mrs. Chandler, of Detroit, Mich., in behalf of the Woman's Presbyterian Board of Missions of the Northwest. The Woman's Methodist Foreign Missionary Society has 2 perpetual scholarships, endowed by Mrs. Emily W. N. Schofield. Mrs. Schofield also endowed 1 scholarship for the Woman's Missionary Board of the Congregational Church.

The medical department of Columbian University, Washington, D. C., by means of a liberal endowment from the late W. W. Corcoran, is enabled to give 6 free scholarships.

In the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York City, through the generosity of the late Alonzo Clark, for many years president of the College of Physicians and Surgeons and professor of pathology and practical medicine, a scholarship with an income of about \$700 a year is bestowed for the purpose of promoting the discovery of new facts in medical science. There are also 2 alumni fellowships, open to graduates of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, which have an annual value of \$500 each, besides entitling the holders to free instruction in any of the schools of Columbia College.

In the Woman's Medical College of the New York Infirmary there are 2 scholarships founded by the children of Mr. and Mrs. Robert Haydock, who were among the incorporators and first trustees of the institution. Students sent by missionary boards to prepare for missionary work get a reduction of one-half from the annual charge.

In the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania, at Philadelphia, the income from funds left for the purpose by Ann Preston, M. D., Robert J. Dodd, M. D., Hannah

W. Richardson, and Isaiah V. Richardson, enables the college to assist annually a limited number of women who are adapted to the profession of medicine, but are unable to secure a medical education without such aid. Four students may also be admitted at a reduction of \$35 each year from the regular fees, upon presentation of a certificate from a missionary society stating definitely the intention of the applicant to prosecute medical work abroad under the direction of the society, and that she will receive from the society pecuniary assistance in obtaining a medical education.

The University of Pennsylvania gave 16 scholarships entitling to free tuition, 3 of them being obtained in competitive examination.

The Marion-Sims College of Medicine, St. Louis, Mo., through the liberality of certain friends of the institution, has 5 scholarships which entitle the holder to free instruction.

The Leonard medical school of Shaw University, Raleigh, N. C., an institution for the education of the colored race, has a fund of \$5,000, received from the late Judson Wade Leonard, of Hampden, Mass., the income of which is used to furnish scholarships for young men in the medical school. It also received \$1,000 from the John F. Slater fund, which was used for the same purpose.

REQUIREMENT OF ACADEMIC DEGREES FROM MEDICAL STUDENTS.

Not many years ago any young man, after spending a few months of preparatory study in a physician's office, could matriculate in probably any medical school in the United States, and, moreover, in only eighteen months he could come out of almost any medical school with his diploma. As a result young men from all sides were being graduated as doctors of medicine, although their medical knowledge was necessarily very limited. They were given diplomas certifying that they had been examined and found learned in all things pertaining to medicine and surgery. Fortunately, however, the diploma was usually in Latin, so that the truthfulness of the statement would not likely be called in question. Afterwards, with increasing numbers of students, the medical colleges demanded three years of attendance, and when this did not perceptibly diminish the number of students, another year was added, making four years in the medical courses. The graduation requirements were made higher and higher, but the qualifications for entrance remained practically unchanged.

In reply to inquiries of the Journal of the American Medical Association, January 12, 1895, we find the following from the medical department of Yale University:

"I have felt for some time that an increase in the matriculation requirement was more needed in this country than the increase of time of study—that is, that three years with well-prepared students would be better for the profession than a larger number of students kept at their professional work for a year longer. This opinion, however, does not seem to be the one which has prevailed."

With few exceptions the doors are still open to any one, the only regulations having reference to time to be spent. One important exception to this statement is in New York, where the regulations of the regents of the State University are such as to require a good secondary education before matriculation.

The medical school of Johns Hopkins University was the first to come out boldly and demand a college degree as a requisite for admission to the full course.

Harvard medical school is another to take an advance step on this question. President Eliot has already mentioned the year 1900 as an appropriate time to inaugurate the change. In the divinity school of Harvard an academic degree has been a prerequisite to entrance for some years, and in 1896 it will also be demanded of all students taking the regular course in the law school.

Since the above was written the faculty of the medical school of Harvard University, at a meeting held January 4, 1896, adopted the following resolutions:

"In and after June, 1901, candidates for admission to the medical school must present a degree in arts, literature, philosophy, science, or medicine from a recognized college or scientific school, with the exception of such persons of suitable age and attainments as may be admitted by a special vote of the faculty taken in each case.

"All candidates, whether presenting a degree or not, are and will be required to satisfy the faculty that they had a course in theoretical and descriptive (inorganic) chemistry and qualitative analysis sufficient to fit them to pursue the courses in chemistry given at the medical school."

The courses in law, theology, and medicine are naturally post-graduate studies, and if our lawyers and doctors are not to be college graduates, who shall be, besides ministers and college professors? In theological schools it has not been difficult to secure attendance of students with degrees, for there, on account of assistance of churches or societies, the expenses of students amount to but little. In the law schools heretofore the course of study has not been so extended that young men could not complete it at a reasonable age, but it is difficult to see how, under present conditions, all medical students can be required to take a full college course before

entering upon professional studies and at the same time begin their professional careers at a suitable age. They do not complete the college course until 22 or 23 years of age, and as nearly all medical schools have adopted courses of four years young men will be about 27 years of age before they can finish the medical course, and will be about 30 years old before they can be expected to support a family. If all medical students must be supported until they have completed college and professional courses at 27 years of age, it will soon be impossible for young men from the ordinary walks of life to complete a medical course at all.

It is claimed, however, by those who believe in a full, liberal education for all medical students, that if the elementary and secondary education of pupils was properly conducted, and if there was a better correlation of secondary and higher studies, young men would be prepared for entering college at an earlier age. There can be no question but that progress in elementary studies could be much more rapid, especially in rural schools, if they had efficient teachers and supervisors. With the general improvement being constantly made in the public schools it is reasonable to conclude that in a few more years there will be nothing to hinder young men from receiving a full, liberal education and also completing a course in medicine at a much earlier age than is now possible.

President Eliot has said:

"The average age of admission to Harvard College at this moment is fully 19. The student who stays there four years to get his A. B. is 23 when he graduates, He then goes to our medical school to stay there four years; so he is 27 years of age before he even has his medical degree, and we all know that some years intervene between that achievement and competency to support a family. Now, that highly educated young man ought to have been married at 25.

"The remedies for this state of things—which is really intolerable, and which particularly ought not to exist in a country so new as ours—are somewhat complex. They, in the first place, must include an improvement in the secondary schools of the country, whereby the boys may learn a great deal more and yet come out of them earlier. The proper age for secondary education in our country is between 13 and 18, not higher. Then I must frankly say that for years I have been in favor of reducing the ordinary term of residence for the degree of B. A. to three years, an out and out square reduction from four to three years."

At the medical congress in Baltimore, in 1895, Dr. Perry H. Millard, of Minnesota, stated that while it is too early for medical colleges generally to require an academic degree before admission, the standard of entrance requirements should nevertheless be raised. He suggested as a general standard that all medical students be required to show a certificate of matriculation in some college or university, or else undergo an examination to indicate an equivalent preparation. Some higher and more easily ascertainable standard of entrance requirements than the present indefinite regulations will have to be adopted before general satisfaction will be obtained.

Columbia University, New York, allows senior students of the college to elect studies in the professional schools, the purpose being, according to President Low, to shorten the time required for completion of a professional course. In the first year of the adoption of the four years' course in medicine there was a decline in the percentage of students with degrees from 40 to 36 per cent. He says students can not postpone professional studies until 22 or 23 years of age, while in England and Germany professional studies are taken up at 19 or 20 years of age, and especially since the age for completion of a professional course should be earlier in a new country than in an older one. According to President Low the trouble is that the college course has been lifted out of its proper place and away from its appropriate ages, namely, 16 to 20, and as a result young men go directly from the high school to the professional school.

One indirect advantage to be derived from the plan of Columbia, of allowing selection of professional studies in the senior year, is that students after beginning professional studies in the university will probably continue them, whereas otherwise law students especially might begin professional training in private offices of attorneys, and so be deprived of the full discipline and equipment in legal knowledge to be obtained in a law school.

Prior to the establishment of the common schools, the courses in any of the colleges could be entered upon at an earlier age than at present. This was not attributable to better instruction in the schools, for it was probably not equal to that of present times, but the boys who expected to enter upon a collegiate course had their studies shaped to meet the college requirements, even from the time of entering the grammar grades. There were many schools having as their declared purpose the preparation of boys for certain higher institutions, and all of the instruction was designed to meet this end, and the success of the school was determined in large measure by the readiness with which its pupils attained collegiate matriculation. As the result of this concentration of efforts and purpose upon the accomplishment of a particular object, the boys rarely failed to reach the standard required, even at the early age

desired by parents. We say "the boys" rarely failed, for in those days it was no indignity to term them such, even for some months after matriculation, but now college students are all "young men."

But with the advent of the common schools the ends designed to be accomplished were changed. There were no longer a few select schools with select pupils to be prepared for college, but there were many schools with many pupils, to a considerable extent children of the populace, of the *οἱ πολλοί*, and in some of the larger cities possibly of a *multitudo egens et perdita*. These desired not that their children should be prepared for college, but that they might keep the wolf from the door. They attached little value to Latin and Greek, but desired training in English branches and practical studies.

As the number of students preparing for collegiate training is always much smaller than the number soon to enter business in some form, the courses preparing for college become less important and academic candidates are left to qualify themselves as best they can. The courses in the high schools have gradually been broadened so as to include many other useful and practical studies, which even prospective college students are unwilling to omit. Consequently the age for completion of high school courses has been elevated, and instead of preparing pupils for entrance to college they aim rather at preparation for the practical duties of life.

But at the same time the matriculation requirements of colleges have been elevated. This caused no particular hardship a few years ago when a professional course could be completed with ease in one or two years. The courses in medicine were regarded as requiring only a few months' study, and as for law, one could study three months or a year, according to his convenience.

But times have changed, and this is soon realized by young men who conclude to study medicine with the expectation that they can complete the course as rapidly and as easily as was done by some physician they have known for years. In medicine every year now marks some advance in the requirements for graduation or for a medical license. The advances are made so rapidly as to escape the observation of all except those who are particularly interested in the subject.

The courses of law schools are also being extended somewhat, although not so noticeably as in medical schools, and the standard of preliminary education is being elevated.

In consequence of this broadening and lengthening of the courses in elementary schools, and the advanced age for completion of collegiate studies, young men who take a degree before beginning professional courses frequently can not complete the same until 28 or 30 years of age.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES ON MEDICAL SCHOOLS.

The College of Physicians and Surgeons of Columbia College, New York, which lately received from the Vanderbilt family some important additions to its already valuable property, will soon be in possession of still other extensive improvements. The group of college buildings, given by the late William H. Vanderbilt and members of his family and by William D. Sloane, esq., stood upon thirty contiguous lots of land, bounded on the south, west, and north by Fifty-ninth street, Tenth avenue, and Sixtieth street. The college building proper consisted of a southern portion measuring 140 by 40 feet, a northern portion 96 by 43 feet, and a middle portion 96 by 55 feet. Through the recent generous gift of Messrs. Cornelius, William K., Frederick W., and George W. Vanderbilt there has been rendered possible an important enlargement of the college building. The present south wing will be extended eastward for 55 feet and to a depth of 80 feet. It will be four stories high and will be devoted to the department of anatomy.

The new Vanderbilt clinic covers an area of 180 by 60 feet, and is three stories in height. The original building having proved inadequate to accommodate the large number of patients, the sons of Mr. Vanderbilt united in an additional gift of \$350,000, enabling the size of the building to be doubled.

The Sloane Maternity Hospital is a lying-in hospital given by William D. Sloane, esq., whose wife, a daughter of the late William H. Vanderbilt, has endowed the institution, making all of its beds free in perpetuity. Through the further munificence of Mr. Sloane the present hospital is to be greatly enlarged. The new building will be six stories high, but will conform to the old building in general architectural style. This will furnish 72 additional beds for patients and offer greater accommodation for the house staff and nurses.

An addition to the Barnes Medical College building, of St. Louis, four stories high, and in immediate connection with the main building, was lately erected, covering an area of 40 by 50 feet. It provides a separate entrance to the clinic for diseases of women and children, and contains a microscopical laboratory 20 by 50 feet. Upon the second floor is a chemical laboratory 40 by 50 feet, and so arranged as to enable 100 students to simultaneously engage in the practical work in this

department. Upon the third floor is an elegant museum, and the fourth contains an amphitheater with a seating capacity of nearly 500. The amphitheater is lighted from the dome, and the seats are so arranged that every student can obtain a satisfactory view.

The Missouri Medical College, of St. Louis, one of the oldest medical institutions of the country, has just completed its fifty-fourth year. It now has a new edifice in process of construction which will afford increased laboratory and clinical facilities and give place for all the didactic lecture rooms under one roof.

The Omaha Medical College completed its new building in the fall of 1893. It is of pressed brick, with stone and terra-cotta trimmings, three stories and basement. The main amphitheater is on the second floor, 31 by 41 feet, and will seat 275 students. The entire building is heated by steam and lighted by electricity.

The medical department of Buffalo University now occupies its new building on High street, near Main. It is finished with terra cotta, pressed brick, iron, and hard wood. It contains three amphitheaters, a chemical laboratory in which 96 students can work at one time, and other laboratories.

The medical department of Tulane University, of Louisiana, occupies a new site twice as large as the former one and only two squares from Charity Hospital, with 700 beds, and where over 10,000 patients are annually treated. There is a central medical building containing two large lecture rooms, one above the other, and two wings for laboratories, library, museum, and recitation rooms. The lecture rooms have a seating capacity of about 500 each and are entirely free from posts and pillars.

The medical department of Johns Hopkins University received another improvement in 1894, the Women's Fund Memorial Building. The sum of \$500,000 was raised for the endowment of the medical department on condition that women would be admitted on the same terms as men. Miss Mary Elizabeth Garrett contributed \$306,977 in addition to previous subscriptions. The course of instruction now covers four years of nine months each.

Baltimore Medical College has a new five-story building on Madison street and Linden, erected at a cost of \$75,000. The lecture hall is 40 by 80 feet, and can seat 600 students. The anatomical room contains tables for 90 students to dissect at one time, and there is a chemical laboratory 42 by 84 feet.

DEGREE IN PHARMACY.

At a meeting of the American Pharmaceutical Association in Asheville, N. C., September, 1894, a paper was read by Robert J. Snyder on the subject, "What objections can be urged against bestowing the degree of doctor of pharmacy upon graduates of pharmacy who take a post-graduate course."

The degree very generally given at completion of the regular course has been that of graduate in pharmacy (Ph. G.), but there is some disposition to adopt the former title as seeming more commensurate in dignity and importance with the more extended and elaborate courses which have been introduced of late years, a change which was advocated in the paper above mentioned.

Of 31 schools of pharmacy concerning whose degree information has been received, all but 5 give the degree of graduate in pharmacy. The two schools at Washington, D. C., viz, the National College of Pharmacy and the pharmaceutical school of Howard University, and the college of pharmacy of the University of Minnesota, bestow the degree of doctor of pharmacy, which is sometimes unfortunately abbreviated Ph. D., symbols which are generally interpreted differently.¹

The University of Michigan and Vanderbilt University give the degree of pharmaceutical chemist, their courses not requiring practical work in a pharmaceutical establishment, and not claiming to prepare for full commercial work. The school of pharmacy of the University of Kansas will hereafter give the degree of pharmaceutical chemist and will not require shop experience. Vanderbilt University also gives the degree of master in pharmacy upon completion of one year's satisfactory post-graduate work in the school. The Illinois College of Pharmacy and the school of pharmacy of Purdue University give the degree of graduate in pharmacy, and for a longer course the degree of pharmaceutical chemist.

TRAINING IN DRUG STORES.

Not a great many years ago schools of pharmacy were almost unknown. Many physicians prepared their own medicines for administration, which quite frequently consisted of teas made from botanical plants, gathered by the physician himself from neighboring fields. Even after it became the general custom for prescriptions to be sent to a pharmacist, he received all of his training in the shop, and usually had one

¹ The College of Pharmacy of Minnesota University gives the degree of doctor of pharmacy, which it abbreviates Phm. D.

or two assistants taking lessons from him, who afterwards succeeded him in the business or else established an independent shop.

After pharmaceutical schools were opened the course of instruction usually followed was 4 years of training in a dispensing store and 2 years in a school of pharmacy. The latter would not bestow its diploma upon any student who had not received the 4 years of training in a pharmacy.

The question whether schools of pharmacy should make work in a drug store a prerequisite to graduation has received much attention from pharmacists of late. This question is of particular importance to those schools where the student is required to give his entire time to his studies, for in the schools where the students work the greater part of the day in a drug store, and attend a school of pharmacy in the evening, there is usually no occasion to insist upon practical experience. It is claimed that the school of pharmacy can have no definite assurance that a student has served any length of time in a pharmacy, or that he has had any connection with the work of dispensing drugs. He may have been employed in such a capacity that he would acquire no acquaintance with drugs whatever, for there is much work in a drug store that calls for no pharmaceutical knowledge at all. In some pharmacies the prescription department is of minor importance. Other establishments conduct mainly a wholesale business, and here it would only be necessary for the student to be able to read the labels and to weigh out the proper amounts.

On account of the difficulty, therefore, of determining whether a student has had such an actual experience in dispensing drugs, and for the proper length of time, some pharmaceutical schools relegate this question entirely to the State boards of examiners (where there are any), and content themselves with the declaration that their graduates have passed satisfactory examinations in all subjects connected with pharmacy, and that they have taken laboratory courses, giving them an intimate acquaintance with drugs. As a rule, too, these schools which require the students' full time give an extended and accurate training both by means of lectures and by abundant laboratory work with the drugs themselves.

But although such a student can illustrate accurately by chemical formulas the changes taking place in compounding drugs and can give full description of the different drugs, their properties and uses, yet if he must then enter for the first time behind the dispensing counter and take his first lessons in the various duties of a drug clerk and receive many useful and important hints from the junior clerk of only a few months' experience, and perhaps have to call for his assistance to decipher a prescription to him illegal but to others as plain as day, he will soon recognize that he has many things yet to learn. He will be astonished, too, to find that although well acquainted with the whole line of *materia medica*, customers constantly come in and ask for drugs by names entirely new to him, but which they evidently think he should know at once. He will have little or no knowledge of the current prices of drugs and prescriptions, to say nothing of the large assortment of other articles so frequently kept, although not properly belonging in a pharmacy. He will probably not possess the necessary tact in dealing with customers, nor dexterity in supplying their needs, and will not have that general knowledge of conducting a pharmacy which is so essential. Consequently, he can only act as junior clerk after all his years of study and training. Even after he has served several months he will constantly find himself in a quandary from which longer experience would have saved him.

The pharmaceutical schools which require no training in drug stores frankly state that no student can become a satisfactory and successful pharmacist until he has spent several months in the business. A professor in a pharmaceutical school speaks thus:

"All pharmaceutical schools unquestionably recognize the universal rule that no person can become a fully equipped and accomplished dispensing pharmacist until after years of actual practical experience in properly conducted pharmacies where a considerable amount of sufficiently varied pharmaceutical work is done."¹

But if the diploma of a regularly established school of pharmacy can not be accepted as evidence that the holder can successfully discharge the duties of a pharmacist, but the question must be left to State boards of pharmacy, and if the State boards regularly admit to examination young men who have spent several years in pharmacies, but who have never spent a day in a pharmaceutical school, the diploma of the latter would soon be of little value to its holder in securing him employment, but instead a demand would be made for his license from the State board. If practical experience in a pharmacy is absolutely indispensable in order that one may become fully qualified, and this seems to be universally acknowledged, is it altogether unavoidable that a school of pharmacy should omit this important requisite? Is there no way by which its diploma may not only certify with truthfulness as to the holder's theoretical knowledge, but also attest his ability to enter any pharmacy and immediately undertake the duties of a full clerk? Such a diploma would be valued

¹Oscar Oldberg, in *The Apothecary*, April, 1894, p. 158.

far more highly, both by employers and students. Schools of law and medicine require all students to comply with certain regularly established requisites for matriculation, in order to avoid any uncertainty as to ability to enter upon the course.

It is true that such matriculation requirements have not heretofore been rigidly enforced, but they have served a useful purpose and are now being rendered more difficult and exacting. Could not pharmaceutical schools also require applicants to produce certificates as to former employment as druggists, and to avoid possibility of deception require all applicants to pass an entrance examination? Such examinations could be made so rigid as to fully test the applicant's training even without a certificate. If the question of experience must be left to State boards of examiners, then in a State which has no board of pharmacy the graduates of pharmaceutical schools requiring no training in a store have no credentials as pharmacists. Or if they should be accepted on the strength of the diploma, their wages, if not immediately, would soon be leveled to those of half-qualified clerks. It is probable also that a student who has passed two or three years of arduous study, and who has really acquired a large amount of valuable knowledge and has at last received a certificate to that effect, would be somewhat humiliated to be under the necessity of accepting a position as an incompetent clerk, even if on account of ignorance of many minor details of store work. Although some hold a different opinion, there are many who claim that the chief object of a pharmaceutical diploma should be to certify to the holder's qualifications as a well-trained and fully competent pharmacist.

If, as it has been claimed, it is not within the province of a pharmaceutical school to inquire as to the student's training in dispensing drugs, but this must be left to the State boards of pharmacy, the question might be asked, How can the State board of pharmacy determine this matter any better than the pharmaceutical schools, or even as well, since the student must spend two or three years at the school, during which time it certainly might be able to ascertain better the student's practical knowledge than could the State board in half a day? It is claimed by some that an apprentice in pharmacy should be required to notify the State board of pharmacy as soon as he enters upon the business and whenever he changes his place of work, and in this way some record might be kept of the time in which he has been employed in a pharmacy. Others claim that it is utterly impracticable for such a record to be kept and verified for three or four years of all apprentices in pharmacy. Large numbers of young men serve in the business for two or three years and then drop out entirely. Others engage in the work temporarily, as they suppose, and afterwards make it their regular calling. Again, some States have no board of pharmacy for such work, even if it could be accomplished. Moreover, in some rural regions there is a scarcity of pharmacists even under the present lax requirements.

Not only could the school of pharmacy ascertain the student's training better than the State board, but it is within its power itself to give to a large extent this practical training. The work is not so extensive or so intricate but that it can be accomplished. As some evidence of this, notice can be taken of the business colleges, or commercial schools, some of which have elaborate methods of conducting extensive business courses requiring far more intricate and technical knowledge. Much of the information necessary to a pharmacist can be obtained with less effort than that of a full commercial course. If the diploma of a pharmaceutical school signified both theoretical and practical knowledge, it would reflect greater honor upon the school, and its holder would bear a more grateful feeling to the institution which not only gave him valuable knowledge, but saved him from ignorance of many minor but important details.

EVENING INSTRUCTION.

The great defect in some schools of pharmacy is that the instruction is confined to a few hours in the evening, the student devoting his time during the day to work in a pharmacy, where, although he receives much valuable knowledge, he is chiefly interested in the wages he receives. In some instances the time required of each student is only 5 or 6 hours each week, or about 20 or 25 hours in a month, or 100 or 125 hours in a whole course. Another school possibly exacts 5 or 6 hours each day in attendance at the school, while all the remainder of the student's time is devoted to study, the student not being engaged in any business at all. There has been much discussion as to which of these methods furnishes the more valuable training. In one case a small space of time is devoted to regular and systematic training, while most of the time is spent in a pharmacy where the student is in constant contact with the drugs which form the subject of study. In the other case the student devotes all his time to a study and examination of drugs with which he had no previous acquaintance, and he is ignorant of the other thousand and one items of information which two years of service in a pharmacy would have given him. Of what special importance is it which of these methods gives more valuable information, when neither of them can be truly said to afford all that useful and practical knowledge

which the druggist always needs? The student of pharmacy must have time in which to acquire knowledge not to be obtained while in a pharmacy. It is impossible for him to spend the entire day behind the counter and then in one or two hours in the evening get any complete and accurate instruction. He must also have time for recreation and enjoyment, or else he can not make full use of the instruction offered him.

LICENSES IN WASHINGTON STATE.

In the State of Washington graduates of the department of pharmacy of the University of Washington are allowed to register as assistant druggists without examination. After two years' experience in a drug store, either before or after graduation, they can be registered in full as qualified pharmacists without examination.

EFFECT OF LEGISLATION IN MINNESOTA.

When the law regulating the practice of pharmacy in Minnesota was passed in 1885 there were 1,046 persons enrolled on the list of pharmacists, and of this number only 38 were graduates of any college of pharmacy. There was not a college of pharmacy in the State, and all young men who wished to take a systematic course of instruction in pharmacy had to go to some other State. This is not necessary at the present time. The board of examiners has examined 1,676 persons, of whom 622 were licensed as pharmacists and 225 as assistant pharmacists. It is estimated that fully one-half of the names now on the register have passed examinations, thus showing their competency as pharmacists. That the pharmaceutical board is active in the enforcement of the law may be known from the fact that 55 cases of violation of the law have been prosecuted, and in 43 cases the offenders were fined from \$50 to \$100 and costs.

THEOLOGICAL SEMINARIES.

The Protestant theological schools of Germany bear an intimate relationship to the State—in fact, almost the same relationship that exists between the State and the agricultural or educational department. The theological professors in the universities, from which come the ministerial candidates, are entirely independent of the churches. They are both chosen and maintained by the State, in some instances in direct opposition to the expressed wishes of the churches. Although the church may consider one of the professors a heretic, yet he continues to be an instructor of her theological students.

Three of the theological students at the General Theological Seminary of Newark, N. J., in 1894, came direct from Germany, and the directors in their annual report mention as possibly one of the important functions of the seminary in the future that it may send back as ministers to the fatherland godly young men trained under pious influences by professors chosen for their religious and spiritual as well as intellectual qualifications. They speak of the pious men of Germany as saying, "Unconverted professors in our universities are training unconverted students for our German pulpits."

In America we are so accustomed to entire separation of church and state that we naturally reject the plan in vogue in Germany, perhaps without considering whether in some cases the churches of this country do not sustain almost similar relations to the seminaries from which come their ministerial supply. A theological seminary is established by one of the denominations of this country, a board of trustees is selected in order that property may be purchased and held by a body legally recognized; in other words, to act as agents for the denomination. Without the support and utmost confidence of that denomination their positions would be as insignificant as the trusteeship of any rural school.

So long as the institution is without endowment funds and must depend for continued existence upon the direct contributions of the members of the denomination, it is clearly recognized by the trustees and others that the institution must enjoy the absolute confidence of the denomination, and upon the least intimation that the trustees were not receiving such indorsement their resignations would be tendered at once.

But in the course of time, from contributions often involving much self-denial and from legacies bestowed by members who possessed wealth and who were anxious that the doctrines in which they believed should be maintained, the seminary accumulates funds amounting to perhaps more than a million dollars, and grounds and buildings of nearly equal value. With such an aggregation of funds and estates, the trustees, who once would have withered before even the frown of the church from which they acquired importance and power, begin to assert their independence and set up as instructors of ministerial students men pronounced heretics by the church, and then defiantly ask, What are you going to do about it? And what can be done about it? It avails nothing to say that the church expected better things

of those in whom she placed implicit confidence. She has bestowed an inheritance during life upon her chosen heirs, and they have repaid her with base ingratitude.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES ON THEOLOGICAL SCHOOLS.

San Francisco Theological Seminary, California.—This institution is not located, as one would infer from the title, at San Francisco, but near one of the suburban towns, San Rafael, about 16 miles from San Francisco, and regarded by many as one of the most beautiful places in the world. The grounds of the seminary comprise about 14 acres on the north side of San Francisco Bay, the generous gift of Mr. A. W. Foster. The seminary is under the care of the Synod of the Pacific, subject to the act of the general assembly of 1870 relating to theological seminaries.

Montgomery Hall, the residence of the students, is a three-story building arranged to accommodate 50 students, giving each student a separate room fully furnished and with a fireplace or grate.

Scott Library is a large, well-arranged, circular building, 50 feet in internal diameter and 44 feet in height. The library contains over 18,000 volumes.

Montgomery Memorial Hall honors the name of the donor of \$50,000 to be used for building and maintaining a chapel on the seminary grounds. This building will be entirely of stone, and circular in form.

McCormick Theological Seminary.—The seminary buildings are (1) Ewing Hall, erected in 1863, containing thirty-five rooms for students and a reading room; (2) the chapel, erected in 1875, containing chapel and two lecture rooms; (3) McCormick Hall, erected in 1884, containing seventy suites of rooms for students, the office, and the parlor; (4) Fowler Hall, erected in 1887, containing sixty-five suites of rooms for students and two lecture rooms; (5) five houses for professors. The student has no expense for furniture or linen, as every room is furnished with elegance and comfort, so that the candidates for the ministry may be trained amid surroundings appropriate to cultured living.

A new and entirely adequate library building, Virginia Hall, has been erected at an expense of \$80,000, the gift of Mrs. Nettie F. McCormick and Mr. Cyrus H. McCormick. The reading room, with its spacious walls and comfortable appointments, is a favorite rallying place for the students and the professors. The library at present contains 18,000 volumes.

The buildings above described, including professors' houses, cost about \$400,000, of which more than three-fourths was contributed by the late C. H. McCormick and his heirs. It should be noted in this connection that Mr. McCormick also contributed \$30,000 to Union Theological Seminary, Virginia, for the endowment of a professorship.

Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Ill.—This is one of the oldest and best endowed seminaries of the Methodist Episcopal Church. It has an annual income of about \$30,000 from its resources. Evanston is the great Methodist literary center of the Northwest.

The seminary shares in the advantages of the new and splendid Orrington Hunt Library building, so named in honor of the munificent donor of \$50,000.

Dauville Theological Seminary, Kentucky.—This institution has taken on new vigor. A new and commodious brick building has been erected and completed, Breckinridge Hall. It is 161 feet long, and contains excellent accommodations for 42 students, two recitation rooms, lecture hall, and library.

Bangor Theological Seminary, Maine.—This institution was chartered in 1814 by the State of Massachusetts, as Maine formed a part of that State at that time. In 1820 the Province of Maine was separated from Massachusetts and became an independent State. It was larger than all the rest of New England, and contained a population of 300,000 souls. It was in order to supply this widely scattered population with ministers that Bangor Seminary was opened. "The relations between the seminary and the Maine churches have always been most intimate. To the great majority of them it has furnished ministers, and to-day more than half of the pastors of the Congregational churches in the State are graduates of the seminary, while many from the other denominations also have studied there." "During the nearly eighty years of its existence this seminary has sent out more than 700 graduates, and has educated for one or more years without graduation 200 more."

The alumni of the seminary have raised an endowment of \$10,000 for the Bond lectureship, named from Rev. Elias Bond, D. D., of the Hawaiian Islands, who gave the larger part of the fund.

Cobb Divinity School, Lewiston, Me.—Founded September 1, 1840, it was the first established by the Free Baptist denomination. In 1888 it first took its present name, in recognition of the liberal contributions to its funds by Hon. J. L. H. Cobb, a resident of Lewiston.

Roger Williams Hall, now in process of erection, the gift of Deacon L. W. Anthony, of Providence, R. I., will enable the institution for the first time to occupy a building

of its own, distinctly for its own purposes. It is a three-story brick building, with basement and attic.

St. Mary's Seminary, Baltimore, Md.—This is the oldest Catholic seminary in the United States, established in 1791, and was only preceded by one seminary of any denomination, the Dutch Reformed, at New Brunswick, N. J., in 1785. It was founded by members of the Society of St. Sulpice, who upon the outbreak of the French Revolution "thought it advisable to provide for its safety by founding a community of Sulpicians in the United States." The four priests selected for this mission sailed from St. Malo in the month of March and reached Baltimore July 10, 1791. They bought a house then known as The One-Mile Tavern, and the spot is still occupied by their successors, now in the center of the city. The scholastic year 1894-95 was marked by the largest concourse of students ever in attendance, and fully justified the enlargement and improvement of the buildings which had just been completed.

Princeton Theological Seminary, New Jersey.—Although one may be well acquainted with the importance and greatness of Princeton Seminary, an institution which, with Princeton University, has made famous the rural village between New York and Philadelphia, and which for more than three-quarters of a century has been sending out many of the best ministerial scholars in the land, yet when he takes up the catalogue of 1894-95 and examines carefully its pages, where he finds nothing but names of trustees, faculty, and students, plates of buildings, courses of study, and brief notices of library, dormitories, and fellowships, he is surprised that such a wonderful institution has not attracted more of his attention.

Here are 263 students, gathered literally from the four corners of the earth. Not only do they come from Canada, Holland, Scotland, and Ireland (15 from the latter), but from Turkey, Persia, Japan, India, and Australia. In the United States we find them from 28 States, from Maine to California, and from Wisconsin and North Dakota to Alabama and Mississippi. Seventy-three universities and colleges are represented by the students, all of whom except 18 had received collegiate instruction. The graduates of Davidson and Erskine College in North and South Carolina meet for the first time their brothers in black from Biddle University on the floors of Princeton. No climate, race, or condition of men will be able to keep out the elevating and educating influence of Princeton's graduates.

The sons of the original abolitionists of New England hold friendly companionship with those who treasure the memory of Dixie heroes, while the sons of the forty-niners of California, appreciating rightly the actuating principles of either side, look on in admiration and hope as the words recur—

Breathes there the man, with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land?

On the first page of the catalogue is the plate of Alexander Hall, long known as the Old Seminary, the first building erected by Presbyterians in the United States for seminary purposes. Its primeval simplicity was accompanied by solid worth, and it serves to-day as useful a purpose as Hodge Hall, a magnificent four-story structure built by money bequeathed by Mrs. Mary Stuart, widow of Robert L. Stuart, of New York. On another page is Brown Hall, the dormitory of single rooms, another four-story building, from Mrs. Isabella Brown, of Baltimore. In case of severe illness of any student, the Isabella McCosh Infirmary is ready to receive him.

On another page is shown the library building, erected by the late James Lenox, of New York, and now containing 56,000 bound volumes. There is also a fund of \$38,000, the income of which is to be used for the maintenance and increase of the library.

Notwithstanding the great usefulness of this large collection of theological literature and of the massive structures adjacent to it, what is of more value and what is more effective in securing attendance from so many quarters is the group of theological scholars that compose the faculty.

And for all these advantages the students pay neither tuition nor room rent. An endowment of over \$1,000,000 saves them from that.

General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church, New York.—Rev. Dr. W. E. Eigenbrodt, who for twenty-seven years was in active service in the seminary, died November 4, 1894. By his last will he bequeathed to the seminary property to the value of about \$200,000, in addition to his valuable library.

The seminary also received from the residuary estate of Mr. George A. Jarvis, of Brooklyn, \$43,492.73, the principal to be kept invested, and the interest only to be used for the benefit of the seminary.

From Trinity Church, New York, \$25,000 was received for another professor's house, to be erected on the grounds, and provision was also made by other friends of the seminary, whose names are unknown, for the erection of another professor's house.

Union Biblical Seminary, Dayton, Ohio.—This is the only seminary of the Church of the United Brethren in Christ. Founded in 1871, it completes its twenty-fifth

anniversary in October, 1896. The board of directors, at its regular session in May, 1895, unanimously resolved that the quarter centennial of the seminary be appropriately observed, and that an effort be made to raise, as a special quarter-centennial fund, \$60,000.

The seminary possesses a splendid brick building, with large, well-furnished rooms, heated by modern methods. The seminary first opened in October, 1871, with 11 students and 3 professors—Rev. Lewis Davis, D. D., Rev. George A. Funkhouser, and Rev. J. P. Landis. Since the opening 192 students have been graduated, and about an equal number have taken a partial course, and the assets of the institution have grown to \$150,000 above all liabilities. Among those who contributed liberally toward securing the firm establishment of the seminary, special mention should be made of Rev. John Kemp, Dayton, Ohio, who contributed \$10,000; Rev. H. W. and Louisa Cherry, Butler, Ind., \$8,800; Robert Smith, Polo, Ill., \$7,500; Miss Minerva Willey, Ross, Ohio, \$6,000; John and Lydia Runkle, Caroline Bever, James Hammond, and Mary A. Herr, each giving \$5,000.

The present chairman of the faculty, Rev. G. A. Funkhouser, D. D., was born at Mount Jackson, Va., June 7, 1841. He attended the schools of his neighborhood, and at the age of 18 entered Otterbein University, but in 1862 enlisted in the Union army, serving till the close of the war, when he again entered college and graduated in 1868. After a three-years course in Western Theological Seminary, Allegheny, Pa., he graduated from that institution in 1871, and the same year was elected professor in Union Biblical Seminary, where he still remains at its quarter centennial.

United Presbyterian Theological Seminary, Xenia, Ohio.—April 24, 1894, the centennial year of the seminary's existence was celebrated at Xenia with appropriate exercises. This institution, constituted by the consolidation of the Associate Reformed Seminary of the Northwest with the Associate Seminary of Xenia, disputes the claim of the Dutch Reformed Theological Seminary at New Brunswick, N. J., of being the oldest theological seminary in the United States. If it shall not be able to establish its right to the first centennial celebration it will at least prevent the statute of limitations from running against its claim. Each of these institutions for several years had only a peripatetic existence, with one professor and a few students, who followed wherever convenience called him; so the identity in either case must be traced with care. In 1794 Rev. John Anderson, D. D., was elected professor of theology by the Associate Synod, and a building was erected in Beaver County, Pa., and a library of 800 volumes collected. His instruction continued until 1819, when he resigned and Rev. John Banks was chosen professor, with headquarters at Philadelphia; but in 1821 Rev. James Ramsay, D. D., was chosen professor of the western seminary, which was moved to Canonsburg, Pa., and afterwards to Xenia, Ohio. In 1874 it was united with the Associate Reformed Seminary.

The institution is now firmly established, with 4 professors, about 30 students, over \$100,000 endowment, and a library of 5,000 volumes.

LAW SCHOOLS.

There are 72 schools of law in the United States, over half of them forming departments of universities. The number of law students attending them in 1894-95 was 8,950; the number of graduates was 2,717, or 30 per cent.

Although there are so many lawyers in the United States that their name is legion, yet more than one-third of the States and Territories have no law school at all. Some of these, too, are important States, and 4 of them are among the original 13. The 15 States with no law school are Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Delaware, Florida, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Nevada, Idaho, Utah, Wyoming, and Washington; the 3 Territories are Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. Yet students in these States need not go far to obtain instruction, for other States have an abundant supply of law schools. In the confines of the District of Columbia alone there are 4 schools; Illinois has 6, and although any one can practice law in Indiana, yet the young men so appreciate advantages of regular systematic instruction that it has 4 law schools. New York has 7, Ohio 5, and Tennessee 6.

While nearly all medical colleges have courses of at least three years, and many of four years, law schools still lag far behind. In 12 law schools it is possible to complete the whole course in one year. The other schools have courses of two years, except 11, which require three years.

Since the most ignorant can be admitted to the bar in some States, and few requirements are made in others, law schools are placed under the necessity not only of having short courses of study, but also of having low tuition fees. The cost of completing a course in law schools, as compared with medical, is quite noticeable, as is shown by taking departments in the same universities, cost of books, board, etc., not being included.

Cost of an education in law or medicine.

	Medicine.	Law.
University of California.....	\$450	\$30
University of Colorado.....	125	55
Yale University.....	420	315
Georgetown University.....	426	230
University of Georgia.....	335	75
Northwestern University.....	405	175
Tulane University.....	465	80
University of Maryland.....	365	134
Boston University.....	510	200
Harvard University.....	714	450
University of the City of New York.....	525	220
Columbia College.....	850	480
University of Oregon.....	295	130
University of Pennsylvania.....	612	455

An examination of the diagram showing number of law students during the five years 1890-91 to 1894-95 (see a preceding page) reveals a rapid increase in number of students in law schools, and this increase had been occurring still further back. Although the number of law students has certainly been increasing, there must be some additional explanation of such numbers as 5,258, 6,073, 6,968, 7,311, 8,950. The explanation most probable is that young men are discarding the old method of study in the office of an attorney. While theological students and students of medicine, dentistry, and pharmacy are taking courses of three or four years in regular professional schools, lawyers are still being made in as many months. Although a full preparation for the practice of law successfully will require as much time and effort as any other profession, and possibly more, fledgelings of a few months' study presume to undertake the most difficult cases, and their confiding clients must reap the consequences. Although many States require an examination of all candidates for admission to the bar, it is notorious that such examinations, as conducted, fail to accomplish the desired results. Full qualifications in the great majority of cases can only be reached certainly by regular and systematic training at a law school. It is true that many of the most successful members of the legal profession never entered a law school, but they succeeded in spite of difficulties. They had to encounter and overcome many obstacles. Some of them, too, had no opportunity to attend a law school. There were also many physicians of great reputation who never attended a medical college, and it was once contended that in a physician's office was the best place to become a physician, and a dentist's office to study dentistry. Bitter war was once made on theological seminaries as being entirely unnecessary, and in some denominations the opponents are not entirely silenced yet. But the conflict is no longer waged; the decision of the majority is recognized. In regard to the study of law, too, a decision has been reached by those who have had proper opportunities for considering the question intelligently that while good legal training can be obtained elsewhere than in law schools, and that while many have become eminent lawyers by private study, just as many of our most intelligent and wisest men have obtained their knowledge without collegiate training, yet as universities and colleges are the proper places for literary training, so law schools are the proper places for acquiring legal knowledge. Although many physicians acquired most of their skill in the practice of their profession, yet medical colleges are regarded as indispensable. While many evangelists have caused such awakenings in the masses as to astonish staid theologians, the seminaries of theology have continued their instruction as usual.

While Benjamin Franklin obtained such an education in his room at night, by a tallow candle, and in his printing office that he became both philosopher and statesman, he was unwilling for others to depend on such efforts, but labored constantly for the establishment and support of educational institutions, and the great University of Pennsylvania is to fulfill his ideas, from whose efforts it took its beginning.

While J. Marion Sims knew so little of medicine at the beginning of his professional career that he read up his cases from both beginning and end of the book, and finally became so discouraged that he threw his medical shingle into a well, a school of medicine in New York is left to honor his memory, as well as one of later date in St. Louis, Mo.

While the young surveyor on the banks of the Ohio grew up to a large extent in the frontiers, his discernment of the useful was such that he cherished a plan for a great national university.

Although such examples as the above, and others like them, are constantly cited as instances of how men can succeed without the advantages of collegiate training,

little is said about the opinions of such men as to the value of educational institutions. The most eminent lawyers of the American bar are the strongest advocates of full and thorough courses in law schools; nevertheless with strange inconsistency their examples are sometimes urged to show the uselessness of the schools they advocate.

Although the value of law-school training is forcing a recognition from many, sufficient progress has not yet been made to induce State legislatures to require a law-school course before admission to the bar. In the State of New York a near approach has been made to this requirement. Several States require medical practitioners to have diplomas from medical colleges, but they do not require diplomas from law students. One prominent cause of this heretofore has been the scarcity of law schools, some States having none at all. But there are few communities at the present time where law schools can not be reached as easily as medical schools. Moreover, if all law students were required to pursue a regular course in a law school, other schools would soon spring up wherever needed. It need not be expected that there will be much elevation of the standard of legal education until the legislatures shall have adopted more stringent regulations.

It is difficult for the laity to fully appreciate the need of an educated legal profession. As they are unable of themselves to detect the gravest mistakes in medical practice, just so in the courts they are not aware when the greatest ignorance of law is displayed. Here are some statements made at the meeting of the American Bar Association in 1894, and not a word of protest or doubt uttered by anyone present: "An inundation of incompetency, to use no harsher term, has in recent years deluged our profession and brought it as the appointed agency for the attainment of justice into common disrepute." There is at present a "deplorable state of legal attainment among the members of the bar in general." "Men with rights to maintain or with wrongs to redress hesitate and often refuse to submit to the uncertainties, the tedious delays, and the wasting expense inevitable in the ordinary court processes of the day." "And the worst feature of this condition of affairs is that this waning faith is justified by the facts." "Judged by the results of its service in actual litigation, the profession is to-day a monstrous charlatan." Another member said, in speaking of applicants for admission: "I have seen the most absolute ignorance displayed of the rules of orthography, and several men have been able to pass a good legal examination who yet were utterly unable to write a single sentence in good English." Another member said: "We are all united in the sentiment that there should be a higher degree of culture in the legal profession, but the reform must come from the lawyers themselves," because, as was suggested by Judge Dillon, the legislation of the country is largely done by lawyers. Complaint was made that the courses in law schools are too short to afford full legal training, but representatives of the law schools, while admitting this fact, stated that the fault lay not with them, but with the State legislatures which adopted no regulations requiring a full legal education for admission to the bar.

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS OF LAW SCHOOLS.

Of 60 catalogues of law schools examined, in 43 we find that there are practically no requirements for admission to the law classes. Any young man with an ordinary English education who has not the stamp of ignorance plainly visible upon his face, if he can comply with the required financial outlay, need feel no hesitancy in entering the law-school door. And indeed he does not; and this is so well known that some of the catalogues do not even mention the subject of admission requirements, but instead dilate upon the importance of receiving instruction in a law school rather than in an attorney's office, and in such a way that it is evident no applicant will be declined. In one catalogue it is stated that an examination will be required of all students who have not completed a course in a high school or grammar school, but "the object of this examination is merely to ascertain whether his previous training has developed in him sufficient practical ability to appreciate the doctrine of the law. It will therefore be of a general rather than a technical character. An acquaintance with English and American history is desirable, but is not required for admission." Of course, if no knowledge of American history is required, one need not worry about any other requirements.

Twelve other schools require an examination when the applicant expects to apply for a degree, but not otherwise. But even in the institutions which have some regulations for admission, the requirements are so lax that few applicants, if any, are kept out. Graduates from high schools are received without examination, and in those cases where an examination is required it is usually upon the branches of an ordinary English education. The University of Michigan requires some knowledge of Blackstone, and the New York law schools some Latin and geometry from candidates for degrees.

The Harvard law school is somewhat more restrictive. It requires an examination in Latin, French, and Blackstone's Commentaries. In Latin they must be able to translate without grammar or lexicon passages from Caesar's Gallic War and from Cicero, and in French they must translate ordinary passages without grammar or lexicon.

When a young man concludes to be a lawyer, he begins a clerkship in the office of some attorney or enters upon the short course of study in some law school, after completing which he applies for admission to the bar. He is never troubled with doubts or fears as to whether he will be able to pass successfully the examination of the law school, or whether he will find any difficulty in gaining admission to the bar. And he does not conclude at once where he will locate for practice, whether in some Eastern city, or in one of the central States, whether in the South or in the West; for why should he be perturbed with reflections on this subject, which he can decide at leisure and just to suit himself, for he knows that the door of admission to the bar hangs wide open in almost every State.

As a result of such conditions hundreds of young men hang out their shingles as attorney and counselor at law when they ought to be driving carts or holding the plow. It is true they must wait many weeks before having much to do, and many of them drop out of the legal profession into other pursuits where muscle is needed as well as brain, and where they find a more appropriate sphere.

In Pennsylvania students who expect to apply for admission to practice in the county of Philadelphia must undergo an examination in the ordinary English studies.

It is useless, however, to complain of the admission requirements of law schools when the door of admission to the practice of law itself stands wide open. This is the root of the evil. While almost every State in the Union has a law governing the practice of medicine, and many of them very stringent laws which are stringently enforced, and while many States have laws governing the practice of dentistry and pharmacy, the profession of law can usually be entered by anyone with an ordinary English education after a few months' study. It is a learned profession which requires little learning.

As a result of this lack of instruction in the legal profession, Mr. Frank C. Smith stated at the meeting of the American Bar Association, in 1894, that the courts are clogged with cases of no legal merit, or which are delayed by contention as to methods of procedure, the true merits of the controversy being made entirely subordinate.

The imperfections and shortcomings of law schools are probably recognized and appreciated by none so fully as by law-school instructors themselves. They labor under the necessity of having to adapt their instruction to the capabilities of students who, in many instances, have not received that full and extensive equipment of knowledge and that culture which members of the legal profession constantly find so helpful. They fully recognize the inconsistency of students undertaking studies in law, which should really represent post-graduate work, while they are yet incapable of meeting the requirements for even beginning a collegiate course. They know, also, the utter impossibility of students acquiring anything like full preparation in law in the short time usually claimed for law courses, and probably none are so anxious as they to remedy these evils. But they are also well aware how serious an undertaking it would be to set up barriers before the law school which it would require time and labor to overcome, and then to ask an extended course of three or four years for legal training at considerable expense when at one bound the student can pass over the law school directly into the legal profession, where at once he can begin to receive some reward, however meager, for his work. They know full well how difficult it is for human nature to turn from the reward in reach of the hand, with the hope that in future years they may gather in larger returns.

Medical schools until the last two or three years also labored under the same difficulties, and so far as entrance requirements are concerned little progress has yet been made. But they now have full time in which to impart medical knowledge. Courses of three years were at first adopted, but now four years are very generally required. American medical colleges formed an association to elevate the standard of medical education, and its efforts and aims were supported by the different State and national associations, and soon medical laws were enacted in different States which require attendance upon medical schools for a certain number of years and that an examination shall then be passed before a State medical board paid for their services, in order to see that the work of medical schools is well done. Study at home or in private offices is given but little consideration, although under some circumstances considerable medical knowledge can be thus obtained by students zealous in their work and determined to succeed. As a result, there is no longer occasion for short courses and superficial examinations in medical schools.

When State legislatures shall have been induced to enact laws requiring full preparation for admission to the bar, and especially when adequate measures shall have

been adopted to bring into full effect and operation the laws adopted (for several States have good laws on admission to the bar, but they are improperly or inefficiently executed), law schools will be able to adopt courses of three or four years, and to raise the requirements, both for entrance and graduation. If an association of American law schools were formed, its efforts conjoined with those of the section on legal education of the American Bar Association and of the State bar associations would doubtless secure the enactment of laws for higher legal education with all necessary provisions for their successful operation and enforcement. Nothing would then prevent law schools from adopting courses of three or four years, or from requiring stringent examinations for graduation. The great value of systematic instruction in a law school would then stand out in such bold relief that notwithstanding the adoption of rigid requirements the number of law students would suffer no loss.

REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO THE BAR.

It is true that quite a number of States have some law on the subject of admission to the bar, and 24 States even mention a period of time that applicants must have studied law before admission, but from various causes these regulations have practically no effect except in a few States. Ralph Stone, esq., says: "The favorite method of examining applicants is in open court by a temporary committee appointed by the court, or theoretically by the county or supreme judges themselves. Both of these methods, according to the testimony of the attorneys-general of the several States [Mr. Stone had written to all of them on the subject] are very unsatisfactory. They are the methods in vogue, however, astonishing as it may seem, in all but eight of the States."

The time of study spent in a lawyer's office can easily be made to cover a long period, especially if the attorney has an elastic conscience. To illustrate the ineffectiveness of such laws as compared with the requirement of a certain number of years in a law school, we need only refer to medical schools, which formerly demanded one year of study under a preceptor and two or three years at a medical school. The latter was easily enforced because definite and distinct, but the requirement of a year under a preceptor was a dead letter.

A requirement for admission to the bar, common to perhaps all the States, is that the applicant be of good moral character, and certainly this is a very wise provision, and one which should be adhered to without exception, for great responsibilities and important trusts constantly rest in the hands of lawyers, and there should be some safeguard for the proper execution of these trusts. But a lawyer, writing in a recent periodical, says what is needed is that the States devise some means to maintain the good moral character which all the young lawyers seem to possess when admitted to the bar.

Ralph Stone, in the *Michigan Law Journal*, February, 1895, gives the number of years of law study required in the several States with such a provision as follows: North Carolina, one year; Washington, eighteen months; Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Nebraska, North Dakota, Wisconsin, Wyoming, two years; Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Minnesota, New Hampshire, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Vermont, three years; New Jersey, three years if the applicant possesses an A. B. or B. S. degree, and four years if he does not; New York and Oregon, two years if a college graduate, three years if not; Rhode Island, two years if the applicant possesses a classical education, and three years if he does not.

According to the above statement Pennsylvania requires three years of study and an examination before admission to the bar, which would seem sufficient to insure well-trained applicants. The law student can give the required notice when beginning the study of law without stating whether he is devoting his whole time to law or two hours each week. After the required three years he presents himself for examination, not in Philadelphia or Pittsburg, but in one of the rural counties. Let us see what he will encounter, according to Prof. George Wharton Pepper, of the law school of the University of Pennsylvania: "Admission to the bar is usually gained throughout the Commonwealth upon passing an examination before the board of examiners, selected by the judge or judges of the local courts from among the members of the bar. The standard of attainment required of the student differs in the different counties of the State, probably the most searching examination being that required for admission to the Pittsburg bar. In some counties the examination is scarcely more than a formality."

A professor of law in one of the Eastern States says the only requirement for admission to the bar in many of the Western States is "the possession of a good moral character and an unlimited amount of assurance." The Western lawyer would doubtless reply that the requirements in the East are the same, and the character not closely examined.

Diplomas from State law schools admit without examination in 13 States: Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

In 8 States, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, and New York, there are boards of examiners who insist upon a higher standard than is demanded in other States.

A standard of general education is necessary in only 4 States: Delaware, Minnesota, New York, and Pennsylvania. In Delaware, Pennsylvania, and Vermont the student must register before beginning the study of law.

As was stated above, the attorneys-general of the different States concur entirely in the statement that the examinations for admission to the bar, as at present conducted in the great majority of States, afford very inadequate tests of the applicants' knowledge of law. The examinations are sometimes conducted in open court, possibly toward the close of term, when there is little time for anything but urgent business, and perhaps each applicant is asked not more than half a dozen questions in law. Or if the examinations are conducted in private by a committee of lawyers, they are perhaps personal friends of the applicants, whose good will they desire to retain, and they have no methodic system of examination and attach little importance to it, for the result of one examination with two or three applicants would have little effect on the general standing of the profession, but if all the applicants for admission in the State were required to appear at some city in the State at one of two examinations in a year, and to undergo a full and searching written examination lasting two or three days before a State board of law examiners appointed for a term of years and given full compensation for their time and labor, the results of the examinations would be very important and would soon have a well recognized effect in elevating the standard of legal education. By the formation of an association of boards of law examiners of the different States, a uniform standard of requirements and methods might be adopted in a number of States as is being done at present by the State boards of medical examiners.

Although the young graduate in law can locate in almost any State of his choice, and find no difficulty in admission to the bar, there is one State where he may be interrogated more closely than he expected, and where not every ignoramus can assume the title of lawyer. It is eminently proper that the State of New York should lead in the reform of legal education, for its courts have sufficient legitimate work to do, without being burdened with controversies of no legal merit, and which intelligent lawyers would never institute. Other States are also sure to see the propriety of such regulations in order to shield themselves from the incompetency thrust upon them.

In New York every applicant for admission to the bar must undergo an examination before the State board of law examiners, and he is not allowed to take this examination at all until he has completed the required preliminary course of study, and he can not enter upon this preliminary course until he shall have satisfied the regents that he is qualified to begin the study of law.

Any one who has practiced law for three years in the highest court of law in another State or country may in the discretion of the supreme court, and under certain conditions, be admitted and licensed without an examination. Before an applicant is entitled to a law examination, he must furnish evidence to the board of law examiners that he is a person of good moral character, that he is 21 years of age and a resident of the State, that he has studied law according to the prescribed conditions for three years, or if a graduate of a college or university, that he has studied law for two years. Any one who has been admitted as an attorney in the highest court of original jurisdiction of another State or country, and has remained therein as a practicing attorney for at least one year, may be admitted to the law examination after one year of study of law. Before entering upon a law clerkship or attendance at a law school, an applicant must pass an examination, conducted under the authority and in accordance with the ordinances and rules of the University of the State of New York, in English composition, advanced English, first-year Latin, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, United States and English history, civics and economics, or in their substantial equivalents as defined by the rules of the university, but the regents may accept as the equivalent of the examination, first, a certificate of having successfully completed a full year's course of study in any college or university; second, a certificate of having satisfactorily completed a three years' course of study in any institution registered by the regents as maintaining a satisfactory academic standard; or, third, a regents' diploma.

In brief, it is required in New York that the applicant shall present evidence, first, that he has sufficient preliminary education to enter successfully upon the study of law; second, that he has studied law three years, or, if a graduate of a college or university, two years; and he must lastly stand an examination in law before a State board of law examiners.

INSTITUTIONS REPRESENTED AT HARVARD LAW SCHOOL.

In 1894-95 there were 404 students in attendance at the Harvard law school, and of these 305 were college graduates. Excepting one or two theological seminaries,

it is doubtful if at any other institution in the United States can be found college graduates from so many different universities and colleges, distributed over so wide a territory. No one institution has a specially predominant number, if we omit Harvard University itself, which might be presumed more ascendant than to furnish only 140 out of 404 students. The other institutions almost invariably furnish only 1, 2, or 3 students, the exceptions being Yale, which furnishes 19, Amherst 16, and Brown University 11.

Institutions in every section of the country are represented, and several in other countries. The University of California, which is about as distant as the national domain will admit of, sends 7 of its graduates; the University of Oregon has 1 for the northwest corner, and Texas University 1 for the southwestern, while Oberlin College from near the center of population of the United States is also represented. Including the representatives from Cambridge University, England, and Trinity College, England, and those from the universities in the provinces of Canada, there are in all 70 universities and colleges represented, and every section of the Union.

LAW IN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.

There can be no question as to the importance of a citizen having at least general information as to the principles of law, for in all business transactions some knowledge of law will be needed. It may not be necessary to understand legal forms and methods of procedure, but even here full knowledge in some one line may be valuable by rendering easier the acquisition of legal knowledge in other cases. Whether one be a farmer, mechanic, builder, or merchant there will be many occasions when legal knowledge will be needed. He should not have to depend, when avoidable, upon the honesty and character of men to be saved from financial loss. Upright dealing is best promoted by its being known that unfairness will be detected and intelligently resisted.

Moreover, few studies are better suited than law to develop mental acumen, to accustom to close distinctions in interpretation of words, and in reaching logical conclusions. The methods of reasoning in trained and untrained minds are so different that men of equal natural endowments arrive at entirely diverse opinions.

Notwithstanding the importance of general legal knowledge, universities and colleges include very little law in their courses of study. Constitutional and international law, it is true, receive attention in many colleges, but of the 430 universities and colleges in the United States in 1890-91 only 102 gave instruction in commercial law. It was very noticeable, too, that the large majority of those teaching commercial law were situated in the Central States—the great Mississippi Valley and adjacent States. Commercial law was not taught in a single institution of the New England States; in only 13 institutions of the great manufacturing and commercial States, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey; in only 9 in the South Atlantic States, and in 7 institutions of the Pacific States. Columbia College, New York, marks quite an exception by offering instruction in contracts, elements of jurisprudence, real estate, torts, criminal law and procedure, domestic relations, common law pleading and procedure.

The committee on legal education of the American Bar Association state that "Blackstone's Commentaries contain the lectures which their distinguished author read before the undergraduates at Oxford, and that Kent's Commentaries contain the lectures which the distinguished chancellor delivered before the undergraduates of Columbia College in the early part of the present century. The introduction of technical law subjects into the academic curriculum would not, therefore, be contrary to all academic precedents. * * *

"The introduction of law studies into the academic curriculum is to be strongly commended in the interest of those who have no intention of ever practicing law, but who may well know something of the elements of the law as a suitable part of a liberal education. In that admirable lecture with which Mr. Justice Blackstone began his instruction at Oxford he declared that he thought 'it an undeniable position that a competent knowledge of the laws of that society in which we live is the proper accomplishment of every gentleman and scholar; a highly useful, I had almost said essential part of liberal and polite education. And in this I am warranted by the example of ancient Rome, where, as Cicero informs us, the very boys were obliged to learn the twelve tables by heart as a *carmen necessarium* or indispensable lesson, to imprint on their tender minds an early knowledge of the laws and constitution of their country.'"

PRESIDENT JORDAN ON AMERICAN LAW SCHOOLS.

In the Forum of May, 1895, President David Starr Jordan contributes an article in which he says: "The various influences, German, English, and American, which are molding our higher education are joining together to produce the American university. And the American university, as Mr. James Bryce has clearly indicated,

is becoming an institution in every way worthy of our great Republic. Its swaddling clothes of English tradition are being cast aside, and it is growing to be American in the high sense of adjustment to the American people's needs. The academic work of the best American institutions is characterized by vigor and thoroughness, and in the free air that pervades them there is every promise for their future.

"In Europe professional training is in general the culmination of university education. It is not so in America. It is here rather a 'practical short cut' by which uneducated or ineducable men are helped to the rewards of knowledge and skill with the least possible loss of time. In most of our States provision is made for a system of public education, beginning with the common schools and culminating in the university. The law schools, however, in the different States form no part of this system. They are rarely ever in real alliance with it. Their place is with the 'Independent Normal' and the 'School of Oratory.' Instead of a requirement of general intelligence and a special knowledge of economics, history, literature, and language as a preparation for the study of law our schools have been eager to admit any one who could pay the required fees and perchance read the English language.

"It is thus true, as President Eliot has said, that into an American law school any man 'can walk from the street.' But in most of the States he can do better or worse than this. From the streets he can walk directly into the profession of law, disregarding even the formule of matriculation or graduation. Even the existence of the law school is a concession to educational tradition. It is possible with us to enter any one of the 'learned professions' with no learning whatsoever.¹ In fact, in many of our States it requires no more preparation to be admitted to the bar than to be admitted to the sawbuck. Fortunately admission to either on these terms carries with it no prestige or social elevation whatever. But the danger in the one case is greater than in the other. The inefficient lawyer may work the ruin of interests intrusted to him. The ignorant physician is more dangerous than the plague. The incompetent wood sawyer harms only the woodpile. A large part of our criminal records is devoted to legal and medical malpractice. In other words, our bulk of crime is swollen by robbery and murder committed under the guise of professional assistance. When the professions cease to be open wide to adventurers and thieves, they will rise to something of their traditional dignity. It has been said that the only 'learned profession' in America at present is that of the engineer. Men can not trifle with the forces of nature."

"Our people have always been willing to tax themselves to furnish a general education for their children. The common-school idea from the very first has included a liberal education. But in most of the States the people have at one time or another definitely refused to devote public funds to the making of lawyers and doctors. They would not, at their expense, help men into professions they believed to be overpaid as well as overcrowded. This policy has been a most short-sighted one. It has been responsible for the existence in every part of our country of hordes of pettifoggers and quacks, who rob the people instead of serving them. Incompetent professional service is always robbery. The professions are overcrowded simply because they have ceased to be professions. The remedy for incompetence is found in insisting on competence. This can be done by furnishing means by which competence can be made possible.

"Moreover, the politicians of each country are, for the most part, its lawyers. Our lawyers are our rulers. We can never hope to see our States well governed till its lawyers are well trained. There can be no political conscience except as an outcome of political knowledge. Right acting can come only as a result of right thinking. The men who think right will in the long run act in accord with their knowledge. Those who have known that there is a science of human institutions can never wholly forget that fact. There can be no right thinking in matters of public administration without a knowledge of the laws of growth of human institutions. Only in accordance with these laws is good government possible. Of these fundamental laws of being the statutes of man must be an expression. Where they are not so the people have sooner or later a fearful score to pay. The Fates charge compound interest on every human blunder, and they have their own way at the last."

INCOMPETENCY OF LAWYERS.

[Frank C. Smith, of New York, at the Bar Association in Detroit.]

The profession of the law is organized for a mission, and that mission is to aid in the administration of justice. Our patents of nobility are the commissions given us by the State to serve in this capacity, and we are proven either worthy or unworthy of the trust reposed in us according to the measure of fitness, mental and moral, and

¹ Formerly true in medicine, but now medical schools require three and four years of study.—A. E. M.

the former no less than the latter. And right here it is well to remember that law, and that includes justice, is effective and potent only as it is applied to the affairs of men; and that, as stated, our profession, is justly judged not by its accumulated knowledge of legal principles but by the result of its practical applications of those principles in the course of its appointed service. Every true lawyer is, therefore, interested in the record which his profession is making as the minister of justice, and anxious that only those who are fully equipped to properly serve in this ministry shall be given its high responsibilities.

The functions of the bar are no less important than those of the bench. It is the practitioner who conceives and advises litigation. It is he who gives it shape, who determines its character, who controls its issues, who conducts it through the courts and makes up the precise question which the bench is ultimately to decide. Upon him rests the duty of preparing the pleadings, of conducting the examination of witnesses, of supervising the making up of the record, of perfecting the appeal and securing a just hearing and determination of the issues by the court of final resort. If the practitioner fails in his judgment as to the proper action to be taken in any stage of the proceedings, the course of litigation is thereby embarrassed and complicated, the rights of parties are jeopardized, and often actually impaired and lost. The courts are thereby mistrusted, and the profession derided as incompetent to do the service which it claims as its especial prerogative. In other words, it is the practitioner and not the judge who is most largely responsible for the actual results of litigation. If men fail to secure their rights through an appeal to the courts it is principally because the lawyers who are intrusted with the conduct of the litigation fail to present properly these rights to the judicial tribunals, and this failure arises from the lack of a proper understanding of the rules of legal procedure.

It is a deplorable fact, of too general cognizance to require more than a statement thereof in this presence, that year by year the failure of remedial justice to meet the needs of the people becomes more and more conspicuous and disheartening. We know that to a very considerable extent the causes of this failure lie in the imperfect methods of legal procedure prescribed by the legislatures; but I repeat with emphasis born of convincing results of an investigation into the forensic practice of our profession which went deeper than that which it was my privilege to report to you last year, that, as compared with the incompetency of the profession as a whole, upon matters of legal procedure and practice, the just objections to the systems themselves are of minor influence.

It will be recalled that an examination of all the cases reported for the year covered by the General Digest of 1894 resulted in ascertaining that over 48 per cent of the points which were therein submitted to, and determined by, the courts of appellate jurisdiction in this country were upon questions of pleading and practice, in no sense involving the actual merits of the controversies. And it was strongly urged that this great proportion of such questions was monstrously disproportionate to the true province of legal procedure, and was a reproach to our profession, through whose ignorance or indolence, it was insisted, this fact was made possible.

I was desirous of learning how far questions of legal procedure were actually determinative of litigations, deeming that such information would enable us to form an accurate judgment as to the real quality of the work of the bar in the trial of causes. For this purpose I have examined the cases reported for the year June 1, 1894, to May 31, 1895, with the following results: Total number of cases examined, 16,416. Of these, 1,052 were originally begun in the courts reported, leaving 15,364 which were heard on error or appeal. Of these 15,364 cases submitted to the appellate jurisdiction of these courts, 9,523 were affirmed and 5,841, or a little over 38 per cent, were reversed. Of these reversed cases 2,302, or almost 38 per cent, were reversed upon questions of procedure. In other words, of the reversed cases 38 out of every 100 so resulted because of the incapacity of the attorney in charge to properly present the merits of his cause for judicial determination. In 38 out of every 100 such instances, then, justice was either denied the litigant or to gain his rights he had to submit to the anxiety, delay, and expense inevitable in a new trial or in instituting a new action. And this because the certified member of the bar to whom he intrusted his cause did not know how to practice law.

Is it any wonder that men will hesitate and even refuse to submit their differences and their property interests to the precarious care of the average practitioner of the day when the records of our highest courts show that in 38 out of every 100 instances of reversal the cause is absolutely shipwrecked because of the mismanagement or stupidity of the licensed pilot? Men know these facts, if not these figures; and it is because the experience of the people for the last twenty or thirty years has proven to them the degeneracy of the bar, as the efficient servant of justice, that the masses so often regard a surrender of their rights as preferable to an attempt to secure their enforcement by a recourse to litigation.

A BETTER EDUCATION THE GREAT NEED OF THE PROFESSION.¹

[By Justice David J. Brewer, of the United States Supreme Court.]

The lawyer is evermore the leader in society; and by society I do not mean that little coterie which lives simply to dine and wine, but that larger association of all individuals whose mingled labors have achieved the present and will work out the future of human life and destiny. In society, in this better sense of the term, the lawyer is the leader.

Temporarily, it is true, he may be displaced by the soldier. In the abnormal and chaotic movements which accompany revolution and war the lawyer is ignored. *Inter arma leges silent.* The man on horseback becomes the leader, and around his life there is a pyrotechnic splendor which has lifted him into undue prominence, and made him too frequently the central figure in written history. But his leadership is always temporary, and conditioned upon some disarrangement of the normal condition of human society. When life is moving on in peaceful and regular lines the soldier drops to his appropriate place, as simply the representative of force—the one ready to help the lawyer as the true leader in all efforts which make for the bettering of human life and the coming in of a higher civilization.

So, in the early days of New England, the minister, for a while, superseded him. Legislation denounced him, and society under its theocratic leadership endeavored to forbid his presence and exclude him from recognition. Washburn, in his *Judicial History of Massachusetts*, says:

“It was many years after the settlement of the colony before anything like a distinct class of attorneys at law was known. And it is doubtful if there were any regularly educated attorneys who practiced in the courts of the colony during its existence. Lechford, it is true, was here for a few years, but he was soon silenced, and left the country. Several of the magistrates had also been educated as lawyers at home, among whom were Winthrop, Bellingham, Humfrey, and probably Pelham and Bradstreet. But these were almost constantly in the magistracy, nor do we hear of them ever being engaged in the management of causes. If they made use of their legal acquirements it was in aid of the great object which they had so much at heart—the establishment of a religious commonwealth, in which the laws of Moses were much more regarded as precedents than the decisions of Westminster Hall, or the pages of the few elementary writers upon the common law which were then cited in the English courts.”

It is curious to note some of the legislation aimed to dispossess the lawyer from his rightful position, and exclude him from even existence in society. In 1656 the following statute was enacted in that colony:

“This court, taking into consideration the great charge resting upon the colony, by reason of the many and tedious discourses and pleadings in the courts, both of plaintiff and defendant, as also the readiness of many to prosecute suits in law for small matters, it is therefore ordered by this court and the authority thereof that when any plaintiff or defendant shall plead by himself or his attorney for a longer time than *one hour*, the party that is sentenced or condemned shall pay twenty shillings for every hour so pleading more than the common fees appointed by the court for the entrance of actions, to be added to the execution for the use of the country.”

There was a crafty wisdom in this statute which commends itself to anyone of much experience on the bench, and I venture to suggest that a similar act would to-day be sustained by every court. By an act passed in 1663 “usual and common attorneys” were excluded from seats in the general court, as the Massachusetts legislature was called. But notwithstanding these efforts, it soon developed that the needs of society were stronger than the wishes of the theologic advisers, and little by little the lawyer was lifted in even that theocratic society into his proper and accustomed place, and there, as elsewhere in the land, became the recognized leader.

To-day wealth is striving to dispossess him from his position of leadership, and money is used to secure position and control, but with the ordinary result that place and power acquired alone by such means simply expose the possessor to ridicule and scorn. It takes something more than a \$200 silk nightshirt to make a man a leader in social forces, and whatever of prominence and notoriety money may purchase, it never purchases the power to change the currents of life.

¹ Address delivered at the meeting of the American Bar Association at Detroit, Mich., August, 1895. From *Proceedings of the American Bar Association*, 1895.

This leadership of the lawyer is not accidental nor enforced, but natural, and resulting from his relations to society. That which binds society together and makes possible its successes and its blessings, is the mystic force which we call "law." It is that which transforms humanity from a mere aggregation of individuals, each by his own strong arm asserting his rights, into an organized society, the rights of whose individual members, as against one another, are enforced by the united strength of all, and in whose consequent freedom of personal action has been wrought out all the achievements of the past and rest all the possibilities of the future. He, therefore, who voices the law, who is its interpreter, must inevitably stand in the front as the leader in the social organization, the one to direct the movement of all its uplifting forces. Sneer at it as anyone may, complain of it as anyone will, no one can look at American society as it is to-day, and has been during the century of national existence, without perceiving that the recognized, persistent, and universal leader in social and political affairs has been the gentleman of the green bag. A distinguished member of our profession said to me the other day in Nashville: "It is a curious fact that though there is no express authority therefor in any constitution or statute in the land, the lawyers have always been the rulers of this nation." We speak of our Constitution as the wise organic instrument under whose provisions the nation has moved on to strength and glory, but that Constitution was the handiwork of lawyers. They framed it, and they have interpreted it. Think how we should have drifted and what a helpless mass of people we should have been without its grants, limitations, and distributions of power. And, in a general way, the same may be said of every State constitution and of every statute. It is the brain of the lawyer which fashions them, and his brain that applies and makes them useful. As a general rule, made more conspicuous even by the few brilliant exceptions, the lawyer has been the legislator, the judge, and the executive.

The power which alone permanently controls and lifts upward is brain power, and brain power applied in such a way and to such forces as regulate life in its daily action. Leadership, however, does not attend on the mere name of lawyer. It will continue in him and become more or less potent as his capacity therefor improves or wanes, according to his increasing or lessening fitness for interpreting the rules of human conduct and directing the movements of society. There is no physical force to compel his supremacy. He has no inherited right, and he must always stand intellectually in front if he would lead. Civilization lifts all men up. The school-room places each man on a higher level than his father occupied. Knowledge is not only more wisely distributed, but also moving on a higher plane. And the lawyer of the future, to continue the leader must be a wiser man than the lawyer of the past or present.

The thought of some is to dispossess the lawyer by giving to each man a knowledge of the rules of law, and you will find on many bookshelves such volumes as these: *Every Man His Own Lawyer*, *The Business Man's Guide*—books aimed to place before all men the common rules for interpreting and controlling business transactions. Some fancy that with this diffusion of knowledge the need for the lawyer will cease. They who indulge in such fancy forget the fact that the many never keep pace with the few, that social and business relations become more complicated as civilization advances, and that with the complexity of those relations comes a multiplicity of rules and laws beyond the reach of the ordinary education of the many. There is as much difference between the few primitive rules that controlled society in its early stages of development and those which are now required for the management of its great and interlaced interests, as there is between the hatchet, the saw, and other ordinary tools of the carpenter, and the marvelous and intricate machinery of our great manufacturing establishments. It may require but little time and effort to learn how to use a plane or a handsaw, but to construct and keep in motion and order all the involved machinery of a great manufacturing establishment requires years of patient study and careful attention. So it may be that a little knowledge will enable one to go into a primitive society and advise as to the rules of law controlling its few transactions, but he who would stand in one of our great commercial cities as a power and a leader, advising and directing all its multi-form affairs, must be a man of superior knowledge and large wisdom.

We hear many suggestions to-day as to the means necessary to make the law keep pace with the needs of advancing society. Law reform is a great cry. Simplicity in mode of procedure is thought by some to be the one thing needful. Far be it from me to belittle this demand. I do not wonder that the lawyer fell into disrepute when the highest effort seemed to be put forth in solving mere questions of pleading and practice, when the pride of the lawyer was in tripping his adversary through a mere technicality, and when the outcome of too many a lawsuit was not the determination of the relative rights of the litigants, but simply how nearly the pleadings on the one side or the other conformed to a technical and arbitrary system. Chief Justice Taney, writing of his professional experience, says: "In that day strict and nice technical pleading was the pride of the bar, and I might also say of the court.

And every disputed suit was a trial of skill in pleading between counsel, and a victory achieved in that mode was much more valued than one obtained on the merits of the case." I am glad that law reformers have swung ponderous blows against the common-law system of pleading and practice, and are striving to give the utmost simplicity to modes of procedure. Once in a while we see one of those technical devotees of ancient ways, whose delight is simply in the maneuvers of the court room. I remember one, who, employed to defend a chancery suit, wearied the court by the multitude of his dilatory, evasive, and technical pleas and motions. Finally, the judge, in his impatience, said to him, "Why do you take up my time with these frivolous and technical matters; why do you not come to the merits of the case at once?" And his reply, which illustrates so well the spirit of the old practitioners, was, "The moment I get to the merits of the case I lose all interest in it." No thoughtful man can doubt that simplicity in modes of procedure is of the utmost importance. The mere tools of the profession should be easily handled. Writing a pleading, or any other document, in a dead language is not the best evidence of the highest practical learning, or the greatest capacity. And it is to the credit of our profession that its members are rapidly coming to appreciate this truth; to realize that mere form is of trifling moment, and that substance of right and justice is the one thing to be striven for. God speed the day when a victory won by a trick shall ruin the lawyer who wins it.

Again, another demand is for more speed in the dispatch of litigation. A slow procedure, with free right of appeal from court to court and abundant license of indirect collateral attack, was barely tolerable when life itself moved slowly, when business transactions were few, when travel was by canal boat or stage coach, when the mail was weekly or at best triweekly, and when leisure was abundant. The pure gold of truth and justice was finally separated, it is said, after being sifted through many judicial sieves. "*Jarndyce v. Jarndyce*" expressed even then the contempt of thoughtful minds. The law's delay became proverbial. Now, when travel is by steam, and correspondence by electricity, when business transactions challenge the seconds in their flight, when men grow rich or poor in a fortnight, and all life moves in the hot haste of a Kansas cyclone, something must be done to bring the movements of the courts into harmony with the speed of other things. It is not strange that business men are compelling the members of their various commercial bodies to settle their controversies through committees rather than by lawsuits. Lawyers are proverbially conservative, and they do not change their habits or notions as easily or as quickly as some might wish. Precedent is an awful tyrant in our profession. What has been is to many the sacred law of what must be, and an iconoclast on the bench is a sacrilegious judicial monster. Even that tribunal of the nine black gowns glories in the past, and follows in its traditions, and the agonizing cry of the despondent dissenter, even in the income-tax case, is that *stare decisis* is being stabbed in the house of its friends. Et tu, Brute! When the court had little to do, the justices were wont to spend the morning hours of each Monday in reading at length what they had written during the prior weeks. What has been must be, and so, although the great stress of accumulating business demands every hour, the customs of the past still largely control. Someone has denounced in language too strong for me to quote the waste of time in reading to an audience of 100 or so that which is the interpretation of the law for 70,000,000 of people, who learn what has been decided not from the lips of the justices but from the pages of the press. And, I may add, the acoustic properties of the court room are so imperfect, and the voices of the justices generally so low, that scarcely half the scanty audience hear what is said. And when one speaks so that all in the room do chance to hear, the press dispatches announce to the world that the audible justice has made a stump speech from the bench. But "great is Diana of the Ephesians," and so for "about the space of two hours" every Monday morning the reading must go on.

Yet speed of itself may be more of a vice than a virtue. Important questions are not rightly decided unless fully considered, and the administration of justice would soon be pronounced a mockery if first impressions controlled every case. But greater expedition can be obtained without detracting from fullest examination and consideration. Shorten the time of process. Curtail the right of continuance. When once a case has been commenced deny to every other court the right to interfere, or take jurisdiction of any matter that can be brought by either party into the pending litigation. Limit the right of review. Terminate all review in one appellate court. Reverse the rule of decision in appellate courts, and instead of assuming that injury was done if error is shown, require the party complaining of a judgment or decree to show affirmatively not merely that some error was committed in the trial court, but also that if that error had not been committed the result must necessarily have been different. It may be said that this would make reversals difficult to obtain. They should be difficult. The end of litigation should be almost always in the trial court. Business men understand that it is best that the decisions of their committees of arbitration should be final and without any review; while some of our

profession seem to think that justice is more likely to be secured if by repeated reviews in successive courts, even to the highest in the nation, the fees of counsel can be made to equal if not exceed the amount in controversy between the clients. In criminal cases there should be no appeal. I say it with reluctance, but the truth is that you may trust a jury to do justice to the accused with more safety than you can an appellate court to secure protection to the public by the speedy punishment of a criminal. To guard against any possible wrong to an accused, a board of review and pardons might be created with power to set aside a conviction or reduce the punishment, if on the full record it appears not that a technical error has been committed, but that the defendant is not guilty, or has been excessively punished.

The truth of it is, brethren, in our desire to perfect a system of administration, one which shall finally extract from confused masses of facts and fictions the absolute and ultimate verities, we forget that tardy justice is often gross injustice. We are putting too heavy burdens on our clients, as well as exhausting the patience of the public. Better an occasional blunder on the part of a jury or a justice of the peace, than the habit of protracted litigation.

The idea of home rule and local self-government is growing in favor. Thoughtful men more and more see that the wise thing is to cast upon each community full responsibility for the management of its local affairs, and that the great danger to free government is in the centralization of power. Is it not in line with this thought that as far as possible the final settlement of all controversies which are in themselves local shall be by the immediate friends and neighbors of the litigants? Was not that the underlying thought of the jury as first established? And while we boast that the jury system is the great bulwark of our liberties, are we not in danger of undermining its strength and impairing its influence by the freedom of appeals? Is not the implication therein that the jury and the trial judge can not be trusted, and is not the sense of responsibility taken away from both when they understand that no matter what they may decide some superior and supposedly wiser tribunal is going to review all their decisions and correct whatever of mistake they may make?

We boast of the educating influence of the ballot box, and say that only as each citizen realizes that the responsibilities of government rest upon him is possible the development of a perfect system of popular government. Is it not also true that the jury room has its educating influence, and that we ought so to adjust our system of jurisprudence that each juror shall come to feel that the responsibility for the administration of justice rests largely upon him?

But whatever of help may be in these suggested reforms, they are impotent of themselves to create the leader. They are simply a matter of machinery. The power must be in the man. The lawyer must be fitted to lead. For that a thorough education is necessary. And so I come to the thought which I wish to impress upon you; and that is, if our profession is to maintain its prominence, if it is going to continue the great profession, that which leads and directs the movements of society, a longer course of preparatory study must be required. A better education is the great need and the most important reform. The door of admission to the bar must swing on reluctant hinges, and only he be permitted to pass through who has by continued and patient study fitted himself for the work of a safe counselor and the place of a leader.

I do not propose to discuss the different methods of legal education, or compare the law school with the office, the case with the text-book. These are questions which others can and doubtless will discuss with far more ability and with the benefit of a larger experience. That which I wish alone to emphasize is the need of securing in some way to everyone admitted to practice the benefit of a preparation therefor far surpassing that which most young lawyers now enjoy. I speak with the utmost freedom, for I did that which I now condemn. I hastened through my legal studies and was by the diploma of a law school and a certificate from a court declared fit to advise as to all rights and liabilities, and to carry on any litigation before I was old enough to be intrusted with the right to vote. I appreciated the mistake when I attempted to practice, and I fear some of my clients became equally aware of the fact.

But why is a higher education to-day the special need of the profession? Because, first, the law is a more intricate and difficult science than heretofore. The very complexities of our civilization and the multiform directions of human enterprise have not only increased the number, but have also given greater variety to the rules controlling business transactions. He who would become qualified to counsel and guide must therefore have a larger legal lore, and that is only obtained by a more extended study and training. While it is true that the practice of the law is becoming divided into specialties, and we have the insurance lawyer, the railroad lawyer, etc., yet no man can become a successful specialist without a general knowledge of the rules obtaining in other departments than his own.

Because, second, to preserve the confidence of the community in the profession, each member must be qualified for the higher demands now made upon it. When society perceives that the great number are but slightly educated, how soon will the lawyer fall into disrepute. He will be only the object of the sneer of the cynic and the laugh of the wit. He will be thrown from his position of leader, and no longer sought after, respected, or followed.

Because, third, his mistakes are freighted with greater possibilities of injury. When business transactions are nothing more than an occasional barter of a chattel, or a simple contract for labor, a mistake works but little injury, and only to a few. But when they involve the great railroad and commercial dealings, so common to-day, a mistake may be fruitful of large and widespread ruin. So the responsibilities which rest upon us are greater than ever before, and we must rise to the level of those responsibilities, or both we and the society we attempt to lead will suffer.

Because, fourth, society each day of its advancing civilization needs and demands a wiser leadership. The welfare of humanity rests not on what has been accomplished, but on the steps forward which it takes. If those steps are wisely advised and prudently taken, then we may confidently look for the coming in of the day of which poets have sung, and which prophets have foretold, when peace and righteousness shall fill the earth. While, on the other hand, if illy advised and rashly taken, progress ceases and society resolves itself again into the anarchy and chaos from which it has so slowly arisen. It has often been said that a community is no better than its leaders, and while there may be temporary exceptions, that is certainly the general rule. So if we would have a steady advance in social order we must have an equally constant advance in the character and accomplishments of the lawyers, its leaders.

I know that mere education is not all-sufficient. There must be a man to be educated. It is an old saying that you can not make a silk purse out of the caudal appendage of the female swine. No more will any amount of study and training pour legal lore into some craniums or give that rare and blessed gift, common sense. Still that does not prove that there is no need of education. Henry Ward Beecher once said that dress does not make the man, but when the man is made he looks a great deal better dressed up. So while mere study will not supply the lack of legal capacity, given one capable of becoming a lawyer, and a thorough education will place him in the front.

The strength of an army is not in its numbers, but in its discipline and training. Cortez, with a handful, rode through thousands of opposing Mexicans and entered the capital city in triumph. Japan's disciplined troops saw scarcely anything else than the backs of the fleeing Chinese, and the most numerous people on the face of the earth were conquered within a few weeks. So it is with our profession. Its power lies not in the mere number of its members, but in their learning and capacity. A single true and noble lawyer is strength and glory, while a thousand pettifoggers are weakness and shame. In our late war, with its millions of volunteer soldiers, who became the victorious leaders? The trained students of military science. Their education had fitted them to lead. The great movements of civilized society upward are struggles, though not wars. Who can lead in those movements? Mainly the trained lawyers, they whose long study of human rights and obligations enables them to place before each individual the limits of action, and to guide into paths of life and conduct, which are ways of pleasantness and paths of peace, and so the paths through which civilization moves on and up.

It may be objected that if the course of study is extended and the conditions of admission to the bar increased a great many will be deterred from entering the profession. A perfect answer is that a great many ought to be deterred. A growing multitude is crowding in who are not fit to be lawyers, who disgrace the profession after they are in it, who in a scramble after a livelihood are debasing the noblest of professions into the meanest of avocations, who instead of being leaders and looked up to for advice and guidance, are despised as the hangers-on of police courts and the nibblers after crumbs which a dog ought to be ashamed to touch. Even of those who would love to keep up the dignity of the profession many find no adequate compensation from the practice, and so mingle with it dealing in insurance, real estate, and kindred matters, to eke out the living the law does not furnish. It would be a blessing to the profession, and to the community as well, if some Noachian deluge would engulf half of those who have a license to practice. Webster's reply to the question whether the profession was not crowded was that the first story was full, but that there was plenty of room in the second. We should see to it that there be no first story, and that only second-story lawyers be found on our rolls.

It is said that some of the noblest of our members would be shut out from the law and turned into other pursuits. If a four-years' course of study had been required would Abraham Lincoln have become a lawyer? My reply is two-fold. First, seldom would any one capable of becoming a hero of the bar be turned away. Obstacles only stimulate the efforts of such men. They work their way up in spite of all

difficulties. They glory in their ability to overcome all opposition. Secondly, if perchance someone worthy of a place on our rolls should be kept away there will be plenty left. The general level of professional standing should not be lowered for fear some single chieftain is never found.

Finally, it is objected that the high standard should not be insisted upon, because in our hamlets and smaller villages there is room for very ordinary lawyers. This is a mistake. There is no place anywhere on the face of the earth for a cheap lawyer. It is true that in a village there may be but little business, true that many transactions are of such a simple character that a limited knowledge of the law will guide one safely through them; but it is also true that the relations between the villages and the great business cities are becoming more and more intimate, and are such that often the highest legal lore is required to properly advise the dwellers in the former as to their rights, duties, and liabilities, and so the lawyer in the village must be qualified to meet the lawyer in the city on equal terms. Further, he will represent the village in the legislature, and he should be able to make that village a power in the legislation of the State. There should be a general lifting up of the profession, so that all its members everywhere be recognized as leaders.

The final peace of the world will be wrought out through our profession. I know the poet sings of the day

When the war drum throbs no longer and the battle flags are furled
In the parliament of man, the federation of the world.

But the poet is mistaken. The legislator will not bring the day of universal peace. There will never be one great parliament, one federal republic embracing all races and ruling the world. The law of race individuality, with its consequent differences and antagonisms, can not be overcome. Gaul and Teuton, Slav and Saxon will never become one people. Blood is thicker than water. Because individuals of these varied races come to this new land of ours, and dwelling as neighbors are slowly moving toward one homogeneous people, it does not follow that the law of race will ever be forgotten or ignored in the native land. The vision of one great nation with a single parliament is only a poet's dream. But the lawyer will work out the final peace and bring in the glad day when the spear shall be turned into a plowshare and the sword into a pruning hook, and nations shall learn war no more. In each separate nation as it advances in civilization more and more are differences settled and rights adjusted by the lawyer and the judge, rather than by the pistol and bowie knife; so, as the world advances in civilization, will differences between nations be in like manner settled. Arbitrations are growing in favor, and international courts will soon be a part of the common life of the world. I know the time may seem far distant when any such court shall come into existence. It will be witness to a great advance in civilization, and yet within the last fortnight I have seen it stated in the papers that the French Assembly has unanimously passed a resolution looking to the establishment of some tribunal of arbitration to settle all differences that may in the future arise between that nation and this country. The world is becoming familiar with international arbitrations and the settlement of disputes thereby; and every successful arbitration is but a harbinger of the day when all disputes between nations shall be settled in courts of peace and not by the roar of cannon and waste of blood.

When in youth I studied the structure of our Government, I looked with awe and reverence upon the Supreme Court of the United States, a tribunal taking no cognizance of the minor disputes between individuals within the several States, but sitting in judgment upon the weightier controversies between States and citizens thereof, and determining the rights and liabilities of States to each other and to citizens. I thought of the solemn sense of responsibility which must rest upon each justice thereof as he came to the decision of every case. The years have brought me to a place on that bench. With a profounder reverence and a personal sense of responsibility I now look upon that court and its work, and I would that every judgment it pronounces should be wrought out with such wisdom as through the long stretch of coming years to stand the supremest test.

Does it tell of the coming on of second childhood, or is it proof of a growing confidence in man and his capacity for self-control that I now look with the full assurance of faith to the dawning of a day when some great international court shall come into being, whose judgments, touching no questions between individuals, shall determine all controversies between nations, and by such determinations bid the world's farewell to the soldier? But by whom shall such a tribunal be established, and who is to sit therein and render the judgments which shall command such confidence and respect that willing obedience thereto be yielded by all? Out of the rich brain of our profession shall be wrought the form and structure of that court, its fashion and its glory, and the lawyers shall be the judges thereof.

So believing, let us all strive to lift the standard of professional character and acquirements so that no one shall ever think of challenging our place in the front.

CHAPTER XXIX.

MEDICAL SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.¹

The Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1892-93 (pp. 601-613) contains a summary of a report on medical education in the United States by Dr. Marcel Baudouin, delegate from the French Government to the Chicago Exposition and specially commissioned to study the system of medical instruction, conditions of professional life, etc., in our country. Dr. Baudouin visited the chief medical schools, hospitals, etc., of the country, and his report contains, in addition to the summary referred to, extended descriptions of individual institutions. To reproduce these in full would require more space than can be allowed for the subject, but it seems desirable to present at least extracts relating to typical schools and in a few instances even to give in full Dr. Baudouin's account of individual institutions.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

"Of this university for higher scientific education," says Dr. Baudouin, "it is necessary to give more than simple mention. Here, however, I can only describe its magnificent institute of physics, the largest in the United States, directed by Prof. Henry A. Rowland; its chemical laboratories, which Prof. Ira Remsen courteously showed me, and its geological collections (so important ordinarily in all the large American universities on account of the development given to studies relative to the mineral wealth of an almost virgin soil). Apparently the chief purpose of this university is the training of engineers (mining, mechanical, etc.), and specialists in chemistry, but it is also celebrated for the works of pure science which come from its laboratories. Here are to be found men of undoubted ability; here are illustrious mathematicians, savants of the highest order, whom rival universities seek as professors. This is, in fact, one of the principal centers of higher education in North America and would well repay close study. It differs essentially from our French faculties and also from the German universities.

"In 1889 the Medical Weekly stated that the medical department of Johns Hopkins University, announced prematurely, was not in actual operation, but I was informed that the medical faculty of the famous university of Baltimore would open its doors in October, 1893. This department will, without doubt, have the same importance as the other faculties of this institution, and has promise of a brilliant future. In the hospital I am about to describe this school will possess fine appointments, and since the cultivation of pure science is not neglected in this intellectual center it can not fail to draw the most distinguished professors to its circle. Those men who have already taken the course of study at the hospital and who will certainly form a part of the personnel of its future faculty are men well known in the intellectual world.

JOHNS HOPKINS HOSPITAL.

"This hospital is as well known in the medical as is the university of the same name in the scientific world, but, judging from its register, few Frenchmen have visited it. I know of only one hospital in Europe, the Urban Spital at Berlin, that can at all compare with this one founded by Johns Hopkins. Our French hospitals are built on a very different plan, which their antiquity readily explains. Those that have been recently constructed, whether at Paris or in the provinces, may be as good and as interesting as the two mentioned, but certainly they do not compare with them either in extent or in perfect hygienic resources, or in the perfect, harmonious arrangement of all the parts. One who has not seen these two hospitals (which, be it said, admit only 300 or 400 patients, while Tenon at Paris admits double

¹From report of Dr. Marcel Baudouin, delegate from the French Government to the Chicago Exposition.

that number) can not form an idea of the results which may be attained at this age of the world in the construction of a great hospital when the resources are unlimited.

"The Johns Hopkins Hospital, like the university, was built from funds left by Johns Hopkins, a merchant of Baltimore. Many plans for this institute were submitted to the executive committee, both by physicians and architects, but that accepted is due to Dr. John S. Billings, whose name I have already had occasion to mention. In order to perfect his designs Dr. Billings spent several years in Europe, and visited the principal hospitals of France and Germany. From these studies resulted plans so admirable that they were adopted without opposition. The immense buildings intended for those attacked by acute diseases are situated on a point of land elevated above the city. They comprise numerous separate pavilions divided into three grand sections—medicine, surgery, and gynecology. There is no section of accouchement. These departments are each under a physician in chief. The hospital is free to patients resident of Baltimore and its environs, and to those victims of accidents who are natives of Maryland. There are also separate pay wards for men and for women, and common wards where all patients may be admitted who are not able to pay the usual charges of \$5 a week.

"There are also laboratories of bacteriology and pathologic anatomy admirably equipped (pertaining to the school of medicine), an excellent dispensary, and a training school for nurses with a nurses' home.

"I do not intend to give here a full description of the Johns Hopkins Hospital, which was finished only in 1889, nor to enter into all the details of its work. Those who desire more particular technical information will read with greater profit the magnificent publication of Dr. Billings. I prefer to dwell only on such parts as I have seen myself, and of which my report will naturally be shorter and less minute.

"*The wards.*—My first visit was to the surgical department, which occupies a separate and finely appointed division. As I have said before, the wards are small and accommodate each only about a dozen beds. The largest ward is circular, or, rather, octagonal, a form which more than any other facilitates a constant watch on the patients.

"I noticed here portable screens of pine wood which are used to separate the beds of the patients during an operation or while a painful wound is dressed. Sometimes three of these screens are used, forming a sort of box, and thus much agony is kept from the sight of the patients. Some surgical operations which I witnessed interested me much, two in particular. A large aneurism of the aorta, and especially an operation at which, in the course of a hysterectomy, the ureter was cut, and at which Dr. Howard A. Kelly, professor of gynecology, successfully effected a suture of that conduit by means of a lateral anastomosis.

"Certain usages which I had never seen in Europe surprised me; for instance, the custom of taking the temperature in the mouth by means of a very convenient little thermometer. This instrument is placed in the buccal cavity, and the lips of the patient tightly closed for a few moments. In this way results are obtained comparable to those obtained by taking the temperature at the rectum and vagina. This method is a little less exact; as it is rapid it is employed in ordinary cases or where time presses. When the malady is serious recourse is had to the rectal temperature. Contagion is easily avoided by washing these little instruments in antiseptics. The wards for the sick deserve more than passing mention, but I can only touch upon their irreproachable cleanliness, upon the care with which all hygienic precautions are observed, upon the use of the telephone, the little libraries, the flowering plants, the aquariums, and the cages of birds. I must emphasize the importance and regularity of the services rendered by the American nurses who occupy the same position as the 'infirmières' and 'surveillants' of our own hospitals.

"*The nurses.*—There are 60 nurses at Johns Hopkins Hospital, whose shining white uniforms, delicate manners, good nature, respect for the sick, and professional knowledge aroused in me a most lively interest. If the reader will bear in mind that I am a member of the corps of instruction in a training school for nurses connected with a similar hospital in Paris he will easily comprehend how painful were the comparisons which were forced upon me.

"The comparison that I made between the uncertain remuneration of French lay nurses and the liberal salaries received by American nurses, especially those of Johns Hopkins Hospital, and also between the intellectual culture of the two, is not favorable to the French.

"The Nurses' Home of Johns Hopkins Hospital is superb, in reality a little hotel, almost a palace, whose soft carpets and white marble staircase are in strong contrast with the ragged straw matting and wooden ladders of the dormitories of the Pitié or of the Salpêtrière. This building is four stories high. The basement contains a dining room which will accommodate 40 persons, a pantry, four storerooms, a study hall, a lecture room, bathrooms, water-closets, and an elevator, besides a kitchen where the nurses have practical lessons in cookery.

"The first story opens from a large hall on a terraced walk. It contains a parlor

for the nurses, two rooms for the superintendent, a library, six rooms for the head nurses, two others for sick nurses, and water-closets and bathrooms. This story is reserved for the graduate nurses.

"The second and third stories are identical and have seventeen rooms heated by steam (a manner of heating very common in America), four rooms with fireplaces for sick nurses, a laundry, and bathrooms and water-closets. As a matter of simple information I believe it useful to describe the nurses' parlor, which is furnished with a view to comfort rather than luxury. This room is heated by hot water although one of its few luxuries is a fireplace, a rarity in modern American houses. The waxed floor is covered with soft rugs; easy wicker chairs, stuffed chairs, and the traditional rocking chair of America supply inviting seats. The clean white walls are bare of pictures and the windows are without curtains or draperies. I will add only one word more. We not only have nothing in France to be compared with institutions of this kind in the United States, but there is nothing in our country which can truly be called an autonomous and complete lay school for nurses. What has been done at Paris can not be compared with the institutions of this sort in the United States.

"The new hall for surgical operations is reserved for the practice of gynecology and surgery, and is profusely lighted by electricity.

"The surgical amphitheater, in the form of a half circle, is provided with rows of seats rising one above another. At the rear is the entrance for students. Not far from this room is a smaller room for operations on the wounded, or patients requiring antiseptics. This is lighted from the two sides, while the large hall receives its light from above.

"At the outer edge of the hall is an anesthetic room, which serves for both operating rooms, an arrangement somewhat objectionable. There is a dark room for ophthalmology, a room for the surgeon, a room for watchers, a room for those who have undergone an operation, and a small hall for the sick. Situated at the side of the office through which all the wounded must be brought who require immediate operation is a bathroom and a room for gynecological examinations. The wounded do not enter the operating room by the same passage as the hospital patients, and the students have still another entrance. I pass over the dispensary building (a description of which would greatly astonish French physicians), to say a word about the isolating ward. In the basement of this building are the usual arrangements for heating, and from the roof project the usual ventilating chimneys. So numerous are these that one could well describe the Johns Hopkins Hospital as the hospital of little chimneys and hot-water coils.

"Above the basement there is a single story a little more than 10 meters in height. It contains twenty alcoves which open on a central hall. A single bed is in each. In three of the alcoves the floor is perforated in order to insure perfect cleanliness and to admit extra heat from the coils immediately beneath. There are also two rooms for nurses, with two beds in each room, a laundry, a bathroom, and a special kitchen.

"*Heating and ventilation.*—I can not say enough in praise of the system of ventilation and heating which has been adopted by Dr. Billings. I should certainly fail in my duty if I did not make special mention of this feature, which distinguishes Johns Hopkins Hospital from all other American hospitals as well as from those of Europe.

"*Machinery.*—The basement of this establishment should also be seen in detail. Here is machinery unlike any to be seen in France and which can be equaled only in Berlin. Unfortunately it is impossible to describe it in a few lines. Therefore I shall only mention its principal points. Acoustic tubes are placed in all the halls and corridors and communicate with the different buildings. The separated buildings are connected by telephone with the office and through this with the city. Almost every room is supplied with an electric register of temperature.

"Altogether this hospital presents exquisite cleanliness and admirable organization and is constructed with that view to convenience that is met with only in a country where time is money and where in order to work well and profitably it is necessary to work quickly. It is a unique hospital which should be seen and studied."

WOMAN'S MEDICAL COLLEGE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

"As everyone knows, in America there are several colleges devoted exclusively to women. I have examined in all its details the most important of these, The Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania, situated in Philadelphia. It was organized in 1850, and is the oldest and most celebrated of the existing woman's colleges. The first college of this class, founded in Boston in 1848, is no longer in existence.

* * * * *

"The school of medicine is under the direction of a board composed of men and women (the latter six in number). The president is a woman (Mrs. Mary E. Munford), as is also the dean (Mrs. Clara Marshall). There are, besides, teachers,

demonstrators, assistants, and prosectors, many of whom are women. Like most of the American universities, it has a woman librarian.

"The examination for entrance into this college is not difficult. In order to show the plane upon which medical colleges stand I add that the applicants for admission are required to know a little orthography, arithmetic, physics, and Latin (the conjugation of the verbs is sufficient); nothing more is required. The professors, evidently, are content with very little. In the United States it is necessary not to be too severe if one intends to have pupils, a fortiori if they are women."

(Here follows a synopsis of the curriculum.)

"I went through the building, even to the roof, and found that, as in almost all American colleges, the dissecting room was in the top story. The room in this case is lighted by electricity, and each table is supplied with a small light that can be moved to accommodate the operator. I wondered at the location of the operating room, but it is probably so placed to prevent the odor from getting to all the rooms of the building and for freer admission of air into the room."

(Brief descriptions are also given of a few other rooms.)

THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

"In spite of the importance of Jefferson College, in spite of the relative *éclat*, at least, of the Woman's College, the place of honor among the medical schools of the metropolis of Pennsylvania must be accorded to the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania. It is situated some distance from the center of the city, on the left bank of the Schuylkill River, not far from the Drexel Institute. The campus of the university covers five squares, on which are located the immense buildings separated by grass plats. The first block inclosed by a railing is in the form of a trapezoid, on which stands the college hall of the university; that is to say, the offices of the directors and the halls of the faculty of philosophy, of the faculty of medicine, the laboratories for dental clinics, the library, the mechanical laboratories, and the machine shops. Behind these are the hospital of the university, the nurses' home, the maternity hospital, and the morgue, with a mortuary chapel. A little farther away in a triangular park are the veterinary hospital, the veterinary school, a hospital for dogs, and the school of biology (faculty of natural sciences). Finally, there is in course of construction an immense building, which will receive the name of the Wistar Institute of Anatomy and Biology.

"The school of medicine connected with this university is one of the oldest in the United States and one of the most important. Organized in 1765, it conferred its first diploma in 1768. Owing largely to the influence of Benjamin Franklin and William Smith, its early development was rapid. The course of study in this school is for three years only,¹ but most of its professors are men of great distinction, and some of them, as, for instance, J. W. White, L. A. Duhring, J. Ashhurst, J. S. Billings, and J. Marshall, have a European reputation. The corps of teachers comprises 22 professors, 4 assistant professors, 1 demonstrator, 7 teachers, and 20 prosectors and instructors in anatomy. The dean, Mr. Marshall, still quite a young man, is only an assistant professor. The total number of students for the present scholastic year (1892-93) is 847, of whom 1 is French, 1 African, 1 Haitian, 1 Japanese, 2 Germans, and 2 natives of the West Indies. It was with great interest that I went through the laboratories of this university, especially the two for chemistry, each of which accommodates more than 200 pupils. The dissecting room, like that at the Woman's College, is in the top story, and is lighted by electricity and supplied with lavatories. I saw also the old museum of anatomy, which contains one or two curious specimens, and the museum of geology.

"*School of dentistry.*—I was much struck by the location of this department. One room is in the lower story of the chemical laboratory, and is reserved for clinic exercises and for operations by the pupils. This immense hall contains a succession of dentists' chairs, in which, at the time of my visit, were seated a large number of patients, upon whom the students were operating. This department is, moreover, much appreciated. It has 8 professors, 3 assistant professors, 9 instructors, and 17 demonstrators. The course of study is for three years. In the years 1892 and 1893 there were 153 pupils, of whom 72 were in the first year, 60 in the second, 17 in the third, and 17 more taking special studies. Among them were 1 French and 2 German pupils.

"The operating room is one of the largest I visited in the United States. It measures 140 feet long by 40 feet wide. It is lighted from all sides by large bay windows. Before each of these windows, where the light is very strong, is placed a Morrison chair and all the instruments necessary in dentistry. The mechanical laboratory has been supplied with all the modern appliances and with electric lights. In 1891-92 8,536 persons were treated in the operating room. From this it will be seen that the patronage is large and the students active.

¹ Since this article was written this school and many others have adopted courses of four years.

"Among the diseases treated are recorded 143 cases of alveolar abscesses and 1,321 cases—an almost incredible number—of salivary calculi. If this is so, it is certainly a very characteristic pathologic fact, or else the American dentists have a special means of discovering these minute concretions. At the mechanical laboratory they made 794 artificial pieces (prothétiques) of various sorts during the year. At this school the study of dentistry costs from \$100 to \$120 a year, or about \$400 for the three-years course."

Roosevelt Hospital, New York.

Dr. Baudouin passes in rapid review the various medical institutions and hospitals of New York. Respecting the Roosevelt Hospital he says:

"Of all the medical institutions this is the one which a doctor ought to see on visiting America. It is a hospital comprising nearly 250 beds, not large but well arranged, although not at all according to the modern ideas for the construction of hospitals. The most interesting part to study is an annex which forms at this time certainly the most beautiful structure in the world intended for operations. I speak of the Syms Building, which was finished in 1892 and has not yet been described in Europe.

"Thanks to Dr. McBurney, the chief of service, I visited this famous operating room. It is, in fact, a marble palace erected in honor of aseptic surgery. The luxurious operating rooms of M. Poncet, in Lyons; of the Urban Spital, in Berlin; of Professor Kelly, of the Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, are nothing beside this veritable temple of shining white marble. It cost 1,750,000 francs (\$350,000), which was generously donated by Mr. W. J. Syms, on the express condition that it should be spent for the especial purpose of erecting a model establishment. The plans are worthy of the greatest praise, and the execution is equal to the majestic conception of the architect, Mr. W. Wheler Smith, and the consulting surgeon, Dr. Ch. McBurney.

"The Syms Building was opened November 5, 1892. Its principal entrance is on Fifty-first street, opposite the College of Physicians, and it communicates at the left by a special passage with Roosevelt Hospital. In the center is a vast amphitheater admirably arranged. It is lighted from the sides, and has a floor, doors, and walls of marble. (Marble has been used here not for luxury, but because it can be so easily kept clean.) The building is lighted by gas and electricity. Arranged around the amphitheater are little rooms where all necessary preparations are made for operating; also a large circular lobby from which open a dozen rooms whose enumeration sufficiently indicates their uses. These are a waiting room for the sick near the operating room for septic patients; an examination room for the sick; two rooms for etherization (anesthesia); a photograph room, with dark cabinet; a laboratory of histology; a room for bandages; a room for articles used in dressing wounds; a room for the sterilizing stoves (I counted six, very complete); a room supplied with two reservoirs for sterilized water, where the instruments are cleaned; another room fitted with glass cases for the surgical instruments; finally, a large toilet room for the assistants. At the side there is still another operating room for laparotomy, and the surgeon's room.

"We were particularly interested in an arrangement the advantages of which are at once apparent. I speak of a great inclined plane which takes the place of a staircase, or rather of an elevator, by which the patients are conveyed to the operating room in the second story, with the least possible jolting. On the floor of this incline are projections, which make the descent of the litters and slides on which are placed the couches of the patients, slow and easy. I repeat, with pleasure, that I was amazed, not only at the luxurious appointments, but above all at the services rendered in this magnificent institution of surgery, which from all points of view must be regarded as a model."

At Bellevue Hospital Dr. Baudouin noted particularly the morgue, the tents in the open court for typhus cases, the old war ship at the quay fitted up as an isolating ward and more especially, as he says, "a large building reserved for inebriates, who multiply alarmingly in New York, and who are generally of Irish origin. A visit to the rooms where delirium tremens and pneumonia with pulmonary oedema are common is very interesting."

The author devotes several pages to the hygienic aspects of New York City, noting in particular the abundant provisions for securing heat, light, and ventilation in private houses and in the principal hotels. He closes this chapter in these words: "Three things are greatly appreciated in the United States, first, the dollar, then equality, and finally, material comfort. If comfort comes last, it is nevertheless an adored idol."

From New York Dr. Baudouin continued his journey eastward, stopping first at Yale and then at Clark University. After a brief account of Yale he adds: "I would like to describe in detail the organization of the American university, taking

Yale, one of the most celebrated, as a type, and also to show how and why in America they unite under the name of university what is called a high school or a college and the various faculties. This organization is extremely curious and deserves the attention of those who are occupied with questions of education, but it would lead me too far astray from the medical schools, which is my legitimate subject."

SCHOOL OF MEDICINE OF YALE UNIVERSITY.

Of this school our author says: "It dates from 1810, at least it was authorized at that time, but was not organized until 1813, and the first instructors were chosen by the professors of Yale from the members of the Connecticut Medical School. In 1879 an examination for admission was required of applicants, and at least a three years' course of study was demanded, together with practical work in the laboratories. * * * In 1884 the school passed entirely from the control of the Medical Society of Connecticut, under the authority of Yale College. It was then organized like one of our best full-course schools (*écoles de plein exercice*), and bears comparison with several of our provincial faculties.

(Here follows a brief outline of the course of study.)

Dispensary and hospital.—"One word on the hospital of New Haven and the dispensary annexed to the university where the students take their course in clinics. The dispensary occupies one of the buildings which form a part of the school of medicine. It has recently been enlarged and the old buildings have been remodeled. In spite of this it is not very important and furnishes only restricted means of study to the students.

The New Haven Hospital.—"This hospital is more worthy of interest on account of the numerous accidents which necessarily occur in an industrial city of nearly 100,000 inhabitants. Operations are frequently performed in the hospital, and the new amphitheater which is annexed to the surgical division is equipped after the most approved models. There are three resident physicians.

"Medical instruction at Yale approaches ours as far as regards practical work and clinic exercises, but the same can not be said with respect to its theoretic course; which system is the best remains to be decided (a difficult question to solve, since the duration of studies in the United States of America is notoriously too short). It is absolutely impossible to make a real doctor in three years—I do not say a learned physician. This is beginning to be recognized everywhere, since even in this country, where (as one said to me) 'everything goes by steam,' they realize that it is necessary to demand at least four years' study."

[As stated before, nearly all American medical colleges have now a four years' course, adopted since the above was written.—Ed.]

"The gymnasium of Yale University, the plans of which were seen by M. Perre de Coubertin during his visit in the United States, is magnificent. It is now almost finished and a few words will characterize it better than a long description. It is a palace of white marble erected for hygienic and physical exercises. The old gymnasium being totally out of keeping with the splendid edifices of the university and insufficient for the needs of the constantly increasing number of students, the alumni gave \$200,000 for the construction of this temple of hygiene which was intrusted to the architect, Mr. Gaugolpho.

"I went over the monumental staircase, the reception room, the hall of trophies, the swimming pools, and the immense hall at the top of the building which M. Perre de Coubertin saw only in drawings. I visited the toilet room, the water-closets, the baths in the basement. I saw the gymnastic apparatus and the students practicing and spectators watching their work. I saw all this, and my eyes, dazzled at the sight, shed tears of regret at the remembrance of what we had in France to compare with the American gymnasium! In proportion as I admired the beautiful and luxurious appointments and arrangements, just so much was I pained to see the abuse of sports, artificial and useless, such as rowing indoors and riding wooden horses, etc. I repeat what many have said—they will abandon this system which consists in transforming the colleges into places of sport. There must be a limit to everything, even to physical exercise. Please Heaven, may I never hear from a French woman, since I value highly the universities of past times, the remark made by a young American woman, daughter of an old governor of one of the Middle States: 'It is so interesting and beautiful to see our brothers and our friends contesting in public the palm of baseball on the athletic field of the university, that I would willingly sacrifice a night at the opera at Paris to be present at a performance of this kind.' That day Paris and France will exist no more! Physical exercise in the open air without rule or torture as much as you wish; but these rowing regattas on wooden streams, these trials of strength or races on the velocipede—to what good? Everyone knows the races have not benefited the horse and I do not believe they are any more efficacious for man."

SHEFFIELD SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

"This institution is in reality designed to train men engaged in mechanical pursuits. It resembles a little our *École Centrale*, since biologists, chemists, mechanical and mining engineers, and agriculturists are graduated from its halls. There are also students who are occupied in high scientific researches as at Clark University. Altogether we have nothing in France absolutely analogous to this institution. The great American universities, such as Yale, are unique; this bringing together under one roof and classifying students of such diverse courses has truly a stamp of originality and grandeur.

CLARK UNIVERSITY.

"What a contrast with Yale! Clark has as yet only a few professors and few pupils. But let Yale take care; Clark will become great, provided the donations continue to flow to its treasury, and its future professors possess the qualities and courage of the president, Mr. G. Stanley Hall. Although Clark University has existed only a few years it is in a flourishing condition. In America universities are born and grow like cities. For instance, four of these universities, and four very important ones, have been founded within five years; Clark at Worcester, Stanford, the Catholic University at Washington, and that of Chicago, in course of construction.

"Clark University is an establishment which in its tendencies fairly represents a university as we comprehend it in France, but where we have only two faculties, that of science and that of literature, Clark in reality has five departments, as they say in America; mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, and psychology. It has no faculty of theology, nor of law, nor of medicine, nor of pharmacy; but I ought to add that they expect to organize these several branches of education as soon as possible.

"The campus of the university is about a mile and a half from the center of the city, north of Main street. Two large buildings are completed, the most recent of which is reserved for chemistry; the other contains the offices and Prof. G. Stanley Hall's magnificent laboratory of physiological psychology. I visited this department with lively interest, as well as the laboratories of physics and biology, which are of less importance. I repeat, it is absolutely necessary when on a scientific mission to the United States to devote one day to the department of chemistry and experimental psychology of this university.

"*Laboratory of experimental psychology.*—The physician will be especially struck with the lavish appointments of Dr. Hall's laboratory, with the nature of the original work which is done there, and with the ideas which prevail. It is certainly a model of its kind, and it is to be desired that one laboratory of physiological psychology at the Sorbonne, which serves the '*École pratique des hautes études*,' be as well equipped, and that the means of study be as perfect. My attention was specially directed to the specimens that were used in a delicate study in histology, i. e., the sudden transformation of the cells of the nerve centers from various causes. I could not help admiring the patience and technical skill of the young assistants who successfully conducted very complicated work. Dr. Hall has a high conception of the rôle of a professor of psychology. He is not content with teaching his pupils merely the anatomy and physiology of the nervous system; he takes them on Sundays to the insane asylums of the city, shows them the patients, and gives them living examples of the different affections of the will, the memory, etc. It is evident that the school of M. Ribot of the '*Revue Philosophique*' is not the only one in which the sick are made the subjects of psychological observations."

Here follows an outline of the course in psychology, to which the writer adds: "It is evident that here we have a true institute of psychology worthy to be compared with the Paris School of Anthropology."

"Clark University publishes a review more important than the *Revue de l'école d'Anthropologie*, the *American Journal of Psychology*, much appreciated by competent judges, and of which Dr. Hall is the founder and editor in chief.

"In 1892 there were only 18 students following the course of higher studies at Clark University. Ultimately they become professors of specialties, and are much sought after by other colleges.

"I am convinced that these few remarks on Clark University, on the course of study, and the laboratories of psychology will suffice to show what impulse a professor of talent is able to give to an institution; what results a man of great energy may accomplish when supported by generous donors, if he is simply guided in his enterprise by the love of science and his own original ideas. Is it not to be regretted that in our country such men are never able to give proof of their moral vigor and their power as organizers? But what system is without faults? We must acknowledge that the American system is far from perfect."

From Worcester Dr. Baudouin proceeded to Boston. Of this city he says: "It would be supposed that at Boston, the Athens, or, better, the Edinburgh of the United States, the most cultivated city beyond the seas, the schools of medicine would be superior to those of the rival cities of New York and Philadelphia. It is not so, except, perhaps, the Harvard Medical School. But this school, which ranks first in Massachusetts, and which is situated in Boston, while the other buildings of the University are at Cambridge, a suburb of Boston, is hardly larger or more celebrated than those of the University of Pennsylvania or of Columbia College."

Dr. Baudouin's notes on Harvard University as a whole are exceedingly meager. Of the medical school he says: "This chief medical school of Boston, although a part of Harvard University, is situated in the city. The buildings occupy an entire block on Boylston street, not far from the Boston Athletic Club, one of the famous clubs of Boston, the great public library, and the Public Gardens, where the statue of carved bronze in honor of the discoverer of anæsthesia by ether is erected. The massive structure of red bricks presents an imposing but severe appearance.

"The course of study at this school has within a few years been changed from three to four years, and is extremely rigid. The course also has been recently extended; anatomy, physiology, embryology, bacteriology, and hygiene, concurrently with general and medical chemistry, form the subjects of the first year. Unfortunately the entrance examination is not very severe, not at all comparable to our baccalaureate's.¹ It is the same everywhere; the students of the learned professions in America are not, as with us, taken from the cultivated classes; and the doctors commence their special studies very poorly equipped in point of general instruction.

"The school is equipped with laboratories for bacteriology and special rooms for experimental work in histology, physiology, chemistry, etc.

"I noticed at Harvard University, as elsewhere, that medical physics is not well developed, at least not in comparison with chemistry. The courses in natural history also are very limited. They give much less time to zoology and botany than we do. Perhaps this is due to the fact that the students are supposed to be sufficiently advanced in these studies when they enter the medical school. Clinical studies are pursued in the several hospitals of the city, which afford great facilities for this work. A sort of post-graduate course has been instituted in connection with the regular school, analogous to those in New York. It comprises a very important personnel, whose members lecture in the various city hospitals to doctors wishing to perfect themselves in one or the other branches of the healing art."

M. Baudouin describes at length the Harvard school of dentistry and speaks of its wide reputation. He devotes nearly a page to the veterinary school, and in closing says: "The instruction here is very complete. Ophthalmology is taught in a special manner, and of course there are chairs of anatomy, botany, of chemistry, general and medical, of pathological anatomy, etc. The course of study is for three years and is based upon the usual curriculum of the medical schools of the country. The practical work is organized with care. The Massachusetts State board of cattle commissioners and the board of health of Boston have some official connection with the school, which is also of practical advantage to the pupils. The veterinary hospital, founded in 1883, affords the pupils opportunity for clinic exercises."

INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.

"It would be unpardonable," says our author, "if in my enumeration of the scientific institutes of Boston I should forget its famous school of technology, well known to the pupils of our schools of arts and technical professions. It has a special section of biology for sanitary engineers. This magnificent establishment which represents exactly our *École Centrale*, has superb laboratories of chemistry, physics, etc. I only regret that I can not describe them here."

HOSPITALS.

The numerous hospitals of Boston are enumerated in the report, and a few described in detail. Of the Massachusetts General Hospital Dr. Baudouin says: "It is old, but has yet a certain interest on account of its dimensions, and the new buildings which are contemplated. An operating room is to be added, which will be in conformity with the most modern ideas.

"The Boston City Hospital, of more recent date, does honor to the city which has founded it. I must mention particularly its tent service, that deserves detailed description; its capacity—it is one of the largest, after Bellevue Hospital, in the United States; and the nurse training school which is attached to it.

"Before leaving Boston one should visit the McLean Hospital, an annex of the Massachusetts Hospital. It is a vast hospital asylum of recent construction, built at Waverley, a few miles northwest of Boston, not far from Watertown and Waltham.

¹ The regulations recently adopted will require a literary degree for entrance.

It is composed of a number of buildings erected in a beautiful park in the midst of a grove of old oaks. There are six buildings reserved for the sick. In the center of this group is the administration building, which contains the offices, the library, the telephone, a dispensary, etc., in the first story, while the second and third are occupied by the personnel of the hospital. At a certain distance are found other constructions remarkable for their arrangement: Upham Memorial Building, for men; Appleton Building, for women; Belknap House, containing numerous rooms well arranged, with refectories, halls, etc. Each of these buildings is independent of the others, and all are heated by steam. A training school for nurses has been annexed to the McLean Hospital since 1882. I will here say a few words concerning it, for I have had scarcely an occasion to speak in detail of these schools which are so common in the United States:

"The training school at McLean, like others of the same character, is under the direction of a woman superintendent, subordinate to the superintendent or director of the hospital. The lectures of elementary instruction are delivered by the chief nurses and supervisors and technical lectures by the doctors and surgeons of the hospital and their assistants. From time to time the pupils pass examinations. Naturally they are instructed in all that relates to the service of the sick room, to simple dressings, and the first principles of massage and the necessary preparation for slight surgical operations. They are taught to recognize the chief symptoms of disease (delirium, coma, etc.); they learn how to restore asphyxiated patients; they are shown the necessity of thorough disinfection, and, above all, the benefits of constant and thorough cleanliness.

"In return for this instruction they give their services to the hospital. They live at the hospital in the capacity of nurses and assistant nurses, and receive only sufficient money to pay for their clothing. The women receive \$12 a month the first year and \$15 the second year. The men receive \$23 the first year and \$25 the second. The studies last for two years, and after the diplomas are granted the pupils become graduated nurses and receive appointments at \$25 per month for the first year and \$30 per month for the second year. The men are a little better paid; they receive \$27 a month the first year and \$30 a month the second year. At least these are the salaries given at the McLean Hospital. In other cities they are higher.

"It is needless to remark on the suggestiveness of the comparison of the salaries received by these nurses and those of Paris. But I ought to add at once that the personnel of the American hospitals in point of morality and intellect surpasses that of our hospitals. The nurses, in the great cities of the East especially, are for the most part women above the average. This is so true and is so well recognized that many of them, well raised, pretty, and well educated, marry the medical students. The system of marriage dowry does not exist in the true Yankee family. Apartments as luxurious and well furnished as those of the assistant doctors are reserved for these nurses. It is certainly true that women generally are better cared for in America than in Europe, and that on the American side of the Atlantic the comforts of life are met almost everywhere, as well in the family of the simple workman as in that of the millionaire."

CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

The reputation which Cornell University enjoys in Europe made it a special center of interest to Dr. Baudouin. "The wild and picturesque region of Ithaca, in the State of New York, where this magnificent institution has been erected, is reached after a fatiguing journey, especially so to one not used to American railroads. Leaving Syracuse, a great center of commerce and manufacture of all sorts, I accomplished this interesting excursion to Ithaca in one day, and visited the campus of Cornell University in company with Mr. Fr. C. Cranc, professor of the literature of the romance languages, and a sincere friend of France. Besides its college, very renowned in America, this model establishment possesses a school of law, recently opened, and special schools of agriculture, of architecture, and of engineering. The school of mechanical and electrical engineering is one of the best in the United States, and its professors are much esteemed in Europe. Many of their works have been translated into French. There are laboratories for the study of machines and the resistance of materials, which are organized with a lavishness unknown to us in France. The arrangements of the testing shops and the hall for practical work are the most unique in the world.

"The laboratories of physiology and comparative anatomy, placed under the charge of Prof. Burt Green Wilder, are worth visiting. Mr. Wilder, who is a veritable specialist in the study of the brain of vertebrates, very courteously conducted me through his museum. The specimens which he has prepared do honor to this collection of the university. This expert anatomist showed us some very well preserved human brains—the brains of a twin fetus, the brain of a young monster—and a series of preparations illustrating the development of the human brain. Almost all these specimens are truly masterpieces of fine dissection. Many other organs

have been prepared with as much skill, particularly the different parts of the heart. Almost all of this entire museum is the work of Professor Wilder.

"In twenty years he has succeeded, with rather moderate resources, in forming a zoologic collection quite sufficient for the college of the university. In this collection are some rare animals, many of them of American origin. Recently Mr. Wilder, who is an old pupil of Agassiz, has dissected an orang-outang. He showed us the brain, a preparation of which he is very proud, for it is difficult to procure this anthropoid in America. This organ is remarkable for the folds of its circumvolutions, in particular that of Broca. Mr. Wilder has established many very interesting anatomical facts with this specimen; for example, by means of this it has been possible to demonstrate the existence of the orifice of Magendie in the orang-outang.¹ Mr. Wilder has also the brains of criminals and of men distinguished for ability. We saw in this museum the brain of a celebrated philosopher, Chauncy Bright, which is remarkable for a well-developed connecting convolution, extending between the ascending frontal and the anterior parietal convolutions at the upper end of the fissure of Roland. There is also the curious brain of a lunatic, and one of a well-known assassin, Rullott.

"*Preparatory course of medicine.*—If at Cornell there is no faculty of medicine, there is nevertheless a preparatory course for those of its students who desire to pursue the study of medicine. This course, which lasts two years, is very peculiar. There is nothing analagous to it in France."

* * * * *

Here M. Baudouin introduces the programme of this preparatory course, with respect to which he continues: "It will be noticed that drawing and military and other physical exercises are included in the programme, and also that importance is given to the studies, which in France are called accessory sciences (i. e., chemistry, botany, physics). We remark also the mixture of courses, which in the French system belong to superior instruction (histology, anatomy, embryology, etc.), with those of the higher classes of the secondary schools in France (i. e., psychology, living languages, etc.). This mixture is very curious, and shows that in the United States there is little disposition to follow our old way, the so-called classics. In any case, it is very difficult to compare our actual organization with that of American universities. It is evident, therefore, that the question of the real equivalence between American and French diplomas is not likely to be settled at once. In America everything has been conceived in a manner so novel and unexpected to our minds, accustomed to classifications fixed, but artificial, also, in spite of their antiquity, that any comparison with what passes in Europe seems to me premature at this time. It is necessary to wait for a series of reforms which are sure to take place before many years elapse. Moreover, of what use is it to attempt the comparative study of questions set for entrance examinations or of the programmes of technical schools when the respective standards of these schools differ in different schools, and according to the patronage that each controls, the resources with which they are provided, and the number of their students? Of what use is it to compare our students in the first year of the medical course, or those possessed of the diploma of bachelor of sciences limited, with the young men who follow the preparatory course in medicine at Cornell? I am satisfied that this would be a sterile work. It is important rather to consider the attractive independence and great variety of the American programmes, the practical spirit which characterizes them. Certainly these tendencies are not indulged without great inconveniences, without some risk even to science itself. But if there are not many schools of savants in the United States, there are certainly numerous men of science, endowed with the sacred fire, and thanks to their remarkable energy and indomitable activity, America is still able to make a good figure in the world of high intellectual culture. I have already said that Johns Hopkins and Clark universities prove this. I add that at Cornell there are also a certain number of professors who belong to the phalanx of the élite."

The following extracts from the pages devoted to the institutions of the North Central and the Pacific States will suffice to indicate the extent and variety of Dr. Baudouin's studies in the department of professional instruction which was the object of his mission.

MICHIGAN.

"Ann Arbor even more than New Haven is the typical university city of America, like Montpellier in France, or Göttingen in Germany. It is nothing aside from the great number of both sexes who make the university one of the most important of the United States. Here those who wish to study the functions of high schools and colleges, the system of coeducation and the effects of common school education ought to come and remain several weeks of the school year. Life here is very quiet and

¹ Burt G. Wilder. "The metapore or foramen of Magendie, in man and in the orang-outang," in American Neurological Association. (Congress of July 25-27, 1893, at Long Branch.)

the American professors and students live together in an inexpensive way very much like the Germans.

"At first view Ann Arbor seems to offer nothing very interesting to the visitor, but on closer acquaintance he discovers that it would be a great mistake to neglect the university. It really presents a curious phenomenon, very characteristic of the country, namely, the maintenance in the same State university, of two schools of medicine, allopathic (regular) and homeopathic. The allopathic school resembles those that I have already described but by force of circumstances displays a more tolerant spirit. The professors of these two institutions often mingle amicably in official meetings as they form part of the same household. This is certainly a feature almost unique in the world (to use a favorite expression of my host). It is in any case a very rare spectacle to find thus side by side the two hostile sisters. To see on the same campus the two rival establishments and to study their reciprocal relations, have certainly been special points of interest in my medical journeyings in the United States. As I have said, there are in America a great many homeopathic schools, but this is the first instance in which I have found in the same university these professors united with those of the classic schools and living thus harmoniously.¹ Ann Arbor has also a school of pharmacy and a school of dentistry of high renown."

In describing the regular school of medicine at Ann Arbor, Dr. Baudouin notes that women are admitted, and adds: "Singular contradiction in this university where, as M. P. de Coubertin says, 'the women students have the deliberate manner, the sceptical air, and the abominable sang-froid of the Russian Nihilists,' they have not the right to dissect with the men. They also read the anatomical works in separate halls. Note, however, by the side of this a peculiarity not less interesting, they go to the hospital with the young men and attend all the clinics with them."

"At Ann Arbor, the State university, instruction is almost gratuitous. The students of the school of medicine, natives of Michigan, pay \$35 for the course, including entrance fees and annual dues; the other students pay \$60; there are also supplementary expenses for all (diploma, \$10; dissection, \$20; laboratories, \$76), without counting the expense of special courses. I saw on the campus the modest buildings appropriated to this school of medicine. They are not luxurious like those of the universities founded by private individuals; so true it is that always and everywhere official assistance paralyzes the generosity of individuals. I believed myself transported into one of our little secondary schools. Nevertheless, in 1892, Ann Arbor had 344 students in the regular school of medicine, without counting 63 in the homeopathic school. Apparently the number of students in the regular school is not increasing, at least the official figures show a decrease from 1880 to 1890. In the latter year the course of study was raised from three to four years; since 1890, however, the number of students has increased slightly."

MEDICINE AT THE WORLD'S FAIR.

"One word now of the great Columbian Exposition, and also of the great hospital of the World's Fair. I have had the opportunity of examining sections least accessible to the public, especially in the Palace of Homeopathy, the Children's Building, and more particularly in the Columbian Emergency Hospital, which may certainly serve as a model for our future exposition of 1900. This description, in years to come, may have a certain historic interest when nothing of the World's Fair remains. The Columbian Emergency Hospital is situated opposite one of the principal entrances to the Fair. The building has two rooms, each containing ten beds. One room is devoted to the treatment of the sick, and the other to the victims of accidents. There is still a third room, quite large, which is reserved for obstetric cases. It contains three beds.

"The hospital is well lighted by electricity. The parts reserved for the superintendent and employees and the head nurse are furnished with luxury and taste. As in all American hospitals, flowers abound, especially in the waiting room.

"The hospital was one of the first buildings completed, and was early called into use for the workmen employed on the buildings of the Exposition. It continues to be of the greatest service, thanks to the system of ambulances stationed at each corner of Jackson Park. The surgical service, in particular, is admirably arranged. This ward is remarkable for its cleanliness, and the operating room is a veritable model of aseptic appliances. It is sufficiently large, well lighted, completely furnished, and well kept. I have witnessed here many small operations, such as in our hospitals are performed at consultations. I was told that whenever they had a serious case the patient was removed to a city hospital, but, considering the perfect appointments of the Emergency Hospital, the operation could have been as well performed there."

¹It is the same at Minneapolis, Minn., and in Iowa.

"On days when the crowd was the greatest there were naturally many accidents, especially from fires, which were very frequent. The Fourth of July, the national holiday, the visitors numbered less than 200,000; there were nevertheless 170 persons brought to the hospital. If, as the administration confidently expected, there had been each day from 500,000 to 600,000 persons, it will be readily seen that the hospital accommodations would scarcely have sufficed.

"Every morning the patients not yet cured are taken to a city hospital and thus at the beginning of each day the 23 beds are almost always empty. It is hardly necessary to dwell on the efficiency of the assistants at the hospital. Here are to be seen strong, vigorous women, members of the worthy body of American nurses. Two doctors are in charge; they have as aids five house surgeons very expert (I have seen them at work), two sanitary inspectors, a superintendent of the ambulance corps, very efficient, a druggist, employees of the office, a superintendent of the nurses, and five graduate nurses.

"*The Homeopathic Hospital.*—Not far from the hospital of the regular school is the headquarters of homeopathy. It has two parts—a small homeopathic hospital in the second story and the homeopathic exhibit on the ground floor. The homeopaths insisted upon having their hospital at the World's Fair on the same footing as the regulars.

"The model Homeopathic Hospital comprises several rooms furnished for the sick. It has a doctor in charge and many nurses. I must add, however, that I saw no sick people there.

"In the part devoted to the exhibit there are rooms for the display of chemical and pharmaceutical products and a series of framed photographs showing the Chicago Homeopathic College and Free Dispensary, the professors of the college and their pupils. There are portraits of 74 homeopathic doctors. Elsewhere they show the plans of another homeopathic hospital which will soon be erected at the corner of York street and Hermitage avenue. Dr. Streeter also shows photographs of his private hospital on Calumet avenue, devoted exclusively to the treatment of women. It is very well arranged and has in connection with it a school for nurses."

CHILDREN'S BUILDING.

"I must note in brief the Children's Building or 'Pavillon des enfants,' situated not far from the principal entrance. It contains, first, exhibits referring to infancy; second, a model gymnasium; third, a series of class rooms; fourth, a refuge; fifth, a crèche of which I will speak later. The roof serves as a court of recreation for the children and has a toboggan slide. In the crèche they care for babies during the day while the fathers and mothers visit the Exposition, or, if they are employed there, while they attend to their work. In a large room some of the little ones play together freely; others are in cradles suspended from the ceiling like hammocks and rocked by the older girls. Others occupy dainty little beds of iron, while the youngest are in the charge of nurses. Strangers at Chicago often laugh about this crèche. They can not suppress a smile at seeing the babies 'checked' on their entrance. To each mother leaving her child, a copper tag is given bearing a number corresponding to one which is attached to the neck of the child. A 'check' is used in America in place of the 'bulletin de bagages' with us. In spite of the pleasantries to which it has given rise this crèche seems to me to fill a need and I shall be happy to see an institution of this kind at the next exposition in Paris (1900). How many poor families might pass several days at the Exposition if they knew they would find there a crèche and competent, trustworthy women to whom they might confide their children instead of taking them into the crowd to be lost."

RELIEF STATIONS AT THE WORLD'S FAIR.

"These posts, placed at different points of the Exposition, seem to me very interesting. There are three principal stations besides the one annexed to the hospital. These flying hospitals are organized like fire companies. Instead of firemen they are in charge of ambulanciers, well trained in the duties of their office. Near a little table stands the ambulance, patiently waiting the sound of an electric bell which announces an accident. The shafts are always ready for the horse with the harness suspended over them. Behind, in a box stall, stands the trained horse; at the sound of the bell the men throw themselves into the ambulance, the doors of the box open, and the horse places himself under the harness. In less than a minute the carriage is en route. Notice of accidents is given at each end of these stations in a very simple way. There are at the Exposition a large number of alarm boxes communicating with the ambulance posts, the fire engines, and the police stations. An accident occurs—immediately the policeman nearest the scene of accident goes to the nearest alarm box, and presses the electric button which notifies the central office. From this office the proper ambulance is called and sent to the scene of the accident, the wounded person is immediately conveyed to the hospital, where an assistant,

already notified of the occurrence, awaits his arrival in the operating room, which is always ready for patients.

"This brief description of this interesting and important feature of the World's Fair will show what is the outcome when private initiative has free course and when an able man is allowed to put into execution his own ideas unembarrassed by routine.

"If America has some faults she has some great qualities also. It must be confessed that often by a single stroke she goes far toward solving the most difficult questions. These brief remarks upon the hospital of the World's Fair may furnish some information to those who are charged to organize medical science at the exposition of 1900."

The following general observations introduce the reader to M. Baudouin's account of Western universities:

"The universities of the East and center of North America, it is hardly necessary to repeat, are the most interesting to visit. Those on the Atlantic border give the impression of indisputable power, and an intensity of physical and intellectual life really astonishing. It must also be admitted that their actual value is sufficient to justify to the foreigner the renown of this new country."

SCHOOLS OF THE WESTERN STATES.

"The colleges of the Central States," says Dr. Baudouin, "which have neither the age nor the distinction of the Eastern colleges, are, nevertheless, worthy to be compared with our provincial schools and faculties, and whoever has visited America has seen or, at least, heard of them. It is not so with the others, which, situated in the West or 'Far West,' have had a development as rapid as that of the cities where they have been established. It has, therefore, seemed to me important to visit these schools so young but already so prosperous, and to study their effects in the places where they are located—to see their buildings and appointments, almost as magnificent for those at the foot of the Rocky Mountains as for those on the borders of the Great Lakes, and to devote some pages to their schools of medicine in spite of their extreme youth and small renown."

It is impossible even to name here all the foundations which are described or mentioned in the remaining pages of the report. We can note only a few typical institutions.

The University of Minnesota is described somewhat in detail. As to its rapid growth the author says: "This university, situated on the left bank of the Mississippi River, in the city of Minneapolis, comprises many large buildings. It was founded in 1857, and had hardly commenced to receive students in 1860. It has at this time (1893) more than 1,000 students, male and female." The report presents views of the college of medicine and surgery and the medical laboratory, and also the course of study for each year at the homeopathic college. An official statement as to the cost of living at Minneapolis is quoted, which gives \$323.54 as the expenses for a young man and \$240.05 for a young woman.

University of Colorado.—"The development of the University of Colorado is still more astonishing than that of the schools of Minneapolis. The place where the city of Denver now stands was in 1853 only a vast prairie extending to the foot of the Rocky Mountains. At this time (1893) the Queen of the Prairies possesses more than 150,000 inhabitants. Its university, which, though established in 1860 can hardly be said to have developed before 1876, comprises several important buildings at Boulder, a little city situated 29 miles from the capital in the Rocky Mountains, at the entrance to the celebrated Boulder Canyon. About 300 students are here congregated.

"The school of medicine which belongs to the university is situated not at Boulder but at Denver itself, in the center of the city, at Seventeenth and Stout streets. The first year students study at Boulder, the boys living at Kent Hall with the law students and the young girls in buildings reserved especially for them. When a brother and sister attend the university at the same time they may live in the same house. All students are obliged to register at Boulder. In the second year they attend the school of medicine at Denver in order to take advantage of the hospital work. This arrangement reduces expenses, as living in Denver is much dearer than in the neighboring towns. The course of study lasts three years, nine months each year.

"The clinical instruction is given in the hospitals of the city, which accommodate more than 400 patients, and are open to the students. The Arapahoe County Hospital, where many of the professors of the school teach, contains 150 beds and is increasing in importance every year. There are four clinic lectures at this hospital each week. The dispensary of the school is also here and is open every day except Sunday. Here also clinic lessons are given every day during the scholastic year. In these lessons the student is obliged to give a diagnosis, a prognosis, and a treatment of a case.

"The school is open to all graduates of recognized colleges or high schools. Other

candidates for admission are obliged to submit to an examination in English grammar, arithmetic, geography, history of the United States, and the elements of physics. Some students come to the University of Colorado for the sake of the climate, just as certain students go to the Lycées of Pan and of Nice.

"The climate of this region is indeed highly recommended for pulmonary affections or chronic malaria. The average temperature, which is 48° F., or nearly 9° C., attracts many pupils who are invalids, but who, after a year at Boulder, are often able to continue their studies.

"From the character of the surrounding country and the frequent accidents the Americans have drawn a very legitimate conclusion and have established here a course of lectures relating especially to the treatment of the victims of railroad accidents. Those who have traveled in this section, and who remember that at Denver all the railroads of the far West meet and cross, will not be astonished at or fail to realize the importance of a special medical service of the first order."

The schools and hospitals of Portland.—"Oregon has two medical schools located at Portland. Although not the capital of the State, by reason of its situation and commerce this city, which has an English stamp, is the metropolis of the Northwest Pacific. Here is a Chinese population of more than 3,000 and a house of refuge especially for Chinese women (the Chinese Woman's Home). The Good Samaritan Hospital was founded in 1875 by an old bishop of Oregon. It accommodates 125 patients and is directed by a superintendent. Only those patients are admitted who are able to pay \$7 per week in the common ward or \$14 per week for special rooms. Attached to the hospital is a training school for nurses' directed by Mrs. E. Loverage.

"The Portland Methodist Episcopal and Free Dispensary, which was rebuilt in 1888 and received 100 patients, is hardly less interesting.

"St. Vincent's Hospital, which contains 200 beds, is as old and more important than the Good Samaritan. It is under the supervision of the Sisters of Charity and receives about 1,500 patients each year.

"Four medical societies, of which one is homeopathic, are established at Portland. The best known is the Oregon State Medical Society."

Medical schools of San Francisco.—"As the medical schools of San Francisco have not been visited by many physicians of Europe, I may hope that they will thank me for having pushed my university investigation into California.

"The two most important medical schools are well worthy of mention; moreover, in this distant country the French language and literature are not at all forgotten, and what is still more interesting, many of our compatriots practice here, and at this moment superintend the construction of a magnificent hospital. They certainly merit our attention.

"I may note here that in this State, quite new and still almost a desert in some parts, numbering only 1,200,000 inhabitants, there are already five schools of medicine, so that the old pioneers of San Jose Valley can scarcely lack practitioners. The oldest and certainly the most important school of medicine is the Cooper Medical College. Its organization dates back to 1858, when it constituted the medical department of the University of the Pacific. Its first diplomas were granted in 1860. The school ceased to exist from 1864 to 1869, but in 1870 was reopened under its former name. Two years later it became the medical department of the University of San Francisco and then took the name of Medical College of the Pacific. In 1882 its former name was restored, and this is still retained. An effort is now being made to incorporate it as the school of medicine of a very rich university about to be erected at Palo Alto near the bay of San Francisco. This institution first granted diplomas in 1860.

"In 1890 the college received important donations from Mr. James M. MacDonald, and also from Professor Lane, who gave land and buildings to the value of about \$100,000. Mr. Lane is the nephew of Mr. Samuel Cooper, the founder of the school, who died in 1861 at the age of 41 years, and whose ambition was to found a hospital. Professor Lane's gift was intended as a memorial of Dr. Cooper. He was a distinguished surgeon (especially known by his work on the suture of the kneecap, an operation which he was one of the first to perform on the articular resections, etc.). He should not be confounded with Astley Cooper."

In addition to a detailed description of the buildings of this college and their appointments, Dr. Baudouin notes that here, as in most of the American colleges, the dissecting room is in the top of the building. He counted, he says, 12 cadavers injected with red wax. He adds: "Mr. Gibbons told me that as they used each year only 50 cadavers, it was necessary to keep them as long as possible. One subject serves for 5 students, and costs \$12. Generally a student in the course of his study dissects five bodies, making an expense of \$60. The course of study is for three years, but after 1894 it will continue for four years. It is gratifying to observe that all the good schools are in favor of this change.

"In the list of books recommended I have seen only English and American authors,

with a few German, but not a single French work. This is inexcusable, at least in California where nothing French should pass unnoticed."

A somewhat extended account, historical and descriptive, is given of the Toland Medical College, which constitutes the medical department of the University of California. The author notes as a matter of special interest that in the dissecting room he saw 15 students at work. "This," he adds, "appeared strange to me considering the season of the year, as I had not before seen students working in any of the colleges I had visited. I soon learned that the course of study here is divided into a spring, a summer, and a fall term, the vacations taking place during the winter months of December, January, and February, an arrangement best suited to the climate of San Francisco, as I can state from my own experience; this has induced the doctors to depart here from the custom as old as old Europe. It is only in America that such changes can be made without objections, and it is really the study of these thousand little details, rather than the visits to so great a number of institutions which with few exceptions are not of a high order, that has made my tour in the United States interesting."

A paragraph is given to the San Francisco polyclinic or post-graduate medical department of the University of California. Brief but interesting accounts are also given of the hospitals of San Francisco, including the Chinese hospital, the German, and the new French hospital. The plans of the latter are fully described and graphically illustrated. The Home for Inebriates is also mentioned in the same chapter. "There is nothing," says the writer "analogous to this in France."

With respect to the number of practicing physicians in California, Dr. Baudouin says: "For a population of about 300,000, San Francisco has 600 physicians, or 1 for every 500 persons. At Los Angeles the proportion is still greater, i. e., 1 physician for every 250 inhabitants. This is the general average for American cities, while in Europe (even in Germany, where doctors abound) the proportion in cities is generally 1 doctor for 1,000 inhabitants. Undoubtedly the high proportion at San Francisco, as in other cities of the United States, is due to the excessive number of schools and the low standard of studies. But here another cause operates also; this is the large importation of Germans; actually there are 181 German physicians in the city. To this there could be no objection if they were really doctors, but it appears that out of the 181 only 6 have really passed the State examination required in Germany; the others are only students, who have scarcely mastered their course, and whose professional attainments leave much to be desired. A remedy for this state of things is earnestly desired here where, in truth, it is not denied that admission to the profession is far too easy. It appears, however, that the matter can not well be regulated without what would be still more difficult, the complete reorganization of American universities."

CHAPTER XXX.

EDUCATION IN THE SEVERAL STATES.

ALABAMA.

[Letter of Dr. J. L. M. Curry to the gubernatorial candidates of Alabama.]

WASHINGTON, D. C., *May 21, 1896.*

To the Hon. Joseph F. Johnston and Hon. Albert T. Goodwyn.

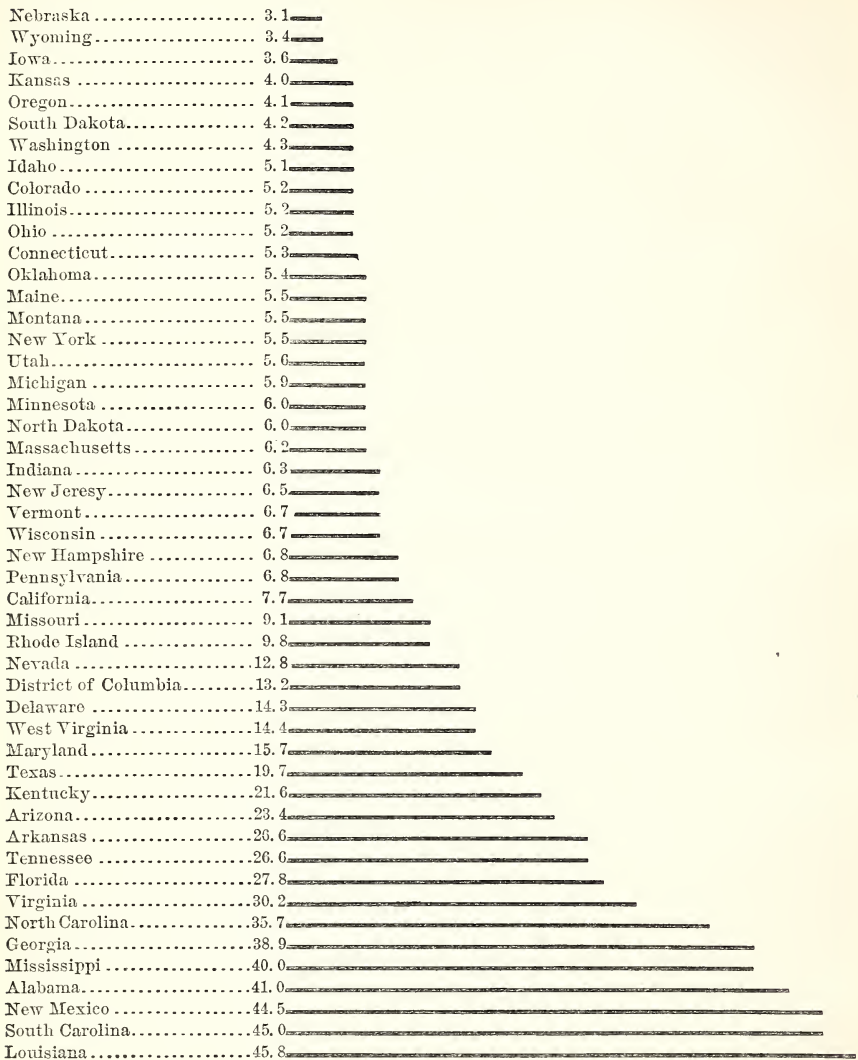
DEAR SIR: I address this open letter to you as the accredited representatives of the two great parties seeking to control the government of the State. I need make no apology for my interest in Alabama or the cause which I seek to bring before you.

With the issues which divide the parties I have no concern in this letter. The subject of this communication is higher, far more important, more paramount than all the issues, Federal and State, which divide parties, local or national. It involves vitally every county, neighborhood, family, and citizen. It is not of temporary, but of permanent interest. It affects the people individually, socially, intellectually, and materially. All patriots should combine and labor incessantly until there be permanently established and liberally sustained the best system of free schools for the whole people, for such a system would soon become the "most effective and benignant of all the forces of civilization." Such a cause should enlist the best and most practical statesmanship, and should be lifted above and out of mere party politics, which is one of the most mischievous enemies of the public school system.

Mr. Jefferson is quoted by both parties on fiscal and currency and constitutional questions. Let us hear what he says on the education of the people. In 1786 he wrote to George Wythe: "I think by far the most important bill in our whole code is that for the diffusion of knowledge among the people. No surer foundation can be devised for the preservation of their freedom and happiness." To Washington he wrote: "It is an axiom in my mind that our liberty can never be safe but in the hands of the people themselves, and that, too, of the people of a certain degree of instruction. This it is the business of the State to effect and on a general plan."

The best test of a country's civilization is the condition of public instruction, said a French statesman. Tested by that standard, what is the rank of Alabama among civilized people? The total population of Alabama over 10 years of age by the last census is 1,069,545, and of these 107,355, or 18.2 per cent of the white people are illiterate, and 331,260, or 69 per cent of the negroes are illiterate. Of 540,226 children between 5 and 18 years of age 301,615, or 55.80 per cent are enrolled in schools, leaving only two States in this particular below her. In 1891-92 the percentage of school population (5 to 18 years) in attendance was 33.78 per cent with four States below. The average school term or session was seventy-three days.

This diagram shows graphically the rank of each State and Territory according to the rates of illiteracy in 1890:



This beggarly array does not fill up the dark outlines of the picture. These short schools are in many cases inefficient and inadequate, and the graduates of high schools, even, are three years behind the German graduates in the amount of knowledge acquired and in mental development. This inferiority is largely attributable to the shorter terms of school years, to the want of professional teachers, and to the small enrollment. In Prussia, under a compulsory law, 91 per cent are instructed in the public elementary, or people's schools, or only 945 of the children subject to the law were unjustly withheld from school. It is lamentable that in many cases a teacher in primary schools need not know much more than he is required to teach, and that knowledge may be confined to the text-book. This deficiency in teacher training is, with political and sectarian influence, the most vulnerable point in our school system. The lack of proper supervision and inspection of schools is traceable to this same pestiferous influence, and hence the officers charged with this duty remain too short a time in their places to be qualified for their work. Rotation in

office, narrow partisanship, inefficiency, are the direct fruits of making school offices not places of trust, but spoils of political victory. Our system of public instruction has acquired such dimensions, ramifies so minutely into every family and neighborhood, concerns so greatly every interest of the State, that its administration should be vested in officers of the highest intelligence and patriotism, of administrative skill and ability, of thorough acquaintance with school and educational questions. The state superintendent should remain in office long enough to be thoroughly familiar with the duties of his exalted position, and should be an expert, capable of advising executive and legislature, and school officers and teachers, and in full and intelligent sympathy with the educational problems that are so important and numerous. Greatly blessed is a State and are the children who have at head of school affairs such men as Mann, Sears, Dickinson, Draper, White, Ruffner, and our peerless Harris.

The statistics of defective schools and consequent illiteracy teach their own sad lessons. The calamities which, in the inevitable order of events, must result from having so large a portion of the people in ignorance, need not be elaborated, but they should fill every patriot with alarm and impel to the adoption of early and adequate remedies as an antidote for what is so menacing to free institutions and to general prosperity. While ignorance so abounds, how can we hope for purity in elections and safety from demagogism, immorality, lawlessness, and crime? "Whatever children we suffer to grow up among us we must live with as men; and our children must be their contemporaries. They are to be our copartners in the relations of life, our equals at the polls, our rulers in legislative halls, the awarders of justice in our courts. However intolerable at home, they can not be banished to any foreign land; however worthless, they will not be sent to die in camps or to be slain in battle; however flagitious, but few of them will be sequestered from society by imprisonment, or doomed to expiate their offenses with their lives."

Perhaps the argument most likely to reach the general public is the close relation between public free schools and the increased productive power of labor and enterprise. The political economy which busies itself about capital and labor, and revenue reform and free coinage, and ignores such a factor as mental development, is supremest folly; for to increase the intelligence of the laborer is to increase largely his producing power. Education creates new wealth, develops new and untold treasures, increases the growth of intellect, gives directive power and the power of self-help; of will and of combining things and agencies. The secretary of the board of education of Massachusetts in his last report makes some valuable statements and suggestions. No other State is giving as much for education, and yet each inhabitant is receiving on an average nearly seven years of two hundred days each, while the average given each citizen in the whole nation is only four and three-tenths of such years. While the citizens of Massachusetts get nearly twice the average amount of education, her wealth-producing power as compared with other States stands almost in the same ratio. This increased wealth-producing power means that the 2,500,000 people produce \$250,000,000 more than they would produce if they were only average earners. And this is twenty-five times the annual expenditure for schools. The capacity to read and write tends to the creation and distribution of wealth, and adds fully 25 per cent to the wages of the working classes. It renders an additional service in stimulating material wants and making them more numerous, complex, and refined. We hear on every hand louder calls for skilled labor and high directive ability. It is a lack of common business sagacity to flinch from the cost of such a wealth-producing agency. This question is not, How can we afford to do it? but, Can we afford not to do it?

All experience shows only one means of securing universal education. Private and parish schools educate only about 12 per cent of the children, and if they could educate all there would remain insuperable objections to them in the way of management, classification, efficiency and support. Our institutions and rights demand free schools for all the people, and they must be established and controlled by the State, and for their support combined municipal, county, and State revenues are needed. Eighty-seven per cent of the children of the Union are now in public schools. In 1890 the entire costs for school purposes were estimated at \$143,110,218, toward the payment of which the local school tax contributed \$97,000,000. While furnishing education is a legitimate tax on property, whether the taxpayer takes advantage of the public schools or not, the history of education in the United States shows that with State revenues should be combined local taxation. This insures immediate interest in the schools, better supervision, greater rivalry, and, on the whole, better results.

The schools in Alabama are handicapped by a clause in the constitution limiting local taxation to an extremely low figure. If by general agreement among the friends of education the removal of this restriction could be separated from party politics, and local taxation could be brought to the support of schools, there would soon be an era of educational and material prosperity. What a commentary it would be on the capacity of our people for self-government, on their catholic patriotism, on the

subordination of private wishes to the public good, if, under the advice and leadership of those selected as fittest persons for the executive chair, the whole subject of free and universal education should be elevated to the plane of organic law, and be as sacred and irremovable as any of the fundamental muniments of liberty.

Yours, truly,

J. L. M. CURRY.

CALIFORNIA.

EDUCATING GIRLS.

[Communicated to the Boston Sunday Journal by President David Starr Jordan, of the Leland Stanford Junior University.]

The subject of the higher education of young women at present usually demands answers to these three questions:

1. Shall a girl receive a college education?
2. Shall she receive the same kind of a college education as a boy?
3. Shall she be educated in the same college?

First. Shall a girl receive a college education? The answer to this must depend on the character of the girl. Precisely so with the boy. What we should do with either depends on his or her possibilities. Wise parents will not let either boy or girl enter life with any less preparations than the best they can receive. It is true that many college graduates, boys and girls alike, do not amount to much after the schools have done the best they can with them. It is true, as I have elsewhere insisted, that "you can not fasten a \$2,000 education to a 50-cent boy," nor to a 50-cent girl, either. But there is also great truth in these words of Frederic Dennison Maurice: "I know that nine-tenths of those the university sends out must be hewers of wood and drawers of water. But if we train the ten-tenths to be so, then the wood will be badly cut and the water will be spilt. Aim at something noble; make your system of education such that a great man may be formed by it, and there will be manhood in your little men of which you do not dream."

It is not alone the preparation of great men for great things. Higher education may prepare even little men for greater things than they would have otherwise found possible. And so it is with the education of women. The needs of the times are imperative. The noblest result of social evolution is the growth of the civilized home. Such a home only a wise, cultivated, and high-minded woman can make. To furnish such women is one of the noblest missions of higher education. No young women capable of becoming such should be condemned to a lower destiny. Even of those seemingly too dull or too vacillating to reach any high ideal of wisdom, this may be said, that it does no harm to try. A few hundred dollars is not much to spend on an experiment of such moment. Four of the best years of one's life spent in the company of noble thoughts and high ideals can not fail to leave their impress. To be wise, and at the same time womanly, is to wield a tremendous influence, which may be felt for good in the lives of generations to come. It is not forms of government by which men are made or unmade. It is the character and influence of their mothers and wives. The higher education of women means more for the future than all conceivable legislative reforms. And its influence does not stop with the home. It means higher standards of manhood, greater thoroughness of training and the coming of better men. Therefore, let us educate our girls as well as our boys. A generous education should be the birthright of every daughter of the Republic as well as of every son.

Second. Shall we give our girls the same education as our boys? Yes and no. If we mean by the same an equal degree of breadth and thoroughness, an equal fitness for high thinking and wise acting, yes, let it be the same. If we mean to reach this end by exactly the same course of studies, then my answer must be no. For the same course of study will not yield the same results with different persons. The ordinary "college course" which has been handed down from generation to generation is purely conventional. It is a result of a series of compromises in trying to fit the traditional education of clergymen and gentlemen to the needs of men of a different social era. The old college course met the special needs of nobody, and therefore was adapted to all alike. The great educational awakening of the last twenty years in America has come from breaking the bonds of this old system. The essence of the new education is individualism. Its purpose is to give to each young man that training which will make a man of him. Not the training which a century or two ago helped to civilize the masses of boys of that time, but that which will civilize this particular boy. One reason why the college students of 1895 are ten to one in number as compared with those of 1875, is that the college training now given is valuable to ten times as many men as could be reached or helped by the narrow courses of twenty years ago.

In the university of to-day the largest liberty of choice in study is given to the

student. The professor advises, the student chooses, and the flexibility of the courses makes it possible for every form of talent to receive proper culture. Because the college, of to-day helps ten times as many men as that of yesterday could hope to reach, it is ten times as valuable. The difference lies in the development of special lines of work and in the growth of the elective system. The power of choice carries the duty of choosing rightly. The ability to choose has made a man out of the college boy, and transferred college work from an alternation of tasks and play to its proper relation to the business of life. Meanwhile, the old ideals have not risen in value. If our colleges were to go back to threshing the cut straw of mediævalism—in other words, to their work of twenty years ago—their professors would speak to empty benches. In those colleges which still cling to those traditions these benches are empty to day or filled only with idlers. This to a college is a fate worse than death.

The best education for a young woman is surely not that which has proved unfit for the young man. She is an individual as well as he, and her work gains as much as his by relating it to her life. But an institution broad enough to meet the varied needs of varied men can also meet the varied needs of the varied woman. Intellectual training is the prime function of the college. The intellectual needs of men and women are not different in many important respects. The special or professional needs so far as they are different will bring their own satisfaction. Those who have had to do with the higher training of women know that the severest demands can be met by them as well as by men. There is no demand for easy or "goody-goody" courses of study for women except as this demand has been made or encouraged by men.

There are, of course, certain average differences between men and women as students. Women have often greater sympathy, greater readiness of memory or apprehension, greater fondness for technique. In the languages and literature, often in mathematics and history, women are found to excel. They lack, on the whole, originality. They are not attracted by unsolved problems, and in the inductive or "inexact" sciences they seldom take the lead. In the traditional courses of study, traditional for men, they are often very successful. Not that these courses have a special fitness for women, but that women are more docile and less critical as to the purposes of education. And to all these statements there are many exceptions. In this, however, those who have taught both men and women must agree. The training of women is just as serious and just as important as the training of men, and no training is adequate for either which falls short of the best.

Third. Shall women be taught in the same classes as men? This is, it seems to me, not a fundamental question, but rather a matter of taste. It does no harm whatever to either men or women to meet those of the other sex in the same class rooms. But if they prefer not to do so, let them do otherwise. Considerable has been said for and against the union in one institution of technical schools and schools of liberal arts. The technical character of scientific work is emphasized by its separation from general culture. But I believe better men are made where the two are not separated. The devotees of culture studies gain from the feeling reality and utility cultivated by technical work. The technical students gain from association with men and influences whose aggregate tendency is toward greater breadth of sympathy and a higher point of view.

A woman's college is more or less distinctly a technical school. In most cases its purpose is distinctly stated to be such. It is a school for training for the profession of womanhood. It encourages womanliness of thought as something more or less different from the plain thinking which is often called manly.

The brightest work in women's colleges is often accompanied by a nervous strain as though the students or teachers were fearful of falling short of some expected standard. They are often working toward ideals set by others. The best work of men is natural and unconscious, the normal product of the contact of the mind with the problem in question. On the whole, calmness and strength in woman's work are best reached through coeducation.

At the present time the demand for the higher education of women is met in three different ways:

1. In separate colleges for women, with courses of study more or less parallel with those given in colleges for men. In some of these the teachers are all women, in some mostly men, and in others a more or less equal division obtains. In nearly all of these institutions the old traditions of education and discipline are more prevalent than in colleges for men. Nearly all of them retain some trace of religious or denominational control. In all of them the *Zeitgeist* is producing more or less commotion, and the changes in their evolution are running parallel with those in colleges for men.

2. In women's annexes to colleges for men. In these, part of the instruction given to the men is repeated to the women, in different classes or rooms, and there is more

or less opportunity to use the same libraries and museums. In some other institutions the relations are closer, the privileges of study being similar, the differences being mainly in the rules of conduct by which the young women are hedged in, the young men making their own regulations.

It seems to me that the annex system can not be a permanent one. The annex student does not get the best of the institution, and the best is none too good for her. Sooner or later she will demand it, or go where the best can be found. The best students will cease to go to the annex. The institution must then admit women on equal terms or not admit them at all. There is certainly no educational reason why women should prefer the annex of one institution if another institution equally good throws its doors wide open for her.

3. The third system is that of coeducation. In this relation young men and young women are admitted to the same classes, subjected to the same requirements, and governed by the same rules. This system is now fully established in the State institutions of the North and West, and in most other colleges of the same region. Its effectiveness has long since passed beyond question among those familiar with its operation. Other things being equal, the young men are more earnest, better in manners and morals, and in all ways more civilized than under monastic conditions. The women do their work in a more natural way, with better perspective and with saner incentives than when isolated from the influence and society of men. There is less of silliness and folly when a man ceases to be a novelty. There is less attraction exerted by idle and frivolous girls when young men meet also girls industrious and serious. In coeducational institutions of high standards frivolous conduct or scandals of any form are unknown. The responsibility for decorum is thrown from the school to the woman, and the woman rises to the responsibility. Many professors have entered Western colleges with strong prejudices against coeducation. These prejudices have in no case endured the test of experience. What is well done has a tonic effect on the mind and character. The college girl has long since ceased to expect any particular leniency because she is a girl. She stands or falls with the character of her work.

It is not true that the standard of college work has been in any way lowered by coeducation. The reverse is decidedly the case. It is true, however, that untimely zeal of one sort or another has filled our Western States with a host of so-called colleges. It is true that most of these are weak, and doing poor work in poor ways. It is true that most of these are coeducational. It is also true that the great majority of their students are not of college grade at all. In such schools often low standards prevail, both as to scholarships and as to manners. The student fresh from the country, with no preparatory training, will bring the manners of his home. These are not always good manners, as manners are judged in society. But none of these defects are derived from coeducation, nor are any of these conditions in any way made worse by it.

A final question: Does not coeducation lead to marriage? Most certainly it does, and this fact need not be and can not be denied. But such marriages are not usually premature. And it is certainly true that no better marriages can be made than those founded on common interests and intellectual friendships.

A college man who has known college women is not drawn to women of lower ideals and inferior training. He is likely to be strongly drawn toward the best he has known. A college woman is not led by mere propinquity to accept the attentions of inferior men. Among some thirty college professors educated in coeducational colleges, as Cornell, Wisconsin, Michigan, California, whose records are before me, two-thirds have married college friends. Most of the others have married women from other colleges, and a few chosen women from their own colleges, but not contemporaries with themselves. In all cases the college man has chosen a college woman, and in all cases both man and woman are thoroughly happy with the outcome of coeducation. It is part of the legitimate function of higher education to prepare women as well as men for happy and successful lives.

CONNECTICUT.

THE TENDENCY OF MEN TO LIVE IN CITIES.

[Address of President Kingsbury, of the American Social Science Association. Read September 2, 1895.]

Two or three years since I wrote this title as a memorandum for a paper which I wished to prepare when I should find time sufficient to make some necessary investigations, statistical and otherwise. I knew of nothing, or almost nothing, written on the subject, except by way of occasional allusion. I made many inquiries in various directions, personally and by letter, of those who would, I thought, be likely to give me information; I examined libraries and catalogues—and all this with very trifling results. To-day, when I again take up the theme, so much has been written

on the subject that the question has almost passed from the stage of generalization to that of specialization and detail.

In the April number of the Atlantic Magazine of the present year an article commenting on Dr. Albert Shaw's recent work, entitled "Municipal government in Great Britain," says:

"The great fact in the social development of the white race at the close of the nineteenth century is the tendency all over the world to concentrate in great cities."

Doubtless this is true; but it is not a new, or even a modern tendency, although, as we shall see, there is much in modern civilization which tends to increase and accentuate it. Still, when the earliest dawn of authentic history sheds its pale light on the impenetrable darkness which lies beyond, it shows us cities as large, as magnificent, as luxurious, as wicked, and apparently as old as any that the world has since known. The books speak of Babylon as the largest city the world has ever seen; but it was by no means the first, and may not have been the greatest even then. Nineveh, its great rival, Memphis, Thebes, Damascus, claiming to be the oldest of them all, Rome, in a later time, with its two or three millions of inhabitants, are but representatives of other cities by the thousands, perhaps larger and older than the largest and oldest here named, and are certainly sufficient to show that a tendency in men to live congregated together in large numbers is as old as anything that we know about the human race.

In our earliest literature, too, we find, apparently well fixed, some of the same prejudices against the city as a place for men to dwell in that now exist. These prejudices must have been already existing for a long time, and their influence must have been the subject of observation before even the possibly somewhat prejudiced people who did not live in cities should have arrived at such firmly settled conclusions in regard to their deleterious influence. Curiously enough, the prejudice appears in one of our earliest writings. There is no doubt that the writer of the Book of Genesis had what might be called an unfriendly feeling toward Cain. He gives him a bad character in every respect. He holds him up to the universal contempt of mankind, and visits him with the severest judgments of God. And, after he has said about him nearly every bad thing that he can think of, he adds as a climax to his enormities, "And Cain builded a city." Now, whether he meant to be understood that cities, having been first built by such an infamous scoundrel, had turned out to be very much what you might expect, or whether, the general character of cities having been already settled in his mind, it was adding one more black mark to Cain to mention this fact, is by no means clear; but this much is certain, that the writer was no admirer of cities, and that neither Cain nor cities were intended to derive any credit from his statement. From that day to this they have had their severe critics. They have been regarded as the breeding places of vice and the refuge of crime. Our own Jefferson—that is, Thomas, not Joseph—is said to have called them "ulcers on the body politic." Dr. Andrew D. White, in his address as president of this association delivered in 1891, says, "Our cities are the rotten spots in our body politic, from which, if we are not careful, decay is to spread throughout our whole country; for cities make and spread opinions, fashions, ideals." The poet Cowley says, "God the first garden made, and the first city Cain." And other writers with the same feelings have used language of a similar import, dictated by the warmth of their temperament, the range of their vocabulary, and the power of their rhetoric.

Prof. Max Nordau, who has lately shown us in a large octavo of 650 pages how we are all hastening on to certain destruction—a conclusion which I am not disposed to combat—or perhaps I might more modestly say, as the late President Woolsey is reported to have said to Daniel A. Pratt, the great American traveler, when he laid before him some rather startling propositions, that I would rather give him a dollar than to attempt to point out the fallacy in his argument—Mr. Nordau, after quoting high authority to show how the human race is poisoning itself with alcohol, tobacco, opium, hasheesh, arsenic, and tainted food, says:

"To these noxious influences, however, one more may be added, which Morel [the authority he has just quoted] has not known or has not taken into consideration; namely, residence in large towns. The inhabitant of a large town, even the richest, who is surrounded by the greatest luxury, is continually exposed to unfavorable influences which diminish his vital powers far more than what is inevitable. He breathes an atmosphere charged with organic detritus; he eats stale, contaminated, adulterated food; he feels himself in a state of constant nervous excitement, and one can compare him without exaggeration to the inhabitant of a marshy district. The effect of a large town on the human organism offers the closest analogy to that of the Maremma, and its population falls victim to the same fatality of degeneracy and destruction as the victims of malaria. The death rate in a large town is more than a quarter greater than the average for the entire population. It is double that of the open country, though in reality it ought to be less, since in a large town the most vigorous ages predominate, during which the mortality is lower than in infancy

and old age. And the children of large towns who are not carried off at an early age suffer from the peculiar arrested development which Morel has ascertained in the population of fever districts. They develop more or less normally until they are 14 or 15 years of age, are up to that time alert, sometimes brilliantly endowed, and give the highest promise. Then suddenly there is a standstill. The mind loses its facility of comprehension; and the boy, who only yesterday was a model scholar, becomes an obtuse, clumsy dunce, who can only be steered with the greatest difficulty through his examinations. With these mental changes bodily modifications go hand in hand. The growth of the long bones is extremely slow or ceases entirely, the legs remain short, the pelvis retains a feminine form, certain other organs cease to develop, and the entire being presents a strange and repulsive mixture of incompleteness and decay. Now, we know how in the last generation the number of inhabitants of great towns increased to an extraordinary degree. At the present time an incomparably larger portion of the whole population is subjected to the destructive influences of large towns than was the case fifty years ago. Hence the number of victims is proportionately more striking, and continually becomes more remarkable. Parallel with growth of large towns is the increase in the number of the degenerate of all kinds, criminals, lunatics, and the higher degenerates of Magnan; and it is natural that these last should play an ever more prominent part in endeavoring to introduce an ever greater element of insanity into art and literature."

Many people think Nordau like the patient in the asylum. He thinks everybody crazy except himself. But Dr. Walter B. Platt, in a paper read before this association in 1887, points out certain dangers to the constitution to which every dweller in cities is of necessity exposed from physical causes, specially mentioning disuse of the upper extremities, the exposure to incessant noise and its cumulative effect on the whole nervous system, the jarring of the brain and spinal cord by a continual treading upon unyielding pavements. And he adds that good authorities assert that there are very few families now living in London who with their predecessors have resided there continuously for three generations; but he excepts from the operations of these deleterious influences those whose circumstances are such as to enable them to spend a considerable portion of each year in the country.

Dr. Grace Peckham, in a paper read before this association in 1885, says: "However it was arrived at, the census of 1880 shows that the infant mortality of cities in this country is twice as great as that of the rural districts."

Everyone who has taken an interest in Mr. Charles Loring Brace's great work in the city of New York knows that his firm belief was that the salvation of the city poor depended on getting the surplus into country homes; and few men have been more competent to judge or more ready to look at all sides of a case than he. The literature of the slums is full of every human horror; and it would seem as if any change must be for the better.

Dr. Josiah Strong, in that vigorous presentation of the dangers of our American civilization entitled *Our Country*, says: "The city has become a serious menace to our civilization, because in it each of our dangers is enhanced and all are localized. It has a peculiar attraction for the immigrant. In 1880 our fifty principal cities contained 39.3 per cent of our German population and 45.8 per cent of our Irish. Not only does the proportion of the poor increase with the growth of the city, but their condition becomes more wretched. Dives and Lazarus are brought face to face." Speaking of Dives and Lazarus, has Dives had what you might call quite fair play? Even Judas has had his apologists, but I do not remember ever to have seen any speculation as to what would have become of Lazarus if he had not been fed from Dives's table. Doubtless he preferred that to the poorhouse or even to tramping; and from all accounts, he was not exactly the sort of person you would choose for a parlor boarder. This, however, is a mere passing comment, and, I trust, will not involve me in any theologic discussion; but I do like to see even the devil have his due.

The feature of cities which is perhaps at present attracting more attention than any other is their misgovernment. Dr. Strong begins a paragraph thus: "The government of the city is by a 'boss' who is skilled in the manipulation of the 'machine,' and who holds no political principles except 'for revenue only.'" If a foreigner were to read that sentence he would infer that "boss" was the English for the chief magistrate of a city, but we know so well just what it means that it scarcely attracts our attention. * * *

One would think after reading all this about the evils of cities from the time of Cain to the last New York election, or, rather, let us say, to the last but one—and especially when we must admit that we know everything that is said to be true, and that even then not the half nor the tenth part has been told, and we are almost driven to the conclusion that nothing short of the treatment applied to Sodom and Gomorrah will meet the necessities of the case—that every sane man and woman should flee without stopping for the open country; and the women especially should be careful

how they look behind them, and be sure to remember Lot's wife, and nothing should induce them to turn their faces cityward again.

Now, in spite of all this precisely the reverse is true, and, while there has always been a strong tendency in humanity cityward, this nineteenth century sees it intensified beyond all former experience. Statistics do not make interesting public reading, but from Dr. Strong's valuable work, where there are many, we take a few in support of our position:

"The population of this country as divided between city and country was, in 1790, omitting fractions, country 97 per cent, city 3 per cent; in 1840, country 91 per cent, city 9 per cent; in 1890, country 71 per cent, city 29 per cent; and the rate of increase is itself all the while increasing."

In 1856 Chicago had a population of 90,000. In 1895 it is supposed to have 1,500,000, with several outlying districts not yet heard from. In this classification, which is taken from the United States census, towns of 8,000 and over rank as cities, while the rest is country. Of course a line must be drawn somewhere for the purpose of statistics, but many think it might more properly have been drawn at 5,000, which would largely increase the city percentage. Dr. Strong also quotes this statement: That in the rural districts of Wayne County, N. Y., there are 400 unoccupied houses, and much other valuable statistical information of a similar character. Professor Nordau also has many statistics of various European countries, all to the same purport. But the general fact of the enormous increase of the city at the expense of the country is so notorious that it needs no proof. Let us consider some of its causes.

It is well to notice, and perhaps here as well as anywhere, that, while in all countries the influence of the city has been great, it has not been equally great in all. Rome was the Roman Empire. Carthage was Phœnicia. Paris to-day is France. But London, big as it is, is not England; Madrid is not Spain, and, certainly, Berlin is not Germany. In all these cases there is a power and a public opinion, a consensus of thought, a moral, political, and social influence in the country as a whole, which does not look to nor depend upon the city as its maker, leader, and guide. It is easier to see and feel this fact than to analyze and explain it. Probably the same reasons or kinds of reasons do not apply in every case, but each has its own, some of which are easy to find and others too deep and elusive to be discovered. Accidents of early history, geographical relations, the temper and idiosyncrasies of a people, and other influences, some broader and some more subtle, all combine to fix the relative position and importance of the great city and the country or the lesser town. Speaking of Constantinople, Mr. Frederic Harrison says:

"There is but one city of the world of which it can be said that for fifteen centuries and a half it has been the continuous seat of empire under all the changes of race, institutions, customs, and religions. And this may be ultimately traced to its incomparable physical and geographical capabilities."

In England more than in any other country, as it seems to me, country life is regarded as the normal condition of a fully developed man; and even then it is only those who keep themselves polished by frequent attrition with city life that accomplish much for themselves or their fellow-men. But probably the lesson to be drawn is that a life where both the city and country have a part develops the highest form of manhood and is the end to be striven for.

Ancient cities owed their existence to a variety of causes. Probably safety and convenience were, at the bottom, the reasons for aggregating the population; but any special city frequently owed its existence, so far as appears, to the mere caprice of a ruler as a passing fancy—though he may have had his reasons—sometimes, doubtless, to military considerations, and sometimes perhaps to accident, or to migration, or the results of natural causes, geographical or commercial. It was not until the Middle Ages that the industrial town was evolved. But the modern town seems wholly industrial in its *raison d'être*; it is therefore governed by the laws which govern industrial progress.

Buckle says: "Formerly the richest countries were those in which nature was most bountiful. Now the richest countries are those in which man is most active." (He also adds, although perhaps it has no special significance in this connection, that "it is evident that the more men congregate in great cities the more they will become accustomed to draw their material of thought from the business of human life and the less attention they will pay to those proclivities of nature which are a fatal source of superstition.")

Aside from all questions of mutual defense and protection and mutual helpfulness in various ways and industrial convenience, doubtless one of the very strongest of forces in the building of the city is the human instinct of gregariousness. This underlies ancient as well as modern, military as well as industrially founded aggregations, and the hamlet or the village as well as the city. But there is always a craving to get where there are more people. The countryman, boy or girl, longs for the village, the villager for the larger town, and the dweller in the larger town for the great city; and, having once gone, they are seldom satisfied to return to a place of less size,

In short, whatever man may have been or may be in his prognathous or troglodyte condition, ever since we have known much about him he has been highly gregarious, even under unfavorable conditions.

As long ago as 1870 Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted, in a paper read before this association, said, "There can be no doubt that in all our modern civilization, as in that of the ancients, there is a strong drift toward;" and he quotes the language of an intelligent woman whose early life had been spent in one of the most agreeable and convenient farming countries in the United States: "If I were offered a deed of the best farm I ever saw, on condition of going back to the country to live, I would not take it. I would rather face starvation in town."

The life of the great city would seem to bear hardest of all on the very poor, and the country, or at least suburban, life to present the strongest attraction, by contrast, to this class. Pure air, plenty of water, room for children to play, milk on which to feed them, room to sleep, wholesome food for adults—these things, almost impossible to the poor in the city, are nearly all of easy attainment in the country; yet the overmastering desire for a city life seems to be stronger with this class than with any other. Perhaps you are familiar with the story of the kind lady who found a widow with a great family of children living in the depths of poverty and dirt in the city, and moved them all to a comfortable country home where, with a moderate amount of exertion, they were sure of a living. At the end of six weeks her country agent reported that the family had suddenly disappeared, no one knew where. Going back to the neighborhood of their old haunts, she found them all reestablished there in the same circumstances of dirt and destitution as of old. "Why did you leave that comfortable home and come back here?" was her astonished inquiry. "Folks is more company nor sthoomps, anyhow," was the answer. Poor food, and little of it, dirt and discomfort, heat and cold—all count as nothing in competition with this passion of gregariousness and desire for human society, even where that means more or less of a constant fight as the popular form of social intercourse.

Doubtless one of the most potent factors in the modern growth of cities has been the immense improvement in the facilities for travel, which has been such a marked characteristic of the last half century. But, after all, what is this but saying that it has been made easier for people to go where they wished to be? Facilities for travel make it as easy to get from city to country as from country to city; but the tide, except for temporary purposes, all sets one way. Nevertheless, there is no question that this ease of locomotion has been availed of to a surprising extent in transporting each year in the summer season a very large portion, not of the rich alone, but of nearly every class, not only from our great cities but from our moderately large towns, to the woods and lakes and seashore for a time. The class of people who, fifty years since, lived in the same house the year round, without thought of change, now deem a six or twelve weeks' residence in the country a vital necessity; and this fact is a great alleviation and antidote to some of the unfavorable influences of city life.

All modern industrial life tends to concentration as a matter of economy. It has long been remarked that the best place to establish or carry on any kind of business is where that business is already being done. For that reason we see different kinds of manufactures grouping themselves together—textiles in one place, metals in another; and, of the textiles, cottons in one place, woollens in another; and of the metals, iron in one place, copper in another, and so on. The reason of this is obvious. In a community where a certain kind of business is carried on the whole population unconsciously become, to a certain extent, experts. They know a vast deal more of it than people who have had no such experience. Every man, woman, and child in a fishing village is much superior in his or her knowledge of fish, bait, boats, wind, and weather to the inhabitants of inland towns. This is true of all the arts, so that, besides the trained hands which may be drawn upon when needed, there is a whole population of half-trained ones ready to be drawn upon to fill their places. Then, every kind of business is partly dependent on several other kinds. There must be machine makers, blacksmiths, millwrights, and dealers in supplies of all sorts. Where there is a large business of any kind these subsidiary trades that are supported by it naturally flock around it; whereas in an isolated situation the central establishment must support all these trades itself or go a considerable distance when it needs their assistance. Fifty or sixty years ago small manufacturing establishments in isolated situations and on small streams were scattered all through the Eastern States. The condition of trade at that time rendered this possible. Now they have almost wholly disappeared, driven out by economic necessity; and their successors are in the cities and large towns.

If you will examine any city newspaper of fifty or sixty years ago, you will find frequent advertisements for boys as clerks in stores; and almost always they read "one from the country preferred." Now you never see this. Why is it? I think mainly because the class of boys which these advertisements were expected to attract from the country are no longer there. This was really a call for the

well-educated boys of the well-to-do farmers of native stock, who thought they could better themselves by going to a city. They went, and did better themselves; and those who stayed behind fell behind. The country people deteriorated, and the country boy was no longer for business purposes the equal of the boy who had been trained in city ways. Country boys still go to the city; but they are not advertised for, and have to find their own way.

Our great civil war compelled us to find out some way in which to replace the productive power of a million men sent into the field and suddenly changed from producers into consumers. Their places had to be filled in the lines of agriculture and of all the mechanic arts, in the counting room, in the pulpit, at the bar, and everywhere else where a soldier was to be found. A hundred thousand of these places, more or less, in shops, in mechanic industries, in counting rooms, in the medical profession, even at the pulpit and the bar, were filled with women; and the deficit left by the remainder of the million was supplied by newly invented machinery to do their work. The result was that when the war was over a million of men, or as many as came back, found their places filled. They were no longer needed. In all rural occupations this was especially the case; and, being driven out the country by want of work, they flocked to the city as the most likely place to find it. The disturbing influence in financial, economic, and industrial matters of this sudden change of a million men from producers to consumers and back again to producers, followed as it was soon after by the disturbing influences of the Franco-Prussian war, have never been given their due weight by students of sociology.

We must remember, too, that cities as places of human habitation have vastly improved within half a century. About fifty years ago neither New York nor Boston had public water, and very few of our cities had either water or gas, and horse railroads had not been thought of. When we stop to think what this really means in sanitary matters, it seems to me that the increase of cities is no longer a matter of surprise.

A few years since the great improvement of the lift or elevator added probably 10 per cent actually, and much more than that theoretically, to the possibilities of population on a given amount of ground; and now within a very recent period three new factors have been suddenly developed which promise to exert a powerful influence on the problems of city and country life. These are the trolley, the bicycle, and the telephone. It is impossible at present to foresee just what their influence is to be on the question of the distribution of population; but this much is certain, that it adds from 5 to 15 miles to the radius of every large town, bringing all this additional area into new relations to business centers. Places 5 or 10 miles apart and all the intervening distances are rendered accessible and communicable for all the purposes of life as if they were in the next street. Already the bicycle has done more toward directing attention and effort to the improvement of ordinary highways than all that has been done before since the days of Indian paths. It is affecting the legislation of the country on the subject of roads. When we think of what this minimizing of distance means we can not help seeing that its influence must be immense, but just what no man can foretell. It is by such apparently unimportant, trifling, and inconspicuous forces that civilization is swayed and molded in its evolutions and no man can foresee them or say whither they lead.

Cities, as desirable places of human habitation, seem to have touched low-water mark—as did almost everything else—in that miserable period of comparative cessation in human progress known to us in European history as the “Dark” or “Middle Ages.” Babylon had its gardens and its perennial streams of pure water running through its streets; Damascus, its wonderful groves and gardens. Old Rome had its mighty aqueducts traversing the country like lines of pillared temples and bringing the full flow of the mountain streams into the heart of the city, where it irrigated the great gardens and pleasure grounds of the wealthy nobles, and sported in fountains for everybody, and furnished baths for the benefit of the mass of the people. And many other large cities on both shores of the Mediterranean were but a duplicate of Rome. But, when the people had in some way lost their grip, either through luxury or gluttony or the idleness which came of having no great wars on hand, or whatever it may have been, their waterworks fell out of repair, their baths went to ruin, the Goths came and finished up the job, and the last state of that people was worse, very much worse, than the first. London, which had its rise and great growth in these days of ignorance and darkness, was a great straggling village, without a vestige of sanitary appliances, without decent roads, infested by robbers, and altogether such a place as pestilence delights in and only fire can purify. Mr. Frederic Harrison is so impressed with this that he seems to think the Christianity of those days largely responsible for the increase of dirt that was contemporaneous with its early growth, and that, in its stern repression of luxurious living and care for the body, it affords a very unfavorable contrast to the cleaner and more sanitary ways of the earlier time. Probably this is not without much truth; but there were other forces at work affecting alike both saints and sinners. Yet in these mediæval cities,

miserable places as many of them often were for human dwellings, there were certain forces at work which have done as much for humanity, and for modern civilization as any that can be named. Cities have always been nurseries of freemen.

The Rev. Dr. James W. Cooper, in a recent address, says:

"It is a significant fact that in the development of society productive industry and political liberty have always gone together. There has been no manufacturing or trading people known to history, from the ancient Tyrians to the mediæval Florentines and the modern English, which has not also been a free people. Business enterprise demands freedom and develops it. Men must have liberty if they are to combine in business ventures, and through such combinations they learn also to unite their interests in other than mere business ways for the common weal. There is a close connection between the private fortune of each and the property of all, if it can only be discerned; and practical, pushing men are ordinarily the first to discern it."

"If you go back to the fourteenth or fifteenth century, you will find the seeds of modern civilization in the little towns and free cities which were just then beginning to develop an independent life all over England and on the Continent. * * * With the introduction of manufactures came the town, and with the town there came insistence on personal rights, a self-respecting, self-governing, compact community was developed, the castle was defied, the old feudal system of the Middle Ages gave way before the new civilization, and the modern era was ushered in. This was accomplished by the towns. It is the habit just now to praise the country and decry the town. We quote Cowper, and say, 'God made the country, man made the town.' I suppose this is true. But God also made man who made the town, * * * and, while the beginning of things was a garden in the paradise of Eden, the end of things, as prophesied in the Book of Revelation, is a city, magnificent and populous, the new Jerusalem."

In a paper read before this association in 1885 on city and country schools, Mr. W. M. Beckner says: "Cities have played a noble part in the struggle for light and progress. In Europe they were the first to rebel against the feudal system. In England, London always led the fight against tyranny." Indeed there is plenty of historical proof of this fact. "The ordering of secular matters appertaineth not to the Pope," said the burghers of London in the year 1215, a time when the Pope himself and a great many other people thought that the ordering of everything that was worth ordering appertained to him. I find also the following in a book of parliamentary usages: "At the first meeting of a new Parliament the members for the city of London, in court dress or uniform, take seats on the treasury bench, which are afterwards vacated for the ministers of the day. This privilege is accorded to them in commemoration of the part taken by the city in 1642 in defense of the privilege of Parliament and the protection given to the five members who took refuge in the city when their arrest had been attempted by King Charles. This usage was observed," it says, "at the meeting of Parliament in April, 1880." London and Bristol were the sympathizers and staunch friends of America in our own Revolution.

It is remarked, too, I think, by Mr. J. R. Green, that the important part in all public matters played by the trade guilds, which were only found in cities, and their influence as a whole toward freedom, although at times despotic within themselves, is too well known to need any lengthy reference.

Prof. George Burton Adams, in his History of Mediæval Civilization, says: "It is in Italy, however, that the most revolutionary changes which mark the new age are to be seen. There Frederick found himself opposed by an entirely new and most determined energy—the cities."

And in the history of freedom the very names of Utrecht, Dort, Haarlem, Leyden, Magdeburg, Hamburg, Bruges, Wittenberg, Eisenach, and Worms, of Padua, Bologna, and Florence, of Warsaw, Prague, and Buda-Pesth, to which may be added London, Bristol, and Boston, ring with the story of popular rights and human liberty.

Frederic Harrison says: "The life that men live in the city gives the type and measure of their civilization. The word 'civilization' means the manner of life of the civilized part of the community—that is, of the city men, not of the countrymen, who are called rusties, and were once called pagans (pagani), or the heathen of the villages." And another says: "A great and beautiful city surely draws to her the observant and thoughtful souls from every district, and, if she does not keep them, sends them home refined and transmuted."

Some modern woman is quoted as saying that, if one has to run the gauntlet of two or three hundred pair of sharply scrutinizing eyes, the consciousness of a Paris dress is worth any amount of moral principle. And Sappho, who sang six or seven hundred years before the Christian era, says:

What country maiden charms thee,
However fair her face,
Who knows not how to gather
Her dress with artless grace?

If they "didn't know everything down in Judee," it is clear that in Lesbos they knew two or three.

In contrast with the statements of Nordau and of others in regard to the unfavorable sanitary conditions of city life, it must be noticed that it is always in cities that those who can afford it get the best food; and, if you are living in the country, you are largely dependent on the city for your supply. The summer seashore visitor usually finds, if he takes the trouble to investigate, that his fresh fish comes from the nearest great city, also his meat, and quite likely his butter and eggs, and nearly everything except perhaps his milk. To be sure, they came from the country first in many cases; but they seek the best market, and are to be best found at it.

It is also only in great cities, as a rule, that the best medical skill can be obtained. There we all go or send to have our most serious diseases treated and our most critical surgical operations performed. It is almost wholly owing to the unsanitary condition among the children of the very poor that the city death rate is so high.

Mr. C. F. Wingate, in a paper read here in 1885, quotes Dr. Sargent as saying that "life in towns is, on the whole, more healthful than in the country;" also Sir Charles Dilke, in speaking of recent sanitary improvements in England, as saying that "the exceptions are mostly found in the rural districts." This apparent discrepancy between these statements and some of the others is doubtless to be accounted for by the fact that the former had in mind the very poor, while the latter doubtless referred to the better conditioned.

I have been fairly familiar with the streets of New York and Boston for the last fifty years, and there is no fact in that connection with which I have been more impressed than the physical improvement which has taken place in both men and women during that period. The men are more robust and more erect, the women have greatly improved both in feature and carriage; and in the care and condition of the teeth in both sexes a surprising change has taken place. In Boston streets and street cars it seems to me that you see a hundred good-looking women where you formerly saw one. Whether this would hold good in the slums and low parts of the town may be doubted, but there of course one looks for the refuse and cast-off material of society.

A few years since I stood by the grave of a prominent man in one of our rural towns. By my side stood a man who had achieved a reputation both in literature and law. He said to me, "Who is that man opposite?" calling my attention to a tall, fine-looking man. "That," I replied, "is General H." "Ah!" said my friend, with accents of enthusiasm, "one needs to come into the rural districts to see the finest specimens of manhood." I said, "Look about, and see if you find any more." He did not find them. Then I said, "You have picked out the one man here who is in no sense a rural product. It is true this is his home, but his life is metropolitan or cosmopolitan; and those prematurely old, bowed, rheumatic, decrepid, and uninteresting people who make up most of the gathering are the true representatives of our rural population." I think I shattered an ideal, but the logic of facts was too strong to be resisted.

Perhaps this is as good a place as any to remark that when any occupation or calling in life or in a community becomes relatively less remunerative than the average, there begins at once, by natural selection, a process of personal deterioration of those engaged in it. In other words, success is the stepping stone to improvement. And in the rural districts of the Eastern States this deterioration has been going on now for fifty years.

Rev. Dr. Greer has recently said, speaking of clerical work in city and country:

"I think I should say that the difficulties in the country are greater than those in the city. There is more, I think, in common village life to lower and degrade and demoralize than in the city. Take the matter of amusements in the city. There are good ones, and we can make a choice. In the country one can not make a choice. If a theatrical company comes to a village, it is a poor company. If a concert is given, it is a poor concert. The entertainment is of a poor character. Then, again, there is a loneliness, an isolation in the country life; and this tends to lower and depreciate that life. I believe statistics show that a large contingent of the insane in our asylums come from the farms. That hard drudgery of struggle with the clod and the soil from early morning to evening twilight is a lonely and bitter struggle. There is a want of idealism."

I think it is Dr. Strong who says: "When population decreases and roads deteriorate, there is an increasing isolation, with which comes a tendency toward demoralization and degeneration. The mountain whites of the South afford an illustration of the results of such a tendency operating through several generations. Their heathenish degradation is not due to their antecedents, but primarily to their isolation." He also mentions communities in New England where like causes have produced a similar result. I think isolated rural life, where people seldom come in contact with dwellers in large towns, always tends to barbarism. I believe that

poorer people in our cities, if planted in isolated situations in the country, would deteriorate and grow barbaric in habit and thought, even though they might be physically in better condition. What very unattractive people most of our rural population are!

It is to be noted that the attrition and constant opportunity for comparison which city life makes possible, and even compulsory, tend to make all the people who are subjected to its influence alike. They do and see and hear and smell and eat the same things. They wear similar clothes, they read the same books, and their minds are occupied with the same objects of thought. In the end they even come to look alike, as married people are sometimes said to do, so that they are at once recognized when they are seen in some other place; while people who live isolated lives think their own thoughts, pursue different objects, and are compelled to depend upon their own judgments and wills for the conduct of their daily lives. The consequence is that they develop and increase peculiarities of character and conduct to the verge of eccentricity, if not beyond it, and present all that variety and freshness of type which we call originality or individuality. They are much more dramatic, picturesque, and interesting in literature, perhaps not always in real life. I mention this in passing, without any attempt to estimate fully the value of either development. Doubtless something is lost and something gained in either case, and probably much could be said in favor of each. Many persons have a great desire to get, as they say, "back to nature," while others prefer mankind in the improved state, even with some sameness.

The ideal life, time out of mind, for all who could afford it, has been the city for action, the country for repose, tranquillity, recuperation, rest. When Joab, the mighty captain of Judea, quarreled with King David, he retired to his country seat, in what was called the "Wilderness." When Cicero tired of the excitement of Rome, he found rest and quiet in Tusculum. When things went badly with Cardinal Wolsey, he sought refuge and repose in the Abbey of Leicester. Prince Bismarck retires from the frown of young Kaiser Wilhelm to Friedrichsruhe. The country is a good place to rest in, especially if one can control his surroundings. The quiet, the calm, the peace, the pleasant color, the idyllic sights and sounds, all tend to allay nervous irritation, to tranquilize the soul, to repress the intellectual, and to invigorate the animal functions in a very remarkable degree. But this is not rustic life; it is only the country life of the city resident. But the tranquil appearance of a country town, the apparent simplicity and serenity of rural life, the sweet idyllic harmony of rural surroundings are, as everyone must know who has much experience, very deceptive. I remember in one of Dickens's stories a man who lives the life of a traveling showman, one Dr. Marigold, says, in substance, that temper is bad enough anywhere, but temper in a cart is beyond all endurance. The small jealousies and rivalries, the ambitions, the bickerings and strifes of a small rural community, are greatly intensified by the circumscribed area in which they find their vent, and compared with the same human frailties in a larger sphere have all the drawbacks of temper in a cart.

Mr. (Lacon) Colton says: "If you would be known and not know, vegetate in a village. If you would know and not be known, live in a city." But to this it may be added that those who are known in a city are very much more widely known than they can be in the country. A happy fitness between the size of the person and the size of the place is doubtless productive of the most desirable results.

Mr. Shaw says:

"I am not willing to deduce any pessimistic conclusions from this general tendency, whether exhibited in England, in Germany, or in America. I do not for a moment believe that modern cities are hastening on to bankruptcy, that they are becoming dangerously socialistic in the range of their municipal activities, or that the high and even higher rates of local taxation thus far indicate anything detrimental to the general welfare. It all means simply that the great towns are remarking themselves physically, and providing themselves with the appointments of civilization, because they have made the great discovery that their new masses of population are to remain permanently. They have in practice rejected the old view that the evils of city life were inevitable, and have begun to remedy them and to prove that city life can be made not tolerable only for workingmen and their families, but positively wholesome and desirable."

It would seem then (1) that for economic reasons a large part of the work of the world must be done in cities, and the people who do that work must live in cities. (2) That almost everything that is best in life can be better had in the city than elsewhere, and that, with those who can command the means, physical comforts and favorable sanitary conditions are better obtained there. (3) That a certain amount of change from city to country is desirable, and is also very universally attainable to those who desire it, and is constantly growing more so. (4) That the city is growing a better place to live in year by year; that in regard to the degenerate portion of mankind, the very poor, the very wicked, or the very indifferent, it is a question

whether they are better off in the country; but, whether they are or not, their gregarious instincts will lead them to the city, and they must be dealt with there as part of the problem. (5) That efforts to relieve the congested conditions of the city poor by deportation of children to the country are good and praiseworthy, but only touch the surface of things, and that city degeneration must mainly be fought on its own ground.

Perhaps, too, the country needs some of our sympathy and care. It appears clear that here is a constant process of deterioration. Deserted farms and schools and churches mark the progress of ignorance and debasement, and threaten to again make the villagers pagani, as they were in the days of old. And improvement here is not the hopeless thing it might seem; but it must be on economic, and not on sentimental, lines.

The problems here discussed have but recently attracted general attention, and doubtless much is yet to be learned, but the progress already made is by no means small and all the signs are signs of promise.

GEORGIA.

[Address delivered October 31, 1893, by Hon. J. L. M. Curry, general agent of the Peabody and Slater funds, in response to an invitation of the general assembly of Georgia.]

Mr. President, Mr. Speaker, Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives of the General Assembly of Georgia:

I appreciate, I trust properly, the distinguished compliment of being invited to speak to you upon what the president of the senate has well characterized as the paramount subject of your deliberations. I count myself happy in appearing, also, in this magnificent hall of this magnificent capitol, which has, I understand, the rather exceptional merit of having been completed within the original appropriation, and of having been completed without stain or smirch resting upon anyone connected with it. I have the honor of appearing before men of distinguished ability, engaged in the most responsible work of lawmaking. Lawmaking is the attribute of sovereignty, and it is of the highest human honor and responsibility to be invested with this attribute. It would be carrying coals to Newcastle for me to say in this presence that the proper fulfilment of this function demands intelligence, patriotism, integrity, general acquaintance with law, political economy, and a thorough knowledge, not so much of what people desire or clamor for, as of what may be best for the people's needs and welfare. Divine law is the expression of omniscience and omnipotence; human law is the condition of civilization. Under the provocation of atrocious crimes, communities, aroused to indignation, have sometimes violated law. Sometimes, under the experiences of the law's delay and cheated justice, and burning with a desire to take vengeance upon odious malefactors, they have summarily, and sometimes with savage ferocity, deprived a suspected or guilty person of his life under the process of what is known as "lynch law." In pioneer and frontier life, communities have sometimes been compelled, for self-protection, to organize vigilance committees and take the law into their own hands. Such an extreme exigency does not exist at the South, nor excuse the illegal proceedings with which the papers are too often too full. The race of these criminals has not the possession of the government and is not charged with any of its functions. The white people, the race wronged and outraged, are in power, and control the legislative, executive, and judicial departments. As they are the judges, jurors, and executioners there is not the remotest possibility of one of these criminals, under just operation of law, going unwhipped of justice. A mob is a sudden revolution. It is enthroned anarchy. It is passion dominant, regnant. It usurps all the functions of government. It concentrates in itself all the rights and duties of lawmaker, judge, jury, counsel, and sheriff. A mob does not reason, has no conscience, is irresponsible, and its violence is unrestrained, whether it burns down an Ursuline convent, as in Massachusetts, or tortures a ruffian in Paris, Tex. A mob of infuriated men, or of hungry, enraged women, will violate all law, human and divine, and will be guilty of torturing, of quartering, of burning, of murder—enormities hardly surpassed by the most atrocious crimes. Life, property, person, character, perish as stubble before the flame, in the presence of a conscienceless, unthinking, aroused multitude. A rape is an individual crime, affecting disastrously, incurably, the person or the family; a mob saps the very foundations of society, uproots all government, regards not God nor man, is fructiferous of evil. The progress of mankind is to be found only along the lines of the higher organization of society. Our free institutions can not survive except on the condition of the union of enlightened liberty and stable law. Lawlessness and violence are the antipodes of liberty and social order. Obedience to the constituted authorities, to law, is of the essence of true freedom, of self-control, of civilization, of happiness, of masterful development. There probably is not a neighborhood in the United States which would not have summarily arrested and executed, without

a day's waiting, the fiend of Paris. But that infliction of merited punishment, coupled with vengeance, is not defensible, but is fruitful of manifold evils. To its disregard of law may be traced whitecapism in the West and South, in which self-constituted bands mercilessly execute their unauthorized judgments as to martial rights and obligations, political economy, personal duties, etc. It is a very grave error that democracy means the right of the people anywhere and everywhere, and in any way, to execute their passionate will. Ours is a representative government. Our representatives are not chosen because the people can not assemble en masse to legislate, adjudicate, and execute; but because the people ought not to assemble en masse to execute these functions of a complex government. I can fortify myself before a Georgia audience by quoting the expression of the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, who said before the bar association of this State: "The people have no hands for unlawful work. Justice is in the hands of the people only when it is in the hands of their organized tribunals."

I think it but a natural transition from these preliminary remarks to say that there is a wrong estimate of the power and effects of legislation. Too much is often expected of the general assemblies, as if the legislature were a sort of second-hand providence; and I suspect that not a few of you heard when you were candidates, or when you were about to leave for Atlanta, such inquiries as "What are you going to do for us? What will you do for us when you get to Atlanta?" I heard this very often when I was in public life. The world is governed too much. Some political thinker has said that the best government is that which governs the least. I would not altogether subscribe to the "let alone" theory, because it may be pushed to extremes. There are two great factors of modern, progressive, civilized life. They are wise social organizations and proper individual development. Bearing these two factors in mind, I think you will not fail to see the relativity of my introductory remarks to what will follow. In cases of commercial distress, agricultural depression, financial crisis, national bankruptcy, we are too prone to seek for legislative cures and political nostrums, but all the legislation that you could pass from now until next Christmas would not increase one iota the real returns of agriculture. There are some knaves—not in Georgia, I hope—more demagogues, and a good many fools, who are trying to find a short cut to national and individual prosperity by treating wealth as if it were a thing that could be created by statute without the intervention of labor, forgetting that the products of labor represent all that there is of wealth in a country. Now, there are some universally established truths in political and legislative economy. Great changes, new systems of finance and trade, are not to be ordered as if you were to order a new suit of clothes according to a certain pattern. History condemns South Sea bubbles, John Law schemes of finance, shin-plaster, and fiat currency. Building Chinese walls around your country and erecting barriers against foreign trade never made a nation prosperous any more than the absurd notion, revived in recent times, that what makes one nation rich impoverishes the other, what one gains another loses. Now, we have serious agricultural depression in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and in all the Southern States. The abolition of slavery was a gigantic revolution. Did it ever occur to you that there is not in the annals of history anything comparable to it in its unprecedented magnitude and suddenness? This, with other effects of the war, paralyzed Southern industries and produced individual and general impoverishment.

African slavery was a great economic curse. I am not speaking of it politically, socially, or morally, but it brought upon the South the curse of ignorant, compulsory, uninventive labor, undiversified products of agriculture, and sparse population. It was an interdict effectual upon invention, thrift, development of varied resources, diversity of employments, large and profitable use of machinery, improvement of soil, construction of good country roads, establishment of free public schools. These were the results of African slavery as an economic force. Curse as it was, it suggests a remedy for its evils. What are we to do? We must increase and make more valuable and diversified our products, and we must improve our country roads. Whatever facilitates exchange of products is a blessing. It will not be worth while to produce unless we can exchange what is beyond our own consumption. What do you need in Georgia? You need intelligent, skilled labor. Many of your laborers are ignorant, stupidly so, of every element of art and science. I spoke to a negro the other day at a railway station about his future. His reply was characteristic: "I ain't got nothing, and I don't want nothing." What is the worth of a system which produces such men? What you want is an alliance of brains and hands, with habits of thrift and cleanliness, and increased capacity of production.

Now, Mr. President, I affirm that no ignorant people were ever prosperous or happy. You may measure the growth, the progress, development, and the prosperity of a people by their advance in culture, in intelligence, in skill; and you can measure the decline of a people by their decline in culture, intelligence, and skill. In the United States there are twenty millions of horsepower at work, lowering the cost of production, cheapening the necessaries of life, giving to toil a larger reward. Much

of what handiwork did has been displaced by labor-saving machinery. Guiding the plow with the hand, mowing grass with the scythe, cutting grain with the cradle—this is fast disappearing from enlightened communities. The steam harvester and thrasher have rendered the work of saving the grain crops more rapid and less arduous. Science has found practical application, and ceases to be mere theory; it has allied itself with the useful arts. Machinery has released thousands from a weary struggle for supply of mere animal wants, and has permitted them to take up other pursuits, such as mining, manufactures, mechanical arts, gardening, fruit raising, etc., but this wealth-creating industry demands intelligence, thrift, and saving. Industry has thus received great benefit; the people have gained hope, inspiration, and life from the applications of the principles of science, have gained, finally, command of all of the resources of nature and have had opened for themselves the highest rewards of intelligent industry.

It needs to be repeated and emphasized that national wealth is not the result of chance, or fraud, or legislative hocus-pocus, or stockjobbing manipulations or adroit dealing in futures. It is the result of honest, intelligent labor. The elements of wealth exist in nature in manifold forms, but must be fitted for human wants by labor. Through all transitions from natural condition to finished and useful artificial state, each successive process adds to the value. To utilize the powers of nature, the elements of property and wealth, is, in beneficent results, proportionate to the intelligence employed. The value created is almost in the direct ratio of the skill of the worker. Labor is not spontaneous nor self-willed, but must have behind it an intelligent control. Stupid labor is confined to a narrow routine, to a few, simple products. Unskilled labor is degraded necessarily to coarser employments. What makes work honorable, productive, remunerative, what elevates a man above a brute, is work directed by intelligence. The best method of applying power might be illustrated by such common processes as turning a grindstone, shoveling manure, harnessing a horse, driving a nail. Among the aristocracy of the old world and the Bourbons of the new is a current theory that it is best for the lower classes, the mudsills of society, the common laborers, to remain in ignorance. I have no patience with men who say that education for the ordinary occupations of life is a wasted investment, or who deny the utility or the feasibility of furnishing to wage earners and breadwinners an education suited to the industries of real life. Will our impoverished people never see that ignorant labor is terribly expensive, that it is a tax, indirect but enormous, bringing injury to the material worked, to the tools or implements employed, wasting force and lessening and making less valuable what is produced?

The president has declared what was intended as the burden of my address. While there are local interests and concerns that may interest you, there is one question, overtopping all others, that goes into the very household, that concerns every individual, that is allied to every interest; and that is how to furnish cheaper and more efficient means of education for the boys and girls of the State. When I speak of this being the paramount subject of legislation, I mean to say that the duty of the legislator is not only to look after education in Clarke County, in Cobb County, but to have the means of education carried to every child, black and white, to every citizen within the limits of the State. I mean universal education; free education; the best education; without money and without price. The great mistake in legislators and people is that, while they profess to be friends of education, and satisfy themselves that they are, they are talking and thinking of the public schools as poor schools for poor children, and not as good schools, the best schools, for the education of all. Here is field and scope for the exercise of the highest powers of statesmanship. This universal education is the basis of civilization, the one vital condition of prosperity, the support of free institutions. All civilized governments support and maintain schools. In semicivilized countries there is no recognition of the right to improvement, nor of the duty of the government to support universal education. William Ewart Gladstone is the greatest statesman of this century. Financier, scholar, orator, with marvellous administrative capacity, even to the minutest details of departmental and governmental work, and shows his appreciation of education by giving to the vice-president of the council of education a seat in his cabinet, and he is the only British prime minister who has so honored education. Last year I was reading brief biographical sketches of the candidates of the Republican and Democratic parties of Massachusetts for the various State offices—governor, attorney-general, etc.—and every one of them, with one exception, had been trained in the common schools of the State, and, therefore, when in office, they would understand what people were talking about when they advocated common schools, and would feel as Emerson said, that if Massachusetts had no beautiful scenery, no mountains abounding in minerals, yet she had an inexhaustible wealth in the children of the Commonwealth. None of you, perhaps, were educated in the public schools. How many times do you visit the public schools? How many times in the last year have you gone into a public school and sat down

on the rear bench and watched the teacher teaching, in order to know what is being done in these great civilizing agencies of the State?

A few years ago the King of Prussia, through Bismarck, issued a call for an educational conference, and he took part with educators and scholars in the discussions. In my journeys through the South, pleading for the children, I have found one governor from whom I never fail to receive a sympathetic response to every demand or argument that I may present for higher or general education. In days that are to come, when you shall record what Rabun did, what Troup, what Clarke, what McDonald, what Johnson, what Gilmer, what Jenkins, what Brown, what Gordon, what Stephens, and what other governors of Georgia have done, there will be no brighter page, none more luminous with patriotism, broad-minded, honest, intelligent, beneficent patriotism, devotion to the highest interests of the State, than that which shall record the fact that the great school governor of the South was William J. Northen. [Great applause.]

The most interesting and profitable changes that have been made in the ends of modern education is the incorporation of manual training in the curriculum, so as to bring education into contact with the pursuits of every day. The three r's, reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic, used to be the standard. We should add the three h's, and develop, *pari passu* with the three r's, the hand, head, and heart, so that we may develop the child intellectually, physically, and morally, and so have the completest manhood and womanhood. Oh! it is a sad spectacle to see the ordinary graduate from one of our colleges, with an armful of diplomas, standing on the platform receiving bouquets, and ready to step across the threshold and enter the arena of active life. You congratulate him because he has acquired knowledge in the school-room. But what can he do? What can he produce? What wealth can he create? What aid can he render civilization? He may be a lawyer. A lawyer never yet made two blades of grass grow where only one grew before. [Laughter.] Now, you show that you agree with what I am saying. [Laughter.] I have no sympathy, however, allow me to say it, with the vulgar, ignorant, stupid prejudice that some people have against lawyers. None in the world. [Applause.] You may trace the history of free government in all the struggles for right and liberty, you may study with profoundest admiration the constitutions, the embodiments of political wisdom, and every page of that history you will find illuminated by the wisdom of lawyers. But I say of lawyers what I say of doctors. Doctors do not add one cent to the wealth of the community. Neither do preachers. They are valuable; you can not do without them. But the lawyer, the doctor, the preacher, the editor, do not add one cent to the assessed value of the property in Georgia. Wealth comes from productive labor, and wealth is in proportion to the skill of the labor. It is the mechanic, the farmer, the miner, the manufacturer, the fruit grower, who add wealth to the community and to the country. The others are indispensable in the distribution of the products of labor, in the transactions of business between man and man, and in a thousand ways, but they do not create wealth.

Let me come back to what I was saying, that the graduate of your college is educated to be a clerk, doctor, lawyer, preacher. You may turn him out of college and he will tramp the streets of your cities, of Atlanta, Augusta, Savannah, to find some place in the bank, or some place in a doctor's or lawyer's office. He has been educated away from business, from ordinary productive pursuits, and has a distaste for labor. If his natural bent had been followed, if he had been taught the application of science to business, made familiar with tools and constructive machinery, he would have turned out, in very many cases, something more useful than he will be after having entered one of the learned professions.

I wish some of you would stop over some time on your way to New York at Washington or Philadelphia and go through the public schools. You would see that from the kindergarten to the high school there is no schoolroom where the pupils can not be taught the application of scientific principles to everyday life, and from which they can not come with a knowledge of the common tools and their uses. England learned that in order to hold the markets of the world she had to teach her children in industrial schools. She discovered that her trade was slipping away from her because of the lack of industrial training on the part of her working people. France gives manual training to both sexes.

Saxony, a manufacturing country, had in 1889 115 trade or industrial schools, it being discovered that "a thorough professional education alone can aid the tradesman in his struggle for life." Statistics show a constant improvement of economic conditions. The flourishing orchards, with their world-renowned wealth of fruit, in Austria, Hungary, Bavaria, and Oldenburg, are directly traceable to the introduction of practical instruction in the school gardens. Prussia has introduced into the normal schools instruction in the culture of fruit and forest trees, and "the admirably managed forests and vast orchards of Prussia owe their existence and excellent yield in no small degree to the unostentatious influence of the country schoolmaster who teaches his pupils in school and the adult villagers in agricultural clubs."

As much as we may boast of our free institutions we are far behind the rest of the world in industrial education, in the application of scientific principles to daily life. We abuse Russia, but Russia has 1,200 technological schools; Belgium has 25,000 pupils in her trade schools; Denmark, 6,000; Italy, 16,000. Georgia has no trade school for white children. She has, fortunately, one noble technological school, which I commend to your support and your encouragement. The other day I went to Newport News, which, as you know, is at the mouth of James River, on Hampton Bay, in the State of Virginia. The largest shipbuilding works and the largest dry dock in the United States are at Newport News. They recently received contracts for the construction of United States vessels, and are prepared to do all such work in the best possible manner. I went through the works. I had an old Confederate soldier to pilot me. When I asked about the improvements in the place his heart rejoiced. I was there when the dinner hour arrived. From the shops and works men came in great numbers, until it seemed there must have been 1,000. I said to my friend, "Where do these men come from?" He replied that they came from various parts of the world. "Are there any from the South?" said I. "Oh, yes," said he. "What do you pay these men?" I asked. "From one dollar a day up to eight or ten." "Do any of these old Confederates get the eight or ten?" With a deep sigh and with a tear in his eye, he said: "No; no Confederate among them. The Confederate soldiers," he continued, "and the negroes get a dollar a day; the Northern and European laborers get the six or ten dollars a day." "Why is this?" I asked. "Because," said he, "they have had industrial training at home. They come from their shops and from their training schools, and they put intelligence into their work, and they get for it the best wages."

And yet, when I stand here and appeal to Georgians for manual-labor schools, you say that man is a theorizer; he is taking up the time of the legislature, which should be passing an act to declare Goose Creek a highway, or to build a road across Possum Swamp, or a bridge over Terrapin Hollow! [Laughter.]

Last year, Mr. President, I was in Asia Minor. If any of you have read The Prince of India you will remember some account of the town of Brusa, southeast of Constantinople. I saw there hundreds of donkeys and women with loads of mulberry leaves. A few years ago the silk trade seemed likely to become extinct, because of an insect that was destroying the mulberry trees and attacking the cocoons. Thousands of trees were cut down. The people are now replanting the mulberry trees, and trade is springing up again. It is because Pasteur, the great curer of hydrophobia, subjected the cocoons to a microscopic examination, discovered the insect and applied a remedy. He applied scientific knowledge to the work of saving the silk trade. A school of sericulture has been established, the mulberry trees are being planted, and the people are growing prosperous again.

When you came here you took the oath to support the Constitution, and it says that there shall be a thorough system of common schools, free to all children, for education in the elementary branches of an English education. This mandate requires general, or State, and local supervision, neat and healthy houses, grading and classifying of the pupils, adequate local and State revenues. A valued friend said to me last night that Georgia is spending too much money for public schools. Let us see how this is. Agricultural depression is more serious and more harmful in Mississippi than in any other State, because it is so exclusively agricultural, having few manufacturing interests, little commerce, and no big cities. And yet Mississippi pays for her public schools \$7.80 on every thousand dollars of the taxable value of property; Illinois pays \$14.40; Texas, \$4.80; Nebraska, \$18.70; Massachusetts, \$3.80; New York, \$4.50. Georgia's educational tax proper for the support of the public schools is \$1.40 on the thousand dollars! What do you say to that? Can you expect to equal other States in school advantages unless you increase the revenues going to the public schools? Let it be borne in mind that outside the cities, the local or extra-State revenues are very meager. The Southern States raise on an average about 36 cents per capita of population.

But you need not only to increase the revenues supporting the common schools—you need promptly and properly paid teachers. The worst thing that I have ever heard about my native State, Georgia, is that she has permitted the teachers in her public schools—poorly paid as they are—to go month after month without receiving the pittance of their hard-earned salaries! [Applause.] If I were the legislature I would not let the sun go down before I wiped away this crime against the teachers of the State. I only echo what you will find in the governor's message, in the report of Captain Bradwell, and in the lamentations of the teachers.

The training of the teachers is implicitly contained in the compulsory establishment of schools. By making education an integral part of the government you are under strongest obligation to provide good schools. The teacher is the school. You can not have a thorough system of common schools without good teachers. You can not have good teachers without paying them promptly their salaries and without training them to teach. Unfortunately our normal schools are handicapped by the

unpreparedness of the pupils to be taught how to teach. Thorough general training should precede professional training, and is its best preparation for it. Take a school of medicine or of law and combine it with elementary education. It would be absurd. It is none the less absurd to combine elementary instruction with professional training for teaching. Teachers should know the history of education and of educational methods, and practical and definite application of the principles of education; and these things should not be dead rules. The teacher goes from the concrete to the abstract; from special to general; from known to unknown; from idea to the word; from thought to clear expression; and these should be applied habitually, unconsciously, and govern spontaneously every act and element in teaching. Students can become habituated to best methods by being kept in the true path, under the guidance of those familiar with the right methods and principles.

I went to Milledgeville the other day to see and inspect the Normal and Industrial College. It is a most remarkable school. It has been in existence only three years, and has 322 girls; 121 engaged in preparing themselves for teaching school. Although in its infancy, it has sent out 100 teachers to teach in Georgia. I went into the different departments. I wish you could see Professor Branson's teaching in the normal department; it would do you good. You could not do a better thing than to spend a day in going through the school and seeing what they teach there. If you do not go yourselves, send your committees and let them see how the thing is done.

Here is a map, which is an object lesson. It shows the normal schools in the United States. It is not accurate in all its details; yet the general facts are correctly stated. In the States that are most wealthy and most advanced there are the greater number of these black dots, which represent normal schools. The person who made the map did not recognize the fact that in Georgia you have an excellent normal school at Milledgeville. It is industrial and normal, and the work done is excellent. The Peabody fund gave \$1,800 last year to this school. I wish I could persuade you to establish coeducation of the sexes at Milledgeville. In the name of patriotism, why do not you teach the boys as well as the girls how to teach school?

Teaching—good teaching, I ought to say—has much of the persuasive power of oratory. It is a glorious sight to see a live teacher—not one of these old moss-back teachers, who has not learned anything since the flood, but a live teacher, who appreciates his vocation—standing before his classes! How it arouses enthusiasm, fortifies the will, inspires the soul; and what a criminal waste of time and money and labor and energy it is to put an incompetent teacher before a class of boys and girls! We see sometimes a picture of Herod murdering the innocents. How we grieve over it! I went into a school the other day in the mountains. There sat the teacher, ignorant, stolid, indifferent, incapable, with the boys and girls gathered around him, studying the a-b, ab; b-a, ba, k-e-r, ker, baker; and I thought then, Mr. President, that we ought to have another painter to draw another picture of the murder of the innocents. It is not the teachers who ought to be painted in that picture: it is the legislatures who are murdering the innocents, when they refuse to establish normal schools for the proper training of teachers. How does the old hymn go? "How tedious and tasteless the hour"—some of you have sung it. How unutterably tedious are the hours spent in such schools, poring over lessons day after day. Some are mechanics when they ought to be artists, for these teachers have no plan nor method, no inspiration nor striving to teach and stimulate all the many sides of a child's nature to higher attainments, higher thoughts and more vigorous action. Time does not permit me to speak of secondary schools, of rural schools, of six-months schools. Some one in writing about me in the paper said that I was growing old. That may be true as to years, but not in thought, not in patriotism, not in loyalty to the South, not in loyalty to the Union, not in loyalty to this country of ours, and to the Stars and Stripes. I am not growing old in my interest in the cause of education. And yet when I hear that your people are about to celebrate the semicentennial of Atlanta, it recalls to mind the time when I used to pass this place and there was no city here, nothing but old Whitehall Tavern. That was in 1841-42. During that period a town was started which was called Marthasville. I used to ride through this section of the country, by Decatur and Stone Mountain, on my way from my home in Alabama to the college at Athens. It then took me five days to make the journey. Now I can go the distance in six hours. What a mighty change! From Marthasville in 1842 to Atlanta in 1893! Five days of travel cut down to six hours; five days on horseback or in stage coach to six hours in a Pullman palace car! Steam has revolutionized the business and travel of the world. We have gone from the stage coach to the steam car, and the sails of the old ships have been superseded by the ocean steamships. The telegraph and telephone and steam have brought the continents into one neighborhood and given solidarity to the business of the world. The merchant can telegraph to China or to Japan for a bill of goods; and before he goes to bed to-night word comes from the other end of the world that the goods have been delivered to the ship and they will leave in the morning. What a revolution has been wrought in our methods of business. Improved machinery of transportation

has reduced freight expenses from $2\frac{3}{4}$ cents per ton per mile to about one-half cent per ton per mile. Civilization creates new kinds of property. In Africa the inhabitants know nothing about bills of exchange, promissory notes, choses in action—nothing about the modern methods of business. Just in proportion as you grow in civilization, and advance in the scale of education and intelligence, you have more kinds of property. It is because of diffused education, because of the work of intelligence, because the forces of nature have been harnessed to the business of life. Science and religion are both evangels of democracy. Wherever these go shackles fall off, tyranny ceases, and the great masses are lifted up to the recognition of their rights and their privileges. Prerogative of mental development is no longer confined to the few, but is conceded to all who bear the image of the Son of Man.

Only one more remark. I said awhile ago that I was a Georgia boy. I am a native of Lincoln County—the dark corner of Lincoln. I graduated from the University of Georgia, growing up in my college days with such men as Tom Cobb, Linton Stephens, Ben Hill, Jud Glenn, and others. In my political life I associated on terms of intimacy with such men as Stephens, Toombs, Hill, and Cobb. I come to you as a Georgian, appealing for the interests of the children of Georgia, and appealing to the representatives of the State. How inspiring it is to deeds of noble statesmanship to read the names of the counties you represent. Some of them recall in imperishable words the names of founders of the State, of men who stood for her rights, of men who bore the brunt of the Revolutionary struggle, such as Oglethorpe, Richmond, Burke, Chatham, Wilkes, and Camden; Jefferson, Madison, Franklin, Carroll, Sumter, Putnam, Jasper, Greene, the German De Kalb, Hancock, Lincoln; to them add the names of the men of the days succeeding the Revolution, Calhoun, Webster, Clay, Lowndes, Polk, Pierce, Douglas, Randolph, Taylor, and Quitman—men from other States, but allied to you in close sympathy. Not these only, for your own great men have their names linked with the destinies of your counties. What an inspiration it must be to represent the county of Berrien, or Bartow, or Cobb, or Clayton, or Dawson, or Dooly, or Dougherty, or Forsyth, or Gilmer, or Hall, or Jackson, or Johnson, or Lumpkin, or McDuffie, or Miller, or Meriwether, or Murray, or Troun, or Walton. I think that if I were a representative from such a county, with such a name, I should be inspired with patriotism to do something high and useful, and to help the State I lived in to bear worthily the name of the "Empire State of the South." [Applause.] I appeal to you for the common schools of Georgia, for the future men and women of the State. The women of the State touch my heart very deeply. My grandmother, mother, daughter-in-law, granddaughter, Georgia born, names suggestive of holiest affection and tenderest memories, which make me, not less than my nativity, a Georgian. In all of womankind, whether or not history has recorded or romance described or poesy sung her virtues, there has been no type of female excellence, no example of purity or loveliness or heroism more exalted and noble than that furnished by Georgia mother or wife, fit representatives of the unsurpassed southern matron. In their names I plead.

Mr. President, a friend told me of a girl in the northern part of the State, not prince-begotten nor palace-cradled, growing up in glad joyousness and innocence, amid the rich, virgin growth of wild trees, who was seen plowing an ox on rolling hillside to earn subsistence for an invalid father, a bed-ridden Confederate soldier, who lay helpless in an adjacent log cabin. Touched by such heroism and filial fidelity, a gentleman sent her to school, and last year at the examination one thousand people, who had come from the mountains to show their interest in the education of the children, saw that girl, who had labored for the support of herself and her bed-ridden father, stand on the platform and take the prize offered for the best essay. Refusing to abandon her old father during vacation, she went back to her mountain home and to labor, but she is now teaching in the school which brought to light her latent powers. There are thousands of Georgia boys, in the wire-grass and middle Georgia and in the mountains, who, if educated, would, like Stephens, be patriotic and honored servants of the State. There are thousands of young maidens, who, like our heroine, require but the helping hand of the State and the warmth of generous culture to emerge from humble homes of obscurity and poverty to places of usefulness and honor. [Long applause.]

LOUISIANA.

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM IN LOUISIANA.

[Paper prepared for Louisiana Educational Association, by John R. Ficklen, professor of history in Tulane University.]

"If I had as many sons as Priam, I would send them all to the public schools."—*Daniel Webster.*

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES, AND GENTLEMEN: It seems eminently wise that the Louisiana Educational Association at this period of its honored career should devote a portion of its time and attention to the origin and development of the public-school

system within the borders of this State; for we are now entering upon a new era in the history of our schools, and we need, in particular at such a time, to study both the present and the probabilities of the future in the light of the past. As student and teacher I have always laid great stress upon this study of the historical development of our institutions as one of prime importance. We do not thoroughly understand the present until we know how and why it has become what it is. Moreover, from the accumulated experience of those who have gone before us we may learn to avoid a thousand errors; where they garnered only "barren regrets," we may reap a bountiful harvest of good results.

As the individual must live over in miniature the life of the whole human race, so those who would reform institutions must investigate the history of those institutions and understand the causes that led to failure or to success. Without this knowledge their labors will be short sighted and unfruitful, and to their hands no wide powers should be intrusted.

Let us trace, then, as briefly as possible, the origin and development of our public-school system. From such a study I hope something profitable and something interesting may be gleaned together. Clearness of treatment will be promoted if we divide the whole subject into three periods.

I. From the beginning of this century to the framing of the second constitution in 1845.

II. From 1845 to the civil war.

III. From the civil war to the present time (1894).

I.

Before the opening of the nineteenth century, as you doubtless know, public free schools did not exist in Louisiana. The Ursuline Nuns, ever since they were brought over by Bienville, had devoted themselves to the education of young women, and there were some private schools in New Orleans, but the policy of the Government had provided no system of public instruction. The truth is that monarchical governments in that day were unfavorable to the education of the masses. Knowledge is power, and it was not considered desirable that the people should have much power.

In the year 1803, however, the great Territory of Louisiana, Jefferson's fine purchase, was formally transferred to the commissioners of the American Union. As you know, Louisiana then embraced a vast tract of country, from which many rich and prosperous States have since been carved. For nine years the southern portion was called the Territory of Orleans; but, finally, in 1812, much to the delight of its 60,000 inhabitants, it was erected into the State of Louisiana—one of the fairest sovereignties that go to constitute the American Union.

During the early period of its territorial government, there are to be found frequent references to the subject of public education. But many years were to elapse before educational views crystallized into any kind of system of free schools. Nor was this tardy recognition of the value of common schools peculiar to Louisiana. It was equally the case in the early history of all the Southern and most of the Northern States. It would be interesting to trace the development of public schools in the United States at large; to show how the enduring system established in Massachusetts by the old Puritans of the seventeenth century was modeled after the system of schools which they had learned to know during their sojourn in Holland—a system in which Holland at that time led the world. It would be interesting to show that the main object of the Puritans was to keep out "that old deluder, Satan," by teaching all the children to read the Bible, thus preparing them to exorcise the evil spirits that ever torment the ignorant. It would be still more interesting to show why that old royalist, Governor Berkeley, feared the rise of public (I had almost said republican) schools, and devoutly thanked God that there were none in Virginia. Such themes, however, while they would be fruitful of suggestions as to the progress of our American civilization, would occupy far more time than has been allotted to this whole paper. I can not forbear, however, mentioning one fact which may make our Louisiana teachers rejoice that they live in this day and generation rather than in the New England of the seventeenth century. In an old New England town book (date 1661) the duties of the schoolmaster are laid down as follows: (1) To act as court messenger; (2) to serve summonses; (3) to conduct certain ceremonial services of the church; (4) to lead the Sunday choir; (5) to dig the graves; (6) to take charge of the school; (7) to ring the bell for public worship; (8) to perform other occasional duties. With these manifold functions to discharge, it is easy to understand the importance attached, in early New England, to the office of schoolmaster.

But to return to Louisiana. No sooner had the United States taken possession of Louisiana than the enlightened policy of our first American governor, W. C. C.

Claiborne, spoke out in no uncertain accents on the subject of public education. I quote from his address to the territorial council in 1804, just ninety years ago: "In adverting to your primary duties," he says, "I have yet to suggest one than which none can be more important or interesting. I mean some general provision for the education of youth. If we revere science for her own sake or for the innumerable benefits she confers upon society, if we love our children and cherish the laudable ambition of being respected by posterity, let not this great duty be overlooked. Permit me to hope, then, that under your patronage, seminaries of learning will prosper, and means of acquiring information be placed within the reach of each growing family. Let exertions be made to rear up our children in the paths of science and virtue, and impress upon their tender hearts a love of civil and religious liberty. My advice, therefore, is that your system of education be extensive and liberally supported."

These were noble sentiments, but if we may judge by the words of the same governor some years later, they found as yet only a feeble echo in the hearts of the people. For in 1809 we find Claiborne lamenting the general "abandonment of education in Louisiana." It is true that in 1805 the College of Orleans was established—a college in which the honored historian of Louisiana, Charles Gayarre, was a pupil; but though it lingered on till 1826, it was never in a flourishing condition, and the legislature finally concluded to abolish it and appropriate its funds to the establishment of one central and two primary schools. In the constitution of 1812, under which Louisiana was admitted to the Union, there is no mention of a system of public education; it was perhaps intended that the whole matter should be left to legislative action. During the ensuing war of 1812–15 with England, in which Louisiana bore so glorious a part, the people were too much absorbed in the defense of their soil to make any provision for education.

According to the annual message of Governor A. B. Roman (in 1831), it was the year 1818, just one hundred years after the founding of New Orleans, that witnessed the enactment of the first law concerning a system of public schools. The governor doubtless means the first effective law; for ten years previously (1808), an act was passed to establish public schools, but it was rendered nugatory by the proviso that the school tax should be collected only from those who were willing to pay it. Beginning in 1818, however, the legislature made comparatively liberal appropriations for educational purposes, the amounts increasing from \$13,000 in 1820 to \$27,000 in 1824. Little attention was paid to elementary instruction, but it was proposed to establish an academy or a college in every parish in the State. Lottery schemes—not peculiar to Louisiana, but used freely for educational institutions at this period, both in the North and in the West—were set on foot to raise funds for the College of Orleans and for an academy recently established in Rapides Parish. In addition, one-fourth of the tax paid by the gaming houses of New Orleans was presumably sanctified by its appropriation to the cause of education.

In spite, however, of all these efforts the message of Governor Roman in 1831 makes patent the fact that the system of public instruction in Louisiana has been a failure. The main cause of the failure was recognized by this enlightened Creole and he sets it forth in the clearest and strongest language. It may be summed up in a few words. The schools had not been wholly free. In every academy established and in every primary school provision was made to receive without tuition fees a certain number of indigent pupils. In the two primary schools of New Orleans, for instance, gratuitous instruction was given only to children between the ages of 7 and 14, and preference was to be shown to at least 50 children from the poorer classes. Thus a certain number of poor children, marked with the badge of charity, were to be admitted to the schools and there associate with others that paid. Such a system of public schools could not be successful. The pride of the poorer classes was hurt. One of the parishes refused to take the money appropriated for public schools, while in many others the parents, though living near the schoolhouses, would not send their children because it was repugnant to their feelings to have them educated gratuitously.

In twelve years, declares Governor Roman, the expenditure for public schools had amounted to \$354,000, and it was doubtful whether 354 indigent students had derived from these schools the advantages which the legislature wished to extend to that class. In conclusion the governor uttered these significant words, words which should be engraved over the portals of our legislative halls: "Louisiana will never reach the station to which she is entitled among her sister States until none of her electors shall need the aid of his neighbor to prepare his ballot."

Thus we see that the necessity of a new system was beginning to be felt—a system under which the schools should be absolutely free, under which the sons and daughters of the rich and poor should sit side by side, and know no distinction except that which is created by superior abilities. Unless the schools could be raised to a higher level in public esteem, there was no hope of their success.

There were other causes of failure which perhaps did not escape Governor Roman, but which he fails to mention. There was, first of all, the sparseness of the country population, which in Louisiana, as elsewhere in the South, made the problem of educating the people a far different matter from what it was in Massachusetts. In the South large plantations and the absence of towns tended to make the progress of public schools slow and uncertain; while in Massachusetts the fact that the whole population was grouped first in settlements around the churches and then in regular townships, made the organization of public schools a comparatively easy task. In discussing the backwardness of the South in educational facilities, this important consideration is too often omitted. If, with the increase of the population at the present day, it has less significance, it certainly had a great deal before the war.

In the second place, among the old Creoles of Louisiana, the education of young children was regarded as a matter that concerned not the State but the family. Exception must be made in favor of enlightened men like Governor Roman, but the fact remains that for many years the scheme of free public schools was looked upon as a useless innovation. As late as 1858, says De Bow's Review, every Louisiana planter had a school in his own house to educate his children.

From other sources we know that when children were ready for higher instruction their parents, if they were prosperous, most often sent them to Northern colleges or to France. This feeling against the public schools arose partly from what Mr. Lafargue has called the aristocratic and somewhat feudal social system of that day, and partly from the force of custom—a custom that dates back to the eighteenth century—when Etienne de Boré, the first successful sugar planter in Louisiana, received his education first in Canada and then in France.

Last of all it has been claimed with some justice that slavery impeded the progress of the public schools, as that institution impeded the rise of the white laboring classes from whose ranks these schools have always drawn the largest number of pupils. This was certainly true of the country parishes; but to a far less extent of New Orleans where all classes of society were duly represented.

All these causes were more or less operative to hinder the progress of the free school system until the civil war came and radically changed the conditions of Southern life.

From 1835 to 1845 Louisiana continued to make generous appropriations for the cause of education, but instead of establishing what was especially needed for the mass of the people, a good system of elementary instruction, the public funds were expended in founding a number of pretentious academies and colleges. These were required to give free instruction to a small number of indigent pupils, but how many such pupils were actually received it is impossible to say.

The student who examines the early records of the State is amazed at the number of these transitory institutions, many of which hardly survived the generous donations made for their support. As far as I know, the only ones now remaining of some twenty odd which were once scattered through the various parishes of the State are Centenary (once the College of Louisiana), now administered by the Methodists; Jefferson College, now under control of the Marist Fathers, and the Louisiana State University, which was once the Seminary of Learning in Alexandria.

To illustrate the preference in that early period for these higher institutions, none of which gave free tuition except to a few indigent pupils, it will suffice to say that in 1838 the amount appropriated for public schools was \$45,633, while during the same year the subsidies to colleges and seminaries were \$126,000. During the period of which we are about to speak, however, far less was given for the support of these institutions. Many of them being found superfluous had doubtless already disappeared.

II.

We now enter upon our second period, 1845-1860. During the year 1845 Louisiana received a new constitution. In it full expression was given to the democratic tendencies of the day. The Whigs had yielded to the Democrats, and the latter proceeded to grant the people many privileges which had been previously denied. The privilege of choosing the governor from the two candidates receiving the highest number of votes was taken from the legislature, and the right to vote was no longer restricted to owners of property. But best of all its democratic measures this constitution provided for a system of public schools under the care and supervision of a superintendent of education, to be appointed by the governor, and of parish superintendents, to be elected by the people. The importance of this departure can not be exaggerated. Up to this time such schools as had existed in the State had been under the care of the secretary of state, whose other official duties were too numerous for this additional burden. From this time on we are to see a superintendent of

education devoting his time and energies to the establishment of an extensive system of public free schools and making regular reports to the general assembly.¹

The constitution of 1845, and the laws passed by the legislature to carry out its provisions, created a new era in the history of education in Louisiana. Up to 1845, although large sums in proportion to the educable population had been expended, the system had been a failure, and the secretary of state had declared it should be consigned to "an unhonored grave." Let us see what were the provisions for the organization and support of the new system. In the first place the schools were to be absolutely free to all white children. Of course, as it was one of the corollaries of the institution of slavery that it was dangerous to educate the slaves, no provision was made for the education of the negro until he had been emancipated.

For the support of the new system, the constitution declared that the proceeds of all lands granted by the United States Government for the use of public schools, and of all estates of deceased persons falling to the State, should be held by the State as a loan, and should be a perpetual fund, on which annual interest at 6 per cent should be paid for public schools, and that this appropriation should remain inviolable. The lands referred to were the public lands which the Federal Government had retained when Louisiana was made a State, and which that Government was now granting to the State for educational and other purposes. In 1847 these land grants amounted to 800,000 acres, and in many instances proved to be very valuable. Moreover, there are many references in these old acts of the legislature to the location of the sixteenth sections in townships for school purposes and to the sale of these sections. For the further support of the schools it was now provided by an act of the legislature that every free male white over 21 years of age should pay a poll tax of \$1, and that a tax of 1 mill should be levied on all taxable property. As early as 1842 the police jurors² were authorized to levy a tax for schools not to exceed one-half the annual State tax. Provision was now made that whenever a parish raised not less than \$200 the governor should authorize the State treasurer to pay over to said parish double the amount so assessed.

Certainly no happier choice for State superintendent of education could have been made throughout the extent of Louisiana than was made in 1847 by Governor Isaac Johnson. The man he chose was a ripe scholar. He had been trained in all the learning of that day. First under a private tutor and then in Georgetown College he had saturated his mind with all that was best in classical literature, and he had caught an inspiration which made him one of the great teachers of his time. A brilliant orator, he spoke and wrote with convincing eloquence whenever the sacred cause of education was at stake. Such a man was Alexander Dimitry, the first superintendent of education, whom Louisiana honors and reveres as the organizer of her system of public schools.

Both the reports of Mr. Dimitry, which are generally supposed to be lost, are to be seen in the Fisk Library of New Orleans. The first was rendered in 1848 and the second in 1850. To the student of our educational progress both are interesting and instructive.

The first describes how the 47 parishes had been divided into school districts by the police jurors, assisted by the parish superintendents. The services of these superintendents, who were elected at a salary of \$300 a year, were very efficient, but the schools in the parishes were not generally welcomed, and Mr. Dimitry declared that he viewed them rather in the light of an experiment. It was only natural that he should hold this opinion; for when the free schools were first established in New Orleans, during the years 1841 and 1842, the announcement, says Mr. Dimitry, was received by some with doubt, and by others with ridicule, if not hostility. "When the schools in the second municipality were opened personal appeals and earnest exhortations were made to parents, and yet such were the prejudices to be overcome that out of a minor population of 3,000 only 13 pupils appeared upon the benches." Fortunately, public sentiment in the city gradually changed, and in 1848 Mr. Dimitry was able to declare that thousands were blessing the existence of the city schools, for in 1849, out of an educable population of 14,248, the number attending the free schools was 6,710, or nearly 50 per cent. In the country parishes his labors were soon rewarded with more than anticipated success, for out of an educable population in 37 parishes of 28,941 the number attending in 1849 was 16,217, or more than 50 per cent.

In his last report Mr. Dimitry complained of the opposition shown by many to the new system, and especially to a portion of the law which prescribed the levying of a district tax for the schools. But he had reason to congratulate himself on having

¹ Mr. R. M. Lusher, formerly State superintendent of education, and a noble worker in that office, wrote a sketch of the public school system in Louisiana. In this sketch he makes the curious error of stating that all the reports of the State superintendents from 1847 to 1860 were burned during the war. In the Fisk Library of New Orleans may be found nearly every one of the reports which he supposed to be destroyed, beginning with that of Alex. Dimitry in 1848.

² County officers in Louisiana.

created a sentiment in favor of the free schools and in obtaining an attendance of more than 50 per cent of the educable population—a per cent, it is to be remembered, far higher than that of the year 1894, when 70 per cent of our educable population are not receiving any instruction either in public or private schools. (Estimate made by the Times-Democrat.)

Throughout this period (1848-1850) moreover, the State was prosperous, and the sums appropriated to the public schools in 1849 amounted to nearly one-third of a million dollars, a higher ratio per educable youth than at the present day. Such was the condition of the public schools during Dimitry's able administration. By annual visits to the different parishes, he kept himself in touch with his superintendents, and inspired the State at large with much of his own zeal and enthusiasm.

In the years 1851 and 1852 important changes were made in the administration of the schools. First of all, the State superintendent was no longer to be appointed by the governor, he must be elected by the people. Then followed an act of the legislature which proved to be extremely unwise. That body in a fit of economy abolished the office of parish superintendent and substituted in each parish a board of district directors who were to receive no salary. Moreover, the salary of the State superintendent was reduced to \$1,500 a year, and he was relieved from the duty of an annual visit to each parish. The effect of these changes upon the schools in the country parishes is abundantly shown in the reports of the State superintendents, Robert C. Nicholas, in 1853, Dr. Samuel Bard, in 1858, and Henry Avery, in 1861. They all declare that the system outside of New Orleans had been seriously crippled; that the district directors took no interest in their work, and that often it was impossible to find out who were directors in a parish. Loud complaints, moreover, came from many of the parishes that the teachers appointed were not only incompetent, but often drunkards and unprincipled adventurers. It is not, therefore, surprising to learn that many parents demanded and actually obtained their children's quota of the public-school funds, which they used in part payment of the salaries of private tutors and governesses. Such a method of appropriating the public money, however, not only produced general demoralization, but worked great injustice to the poorer classes.

In spite of complaints and appeals, the legislature failed to restore the parish superintendents and to reform the abuses just mentioned. Hence a pessimistic writer in De Bow's Review for 1859, taking up an annual report of the State superintendent, gives a gloomy account of education in Louisiana. He even goes so far as to conclude that the New England system of foreign education on the people was not adapted to Louisiana; that such a law was theoretical and void of practical results. He then continues in the following strain: "If a law were passed by the State of Louisiana appropriating \$300,000 a year to furnish every family with a loaf of bread more than half the families would not accept it. The report of the superintendent for 1859 proves that more than half the families in Louisiana will not accept the mental food which the State offers their children. Some parishes will not receive any of it. Tensas, for example, which is taxed \$16,000 for the support of public schools has not a single school. The truth is the government does more harm than good by interfering with the domestic concerns of our people."

This Jeremiah then proceeds to detract as much as possible from the merit of the public schools in New Orleans, though he admits that these schools were regarded as very successful.

I have quoted the words of this critic quite fully because, while they contain some grains of truth, I believe they also contain a great deal of error. Luckily the reports from 1856 to 1861, from which he forms his conclusions, are still in existence, and they do not justify his statement that at this period the people were opposed to the public schools because "they did not wish to accept the mental food offered them by the State." On the contrary, here is an extract from the report of 1859 which throws much light on the condition of affairs in many of the parishes: "Under the present law nearly every wealthy planter has a school at his house and draws the pro rata share out of the public treasury. The poor children have not the benefit of these schools, and in this parish, which pays about \$14,000 in school tax, there is consequently not enough in the treasury to pay the expense of a single school at the parish seat, where it ought to be."

This extract shows what pernicious custom lay at the root of the failure. The money was misappropriated in favor of the private schools; so that where public schools were established, cheap and worthless teachers had to be employed, who soon brought their schools into disrepute. The inefficiency of the school directors followed as a matter of course. Seeing that the rich planters were satisfied, the legislature simply did nothing but appropriate ample funds, which often never reached the schools for which they were destined. Under these circumstances it is even remarkable that in 1858, according to Dr. Bard's report, the number of pupils attending public schools in the country parishes was 23,000 out of an educable population in the whole State of 60,500.

Let us turn to New Orleans. During this period the city was divided into four school districts, with a board of directors and a superintendent for each district. This arrangement insured most efficient management. The attendance in 1858 was 20,000—nearly as many as in all the country parishes—and Dr. Samuel Bard, after an examination of the city schools during this year, reported to the general assembly that “the discipline was admirable, the attainments of the scholars unexpectedly extensive, and the teachers of rare ability.” Hon. William O. Rogers, who did splendid work for the schools at this period, and who later became city superintendent, has often in my presence corroborated the testimony of Dr. Bard.

It was at this very time, also, that an important advance was made in educational methods. As early as 1853 Superintendent Nicholas had recommended the establishment of a normal school, declaring, however, that there was none in the United States and only one in Canada. Finally in 1858, largely through the exertions of Mr. Rogers, a normal school, the first in Louisiana, was opened in New Orleans. Unfortunately its career of usefulness was soon cut short by the rapidly approaching civil war.

Mankind has often been accused of viewing the past through a roseate haze, which, while it lends a new charm to that which was already beautiful, also clothes with its own light even that which was dark and unbeautiful. It will not be wise, therefore, in looking back over the period of fifty-six years which we have just reviewed to speak too favorably of the system of public schools in Louisiana. Certainly, however, the State in 1860 had great reason to congratulate herself on the advance that had been made over the period previous to 1845. Up to that date, as we have seen, the school system was not organized at all; for the schools were not under proper supervision and outside of New Orleans they were not free except to a small class of indigent pupils. With the new constitution and the advent of Alexander Dimitry, Louisiana entered upon a new era of educational progress, especially in New Orleans. In the country parishes down to 1860 it must be admitted that the success of the system was only partial—a result that was due to the size of the plantations, the too conservative character of the old planters, the abolition in 1852 of the office of parish superintendent, and especially to the appropriation of public funds for the benefit of private schools.

III.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS DURING AND SINCE THE WAR.

During the great civil war it was but natural that the public schools of Louisiana, especially in the country parishes, should languish, for men were engaged in a struggle which left little time for the consideration of the educational problem. In most of the parishes the schools for several years were entirely closed. One of the school directors wrote that from his parish there were no reports to make except war reports. In New Orleans, however, and in the neighboring parishes, which were in the possession of the Federal troops, many schools were kept open, and provision was made by the Freedmen's Bureau of Education to give instruction to the newly emancipated slaves. Under these new conditions there was a strong effort to open schools in which the two races should be educated together. But this policy, so repulsive to Southern sentiments, ended in failure and it was abandoned.

The history of our State after the war is too well known to need repetition here. In a few years the public debt of Louisiana was increased by the sum of \$40,000,000. Moreover, in 1872, the Government sold at public auction the whole free-school fund, which had been invested in State bonds, and which had been repeatedly declared a sacred and inviolable trust for the benefit of the public school. This fund, derived from the sale of public lands, amounted to more than \$1,000,000. After it had been accomplished there followed a period of “storm and stress”—a fierce struggle for supremacy, which, during the year 1877, ended in the triumph of the more conservative elements of the State, under the leadership of Francis T. Nicholls.

We can point with pride to one of the first acts of the legislature under this new administration. It was as follows:

“The education of all classes of the people being essential to the preservation of free institutions, we do declare our solemn purpose to maintain a system of public schools by an equal and uniform taxation upon property as provided in the constitution of the State, and which shall secure the education of the white and the colored citizens with equal advantages.

“LOUIS BUSH, *Speaker.*

“LOUIS A. WILTZ, *Lieut. Governor.*

“FRANCIS T. NICHOLLS, *Governor.*”

It is to be noted here that the State assumed formal charge of the education of the freedman, pledging him the same advantages as the whites. This pledge has been faithfully kept; the number of colored pupils has gradually increased until there are now enrolled in the public schools of the State more than 60,000.

In March, 1877, a few months before the act above quoted, the general assembly had established a State board of education, consisting of the governor, the lieutenant-governor, the secretary of state, the attorney-general, the State superintendent, and two citizens of the United States, residents for two years in Louisiana.

As you know, this board was reorganized some years later, so as to contain one representative from each Congressional district—a change most wisely made.¹

The most important step, however, in the reorganization of the public school system was taken in the constitution of 1879. This is the constitution under which we are now living, but which we all hope to see radically amended in the near future. It provided for the appointment of parish boards, and declared that these boards might appoint at a fixed salary a parish superintendent of public schools.

Thus, after the lapse of twenty-seven years, Louisiana restored the office of parish superintendent—an office which under Alexander Dimitry was found to be all important, and which since 1879 has proved essential to the very existence of public schools in Louisiana. May the parish superintendent, one of the strongest pillars of public education in our State, be a perpetual institution among us, and may his office in the future receive that meed of respect and remuneration which his zeal and devotion so richly deserve.

While the constitution of 1879 is entitled to our gratitude for the reinstatement of the parish superintendents, one is forced to admit that it made no adequate provision for the support of the public schools. It is true that the free-school fund, the bonds of which were sold in 1872, was placed among the perpetual debts of the State, but the interest to be paid was reduced from 6 to 4 per cent, and it was further declared that this interest and the interest due on the seminary and the agricultural and the mechanical funds should be paid, not out of the general revenues of the State, but out of the tax collected for public education. This was a wholesale "robbing of Peter to pay Paul."

Moreover, though provision was made for a supplementary tax to be levied for public schools by the police juries of each parish, even this was not obligatory, and if it were levied it was to be kept within very narrow limits.

These unwise articles of the constitution have received such repeated and such hearty condemnation from every superintendent of education that it is not necessary for me to add my own opinion. I would only remind you that when that constitution was adopted in 1879 the State had just passed through the period of reconstruction, her finances were in a prostrate condition, and some constitutional limitation of taxation seemed absolutely necessary. Those conditions no longer exist, and it is to be hoped that the amendments recently proposed by the board of education will be unanimously adopted.

It may be added that the constitution of 1879 ended its provisions for the public schools with one article that has received universal approval and should be widely acted upon. It declares that women over 21 years of age shall be eligible to any office of control or management under the school laws of Louisiana. This is simply an act of justice to that sex which furnishes so large a proportion of our teachers throughout the State.

The history of the public schools since 1879 is so well known that I can not pretend to any knowledge which this audience does not already possess. A simple outline, therefore, will suffice to refresh your memories.

The first result of the insufficient support granted by the constitution, you will remember, seemed to be the ruin of the public school system.

In spite of the splendid efforts of Hon. R. M. Lusher, a devoted and untiring worker in the cause of public education, the school receipts for 1882 allowed only 45 cents for each educable child in the State; and the Louisiana Journal of Education for that year gloomily but forcibly declared that the public school system was as "dead as Hector." The teachers even in New Orleans were often unpaid, many schools had been closed, and the double obligation of educating both whites and blacks seemed too great a burden for the State to bear. But the exertions of Lusher, Easton, and Jack, together with the efficient aid received from the parish superintendents and the State board, were not without avail. Defeat was at last changed into victory, and the record of the past decade, illuminated by the labors of these men, is a most interesting chapter in the history of our educational progress. The school fund, especially in the country parishes, has been largely increased, and so has the attendance. Not only has public sentiment, without which laws avail naught, been brought over to the side of education, but the teachers themselves, though often receiving scanty remuneration, have shown greater ability and greater enthusiasm than ever before in the history of the State. This I attribute largely to the splendid work done in the Normal School of New Orleans under Mrs. Mary Stamps and in the State Normal of Natchitoches under President Boyd. I am sure you will believe that lack

¹In 1870 the Republicans had established a State board of education, consisting of the State superintendent and six "division superintendents." The State was divided into six districts under these "division superintendents."

of space, and not lack of appreciation, has prevented my giving a detailed account of the valuable aid rendered to this normal work by the Peabody fund. A tribute to Dr. Curry's wise administration of this fund is certainly due from anyone who writes the history of public education in Louisiana. Lack of space must also be my plea for omitting the history of the McDonogh fund, to which New Orleans owes its array of splendid school buildings.

It may safely be declared, therefore, that the year 1894 records progress in every direction, but I can not do more than name some of the chief influences at work for the advancement of the public schools. They are the Association of Parish Superintendents; the State Teachers' Association, with its reading circle and its official journal; the State and parish institutes for teachers, the Louisiana Chautauqua; and last, but not least, the Louisiana Educational Association. Surely this is a goodly list—one that any State might be proud of.

In glancing over the incomplete sketch of public education in Louisiana, the progress of which I have traced through ninety years, I am struck with the fact that the State has followed what is called the general trend of education. This trend, as laid down by Dr. William T. Harris, is as follows: First, from private, endowed, and parochial schools there is a change to the assumption of education by the State. "When the State takes control, it first establishes colleges and universities; then elementary free schools, and then it adds supplementary institutions for the afflicted; then institutions for teachers, together with libraries and other educational aids. In the meanwhile increasing attention is paid to supervision and methods. Schools are better graded. In class work there is more assimilation and less memorizing. Corporal punishment diminishes, and the educational idea advances toward a divine charity." Such, amid a thousand difficulties and vicissitudes, has been the history of public education in Louisiana. I am persuaded that we are on the right path.

The question still remains, however, Is Louisiana abreast of the other States of the Union in her provision for the education of her youth? The highest authorities declare that she is not. Let us for a moment examine the conditions as they exist.

In 1848 the educable youth of the State numbered only 41,500; in 1894, with the addition of the colored pupils, they numbered more than 378,000. Of these only 115,000 attend any school, either public or private. What is the consequence? I answer that in seven of our prosperous parishes, out of 13,000 voters, it is stated that 6,858 white voters, more than 50 per cent of the whole number, can not read and write; and it is a well-known fact that Louisiana now leads all the Southern States in illiteracy. What shall we do to remove this lamentable condition of things?

Evidently, though we now spend nearly \$1,000,000 a year for our public schools, that sum, in view of the increased population, is grossly inadequate. We need higher salaries for our teachers, better remuneration for our parish superintendents, and longer sessions for our schools. The machinery of our public school system, as far as the officials and their relations to each other are concerned, is excellent. But what we require above everything is the privilege of local taxation beyond the present constitutional limitation. We have reached a point in Louisiana where local pride has been aroused. We are beginning to feel that however grateful we may be for the beneficent work of such funds as the Peabody, we must first of all help ourselves; we must demand our independence—the most glorious privilege granted to man.

MASSACHUSETTS.

MARY HEMENWAY.

[At a meeting held by the Boston public school teachers at the Old South Meeting House May 2, 1894, in honor of the memory of Mrs. Mary Hemenway, warm and loving tribute was paid to her personal character and worth, her services in the cause of education were reviewed, and the reforms instituted by her recalled to remembrance by those who had been her associates and coworkers and who were specially qualified to represent the different phases of her activity. The addresses made upon this occasion were afterwards incorporated into a memorial volume, under the editorial supervision of Dr. Larkin Dunton, head master of the Boston Normal School. From this volume the following extracts have been made to illustrate her life and work. They are succeeded by a more detailed account of the Old South work from another source.]

[From the introductory remarks by Dr. Dunton.]

Mrs. Hemenway was born in the city of New York December 20, 1820, and died at her home in Boston March 6, 1894. She was the daughter of Thomas Tileston, from whom she seems to have inherited her remarkable business ability. She married Mr. Augustus Hemenway, a great shipping merchant. Several years before his death his health had so failed as to throw much of the oversight of his immense business upon Mrs. Hemenway. By this means was developed that remarkable talent for the

directing of affairs which subsequently proved so useful in carrying on her great benevolent enterprises. She certainly possessed business ability of a high order.

Her insight into the causes of suffering among the people, far and near, present and future, and into the remedies for this suffering, was wonderful. Her breadth of view was only equalled by the warmth of her heart. It was the generosity of her nature that so endeared her to the teachers of Boston. They came to know her as a fellow-worker for the good of the people. Pride, haughtiness, and condescension, which too often accompany the possession and even the distribution of wealth, were so conspicuously wanting in her nature that every teacher who was brought into contact with her in her benevolent work felt only the presence of a great heart beating in sympathy with all mankind.

Her beneficent plans were never set on foot and then left to the management of others. She not only followed her work with her thought and her kindly interest, but she stimulated and cheered her coworkers with her inspiring personality. It was her clear head, her warm heart, and her cheerful presence that gained for her admiration and affection.

[Resolutions presented by Robert Swan, master of the Winthrop School, and adopted by the meeting.]

Whereas it is fitting, at the close of Mrs. Mary Hemenway's useful life, that the Boston public school teachers, assembled in the Old South Meeting House, which she loved so well and did so much to save, should place on record their profound appreciation of the noble work she has accomplished for the practical education of the children under their care, by which the pupils, and through them the homes from which many of them come, have been elevated both mentally and morally: Therefore be it

Resolved, That through her wise foresight and long perseverance in the introduction of a systematic training in sewing, by which girls in the public schools are made proficient in needlework, the first step toward manual training, now acknowledged by all to be an essential part of our school programme, she exhibited an almost intuitive sense of the needs of the community, and enabled the children to relieve their mothers of many weary hours of labor.

Resolved, That by the introduction of the kitchen garden and, later, the school kitchen—a long step in progress—she accomplished by this wise provision of her studious care an inestimable benefit to the city, the children being thus taught not only to cook intelligently and economically, but also to buy understandingly the various articles required, by which the manner of living has been changed, healthful food and proper service displacing uncomfortable and unhealthful methods.

Resolved, That by the introduction of the Ling system of gymnastics, in which Mrs. Hemenway's liberality and care for the physical development of the children were the principal factors, the city is greatly indebted for another advance in education.

Resolved, That by the establishment of the Normal School of Cooking and the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics, furnishing qualified teachers to inaugurate the work in other cities, by which the full advantage of Boston's experience is reaped, her beneficial influence has made instruction in these branches national instead of local.

Resolved, That by her contribution in money and intelligent helpfulness in promoting the Boston Teachers' Mutual Benefit Association in the days of its inception much was done to insure the success of the enterprise.

Resolved, That by the purchase of Dr. John D. Philbrick's library and its presentation to the Boston Normal School she has made easily accessible to the pupils the choicest works on educational subjects, thus making the valuable information acquired a part of their equipment for their chosen profession.

Resolved, That by her prizes for essays on subjects connected with American history, awarded to graduates of the Boston high schools on Washington's Birthday in the Old South Meeting House, she has caused a thorough research into our colonial and national life that can result only in inspiring patriotic ardor which must conduce to the best citizenship.

Resolved, That by these and many other acts which can not be enumerated at this time her name is justly entitled to rank with the names of Pratt and Drexel, who have established institutes in Brooklyn and Philadelphia that will confer incalculable benefits on the people of this country.

Resolved, That Mrs. Hemenway, in these varied interests, gave what is infinitely more important than money—her constant sympathy in and enthusiasm for the work, which is an invaluable memory to all who were blessed with her assistance.

Resolved, That in tendering these resolutions to the family of Mrs. Hemenway we desire to express our deep sympathy in their bereavement.

[Address by Edwin P. Seaver, superintendent of schools.]

How the Old South Meeting House was saved from threatened destruction is a well-known story that needs not now to be repeated. Mrs. Hemenway's interest in

that patriotic enterprise did not end with her giving a large share of the purchase money. That generous gift was but the beginning of a larger enterprise, the prelude to a nobler history.

These ancient walls had been saved. What should be done with them? They might have been allowed to stand as mute witnesses to the events of a glorious past. They might have been used merely as a shelter for curious old relics, which antiquarians love to study and passing visitors cast a glance upon. And so the old meeting house might have stood many years more—a monument to religion and freedom, not unworthy, indeed, of its purpose, but yet a silent monument.

The plans of Mrs. Hemenway were larger and more vital. The old building should be not only a relic and monument of the past, but a temple for present inspiration and instruction. The thoughts and the hopes that aforesaid had thrilled the hearts of men assembled in this house should live again in the words of eloquent teachers. Here should young people gather to learn lessons of virtue and patriotism from the lives of great men whose deeds have glorified our nation's annals. What has now become known throughout the country as "the Old South work" is the outgrowth of this fruitful idea. Let us briefly review the particulars of this "Old South work," keeping in mind as we do so its main purposes, which are first to interest young people in American history, and then, through that interest, to inspire them with a love of their country, and to instruct them wisely concerning the duties and privileges of citizenship under a free government. Can any instruction more vital to the public good be thought of?

First, we may notice that Washington's Birthday has been appropriately celebrated in this house every year from 1879. Other national holidays have been celebrated likewise, or may hereafter be celebrated, for the idea is a growing one.

Next should be noticed "the Old South lectures." As early as 1879, and in the two years following, courses of lectures on topics of American history were delivered in this house by Mr. John Fiske, who has since become so well known as a brilliant writer on historical subjects. That these lectures would be intensely interesting to the adult portion of the audiences was naturally enough expected at the time, but it was hardly foreseen that the young people would be so thoroughly fascinated as they were with a lecturer who had been known chiefly as a writer on deep philosophical subjects. Mr. Fiske has been a frequent lecturer on this platform from 1879 down to the present time.

In 1883 "the Old South lectures," properly so called, were organized on a definite and permanent plan. Each year the work to be done is laid out in a systematic manner. A general topic is chosen, and particular topics under this are assigned to different speakers, who are invited because their special knowledge of the topics assigned them gives great interest or importance to what they may have to say. The great interest awakened by these lectures has led to the repetition of many of them in other cities.

"The Old South leaflets" are an interesting auxiliary to the lectures. A practice was early adopted of providing in printed form the means of further studying the matters touched upon by the lecturer of the day. The leaflets so provided contained not merely an outline of the lecture, but the texts of important historical documents not otherwise easily accessible, and references to authorities with critical notes thereupon, and other interesting special matter. These leaflets have proved to be so useful to teachers in their school work that the directors of "the Old South work" have published a general series of them, which are to be continued, and are supplied to schools at the bare cost of paper and printing.

Perhaps "the Old South essays" touch the Boston public schools more immediately than does any other part of "the Old South work." Every year, beginning with 1881, have been offered to high school pupils soon to become graduates, and also to recent graduates, four prizes, two of \$40 and two of \$25 each, for the best essays on assigned topics of American history. The usual objection to the plan of encouraging study by the offer of prizes, that many strive and few win, so that the joy of victory in the few is more than offset by the disappointment of failure in the many, was met in the present case with characteristic wisdom and liberality; for every writer of an essay not winning a money prize has received a present of valuable books in recognition of his worthy effort. The judges who make the awards of prizes state that crude essays, betraying a want of study and care on the part of the writers, are extremely rare. On the other hand, there are often so many essays of the highest general excellence that the task of making a just award is a difficult one.

Some of these essays have been printed in the *New England Magazine* and in other periodicals. Some have been published in pamphlet form, and have received the favorable notice of historical scholars. It is now the custom to invite at least one of the prize essayists each year to deliver one of "the Old South lectures."

Among the more distinguished of the essayists may be named Mr. Henry L. Southwick, a graduate of the *Dorchester High School*, whose prize essay of the year 1881, entitled "The policy of the early colonists of Massachusetts toward Quakers and

others whom they regarded as intruders," attracted much attention; Mr. F. E. E. Hamilton, a graduate of the English High School, and since an alumnus of Harvard College; Mr. Robert M. Lovett, a graduate of the Boston Latin School, who led his class at Harvard College; Miss Caroline E. Stecker, who took prizes in two successive years; and Mr. Leo R. Lewis, of the English High School, now a professor in Tufts College. Others there are who may be expected hereafter to distinguish themselves in the line of work for which the writing of their essays was the beginning of a preparation.

The whole number of Old South essayists is now over 100. About 20 of these have been or still are students in colleges, some proceeding thither in regular course from the Latin schools, but others in less easy ways, being impelled to the effort undoubtedly by a desire for higher education that had grown out of their historical studies for their essays. But among the essayists who have not become college students, the interest in historical studies has been no less abiding. The Old South Historical Society, formed about two years ago, is composed of persons who have written historical essays for the Old South prizes. Quarterly meetings are held for the reading of papers and for discussion on historical subjects. This society may well be regarded with peculiar interest by our teachers, because it represents the best historical scholarship of successive years in the high schools of Boston. It may soon become, if it be not already, one of the most important learned societies in this city.

But historical study and writing are not for the many, nor are they enough to satisfy the few. A broader influence may touch the hearts of all through music. Out of this thought has grown the society known as "The Old South Young People's Chorus."

At many of "the Old South lectures" there has been singing of national patriotic hymns by large choruses of boys and girls from the public schools, three or four hundred often taking part. On the Washington's Birthday celebrations there has always been singing by the public-school children. These interesting exercises have led to a more permanent organization for the practice of patriotic music, which flourishes now under the name of "Young People's Chorus."

Finally, let us note the extension of "the Old South work" to other cities, as Providence, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Indianapolis, Chicago, Madison, Milwaukee, and others. Everywhere the idea of bringing our national history home to the minds and hearts of young people through an awakened interest in monuments and memorials of the past has been enthusiastically received. Philadelphia, no less than Boston, has her shrines of freedom. There is no city or town in the land that does not possess something interesting as a memorial of past events—events which the national historian may regard as of no more than local importance, but which, by the very circumstance of being local, best show the child the stuff out of which the fabric of our national history is woven. Everywhere, therefore, the materials for "the Old South work" are at hand, and the plan of this work is so simple that it can be adopted everywhere. * * *

[From the address by James A. Page, master of the Dwight School.]

Of the public-spirited woman in whose honor we are met it may be said, in the language of Sydney Smith, that she was three women, not one woman.

Practical as a business man, she was yet tender and generous to many different sorts of people. Expecting always faithful and loyal service, she was considerate of those carrying forward her great plans. She delighted to spend money, as she was spending it, for lofty purposes. She had strength—the strength of opposite qualities, the strength that fits for public service. The city was fortunate that at such a time, or at any time, such service was to be had.

The woman who gave this service saw very surely that any institution, to be lasting, must be firmly founded; and her motto therefore in this, as in other things, was "Go slowly." We had had "systems" of gymnastics before, and they had vanished. We had had "fads" of this kind, and they had perished one by one. The thing to be done now was to secure a plan that should be workable, and yet should be based on well-ascertained physiological and psychological data.

She gave her mind to this. In 1888 the cooperation of twenty-five teachers was secured, and the work was carried on for a considerable time in rooms at Boylston Place. After much experience had been gained and circumstances had seemed to justify it, larger rooms were obtained, and in 1889 the masters of the schools were invited to interest themselves in the movement and to take part in the exercises. They responded to the call without an exception, I believe, and the work took on a wider scope. It was in this year also (1889) that the Conference on Physical Training took place under the auspices of this school, and the advocates of many different systems were invited to take part, and each to show by example and on the stage the special excellencies of his own school of work. The German pupils, those of the Christian associations, of Delsarte, of the colleges, of the Swedish, and of some private

schools took the stage successively, and had ample opportunity to demonstrate the value of their several systems. A brilliant reception was given in the evening.

It was determined, I think, at this time by a very general consensus of opinion that for the public schools of this city as a whole, and with all their limitations, the Swedish system was the best adapted.

From this time, convinced it was on the right track, the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics has continued a constantly growing power and success. Under the same firm but fostering hand as at the beginning it outgrew its quarters in Park street, and since 1890 has been located in more commodious rooms at the Paine Memorial Building. It has graduated three classes, that of 1891 consisting of 12 students, that of 1892 also of 12, and that of 1893 consisting of 43 students, and this with a constantly advancing standard as to conditions of admission. In addition to these regular graduates 30 pupils have received one-year certificates, and some of them are now doing good work as teachers.

The school has at its head Miss Amy Morris Homans and in its staff such men as Dr. Enebuske, the professor of philosophy at Harvard University, the dean of the Harvard Medical School, and the professor of biology at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

It is not strange, then, that the services of pupils trained in such a way should be in demand in all parts of the country. Two have gone to the Drexel Institute of Philadelphia; 2 have gone to Smith College, Northampton; 2 to Radcliffe College, Cambridge; 1 to Bryn Mawr, Pa.; 4 to different State normal schools in Massachusetts; 1 to Oshkosh, Wis.; 1 to Denver, Colo.; 1 to the Normal College, Milledgeville, Ga.; and 1 each to Gloucester, Lynn, Lawrence, Dedham, Cambridge, and Pawtucket.

The aggregate salaries paid to the young ladies of the three classes already graduated are not less than \$50,000, the highest single salary reaching \$1,800, and the average being slightly less than \$1,000.

These statements give but a faint idea of the work of the school—its fineness, its scope, its far-reaching quality. But we can see that the bread cast on the waters is beginning to return. These centers throughout the country are already established. Imagine them, as the years go by, multiplied a thousand fold, making a better and happier, because a stronger, people, and then bring the threads back to this place and connect them with the deed of one noble, public-spirited woman.

The counterpart of this picture is the one of 60,000 children taking the Swedish exercises daily in our own city schools, under the direction of teachers acquainted with the system from actual contact with it, and under the supervision of an expert like Dr. Hartwell. Who that saw the exposition of it at the English High School on Saturday last can hesitate in his hearty Godspeed or forget the one whose initiative made it all possible?

[From the address of Dr. Larkin Dunton, head master of the Boston Normal School.]

If a man has wisdom and money, but no heart, he does nothing for his fellow-men. If his purse is full and his heart is warm, yet, if he lacks wisdom to guide his efforts, he is as likely to harm as to help. But happy is it for the world when wisdom, love, and wealth are the joint possession of one great soul. They then constitute an irresistible force. Mrs. Mary Hemenway possessed them all in largest measure. Let us note briefly the comprehensiveness of view and kindness of heart that are shown in the work of this grand woman.

She was allowed to grow up, as she said, without learning to do things; and she noticed that girls who were efficient workers were happy. She felt that she had been deprived of her birthright. This was her first inspiration for teaching girls to sew; though she saw also the effect of a knowledge of this work in their future homes as well as in helpfulness to their mothers. Through her efforts sewing was introduced into the schools of Boston. But she was too wise to allow this branch of instruction to depend upon the life of any one person. She began at once to interest the school committee and teachers in the work, to the end that it might be incorporated into the regular programme of the schools, be given to all the girls, and, more than this, be made perpetual by being put under the fostering care of the immortal city. The example of Boston has been widely copied, so that the influence of the work thus unostentatiously begun, but so wisely managed, has extended and will extend to millions of children and millions of homes.

A legitimate result of the introduction of this new branch of instruction has been the creation of a department of sewing in the Boston Normal School, so that hereafter sewing is to be taught by women as able and as well educated as those who teach arithmetic or language, and is, therefore, to take its place as an educational force in the development of our girls.

Through various experiments in vacation schools in summer Mrs. Hemenway came to see that it would be possible to raise the standard of cooking in the homes of the people by teaching the art to the children in the public schools. This, she thought,

would not only raise up a stronger race of men and women, but would make their homes happier and more attractive, and so would lessen the temptation of fathers and sons to spend their evenings at the saloon. And thus good cooking came to stand in her mind as the handmaid of temperance.

But she was wise enough to see that the realization of her ideal, namely, the universality and perpetuity of good cooking, depended upon two conditions—first, that the work must be under the care and support of an abiding power; and second, that the instruction must be given by competent teachers. Hence she set herself to work to demonstrate the feasibility of the plan to the school authorities, to the end that they would undertake it for all the girls of the city. At the same time, seeing that there were no suitable teachers for this new branch of education, she established a normal school of cooking, which she has maintained to the present time.

This normal school has not only supplied the school kitchens of Boston with competent teachers, but has supplied other cities with teachers, so that other centers of like influence could be created. This institution has also shown the authorities here the necessity of training teachers for this kind of school work, and a department of cooking has been provided for in the city normal school. So the continuation and improvement of the work are secured.

When Mrs. Hemenway's attention was called to physical training as a means of improving the health, physique, and graceful bearing of the young, she immediately began experimenting with various systems of gymnastics for the purpose of ascertaining which was best adapted to the needs of American children.

She soon became so favorably impressed with the Swedish system that she invited 25 Boston teachers to assist her in making her experiment with it. Their judgment of the result was so favorable that she made an offer to the school committee to train a hundred teachers in the system, on condition that they be allowed to use the exercises in their classes in case they chose to do so. The offer was accepted, and the result proved a success.

Mrs. Hemenway saw at the outset that what she could do personally was but a trifle compared to what ought to be done, so she decided to start the work in such a way that it would become as broad as Boston and as lasting. Hence she began at once to share the responsibility with the city and to train the teachers for the work.

She soon gained such a broad view of the possibilities of the system that she decided to make it more generally known. This led to the great Conference on Physical Training in Boston in 1889, which did so much to arouse an interest in the subject and to create a demand for teachers specially trained for the work. But it was not enough to create a demand for teachers; the demand must be met; so she established the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics for the education and training of teachers of gymnastics.

Many imitators would not do for this work. She believed the body to be the temple of God, and that it should be guarded and adorned by those who knew it so well as to believe in its possibilities and its sacredness. This school has done much to qualify the teachers of Boston for conducting the Swedish exercises, and it has sent its graduates into many other cities, which in turn have become centers of inspiration and help along the same line. Mrs. Hemenway, through this school, will improve the physical power, health, and morality of millions of our children.

But she was not satisfied with all this. She saw that to make this work perpetual in Boston the education of teachers of gymnastics must be made perpetual: it must not depend upon one frail life; so she furnished the best equipped teacher that she could procure to give instruction in the theory and art of gymnastics in the Boston Normal School till a woman could be educated for the place. When this was done and the school committee had appointed a competent teacher, Mrs. Hemenway's influence was gradually withdrawn, so that now every graduate of our normal school goes out prepared to direct intelligently the work in gymnastics, and all is done that human foresight could devise to make instruction in this subject perpetual.

Her work in connection with the Old South had the same general aim. It was to improve the morals of the people by teaching patriotism widely and perpetually. She once said: "I have just given \$100,000 to save the Old South, yet I care nothing for the church or the corner lot; but if I live, such teaching shall be done in that old building and such an influence shall go out from it as shall make the children of future generations love their country so tenderly that there can never be another civil war in this country." This sentiment accounts for her support of Old South summer lectures and Old South prize essays for the development of patriotism in the young.

Mrs. Hemenway spent \$100,000 in building up the Tileston Normal School, in Wilmington, N. C. When asked why she gave money to support schools in the South, she replied: "When my country called for her sons to defend the flag, I had none to give. Mine was but a lad of 12. I gave my money as a thank offering that I was not called to suffer as other mothers who gave their sons and lost them. I gave it that the children of this generation might be taught to love the flag their fathers tore down."

THE OLD SOUTH WORK.

[By Edwin D. Mead.¹]

* * * The extent of the obligation of Boston and of America to Mrs. Hemenway for her devotion to the historical and political education of our young people is something which we only now begin to properly appreciate, when she has left us and we view her work as a whole. I do not think it is too much to say that she has done more than any other single individual in the same time to promote popular interest in American history and to promote intelligent patriotism.

Mary Hemenway was a woman whose interests and sympathies were as broad as the world; but she was a great patriot—and she was preeminently that. She was an enthusiastic lover of freedom and of democracy, and there was not a day of her life that she did not think of the great price with which our own heritage of freedom had been purchased. Her patriotism was loyalty. She had a deep feeling of personal gratitude to the founders of New England and the fathers of the Republic. She had a reverent pride in our position of leadership in the history and movement of modern democracy, and she had a consuming zeal to keep the nation strong and pure and worthy of its best traditions, and to kindle this zeal among the young people of the nation. With all her great enthusiasms, she was an amazingly practical and definite woman. She wasted no time or strength in vague generalities, either of speech or action. Others might long for the time when the kingdom of God should cover the earth as the waters cover the sea—and she longed for it; but while others longed she devoted herself to doing what she could to bring that corner of God's world in which she was set into conformity with the laws of God—and this by every means in her power, by teaching poor girls how to make better clothes and cook better dinners and make better homes, by teaching people to value health and respect and train their bodies, by inciting people to read better books and love better music and better pictures and be interested in more important things. Others might long for the parliament of man and the federation of the world—and so did she; but while others longed she devoted herself to doing what she could to make this nation, for which she was particularly responsible, fitter for the federation when it comes. The good patriot, to her thinking, was not the worse cosmopolite. The good state for which she worked was a good Massachusetts, and her chief interest, while others talked municipal reform, was to make a better Boston.

American history, people used to say, is not interesting; and they read about *Ivry* and *Marathon* and *Zama*, about *Pym* and *Pepin* and *Pericles*, the ephors, the tribunes, and the House of Lords. American history, said Mrs. Hemenway, is to us the most interesting and the most important history in the world, if we would only open our eyes to it and look at it in the right way—and I will help people to look at it in the right way. Our very archæology, she said, is of the highest interest; and through the researches of Mr. Cushing and Dr. Fewkes and others among the *Zuñis* and the *Moquis*, sustained by her at the cost of thousands of dollars, she did an immense work to make interest in it general. Boston, the Puritan city—how proud she was of its great line of heroic men, from *Winthrop* and *Cotton* and *Eliot* and *Harvard* to *Sumner* and *Garrison* and *Parker* and *Phillips*! How proud she was that *Harry Vane* once trod its soil and here felt himself at home! How she loved *Hancock* and *Otis* and *Warren* and *Revere* and the great men of the Boston town meetings—above all, *Samuel Adams*, the very mention of whose name always thrilled her, and whose portrait was the only one save *Washington's* which hung on the oaken walls of her great dining room! The Boston historians, *Prescott*, *Motley*, *Parkman*; the Boston poets, *Longfellow*, *Lowell*, *Emerson*—each word of every one she treasured. She would have enjoyed and would have understood, as few others, that recent declaration of *Charles Francis Adams*, that the founding of Boston was fraught with consequences hardly less important than those of the founding of Rome. All other Boston men and women must see Boston as she saw it—that was her high resolve; they must know and take to heart that they were citizens of no mean city; they must be roused to the sacredness of their inheritance, that so they might be roused to the nobility of their citizenship and the greatness of their duty. It was with this aim and with this spirit, not with the spirit of the mere antiquarian, that Mrs. Hemenway inaugurated the Old South work. History with her was for use—the history of Boston, the history of New England, the history of America.

In the first place she saved the Old South Meeting House. She contributed \$100,000 toward the fund necessary to prevent its destruction. It is hard for us to realize, so much deeper is the reverence for historic places which the great anniversaries of these late years have done so much to beget, that in our very centennial year, 1876, the Old South Meeting House, the most sacred and historic structure in Boston, was in danger of destruction. The old Hancock house, for which, could it be

¹ Reprinted from the *Journal of Education*, August 30–September 13, 1894.

restored, Boston would to-day pour out unlimited treasure, had gone, with but feeble protest, only a dozen years before; and but for Mrs. Hemenway the Old South Meeting House would have gone in 1876. She saved it, and, having saved it, she determined that it should not stand an idle monument, the tomb of the great ghosts, but a living temple of patriotism. She knew the didactic power of great associations; and everyone who in these fifteen years has been in the habit of going to the lectures and celebrations at the Old South knows with what added force many a lesson has been taught within the walls which heard the tread of Washington, and which still echo the words of Samuel Adams and James Otis and Joseph Warren.

The machinery of the Old South work has been the simplest. That is why any city, if it has public spirited people to sustain it, can easily carry on such work. That is why work like it, owing its parentage and impulse to it, has been undertaken in Providence and Brooklyn and Philadelphia and Indianapolis and Chicago and elsewhere. That is why men and women all over the country, organized in societies or not, who are really in earnest about good citizenship, can do much to promote similar work in the cities and towns in which they live. We have believed at the Old South Meeting House simply in the power of the spoken word and the printed page. We have had lectures and we have circulated historical leaflets.

What is an Old South lecture course like? That is what many of the teachers and many of the young people who read the Journal of Education, and who are not conversant with the work, will like to know. What kind of subjects do we think will attract and instruct bright young people of 15 or 16, set them to reading in American history, make them more interested in their country, and make better citizens of them? That question can not, perhaps, be better answered than by giving the Old South programme for the present summer. This course is devoted to "The Founders of New England," and the eight lectures are as follows: "William Brewster, the elder of Plymouth," by Rev. Edward Everett Hale; "William Bradford, the governor of Plymouth," by Rev. William Elliot Griffis; "John Winthrop, the governor of Massachusetts," by Hon. Frederic T. Greenhalge; "John Harvard, and the founding of Harvard College," by Mr. William R. Thayer; "John Eliot, the apostle to the Indians," by Rev. James de Normandie; "John Cotton, the minister of Boston," by Rev. John Cotton Brooks; "Roger Williams, the founder of Rhode Island," by President E. Benjamin Andrews; "Thomas Hooker, the founder of Connecticut," by Rev. Joseph H. Twichell.

It will be noticed that the several subjects in this course are presented by representative men—men especially identified in one way or another with their special themes. Thus, Edward Everett Hale, who spoke on Elder Brewster, is certainly our greatest New England "elder" to-day. Dr. Griffis, whose book on "Brave Little Holland" is being read at this time by many of our young people, is an authority in Pilgrim history, having now in preparation a work on "The Pilgrim Fathers in England, Holland, and America." It was singularly fortunate that the present governor of Massachusetts could speak upon Governor Winthrop. Mr. Thayer is the editor of the Harvard Graduates' Magazine, and a special student of John Harvard's life and times. Mr. De Normandie is John Eliot's successor as minister of the old church in Roxbury. Rev. John Cotton Brooks, Phillips Brooks's brother, is a lineal descendant of John Cotton, and has preached in his pulpit in St. Botolph's church at old Boston, in England. President Andrews, of Brown University, is the very best person to come from Rhode Island to tell of that little State's great founder. Mr. Twichell, the eminent Hartford minister, was the chosen orator at the celebration of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of Connecticut, in 1889. With such a list of speakers as this, this course upon "The founding of New England" could not help being a strong, brilliant, and valuable course; and so it has proved.

The Old South lectures—thanks to Mrs. Hemenway's generosity, still active by provision of her will—are entirely free to all young people. Tickets are sent to all persons under 20, applying in their own handwriting to the directors of the Old South studies, at the Old South Meeting House, and inclosing stamps. Older people can come if they wish to—and a great many do come—but these pay for their tickets; it is understood that the lectures are designed for the young people. We tell our lecturers to aim at the bright boy and girl of 15, and forget that there is anybody else in the audience. If the lecturer hits them, he is sure to interest everybody; if he does not, he is a failure as an Old South lecturer. We tell them to be graphic and picturesque—dullness, however learned, is the one thing which young people will not pardon; we tell them to speak without notes—if they do not always satisfy themselves quite so well, they please everybody else a great deal better; and we tell them never to speak over an hour—we pardon fifty-nine minutes, but we do not pardon sixty-one. Persons starting work like the Old South work in other cities would do well to remember these simple rules. Any persons looking in upon the great audience of young people which, on the Wednesday afternoons of summer, fills the Old South Meeting House, will quickly satisfy themselves whether American history taught by such lectures is interesting.

For the Old South lectures are summer lectures—vacation lectures—given at 3 o'clock on Wednesday afternoons. They begin when the graduation exercises and the Fourth of July are well behind, usually on the Wednesday nearest August 1. For one reason we find this a little late—it carries the last lecture or two beyond the opening of the schools in September; and such courses of lectures in vacation might well begin as early as the middle of July.

Our lectures are not meant for idlers; we do not aim to entertain a crowd of children for an hour in a desultory fashion; our lecturers do not talk baby talk. The Old South work is a serious educational work; its programmes are careful and sequential, making demands upon the hearers; it assumes that the young people who come are students, or want to be—and by consistently assuming it, it makes them so. Dr. Hale, who has addressed these Old South audiences oftener, perhaps, than anybody else, remarked at the opening of the present course upon the notable development in the character and carriage of the audiences in these years of the work; it is no longer safe, he said, to say 1603 at the Old South, when you ought to say 1602.

Last year, when the people of the whole country were assembling at Chicago, the capital of the great West, the lectures were devoted to the subject of "The opening of the West." The subjects of the previous ten annual courses were as follows: "Early Massachusetts history," "Representative men in Boston history," "The war for the Union," "The war for independence," "The birth of the nation," "The story of the centuries," "America and France," "The American Indians," "The new birth of the world," "The discovery of America."

* * * * *

The Old South Leaflets are prepared, primarily, for circulation among the young people attending the Old South lectures. The subjects of the leaflets are usually immediately related to the subjects of the lectures. They are meant to supplement the lectures and stimulate reading and inquiry among the young people. They are made up, for the most part, from original papers of the periods treated in the lectures, in the hope to make the men and the life of those periods more clear and real. Careful historical notes and references to the best books on the subjects are added, the leaflets usually consisting of 16 or 20 pages. A single instance more will suffice to show the relation of the leaflets to the lectures. The year 1889 being the centennial both of the beginning of our own Federal Government and of the French revolution, the lectures for the year, under the general title of "America and France," were devoted entirely to subjects in which the history of America is related to that of France, as follows: "Champlain, the founder of Quebec," "La Salle and the French in the Great West," "The Jesuit missionaries in America," "Wolfe and Montcalm. The struggle of England and France for the Continent," "Franklin in France," "The friendship of Washington and Lafayette," "Thomas Jefferson and the Louisiana purchase," "The year 1789." The corresponding leaflets were as follows: "Verrazzano's account of his voyage to America," "Marquette's account of his discovery of the Mississippi," "Mr. Parkman's histories," "The capture of Quebec, from Parkman's 'Conspiracy of Pontiac,'" "Selections from Franklin's letters from France," "Letters of Washington and Lafayette," "The Declaration of Independence," "The French declaration of the Rights of Man, 1789."

* * * * *

The virtue of the Old South Leaflets is that they bring students into first hand, instead of second hand, touch with history. That, indeed, may describe the Old South work altogether. It has been an effort to bring the young people of Boston and America into original relations with history; and it has been, we think, the foremost effort of the kind in the country. This is why it has won the attention and commendation, so gratifying to us, of the educators of the country. Our joy in the Old South work has been the joy of being pioneers, and the joy of knowing that we were pioneers in the right direction. We should have known this if others had not known it; but we do not deny that the warm words of the historical scholars and teachers of the country have been very grateful and very helpful to us. The Old South work is "in exactly the right direction," John Fiske has said. It is a pleasant thing to remember that it was at Mrs. Hemenway's instance and at her strong solicitation that Mr. Fiske first turned his efforts to the field of American history; and almost everything that has appeared in his magnificent series of historical works was first given in the form of lectures at the Old South. In his new school history of the United States, * * * the Old South Leaflets are constantly commended for use in connection. "The publication of these leaflets," he says, "is sure to have a most happy effect in awakening general interest, on the part of young students, in original documents." To the same effect writes Mr. Montgomery, whose text-books in history are so widely used in the schools. James MacAlister, the president of the Drexel Institute in Philadelphia, writes: "I regard the Old

South work as one of the most important educational movements of recent times." Mr. Herbert Welsh, of Philadelphia, wrote a special tract about the Old South work and spread it broadcast in Philadelphia. He had been deeply impressed by the Old South work when he came to lecture for us a little while before. "The secret of the success of the Old South plan," he said, "is that it teaches history from a living and most practical standpoint. It is the application of the best that our past has given to the brain and heart of the youth of the present." "Why should not this simple and effective plan be made use of in Philadelphia?" he asked; and last year Old South work was inaugurated in Philadelphia, the lectures to the young people being given in the old State house, where the Declaration of Independence was signed and the Constitution framed. President Andrews, of Brown University, Prof. Herbert Adams, of Johns Hopkins, Professor Hart, of Harvard, Prof. Woodrow Wilson, Mr. Horace E. Scudder, and others have written in the same warm way. Mr. Tetlow, the master of the Boston Girls' High School, and masters all over the country, unite in welcoming the leaflets. "To teach history by the study of original documents," writes one, "has been the dream of the best instructors, but this dream may now be realized through the inexpensive form in which these originals are presented." "The educational world," writes Miss Coman, the professor of history at Wellesley College, "is coming to recognize the value of teaching history, even to young people, from the original records, rather than from accounts at second or third hand. I rejoice that these documents have been made accessible to the children of our public schools." "We may talk about such documents all we please," says Mr. Huling, the master of the Cambridge High School, "and little good will be done; but when the pupil reads one of these for himself, he is indeed a dull fellow if he does not carry away a definite impression of its place in history." "I wish," writes Mr. Belfield, the principal of the Chicago Manual Training School, who has done more than anybody else to promote the Old South movement in the West, "that the series could be brought to the attention of every school superintendent, high-school principal, and teacher of United States history in the country." "The Old South Leaflets," says Professor Folwell, the professor of history in the University of Minnesota, "ought to be scattered by millions of copies all over our country."

It is a satisfaction to be able to quote such words from such persons, for they are surely a great reinforcement of our commendation of this missionary work in good citizenship to the attention of the country. For that is what the Old South work is—a missionary work in good citizenship—and feeling it to be that, we "commend ourselves." We wish that societies of young men and women might be organized in a thousand places for historical and political studies, and that our little Old South Leaflets might prove of as much service to these as they are proving to our Old South audiences and to the schools.

But the Old South work is not simply a means of doing something for the young people of Boston; it is also a means of getting something from them and setting them to work for themselves. Every year prizes are offered to the graduates of the Boston high schools, graduates of the current year and the preceding year, for the best essays on subjects in American history. Two subjects are proposed each year, and two prizes are awarded for each subject, the first prize being \$40 and the second \$25. The subjects are announced in June, just as the schools close, and the essays must be submitted in the following January. The prizes are always announced at the Washington's birthday celebration, which is one of the events of the Old South year. The subjects proposed each year for the essays are always closely related to the general subject of the lectures for the year, our aim being to make the entire work for the year unified and articulate, each part of it helping the rest. The subjects for the essays for the present year, when the lectures are devoted to "The founders of New England," are (1) "The relations of the founders of New England to the universities of Cambridge and Oxford," (2) "The fundamental orders of Connecticut and their place in the history of written constitutions."

I think that some of your readers would be surprised at the thoroughness and general excellence of many of these essays written by pupils just out of our high schools. The first-prize essay for 1881, on "The policy of the early colonists of Massachusetts toward Quakers and others whom they regarded as intruders," by Henry L. Southwick, and one of the first-prize essays for 1889, on "Washington's interest in education," by Miss Caroline C. Stecker, have been printed, and can be procured at the Old South Meeting House. Another of the prize essays, on "Washington's interest in education," by Miss Julia K. Ordway, was published in the *New England Magazine* for May, 1890; one of the first-prize essays for 1890, on "Philip, Pontiac, and Tecumseh," by Miss Caroline C. Stecker, appeared in the *New England Magazine* for September, 1891; and one of the first-prize essays for 1891, on "Marco Polo's explorations in Asia and their influence upon Columbus," by Miss Helen P. Margesson, in the *New England Magazine* for August, 1892. The *New England Magazine*, which is devoted preeminently to matters relating to American history and good citizenship, has from the time of its founding, five years ago, made itself an organ of the Old

South work, publishing many of the Old South essays and lectures, and always noticing in its editor's table everything relating to the progress of the movement.

The young people who have competed for these Old South prizes are naturally the best students of history in their successive years in the Boston high schools. They now number more than 100, and they have recently formed themselves into an Old South Historical Society. Many of the Old South essayists have, of course, gone on into college, and many are now scattered over the country; but more than half of their number, not a few of them teachers in the schools, are to-day within sound of the Old South bell, and the quarterly meetings of the little society, which by and by will be a big society, are very interesting. There is always some careful historical paper read by one of the members, and then there is a discussion. We have the beginning of a very good library in the essayists' room at the Old South, and this we hope will grow and that the society's headquarters will by and by become a real seminary. The society is rapidly becoming an efficient factor in the general Old South work. It has recently formed three active committees—a lecture committee, an essay committee, and an outlook committee—and its leading spirits are ambitious for larger service. The members of the lecture committee assist in the distribution of tickets to the schools and in enlisting the interest of young people in the lectures. The members of the essay committee similarly devote themselves to enlisting the interest of the high schools in the essays. They will also read the essays submitted each year, not for the sake of adjudging the award of prizes—that is in other hands—but that there may always be in the society scholarly members thoroughly cognizant of the character of the work being done and of the varying capacity of the new members entering the society. The office of the outlook committee is to keep itself informed and to keep the society informed of all important efforts at home and abroad for the historical and political education of young people. It will watch the newspapers; it will watch the magazines; it will watch the schools. It will report anything it finds said about the Old South work and about its extension anywhere. At the next meeting I suppose it will tell the society about Mr. Fiske's new school history and about any new text-books in civil government which have appeared. I hope it will tell how much better most of the series of historical readers published in England for the use of the schools are than the similar books which we have in America. It is sure to say something about the remarkable growth of the Lyceum Leagues among our young people lately, and it is sure to report the recent utterances of President Clark and other leaders of the Christian Endeavor movement upon the importance of rousing a more definite interest in politics and greater devotion to the duties of citizenship among the young people in that great organization. Especially will it notice at this time the Historical Pilgrimage, that interesting educational movement which suddenly appeared this summer, full grown—a movement which would have enlisted so warmly the sympathies of Mrs. Hemenway, who felt, as almost nobody else ever felt, the immense educational power of historical associations. It will tell the society what Mr. Stead has written about historical pilgrimages in England, and Mr. Powell and Dr. Shaw in America; it will speak of the recent reception of the pilgrims at the Old South; and it may venture the inquiry whether the Old South Historical Society might not profitably make itself a center for organizing such local pilgrimages for the benefit of the young people of Boston—pilgrimages, one perhaps each year, to Plymouth and Salem and Lexington and Concord and old Rutland and Newport and Deerfield and a score of places. That thought, I know, is already working in the minds of some of the more enterprising members of the society.

Many societies of young people all over the country might well take up such historical studies as those in which the Old South Historical Society interests itself. They should also interest themselves in studies more directly political and social. We have in Boston a Society for Promoting Good Citizenship. This is not a constituent part of the Old South work; but it is a society in whose efforts some of us who have the Old South work at heart are deeply interested, and its lectures are given at the Old South Meeting House. Its lectures deal with such subjects as qualifications for citizenship, municipal reform, the reform of the newspaper. Last season the lectures were upon "A more beautiful public life," the several subjects being: "The lessons of the white city," "Boards of beauty," "Municipal art," "Art in the public schools," "Art museums and the people," and "Boston, the City of God." These subjects, and such as these, young men and women might take up in their societies, with great benefit to themselves and to their communities. Our young people should train themselves also in the organization and procedure of our local and general government, as presented in the text-books on civil government, now happily becoming so common in the schools. The young men in one of our colleges have a House of Commons; in another college—a young woman's college—they have a House of Representatives. Our Old South Historical Society has talked of organizing a town meeting for the discussion of public questions and for schooling in legislative methods. Why should not such town meetings be common among our young people?

Why, too, will not our young people everywhere, as a part of their service for good citizenship, engage in a crusade in behalf of better music? Good music is a great educator. Bad music is debilitating and debasing. That was a wise man whom old Fletcher quotes as saying: "Let me make the songs of a people and I care not who makes the laws." How many of the young men and women in the high schools have read what Plato says about strong, pure music in education, in his book on *The Laws*? Indeed, it is to be feared that not all the teachers have read it. I wish that a hundred clubs or classes of young people would read Plato's *Laws* next winter, and his *Republic* the next, and then Aristotle's *Politics*. Do not think they are hard, dull books. They are fresh, fascinating books, and seem almost as modern, in all their discussions of socialism, education, and the rest, as the last magazine—only they are so much better and more fruitful than the magazine! They make us ashamed of ourselves, these great Greek thinkers, their peaching is so much better than our practice; but it is a good thing to be made ashamed of ourselves sometimes, and we need it very much here in America in the matter of music. We are suffering in our homes, in our schools, in our churches, our theaters, everywhere, from music of the trashiest and most vulgar character. Let us go to school to Plato; let us go to school to Germany and England. We aim to do something in behalf of this reform at the Old South. Our large choruses from the public schools at many of our celebrations have sung well; but we wish to do a real educational work, not only as touching patriotic music strictly, but as touching better music for the people generally. If in some future the ghosts of some of the great Greeks stroll into the Old South Meeting House we hope they may find it the center of influences in behalf of pure and inspiring music, which shall be as gratifying to them as the devotion to the State which has been inculcated there in these years would surely be.

THE OLD SOUTH LEAFLETS.

The Old South Leaflets, which have been published during the last thirteen years, in connection with these annual courses of historical lectures at the Old South Meeting House, have attracted so much attention and proved of so much service, that the directors have entered upon the publication of the leaflets for general circulation, with the needs of schools, colleges, private clubs, and classes especially in mind. The leaflets are prepared by Mr. Edwin D. Mead. They are largely reproductions of important original papers, accompanied by useful historical and bibliographical notes. They consist, on an average, of 16 pages, and are sold at the low price of 5 cents a copy, or \$4 per 100. The aim is to bring them within easy reach of everybody. The Old South work, founded by Mrs. Mary Hemenway, and still sustained by provision of her will, is a work for the education of the people, and especially the education of our young people, in American history and politics; and its promoters believe that few things can contribute better to this end than the wide circulation of such leaflets as those now undertaken. It is hoped that professors in our colleges and teachers everywhere will welcome them for use in their classes, and that they may meet the needs of the societies of young men and women now happily being organized in so many places for historical and political studies. Some idea of the character of these Old South Leaflets may be gained from the following list of the subjects of the first sixty-four numbers, which are now ready. It will be noticed that many of the later numbers are the same as certain numbers in the annual series. Since 1890 they are essentially the same, and persons ordering the leaflets need simply observe the following numbers:

No. 1. The Constitution of the United States. No. 2. The Articles of Confederation. No. 3. The Declaration of Independence. No. 4. Washington's Farewell Address. No. 5. Magna Charta. No. 6. Vane's "Healing Question." No. 7. Charter of Massachusetts Bay, 1629. No. 8. Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, 1638. No. 9. Franklin's Plan of Union, 1754. No. 10. Washington's Inaugurals. No. 11. Lincoln's Inaugurals and Emancipation Proclamation. No. 12. The Federalist, Nos. 1 and 2. No. 13. The Ordinance of 1787. No. 14. The Constitution of Ohio. No. 15. Washington's Circular Letter to the Governors of the States, 1783. No. 16. Washington's Letter to Benjamin Harrison, 1784. No. 17. Verrazzano's Voyage, 1524. No. 18. The Constitution of Switzerland. No. 19. The Bill of Rights, 1689. No. 20. Coronado's Letter to Mendoza, 1540. No. 21. Eliot's Brief Narrative of the Progress of the Gospel among the Indians, 1670. No. 22. Wheelock's Narrative of the Rise of the Indian School at Lebanon, Conn., 1762. No. 23. The Petition of Rights, 1628. No. 24. The Grand Remonstrance. No. 25. The Scottish National Covenants. No. 26. The Agreement of the People. No. 27. The Instrument of Government. No. 28. Cromwell's First Speech to his Parliament. No. 29. The Discovery of America, from the Life of Columbus by his Son, Ferdinand Columbus. No. 30. Strabo's Introduction to Geography. No. 31. The Voyages to Vinland, from the Saga of Eric the Red. No. 32. Marco Polo's Account of Japan and Java. No. 33. Columbus's Letter to Gabriel Sanchez, describing the First Voyage and Discovery.

No. 34. Amerigo Vespucci's Account of his First Voyage. No. 35. Cortes's Account of the City of Mexico. No. 36. The Death of De Soto, from the "Narrative of a Gentleman of Elvas." No. 37. Early Notices of the Voyages of the Cabots. No. 38. Henry Lee's Funeral Oration on Washington. No. 39. De Vaca's Account of his Journey to New Mexico, 1535. No. 40. Manasseh Cutler's Description of Ohio, 1787. No. 41. Washington's Journal of his Tour to the Ohio, 1770. No. 42. Garfield's Address on the Northwest Territory and the Western Reserve. No. 43. George Rogers Clark's Account of the Capture of Vincennes, 1779. No. 44. Jefferson's Life of Captain Meriwether Lewis. No. 45. Fremont's Account of his Ascent of Fremont's Peak. No. 46. Father Marquette at Chicago, 1673. No. 47. Washington's Account of the Army at Cambridge, 1775. No. 48. Bradford's Memoir of Elder Brewster. No. 49. Bradford's First Dialogue. No. 50. Winthrop's "Conclusions for the Plantation in New England." No. 51. "New England's First Fruits," 1643. No. 52. John Eliot's "Indian Grammar Begun." No. 53. John Cotton's "God's Promise to his Plantation." No. 54. Letters of Roger Williams to Winthrop. No. 55. Thomas Hooker's "Way of the Churches of New England." No. 56. The Monroe Doctrine: President Monroe's Message of 1823. No. 57. The English Bible, selections from the various versions. No. 58. Hooper's Letters to Bullinger. No. 59. Sir John Eliot's "Apology for Socrates." No. 60. Ship-money Papers. No. 61. Pym's Speech against Strafford. No. 62. Cromwell's Second Speech. No. 63. Milton's "A Free Commonwealth." No. 64. Sir Henry Vane's Defence.

Title pages covering Nos. 1 to 25 (Vol. I) and 26 to 50 (Vol. II) will be furnished to any person buying the entire series and desiring to bind them in volumes. Address Directors of Old South Studies, Old South Meeting House, Boston.

WOMEN AND MEN—THE ASSAULT ON PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

[Contributed by T. W. Higginson to Harper's Bazaar.]

When Matthew Arnold, who had spent much of his life as an inspector of schools came to this country, he found with surprise that our public schools were not what he had supposed. He had thought them schools to which all classes sent their children; but he found it otherwise. In cities, he said, they seemed to be essentially class schools—that is, the more prosperous classes avoided them, sending their sons rarely to them, their daughters never. What then became of the talk of our orators in favor of these schools as the most democratic thing in the whole community? In the country it might be so, but population was tending more and more to the cities, tending away, that is, from the public schools. All the alleged danger to our system from religious interference seemed to him trivial compared with this silent social interference, which was going on all the time.

Matthew Arnold was in many ways, for a man so eminent, curiously narrow and even whimsical, but his perceptions on this one point were certainly acute. As one evidence of it we see a movement brought forward in the newspapers, from several different quarters, to crush this particular evil, by one sweeping measure, with the absolute prohibition of all private schools. Either abolish them all and force every child into the public schools, or else place all private schools under direct public supervision and allow at their head only publicly trained teachers. There is little chance that any such measure will ever be seriously brought forward. The amount already invested in private or endowed schools and colleges—and the plan, to be consistent, must include colleges—is too immense to allow of its being very strongly urged. But it presents some very interesting points and is worth considering.

To begin with, it has the merit, unlike the attacks on merely denominational schools, of being at least logical. Those attacks in some parts of our land have needed almost no probing to show a hopeless want of logic. They always turned out to be aimed, not at denominational schools in themselves, but at some particular denomination. At the East this was naturally the Roman Catholic body, and to some extent the Episcopalian. In certain Western States it was the Roman Catholics and Lutherans. But these attempts to prohibit sectarian schools invariably fell to pieces when it appeared that most of the opponents had not the slightest objection to denominational schools if they only belonged to the right denomination—that is, their own—and only objected to them in the hands of some other religious body. The crowning instance of this was when the late Rev. Dr. Miner, an excellent and leading clergyman of the Universalist order, appeared every winter before the Massachusetts legislature to urge the utter prohibition of parochial schools; and yet spent one of the last days of his life in giving out diplomas at an academy of his own sect, and, moreover, provided for several similar schools in his will.

Now no such inconsistency stands in the way of those who would prohibit, without distinction, all denominational and all private schools. Unwise they may be, but not illogical. Indeed, the step they propose is only following out consistently what the others urged inconsistently. If it is right to coerce one mother, who takes

her children from the public school through anxiety for their souls, we should certainly do the same for another, who withdraws hers for the sake of their bodies; or perhaps, after all, only out of regard for the welfare of their clothes. There are several prominent religious bodies which believe that religious education of their own stamp is absolutely needful for children. Most of the early public schools in this country were on that basis, and began instruction with the New England Primer. We may say that this motive is now outgrown; but it is certainly as laudible as when a daughter is taken from one school and sent to another, that she may be among better-dressed children or make desirable acquaintances.

Grant these reasons frivolous—and they are not wholly so—there are ample reasons why the entire prohibition of private schools would be a calamity to the educational world. The reason is that they afford what the public schools rarely can, a place where original methods may be tried and individual modes of teaching developed. Private schools are the experimental stations for public schools. A great public school system is a vast machine, and has the merits and defects of machinery. It usually surpasses private institutions in method, order, punctuality, accuracy of training. It is very desirable that every teacher and every pupil should at some time share its training. In these respects it is the regular army besides militia. But this brings imitations. The French commissioner of education once boasted that in his office in Paris he knew with perfect precision just what lesson every class in every school in the remotest provinces of France was reciting. We do not reach this, but it is of necessity the ideal of every public system. It has great merit, but it kills originality. No teacher can ever try an experiment, for that might lose 1 per cent in the proportion of the first class able to pass examination at the end of the year. The teacher is there to do a precise part; no less, no more. Under this discipline great results are often achieved, but they are the results of drill, not of inspiration.

Accordingly every educational authority admits that the epoch-making experiments in education—the improvements of Pestalozzi, Fellenberg, Froebel—were made in private, not public schools. Like all other experiments, they were tried at the risk of the inventor or his backers, and often to the impoverishment of all concerned. Mr. A. Bronson Alcott's school was starved out, in Boston, half a century ago, and he himself dismissed with pitying laughter. Yet there is no intelligent educator who does not now admit the value of his suggestions; and Dr. Harris, the national superintendent of education, is his admiring biographer. His first assistant, Miss Elizabeth Peabody—esteemed throughout her beneficent life a dreamer of the dreamers—yet forced upon American educators Froebel's kindergarten. He began it with a few peasant children in Germany, and now every city in the United States is either adopting or discussing it. In many things the private school leads, the public school follows. Every one who writes a schoolbook involving some originality of method knows that the private schools will take it up first. If it succeeds there, the public schools will follow. To abolish or impair these public schools would be a crime against the State; to prohibit private schools an almost equal crime. It would be like saying that all observatories must be sustained by the State only, and that Mr. Percival Lowell should be absolutely prohibited from further cultivating his personal intimacy with the planet Mars.

HUMANE EDUCATION.

The objection of the American Humane Society, as stated by its president, George T. Angell, 19 Milk street, Boston, is "to humanely educate the American people for the purpose of stopping every form of cruelty, both to human beings and the lower animals."

For the accomplishment of this worthy purpose it seeks to enlist the aid of public and private school teachers, the educational, religious, and secular press, and the clergy of all denominations, "in order to build up in our colleges, schools, and elsewhere a spirit of chivalry and humanity which shall in coming generations substitute ballots for bullets, prevent anarchy and crime, protect the defenseless, maintain the right, and hasten the coming of peace on earth and good will to every harmless living creature, both human and dumb."

This work of this society should commend itself to all well-disposed persons. One phase of the society's activity is its pronounced opposition to the vivisection or the indiscriminate dissection of animals in the public schools. It is felt that such practices have an unfavorable effect on young and undeveloped minds—tend to blunt the edge of their finer sensibilities.

The agitation of this subject in Massachusetts led to the enactment of a law in 1894 prohibiting the vivisection of animals in the public schools, or the exhibiting of any animal upon which vivisection had been practiced; also regulating the dissection of dead animals.

The States of Maine and Washington require their teachers to spend at least ten minutes each week in teaching kindness to animals.

MISSISSIPPI.

WHY EDUCATE? WHAT IS THE PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION?

[An address delivered at the second annual commencement of Millsaps College, Jackson, Miss., June 12, 1894, by Hon. William H. Sims, of Mississippi.]

Gentlemen of the Faculty and Student Body of Millsaps College, Ladies, and Gentlemen:

My appreciation of the honor of occupying this place to-day, in an institution whose success is very near my heart, will not, I trust, be measured by the modest contribution of thought and learning which I am able to bring to this occasion, but rather, let me ask, by the willingness I have shown to obey the summons of this faculty in coming a thousand miles to discharge a duty which the invitation of a Mississippi college imposes upon a Mississippian.

In appearing before you in this beautiful new home, the thought very naturally arises in my mind, Why was this building built? Of course, its dedication to present uses and the fame which has gone abroad concerning its origin would seem sufficiently to answer the inquiry. And yet, it has occurred to me that it may be useful in presenting what I have to say to-day to endeavor to center your attention upon what the answer to that question involves. Why was this building built? Do you imagine that this inquiry will have more of interest to a beholder of this structure a few centuries hence, as perchance he may look upon its venerable walls, stained by the mold and decay of time, when its architectural design may have become antiquated and obscured, amid the changeful fashions of later days; when its mission, then in part fulfilled, its history or many of its chapters written, the good that it shall have accomplished then made manifest, the seed that shall have been winnowed within these walls and distributed to the sowers scattered across the face of the land, yielding a fruitage excellent and a harvest abundant? And, may I ask, is there no good to be gained from such presuppositions? Does the forecasting of the possible outcome of a great benefaction to mankind inspire thoughts less of interest and of profit than the looking back upon the good already accomplished? Is it better to seek inspiration from the things of the past than from the hopes of the future? Is it better that our eyes be turned to the setting than the rising sun; to the gold-crowned summit of Solomon's Temple; to the land of promise which has been traversed, or to the shining pinnacles of glory which gleam ahead beyond the rugged hilltops and invite to the sun-burst splendor of the New Jerusalem?

But think on this as we may, I invite you back to the question suggested: Why was this building built? Did not its founder know before the work was begun why it was to be begun? Did not an intelligent benevolence conceive the object of its erection before its foundations were laid? Would the noble benefactor of his day and generation, whose name it bears and without whose munificent generosity its existence was not possible, have parted with his great endowment and led others to emulate his example without a definite object and what seemed to him a wise end in view, carefully and deliberately considered, which lay back of the giving of the gifts? Those who know him well and those who know the manner of men from whom large charities habitually come will answer, nay—verily!

What was that purpose? Why was this building built? I answer: It was built for the noblest of human purposes; for the highest earthly object this side of heaven for which any building can be built. It was built for a schoolhouse; for a college to enlarge the opportunities of Mississippi boys for high education, for sound, broad, conservative mental training, along the lines of Christian ideals.

And was this a wise investment of a great sum of money? Let us consider this:

Why educate? What is the philosophy of education?

Around these suggestive inquiries I purpose to group the facts and reflections which I have collected as my opportunities permitted to present to you to-day.

The student of nature and her wonderful methods is continually impressed by the wise adaptation of the means she employs to the ends designed. Throughout all the vast departments of creation, wherever scientific investigation has been rewarded with the discovery of what nature intended to effect in any particular case, this perfect adaptation of method to design is to be found. So certain is the intelligent mechanical inventor of the correctness of nature's plans that when he has been able to employ one of her devices in constructing his machine he looks forward to its successful operation with unwavering confidence, because he knows that no better contrivance is possible; and it may be always assumed that where this law of adaptation is not apparent it is not because of its absence but because nature's true purpose has not been discovered.

This prelude, I trust, will acquit me of seeming irreverence when I further say that no animal being on earth seems to have been less prepared for his natural environments, according to our knowledge of his introduction on this earth, than man.

From the very beginning of his existence on this mundane sphere he has commenced life the most dependent and the most helpless of all the animal kingdom. So far as we know, no other animal at birth is so poorly equipped for the life thrust upon him. The beasts of the field and the fowls of the air were furnished by nature with bodies suited to their environments, without need of artificial coverings, while man has needed bodily protection from the cradle of his being. All other animals except man were endowed at birth with natural instincts so perfectly adapted to their necessities that they correctly guided them in their selection and accumulation of food and the preparation of their several habitations with an exactness that left nothing to be desired for their well being.

Primitive man, however, we are left to suppose, was not so happily conditioned. He was at birth given no unerring inward impulse to safely guide him in the early days of his being amid the perils which surrounded him, no instinct to meet the animal necessities which soon beset him. Unlike other animals, he had no ready-made clothing for his vesture, no ready-made law for the government of his daily life, and like the Son of Man himself, when incarnated, "had not where to lay his head," though the foxes had holes and the birds of the air had nests.

It would be a shallow thinker, however, who would argue from these premises that nature's plummet slipped when man was made and placed on earth amid conditions unadjusted to his necessities. On the contrary, I maintain that all the grand philosophy of man's creation and being turns on this pivotal point. While seemingly the most helpless and most dependent of mortal beings at the start, and with the smallest provision ready-made to supply his animal wants, man was, notwithstanding, invested with such potential powers as not only marked him as nature's favorite, but as the crowning work of "Nature's God." Other animals, while they were under the special guidance of nature's law of instinct, were yet the slaves of the very laws that guided them and which fixed their conditions as mere animals in appointed grooves as long as the species should last; while man, endowed with mind and reason and soul like unto the spiritual image of God himself, possessed powers which, though feeble at first, were perforce of man's self-activity to be so developed by the friction of his environment and the free direction of his immortal personality as to make him the regnant king of all the kingdoms of nature, the Avatar of earth.

Thus armed with reason and self-determining purpose, unfettered by his Creator, man entered upon his career with capacity "to grow in knowledge and wisdom and holiness forever." His civilization is the measure of his progress toward complete development. His history is the record of his experience along the way of that progress. The lessons of that experience and the learning and wisdom he has accumulated and left to us are man's great educational capital. "As heirs of all the ages," each is entitled to share in this capital. The business of teaching is to so distribute the inheritance to the young heirs who seek it that they may be helped along their several ways of development and progress. The partiality and selfishness, however, with which this distribution has been made from remote eras by those whom power had set in authority is alike interesting and instructive, and the effort of benevolence in recent times, whether of individuals or of government, to ameliorate the condition of mankind and work out the problem of man's development has been most profitably directed to widening the avenues to learning and instruction, so that all may seek the portals of their temple with such freedom of thought and action as the good of society permits.

In contemplating the winding stream of educational development through the long years of recorded history, it is interesting to observe its tortuous course, its unequal volume, and the restricted boundaries of its channel, influenced and controlled, as it has been, by those who shaped the life and destiny of humanity. Seldom was it permitted to dash along with the impulse of nature into the cascades and waterfalls that set in motion the mills that ground the mental pabulum of the poor and lowly; rarer still to accumulate into great lakes and reservoirs of learning about which the multitude could congregate and slake their thirst for knowledge; and still rarer did it overflow the barriers made to confine it, and, like the generous Nile, spread its beneficent fertilization amid the desert about it, enriching and quickening the common mind. Its eddies were the whirlpools of fanatical ignorance maddened by wrongs. Its lakes were stagnant lagoons of brutish superstition, where darkness brooded and the vampire made its home. Its overflows were the fiery billows of religious wars consuming the youth and virtue of the nations. And yet this educational stream even in the ante-Christian period, was not without instances where it flowed through the untaught masses pure and strong and deep, like the Jordan through the body of the Dead Sea.

Glancing at educational conditions in the Orient, we find that from time immemorial they have been created and maintained by the government, or the ruling classes, for the narrowest and most selfish of purposes. It is to be noted, however, that far back in the centuries, the Chinese Government enforced general education, but of a rigid and stereotyped character. Its fundamental purpose was obedience to the

regnant authority; its ideal end, to the family. Profound reverence for parents and the aged, and a religious homage for the Emperor as the great father of all the families of the realm, were absolutely enforced. These, the precepts of their philosophers, Confucius and Mencius his follower enjoined, and the price of disobedience was death.

The Imperial Government was an aristocracy of scholars, all of its officers, from the highest to the lowest, were selected by competitive examinations from among those whose minds had been saturated with such teachings of reverence and whose memories were found best stored with the maxims and phrases, to the very letter, of the infallible philosophy of their classics. In their written examinations the betrayal of any thought of their own, or expression not based upon such authority, was fatal to the seeker of official trust. All independence of ideas was suppressed; all individuality pruned away by these procrustean methods. And thus the oldest and most populous nation of earth for centuries stood in its wooden shoes upon the same intellectual dead level, yielding the humblest obeisance to the supreme authority of the Empire and to the absolutism of prescribed thought crystallized in the maxims, laws, and standards handed down by their teachers of religion and philosophy. Is it wonderful that such education made hundreds of millions of intellectual dwarfs and automatons, who, though toilsome, sober, economical, peaceful, and skilled in many arts, have for centuries dwelt in the supreme contentment that they had nothing more to learn, and that all change was treason to state and religions?

Passing from China to ancient India, we leave popular education behind us, and high mental cultivation for the few and none for the many. Here the Brahmins, by a rigid religious tenure, monopolized all education. Impassable boundary lines divided society into the distinctive castes of Brahmin, and warrior, and merchant, or hand worker and slave. In these several castes they were born and lived and died. No interchange of the positions of the social strata was possible under the rustic dominion over mind and soul exercised by the sacred Brahmins. As priests set apart by their subtle religious philosophy, they were alone permitted to read and teach and interpret the books of the Vedas, the fountains of knowledge from which all their wisdom came. Hedged about with mystery and the profoundest reverence, their mental and moral sway was so absolute, that, although enjoying no official authority of state, their decisions of questions brought before them had the force and effect of law. They were regarded so nearly infallible that they could commit no crime worthy of corporal punishment. Their exclusive possession of all the real learning of the nation invested them with such awe and unquestioned superiority as to make it possible for them to maintain their supreme influence over all other classes. How this state of things was brought about it is difficult to trace; but undoubtedly the control of education perpetuated their power.

For just experience tells in every soil
That those that think must govern those that toil.

In Egypt as in ancient India, the molding of the national education was in the hands of a sacerdotal order. The children of the people were the recipients from their fathers of crude instruction in reading and writing, but the priests, who, through their religious potencies, ruled the ruling powers of state, kept within their unyielding grasp all superior instruction and dispensed it for their own ends and purposes. No development of the masses was possible under such conditions and the mysterious sphinx, the sleeping mummy in its staid ceremonies, and the immobile pyramids are just symbols and types of their motionless national life.

While the end of education in both ancient India and in Egypt was to subordinate the toiling millions to the absolute control and dominion of the priests, the educational purpose of the ancient Persians was to make soldiers. The State drew to itself all individual life for that object. The boy was born and trained and died not to achieve his own destiny, not to advance his own status or that of his family, but that he might efficiently serve the government in its armies. In short, no account was taken of the individuality of the citizen, his rights, his preferences, his tastes, his talents. He was a mere atom, whose existence was merged into the army of a Xerxes for the benefit of his kingdom. This we observe to be the operative principle underlying all oriental education. The tyranny of some power whether of caste among the Hindoos or of priests among the Egyptians and, we may add, among the ancient Jews or of government among the Chinese and the Persians, so proscribed the intellectual development of the people that it was everywhere more than ignored; it was repressed and molded by the ruling of the sacerdotal classes to their own ends and uses.

In striking contrast to the foregoing, Sparta excepted, was the philosophical aim of education among the Greeks, among whom "we find the most splendid types of intellectual culture the world has yet known." The education of the Spartans, as of the Persians, was the education of the State, by the State, and for the State, to make the most perfect human fighting machines which breeding and selection and

rigid discipline could accomplish with a hand of iron. Perhaps the human animal was never before or since so systematically and perfectly developed in a race. The healthy child was taken, the weakling was cast to the wild beasts of the forests. The chosen one was left in the care of the mother who gave her maternal service strictly to the purpose of this training. At 7 the boy went from her bosom to the bosom of the commonwealth, to be the mother's boy no longer. He was put in charge of a special magistrate as his trainer, by whom he was schooled in hardships and developed in strength and cunning and courage through years of assiduous attention. His sinews became as steel, his limbs practiced to fatigue and endurance, his art with arms perfect, his will obedient to the discipline of war, his eye true, his spirit daring and audacious and unconquerable. Of such were the three hundred who died with Leonidas at Thermopylæ, and these were only the types of eight thousand comrades in arms, every one of whom would have done the same thing.

In another part of Greece, however, alongside of the Spartan, there grew up at Athens a system of education of broader scope and more ennobling purpose. With equal devotion to the supremacy of the state and her need for invincible soldiers, the Athenian conception was to so educate her free-born citizens by promoting and developing rather than by restraining and cramping their individuality of character that they might not only be soldiers, but far more. The aim was to accomplish them not only for war but for the civic pursuits of peace. Not by the authority of law, as at Sparta, but by the force of public opinion. Not for the sole use and benefit of the body politic, but for the development and exaltation of the citizen first and the glory of Athens afterwards. The fruits of this conception were educational results never before equaled and perhaps never since surpassed. The harmonious training of mind and body were supplemented by an æsthetic culture. Their ideals, though not heaven sent and though not inspired by the contemplation of the Son of Righteousness, were born of a reverent love of goodness and beauty with which they had invested the most perfect of their mythological deities. Their unfettered freedom of thought shone through the marble drapery of their statues, and the soul of immortal longings inspired their canvas, while grace and lofty daring sat upon their persons and declared a character that despised all that was mean and ignoble. The result of Grecian education and culture did not end with her citizens. It was embalmed in her literature, and whispers its lessons of truth and beauty to-day through the galleries and labyrinths of the mind of every student and scholar whom its language has reached. It has clung to the very words of that language, and its airy grace has given it the wings of the thistle down and disseminated it all over the earth.

Further toward the setting sun, on shores washed by the same Mediterranean Sea that embraced the Peninsula of Hellas, arose a later civilization under the dominion and influence of Rome. This civilization, by reason of a valor, nursed by a stern spirit of independence and a patriotism born of the robust virtues of her people in the early days of the Republic had extended her empire across a populous region 3,000 miles in length by 2,000 in breadth. The genius of her people was conquest and their education was for that purpose, and to make the self-respecting freeman whose proudest boast was that he was a Roman citizen. Over his free spirit, however, the State exercised no educational coercion, but alike as at Athens, the sway of public opinion was the moulding factor of his culture, and the love of country the high incentive. His indomitable will did not expend its energies, as did the Greeks, in interpreting and subduing nature, but in conquering provinces; not in creating ideals after the gods of Olympus, but in marshaling legions on the field of Mars. War he considered the chief business of his life, and education in letters he ranked as a pastime. Even his language itself embodied this spirit of his living, since *exercitus* (the army) meant business, and *ludus* (the school) meant diversion.

Unlike the Grecian, the real and the practical, rather than the speculative and the æsthetic employed his thoughts, and while Rome was spreading her eagles of conquest from the Thames to the Euphrates, her internal improvement in material prosperity, her wealth, her institutions, her laws, her public works, alike attested the greatness of her utilitarian education. And this continued her distinctive characteristic even after the cultured captives that returned with her victorious columns from Grecian conquest, introduced into Rome the refinements and subtleties of the Athenian schools of thought, and filled her Forum with the discussions of sophists and philosophers. Thus leading up to and into the Christian era, the sturdy character of Roman education in its truthness and depth and practical purpose resembled the modern Christian education. The Greeks formed intellectual and æsthetic ideals and standards. The Romans formed physical or practical ideals and standards. The Christians formed ethical or moral ideals and standards.

In this partial though somewhat tedious review of the scope and purpose of education, as illustrated in the typical civilizations of history, it is perhaps more clearly revealed to us why the ancients did not educate than why they did educate. We

have seen that the personal and individual development of the people was of small concern to the ruling powers and was seldom the end aimed at. Indeed, with the single exception of China, popular education, as we now use that term, had no national existence, nor did it prevail anywhere until modern times. We need not look far to discover a reason for this, especially when we consider that for centuries as small account was taken of the right of the people to individual liberty as to individual education. Knowledge then, as in later days, was regarded as a power, and it was truly conceived that the ignorant masses could be more easily kept in subjection to the rule of absolutism than a body of intelligent citizens. Absolute governments had no place for educated subjects except in numbers limited to the necessities of enforcing authority. The province of the subject was to toil and to obey. Even in the case of general education in China, to which we have referred, the system of education was so ingeniously guarded in its philosophical conception and application that it subserved rather than violated the principle of subjection; for, as remarked by that great scholar and philosopher, Dr. W. T. Harris, of our National Bureau of Education, concerning this Chinese system: "It is one of the most interesting devices in the history of education—a method of educating a people on such a plan that the more education the scholar gets the more conservative he becomes."

The thought occurs here, would not such a system as the Chinese be serviceable to-day in the regulation of the now world-wide disturbers of social order, the anarchists, the socialists, and their kindred brood? I answer, that only under Chinese conditions of liberty would such education be practicable, and under no conditions of liberty acceptable to modern civilized manhood could it possibly be enforced. The world, in its ideas of freedom of thought and of action, has moved far away from such tyranny in governments. The divine right of kings or of oligarchies has no footing in Western civilization. It has cost hecatombs of human lives and seas of blood to reach our present estate of human freedom. But the socialist and anarchist can not permanently harm American institutions and organized society. Those who have so apprehended have not carefully considered the basis of their fears. The nihilistic agitations in Europe will doubtless operate to sweep away some of the remains of the feudal fetters imposed on liberty of living, but this "government of the people, for the people, and by the people" has nothing to fear from such agitations. The social vagaries and economic delusions which are preached to the unemployed wage worker to ferment society will have local expression in sporadic violence, but the disturbances can not, in our day and generation, mount up to the proportions of revolution. The anarchists submit no propositions which can engage such general local interests as to array State against State or section against section—as in the late civil war; and as long as State autonomy remains to us, the State governments can take care of their internal disturbances, especially when backed by the power of the General Government. Until the great body of the people lose their balance and common sense, they may be safely trusted to adhere to the tradition that any government is better than no government at all.

But even the sovereign authority of the people, with which the States and General Government have been invested, will not long have to contend with anarchistic elements which have come to us from abroad under the false pretense of enjoying and upholding our established institutions of freedom, if we so legislate as to stop the eaves in our naturalization laws, through which the wild, untrained, fanatical representatives of European red republicanism find entrance into our body politic. And, again, we may hope to increase the volume of our now mighty current of popular education until every precinct in every county in every State shall have the full benefit of its quickening and enlightening influence, and until every child in all the land, native and foreign, white and black, Indian and Chinaman, shall be possessed of the modern trivium of education, "the three R's," the three keys to knowledge, with which he can gain access to the immense treasury of learning which the centuries have piled up for us, and to which they have fallen heirs. This accomplished, and the plea of the anarchist will find few sympathizers among our people. It is not too much education that makes the vicious, but the lack of it. The anarchist here with us is not too much educated; as may be supposed, he is too badly educated or too wrongly trained and educated by the factors of the environment from which he came to us to be adjusted into any niche of American freedom. We may not be able to educate and assimilate into good citizenship all the Herr Mosts and vicious cranks that Europe can empty upon us, but we can restrain their coming and so educate the children of those already here as to make them cohelpers in good government.

We are told in the Greek reader that Aristotle, when asked in what way the educated differed from the uneducated, replied, "As the living differ from the dead." Compare the lowest type of the barbarian with the highest type of the Greek in Aristotle's day (and the comparison is just as good in ours) and you can appreciate the force of this remark.

Carlyle, the great Scotchman, said: "An educated man stands as it were in the

midst of a boundless arsenal and magazine filled with all the weapons and engines which man's skill has been able to devise from the earliest time, and he works accordingly with the strength borrowed from all the ages. How different is his state who stands on the outside of the storehouse and feels that its gates must be stormed or remain forever shut against him? His means are the commonest; the work done is in no measure of his strength. A dwarf behind his steam engine may remove mountains, but no dwarf will hew them down with his pickaxe, and he must be a Titan that hurls them abroad with his arms."

These illustrations from two great thinkers, who spoke more than two thousand years apart, each standing upon the very apex of culture of his day and time, do not contrast too strongly the conditions referred to. In both the wholly uneducated is set over against the fully educated man; the savage against the scientist and the scholar. The distance between them is measureless, and we can not say that the chasm will ever be bridged. Leaving aside the consideration of racial inequalities, about which there is now little dispute, the natural mental inequalities of men must long postpone, if it ever reaches this consummation. The leveling process must encounter obstructions by this inequality which is one of nature's unwritten laws. This inequality is the unescapable consequences of action—the necessary predicate of human progress. In this progression the individual speed is unequal; all can not be in the front line. Few can be abreast with Newton or Bacon or Gladstone. That education, however, under conditions seldom favorable, has raised the general average of mankind from century to century, the history of civilization attests, and this progress of civilization is but the progress of education.

A learned English scholar recently wrote concerning the history of education: "It would comprehend the transforming of crude nature of the savage man, which chiefly concerns itself with mere animal wants and desires, into the higher nature of a being who looks behind to gather the fruits of experience; who looks before to utilize them for the benefit of those who are to succeed him, who explores the remote and the distant as well as the near, who reflects and thinks with the view to the general good of the commonwealth, and this, while it is the problem of civilization, is also the problem of education."

But, let me ask, what is the modern conception of education? What is education in its true intent and meaning—not in the widest amplitude with which it may be regarded, but in the sense it is accepted in the schools? Considered in the light of its derivative Latin synonym, *Educere*, it means to lead forth, to unfold the powers of the mind. And while it means this, it is obvious that it means far more than this. The unfolding of the powers of the mind, I conceive, might be accomplished by an artificial system of mental gymnastics, without acquiring any useful knowledge and without being provided with any of the instruments of self teaching, the arts of reading and writing. Those instruments must in themselves constitute the most important part of education, and, as we are told by a philosophic writer: "The child may learn to read and write, and by it learn the experience of the race through countless ages of existence. He may by scientific books see the world through the senses of myriads of trained specialists devoting whole lives to the inventory of nature. What is immensely more than this, he can think with their brains and assist his feeble powers of observation and reflection by the gigantic aggregate of the mental labors of the race."

And so it is that education does not merely contemplate the unfolding of the mental powers, but demands moreover that such process of unfolding shall bring to the mind of the pupil the largest amount of important and useful knowledge. Just here however, let me say, that I do not rashly venture in this presence to assume the educator's task of suggesting how to educate or unfold the powers of the mind, or what material should be put before the mind in its progress toward development, to enable it to reach the full measure of education. The first should be determined by the teacher, as he looks into the face, and studies the capacity of each pupil. The latter is appointed after wise consideration in the curriculum chosen by every school of high education. As all nature is a schoolhouse for him who seeks education, and all history, with its "philosophy teaching by examples," is his text-book, so all thought is an educational factor. There are many roads to knowledge, but only one to education, and that is through the gateway of self-help, which the earnest seeker of education affords to his own mind. Indeed, it has been wisely said that there is no real education that is not self-education. Whatever of knowledge is assimilated and appropriated, becomes education. It is the exercise of man's self activity at last that sets in motion his powers of observation; the orderly classification of the things observed; the determination of the scientific principles underlying these classes, and the great philosophical unity that unites all the sciences, and links man to The Great First Cause; this, I take it, to be in its last analysis, the true philosophy of education.

The greatest teacher can do little more than lift the latch and point the way.

PENNSYLVANIA.

THE PUBLIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF PHILADELPHIA.

[From a pamphlet by Lewis R. Harley, Ph. D.]

The desirability of improving the school system of Philadelphia has given rise to a number of voluntary associations, which have been actively engaged for several years in urging reforms and promoting the development of the schools in various ways. Among the most active of these organizations has been the Public Education Association of Philadelphia, founded in 1881.

This association, like some of its predecessors, grew out of charity work. Its source was the Committee on the Care and Education of Dependent Children of the Society for Organizing Charity.

It is the object of this association to promote the efficiency and to perfect the system of public education in Philadelphia, by which term is meant all education emanating from, or in any way controlled by, the State. They purpose to acquaint themselves with the best results of experience and thought in education, and to render these familiar to the community and to their official representatives, that these may be embodied in our own public-school system. They seek to become a center for work and a medium for the expression of opinion in all matters pertaining to education, as, for instance, the appointment of superintendents; the compilation of school laws; the kindergarten in connection with public education; manual instruction—how much is desirable, and what it is practicable to introduce into the public-school system; the hygiene of schools; the adequate pay and the better qualification of teachers; and, above all, to secure, as far as possible, universal education, by bringing under instruction that large class, numbering not less than 22,000 children, who are now growing up in ignorance in this city.

These objects the association hope to attain through appeals to the local authorities and to the legislature, and by such other means as may be deemed expedient.

The officers of the association in 1895 were Edmund J. James, chairman; Miss E. W. Janney, treasurer; William W. Wiltbank, recording secretary.

The Public Education Association has had a busy career of fifteen years. It has been a constructive period in educational work in Philadelphia, and the association has seen the following results accomplished:

I. The institution of the department of superintendence, with the increase of force by which the efficiency of this department has been largely augmented and thoroughly organized.

II. The selection of a superintendent.

III. The introduction of sewing into the curriculum of the Normal School, and its more recent introduction, based upon the success of the earlier experiment, into the lower grades of schools, by which 25,000 girls were, in 1887, receiving regular, systematic instruction in needlework.

IV. The universal acknowledgment that the most complete and satisfactory exhibition of this work ever made in the country was the exhibit of the sewing done in the public schools of Philadelphia made in the spring of 1886, at the Industrial Exhibition at New York.

V. The institution of the Manual Training School.

VI. The reorganization of the schools under supervising principals.

VII. The introduction of cooking classes in the Normal School.

VIII. The exhibition of school work in Horticultural Hall.

IX. The assumption by the board of education of the kindergarten schools.

X. The establishment of the chair of pedagogy in the University of Pennsylvania.

XI. The lectures in pedagogy in the Summer School of the Extension Society.

XII. The separation of the girls' high and normal schools and the material improvement of the course in the former.

XIII. The passage of the compulsory school law.

The association encouraged and assisted all of these movements; it initiated and completed some of them. There are still other tasks for the association. The new compulsory school law will render a school census necessary. The school accommodations of the city will be inadequate to meet the requirements of the law, and the enforcement of the law itself will depend upon public sentiment. In all these matters the society can be of assistance.

The department of education should be reorganized. The association has already made strenuous efforts to have the sectional boards abolished, and it seemed at times as if the measure would pass the legislature. The agitation should be continued until the department of education is placed beyond the reach of politics. The administration of the city schools should be committed to a single body. These are some of the subjects which should receive the attention of the association. The

work of the Public Education Association is not completed. The educational welfare of so large a municipality as Philadelphia will require the continued aid of this influential organization, which in the past has accomplished so much for the advancement of the schools.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

[Address delivered December 13, 1894, by Hon. J. L. M. Curry, in response to an invitation of the general assembly of South Carolina.]

SENATORS AND REPRESENTATIVES: It has been said that among the best gifts of Providence to a nation are great and good men, who act as its leaders and guides, who leave their mark upon their age, who give a new direction to affairs, who introduce a course of events which come down from generation to generation, pouring their blessings upon mankind. Public men are the character and conscience of a people. Respect for the worth of men and women is the measure of progress in civilization. On the 16th of November, 1894, passed away one of America's purest and noblest men, one of the last links which bound the present with the better days of the Republic. For South Carolina he cherished a great affection, and sought to rekindle and keep alive the memories and fraternity of the Revolutionary period, when Massachusetts and South Carolina were struggling together for the establishment of our free institutions. Deeply touched and very grateful was he that South Carolina honored him so highly, by attaching his name in perpetuity to one of her most beneficent institutions of learning. The watchword of his life was the worship of truth and devotion to the Union. He saw clearly that "whoever would work toward national unity must work on educational lines." We may well pause to drop a tear over the grave of author, orator, philanthropist, patriot, statesman, Christian gentleman. Governor Tillman said last May, at the laying of the corner stone of the college at Rock Hill: "On one thing the people of South Carolina are certainly agreed—in their love for Robert C. Winthrop and the new college that bears his name."

I have said that he was a Christian statesman. Christianity and democracy have revolutionized the ideas and institutions of the world in reference to man, his rights, privileges, and duties. The arrival of democracy, says Benjamin Kid, is the fact of our time which overshadows all other facts, and this arrival is the result of the ethical movement in which qualities and attributes find the completest expression ever reached in the history of the human race. Kings and clergy, as having superior access to God and command of the Divine prerogatives, have been relegated to the background. Man's attainment to an enjoyment of privileges and possibilities depends on the development of latent, original, God-given powers. Families, churches, and States recognize and provide for the unfolding of these capacities. "Education, a debt due from present to future generations," was the idea and motive which permeated Mr. Peabody's munificence, and the sentiment is the legend for the official seal of the Peabody Education Fund. Free schools for the whole people should be the motive and aim of every enlightened legislator. South Carolina incorporates the duty into her organic law. There can be no more legitimate tax on property than furnishing the means of universal education, for this involves self-preservation. The great mass of the people are doomed inevitably to ignorance, unless the State undertake their improvement. Our highest material, moral, and political interests need all the capabilities of all the citizens, and then there will be none too much to meet life's responsibilities and duties. As the people are sovereign, free schools are needed for all of them. We recognize no such class as an elect few. It is desirable that citizens should read the laws they are to obey. A governor once put his edicts above the heads of the people; we sometimes, practically, do the same by keeping the people in ignorance. When all must make laws as well as obey, it is essential that they should be educated. The more generally diffused the education the better the laws; the better are they understood and the better obeyed. The highest civilization demands intelligent understanding of the laws and prompt, patriotic, cheerful obedience.

¹ Extract from the journal of the house of representatives of the State of South Carolina, Thursday, December 13, 1894:

JOINT ASSEMBLY.

The senate attended in the house at 11 a. m. to hear the address of the Hon. J. L. M. Curry.

The president of the senate presented Senator Tillman, who introduced the Hon. J. L. M. Curry, who entertained the general assembly for some time in an eloquent and able address on education.

Mr. Manning offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the general assembly of South Carolina has heard with pleasure and the deepest interest the eloquent and instructive address of the Hon. J. L. M. Curry, and the heartfelt thanks of this body are hereby extended to him for his address, and we wish to assure him that his words on behalf of the advancement of the educational interests of the State have fallen on ears that are alive to those interests, and that we hope for the best results upon the educational institutions of the State."

Which was considered immediately and unanimously adopted.

When schools are established, what will perfect them? The first need is sufficient money, to be attained through State and local revenues. In no instance should this money be appropriated for sectarian purposes. In England, since the free education act, there has been a determined effort to quarter denominational schools upon the rates. In the United States a persistent effort is made to subsidize from general revenues certain sectarian schools in States and among the Indians. During the nine years—1886-1894—our Government gave for education of the Indians \$4,277,940, and of this appropriation one church received \$2,733,571. The remainder was distributed among fifteen various schools and organizations. Another requirement is efficient local and State supervision, divorced from party politics, and controlled by civil service principles. If education be of universal and vital concern, it needs for its administration the highest capacity. The system of common schools reached its preeminent usefulness in Massachusetts under the administration of such remarkable men as Mann, Sears, and Dickinson. Pupils should be graded so as to economize time, utilize teaching talent, and secure systematic progress. At last, all depends on good teaching, and children, with all their possibilities, deserve the best. There is often a criminal waste of time, talent, opportunities, and money, because of incompetent teachers. There is sometimes a distressingly small return for money and labor expended upon schools. It is not well-organized school systems, nor excellent textbooks, nor systematic courses of study, nor wise supervision, however important, that make the good school. It is the teacher, not mechanical in method and the slave of some superficial notion of the object and the process of the work, but a thorough master of the profession, widely knowledgeable and cultured, able to interest the pupils, to develop the highest power and efficiency. A good teacher will make a good school in spite of a thousand hindrances. One able to awaken sluggish intellect, give a mental impulse running through after life, who understands child nature, the laws of mental acquisition and development, whose mind has been expanded and enriched by a liberal education, who has accurate scholarship and a love for sound learning, who can awaken enthusiasm, mould character, develop by healthful aspirations, inspire to do duty faithfully, will have a good school. Andrew D. White called Dr. Wayland the greatest man who ever stood in the college presidency, and such men as Mark Hopkins, M. B. Anderson, Drs. McGuffey and Broadus show the value of high qualifications in teachers. In our public schools are thousands of men and women, doing heroic work, noiselessly and without ostentation, who deserve all the praise which is lavished upon less useful laborers in other departments. As the State has undertaken the work of education, it is under highest obligations to have the best schools, which means the best teachers.

How shall South Carolina meet these imperative obligations? Your schools average four and seventh-tenths months, but no school should have a term shorter than eight months, and the teachers, well paid, should be selected impartially, after thorough and honest examination. All should have unquestioned moral character, sobriety, aptitude for the work, desire and ability to improve. It has been suggested that if only one law were written above the door of every American schoolroom, it ought to be, No man or woman shall enter here as teacher whose life is not a good model for the young to copy. The experience of most enlightened countries has shown that these teachers should be trained in normal schools; and by normal schools I do not mean an academy with deceptive name and catalogue, and the slightest infusion of pedagogic work. Teaching is an art, based on rationally determined principles. The child grows and runs up the psychic scale in a certain order. The mind has laws, and there is no true discipline except in conformity to and application of these laws. Acquaintance with and application of these laws come not by nature, not spontaneously, but by study and practice. The real teacher should be familiar with the history, the philosophy, and the methods of education. He will best acquire and accomplish the technical and professional work if he have a well-balanced mind, fine tastes, and "the faculty of judgment, strengthened by the mastery of principles, more than by the acquisition of information." We have professional schools for the lawyer, the doctor, the engineer; why not for the teacher? His ability to teach should not be picked up at haphazard, by painful experience, and with the sacrifice of the children. A signboard near my residence reads, "Horses shod according to humane principles of equine nature." It conveys a true principle and suggests that children should be instructed according to the true principles of mental science.

President Eliot, in one of his excellent papers, enunciates six essential constituents of all worthy education.

(a) Training the organs of sense. Through accurate observation we get all kinds of knowledge and experience. The child sees the forms of letters, hears the sound of letters and words, and discriminates between hot and cold, black and white, etc. All ordinary knowledge for practical purposes, and language as well, are derived mainly through the senses.

(b) Practice in comparing and grouping different sensations and drawing inferences.

(c) Accurate record in memory or in written form.

(d) Training the memory; and practice in holding in the mind the record of observations, groupings, and comparisons.

(e) Training in the power of expression, in clear, concise exposition; logical setting forth of a process of reasoning.

(f) Inculcation of the supreme ideals through which the human race is uplifted and ennobled. Before the pupil should be put the loftiest ideals of beauty, honor, patriotism, duty, obedience, love.

Teachers are greatly helped by teachers' institutes, when those who assemble get the wisdom and experience of many minds on the difficult problems of the profession. The work should be practical, systematic, logical, continuous from year to year, and a course of professional reading should be prescribed, so as to increase the intelligence and culture of the profession.

We very often lose sight of the true end of education—it is, or should be, effective power in action, doing what the uneducated can not do, putting acquisition into practice, developing and strengthening faculties for real everyday life. The only sure test is the ability to do more and better work than could be done without it. The average man or woman with it should be stronger, more successful, more useful, than the average man or woman without it. It is the human being with an increase of power which makes one more than equal to a mere man. It is not so much what is imparted, but what is inwrought; not what is put in, but what is got out. It is not so much what we know as what we are and can do for productive ends. The object of Christianity is to make good men and good women here on earth. The object of education is to make useful men and women, good citizens. And here comes in the need of manual training, which is not to fit for special trades, but to teach the rudiments of mechanics, those common principles which underlie all work. The pupil can acquire manual dexterity, familiarize himself with tools and materials, be instructed in the science without a knowledge of which good work can not be done. The object of this industrial instruction is to develop the executive side of nature, so that the pupil shall do as well as think. This introduction of manual training into schools has been found to be very helpful to intellectual progress. Gentlemen need not reject it as something chimerical and utopian; it is not an innovation; the experiment is not doubtful; it has been tried repeatedly; it is comparatively inexpensive, and has been and is now in very successful operation. It is not wise statesmanship, nor even good common sense, to forego for many years what other peoples are now enjoying the advantages of. In a quarter of a century trade schools, technical schools, manual training, the kindergarten, will have nearly universal adoption. Why, during this period, should a State rob her children of these immense benefits?

As population increases the struggle to maintain wages becomes more severe, the pressure being the hardest upon the unskilled, and less severe on each higher rank of laborers. Every possible facility for education should be put within the reach of laboring men, to increase their efficiency, to raise the standard of life, and to augment the proportion between the skilled and the unskilled. Dr. Harris, our wisest and most philosophical educator, says: "Education emancipates the laborer from the deadening effects of repetition and habit, the monotony of mere mechanical toil, and opens to him a vista of new inventions and more useful combinations." Our industrial age increases the demand for educated, directive power. Business combinations, companies for trade, transportation, insurance, banking, manufacturing, and mining, demand, as essential conditions of success, intelligent directive power. Production is augmented by skill. An indispensable condition of economic prosperity is a large per capita production of wealth. Socialism, as taught by some extremists, would sacrifice production to accomplish distribution, and means annihilation of private capital, management by the State of all industries, of production and distribution, when Government would be the sole farmer, common carrier, banker, manufacturer, storekeeper, and all these would be turned into civil servants, and be under the control and in the pay of the State, or of a party.

States may have ideals as well as individuals, and embody the noblest elements of advanced civilization. Agriculture, manufactures, mining, mechanical arts, give prosperity when allied with and controlled by thrift, skill, intelligence, and honesty; but what is imperishable is the growth and product of developed mind. Greece and Rome live in their buildings, statuary, history, orators, and poems. Pliny said: "To enlarge the bounds of Roman thought is nobler than to extend the limits of Roman power." The founders of the great English universities centuries ago built wiser than they knew, and opened perennial fountains of knowledge and truth from which have unceasingly flowed fructifying streams. All modern material improvements are the outgrowth of scientific principles applied to practical life. If you would legislate for the increased prosperity and glory of South Carolina, be sure not to forget that this is the outcome of the infinite capacities of children. Hamilton said there was nothing great in the universe but man, and nothing great in man but

mind. "No serious thinker," says Drummond, "can succeed in lessening to his own mind the infinite distance between the mind of man and everything in nature." Fisk says: "On earth there will never be a higher creation than man." Evolutionists say that the series of animals comes to an end in man, that he is at once the crown and master and the rationale of creation. What you know and admire in South Carolina is what has been done by cultivated men and women. What other country can show such a roll of immortal worthies as your Pinckneys and Rutledges, your Marion, Sumter, and Pickens, your Harper, Johnson, O'Neill, your Fuller and Thornwell, your McDuffie and Hayne, Legare and Petigru, and, towering above all contemporaries, peerless in political wisdom, metaphysical subtlety, ignited logic, the great unrivaled American Aristotle, John C. Calhoun?

CHAPTER XXXI.

EDUCATION OF THE COLORED RACE.

References to preceding reports of the United States Bureau of Education, in which this subject has been treated: In annual reports—1870, pp. 61, 337-339; 1871, pp. 6, 7, 61-70; 1872, pp. xvii, xviii; 1873, p. lxvi; 1875, p. xxiii; 1876, p. xvi; 1877, pp. xxxiii-xxxviii; 1878, pp. xxviii-xxxiv; 1879, pp. xxxix-xlv; 1880, p. lviii; 1881, p. lxxxii; 1882-83, pp. liv, xlvi-lvi, xlix, 85; 1883-84, p. liv; 1884-85, p. lxvii; 1885-86, pp. 596, 650-656; 1886-87, pp. 790, 874-881; 1887-88; pp. 20, 21, 167, 169, 988-998; 1888-89, pp. 768, 1412-1439; 1889-90, pp. 620, 621, 624, 634, 1073-1102, 1388-1392, 1395-1485; 1890-91, pp. 620, 624, 792, 808, 915, 961-980, 1469; 1891-92, pp. 8, 686, 688, 713, 861-867, 1002, 1234-1237; 1892-93, pp. 15, 442, 1551-1572, 1976; 1893-94, pp. 1019-1061. Also in Circulars of Information—No. 3, 1883, p. 63; No. 2, 1886, pp. 123-133; No. 3, 1888, p. 122; No. 5, 1888, pp. 53, 54, 59, 60, 80-86; No. 1, 1892, p. 71. Special Report on District of Columbia for 1869, pp. 193, 300, 301-400. Special report, New Orleans Exposition, 1884-85, pp. 468-470, 775-781.

This chapter and the one which follows contain a large amount of matter relating to the advancement of the colored race in the United States. The very creditable exhibit made at the Atlanta Exposition in 1895 by the more progressive element among the negroes aroused new interest in all parts of the country in their educational advancement. In response to the general demand for information on this subject a special effort was made by this Bureau to collect statistics from all the colored schools of the South. It was no easy task on account of the indifference manifested by many of those in charge of private schools. Of the 162 schools of secondary and higher grade known to this office fewer than half the number responded to the first request for information. Even after the fifth request had been sent out a few of the schools had failed to respond. Many of the reports received contained but meager information. Such statistics as could be obtained will be given in detail in succeeding pages of this chapter.

The statistics of public common schools for the negroes are given in connection with the statistics of white schools in the beginning of the first volume of this annual report. On the next page is presented a table which contains in condensed form the more important items of information relating to the number and attendance of colored pupils in the common schools of each of the former slave States. In these sixteen States and the District of Columbia the estimated number of persons 5 to 18 years of age, the school population, was 8,297,160. Of this number 5,573,440 were white children and 2,723,720, or 32.9 per cent, colored. The total enrollment in the white schools was 3,845,414 and in the colored schools 1,441,282. The per cent of white school population enrolled was 69 and the per cent of colored school population enrolled was 52.92. The whites had an average daily attendance of 2,510,907, or 65.30 per cent of their enrollment, while the average attendance of the blacks was 856,312, or 59.41 per cent of their enrollment. There were 89,276 white teachers and 27,081 colored teachers in the public schools of the South in 1895.

An accurate statement of the amounts of money expended by each of the Southern States for the education of the colored children can not be given for the reason that in only two or three of these States are separate accounts kept of the moneys expended for colored schools. Since 1876 the Southern States have expended about \$383,000,000 for public schools, and it is fair to estimate that between \$75,000,000 and \$80,000,000 of this sum must have been expended for the education of colored children. In 1895 the enrollment of colored pupils was a little more than 27 per cent of

the public school enrollment in the Southern States. It is not claimed that they received the benefit of 27 per cent of the school fund and perhaps no one would say they received less than 20 per cent. It is a fact well known that almost the entire burden of educating the colored children of the South falls upon the white property owners of the former slave States. Of the more than \$75,000,000 expended in the past twenty years for the instruction of the colored children in Southern public schools but a small per cent was contributed by the negroes themselves in the form of taxes. This vast sum has not been given grudgingly. The white people of the South believe that the State should place a common-school education within the reach of every child, and they have done thus much to give all citizens, white and black, an even start in life.

Common-school statistics classified by race, 1894-95.

State.	Estimated number of persons 5 to 18 years of age.		Percentages of the whole.		Enrolled in the public schools.		Per cent of persons 5 to 18 years enrolled.	
	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.
Alabama <i>a</i>	327,400	280,600	53.85	46.15	190,305	115,709	58.13	41.24
Arkansas.....	321,100	124,500	72.06	27.94	216,863	82,429	67.54	66.21
Delaware <i>b</i>	59,850	8,980	81.60	18.40	28,316	4,858	71.06	54.10
District of Columbia.....	44,700	24,370	64.51	35.49	26,903	14,654	60.73	69.13
Florida <i>a</i>	84,230	66,770	55.79	44.21	59,503	37,272	70.64	55.82
Georgia <i>a</i>	357,800	335,900	51.59	48.41	262,530	174,152	73.37	51.85
Kentucky.....	550,900	94,300	85.38	14.62	394,508	73,463	71.61	77.90
Louisiana.....	203,400	216,700	48.42	51.58	92,613	63,313	45.53	29.22
Maryland.....	250,100	72,200	77.62	22.38	161,252	43,492	64.48	69.24
Mississippi.....	212,700	309,800	40.71	59.29	162,830	187,785	76.55	60.61
Missouri.....	864,500	52,600	94.26	5.74	612,378	32,199	70.84	61.21
North Carolina <i>a</i>	379,940	267,800	62.52	37.48	242,572	128,118	63.84	56.33
South Carolina.....	171,600	288,100	37.34	62.66	103,729	119,292	60.45	41.41
Tennessee <i>a</i>	466,900	157,600	74.77	25.23	381,632	101,524	81.74	64.42
Texas <i>a</i>	693,800	212,500	76.55	23.45	463,888	134,720	66.86	63.40
Virginia.....	337,320	240,000	58.43	41.57	235,533	120,453	69.82	50.19
West Virginia.....	267,600	11,000	96.04	3.96	150,539	7,469	78.50	69.54
Total.....	5,573,440	2,723,720	67.15	32.85	3,845,414	1,441,282	69.00	52.92

State.	Average daily attendance.		Per cent of enrollment.		Number of teachers.	
	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.
Alabama <i>a</i>	c 112,800	c 72,300	59.27	62.48	4,412	2,196
Arkansas.....	126,820	48,120	58.48	58.38	5,124	1,796
Delaware <i>b</i>	c 19,746	c 2,947	69.73	60.66	734	106
District of Columbia.....	20,446	10,903	76.00	74.40	660	331
Florida <i>a</i>	38,752	25,386	65.13	68.11	2,151	772
Georgia <i>a</i>	157,626	104,414	60.04	59.36	5,827	3,206
Kentucky.....	243,703	28,063	61.77	39.02	8,578	1,373
Louisiana.....	67,887	41,548	73.30	65.62	2,506	915
Maryland.....	103,031	18,531	63.89	42.61	3,797	716
Mississippi.....	99,048	103,635	60.83	55.19	4,591	3,264
Missouri.....	c 406,180	c 20,430	66.33	63.45	13,750	737
North Carolina <i>a</i>	154,361	75,940	63.64	59.18	5,285	3,075
South Carolina.....	74,359	84,895	71.69	71.17	2,696	1,869
Tennessee <i>a</i>	277,678	65,986	72.76	65.00	6,928	1,999
Texas <i>a</i>	334,884	83,185	72.19	61.75	9,960	2,502
Virginia.....	137,830	64,700	58.52	53.71	6,211	2,021
West Virginia.....	135,756	4,729	64.63	61.83	6,066	233
Total.....	2,510,907	856,312	65.30	59.41	89,276	27,081

a In 1893-94.

b In 1891-92.

c Approximately.

ILLITERACY OF THE COLORED POPULATION.

What have the negroes themselves accomplished to justify the generosity of the white people of the South and the benevolence of the people of the North? It may be said that in 1860 the colored race was totally illiterate. In 1870 more than 85 per cent of the colored population of the South, 10 years of age and over, could not read and write. In 1880 the per cent of illiterates had been reduced to 75, and in 1890 the illiterates comprised about 60 per cent of the colored population 10 years of age and over. In several of the Southern States the percentage is even below 50 per

cent. The comparative statistics for 1870, 1880, and 1890, showing the illiteracy of the colored race, are given for each of the Southern States in the following table:

Illiteracy of the colored population 10 years of age and over.

State.	1890.			1880.			1870.		
	Popula- tion 10 years of age and over.	Illiterates.		Popula- tion 10 years of age and over.	Illiterates.		Popula- tion 10 years of age and over.	Illiterates.	
		Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.
Alabama	479,430	331,200	69.1	399,058	321,680	80.6	328,835	290,953	88.1
Arkansas	217,454	116,655	53.6	137,971	103,473	75.0	85,249	69,244	81.2
Delaware	21,608	10,632	49.5	19,245	11,068	57.5	16,570	11,820	71.3
District of Columbia.	61,041	21,389	35.0	45,035	21,790	48.4	33,833	23,843	70.5
Florida	119,624	60,204	50.6	85,513	60,420	70.7	62,748	52,899	84.1
Georgia	600,623	404,015	67.3	479,863	391,482	81.6	373,211	343,654	92.1
Kentucky	197,689	110,530	55.9	190,223	133,895	70.4	156,483	131,099	83.8
Louisiana	392,642	283,245	72.1	328,153	259,429	79.1	262,359	225,409	85.9
Maryland	161,106	80,723	50.1	151,278	90,172	59.6	127,708	88,707	69.5
Mississippi	516,929	314,858	60.9	425,397	319,753	75.2	305,074	265,282	87.0
Missouri	114,169	47,562	41.7	104,393	56,244	53.9	83,393	60,618	72.7
North Carolina	392,589	235,981	60.1	351,145	271,943	77.4	272,497	231,293	84.8
South Carolina	470,232	301,262	64.1	394,750	310,071	78.5	289,969	235,212	81.1
Tennessee	309,800	167,971	54.2	271,386	194,495	71.7	225,482	185,970	82.4
Texas	336,154	176,484	52.5	255,265	192,520	75.4	169,965	150,808	88.7
Virginia	455,682	260,678	57.2	428,540	315,660	73.2	362,624	322,355	88.9
West Virginia	24,757	10,932	44.4	18,446	10,139	55.0	12,905	9,197	77.4
Total	4,870,910	2,934,441	60.2	4,085,571	3,064,234	75.0	3,168,965	2,699,933	85.2

In thirty years 40 per cent of the illiteracy of the colored race had disappeared. In education and in industrial progress this race had accomplished more than it could have achieved in centuries in a different environment without the aid of the whites. The negro has needed the example as well as the aid of the white man. In sections where the colored population is massed and removed from contact with the whites the progress of the negro has been retarded. He is an imitative being, and has a constant desire to attempt whatever he sees the white man do. He believes in educating his children because he can see that an increase of knowledge will enable them to better their condition. But segregate the colored population and you take away its object lessons. The statistics exhibited in the following table in a measure confirm the truth of this position:

Colored population and illiteracy in 1890 compared.

State.	Colored population.	Per cent to total.	Per cent of colored illiteracy.	Per cent of white illiteracy.
1	2	3	4	5
West Virginia	32,717	4.3	44.4	13.0
Missouri	150,726	5.6	41.7	7.1
Kentucky	268,173	14.4	55.9	15.8
Delaware	28,427	16.9	49.5	7.4
Maryland	215,897	20.7	50.1	7.0
Texas	489,588	21.9	52.5	10.8
Tennessee	430,881	24.4	54.2	17.8
Arkansas	309,427	27.4	53.6	16.3
District of Columbia.	75,697	32.9	35.0	2.7
North Carolina	562,565	34.8	60.1	17.9
Virginia	635,858	38.4	57.2	13.9
Florida	166,473	42.5	50.6	11.3
Alabama	679,299	44.9	69.1	18.2
Georgia	858,996	46.8	67.3	16.3
Louisiana	560,192	50.1	72.1	20.1
Mississippi	744,749	57.8	60.9	11.9
South Carolina	689,141	59.9	64.1	17.9

Here it is shown that in the States where the colored population is greatest in proportion to the total population, or where such colored population is massed, as in the "black belt" of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, there the per cent of illiteracy is highest. In this table the Southern States are

arranged with reference to their proportion of colored population, West Virginia standing first with only 4.3 per cent, and South Carolina at the foot of the list with 59.9 per cent colored population. The per cent for each State is shown in the third column. Leaving out of the count the District of Columbia, in which there is a perfected system of city schools, the percentages of illiteracy in column 4 seem to bear a close relation to the percentages of population in column 3. The eight States having less than 35 per cent of colored population have, with a single exception, less than 55 per cent of colored illiteracy. The eight States having more than 30 per cent of colored population have, with two exceptions, more than 60 per cent of illiteracy. In the fifth column the per cent of white illiteracy is given for each State.

SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

There are in the United States, so far as known to this Bureau, 162 institutions for the secondary and higher education of the colored race. Six of these schools are not located within the boundaries of the former slave States. Of the 162 institutions, 32 are of the grade of colleges, 73 are classed as normal schools, and the remaining 57 are of secondary or high school grade. While all these schools teach pupils in the elementary studies, they also carry instruction beyond the common school branches. State aid is extended to 35 of the 162 institutions, and 18 of these are wholly supported by the States in which they are established. The remaining schools are supported wholly or in part by benevolent societies and from tuition fees.

Detailed statistics of the 162 institutions will be found in this chapter. In these schools were employed 1,549 teachers, 711 males and 838 females. The total number of students was 37,102; of these, 23,420 were in elementary grades, 11,724 in secondary grades, and 1,958 were pursuing collegiate studies. The following table shows for each State the number of schools and teachers and the number of students in elementary, secondary, and collegiate grades:

Summary of teachers and students in institutions for the colored race in 1894-95.

State.	No. of schools.	Teachers.			Students.									Total.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Elementary.			Secondary.			Collegiate.			
					Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
Alabama.....	11	92	91	183	1,431	2,649	625	544	1,169	58	14	72	3,890	
Arkansas.....	6	26	19	45	279	385	664	171	135	306	26	5	31	1,001
Delaware.....	1	3	0	3	13	2	15	10	4	14	29
District of Columbia.....	4	74	29	103	125	154	279	238	543	781	327	5	332	1,392
Florida.....	6	18	26	44	231	276	507	93	156	249	756
Georgia.....	21	66	130	196	1,518	2,332	3,850	592	732	1,324	167	61	228	5,402
Illinois.....	1	1	1	2	7	21	28	28
Indiana.....	2	3	3	6	45	52	97	33	60	93	190
Kentucky.....	7	30	37	67	485	916	1,401	186	333	519	101	26	127	2,047
Louisiana (a).....	7	5	19	24	161	206	367	67	85	152	50	0	50	569
Maryland.....	5	13	17	30	67	156	223	70	192	262	64	13	77	562
Mississippi.....	9	37	30	67	631	572	1,203	277	229	506	96	15	111	1,820
Missouri.....	5	19	19	38	125	96	221	139	136	275	7	0	7	503
New Jersey.....	1	2	3	5	5	5	10	15	17	32	42
North Carolina.....	26	102	99	201	1,203	1,699	2,902	1,077	1,086	2,163	151	69	220	5,285
Ohio.....	1	10	8	18	77	63	140	37	77	114	43	8	51	305
Pennsylvania.....	1	11	0	11	167	0	0	167	167
South Carolina.....	12	36	64	100	1,071	1,107	2,178	301	500	801	63	49	112	3,091
Tennessee.....	12	69	96	165	1,210	1,703	2,913	576	641	1,217	121	35	156	4,286
Texas.....	9	34	47	81	556	882	1,438	281	325	606	62	53	115	2,159
Virginia.....	13	53	96	149	923	1,356	2,279	424	574	998	85	3	88	3,365
West Virginia.....	2	7	4	11	45	54	99	50	64	114	213
Total.....	162	711	838	1,549	9,975	13,445	23,420	5,272	6,452	11,724	1,598	360	1,958	37,102

a Two schools not reporting.

Of the 13,682 students in secondary and higher grades there were 990 in classical courses, 811 in scientific courses, 295 in business courses, and 9,331 in English courses. The distribution of these students by States, the classification by courses of study, and the apportionment by sex can be seen by consulting the following table (p. 1335).

Classification of colored students, by courses of study, 1894-95.

State.	Students in classical courses.			Students in scientific courses.			Students in English course.			Students in business course.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Alabama	8	3	11	15	8	23	499	501	1,000	16	9	25
Arkansas	10	6	16	5	9	14	48	78	125	9	8	17
Delaware	0	0	0	10	4	14	13	2	15	0	0	0
District of Columbia	17	4	21	3	0	3	71	117	188	66	41	107
Florida	0	0	0	0	0	0	148	268	416	0	0	0
Georgia	44	5	49	56	25	81	628	991	1,619	0	0	0
Illinois	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	21	28	0	0	0
Indiana	33	60	93	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kentucky	29	23	52	91	157	248	26	34	60	2	8	10
Louisiana	68	19	87	21	17	38	318	249	567	0	0	0
Maryland	6	1	7	6	1	7	58	104	162	0	0	0
Mississippi	30	5	35	2	2	4	166	205	371	47	25	72
Missouri	13	6	19	41	71	112	40	30	70	9	7	16
New Jersey	5	7	12	0	0	0	10	5	5	0	0	0
North Carolina	105	29	134	57	45	102	365	293	598	33	0	33
Ohio	22	4	26	15	7	22	77	62	139	9	6	15
South Carolina	48	42	90	17	10	27	327	513	840	0	0	0
Tennessee	138	111	249	26	4	30	451	616	1,067	0	0	0
Texas	6	1	7	12	10	22	244	287	531	0	0	0
Virginia	23	41	64	17	37	54	578	780	1,358	0	0	0
West Virginia	9	9	18	0	0	0	77	94	171	0	0	0
Total	614	376	990	394	417	811	4,086	5,245	9,331	191	104	295

There were 4,514 colored students studying to become teachers, 1,902 males and 2,612 females. Many of these students were included among those pursuing the English and other courses noted in the foregoing table.

The number of students graduating from high school courses was 649, the number of males being 282 and the number of females 367. There were 844 graduates from normal courses, 357 males and 487 females. The number of college graduates was 186, the number of males being 151 and the number of females 35. The distribution of graduates by States, as well as the number of normal students, can be found in the following table:

Number of normal students and graduates in 1894-95.

State.	Students in normal course.			Graduates of high school course.			Graduates of normal course.			Graduates of collegiate course.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Alabama	426	359	785	58	56	114	81	81	162	10	0	10
Arkansas	17	10	27	2	5	7	1	4	5	13	14	27
Delaware	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
District of Columbia	24	71	95	0	0	0	24	41	65	4	2	6
Florida	30	48	78	0	0	0	4	2	6	0	0	0
Georgia	117	303	420	30	34	64	7	41	48	6	3	9
Illinois	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Indiana	0	0	0	7	7	14	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kentucky	27	55	82	12	19	31	10	29	39	0	0	0
Louisiana	30	56	86	10	11	21	16	13	29	3	0	3
Maryland	38	37	75	3	17	20	6	8	14	1	0	1
Mississippi	122	124	246	27	16	43	16	14	30	13	1	14
Missouri	64	36	100	2	3	5	7	2	9	1	0	1
North Carolina	359	434	793	25	34	59	69	60	129	27	1	28
Ohio	50	57	107	5	9	14	7	8	15	4	0	4
Pennsylvania	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	38	0	38
South Carolina	105	161	266	28	54	82	25	48	73	8	8	16
Tennessee	212	353	565	35	30	65	35	30	65	17	5	22
Texas	35	159	194	4	2	6	2	30	32	5	1	6
Virginia	196	280	476	32	70	102	41	74	115	1	0	1
West Virginia	50	64	114	2	0	2	6	2	8	0	0	0
Total	1,902	2,612	4,514	282	367	649	357	487	844	151	35	186

There were 1,166 colored students studying learned professions—1,028 males and 138 females. Of the professional students 585 were studying theology, 310 medicine, 55 law, 45 pharmacy, 25 dentistry, and 8 engineering. The 138 female students were receiving professional training for nurses. There were 42 graduates in theology, 67 in medicine, 21 in law, 2 in dentistry, 16 in pharmacy, and 25 in nurse training. The following table (p. 1336) gives the distribution of professional students and graduates by States.

Colored professional students and graduates in 1894-95.

State.	Professional students and graduates.																
	Students in professional courses.			Theology.		Law.		Medicine.		Dentistry.		Pharmacy.		Nurse training.		Mechanical or electrical engineering.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Students.	Graduates.	Students.	Graduates.	Students.	Graduates.	Students.	Graduates.	Students.	Graduates.	Students.	Graduates.	Students.	Graduates.
Alabama	130	16	146	121	12	0	0	5	0	0	0	2	0	16	6	2	0
Arkansas	12	0	12	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
District of Columbia	251	34	285	73	8	33	15	119	22	13	0	13	6	34	9	0	0
Florida	4	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Georgia	94	40	134	92	10	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	6	0	0
Kentucky	26	0	26	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Louisiana	48	0	48	20	0	0	28	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maryland	9	0	9	9	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mississippi	12	25	37	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	0	0	0	0
Missouri	5	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
New Jersey	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
North Carolina	128	2	130	42	0	14	3	56	8	0	0	16	5	2	0	0	0
Ohio	10	15	25	10	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	4	0	0	0
Pennsylvania	40	0	40	40	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
South Carolina	7	0	7	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tennessee	170	0	170	30	2	6	3	102	32	12	2	14	5	0	0	6	0
Texas	17	4	21	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0
Virginia	65	0	65	65	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	1,028	138	1,166	585	42	55	21	310	67	25	2	35	16	138	25	8	0

The importance of industrial training is almost universally recognized by teachers of the colored race, and the negroes themselves are beginning to see its value. This feature of colored education was treated at some length in the Education Report for 1893-94. More complete statistics are presented this year. For the first time the number of students in each industrial branch has been ascertained. Of the 37,102 students in the 162 colored schools nearly one-third, or 12,058, were receiving industrial training. Of these, 1,061 were learning farm and garden work, 1,786 carpentry, 235 bricklaying, 202 plastering, 259 painting, 67 tin and sheet-metal work, 314 forging, 200 machine-shop work, 147 shoemaking, 706 printing, 1,783 sewing, 5,460 cooking, and 1,017 were learning other industries. An exhibit of the industrial side of colored education is made in the following table:

Industrial training of colored students in 1894-95.

State.	Pupils receiving industrial training.			Students trained in industrial branches.												
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Farm or garden work.	Carpentry.	Bricklaying.	Plastering.	Painting.	Tin or sheet-metal work.	Forging.	Machine-shop work.	Shoemaking.	Printing.	Sewing.	Cooking.	Other trades.
Alabama	1,159	1,278	2,437	225	289	33	31	29	13	66	16	46	64	621	309	378
Arkansas	105	62	167	15	20	0	0	0	0	20	15	0	45	33	8	24
Delaware	21	0	21	7	21	2	0	4	0	3	5	0	0	0	0	0
District of Columbia	77	87	164	0	25	0	0	0	12	0	0	0	35	87	0	5
Florida	69	152	221	20	64	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	102	35	0
Georgia	489	1,455	1,944	39	143	13	13	14	30	40	0	5	76	1,325	198	292
Kentucky	143	217	360	30	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	62	6	0
Louisiana	281	211	492	79	122	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	43	196	15	0
Maryland	58	156	214	58	16	0	0	0	5	0	6	0	0	119	84	0
Mississippi	189	285	474	293	136	0	3	23	0	71	0	27	32	191	94	2
Missouri	94	107	201	0	40	0	0	0	20	25	0	0	9	107	0	0
New Jersey	20	22	42	6	20	0	0	28	0	0	0	0	17	22	0	0
North Carolina	659	1,142	1,801	89	291	48	27	47	4	0	50	42	99	750	538	25
Ohio	50	57	107	0	43	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	24	53	44	180
South Carolina	486	548	1,034	54	208	118	118	126	0	70	77	6	86	536	117	0
Tennessee	208	408	616	20	101	0	0	6	0	6	0	0	87	365	55	11
Texas	159	301	460	21	120	16	4	7	1	2	0	1	42	185	33	0
Virginia	365	765	1,130	105	71	5	6	7	1	15	6	14	38	666	191	100
West Virginia	59	114	173	0	44	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	9	40	0	0
Total	4,691	7,367	12,058	1,061	1,786	235	202	259	67	314	200	147	706	5,460	1,783	1,017

Colored institutions received benefactions in 1894-95 amounting to \$304,822. They received State and municipal aid amounting to \$188,936; from productive funds, \$98,278; from tuition fees, \$101,146, and from other sources and unclassified sums amounting to \$534,272. The latter figure includes the sums received by colored agricultural and mechanical colleges from the United States. The income of the colored institutions, so far as reported, amounted to \$922,632. In the libraries of the 162 colored schools there were 175,788 volumes, valued at \$357,549. The value of grounds, buildings, furniture, and scientific apparatus was \$6,475,590, and the value of other property and endowments was \$2,381,748. The following table summarizes the financial reports received from the 162 colored institutions:

Financial summary of the 162 colored schools.

State.	Value of benefactions or bequests, 1894-95.	Volumes in libraries.	Value of libraries.	Value of grounds, buildings, furniture, and scientific apparatus.	Amount of any other property or endowment.	Amount of State or municipal aid.	Amount received from tuition fees.	Amount received from productive funds.	Amount received from other sources.	Total income for the year 1894-95.
Alabama.....	\$64,903	15,212	\$11,350	\$383,269	\$150,363	\$14,500	\$13,276	\$9,068	\$112,769	\$149,613
Arkansas.....	2,894	4,450	5,125	132,200	35,500	6,000	3,860	2,450	2,594	14,904
Delaware.....	0	281	400	20,700	4,000	4,000
District of Columbia..	0	16,350	670,000	200,000	29,500	7,987	8,500	11,541	57,528
Florida.....	1,866	1,475	74,300	973,959	555,000	2,819	13,573	13,304	12,019	15,476
Georgia.....	27,888	24,865	13,560	52,257	81,953
Illinois.....	125	250
Indiana.....	250	500	10,000
Kentucky.....	15,145	8,556	6,265	193,220	103,825	3,000	6,356	4,264	4,176	17,796
Louisiana.....	11,344	10,227	5,854	474,422	98,750	7,500	7,120	32,475	47,095
Maryland.....	9,055	2,200	300	64,000	4,500	6,500	3,966	1,117	22,190	33,773
Mississippi.....	2,500	11,200	10,205	345,000	163,575	4,321	3,941	5,679	36,238	50,179
Missouri.....	200	831	925	162,125	65,000	1,367	1,284	50	67,701
New Jersey.....	7,427	500	150	10,000	5,000	3,000	500	3,500
North Carolina.....	23,568	12,670	6,490	444,995	39,500	7,618	8,496	920	22,644	39,678
Ohio.....	8,000	5,000	2,000	200,000	25,000	12,500	3,500	2,300	8,700	27,000
Pennsylvania.....	15,000	212,000	394,800	22,469	11,271	33,740
South Carolina.....	1,600	6,050	4,730	180,360	41,350	2,150	7,958	1,000	36,668	47,776
Tennessee.....	25,347	15,482	240,990	629,100	30,000	3,430	11,644	1,227	39,309	55,610
Texas.....	5,428	5,023	33,330	273,000	500	298	2,681	4,300	7,279
Virginia.....	95,122	14,150	10,150	938,000	504,085	15,000	3,276	22,603	117,301	158,180
West Virginia.....	4,401	5,500	3,500	85,000	30,000	3,009	1,488	2,093	3,270	9,851
Total.....	304,822	175,788	357,549	6,475,590	2,381,748	188,936	101,146	98,278	534,272	922,632

Beginning on the next page is a table giving in detail the statistics of the 162 colored schools so far as reported to this Bureau.

In the concluding pages of this chapter are printed two addresses in which are presented two views of the education of the colored race. The first was delivered at Brooklyn, N. Y., in January, 1896, at the dinner in honor of Alexander Hamilton by Booker T. Washington, principal of the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute. The second was delivered before the American Baptist Home Mission Society, at Asbury Park, N. J., May 26, 1896, by Edward C. Mitchell, D. D., president of Leland University, New Orleans, La. Mr. Washington pleads for the industrial as well as the intellectual training of the negro, while Dr. Mitchell advocates the higher education.

colored race, 1894-95—Detail table, Part I.

Pupils enrolled.						Students.										Graduates.								
Total.		Elementary grades.		Secondary grades.		College classes.		Classical courses.		Scientific courses.		English course.		Normal course.		Business course.		High school course.		Normal course.		College course.		
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	
50	118	36	102	14	16																		1	
125	146	125	146									125	146											2
53	77	53	77																	0	3			3
50	90	50	90																					4
420	439	233	294	127	145									127	145					9	10			5
199	208	56	42	143	165	0	1	0	0			199	208	13	13	16	9	0	0	9	13	0	0	6
135	141	126	133	9	8			0	0	9	8	113	129	10	25	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	7
100	118	65	83	35	25			2	3			35	18					55	56			8	0	8
258	323	204	305	48	18	6	0	6	0	6	0	0	0	6	6	0	0			46	40	2	0	9
31	0			31	0							27	0											10
480	329	210	159	218	157	52	13							270	170					17	15			11
39	43	19	31	13	12	7	0	5	1			31	43	8	7	3	2							12
26	60	15	40	11	20					4	8	17	35					1	1					13
70	80	55	58	21	16			2	2							6	6	1	4	1	4			14
123	189	88	171	20	17	15	1															13	14	15
123	69	43	20	80	49																			16
89	90	59	65	26	21	4	4	3	3	1	1			9	3									17
23	6			13	2	10	4	0	0	10	4	13	2	0	0	0	0			0	0	0	0	18
393	194	36	93	30	96	327	5	17	4	3	0	71	117	22	47	0	0			8	10	4	2	19
2	24	0	0	2	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	24	0	0			2	24	0	0	20
197	421			197	421											66	41							21
93	63	89	61	9	2															14	7			22
103	144	75	111	23	33							84	129											23
96	63	74	44	22	19																			24
55	81	30	35	25	46									21	40									25
0	50	0	9	0	41	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	26
49	57	38	49	11	8							49	57	3	3									27
21	37	14	28	7	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	32	6	5						4	2		28
68	56	48	34	21	21	0	0	0	0	2	2	20	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29
85	159	83	153	2	6							83	153					1	0					30
192	261	126	130	70	131													1	3	0	0			31
150	0	72	0	50	0	28	0	0	0			50	0	6	0	0	0	3	0	1	0			32
78	139	64	85	44	4	13	7							0	83			10	3	0	6	2	2	33
84	0				84	0																		34
203	231	155	223	24	29	24	29	3	0	24	0	155	223	0	29	0	0	0	4	0	4	0	0	35
0	491	0	416	0	52	0	23	0	0	0	3	0	52	0	14			0	7	0	2	0	0	36
75	147	75	147	0	0							48	160	3	0					0	0	0	0	37
136	262	116	142	20	120													2	8	2	8			38
99	82	28	28	66	52	5	2											9	1			4	1	39
36	55			36	55	0	0	0	0	0	0							2	1	0	0	0	0	40
201	0	101	0	91	0	9	0	23	0	25	0	13	0	10	0					0	0	0	0	41
69	87	64	87	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	64	87	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42
175	250	164	244	11	6							175	250	16	15					0	0	0	0	43
125	275	110	225	15	50	0	0	0	0	5	20	16	30	2	8	0	0	1	5	1	5	0	0	44
143	146	111	109	32	37																			45
160	181	116	130	40	51	4	0	19	5					20	48					2	14			46
45	130	35	112	10	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	18	0	6	0	0	1	2	1	2	0	0	48
105	167	50	67	53	100									55	100									49
7	21			7	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	21	0	5	0	0							50

Statistics of schools for the education of the colored

State and post-office.	Name of school.	Religious denomination.	Teachers.					
			White.		Colored.		Total.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
INDIANA.								
51	Evansville.....	Governor High School.....		2	1			3
52	New Albany.....	Scribner High School.....	Nonsect			1	2	3
KENTUCKY.								
53	Berea.....	Berea College.....	Nonsect	15	8	0	0	23
54	Frankfort.....	State Normal School for Colored Persons.	Nonsect			3	3	6
55	Lebanon.....	St. Augustine's Academy*	R. C.		3			3
56	Lexington.....	Chandler Normal school*	Cong				10	10
57	Louisville.....	Christian Bible School.....	Christian	1	0	1	0	2
58	do.....	Central High School.....	Nonsect			8	9	17
59	Paris.....	Paris Colored High School.....	Nonsect			2	4	6
LOUISIANA.								
60	Alexandria.....	Alexandria Academy ^a						
61	Baldwin.....	Gilbert Academy and Industrial College.	M. E.			2	5	7
62	New Iberia.....	Mount Carmel Convent ^a						
63	New Orleans.....	Leland University.....	Bapt	3	6	3	1	13
64	do.....	New Orleans University.....	M. E.	6	6	8	4	24
65	do.....	Southern University.....	Nonsect	5	2	1	5	13
66	do.....	Straight University.....	Cong	4	18	1	1	24
MARYLAND.								
67	Baltimore.....	Baltimore City Colored High School.....		1	4	0	0	5
68	do.....	Morgan College.....	M. E.	4	3	1	1	9
69	Hebbsville.....	Baltimore Normal School for Training of Colored Teachers.*				1		1
70	Melvale.....	Industrial Home for Colored Girls.....	Nonsect		6			6
71	Princess Anne.....	Princess Anne Academy.....		3	0	3	3	9
MISSISSIPPI.								
72	Clinton.....	Mount Hermon Female Seminary*.....						
73	Edwards.....	Southern Christian Institute.....	Christian	2	3	0	0	5
74	Holly Springs.....	Rust University.....	M. E.	3	3	3	1	10
75	do.....	State Colored Normal School.....	Nonsect	0	0	1	1	2
76	Jackson.....	Jackson College.....	Bapt	2	3	1	2	8
77	Meridian.....	Meridian Academy.....	M. E.			2	1	3
78	Natchez.....	Natchez College*.....				1	1	2
79	Tougaloo.....	Tougaloo University.....	Cong	7	15			22
80	Westside.....	Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Nonsect	0	0	15	0	15
MISSOURI.								
81	Hannibal.....	Douglass High School*.....				1	1	2
82	Jefferson City.....	Lincoln Institute.....		2	0	6	3	11
83	Kansas City.....	Lincoln High School.....		0	0	3	1	4
84	Mill Spring.....	Hale's College.....	Nonsect	4	7	0	0	11
85	Sedalia.....	Geo. R. Smith College.....	M. E.	1	3	2	4	10
NEW JERSEY.								
86	Bordentown.....	Colored Normal and Industrial School.....	Nonsect			2	3	5
NORTH CAROLINA.								
87	Ashboro.....	Ashboro Normal School.....		1	3			4
88	Beaufort.....	Washburn Seminary.....	Nonsect	1	4	0	1	6
89	Charlotte.....	Biddle University.....	Presb.	0	0	11	0	11
90	Clinton.....	Clinton Normal Institute*.....				1	0	1
91	Concord.....	Scotia Seminary.....	Presb.	1	10	1	5	17
92	Elizabeth City.....	State Colored Normal School.....	Nonsect			2	1	3
93	Fayetteville.....	State Colored Normal School.....	Nonsect	0	0	2	1	3
94	Franklinton.....	Albion Academy, Normal and Industrial School.	Presb.			5	4	9
95	do.....	Franklinton Christian College.....	Christian			2	3	5

* Statistics of 1893-94.

race, 1894-95—Detail table, Part I—Continued.

Pupils enrolled.						Students.										Graduates.								
Total.		Elementary grades.		Secondary grades.		Collegiate classes.		Classical courses.		Scientific courses.		English course.		Normal course.		Business course.		High school course.		Normal course.		Collegiate course.		
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	
21	44	21	44	21	44	4	3	0	0	51	
60	65	45	52	12	16	12	16	3	4	52	
248	212	139	132	64	66	45	14	17	5	39	11	0	4	3	0	0	4	53
43	62	24	35	19	27	19	27	1	6	54
0	76	35	41	55
0	238	238	56
26	0	26	0	57
222	524	232	386	50	138	50	138	6	16	6	16	58
173	163	90	90	53	61	30	12	12	18	2	8	26	34	2	8	2	8	3	3	3	3	59
.....	60
95	75	68	63	15	6	12	6	12	6	1	0	114	27	1	2	61
.....	62
250	239	170	187	20	39	10	13	18	5	0	0	190	200	13	13	3	3	3	3	1	0	63
290	353	212	319	31	34	7	1	33	8	5	26	6	6	4	1	0	64	
118	190	98	158	12	28	8	4	0	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	0	0	65
235	314	161	206	67	85	50	0	5	0	20	16	14	23	10	12	9	4	1	0	66
.....	67
40	100	40	100	2	11	0	0	67
103	57	46	50	2	1	55	6	0	0	5	2	1	0	68
7	10	7	10	69
0	160	0	90	0	70	0	60	70
58	44	21	16	28	21	9	7	6	1	6	1	58	44	31	27	1	6	1	6	0	0	71
.....	72
78	114	78	114	73
35	47	28	40	4	4	3	3	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	74
113	117	56	71	49	48	6	0	21	4	56	71	33	44	12	12	2	0	75
83	84	32	39	28	24	34	10	7	0	67	63	32	25	4	1	4	1	76
80	82	0	0	80	82	80	82	75
57	112	40	86	17	26	30	52	77
50	86	24	58	26	28	78
201	176	173	159	28	17	22	17	79
298	7	200	5	45	0	58	2	15	0	80
.....	81
21	24	6	4	15	20	82
111	94	64	67	41	26	7	0	9	0	39	26	7	2	1	0	83
36	64	0	0	36	64	0	0	0	0	36	64	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	84
48	25	5	5	43	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	10	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	85
45	35	50	20	4	6	4	6	5	7	40	30	5	7
.....
20	22	5	5	15	17	5	7	0	10	5	0	86
.....
100	90	25	20	75	70	18	9	87
79	84	69	77	10	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	7	10	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	88
260	0	19	0	172	0	69	0	69	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	89
25	50	19	46	6	4	6	4	90
0	283	0	268	0	15	0	15	91
50	114	14	40	32	62	5	11	0	8	0	15	0	7	9	0	92
42	64	42	64	93
104	131	15	18	91	111	94
72	90	66	80	4	12	2	2	4	2	95

a No report.

Statistics of schools for the education of the colored

State and post-office.	Name of school.	Religious denomination.	Teachers.				
			White.		Colored.		Total.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
NORTH CAROLINA—continued.							
96	Franklinton	State Colored Normal School.....			4	4	8
97	Goldsborodo.....	Nonsect	0	1	2	3
98	Greensboro	Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race.*			7	0	7
99do.....	Bennett College*	Meth		5	5	10
100	Kings Mountain.....	Lincoln Academy	Cong	6			6
101	Lumberton	Whitin Normal School	Nonsect	0	0	1	2
102	Pee Dee	Barrett Collegiate and Industrial Institute.	Nonsect	0	0	2	4
103	Plymouth	State Colored Normal School.....	Nonsect		2	1	3
104	Raleigh	Shaw University	Bapt	12	4	8	26
105do.....	Lincoln Academy	P. E.	2	0	5	12
106	Reidsville	City Graded School (colored)		2	7	2	4
107	Salisbury	Livingston College	A. M. E. Z.			11	15
108do.....	State Colored Normal School.....	Nonsect	0	0	3	4
109	Warrenton	Shiloh Institute	Bapt			2	4
110	Wilmington	Gregory Normal Institute	Cong	1	11	0	12
111	Windsor	Rankin-Richards Institute.....	Nonsect			2	3
112	Winton	Waters Normal Institute.....	Bapt			2	4
OHIO.							
113	Wilberforce	Wilberforce University	A. M. E.	1	3	9	18
PENNSYLVANIA.							
114	Lincoln University.	Lincoln University*	Presb.	11			11
SOUTH CAROLINA.							
115	Aiken	Schofield Normal and Industrial School ..	Nonsect	2	6	4	15
116	Beaufort	Beaufort Academy*				1	2
117do.....	Harbison Institute	Presb.			2	4
118	Camden	Browning Industrial Home and School ..	M. E.	4			4
119	Charleston.....	Avery Normal Institute	Cong	1	4	1	8
120do.....	Wallingford Academy*				1	6
121	Chester	Brainerd Institute	Presb.	1	3	1	8
122	Columbia	Allen University	A. M.			4	6
123do.....	Benedict College	Bapt	2	5	1	8
124	Frogmore	Penn Industrial and Normal School.....	Nonsect	0	3	4	12
125	Greenwood	Brewer Normal School	Cong	1	6	5	7
126	Orangeburg.....	Clafin University and Agricultural College and Mechanics' Institute.	Nonsect	7	3	3	20
TENNESSEE.							
127	Jonesboro	Warner Institute	Cong	0	3	0	4
128	Knoxville	Austin High School.....	Nonsect			6	10
129do.....	Knoxville College	U. Presb.	5	16		21
130	Maryville	Freedmen's Normal Institute	Friends	1	2	7	14
131	Memphis	Hannibal Medical College	Nonsect	0	0	11	11
132do.....	Le Moyne Normal Institute*		0	0	3	17
133	Morristown	Morristown Normal Academy*	M. E.			5	18
134	Murfreesboro	Bradley Academy*					
135	Nashville	Central Tennessee College	M. E.	4	5	2	11
136do.....	Fisk University	Cong	10	20	1	31
137do.....	Meigs's High School	Nonsect			4	12
138do.....	Roger Williams University	Bapt	4	5	6	16
TEXAS.							
139	Austin	Tillotson College	Cong	3	10	0	13
140	Brenham	East End High School*				1	2
141	Crockett	Mary Allen Seminary*				1	14
142	Galveston	Central High School	Nonsect	0	0	4	6
143	Hearne	Hearne Academy and Normal and Industrial Institute.	Bapt			2	4
144	Marshall	Bishop College	Bapt	3	8	6	18

* Statistics of 1893-94.

race, 1894-95—Detail table, Part I—Continued.

Pupils enrolled.						Students.												Graduates.						
Total.		Elementary grades.		Secondary grades.		Collegiate classes.		Classical courses.		Scientific courses.		English course.		Normal course.		Business course.		High school course.		Normal course.		Collegiate course.		
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	
140	116	19	26	121	90			11	6	21	7	96	79	71	90			3	3	5	17			96
30	75	20	44	10	31																			97
37	26			30	19	7	7																	98
97	106	5	0	92	106									3	12									99
62	136	57	122	14	5									5	14					3	2			100
38	43	12	19	24	26	0	0	0	0	0	0			24	26			0	0	0	0	0	0	101
50	85	20	30	22	32	17	14	4	3	19	12	10	12	14	18	3	0	7	9	4	7	1	0	102
62	118	20	45	42	73									42	73					2	0			103
194	168	70	59	90	85	30	28	0	0	3	2	20	30	90	85	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	104
79	139	54	111	18	23	7	5													0	1			105
450	361	420	310	30	51													0	0					106
79	99	37	38	26	27	16	4	16	4	0	0	0	0	26	27	0	0			10	7	3	0	107
50	51	43	37	7	14	0	0	0	0	7	14	43	37	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	108
40	55	15	26	25	29			5	8	5	8	5	8	2	2			3	5	3	5			109
135	225	95	165	40	60									20	35			6	7	6	7			110
35	75	25	50	10	25													0	2					111
91	120	64	68	44	45							91	120	9	23									112
175	130	77	63	37	77	43	8	22	4	15	7	77	62	50	57	9	6	5	9	7	8	4	0	113
167						167	0															38	0	114
74	149	25	35	49	114	0	0	0	0	0	0	49	114	8	10	0	0	1	9	1	9	0	0	115
185	203	184	196	1	7									1	7									116
53	52	46	45	7	7															2	3			117
55	95	40	30	25	55							65	85	5	20			1	2	1	2			118
135	275	91	158	44	117	0	0	10	18	0	0	34	99	4	21			4	21	4	21	0	0	119
73	148	60	112	13	36																			120
74	77	65	70	9	7			8	0			1	7	9	7			4	3					121
131	122	52	50	33	29	46	43	1	0	2	0			43	43					6	9			122
59	76	0	0	59	76	0	0	4	5	0	0	55	71	0	0			6	10					123
136	118	121	104	15	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	14	15	14	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	124
108	123	101	120	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	108	123	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	125
342	228	286	187	39	35	17	6	25	19	15	10			20	39			9	9	9	4	8	8	126
50	61	41	50	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	48	56	2	6			0	2	0	1			127
300	320	298	300	10	12													0	2					128
146	171	82	104	46	62	18	5	15	5	3	0	0	13	11				9	8	9	8	1	0	129
128	125	51	62	74	60	3	3	0	0	3	3	64	75	64	50	0	0			7	4			130
0	1	3	1	3	0													1	1	0	0	1	1	131
223	447	191	386	32	61									66	113					3	6			132
141	149	39	51	102	98									31	42					8	1			133
136	206	131	187	5	19																			134
157	169	57	58	64	94	36	17	27	14	9	1	105	119	23	33					1	3	3	0	135
212	327	83	138	156	107	46	9	38	9	8	0			3	70	0	0	18	3	1	7	8	4	136
219	365	176	283	43	82			43	82			176	283					2	9					137
110	117	58	83	34	33	18	1	15	1	3	0	58	83	10	19			5	5	1	5	4	0	138
95	93	71	82	22	18	0	0	0	0	4	6	91	88	22	18	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	6	139
203	245	135	216	18	29																			140
0	232	0	112	0	120															0	25			141
90	122	73	104	17	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	142
35	41	22	29	13	12							13	12											143
179	189	112	158	49	16	19	14	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1					144

Statistics of schools for the education of the colored

	State and post-office.	Name of school.	Religious denomination.	Teachers.				
				White.		Colored.		Total.
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
TEXAS—cont'd.								
145	Marshall.....	Wiley University.....	M. E.....		2	7	3	12
146	Prairie View.....	Prairie View State Normal School*.....				2	3	5
147	Waco.....	Paul Quinn College.....	A. M. E.....			5	2	7
VIRGINIA.								
148	Burkeville.....	Ingleside Seminary.....	Presb.....		8			8
149	Hampton.....	Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.	Nonsect..	13	35	9	1	58
150	Lawrenceville.....	St. Paul Normal and Industrial School...	Epis.....			2	8	10
151	Longfield.....	Curry College*.....	Bapt.....			2	2	4
152	Manassas.....	Manassas Industrial School for Colored Youth.	Nonsect..	0	0	2	2	4
153	Manchester.....	Public High School, colored.....	Nonsect..			4	4	8
154	Norfolk.....	Norfolk Mission College.....	U. Presb..	4	7	0	3	14
155	Petersburg.....	Bishop Payne Divinity and Industrial School.	Epis.....	1	0	2	0	3
156do.....	Peabody School.....	Nonsect..	0	0	1	11	12
157do.....	Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute.	Nonsect..			7	5	12
158	Richmond.....	Hartshorn Memorial College.....	Bapt.....	1	6	0	2	9
159do.....	Richmond Theological Seminary.....	Bapt.....	2	0	2	0	4
160	Staunton.....	Valley Training School*.....				1	2	3
WEST VIRGINIA.								
161	Farm.....	West Virginia Colored Institute.....	Nonsect..			3	2	5
162	Harpers Ferry.....	Storer College.....	Bapt.....	2	1	2	1	6

* Statistics of 1893-94.

race, 1894-95—Detail table, Part I—Continued.

Pupils enrolled.						Students.										Grades.							
Total.		Elementary grades.		Secondary grades.		Collegiate classes		Classical courses		Scientific courses		English course.		Normal course.		Business course.		High school course.		Normal course.		Collegiate course.	
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
130	154	30	59	70	69	33	23	5	0	100	128	13	21
115	106	23	63	92	43
60	65	40	59	10	16	1	1	4	4	40	59
0	111	0	56	0	55	0	111	0	26	0	26	0	26
436	377	261	265	175	112	0	0	0	0	0	0	175	112	41	39	9	14	9	14
112	145	32	60	80	85	78	85	78	85	6	4
52	43	42	38	10	5
37	40	37	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
28	22	12	14	6	7	10	1	28	22	7	9	7	9
248	438	225	397	23	41	23	41	14	24	11	10	11	10
10	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
297	450	280	413	17	37	0	0	0	0	17	37	297	450	0	0	0	0	3	10	0	0	0	0
142	179	25	31	102	146	15	2	53	94	2	1	8	11
1	96	0	22	1	74
50	0	50	0
19	32	9	20	10	12	10	12
34	44	25	29	9	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	29	9	15	0	0	0	0
61	74	20	25	41	49	0	0	9	9	0	0	52	65	41	49	0	0	2	0	6	2

Name of school.	Students in professional courses.			Pupils receiving industrial training.			Students trained in industrial branches.												
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Farm or garden work.	Carpentry.	Bricklaying.	Plastering.	Painting.	Tin or sheet-metal work.	Forging.	Machine-shop work.	Shoemaking.	Printing.	Sewing.	Cooking.	Other trades.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
ALABAMA.																			
1																			
2				79	91	170	69										39	4	58
3				15	10	25	2										10	6	7
4																			
5				250	300	550	75										200	200	
6	2	16	18	169	279	448	36	53	2	0	7	0	29	0	27	15	100	56	135
7				48	44	92		48	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	44		
8	10	0	10																
9	35	0	35	118	225	343	10	75	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	135	8	110
10	31	0	31																
11	52	0	52	480	329	809	108	38	31	31	22	13	29	16	19	44	93	35	68
ARKANSAS.																			
12				0	18	18											18		
13																			
14				12	12	24													24
15	12	0	12	38	0	38											38		
16	0	0	0	40	20	60	0	15					20	15			2		
17				15	12	27	15	5									5	15	8
DELAWARE.																			
18				21	0	21	7	21	2	0	4	0	3	5	0	0	0	0	0
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.																			
19	217	34	251	77	64	141		25				12				35	64		5
20																			
21																			
22	34	0	34		23	23												23	
FLORIDA.																			
23	4	0	4		30	30												15	15
24																			
25																			
26	0	0	0	0	50	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	20
27				49	57	106		49										57	
28				20	15	35	20	15											
GEORGIA.																			
29																			
30				0	85	85												85	
31																			
32				10	0	10	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	2
33																			
34	84	0	84																
35	10	0	10	8	17	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	17	5	0
36	0	32	32	0	240	240											37	100	125
37				0	130	130	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	130	0
38	0	8	8	10	262	272									5	6	262	10	

* Statistics of 1893-94.

colored race, 1894-95—Detail table, Part II.

Chief sources of support.	Value of bequests or bequests in 1894-95.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, buildings, furniture, and scientific apparatus.	Amount of any other prop- erty or endowment.	Amount of State or munic- ipal aid.	Amount received from tui- tion fees.	Amount received from pro- ductive funds.	Amount received from other sources.	Total income for the year 1894-95.
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
A. M. A									1
Freedmen's Aid M. E. Ch.	\$15, 076	500	\$10			\$451		\$98	2
.....					\$7, 500		\$700		3
.....							2, 500		4
.....								10, 000	5
State and U. S.		1, 985	30, 142	\$9, 099	4, 000			32, 698	6
Amer. Miss. Assn.		500	5, 000		0	876		3, 004	7
Am. Bapt. H. M. S.		500	3, 000			350	50	3, 000	8
Amer. Miss. Assn.	3, 089	6, 200	128, 617	141, 354	0	1, 503	7, 068	8, 568	9
Ch. and contributions.	1, 000	1, 500						3, 500	10
State and contributions.	46, 738	4, 527	215, 000		3, 000	9, 696	1, 250	59, 401	11
A. M. E. Con. in Ark.			5, 000			300		600	12
A. B. Home Miss. S.	600	150	10, 000			256	350	700	13
Popular collection.	1, 500	100	1, 200			500			14
.....		700	30, 000						15
State and U. S.	0	3, 500	60, 000		6, 000	300			16
Society of Friends.	794		26, 000	35, 500	0	2, 504	2, 100	1, 294	17
U. S.	0	281	20, 700		0	0	0	4, 000	18
U. S.	0	13, 000	600, 000	200, 000	29, 500	7, 987	8, 500	11, 541	19
U. S.	0	350	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
.....									21
Am. Bapt. H. M. S.		3, 000	70, 000						22
Freedmen's Aid S. M. E. Ch.		1, 000	30, 000			461		1, 800	23
A. B. H. M.									24
H. M. S. M. E. Ch.		150			0	84	0	219	25
Am. Miss. Assn.		200	25, 000	0	0		0	0	26
.....									27
State and U. S.		516	19, 200		2, 800	112		10, 000	28
Jewel B. A. and A. B. H. M. S.	648	75	5, 275			286		662	29
Am. Miss. Assn.		200	5, 000						30
City.	5	150	1, 200	0	2, 019	36	5	5	31
Am. Bapt. H. M. S.	402	2, 000	50, 000	30, 000	0	455	1, 250	4, 820	32
Tuition and benevolence.	22, 234	7, 548	252, 000		0	1, 551	580	123	33
Endowment funds.		9, 000	100, 000	500, 000		357	8, 000	2, 000	34
A. M. E. Ch.	0	1, 200	75, 000	0	0	1, 335	0	4, 000	35
W. A. H. M. S. Slater Fund.	2, 804	2, 500	150, 000			2, 130		16, 850	36
Tuition and benevolence.		150	20, 000	0	0	1, 312	0		37
Presb. Board Miss. for Freed- men.		120	20, 000			2, 645			38

a No report.

Statistics of schools for the education of the colored

Name of school.	Students in professional courses.			Pupils receiving industrial training.			Students trained in industrial branches.												
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Farm or garden work.	Carpentry.	Bricklaying.	Plastering.	Painting.	Tin or sheet-metal work.	Forging.	Machine-shop work.	Shoemaking.	Printing.	Sewing.	Cooking.	Other trades.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
GEORGIA—continued.																			
39	Paine Institute																		
40	Walker Baptist Institute			0	55	55												55	
41	Georgia State Industrial College			141	0	141	9	33	13	13	13	30	30						
42	Dorchester Academy			30	115	145	24	29									115	2	16
43	Ballard Normal School			100	250	350	0	70	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	275	25	30
44	La Grange Academy																		
45	Roswell Public School ^a																		
46	Beach Institute ^a																		
47	Clark University			160	181	341		20			1		10			16	136	16	244
48	Allen Normal and Industrial School			30	120	150	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	150	15	0
49	Haven Normal Academy ^a																		
ILLINOIS.																			
50	Sumner High School																		
INDIANA.																			
51	Governor High School ^a																		
52	Scribner High School																		
KENTUCKY.																			
53	Berea College			50	30	80													
54	State Normal School for Colored Persons			43	62	105	30	12									62	62	
55	St. Augustine's Academy ^a																		
56	Chandler Normal School*			50	125	175													
57	Christian Bible School	26	0	26															
58	Central High School																		
59	Paris Colored High School																		
LOUISIANA.																			
60	Alexandria Academy ^a																		
61	Gilbert Academy and Industrial College			120	30	150	30	10								5	15	15	
62	Mount Carmel Convent ^a																		
63	Leland University	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
64	New Orleans University	36	0	36															
65	Southern University			89	66	155	49	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	66	0	0
66	Straight University	12	0	12	72	115	187	72								38	115		
MARYLAND.																			
67	Baltimore City Colored High School																		
68	Morgan College	9	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
69	Baltimore Normal School for Training of Colored Teachers ^a																		
70	Industrial Home for Colored Girls			0	112	112											75	40	
71	Princess Anne Academy	0	0	0	58	44	102	58	16	0	0	0	0	5	0	6	0	44	41
MISSISSIPPI.																			
72	Mount Hermon Female Seminary ^a																		
73	Southern Christian Institute	8	0	8	4	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
74	Rust University			27	60	87		16								11	36	24	

* Statistics of 1893-94.

race, 1894-95—Detail table, Part II—Continued.

Chief sources of support.	Value of benefactions or bequests in 1894-95.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, buildings, furniture, and scientific apparatus.	Amount of any other property or endowment.	Amount of State or municipal aid.	Amount received from tuition fees.	Amount received from productive funds.	Amount received from other sources.	Total income for the year 1894-95.
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
S. Col. M. E. Ch.		502	\$14,484	\$25,000	0	\$159	\$1,663	\$6,304	\$8,126
Am. B. H. M. S.		55	5,000		\$500	289	11	1,002	1,802
State and U. S.		265							41
Benevolence and tuition	\$1,620	300				613		3,452	4,665
Am. M. Assn. and tuition	150	300	25,000	0	0	500	1,800	4,500	6,800
State	25	0	1,000	0	300	50	0	24	374
F. A. and S. Ed. S. M. E. Ch.		500	250,000			1,855		8,515	10,370
Am. Miss. Assn.									48
.....									49
State		25							50
.....		250	10,000						51
.....									52
State and U. S.	14,145	7,000	132,656	100,400	0	3,265	4,073	145	7,483
.....	1,000	631	20,564		3,000	2,900	1		5,901
Sisters of Loretto									55
A. M. A.									56
Gen. Christ. Miss. Con.	0	450	0	3,425	0	0	190	4,031	4,221
City		185	20,000						58
City		290	20,000			191			191
.....									60
Church		1,000	40,000						61
.....									62
Endowment	962	1,000	160,000	92,750	0	480		4,827	5,307
F. A., S. Ed. S. M. E. Ch. and S. F.	3,000	5,000	100,000			3,440		5,300	8,740
U. S. and State	2,882	727	49,422		7,500	0	0	11,548	19,048
Am. Miss. Assn.	4,500	2,500	125,000	6,000	0	3,200		10,800	14,000
.....									67
City		200							67
M. E. Ch. endowment	9,055	2,000	50,000		0	2,800	1,117	13,456	17,373
.....									69
State and city				3,500	6,500			4,900	11,400
U. S. and F. A. and S. Ed. So.		0	14,000	1,000	0	1,166		3,834	5,000
.....									71
.....									72
Christian Ch.	1,000	1,000	25,000	0	0	400	0		400
Freedmen's Aid and S. Ed. So.	3,000	90,000				1,631		9,338	10,969

a No report.

Statistics of schools for the education of the colored

Name of school.	Students in professional courses.			Pupils receiving industrial training.			Students trained in industrial branches.												
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Farm or garden work.	Carpentry.	Bricklaying.	Plastering.	Painting.	Tin or sheet-metal work.	Forging.	Machine-shop work.	Shoemaking.	Printing.	Sewing.	Cooking.	Other trades.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
MISSISSIPPI—continued.																			
75	State Colored Normal School			0	75	75												75	
76	Jackson College																		
77	Meridian Academy																		
78	Natchez College <i>a</i>																		
79	Tougaloo University	4	25	29	158	150	308	39	83				45				80	70	
80	Aleorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.							259	37		3	23	26		27	21			2
MISSOURI.																			
81	Douglass High School <i>a</i>																		
82	Lincoln Institute				85	80	165		40				20	25			80		
83	Lincoln High School																		
84	Hale's College	5	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
85	Geo. R. Smith College				9	27	36										9	27	
NEW JERSEY.																			
83	Colored Normal and Industrial School.	0	2	2	20	22	42	6	20			2				17	22		
NORTH CAROLINA.																			
87	Ashboro Normal School <i>a</i>																		
88	Washburn Seminary				0	49	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	49	0
89	Biddle University				172		172		41	23	9				29	50			25
90	Clinton Normal Institute *																		
91	Scotia Seminary				0	283	283											283	283
92	State Colored Normal School (Elizabeth City).																		
93	State Colored Normal School (Fayetteville) <i>a</i>																		
94	Albion Academy, Normal and Industrial School.	5	2	7	89	29	109	50	46	25	10	2	1					18	
95	Franklinton Christian College.				126	103	229		89		6	4	3		5		103	23	
96	State Colored Normal School (Franklinton).																		
97	State Colored Normal School (Goldsboro).																		
98	Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race <i>a</i>																		
99	Bennett College <i>a</i>																		
100	Lincoln Academy				17	136	153		3								118	32	
101	Whitin Normal School																		
102	Barrett Collegiate and Industrial Institute.	9	0	9	50	35	85	25								28	20	12	
103	State Colored Normal School (Plymouth).																		
104	Shaw University	110	0	110	100	110	210	0	100	0	0	40	0	0	50	0	0	110	110
105	St. Augustine's School				79	139	218	10	9		2	1					55	55	
106	City Graded School, Colored																		
107	Livingston College				15	33	48	4	3						8	21	12		
108	State Colored Normal School (Salisbury).																		
109	Shiloh Institute																		
110	Gregory Normal Institute				20	225	245												
111	Rankin-Richards Institute <i>a</i>																		
112	Waters Normal Institute	4	0	4															
OHIO.																			
113	Wilberforce University	10	15	25	50	57	107		43							24	53	44	180

* Statistics of 1893-94.

race, 1894-95—Detail table, Part II—Continued.

Chief sources of support.	Value of benefactions or bequests in 1894-95.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, buildings, furniture, and scientific apparatus.	Amount of any other property or endowment.	Amount of State or municipal aid.	Amount received from tuition fees.	Amount received from productive funds.	Amount received from other sources.	Total income for the year 1894-95.	
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	
State		\$1,500	\$10,000	0	\$2,000	\$240			\$2,240	75
Am. Bapt. H. M. So		300	35,000							76
M. E. Ch		25	2,500			600		\$300	900	77
.....										78
Am. Miss. Assn	\$1,500	2,500	80,600		0	1,000		15,000	16,000	79
U. S. and State		2,875	102,500	\$163,575	2,321	70	\$5,679	11,600	19,670	80
.....										81
.....		31	81,625		65,000	167	1,084		66,251	82
State	0		18,000							83
Students	0		2,500	0	0	0				84
U. S. and S. Ed. So. of M. E. Ch.	200	800	60,000			1,200	200	50	1,450	85
.....										86
State and private	7,427	500	10,000	5,000	3,000			500	3,500	87
.....										88
Am. Miss. Assn	0	0	3,000	0	152	83	0	0	235	89
Benevolence										90
City		31			300	50		50	400	91
Freedmen's N. Presb. Chr	11,150	1,000	60,000	4,500	0	0	0	0		92
State	0	0	0		900	0	0	0	900	93
.....										94
Presb. Br. and State	5,000	1,100	15,000		1,500				1,500	95
State and benevolence		219	11,000		1,400		150	2,776	4,326	96
.....		1,500	6,000	4,000	100	0	320	1,400	1,820	97
State and Peabody F.	150	300	2,000	0	1,500	0	0	150	1,650	98
State										99
F. A. and E. S.										100
Am. Miss. Assn	100	200			111				111	101
Tuition	10	150	1,600		0	180	0	15	195	102
Donations and tuition	978	1,000	8,000			3,080			3,080	103
State		250								104
Am. B. H. M. So		2,000	200,000	30,000	0	2,172		8,497	10,669	105
State and city		200								106
A. M. E. Z. Ch	3,500	2,000	110,000	1,000		500	200	5,800	6,500	107
State and Peabody F.	0	920	0	0	1,480	0	0	0	1,480	108
Shiloh Bapt. Assn.	180	100	6,135			250	50	210	510	109
Tuition	2,500	700	12,000	0	0	2,000	200	2,300	4,500	110
.....										111
Am. Bapt. H. M. S.			10,860		175	181		1,446	1,802	112
.....										113
A. M. E. Ch. and State	8,000	5,000	200,600	25,000	12,500	3,500	2,300	8,700	27,000	113

a No report.

Statistics of schools for the education of the colored

Name of school.	Students in professional courses.			Pupils receiving industrial training.			Students trained in industrial branches.												
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Farm or garden work.	Carpentry.	Bricklaying.	Plastering.	Painting.	Tin or sheet-metal work.	Forging.	Machine-shop work.	Shoemaking.	Printing.	Sewing.	Cooking.	Other trades.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
PENNSYLVANIA.																			
114	Lincoln University *	40	0	40															
SOUTH CAROLINA.																			
115	Schofield Normal and Industrial School.				40	20	60	8	20								6	114	20
116	Beaufort Academy <i>a</i> .																		
117	Harbison Institute.																	75	25
118	Browning Industrial Home and School.				0	75	75												
119	Avery Normal Institute.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
120	Wallingford Academy *																		
121	Brainerd Institute.				36	30	66	36	11							6	6	30	30
122	Allen University.	7	0	7							8								
123	Benedict College.				28	50	78		21						7		50		
124	Penn Industrial and Normal School.	0	0	0	103	81	184	0	86	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	81	0	0
125	Brewer Normal School.	0	0	0		123	123	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	123	20	0
126	Clafin University and Agricultural College and Mechanics Institute.				279	169	448	10	70	118	118	118		70	70		7	113	22
TENNESSEE.																			
127	Warner Institute.				10	61	71	10	1								61	20	
128	Austin High School.																		
129	Knoxville College.	2	0	2	50	90	140	6	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	108	12	5
130	Freedmen's Normal Institute.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
131	Hannibal Medical College.																		
132	Le Moyne Normal Institute. <i>a</i>																		
133	Morristown Normal Academy. *																		
134	Bradley Academy <i>a</i> .																		
135	Central Tennessee College.	165	0	165	59	83	142	4	22	0	0	0	6	0	6	0	40	52	3
136	Fisk University.	3	0	3	67	128	195		52								22	100	20
137	Meig's High School.																		
138	Roger Williams University.				22	46	68		14							10	44		
TEXAS.																			
139	Tillotson College.	0	4	4	91	84	175	5	91	0	0	3	0	1	0	0	84	0	0
140	East End High School <i>a</i> .																		
141	Mary Allen Seminary *																		
142	Central High School.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
143	Hearne Academy and Normal and Industrial Institute.				13	12	25	13				2			1	4	12		
144	Bishop College.	12	0	12	52	128	180	1	28	16	4	2	1	1	0	0	8	14	12
145	Wiley University.	5	0	5	2	75	77									30	75	31	
146	Prairie View State Normal School. <i>a</i>																		
147	Paul Quinn College.				1	2	3	2	1										
VIRGINIA.																			
148	Ingleside Seminary.				0	111	111										111	111	
149	Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.				250	191	441	46	22	0	1	5	1	13	6	6	8	104	25
150	St. Paul Normal and Industrial School.	b	0	5	60	35	95	22	12	5	5	2		2		8	12	23	4
151	Curry College <i>a</i>																		

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a No report.

race, 1894-95—Detail table, Part II—Continued.

Chief sources of support.	Value of benefactions or bequests in 1894-95.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, buildings, furniture, and scientific apparatus.	Amount of any other property or endowment.	Amount of State or municipal aid.	Amount received from tuition fees.	Amount received from productive funds.	Amount received from other sources.	Total income for the year 1894-95.
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
		15,060	\$212,000	\$394,800			\$22,469	\$11,271	\$33,740
Contributions		900	33,000		\$150	\$150	1,000	5,000	6,300
N. Presb. Ch.		50	6,000			222			222
M. E. Ch.		300				400			400
Am. M. Assn.	0	500	25,000	0	0	2,800	0	2,500	5,300
A. M. E. Ch.		500	1,300	0	0	336	0	1,464	1,800
Presb. Ch. Miss.			10,000	0					121
A. M. E. Ch.	\$600		40,000	1,000		1,050		3,950	5,000
Am. Bapt. H. M. So.		1,500	50,000	40,000					123
Contributions	1,000	300	5,000	350		0	0	1,000	1,000
Am. M. Assn. Cong. Ch.		200	10,000	0	0				125
U. S., State, Slater and Peabody Funds, F. A. and S. E. So.	0	1,800		0	2,000	3,000		22,754	27,754
Am. Miss. Assn.	60	50	8,000		350	160		500	950
City		305	10,000						123
Church and Miss. Society	13,000	1,600	100,000		3,000	500	0	9,500	13,000
New Eng. Y. M.	0			0					130
Donations and tuition		300	1,100	0	80	215	80	34	409
A. M. A.									132
F. A. and S. Ed. S.						877		6,275	7,152
F. A. So. M. E. Chr.	1,687	4,000	110,000	5,000	0	4,667	247	7,000	11,914
Am. Miss. Assn.	600	5,227	400,000	25,000	0	5,285	900	16,000	22,185
City									136
Am. Bapt. H. M. So.	10,600	4,000							137
Am. Miss. Assn.	191	1,400	60,000	0	0	1,181	0	2,500	3,681
City		300	50,000					1,800	1,800
Am. Bapt. H. M. So.	1,237	48	18,000	0		0	0	0	1,422
Am. Bapt. H. M. So.		875	75,000						144
F. A. and S. Ed. So. M. E. Ch.		2,000							145
A. M. E. Ch.	4,000	400	70,000	500		1,500			1,500
Presb. Church.	5,000	400	3,000						148
U. S.	80,332	7,332	572,000	424,085	0	0	22,203	97,477	119,680
Contributions	6,500		40,000						150
									151

Statistics of schools for the education of the colored

Name of school.	Students in professional courses.			Pupils receiving industrial training.			Students trained in industrial branches.														
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Farm or garden work.	Carpentry.	Bricklaying.	Plastering.	Painting.	Tin or sheet-metal work.			Machine-shop work.		Shoemaking.	Printing.	Sewing.	Cooking.	Other trades.
												Forging.	Machine-shop work.	Shoemaking.							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20		
VIRGINIA—continued.																					
152	Manassas Industrial School for Colored Youth.	0	0	0	37	40	77	37	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	40	0	
153	Public High School, Colored.	18	240	258	18	240	
154	Norfolk Mission College.	
155	Bishop Payne Divinity and Industrial School.	1	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
156	Peabody School ^a	
157	Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute.	0	148	148	148	11	
158	Hartshorn Memorial College.	
159	Richmond Theological Seminary.	50	0	50	
160	Valley Training School ^a	
WEST VIRGINIA.																					
161	West Virginia Colored Institute.	0	0	0	34	44	78	32	0	0	0	2	0	0	4	40	
162	Storer College.....	0	0	0	25	70	95	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	

a No report.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION OF THE BLACKS.¹

It hardly seems fitting for you to associate my history and thought with those of Alexander Hamilton, one of the great men not born to die. And yet it may not seem immodest in me to suggest that the great and lowly, the rich and poor, the white and black, the ex-master and the ex-slave, have this in common, that each in his own way, and in his own generation, can put forth his highest efforts to serve humanity in the way that our country most needs service; in this all of us can be equal—in this all can be great. If any of you have the faintest idea that I have come here in the capacity of an instructor along any line of education I wish you to part with such an impression at once. My history and opportunity have not fitted me to be your teacher; the most that I can do is to give you a few facts out of my humble experience and leave you to draw your own conclusions.

I was born a slave on a plantation in Virginia, in 1857 or 1858, I think. My first memory of life is that of a one-room log cabin with a dirt floor and a hole in the center that served as a winter home for sweet potatoes, and, wrapped in a few rags on this dirt floor I spent my nights, and, clad in a single garment, about the plantation I often spent my days. The morning of freedom came, and though a child, I recall vividly my appearance with that of forty or fifty slaves before the veranda of the "big house" to hear read the documents that made us men instead of property. With the long prayed for freedom in actual possession, each started out into the world to find new friends and new homes. My mother decided to locate in West Virginia, and after many days and nights of weary travel we found ourselves among the salt furnaces and coal mines of West Virginia. Soon after reaching West Virginia I began work in the coal mines for the support of my mother.

While doing this I heard in some way, I do not now remember how, of General Armstrong's school at Hampton, Va. I heard at the same time, which impressed me most, that it was a school where a poor boy could work for his education, so far as his board was concerned. As soon as I heard of Hampton I made up my mind that in some way I was going to find my way to that institution. I began at once to save every nickel I could get hold of. At length, with my own savings and a little help from my brother and mother, I started for Hampton, although at the time I hardly knew where Hampton was or how much it would cost to reach the school. After walking a portion of the distance, traveling in a stage coach and cars the remainder of the journey, I at length found myself in the city of Richmond, Va. I also found myself without money, friends, or a place to stay all night. The last cent of my money had been expended. After walking about the city till midnight, and growing almost discouraged and quite exhausted, I crept under a sidewalk and slept all that night. The next morning, as good luck would have it, I found myself near a ship that was unloading pig iron. I applied to the captain for work, and he gave it, and I worked on this ship by day and slept under the sidewalk by night, till I had earned money enough to continue my way to Hampton, where I soon arrived with a surplus of 50 cents in my pocket.

I at once found General Armstrong, and told him what I had come for, and what my condition was. In his great hearty way he said that if I was worth anything he would give me a chance to work my way through that institution. At Hampton I found buildings, instructors, industries provided by the generous; in other words, the chance to work for my education. While at Hampton I resolved, if God permitted me to finish the course of study, I would enter the far South, the black belt of the Gulf States, and give my life in providing as best I could the same kind of chance for self-help for the youth of my race that I found ready for me when I went to Hampton, and so in 1881 I left Hampton and went to Tuskegee and started the Normal and Industrial Institute in a small church and shanty, with 1 teacher and 30 students.

Since then the institution of Tuskegee has grown till we have connected with the institution 69 instructors and 800 young men and women, representing 19 States; and, if I add the families of our instructors, we have on our grounds constantly a population of about 1,000 souls. The students are about equally divided between the sexes, and their average is 18½ years. In planning the course of training at Tuskegee we have steadily tried to keep in view our condition and our needs rather than pattern our course of study directly after that of a people whose opportunities of civilization have been far different and far superior to ours. From the first, industrial or hand training has been made a special feature of our work.

This industrial training, combined with the mental and religious, to my mind has several emphatic advantages. At first few of the young men and women who came to us would be able to remain in school during the nine months and pay in cash the \$8 per month charged for board. Through our industries we give them the chance

¹An address delivered by Booker T. Washington, principal of the Tuskegee (Ala.) Normal and Industrial Institute, at the dinner in honor of Alexander Hamilton, Brooklyn, N. Y., January, 1896.

of working out a portion of their board and the remainder they pay in cash. We find by experience that this institution can furnish labor that has economic value to the institution and gives the student a chance to learn something from the labor within itself. For instance, we cultivate by the labor of our students this year about 600 acres of land. This land is not only cultivated in a way to bring in return to our boarding department, but the farm, including stock raising, dairying, fruit growing, etc., is made a constant object lesson for our students and the people in that section of the South. A three-story brick building is now going up, and the bricks for this building are manufactured at our brick yard by students, where we have made 1,500,000 brick this season. The brick masonry, plastering, sawing, sawing of lumber, carpenters' work, painting, tinsmithing, in fact everything connected with the erection of this building is for permanent use, and the students have the knowledge of the trades entering into the erection of such a building. While the young men do this, the girls to a large extent make, mend and laundry their clothing, and in that way are taught these industries.

Now, this work is not carried on in a miscellaneous or irregular manner. At the head of each industrial department we have a competent instructor, so that the student is not only learning the practical work but is taught as well the underlying principles of each industry. When the student is through with brick masonry he not only understands the trade in a practical way, but also mechanical and architectural drawing to such an extent that he can become a leader in this industry. All through the classroom work is dovetailed in the industrial—the chemistry teaching made to tell on the farm and cooking, the mathematics in the carpentry department, the physics in the blacksmithing and foundrying. Aside from the advantage mentioned, the industrial training gives to our students respect and love for labor—helps them to get rid of the idea so long prevalent in the South that labor with the hands is rather degrading, and this feeling as to labor being degrading is not, I might add, altogether original with the black man of the South. The fact that a man goes into the world conscious of the fact that he has within him the power to create a wagon or a house gives him a certain moral backbone and independence in the world that he would not possess without it.

While friends of the North and elsewhere have given us money to pay our teachers and to buy material which we could not produce, still very largely by the labor of the students, in the way I have attempted to describe, we have built up within about fourteen years a property that is now valued at \$225,000; 37 buildings, counting large and small, located on our 1,400 acres of land, all except three of which are the product of student labor. The annual expense of carrying on this work is now about \$70,000 a year. The whole property is deeded to an undenominational board of trustees, who have control of the institution. There is no mortgage on any of the property. Our greatest need is for money to pay for teaching.

What is the object of all this? In everything done in literary, religious, or industrial training the question kept constantly before all is that the institution exists for the purpose of training a certain number of picked leaders who will go out and reach in an effective manner masses by whom we are surrounded. It is not a practical nor desirable thing for the North to educate all the negroes in the South, but it is a perfectly practical and possible thing for the North to help the South educate the leaders, who in turn will go out and reach the masses and show them how to lift themselves up. In discussing this subject it is to be borne in mind that 85 per cent of the colored people South live practically in the country districts, where they are difficult to reach except by special effort. In some of the counties in Alabama, near Tuskegee, the colored outnumber the whites four and five to one.

In an industrial sense, what is the condition of these masses? The first year our people received their freedom they had nothing on which to live while they grew their first cotton crop; funds for the first crop were supplied by the storekeeper or former master, a debt was created; to secure the indebtedness a lien was given on the cotton crop. In this way we got started in the South what is known as the mortgage or crop lien system—a system that has proved a curse to the black and white man ever since it was instituted. By this system the farmer is charged a rate of interest that ranges from 15 to 40 per cent. By this system you will usually find three-fourths of the people mortgage their crops from year to year, as many deeply in debt and living in one-roomed cabins on rented land. By this system debts and extravagances are encouraged, and the land is impoverished and values fall.

The schools in the country districts rarely last over three and one-half months in the year, and are usually taught in a church or a wreck of a log cabin or under a brush arbor. My information is that each child entitled to attend the public schools in Massachusetts has spent on him each year between \$18 and \$20. In Alabama each colored child has spent on him this year about 71 cents, and the white children but a few cents more. Thus far in my remarks I have been performing a rather ungracious task in stating conditions without suggesting a remedy. What is the remedy for the state of things I have attempted to describe?

If the colored people got any good out of slavery it was the habit of work. In this respect the masses of the colored people are different from most races among whom missionary effort is made, in that the negro as a race works. You will not find anything like that high tension of activity that is maintained here; still the negro works, whether the call for labor comes from the rice swamps of the Carolinas, the cotton plantations of Alabama, or the sugar cane bottoms of Louisiana, the negro is ready to answer it—yes, toil is the badge of all his tribe, though he may do his work in the most shiftless and costly manner, still with him it is labor. I know you will find a class around railroad stations and corners of streets that loaf, just as you will find among my people, and we have got some black sheep in our flock, as there are in all flocks, but the masses in their humble way are industrious.

The trouble centers here: Through the operations of the mortgage system, high rents, the allurements of cheap jewelry and bad whisky, and the gewgaws of life, the negro is deprived of the results of his labor. Unused to self-government, unused to the responsibility of controlling our own earnings or expenditures, or even our own children, it could not be expected that we could take care of ourselves in all respects for several generations. The great need of the negro to-day is intelligent, unselfish leadership in his educational and industrial life.

Let me illustrate, and this is no fancy sketch: Ten years ago a young man born in slavery found his way to the Tuskegee school. By small cash payments and work on the farm he finished the course with a good English education and a practical and theoretical knowledge of farming. Returning to his country home where five-sixths of the citizens were black, he still found them mortgaging their crops, living on rented land from hand to mouth, and deeply in debt. School had never lasted longer than three months, and was taught in a wreck of a log cabin by an inferior teacher. Finding this condition of things, the young man to whom I have referred took the three months public school as a starting point. Soon he organized the older people into a club that came together every week. In these meetings the young man instructed as to the value of owning a home, the evils of mortgaging, and the importance of educating their children. He taught them how to save money, how to sacrifice—to live on bread and potatoes until they could get out of debt, begin buying a home, and stop mortgaging. Through the lessons and influence of these meetings, the first year of this young man's work these people built up by their contributions in money and labor a nice frame schoolhouse that replaced the wreck of a log cabin. The next year this work was continued and those people, out of their own pockets, added two months to the original three months' school term. Month by month has been added to the school term till it now lasts seven months every year. Already fourteen families within a radius of 10 miles have bought and are buying homes, a large proportion have ceased to mortgage their crops and are raising their own food supplies. In the midst of all was the young man educated at Tuskegee, with a model cottage and a model farm that served as an example and center of light for the whole community.

My friends, I wish you could have gone with me some days ago to this community and have seen the complete revolution that has been wrought in their industrial, educational, and religious life by the work of this one teacher, and I wish you could have looked with me into their faces and seen them beaming with hope and delight. I wish you could have gone with me into their cottages, containing now two and three rooms, through their farms, into their church and Sunday school. Bear in mind that not a dollar was given these people from the outside with which to make any of these changes; they all came about by reason of the fact that they had this leader, this guide, this Christian, to show them how to utilize the results of their own labor, to show them how to take the money that had hitherto been scattered to the wind in mortgaging, high rents, cheap jewelry and whisky, and to concentrate in the direction of their own uplifting. My people do not need or ask for charity to be scattered among them; it is very seldom you ever see a black hand in any part of this country reached forth for alms. It is not for alms we ask, but for leaders who will lead and guide and stimulate our people till they can get upon their own feet. Wherever they have been given a leader, something of the kind I have described, I have never yet seen a change fail to take place, even in the darkest community.

In our attempt to elevate the South one other thing must be borne in mind. I do not know how you find it here, but in Alabama we find it a pretty hard thing to make a good Christian of a hungry man. I think I have learned that we might as well settle down to the uncompromising fact that our people will grow in proportion as we teach them that the way to have the most of Jesus, and in a permanent form, is to mix in with their religion some land, cotton, and corn, a house with two or three rooms, and a little bank account; with these things interwoven with our religion there will be a foundation for growth on which we can build for all time. What I have tried to indicate are some of the lessons that we are disseminating into every corner of the black belt of the South, through the work of our graduates and

through the Tuskegee negro conference, that brings together at Tuskegee once a year 800 of the representatives of the black yeomanry of the South to lay plans, to get light and encouragement, and thus add the strength of mothers and fathers to the strength of the schoolroom and pulpit. More than anything else Tuskegee is a great college settlement dropped into the midst of a mass of ignorance that is gradually but slowly leavening the whole lump.

Of this you can be sure that it matters not what is said the black man is doing or is not doing, regardless of entanglements or discouragements, the rank and file of my race is now giving itself to the acquiring of education, character, and property in a way that it has never done since the dawn of our freedom. The chance that we ask is, by your help and encouragement, to be permitted to move on unhindered and unfettered for a few more years, and with this chance, if the Bible is right and God is true, there is no power that can permanently stay our progress. Neither here nor in any part of the world do people come into close relations with a race that is to a large extent empty handed and empty headed. One race gets close to another in proportion as they are drawn in commerce, in proportion as the one gets hold of something that the other wants or respects—commerce, we must acknowledge, in the light of history, is the great forerunner of civilization and peace.

Whatever friction exists between the black man and white man in the South will disappear in proportion as the black man, by reason of his intelligence and skill, can create something that the white man wants or respects; can make something, instead of all the dependence being on the other side. Despite all her faults, when it comes to business pure and simple, the South presents an opportunity to the negro for business that no other section of the country does. The negro can sooner conquer Southern prejudice in the civilized world than learn to compete with the North in the business world. In field, in factory, in the markets, the South presents a better opportunity for the negro to earn a living than is found in the North. A young man educated in head, hand, and heart, goes out and starts a brickyard, a blacksmith shop, a wagon shop, or an industry by which that black boy produces something in the community that makes the white man dependent on the black man for something—produces something that interlocks, knits the commercial relations of the races together, to the extent that a black man gets a mortgage on a white man's house that he can foreclose at will; well, the white man won't drive the negro away from the polls when he sees him going up to vote. There are reports to the effect that in some sections the black man has difficulty in voting and having counted the little white ballot which he has the privilege of depositing about twice in two years, but there is a little green ballot that he can vote through the teller's window three hundred and thirteen days in every year, and no one will throw it out or refuse to count it. The man that has the property, the intelligence, the character, is the one that is going to have the largest share in controlling the Government, whether he is white or black, or whether in the North or South.

It is important that all the privileges of the law be ours. It is vastly more important that we be prepared for the exercise of these privileges. Says the great teacher: "I will draw all men unto me." How? Not by force, not by law, not by superficial glitter. Following in the tracks of the lowly Nazarine, we shall continue to work and wait, till by the exercise of the higher virtues, by the products of our brain and hands, we make ourselves so valuable, so attractive to the American nation, that instead of repelling we shall draw men to us because of our intrinsic worth. It will be needless to pass a law to compel men to come into contact with a negro who is educated and has \$200,000 to lend. In some respects you already acknowledge that as a race we are more powerful, have a greater power of attraction, than your race. It takes 100 per cent of Anglo-Saxon blood to make a white American. The minute that it is proved that a man possesses one one-hundredth part of negro blood in his veins it makes him a black man; he falls to our side; we claim him. The 99 per cent of white blood counts for nothing when weighed beside 1 per cent of negro blood.

None of us will deny that immediately after freedom we made serious mistakes. We began at the top. We made these mistakes, not because we were black people, but because we were ignorant and inexperienced people. We have spent time and money attempting to go to Congress and State legislatures that could have better been spent in becoming the leading real estate dealer or carpenter in our own county. We have spent time and money in making political stump speeches and in attending political conventions that could better have been spent in starting a dairy farm or truck garden and thus have laid a material foundation, on which we could have stood and demanded our rights. When a man eats another person's food, wears another's clothes, and lives in another's house, it is pretty hard to tell how he is going to vote or whether he votes at all.

Gentlemen of the club, the practical question that comes home to you, and to me as an humble member of an unfortunate race, is, how can we help you in working out the great problem that concerns 10,000,000 of my race, and 60,000,000 of yours.

We are here; you rise as we rise; you fall as we fall; we are strong when you are strong; you are weak when we are weak; no power can separate our destinies. The negro can afford to be wronged in this country; the white man can not afford to wrong him. In the South you can help us to prepare the strong, Christian, unselfish leaders that shall go among the masses of our people and show them how to take advantage of the magnificent opportunities that surround them. In the North you can encourage that education among the masses which shall result in throwing wide open the doors of your offices, stores, shops, and factories in the way that shall give our black men and women the opportunity to earn a dollar. * * * Let it be said of all parts of our country that there is no distinction of race or color in the opportunity to earn an honest living. Throw wide open the doors of industry. We are an humble, patient people; we can afford to work and wait. There is plenty of room at the top. The workers up in the atmosphere of goodness, love, patience, forbearance, forgiveness, and industry are not too many or overcrowded. If others would be little, we can be great; if others bad, we can be good; if others try to push us down, we can help to push them up.

Men ask me if measures like those enacted in South Carolina do not hurt and discourage. I answer, Nay, nay; South Carolina and no other State can make a law to harm the black man in great measure. Men may make laws to hinder and fetter the ballot, but men can not make laws that will bind or retard the growth of manhood:

Fleecy locks and black complexion
Can not forfeit Nature's claim;
Skins may differ, but affection
Dwells in white and black the same.

If ever there was a people that obeyed the scriptural injunction, "If they smite thee on one cheek, turn the other also," that people has been the American negro. To right his wrongs the Russian appeals to dynamite, Americans to rebellion, the Irishman to agitation, the Indian to his tomahawk; but the negro, the most patient, the most unresentful and law abiding, depends for the righting of his wrongs upon his songs, his groans, his midnight prayers, and an inherent faith in the justice of his cause, and if we judge the future by the past who may say that the negro is not right? We went into slavery pagans, we came out Christians. We went into slavery a piece of property, we came out American citizens. We went into slavery without a language, we came out speaking the proud Anglo-Saxon tongue. We went into slavery with the slave chains clanking about our waists, we came out with the American ballot in our hands. Progress, progress is the law of nature; under God it shall be our eternal guiding star.

HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE NEGRO.¹

That education is the strength of our Republic, the source of its prosperity, the chief guarantee of its perpetuity, needs no discussion here. Is it necessary to defend in this presence the proposition that higher education, the work of colleges and universities, is indispensable to the existence of any education among any people? What educated nation exists or ever has existed upon the earth without colleges of higher learning? Did common schools ever make an intelligent nation? Did common schools ever exist in any nation excepting as the fruit of higher learning? Should we ever have had our common-school system but for our colleges?

To ask these questions is to answer them. The intelligence of the old world has all come down from her universities. The brighter civilization of America, with all her common-school system, has grown out of Harvard and Yale, Brown and Columbia, and William and Mary, Dartmouth and Williams, each of which was founded before the public school. The college is the fountainhead of all learning, and the only possible source of supply for all secondary and primary schools of instruction. The colleges are more. They are the only developers of complete manhood. There can be no well-rounded, thoroughly balanced minds, capable of dealing with principles, measuring forces, comprehending relations, grasping and handling the great questions of public life and human leadership, without the broad culture and thorough discipline which years of life in college alone can insure. Exceptional cases of remarkable genius or of abnormal growth do not vitiate this general rule. It has become an axiom in America, and our 500 colleges have grown out of it.

Said Dr. Shedd, fifty years ago: "The common information of society is nothing more nor less than the fine and diffusive radiance of a more substantial and profound culture. This light penetrating in all directions is like a globe of solid fire. All this general and practical information which distinguishes from a savage (or although civilized yet ignorant) state of society—which distinguishes England and the United States from Africa and South America—did not grow up spontaneously from the earth,

¹ An address delivered before the American Baptist Home Mission Society, at Asbury Park, N. J., May 26, 1893, by Edward C. Mitchell, D. D., president of Leland University, New Orleans, La.

is not the effect of a colder climate or a harder soil. It has been exhaling for centuries from colleges and universities—it has been distilling for ages from the alembic of the scholar's brain." The history of the last fifty years has been accumulating evidences of this great truth, and all nations have been furnishing illustrations of it.

A new nation has now come upon the stage. Eight millions of people have been thrust into the center of our civilization. They have been endowed with citizenship, with all its responsibilities, with all its possibilities for good or evil. They constitute about one-eighth part of our body politic. Among them is over one-third of the Baptist denomination of this country. Shall they be educated? Can we afford to leave one stone unturned, one agency unemployed, which might lead this mighty force out of the slough of ignorance and poverty and vice up into the plane of Christian manhood and useful citizenship? There can be but one answer to this question. If we have any love for our country; if we have any regard for our brethren in Christ Jesus; if we have any loyalty to our great Baptist brotherhood, we can not withhold any possible facility for that self-improvement of which, through no fault of their own, they have for centuries been deprived.

It goes without saying in this audience that education is what they need—education, moral, intellectual, physical. Providentially the moral education is not without a substantial basis. The spirit of God has not been absent from this people in their long night of bondage. With all their ignorance and even superstition at times, none can doubt the genuineness of their love to the Divine Master; and, to this day, religion among them is a very potent influence, and is very widespread in its extension. From the census of 1890 it appears that the proportion of white Baptist communicants to the whole white population of the South is about 8 per cent (or 1 in 12), while the proportion of negro Baptist communicants to the whole negro population is 20 per cent (or 1 in 5). Moreover, the moral and religious training of the negro in the days of slavery was by no means altogether neglected. They enjoyed some advantages which have now passed away from them. A large proportion of them not only received a religious training from members of white Christian families, but they were regular attendants upon white churches, and thus intelligently taught the Word of God. That they no longer enter white churches is a thing to be expected under present circumstances; nor can it be regretted if only a proper leadership, out of themselves, can be raised up for them. It is evident, however, that what they need in religious things is not so much the spiritual as the intellectual. It is a better intelligence to guide their religious proclivities which is the one thing lacking in many localities.

This brings us to the question: What should be the intellectual training of this people?

If negroes are men and women, members of the human family, endowed with similar capacities and tendencies which appear in other races, then our question is already answered by what we said in the beginning. If the experience of five hundred years has taught us any wisdom in regard to the processes of human development; if we, in our American republic, have learned anything in the last two centuries as to what constitutes education, and what means and appliances are best to make it effective, then here and now we have a grand opportunity to employ this wisdom for the elevation of a new race. There is nothing for us to do but to put into operation the same agencies by which we ourselves have been educated, taking advantage of all the improvements which modern science has invented, or our past mistakes have suggested.

To imagine that the negro can safely do without any of the institutions or instrumentalities which were essential to our own mental advancement is to assume that the negro is superior to the white man in mental capacity. To deprive him of any of these advantages, which he is capable of using, would be to defraud ourselves, as a nation and a Christian church, of all the added power which his developed manhood should bring to us. It does not seem to be necessary in this audience to discuss the proposition that intelligence is power, and that the only road to intelligence is through mental discipline conducted under moral influences.

What now have we been doing for our brother in black to help him in his life struggle? The work began somewhat as in the days of our fathers. The John Harvards and the Elihu Yales of Pilgrim history found their counterparts in General Fiske, Dr. Phillips, Seymour Straight, and Holbrook Chamberlain, who founded colleges, even before it was possible for many to enter upon the college course, but with a wise forecast for the need that would eventually come and is now actually upon us.

A little later, about 1876, the people of the South organized public schools. In nearly all the Southern States the same proportionate provision is made for the negro as for the whites, and this is and must ever be the main dependence of the elevation of the negro. With all the honor which is due, and which is cheerfully rendered to Northern benevolence, for the splendid foundations of higher learning, it should not be forgotten that more than ten times as much money has been appropriated by the South for negro education.

It is true that this provision is inadequate for both races. In about one-third of the States an average of only four months per annum of instruction is given. This is not from want of will, but of means. The poverty of the South is yet very great. We of the prosperous North can not understand it. If we did, we should better appreciate the pluck and energy and uncomplaining self-sacrifice with which they adjust themselves to their new conditions and bear their heavy burdens. President Dreher, of Roanoke College, Virginia, has shown by reliable statistics that with all the apparent inferiority of the South in her appointments for education, yet in proportion to her means she is doing even more than the North for this purpose.

But what shall we teach the negro? Shall we give him anything beyond the three R's? By "we," of course, is meant, "we white folks," but Southern white folks have long ceased to teach the negro the common branches at all. This work has all been relegated to negro teachers. Let us take for example Mississippi, which, hitherto, has shared with Louisiana the unenviable distinction among States of having the greatest amount of illiteracy. The State superintendent of public instruction, Mr. J. R. Preston, wrote for the New York Independent last year, in reply to some inquiry: "There is not a white teacher in the colored schools of the State," and this is substantially true of every State of the South. Your Northern friend, who desires to teach the three R's, might travel from Mason and Dixon's line to the Gulf, and he would find every situation preempted. He would have to adopt for himself the Shakespearian lamentation, "Othello's occupation's gone." The only place where he would find primary instruction given by white teachers would be in our own so-called universities. According to the last report from Washington, the white teachers of public schools in the South are in the proportion of 1 to every 42 white pupils, and the colored teachers of 1 to every 51 colored pupils. The entire public-school system for the negro is carried on by negro teachers.

And this not only in the lower grades of instruction. Superintendent Preston informs us that in Mississippi there are over 600 colored teachers who hold first-grade certificates. Now a first-grade certificate, in most States, means that the teacher has passed an examination in algebra, physics, physiology, chemistry, geometry, Latin, civil government, psychology, pedagogy; or, in other words, with the exception of Greek, he is fitted to enter the freshman class in any Southern college. And Superintendent Preston says: "These teachers are examined by a white board. They have just the same questions that the white teachers have. I make them out and I know. And the board was just to them and gave them all they earned, but it is not likely to err on the side of mercy." It is not probable that any Southern State is behind Mississippi in the proportionate number of its colored teachers. Virginia reports 700, North Carolina 761, Arkansas 500; Texas has a different method of classification, but reports 1,900 as "higher than third grade." As regards the kind and amount of education which Mississippi's colored people have received, Superintendent Preston says: "The other day I was conducting an institute where there were 19 colored teachers in attendance, and I found that 18 of them were college graduates. I went right over into an adjoining county, and took a white institute with 37 in attendance, and found only about one-fourth were college graduates." By college graduates normal graduates are doubtless meant, and, in the case of colored teachers, the normal colleges of our missionary schools.

What, then, I again ask, shall we teach the negro? The answer seems to be as plain as the logic of common sense can make it. Let us teach what our colleges and universities were founded to teach. Let us teach the only thing left for us to teach. Let us teach the only thing that the negro can not do as well for himself. Let us teach the thing which the experience of all the ages and the matured judgment of all true educators has decided to be essential for the full development of manhood. Let us teach the negro who he is and what he is as God made him in his physical and mental structure. Let us teach him what the world is that God has made for him, with all its elements and powers and forces. Let us teach him the history of races and of civilizations, with the laws of that progress. Let us teach him to become master of his own tongue by studying its sources in the ancient world and in classic literature, and master of himself by analyzing the structure and workings of his own mind. In short, let us give him such glimpses of the whole range of science as shall tax his powers to the utmost, while it takes the conceit out of him and brings him nearer to that supreme discovery of Socrates that he "knows nothing."

As Commissioner Harris has well said: "Education, intellectual and moral, is the only means yet discovered that is always sure to help people to help themselves. * * * It produces that divine discontent which goads on the individual and will not let him rest."

But has the negro the capacity for mental training? Is that a question to-day? I am almost ashamed to discuss it in this presence, but my apology is that I have been requested to do so. It will bear examination from any and every point of view. It is vital to the whole subject before us. If anybody doubts, he should inform

himself. If color has anything to do with intellect, it should appear when the two colors or races are brought into contact and competition. The best source of information, therefore, is a study of the negro at school. We have seen, however, that the common-school teacher is now ruled out of court as an interested party. To find white teachers we must go to the colleges. I have recently asked presidents of fifteen colleges these three questions: (1) About what proportion of your pupils are full-blooded negroes? (2) What difference, if any, have you perceived in the average ability of full-blooded negroes as compared with those of mixed blood? (3) What difference, if any, is manifest between your pupils as a whole in intellectual ability and those of white schools under similar conditions? The replies to these questions are before me. The substance of them is this: Not more than one-fifth of all the pupils are full-blooded negroes. The rest are of all degrees from quadroon to blonde. In the second place, there is no difference of mental ability clearly traceable among them; if there be any, it is in favor of the full-blooded negro. Thirdly, as compared with white pupils, there is no perceptible difference, when their environments are taken into account. Of course, there is some difficulty in measuring the force of environments.

This consensus of opinion among Southern educators coincides with my own observations. Having been a teacher for over thirty years, over twenty of which were spent in theological schools in the North and in Europe, I have now spent ten years in the South, and in daily contact with so-called negro pupils, and I can truly say that I find no appreciable difference in original capacity. If they have come from ignorant districts and dark surroundings, their vocabulary is limited, and their first exhibitions of intelligence are inferior to those who come from cultivated homes, though often their greater eagerness to learn counterbalances this disability. We must not, however, be misled by an assumption that the American negro is merely a transplanted savage. Two centuries of life in the midst of the foremost civilization of the world is a long way from savagery. There were intelligent Christian men and women in daily contact with the American bondsmen; they were able Christian ministers, from whose lips they received their doctrine. Though schools were forbidden, there were lovely Christian daughters, white angels, who defied the law in their loving sympathy for the lowly. Life in many a Southern family was an education inferior only to that of their master's children. Only by the intellectual brightness of Southern people, and the Christian character which illuminated Southern homes, can we account for the mental development of thousands of negroes, as they came out of the war too old to come into our schools, but constituting, nevertheless, the present influential leaders of the people.

And it must be in part the memories of those refining influences which are blossoming out all over the South in the neat, attractive homes which these people are building for themselves. The Southern negroes are not all living in one-room cabins, of which we have heard much recently. There are better homes than mine owned by negroes in New Orleans. There are plenty of ex-slaves in Louisiana who are richer than their former masters. There are over 300,000 homes and farms owned by negroes in the South without encumbrance. Six years ago Southern negroes were paying taxes on nearly \$300,000,000. The white Baptists of the South had a church property worth \$18,000,000, the accumulation of two hundred years. The negro Baptists at the same date (twenty-six years out of slavery) had acquired a church property of over nine millions. There must have been an ante bellum civilization behind all this.

Said Rev. A. D. Mayo, at the Mohonk Conference in 1890: "It has never been realized by the loyal North what is evident to every intelligent Southern man, what a prodigious change had been wrought in this people during its years of bondage, and how, without the schooling of this era, the subsequent elevation of the emancipated slave to a full American citizenship would have been an impossibility. * * * In that condition he learned the three great elements of civilization more speedily than they were ever learned before. He learned to work, he acquired the language and adopted the religion of the most progressive of peoples. Gifted with a marvelous aptitude for such schooling, he was found in 1865 farther out of the woods of barbarism than any other people at the end of a thousand years."

The scholastic education of the negro began in earnest only about twenty years ago, 1876 being the date of the complete inauguration of the public school system of the South. This is too short for us to expect great results. The educated generation are not yet fairly out of school, but there have already appeared some isolated cases which show signs of promise. In the class of 1888 at Harvard University were two negroes, one of whom was selected by the faculty to represent his class on commencement day, as being the foremost scholar among his 250 classmates; the other was elected by the class for the highest honor in their gift by being made their orator on class day. The circumstance reflects honor not merely on him, but on the democratic spirit of our oldest university, which recognized merit without regard to color. Boston University has also yielded first honors to a negro. A negro professor of theology at Straight University at New Orleans is a graduate of Vermont University,

who afterwards took the prize for traveling scholarship from Yale Theological Seminary, and spent a year in Germany upon it. Professor Bowen, of the Gammon Theological Seminary, delivered at the Atlanta Exposition opening an address which in classic finish will bear comparison with the best orations of Edward Everett. The principal of one of our auxiliaries, Mr. E. N. Smith, a perfect gentleman and an excellent teacher, is a full-blooded negro, a graduate from Lincoln University and Newton Theological Institution, and pronounced by Dr. Hovey one of the best scholars that have been educated there.

Said President Merrill E. Gates, of Amherst College (The Independent, Dec. 5, 1895): "My observation leads me to believe that the proportion of truly successful men, tried by the highest standards of success, among the colored men who study in our Northern colleges, is quite as great as is the proportion of successful men among the whites who have the same, or equally good, opportunities for an education."

We might multiply examples—they are not necessary. There seems to be nothing better established than the essential manhood of the negro. Intelligent men of the South do not question it. Their recent cordial response to our proposal for cooperation is a good illustration of this.

There are two points of importance to which I wish to call your attention before leaving this subject—one relates to the continued use of our colleges in the South for giving primary instruction, the other is the relation of industrial training to the education of the negro.

We have seen that the public schools of the South are fairly equal in quality for both races, and that negro schools are taught by negro teachers. There is a truth beyond that. In the present deficiency of provision for common-school instruction, the colored people are ready and willing, with proper encouragement, to supplement these with schools supported by themselves. There are twelve such institutions already established in Louisiana. Now, if this be so—if the negro, with the help of the State, is providing his own primary education, and doing it successfully, what propriety is there in our continuing to furnish college endowments and employ college teachers to do primary work? It is a first principle of true beneficence to do nothing for any man which he can be led to do for himself. Certainly we ought not in any way by rivalry to discourage the work of self-education. It has been well said by the Hon. J. L. M. Curry: "An educational charity would sadly fail of its purpose if the least impediment were placed in the path of the free school. In so far as these institutions not under State control impair the efficiency of or divert attendance from the public schools, they are mischievous, for the great mass of children, white and black, must, more in the future than at present, depend almost exclusively upon the State schools for the common branches of education."

In the United States statistics of 1893 and 1894 it appears that in the 158 private schools designed for the secondary and higher education of colored people in the South, there were 18,595 primary pupils, while only 13,262 belong to the secondary or high-school class, and 940 were in collegiate classes. As these schools of higher education are situated for the most part in larger towns and cities, where the best provision for public schools is usually made, it is fair to presume that those 18,000 pupils are drawn from the free schools by the attractive name of "college" or "university," which veils their low grade of standing, and that these learned faculties of 1,320 professors must be largely engaged in rudimentary instruction. Would it not be far better for these pupils to set before them the prize of admission to the college, at least as far as the normal grade, as a motive for excellence in the common schools, and would it not be better for the professors to be allowed to confine their work of instruction to those higher branches for which they are specially fitted?

Of course, the change of policy here recommended would considerably diminish the show of numbers in our so-called colleges, but it would greatly improve the efficiency and thoroughness of their legitimate work, and directly help and stimulate the free schools to better attainment. Said Commissioner Harris, in his discussion of the education of the negro in the Atlantic Monthly for June, 1892: "It is clear from the above consideration that money expended for the secondary and higher education of the negro accomplishes far more for him. It is seed sown where it brings forth an hundredfold, because each one of the pupils of these higher institutions is a center of diffusion of superior methods and refining influences among an imitative and impressible race. State and national aid, as well as private bequests, should take this direction first. There should be no gift or bequest for common or elementary instruction. This should be left to the common schools, and all outside aid should be concentrated on the secondary and higher instruction."

There is an important reason for this wise counsel of Dr. Harris which now presses itself upon our attention. We have reached a crisis in the progress of negro education. The work of the common school now carried on by the people themselves has created all over the South a new generation of educated youth, wiser than their parents, wiser than their ministers, approaching manhood and womanhood, ready soon to take control of affairs and of public sentiment. They already know the

difference between learning and ignorance, between religion and superstition. They have no knowledge of slavery. They are a new generation of free-born people. Their improvement is phenomenal, but no corresponding improvement has come to the ministry. That the ministry has greatly improved during this twenty years no one who has visited their churches or attended their associations can doubt. Considering their advantages, they are a very able body of men. Some of them rank among the best preachers of the South. Many of the younger of them have had more or less training in our colleges. The Richmond, Atlanta, and Gammon theological seminaries have sent out a small quota. But as yet not a thousand in all the South have had even a college education. Nearly the whole educational machinery thus far has been occupied in supplying the great demand for teachers, and the whole force of educated talent has been drawn to the schools.

The fact mentioned a while since that less than 1,000 in the whole South are at this moment engaged in collegiate study is to be accounted for not by want of capacity for higher studies, but for want of motive. Education costs them a great deal. Nearly every one earns every dollar which he pays for his learning. With most it has been a great struggle to reach the point of normal graduation, and then the best salary for teaching at present available is open to them. Every influence urges them to stop here and reap the fruits of their hard-earned attainment. Moreover, the influences around them all tend to discourage higher attainment. Some have brothers and sisters to educate, and must stay at home to earn the money. Others have mothers and fathers who are struggling with poverty and debt, and who now claim their services to help them out. All their neighbors say, "You know enough now, since you have been teaching the whole neighborhood." To break away from all this requires higher incentive and a stronger pressure than comes to most of them. Meanwhile, the old people and their ministers go on in the ruts of ignorance and superstition. The uneducated ministers (however good and gifted with natural ability) are unable to keep pace with the young people in intelligence or to retain their influence over them. A breach is growing. A moral drift away from religion is beginning to manifest itself. There is danger ahead for which no adequate provision is in sight. What shall that provision be? Ministers' institutes? Some helpful suggestions can be doubtless made to the existing ministry by their educated white brethren. But he must have great faith in the receptive powers of the average negro who supposes that a mature man can be transformed from ignorance to erudition by a week or ten days annually of lecturing. Shall we take them into our colleges? It is too late. They are too old to begin a course of study. They are ashamed to expose their ignorance. Many have families. Gladly as we would help them in their conscious need, and deeply as our hearts are stirred by their struggle, the problem is insoluble in that direction. The only hope for a ministry which will really lead and properly teach the next generation of the colored race is through the legitimate methods of education.

How shall this be reached? How shall we bridge this chasm between an educated people and an ignorant ministry? To meet this crisis wisdom and generalship are needful. It is our duty as their friends to point out the danger and to provide the remedy. The motive which is lacking should be somehow supplied. Six hundred years ago illiteracy in England well-nigh approached that of the negro American of to-day. It is said that only five of the twenty-five barons who signed the Magna Charta could write their names. Her Christian philanthropists saw the evil, and established prizes, denominated "bursaries," "scholarships," and "fellowships," to stimulate high attainments in study. The accumulation of these prizes by the wise forecast of our English ancestors really constitutes the basis of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

The duty of the hour for us toward our Southern brethren is not only to endow the colleges which we have established, but to offer to those who by their own exertions have attained the rank of college students a prize sufficient to enable and stimulate them to go on to the full stature of intellectual manhood. Here is an opportunity for the use of consecrated wealth. Who will avail himself of it, as Daniel Hand has done for the American Missionary Association?

What shall we say, now, about the relation of industrial training to our problem? Industrial training is good and useful to some persons, if they can afford time to take it. But in its application to the negro several facts should be clearly understood:

1. It appears not to be generally known in the North that in the South all trades and occupations are open to the negro, and always have been. Before the war slaves were taught mechanics' arts, because they thereby became more profitable to their masters. And now every village has its negro mechanics, who are patronized both by white and colored employers, and any who wish to learn the trade can do so.

2. It is a mistake to suppose that industrial education can be wisely applied to the beginnings of school life. Said the Rev. A. D. Mayo, than whom no man in America is better acquainted with the condition and wants of the South: "There are two specious, un-American notions now masquerading under the taking phrase, 'industrial

education:" First, that it is possible or desirable to train large bodies of youth to superior industrial skill without a basis of sound elementary education. You can not polish a brickbat, and you can not make a good workman of a plantation negro or a white ignoramus until you first wake up his mind, and give him the mental discipline and knowledge that comes from a good school; * * * second, that it is possible or desirable to train masses of American children on the European idea that the child will follow the calling of his father. Class education has no place in the order of society, and the American people will never accept it in any form. The industrial training needed in the South must be obtained by the establishment of special schools of improved housekeeping for girls, with mechanical training for such boys as desire it. * * * And this training should be given impartially to both races, without regard to the thousand and one theories of what the colored man can not do."

3. Industrial training is expensive of time and money, as compared with its results as a civilizer. When you have trained one student you have simply fitted one man to earn an ordinary living. When you have given a college education to a man with brains you have sent forth an instrumentality that will affect hundreds or thousands.

Said Chauncey M. Depew, in his address at the tenth convention of the University of Chicago, in April, 1895: "I acknowledge the position and the usefulness of the business college, the manual training school, the technological institute, the scientific school, and the schools of mines, medicine, law, and theology. They are of infinite importance to the youth who has not the money, the time, or the opportunity to secure a liberal education. They are of equal benefit to the college graduate who has had a liberal education in training him for his selected pursuit. But the theorists, or rather the practical men who are the architects of their own fortunes, and who are proclaiming on every occasion that a liberal education is a waste of time for a business man, and that the boy who starts early and is trained only for his one pursuit is destined for a larger success, are doing infinite harm to the ambitious youth of this country.

"The college, in its four years of discipline, training, teaching, and development, makes the boy the man. His Latin and his Greek, his rhetoric and his logic, his science and his philosophy, his mathematics and his history, have little or nothing to do with law or medicine or theology, and still less to do with manufacturing, or mining, or storekeeping, or stocks, or grain, or provisions. But they have given to the youth, when he has graduated, the command of that superb intelligence with which God has endowed him, by which, for the purpose of a living or a fortune, he grasps his profession or his business and speedily overtakes the boy who, abandoning college opportunities, gave his narrow life to the narrowing pursuit of the one thing by which he expected to earn a living. The college-bred man has an equal opportunity for bread and butter, but beyond that he becomes a citizen of commanding influence and a leader in every community where he settles."

4. Industrial training is liable to divert attention from the real aim and end of education, which is manhood. The young scholar can not serve two masters. It requires all the energy there is in a boy to nerve him to the high resolve that in spite of all difficulties he will patiently discipline himself until he becomes a man. This is one reason why our northern colleges, which in many cases began as manual-labor schools, have abandoned it. Ought we to insist on "putting a yoke upon the necks" of our brethren in black "which neither we nor our fathers were able to bear?"

Finally, experience seems to show that industrial education does not educate, even in trades.

In the report of the Bureau of Education for 1889-90 is a full statistical table of the lines of business in which the graduates of 17 colored schools are employed. In all these schools industrial instruction is given, such as carpentry, tinning, painting, whip making, plastering, shoemaking, tailoring, blacksmithing, farming, gardening, etc. Out of 1,243 graduates of these schools there are found to be only 12 farmers, 2 mechanics, 1 carpenter. The names of the universities are Allen (S. C.); Atlanta (Ga.); Berea (Ky.); Central Tennessee (Tenn.); Claflin (S. C.); Fiske (Tenn.); Knoxville (Tenn.); Livingstone (N. C.); New Orleans (La.); Paul Quinn (Tex.); Philander Smith (Ark.); Roger Williams (Tenn.); Rust (Miss.); Southern, New Orleans, La.; Straight, New Orleans, La.; Tuskegee (Ala.); Wilberforce (Ohio).

The employments of the graduates were: Teachers, 693; ministers, 117; physicians, 163; lawyers, 116; college professors, 27; editors, 5; merchants, 15; farmers, 12; carpenter, 1; United States Government service, 36; druggists, 5; dentists, 14; book-keepers, 2; printers, 2; mechanics, 2; butchers, 3; other pursuits, 30.

The money appropriated to these schools by the Slater fund from 1884 to 1894 was \$439,981.78.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE SLATER FUND AND THE EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO.

Compiled from Occasional Papers published by the trustees of the John F. Slater fund, Nos. 1 to 6.]

Contents.—I. Difficulties, complications, and limitations connected with the education of the negro. II. Education of the negroes since 1860. III. Occupations of the negroes. IV. A statistical sketch of the negroes in the United States. V. Memorial sketches of John F. Slater. VI. Documents relating to the origin and work of the Slater trustees: (a) Charter from the State of New York; (b) letter of the founder; (c) letter of the trustees accepting the gift; (d) the thanks of Congress; (e) by-laws; (f) members of the board; (g) remarks of President Hayes on the death of Mr. Slater.

I.

DIFFICULTIES, COMPLICATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS CONNECTED WITH THE EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO.

[By J. L. M. Curry, LL. D., secretary of the trustees of the John F. Slater fund.]

Civilization certainly, Christianity probably, has encountered no problem which surpasses in magnitude or complexity the negro problem. For its solution political remedies, very drastic, have been tried, but have failed utterly. Educational agencies have been very beneficial as a stimulus to self-government and are increasingly hopeful and worthy of wider application, but they do not cure social diseases, moral ills. Much has been written of evolution of man, of human society, and history shows marvelous progress in some races, in some countries, in the bettering of habits and institutions, but this progress is not found, in any equal degree, in the negro race in his native land. What has occurred in the United States has been from external causes. Usually human development has come from voluntary energy, from self-evolved organizations of higher and higher efficiency, from conditions which are principally the handiwork of man himself. With the negro, whatever progress has marked his life as a race in this country has come from without. The great ethical and political revolutions of enlightened nations, through the efforts of successive generations, have not been seen in his history.

When, on March 4, 1882, our large-hearted and broadminded founder established this trust, he had a noble end in view. For near thirteen years the trustees have kept the object steadily before them, with varying results. Expectations have not always been realized. If any want of highest success has attended our efforts, this is not an unaccompanied experience. As was to have been foreseen, in working out a novel and great problem, difficulties have arisen. Some are inherent and pertain to the education of the negro, however, and by whomsoever undertaken, and some are peculiar to the trust. Some are remedial. In this, as, in all other experiments, it is better to ascertain and comprehend the difficulties so as to adopt and adjust the proper measures for displacing or overcoming them. A general needs to

¹ *Announcement to the series.*—The trustees of the John F. Slater fund propose to publish from time to time papers that relate to the education of the colored race. These papers are designed to furnish information to those who are concerned in the administration of schools, and also to those who by their official stations are called upon to act or to advise in respect to the care of such institutions.

The trustees believe that the experimental period in the education of the blacks is drawing to a close. Certain principles that were doubted thirty years ago now appear to be generally recognized as sound. In the next thirty years better systems will undoubtedly prevail, and the aid of the separate States is likely to be more and more freely bestowed. There will also be abundant room for continued generosity on the part of individuals and associations. It is to encourage and assist the workers and the thinkers that these papers will be published.

Each paper will be the utterance of the writer whose name is attached to it, the trustees disclaiming in advance all responsibility for the statement of facts and opinions.

know the strength and character of the opposing force. A physician can not prescribe intelligently until he knows the condition of his patient.

The income of the fund is limited in amount, and the means of accomplishing "the general object" of the trust are indicated in Mr. Slater's letter and conversations and by the repeatedly declared policy of the board—as teacher training and industrial training. He specified "the training of teachers from among the people requiring to be taught and the 'encouragement of such institutions as are most effectually useful in promoting this training of teachers.'" No one, in the least degree familiar with the subject, can deny or doubt that the essential need of the race is a higher and better qualified class of teachers. The fund does not establish nor control schools, nor appoint teachers. It cooperates with schools established by States, by religious denominations, and by individuals. Mr. Slater did not purpose "to bestow charity upon the destitute, to encourage a few exceptional individuals, to build churches, schoolhouses, or asylums." Aided schools may accept money to carry out the specific purposes of the trust, but they often have other and prescribed objects, and hence what the trustees seek is naturally, perhaps unavoidably, subordinated to what are the predetermined and unchangeable ends of some of these schools.

The most obvious hindrance in the way of the education of the negro has so often been presented and discussed—his origin, history, environments—that it seems superfluous to treat it anew. His political status, sudden and unparalleled, complicated by antecedent condition, excited false hopes and encouraged the notion of reaching per saltum, without the use of the agencies of time, labor, industry, discipline, what the dominant race had attained after centuries of toil and trial and sacrifice. Education, property, habits of thrift and self-control, higher achievements of civilization, are not extemporized nor created by magic or legislation. Behind the Caucasian lie centuries of the educating, uplifting influence of civilization, of the institutions of family, society, the churches, the state, and the salutary effects of heredity. Behind the negro are centuries of ignorance, barbarism, slavery, superstition, idolatry, fetichism, and the transmissible consequences of heredity.

Nothing valuable or permanent in human life has been secured without the substratum of moral character, of religious motive, in the individual, the family, the community. In this matter the negro should be judged charitably, for his aboriginal people were not far removed from the savage state, where they knew neither house nor home and had not enjoyed any religious training. Their condition as slaves debarred them the advantage of regular, continuous, systematic instruction. The negro began his life of freedom and citizenship with natural weaknesses uncorrected, with loose notions of piety and morality and with strong racial peculiarities and proclivities, and has not outgrown the feebleness of the moral sense which is common to all primitive races. One religious organization, which has acted with great liberality, and generally with great wisdom, in its missionary and educational work among the negroes, says: "Of the paganism in the South, Dr. Behrends has well said that the note of paganism is its separation of worship from virtue, of religion from morals. This is the characteristic fact of the religion of the negro." The Plantation Missionary, of this year, a journal edited and published for the improvement of the "black belt" of Alabama, says, "five millions of negroes are still illiterate, and multitudes of them idle, bestial, and degraded, with slight ideas of purity or thrift." The discipline of virtue, the incorporation of creed into personal life, is largely wanting, and hence physical and hysterical demonstrations, excited sensibilities, uncontrolled emotions, transient outbursts of ardor, have been confounded with the graces of the spirit and of faith based on knowledge. Contradiction, negation, paradox, and eccentricity are characteristics of the ignorant and superstitious, especially when they concern themselves with religion.

The economic condition is a most serious drawback to mental and moral progress. Want of thrift, of frugality, of foresight, of skill, of right notions of consumption and of proper habits of acquiring and holding property, has made the race the victim and prey of usurers and extortioners. The negro rarely accumulates, for he does not keep his savings, nor put them in permanent and secure investments. He seems to be under little stimulus toward social improvement, or any ambition except that of being able to live from day to day. "As to poverty, 80 per cent of the wealth of the nation is in the North and only 20 per cent in the South. Of this 20 per cent a very small share, indeed, falls to the seven millions of negroes, who constitute by far the poorest element of our American people." (American Missionary, November, 1894, p. 390.) "While it is true that a limited number of the colored people are becoming well-to-do, it is also equally true that the masses of them have made but little advance in acquiring property during their thirty years of freedom. Millions of them are yet in real poverty and can do little more than simply maintain physical existence." (Home Missionary Monthly, August, 1894, p. 318.) No trustworthy statement of the property held by negroes is possible, because but few States, in assessing property, discriminate between the races. In Occasional Papers, No. 4 (see p. 1404) Mr.

Gannett, in discussing the tendency of population toward cities, concludes that "the negro is not fitted, either by nature or education, for those vocations for the pursuit of which men collect in cities," and that as the inclinations of the race "tend to keep it wedded to the soil, the probabilities are that the great body of the negroes will continue to remain aloof from the cities and cultivate the soil as heretofore." The black farm laborers hire to white proprietors, work for wages or on shares, give a lien on future earnings for food, clothing, shelter, and the means for cultivation of the crops. The meager remainder, if it exist at all, is squandered in neighboring stores for whisky, tobacco, and worthless "goods." Thus the negro in his industrial progress is hindered by his rude and primitive methods of farming, his wastefulness and improvidence. The manner of living almost necessarily begets immorality and degradation. Mr. Washington, in his useful annual conferences, has emphasized the need of improved rural abodes and the fatal consequences of crowding a whole family into one room. The report already quoted from (*Home Monthly*, p. 22) says: "On the great plantations (and the statement might be much further extended) there has been but little progress in thirty years. The majority live in one-room cabins, tabernacling in them as tenants at will." The poverty, wretchedness, hopelessness of the present life are sometimes in pitiable contrast to the freedom from care and anxiety, the cheerfulness and frolicsomeness, of ante-bellum days.

The average status of the negro is much misunderstood by some persons. The incurable tendency of opinion seems to be to exaggerated optimism or pessimism, to eager expectancy of impossible results or distrust or incredulity as to future progress. It is not easy to form an accurate judgment of a country, or of its population, or to generalize logically, from a Pullman car window, or from snatches of conversation with a porter or waiter, or from the testimony of one race only, or from exceptional cases like Bruce, Price, Douglass, Washington, Revels, Payne, Simmons, etc. Individual cases do not demonstrate a general or permanent widening of range of mental possibilities. Thirty years may test and develop instances of personal success, of individual manhood, but are too short a time to bring a servile race, as a whole, up to equality with a race which is the heir of centuries of civilization, with its uplifting results and accessories. It should be cheerfully conceded that some negroes have displayed abilities of a high order and have succeeded in official and professional life, in pulpit and literature. The fewness gives conspicuousness, but does not justify an a priori assumption adverse to future capability of the race. Practically, no negro born since 1860 was ever a slave. More than a generation has passed since slavery ceased in the United States. Despite some formidable obstacles, the negroes have been favored beyond any other race known in the history of mankind. Freedom, citizenship, suffrage, civil and political rights, educational opportunities and religious privileges, every method and function of civilization, have been secured and fostered by Federal and State governments, ecclesiastical organizations, munificent individual benefactions, and yet the results have not been, on the whole, such as to inspire most sanguine expectations, or justify conclusions of rapid development or of racial equality. In some localities there has been degeneracy rather than ascent in the scale of manhood, relapse instead of progress. The unusual environments should have evolved a higher and more rapid degree of advancement. Professor Mayo-Smith, who has made an ethnological and sociological study of the diverse elements of our population, says: "No one can as yet predict what position the black race will ultimately take in the population of this country." He would be a bold speculator who ventured, from existing facts, to predict what would be the outcome of our experiment with African citizenship and African development. Mr. Bryce, the most philosophical and painstaking of all foreign students of our institutions, in the last edition of his great work, says: "There is no ground for despondency to anyone who remembers how hopeless the extinction of slavery seemed sixty or even forty years ago, and who marks the progress which the negroes have made since their sudden liberation. Still less is there reason for impatience, for questions like this have in some countries of the Old World required ages for their solution. The problem which confronts the South is one of the great secular problems of the world, presented here under a form of peculiar difficulty. And as the present differences between the African and the European are the product of thousands of years, during which one race was advancing in the temperate, and the other remaining stationary in the torrid zone, so centuries may pass before their relations as neighbors and fellow-citizens have been duly adjusted." It would be unjust and illogical to push too far the comparison and deduce inferences unfair to the negro, but it is an interesting coincidence that Japan began her entrance into the family of civilized nations almost contemporaneously with emancipation in the United States. In 1858 I witnessed the unique reception by President Buchanan, in the east room of the White House, of the commissioners from Japan. With a rapidity without a precedent, she has taken her place as an equal and independent nation, and her rulers demand acknowledgment at the highest courts, and her ministers are officially the equals of their colleagues in every diplomatic corps. By

internal development, without extraneous assistance, Japan has reached a degree of self-reliance, of self-control, of social organization, of respectable civilization, far beyond what our African citizens have attained under physical, civic, and religious conditions by no means unfavorable. It is true that Japan for a long time had a separate nationality, while the freedmen have been dependent wards, but the Oriental nation, without the great ethical and pervasive and ennobling and energizing influence of Christianity (for the propagandism of the daring Jesuit missionaries of the sixteenth century has been effaced) has recorded her ascents by monuments of social life and dramatic events in history. Her mental culture and habits and marvelous military success are witnesses of her progress and power. We have been accustomed to think of the whole Orient, that "fifty years of Europe were better than a cycle of Cathay," but within a quarter of a century Japan has transformed social usages and manners, arts and manufactures, and in 1889, when we were celebrating the centennial of our Constitution, she adopted a constitution, with a limited monarchy and parliamentary institutions.

Much of the aid lavished upon the negro has been misapplied charity and, like much other almsgiving, hurtful to the recipient. Northern philanthropy, "disastrously kind," has often responded with liberality to appeals worse than worthless. Vagabond mendicants have been pampered; schools which were established without any serious need of them have been helped; public-school systems upon which the great mass of children, white and colored, must rely for their education have been underrated and injured, and schools of real merit, and doing good work, which deserve confidence and contributions have had assistance legitimately their due diverted into improper channels. Reluctantly and by constraint of conscience this matter is mentioned, and this voice of protest and warning raised. Dr. A. D. Mayo, of Boston, an astute and thoughtful observer, a tried friend of the black man, an eloquent advocate of his elevation, who for fifteen years has traversed the South in the interests of universal education, than whom no one has a better acquaintance with the schools of that section, bears cogent and trustworthy testimony to which I give my emphatic endorsement:

"It is high time that our heedless, indiscriminating, all-out-doors habit of giving money and supplies to the great invading army of Southern solicitors should come to an end. Whatever of good has come from it is of the same nature as the habit of miscellaneous almsgiving which our system of associated charities is everywhere working to break up. It is high time that we understood that the one agency on which the negroes and nine-tenths of the white people in the South must rely for elementary instruction and training is the American common school. The attempt to educate 2,000,000 colored and 3,000,000 white American children in the South by passing around the hat in the North; sending dribblets of money and barrels of supplies to encourage anybody and everybody to open a little useless private school; to draw on our Protestant Sunday schools in the North to build up among these people the church parochial system of elementary schools which the clergy of these churches are denouncing—all this and a great deal more that is still going on among us, with, of course, the usual exceptions, has had its day and done its work. The only reliable method of directly helping the elementary department of Southern education is that our churches and benevolent people put themselves in touch with the common-school authorities in all the dark places, urging even their poorer people to do more, as they can do more, than at present. The thousand dollars from Boston that keeps alive a little private or denominational school in a Southern neighborhood, if properly applied, would give two additional months, better teaching and better housing to all the children, and unite their people as in no other way. Let the great Northern schools in the South established for the negroes be reasonably endowed, and worked in cooperation with the public-school system of the State, with the idea that in due time they will all pass into the hands of the Southern people, each dependent on its own constituency for its permanent support. I believe in many instances it would be the best policy to endow or aid Southern schools that have grown up at home and have established themselves in the confidence of the people. While more money should every year be given in the North for Southern education, it should not be scattered abroad, but concentrated on strategic points for the uplifting of both races."

After the facts, hard, stubborn, unimpeachable, regrettable, which have been given, we may well inquire whether much hasty action has not prevailed in assigning to the negro an educational position, which ancient and modern history does not warrant. The partition of the continent of Africa by and among European nations can hardly be ascribed solely to a lust for territorial aggrandizement. The energetic races of the North begin to realize that the tropical countries—the food and the material producing regions of the earth—can not, for all time to come, be left to the unprogressive, uncivilized colored race, deficient in the qualities necessary to the development of the rich resources of the lands they possess. The strong powers seem unwilling to tolerate the wasting of the resources of the most fertile regions through the apparent impossibility, by the race in possession, of acquiring the qualities of

efficiency which exist elsewhere. The experiment of the Congo Free State, one of the richest and most valuable tracts in Africa, established and fostered under propitious circumstances by the King of Belgium, seems likely to be a barren failure and to prove that African colonization is not a practicable scheme, without State subvention, or the strong, overmastering hand of some superior race. It requires no superior insight to discover that human evolution has come from the energy, thrift, discipline, social and political efficiency of peoples whose power is not the result of varying circumstances, "of the cosmic order of things which we have no power to control."¹

The negro occupies an incongruous position in our country. Under military necessity slaves were emancipated, and all true Americans accept the jubilant eulogium of the poet, when he declares our country

A later Eden planted in the wilds,
With not an inch of earth within its bounds
But if a slave's foot press, it sets him free.

Partisanship and an altruistic sentiment led to favoritism, to civic equality, and to bringing the negroes, for the first time in their history and without any previous preparation, "into the rivalry of life on an equal footing of opportunity." The whole country has suffered in its material development from the hazardous experiment. The South, as a constituent portion of the Union, is a diseased limb on the body, is largely uncultivated, neglected, unproductive. Farming, with the low prices of products, yields little remunerative return on labor or money invested, and, except in narrow localities and where "trucking" obtains, is not improving agriculturally, or, if so, too slowly and locally to awaken any hopes of early or great recovery.² Crippled, disheartened by the presence of a people not much inferior in numbers, of equal civil rights, and slowly capable of equal mental development or of taking on the habits of advanced civilization, the white people of the South are deprived of any considerable increase of numbers from immigration and any large demand for small freeholds, and are largely dependent on ignorant, undisciplined, uninventive, inefficient, unambitious labor. Intercourse between the Slavs and the tribes of the Ural-Altai stock, fusion of ethnic elements, has not resulted in deterioration, but has produced an apparently homogeneous people, possessing a common consciousness. That the two diverse races now in the South can ever perfectly harmonize while occupying the same territory no one competent to form an opinion believes. Mr. Bryce concludes that the negro will stay socially distinct, as an alien element, unabsorbed and unabsorbable. That the presence in the same country of two distinctly marked races, having the same rights and privileges, of unequal capacities of development—one long habituated to servitude, deprived of all power of initiative, of all high ideal, without patriotism beyond a mere weak attachment—is a blessing is too absurd a proposition for serious consideration. Whether the great resources of the South are not destined, under existing conditions, to remain only partially developed, and whether agriculture is not doomed to barrenness of results, are economic and political questions alien to this discussion.

As trustees of the Slater fund, we are confined to the duty of educating the lately emancipated race. In *Ocasional Papers*, No. 3 (see p. 1374), the history of education since 1860, as derived from the most authentic sources, is presented with care and fullness. "The great work of educating the negroes is carried on mainly by the public schools of the Southern States, supported by funds raised by public taxation, and managed and controlled by public school officers. The work is too great to be attempted by any other agency, unless by the National Government; the field is too extensive, the officers too numerous, the cost too burdensome." (Bureau of Education Report, 1891-92, p. 867.) The American Congress refused aid, and upon the impoverished South the burden and the duty were devolved. Bravely and with heroic self-sacrifice have they sought to fulfill the obligation.

In the distribution of public revenues, in the building of asylums, in provision for public education, no discrimination has been made against the colored people. The law of Georgia of October, 1870, establishing a public school system, expressly states that both races shall have equal privileges. The school system of Texas, begun under its present form in 1876, provides "absolutely equal privileges to both

¹ Since this paper was prepared, Bishop Turner, of Georgia, a colored preacher of intelligence and respectability, in a letter from Liberia, May 11, 1895, advises the reopening of the African slave trade and says that, as a result of such enslavement for a term of years by a civilized race, "millions and millions of Africans, who are now running around in a state of nudity, fighting, necromancing, masquerading, and doing everything that God disapproves of, would be working and benefiting the world." Equally curious and absurd is the conclusion of the editor of the *Globe Quarterly Review* (July, 1895, New York), a Northern man, that "nothing but some sort of reenslavement can make the negro work, therefore he must be reenslaved, or driven from the land." Could anything be more surprising than these utterances by a former slave and by an abolitionist, or show more clearly "the difficulties, complications, and limitations" which environ the task and the duty of "uplifting the lately emancipated race?"

² The last assessment of property in Virginia, 1895, shows a decrease of \$8,133,374 from last year's valuation.

white and colored children." In Florida, under the constitution of 1868 and the law of 1877, both races share equally in the school benefits. Several laws of Arkansas provide for a school system of equal privileges to both races. Under the school system of North Carolina there is no discrimination for or against either race. The school system of Louisiana was fairly started only after the adoption of the constitution of 1879, and equal privileges are granted to white and colored children. Since 1883 equal privileges are granted in Kentucky. The school system of West Virginia grants equal rights to the two races. The system in Mississippi was put in operation in 1871 and grants to both races "equal privileges and school facilities." The same exact and liberal justice obtains in Virginia, Alabama, and Tennessee.

In 1893-94 there were 2,702,410 negro children of school age—from 5 to 18 years—of whom 52.72 per cent, or 1,424,710, were enrolled as pupils. Excluding Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, the receipts from State and local taxation for schools in the South were \$14,397,569. It should be borne in mind that there are fewer taxpayers in the South, in proportion to population generally and to school population especially, than in any other part of the United States. In the South Central States there are only 65.9 adult males to 100 children, while in the Western Division there are 156.7. In South Carolina, 37 out of every 100 are of school age; in Montana, only 18 out of 100. Consider also that in the South a large proportion of the comparatively few adults are negroes with a minimum of property. Consider, further, that the number of adult males to each 100 children in New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Connecticut is twice as great as in North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. In view of such and other equally surprising facts, it is a matter of national satisfaction that free education has made such progress in the South. (Bureau of Education Report, 1890-91, pp. 5, 19, 21, 24.)

It is lamentable, after all the provision which has been made, that the schools are kept open for such a short period, that so many teachers are incompetent, and that such a small proportion of persons of schoolage attend the schools. This does not apply solely to the colored children or to the Southern States. For the whole country the average number of days attended is only 89 for each pupil, when the proper school year should count about 200. While the enrollment and average attendance have increased, "what the people get on an average is about one-half an elementary education, and no State is now giving an education in all its schools that is equal to seven years per inhabitant for the rising generation. Some States are giving less than three years of 200 days each." (Annual Statement of Commissioner of Education for 1894, p. 18.) It is an obligation of patriotism to support and improve these State-managed schools, because they are among the best teachers of the duties of citizenship and the most potent agency for molding and unifying and binding heterogeneous elements of nationality into compactness, unity, and homogeneity. We must keep them efficient if we wish them to retain public confidence.

In No. 3 of Occasional Papers (see page 1379) is described what has been undertaken and accomplished by different religious denominations. The information was furnished by themselves, and full credit was given for their patriotic and Christian work. These schools are of higher grades in name and general purpose and instruction than the public schools, but unfortunately most of them are handicapped by high-sounding and deceptive names and impossible courses of study. There are 25 nominal "universities" and "colleges," which embrace primary, secondary, normal, and professional grades of instruction. These report, as engaged in "collegiate" studies, about 1,000 students. The work done is in some instances excellent; in other cases it is as defective as one could well imagine it to be. This misfortune is not confined to colored schools. The last accessible report from the Bureau of Education gives 22 schools of theology and 5 each of schools of law and of medicine, and in the study of law and medicine there has in the last few years been a rapid increase of students.

A noticeable feature of the schools organized by religious associations is the provision made for industrial education. In the special colored schools established or aided by the State of higher order than the public schools, such as those in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Texas, manual training is required for both sexes. As few white schools of the South are provided with this necessary adjunct of education, it would be unjust to criticise too severely what is being done along industrial lines in colored schools. It is rather a matter for rejoicing that the schools have even been started in this most hopeful direction, and especially as the long-wished-for industrial development seems to be dawning on the South. Whatever may be our speculative opinions as to the progress and development of which the negro may be ultimately capable, there can hardly be a well-grounded opposition to the opinion that the hope for the race in the South is to be found not so much in the high courses of university instruction or in schools of technology as in handicraft instruction. This instruction, by whatever name called, encourages us in its results to continued and liberal effort. What such schools as Hampton, the Spelman, Claflin, Tuskegee, Tougaloo, and others have done is the demonstration of the feasibility and the value of

industrial and mechanical training.¹ The general instruction heretofore given in the schools, it is feared, has been too exclusively intellectual, too little of that kind which produces intelligent and skilled workmen, and therefore not thoroughly adapted to racial development nor to fitting for the practical duties of life. Perhaps it has not been philosophical nor practical, but too empirical and illusory in fitting a man for "the conditions in which he will be compelled to earn his livelihood and unfold his possibilities." The effort has been to fit an adult's clothing to a child, to take the highest courses of instruction and apply them to untutored minds. Misguided statesmanship and philanthropy have opened "high schools and universities and offered courses in Greek and Latin and Hebrew, in theology and philosophy, to those who need the rudiments of education and instruction in handicraft." This industrial training is a helpful accompaniment to mental training, and both should be based on strong moral character. It has been charged that the negroes have had too strong an inclination to become preachers or teachers, but this may be in part due to the fact that their education has been ill adjusted to their needs and surroundings, and that when the pupils leave school they do so without having been prepared for the competition which awaits them in the struggle for a higher life.

Whatever may be the discouragements and difficulties and however insufficient may be the school attendance, it is a cheering fact that the schools for the negroes do not encounter the prejudices which were too common a few years ago. In fact, there may almost be said to be coming a time when soon there will be a sustaining public opinion. The struggle of man to throw off fetters and rise into true manhood and save souls from bondage is a most instructive and thrilling spectacle, awakening sympathetic enthusiasm on the part of all who love what is noble. * * * Having gathered testimony from many of the leading colored schools of the South in answer to these direct questions, "Is there any opposition from the white race to your work in educating the negroes? If so, does that opposition imperil person or property?" I group it into a condensed statement:

1. CONGREGATIONALISTS.

Storrs School, Atlanta, says: "There is no aggressive opposition to our work among the negroes." Fisk University, Nashville: "There is no special manifestation of open opposition to our work on the part of the white people; indeed, the better citizens have a good degree of sympathy with our work and take a genuine pride in the university." Talladega College, Alabama: "I do not know of any opposition from the white race to our work. * * * We have more opposition from the very people for whom we are especially laboring than from the other race." By act of incorporation, February 28, 1880, the college may hold, purchase, dispose of, and convey property to such an amount as the business of the college requires, and so long as the property, real or personal, is used for purposes of education it is exempt from taxation of any kind. Knoxville College: "No opposition from the white race disturbs us." Beach Institute, Savannah, Ga.: "There seems to be here no active opposition to our work in educating the negroes." Straight University, New Orleans: "There is no opposition from the white race." Ballard Normal School, Macon, Ga.: "We meet now with no opposition from the whites."

2. METHODISTS.

From Philander Smith College, Little Rock, Ark.: "No opposition that amounts to anything." Cookman Institute, Jacksonville, Fla.: "There is no active opposition from the white race to our work, as far as I know." Claflin University, Orangeburg, S. C.: "There is no opposition to it on the part of the white race." Central Tennessee College, Nashville, Tenn.: "On the part of the intelligent whites there is none; on the contrary, they have nearly always spoken well of it and seem to rejoice that their former slaves and their children are being educated. Having been here over twenty-seven years, I feel quite safe." Bennett College, Greensboro, N. C., gives an emphatic negative to both questions. New Orleans University: "No opposition from white people to our work."

3. PRESBYTERIANS.

From Biddle University, Charlotte, N. C.; "No opposition from the white race; on the contrary, very pleasant neighbors."

¹ Principal Washington, of Tuskegee Institute, as the representative of his race, made an address at the opening of the great Atlanta Exposition which elicited high commendation from President Cleveland and the press of the country for its practical wisdom and its broad, catholic, and patriotic sentiments. The Negro Building, with its interesting exhibits, shows what progress has been made by the race in thirty years and excites strong hopes for the future. The special work displayed by the schools of Hampton and Tuskegee received honorable recognition from the jury of awards.

4. BAPTISTS.

Bishop College, Marshall, Tex.: "We have experienced opposition from certain classes of white people to the extent of threats and assaults, yet such have come from those who were entirely unacquainted with the real work being done, and I think that now sentiment is changing." Leland University, New Orleans, La.: "There is not to my knowledge, nor ever has been since I came in 1887, any opposition from the white race to our work." Spelman Seminary, Atlanta, Ga.: "We are not aware of any opposition from the white race to our work." Shaw University, Raleigh, N. C.: "It gives us pleasure to say the feeling for our work among the whites seems of the kindest nature and everything is helpful." Roger Williams University, Nashville, Tenn.: "No opposition meets us from any sources; on the contrary we are generally treated with entire courtesy." Selma University, Alabama: "There is no opposition to our work from the white race. So far as I know they wish us success."

5. NONDENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, Alabama: "I am glad to state that there is practically no opposition on the part of the whites to our work; on the contrary, there are many evidences of their hearty approval." Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute, Virginia: "This school meets no opposition to the work from the white race, and, with occasional individual exceptions, has never met any, but receives for itself and its graduate teachers a great amount of practical sympathy, and is glad of this and every opportunity to acknowledge it."

CONCLUSIONS.

I. It follows that in addition to thorough and intelligent training in the discipline of character and virtue, there should be given rigid and continuous attention to domestic and social life, to the refinements and comforts and economies of home.

II. Taught in the economies of wise consumption, the race should be trained to acquire habits of thrift, of saving earnings, of avoiding waste, of accumulating property, of having a stake in good government, in progressive civilization.

III. Besides the rudiments of a good and useful education there is imperative need of manual training, of the proper cultivation of those faculties or mental qualities of observation, of aiming at and reaching a successful end, and of such facility and skill in tools, in practical industries, as will insure remunerative employment and give the power which comes from intelligent work.

IV. Clearer and juster ideas of education, moral and intellectual, obtained in cleaner home life and through respected and capable teachers in schools and churches. Ultimate and only sure reliance for the education of the race is to be found in the public schools, organized, controlled, and liberally supported by the State.

V. Between the races occupying the same territory, possessing under the law equal civil rights and privileges, speculative and unattainable standards should be avoided, and questions should be met as they arise, not by Utopian and partial solutions, but by the impartial application of the tests of justice, right, honor, humanity, and Christianity.

II.

EDUCATION OF THE NEGROES SINCE 1860.

[By J. L. M. Curry, LL. D., secretary of the trustees of the John F. Slater fund.]

INTRODUCTION.

The purpose of this paper is to put into permanent form a narrative of what has been done at the South for the education of the negro since 1860. The historical and statistical details may seem dry and uninteresting, but we can understand the significance of this unprecedented educational movement only by a study of its beginnings and of the difficulties which had to be overcome. The present generation, near as it is to the genesis of the work, can not appreciate its magnitude, nor the greatness of the victory which has been achieved, without a knowledge of the facts which this recital gives in connected order. The knowledge is needful, also, for a comprehension of the future possible scope and kind of education to be given to the Afro-American race. In the field of education we shall be unwise not to reckon with such forces as custom, physical constitution, heredity, racial characteristics and possibilities, and not to remember that these and other causes may determine the limitations under which we must act. The education of this people has a far-reaching and complicated connection with their destiny, with our institutions, and possibly with the Dark Continent, which may assume an importance akin, if not superior, to what it

had centuries ago. The partition of its territory, the international questions which are springing up, and the effect of contact with and government by a superior race, must necessarily give an enhanced importance to Africa as a factor in commerce, in relations of governments, and in civilization. England will soon have an unbroken line of territorial possessions from Egypt to the Cape of Good Hope. Germany, France, Portugal, Italy, Spain, possibly Russia, will soon have such footholds in Africa as, whatever else may occur, will tend to the development of century-paralyzed resources.

What other superior races have done, and are doing, for the government and uplifting of the inferior races, which, from treaty or conquest, have been placed under their responsible jurisdiction, may help in the solution of our problem. Italy had a grand question in its unification; Prussia a graver one in the nationalization of Germany, taxing the statesmanship of Stein, Bismarck, and their collaborators; Great Britain, in the administration of her large and widely remote colonial dependencies with their different races; but our problem has peculiar difficulties which have not confronted other governments, and therefore demands the best powers of philanthropist, sociologist, and statesman.

The emergence of a nation from barbarism to a general diffusion of intelligence and property, to health in the social and civil relations; the development of an inferior race into a high degree of enlightenment; the overthrow of customs and institutions which, however indefensible, have their seat in tradition and a course of long observance; the working out satisfactorily of political, sociological, and ethical problems—are all necessarily slow, requiring patient and intelligent study of the teachings of history and the careful application of something more than mere empirical methods. Civilization, freedom, a pure religion, are not the speedy outcome of revolutions and cataclysms any more than has been the structure of the earth. They are the slow evolution of orderly and creative causes, the result of law and preordained principles.

The educational work described in this paper has been most valuable, but it has been so far necessarily tentative and local. It has lacked broad and definite generalization, and, in all its phases, comprehensive, philosophical consideration. An auxiliary to a thorough study and ultimate better plans, the Slater fund, from time to time, will have prepared and published papers bearing on different phases of the negro question.

I. The history of the negro on this continent is full of pathetic and tragic romance, and of startling, unparalleled incident. The seizure in Africa, the forcible abduction and cruel exportation, the coercive enslavement, the subjection to environments which emasculate a race of all noble aspirations and doom inevitably to hopeless ignorance and inferiority, living in the midst of enlightenments and noblest civilization and yet forbidden to enjoy the benefits of which others were partakers, for four years amid battle and yet, for the most part, having no personal share in the conflict, by statute and organic law and law of nations held in fetters and inequality, and then, in the twinkling of an eye, lifted from bondage to freedom, from slavery to citizenship, from dependence on others and guardianship to suffrage and eligibility to office—can be predicated of no other race. Other peoples, after long and weary years of discipline and struggle against heaviest odds, have won liberty and free government. This race, almost without lifting a hand, unappreciative of the boon except in the lowest aspects of it, and unprepared for privileges and responsibilities, has been lifted to a plane of citizenship and freedom, such as is enjoyed, in an equal degree, by no people in the world outside of the United States.

Common schools in all governments have been a slow growth, reluctantly conceded, grudgingly supported, and perfected after many experiments and failures and with heavy pecuniary cost. Within a few years after emancipation, free and universal education has been provided for the negro, without cost to himself, and chiefly by the self-imposed taxes of those who, a few years before, claimed his labor and time without direct wage or pecuniary compensation.

II. Slavery, recognized by the then international law and the connivance and patronage of European sovereigns, existed in all the colonies prior to the Declaration of Independence, and was reinforced by importation of negroes from Africa. In course of time it was confined to the Southern States, and the negroes increased in numbers at a more rapid rate than did the whites, even after the slave trade was abolished and declared piracy.

For a long time there was no general exclusion by law of the slaves from the privileges of education. The first prohibitory and punitive laws were directed against unlawful assemblages of negroes, and subsequently of free negroes and mulattoes, as their influence in exciting discontent or insurrection was deprecated and guarded against. Afterwards legislation became more general in the South, prohibiting meetings for teaching reading and writing. The Nat Turner insurrection in Southampton County, Va., in 1831, awakened the Southern States to a consciousness of the perils which might environ or destroy them from combinations of excited, inflamed, and ill-advised negroes.

As documents and newspapers tending to inflame discontent and insurrection were supposed to have been the immediate provocation to this conspiracy for murder of whites and for freedom of the blacks, laws were passed against publishing and circulating such documents among the colored population, and strengthening the prohibitions and penalties against education.

Severe and general as were these laws they rarely applied, and were seldom, if ever, enforced against teaching of individuals or of groups on plantations or at the homes of the owners. It was often true that the mistress of a household or her children would teach the house servants, and on Sundays include a larger number. There were also Sunday schools in which black children were taught to read, notably the school in which Stonewall Jackson was a leader. It is pleasant to find recorded in the memoir of Dr. Boyce, a trustee of this fund from its origin until his death, that as an editor, a preacher, and a citizen he was deeply interested in the moral and religious instruction of the negroes.

After a most liberal estimate for the efforts made to teach the negroes, still the fact exists that as a people they were wholly uneducated in schools. Slavery doomed the millions to ignorance, and in this condition they were when the war began.

III. Almost synchronously with the earliest occupation of any portion of the seceding States by the Union army efforts were begun to give the negroes some schooling. In September, 1861, under the guns of Fortress Monroe, a school was opened for the "contrabands of war." In 1862 schools were extended to Washington, Portsmouth, Norfolk, and Newport News, and afterwards to the Port Royal islands on the coast of South Carolina, to Newbern and Roanoke Island in North Carolina. The proclamation of emancipation, January 1, 1863, gave freedom to all slaves reached by the armies, increased the refugees, and awakened a fervor of religious and philanthropic enthusiasm for meeting the physical, moral, and intellectual wants of those suddenly thrown upon charity. In October, 1863, General Banks, then commanding the Department of the Gulf, created commissioners of enrollment, who established the first public schools for Louisiana. Seven were soon in operation, with 23 teachers and an average attendance of 1,422 scholars. On March 22, 1864, he issued General Order No. 38, which constituted a board of education "for the rudimental instruction of the freedmen" in the department, so as to "place within their reach the elements of knowledge."

The board was ordered to establish common schools, to employ teachers, to acquire school sites, to erect school buildings where no proper or available ones for school purposes existed, to purchase and provide necessary books, stationery, apparatus, and a well-selected library, to regulate the course of studies, and "to have the authority and perform the same duties that assessors, supervisors, and trustees had in the Northern States in the matter of establishing and conducting common schools." For the performance of the duties enjoined the board was empowered to "assess and levy a school tax upon real and personal property, including crops of plantations." These taxes were to be sufficient to defray expense and cost of establishing, furnishing, and conducting the schools for the period of one year. When the tax list and schedules should be placed in the hands of the parish provost-marshal he was to collect and pay over within thirty days to the school board. Schools previously established were transferred to this board; others were opened, and in December, 1864, they reported under their supervision 95 schools, 162 teachers, and 9,571 scholars. This system continued until December, 1865, when the power to levy the tax was suspended. An official report of later date says: "In this sad juncture the freedmen expressed a willingness to endure and even petitioned for increased taxation in order that means for supporting their schools might be obtained."

On December 17, 1862, Col. John Eaton was ordered by General Grant to assume a general supervision of freedmen in the Department of Tennessee and Arkansas. In the early autumn of that year schools had been established, and they were multiplied during 1863 and 1864. In the absence of responsibility and supervision there grew up abuses and complaints. By some "parties engaged in the work" of education "exorbitant charges were made for tuition," and agents and teachers, "instead of making common cause for the good of those they came to benefit, set about detracting, perplexing, and vexing each other." "Parties and conflicts had arisen." "Frauds had appeared in not a few instances—evil-minded, irresponsible, or incompetent persons imposing upon those not prepared to defeat or check them." "Bad faith to fair promises had deprived the colored people of their just dues."¹

On September 26, 1864, the Secretary of War, through Adjutant-General Thomas, issued Order No. 28, in which he said: "To prevent confusion and embarrassment the general superintendent of freedmen will designate officers, subject to his orders, as superintendents of colored schools, through whom he will arrange the location of all schools, teachers, occupation of houses, and other details pertaining to the education of the freedmen." In accordance with this order Colonel Eaton removed his

¹See report of Chaplain Warren, 1864, relating to colored schools.

headquarters from Vicksburg to Memphis. On October 20, 1864, he issued sixteen rules and regulations for the guidance of superintendents and teachers of colored schools in his supervision. These instructions to subordinates were wise and provided for the opening of a sufficient number of schools, for the payment of tuition fees from 25 cents to \$1.25 per month for each scholar, according to the ability of the parents; for the admission free of those who could not pay and the furnishing of clothing by the aid of industrial schools, for the government of teachers in connection with the societies needing them, etc. The "industrial schools" were schools in which sewing was taught, and in which a large quantity of the clothing and material sent from the North was made over or made up for freedmen's use, and were highly "useful in promoting industrious habits and in teaching useful arts of housewifery." The supervision under such a competent head caused great improvement in the work, but department efforts were hindered by some representatives of the benevolent societies who did not heartily welcome the more orderly military supervision. An assistant superintendent, March 31, 1865, reports, in and around Vicksburg and Natchez, 30 schools, 60 teachers, and 4,393 pupils enrolled; in Memphis, 1,590 pupils, and in the entire supervision, 7,360 in attendance.

General Eaton submitted a report of his laborious work, which is full of valuable information. Naturally, some abatement must be made from conclusions which were based on the wild statements of excited freedmen, or the false statements of interested persons. "Instinct of unlettered reason" caused a hegira of the blacks to camps of the Union army, or within protected territory. The "negro population floated or was kicked about at will." Strict supervision became urgent to secure "contraband information" and service and protect the ignorant, deluded people from unscrupulous harpies. "Mental and moral enlightenment" was to be striven for, even in those troublous times, and it was fortunate that so capable and faithful an officer as General Eaton was in authority.

All the operations of the supervisors of schools did not give satisfaction, for the inspector of schools in South Carolina and Georgia, on October 13, 1865, says: "The bureau does not receive that aid from the Government and Government officials it had a right to expect, and really from the course of the military officials in this department you might think that the only enemies to the Government are the agents of the bureau."

IV. By act of Congress, March 3, 1865, the Freedmen's Bureau was created. The scope of its jurisdiction and work extended far beyond education. It embraced abandoned lands and the supply of the negroes with food and clothing, and during 1865 as many as 148,000 were reported as receiving rations. The Quartermaster and Commissary Departments were placed at the service of the agents of the bureau, and, in addition to freedom, largesses were lavishly given to "reach the great and imperative necessities of the situation." Large and comprehensive powers and resources were placed in the hands of the bureau, and limitations of the authority of the Government were disregarded in order to meet the gravest problem of the century. Millions of recently enslaved negroes, homeless, penniless, ignorant, were to be saved from destitution or perishing, to be prepared for the sudden boon of political equality, to be made self-supporting citizens and to prevent their freedom from becoming a curse to themselves and their liberators. The commissioner was authorized "to seize, hold, use, lease, or sell all buildings and tenements and any lands appertaining to the same, or otherwise formally held, under color of title by the late Confederate States, and buildings or lands held in trust for the same, and to use the same, or appropriate the proceeds derived therefrom to the education of the freed people." He was empowered also to "cooperate with private benevolent associations in aid of the freedmen." The bureau was attached to the War Department, and was at first limited in duration to one year, but was afterwards prolonged. Gen. O. O. Howard was appointed commissioner, with assistants. He says he was invested with "almost unlimited authority," and that the act and orders gave "great scope and liberty of action." "Legislative, judicial, and executive powers were combined, reaching all the interests of the freedmen." On June 2, 1865, the President ordered all officers of the United States to turn over to the bureau "all property, funds, lands, and records in any way connected with freedmen and refugees." This bestowment of despotic power was not considered unwise because of the peculiar exigencies of the times and the condition of the freedmen, who, being suddenly emancipated by a dynamic process, were without schools, or teachers, or means to procure them. To organize the work a superintendent of schools was appointed for each State. Besides the regular appropriation by Congress the military authorities aided the bureau. Transportation was furnished to teachers, books, and school furniture, and material aid was given to all engaged in education.

General Howard used his large powers to get into his custody the funds scattered in the hands of many officers, which could be made available for the freedmen. Funds bearing different names were contributed to the work of "colored

education."¹ During the war some of the States sent money to officers serving in the South to buy substitutes from among the colored people to fill up their quota under the draft. A portion of the bounty money thus sent, by an order of General B. F. Butler, August 4, 1864, was retained in the hands of officers who had been superintendents of negro affairs, and by the President's order of June 2, 1865, was turned over to the disbursing officers of the Bureau of Freedmen. After the organization of the bureau, General Howard instructed agents to turn money held by them over to the chief disbursing officer of the bureau. This was in no sense public money, but belonged to individuals enlisted as contraband recruits to fill the State quotas. What was unclaimed of what was held in trust under General Butler's order was used for educational purposes.

In the early part of 1867 the accounting officers of the Treasury Department ascertained that numerous frauds were being perpetrated on colored claimants for bounties under acts of Congress. Advising with General Howard, the Treasury officials drew a bill which Congress enacted into a law, devolving upon the commissioner the payment of bounties to colored soldiers and sailors. This enlarged responsibility gave much labor to General Howard, in his already multifarious and difficult duties, and made more honorable the acquittal which he secured when an official investigation was subsequently ordered upon his administration of the affairs of the bureau.

The act of Congress of July 16, 1866, gave a local fund, which was expended in the district in which it accrued, and besides there were general appropriations for the support of the bureau, which were in part available for schools.

Mr. Ingle, writing of school affairs in the District in 1867 and 1868, says:

"Great aid was given at this period by the Freedmen's Bureau, which, not limiting its assistance to schools for primary instruction, did much toward establishing Howard University, in which no distinction was made on account of race, color, or sex, though it had originally been intended for the education of negro men alone."

The monograph of Edward Ingle on "The negro in the District of Columbia," one of the valuable Johns Hopkins University studies, gives such a full and easily accessible account of the education of the negroes in the District, that it is needless to enlarge the pages of this paper by a repetition of what he has so satisfactorily done.

The bureau found many schools in localities which had been within the lines of the Union armies, and these, with the others established by its agency, were placed under more systematic supervision. In some States schools were carried on entirely by aid of the funds of the bureau, but it had the cooperation and assistance of various religious and benevolent societies. On July 1, 1866, Mr. Alvord, inspector of schools and finances, reported 975 schools in 15 States and the District, 1,405 teachers, and 90,778 scholars. He mentioned as worthy of note a change of sentiment among better classes in regard to freedmen's schools, and that the schools were steadily gaining in numbers, attainments, and general influence. On January 17, 1867, General Howard reports to the Secretary of War \$115,261.56 as used for schools, and the Quartermaster's Department as still rendering valuable help. Education "was carried on vigorously during the year," a better feeling prevailing, and 150,000 freedmen and children "occupied earnestly in the study of books." The taxes, which had been levied for schools in Louisiana, under the administration of T. W. Conway, had been discontinued, but \$500,000 were asked for schools and asylums. In 1867 the Government appointed Generals Steedman and Fullerton as inspectors, and from General Howard's vehement reply to their report—which the War Department declines to permit an inspection of—it appears that their criticisms were decidedly unfavorable. Civilians in the bureau were now displaced by army officers. In July, 1869, Mr. Alvord mentions decided progress in educational returns, increasing thirst for knowledge, greater public favor, and the establishment of 39 training schools for teachers, with 3,377 pupils. Four months later General Howard says, "hostility to schools and teachers has in great measure ceased." He reported the cost of the bureau at \$13,029,816, and earnestly recommended "the national legislature" to establish a general system of free schools, "furnishing to all children of a suitable age such instruction in the rudiments of learning as would fit them to discharge intelligently the duties of free American citizens." Solicitor Whiting had previously recommended that the head of the Freedmen's Bureau should be a Cabinet officer, but this was not granted, and the bureau was finally discontinued, its affairs being transferred to the War Department by act of Congress, June 10, 1872. It is apparent from the reports of Sprague, assistant commissioner in Florida, and of Alvord in 1867 and 1870, that the agents of the bureau sometimes used their official position and influence for organizing the freedmen for party politics and to control elections. A full history of the Freedmen's Bureau would furnish an interesting chapter in negro education, but a report from Inspector Shriver, on October 3, 1873, says the department has "no means of verifying the amount of retained bounty fund;" and

¹ See Spec. Ed. Rep., District of Columbia, p. 259.

on December 4, 1873, the department complains of "the incomplete and disordered condition of the records of the late bureau." (See Ex. Doc. No. 10, Forty-third Congress, first session, and House Mis. Doc. No. 87, Forty-second Congress, third session.)

That no injustice may be done to anyone, the answer of the "Record and Pension Office, War Department," May 21, 1894, to my application for statistics drawn from the records, is embodied in this paper. So far as the writer has been able to investigate, no equally full and official account has heretofore been given.

The following consolidated statement, prepared from records of superintendents of education of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, shows the number of schools, teachers, and pupils in each State, under control of said bureau, and the amount expended for schools, asylums, construction and rental of school buildings, transportation of teachers, purchase of books, etc.:

Year.	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Expended by bureau.	Received from freedmen.	Received from benevolent associations.
1865-66.....	1, 264	1, 795	111, 193	\$225, 722. 94	\$18, 500. 00	\$83, 200. 00
1867.....	1, 673	2, 032	109, 245	415, 330. 00	17, 200. 00	65, 087. 00
1868.....	1, 739	2, 104	102, 562	909, 210. 20	42, 130. 00	154, 736. 50
1869.....	1, 942	2, 472	108, 485	591, 267. 56	85, 726. 00	27, 200. 00
1870.....	1, 900	2, 376	108, 135	480, 737. 82	17, 187. 00	4, 240. 00

"This statement or statistical table is made up from the reports of the superintendents of education of the several States under the control of the bureau from 1865 to 1870, when Government aid to the freedmen's schools was withdrawn. It embraces the number of schools established or maintained, the number of teachers employed, the number of pupils, and the amount expended for school purposes in each State and the District of Columbia. The expenditures also include the amounts contributed by the bureau for the construction and maintenance of asylums for the freedmen, which can not be separated from the totals given.

"The table is based upon the reports of the school superintendents, and has been prepared with great care. The results thus obtained, however, differ in some material respects from the figures given by the commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau in his annual reports. These discrepancies, which this department is unable to reconcile or explain, will be seen by a comparison of the table with the following statement made from the reports of the commissioner:

Year.	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Disbursements for school purposes.			
				By bureau.	By benevolent associations.	By freedmen.	Total.
1866.....	975	1, 405	90, 778	\$123, 650. 39	\$82, 200. 00	\$18, 500. 00	\$224, 350. 39
1867.....	1, 839	2, 087	111, 442	531, 345. 48	65, 087. 01	17, 200. 00	613, 632. 49
1868.....	1, 831	2, 295	104, 327	965, 896. 67	700, 000. 00	a 360, 000. 00	2, 025, 896. 67
1869.....	2, 118	2, 455	114, 522	924, 182. 16	365, 000. 00	a 190, 000. 00	1, 479, 182. 16
1870.....	2, 677	3, 300	149, 581	976, 853. 29	360, 000. 00	a 200, 000. 00	1, 536, 853. 29

a Estimated.

"It has been found impracticable to ascertain the amounts expended by the Freedmen's Bureau for Howard and Fisk Universities, and the schools at Hampton, Atlanta, and New Orleans, the items of expenditure for these schools not being separated in the reports from the gross expenditures for school purposes."

A committee of investigation upon General Howard's use of the bureau for his pecuniary aggrandizement were divided in opinion, but a large majority exonerated him from censure and commended him for the excellent performance of difficult duties. An equally strong and unanimous verdict of approval was rendered by a court of inquiry, General Sherman presiding, which was convened under an act of Congress, February 13, 1874.

V. It has been stated that the bureau was authorized to act in cooperation with benevolent or religious societies in the education of the negroes. A number of these organizations had done good service before the establishment of the bureau and continued their work afterwards. The teachers earliest in the field were from the American Missionary Association, Western Freedmen's Aid Commission, American Baptist Home Mission Society, and the Society of Friends. After the surrender of Vicksburg and the occupation of Natchez, others were sent by the United Presbyterians, Reformed Presbyterians, United Brethren in Christ, Northwestern Freedmen's

Aid Commission, and the National Freedmen's Aid Association. The first colored school in Vicksburg was started in 1863 by the United Brethren in the basement of a Methodist church.

The American Missionary Association was the chief body, apart from the Government, in the great enterprise of meeting the needs of the negroes. It did not relinquish its philanthropic work because army officers and the Federal Government were working along the same line. Up to 1866 its receipts were swollen by "the aid of the Free Will Baptists, the Wesleyans, the Congregationalists, and friends in Great Britain." From Great Britain it is estimated that "a million of dollars in money and clothing were contributed through various channels for the freedmen." The third decade of the association, 1867-1876, was a marked era in its financial history. The Freedmen's Bureau turned over a large sum, which could be expended only in buildings. A Congressional report says that between December, 1866, and May, 1870, the association received \$243,753.22. Since the association took on a more distinctive and separate denominational character, because of the withdrawal of other denominations into organizations of their own, it, along with its church work, has prosecuted, with unabated energy and marked success, its educational work among the negroes. It has now under its control or support—

Chartered institutions	6
Normal schools.....	29
Common schools	43
Totals:	
Schools	78
Instructors	389
Pupils.....	12,609
Pupils classified:	
Theological.....	47
Collegiate	57
College preparatory.....	192
Normal	1,091
Grammar	2,378
Intermediate	3,692
Primary	5,152

Some of these schools are not specially for negroes. It would be unjust not to give the association much credit for Atlanta University and for Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute, which are not included in the above recapitulation, as the latter stands easily first among all the institutions designed for negro development, both for influence and usefulness. During the war and for a time afterwards the school work of the association was necessarily primary and transitional, but it grew into larger proportions, with higher standards, and its normal and industrial work deserves special mention and commendation. From 1860 to October 1, 1893, its expenditures in the South for freedmen, directly and indirectly, including church extension as well as education, have been \$11,610,000.

VI. In 1866 was organized the Freedmen's Aid and Southern Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Under that compact, powerful, well-disciplined, enthusiastic organization more than \$6,000,000 have been expended in the work of education of negroes. Dr. Hartzell said before the World's Congress in Chicago that Wilberforce University, at Xenia, Ohio, was established in 1857 as a college for colored people, and "continues to be the chief educational center of African Methodism in the United States." He reports, as under various branches of Methodism, 65 institutions of learning for colored people, 388 teachers, 10,100 students, \$1,905,150 of property, and \$652,500 of endowment. Among these is Meharry Medical College, of high standard and excellent discipline, with dental and pharmaceutical departments as well as medical. Near 200 students have been graduated. The school of mechanic arts in Central Tennessee College, under the management of Professor Sedgwick, has a fine outfit, and has turned out telescopes and other instruments which command a ready and remunerative market in this and other countries.

VII. On April 16, 1862, slavery was abolished in the District of Columbia. By November 13,000 refugees had collected at Washington, Alexandria, Hampton, and Norfolk. Under an unparalleled exigency, instant action was necessary. The lack of educational privileges led Christian societies to engage in educational work—at least in the rudiments of learning—for the benefit of these people, who were eager to be instructed. Even where education had not previously been a part of the functions of certain organizations, the imperative need of the liberated left no option as to duty. With the assistance of the Baptist Free Mission Society and of the Baptist Home Mission Society, schools were established in Alexandria as early as January 1, 1862, and were multiplied through succeeding years. After Appomattox the Baptist Home Mission Society was formally and deliberately committed to the education of the blacks, giving itself largely to the training of teachers and

preachers. In May, 1892, the society had under its management 24 schools with 216 instructors, 4,861 pupils, of whom 1,756 were preparing to teach, school property worth \$750,000 and endowment funds of \$156,000. Probably not less than 50,000 have attended the various schools. Since 1860 \$2,451,859.56 have been expended for the benefit of the negroes. The superintendent of education says: "The aggregate amount appropriated for the salaries of teachers from the time the society commenced its work until January, 1883, was: District of Columbia, \$59,243.57; Virginia, \$65,254.44; North Carolina, \$41,788.90; South Carolina, \$29,683.71; Florida, \$3,164.16; Georgia, \$26,963.21; Alabama, \$4,960.37; Mississippi, \$6,611.05; Louisiana, \$39,168.25; Texas, \$2,272.18; Arkansas, \$150; Tennessee, \$57,898.86; Kentucky, \$1,092.54; Missouri, \$300. The following gives the aggregate amount appropriated for teachers and for all other purposes, such as land, buildings, etc., from January, 1883, to January, 1893: District of Columbia, \$103,110.01; Virginia, \$193,974.08; North Carolina, \$142,861.95; South Carolina, \$137,157.79; Florida, \$55,923.96; Georgia, \$314,061.48; Alabama, \$35,405.86; Mississippi, \$86,019.50; Louisiana, \$33,720.93; Texas, \$131,225.27; Arkansas, \$13,206.20; Tennessee, \$164,514.05; Kentucky, \$49,798.56; Missouri, \$6,543.13. Until January, 1883, the appropriations for teachers and for lands, buildings, etc., were kept as separate items. I have already given the appropriations for the teachers up to that date. For grounds and buildings \$121,119.50 were appropriated." In connection with the Spelman Seminary and the male school in Atlanta, there has been established, under intelligent and discriminating rules, a first-class training department for teachers. A new, commodious structure, well adapted to the purpose, costing \$55,000, was opened in December. At Spelman there is an admirable training school for nurses, where the pupils have hospital practice. Shaw University, at Raleigh, has the flourishing Leonard Medical School and a well-equipped pharmacy.

VIII. The Presbyterian Church at the North in May, 1865, adopted a deliverance in favor of special efforts in behalf of the "lately enslaved African race." From the twenty-eighth annual report of the Board of Missions for Freedmen it appears that, besides building churches, special exertions have been put forth "in establishing parochial schools, in planting academies and seminaries, in equipping and supporting a large and growing university." The report mentions 15 schools—3 in North Carolina, 4 in South Carolina, 3 in Arkansas, and 1 in each of the States of Texas, Mississippi, Virginia, Georgia, and Tennessee. One million two hundred and eighty thousand dollars have been spent. "In the high schools and parochial schools we have (May, 1893) 10,520 students, who are being daily molded under Presbyterian educational influence." The United Presbyterian Church reports for May, 1893, an enrollment in schools of 2,558. The Southern Presbyterians have a theological seminary in Birmingham, Ala., which was first opened in Tuscaloosa in 1877.

IX. The Episcopal Church, through the Commission on Church Work among the Colored People, during the seven years of its existence (1887-1893) has expended \$272,068, but the expenditure is fairly apportioned between ministerial and teaching purposes. The schools are parochial, "with an element of industrial training," and are located in Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Alabama; but the "reports" do not give the number of teachers and scholars. The Friends have some well-conducted schools, notably the Schofield in Aiken, S. C. They have sustained over 100 schools and have spent \$1,004,129. In the mission work of the Roman Catholic Church among the negroes school work and church work are so blended that it has been very difficult to make a clear separation. Schools exist in Baltimore, Washington, and all the Southern States, but with how many teachers and pupils and at what cost the report of the commission for 1893 does not show. A few extracts are given. "We need," says one, "all the help possible to cope with the public schools of Washington. In fact, our school facilities are poor, and unless we can do something to invite children to our Catholic schools many of them will lose their faith." Another person writes: "Next year we shall have to exert all the influence in our power to hold our school. Within two doors of our school a large public-school building is being erected; this new public-school building will draw pupils away from the Catholic school unless the latter be made equally efficient in its work."

X. On February 6, 1867, George Peabody gave to certain gentlemen \$2,000,000 in trust, to be used "for the promotion and encouragement of intellectual, moral, or industrial education among the young of the more destitute portions of the Southwestern States of our Union." This gift embraced both races, and Dr. Barnas Sears was fortunately selected as the general agent, to whom was committed practically the administration of the trust. In his first report he remarked that in many of the cities aided by the fund provision was made for the children of both races, but said that as the subject of making equal provision for the education of both races was occupying public attention, he thought it the safer and wiser course not to set up schools on a precarious foundation, but to confine help to public schools and make efforts in all suitable ways to improve or have established State systems of education. Still,

in some localities aid was judiciously given, and the United States superintendent of education for the negroes in North Carolina gave testimony that but for the Peabody aid many of the colored schools would be closed. "Our superintendents have aided largely in distributing the Peabody fund in nearly all the States." "Great good has thereby been accomplished at very little added expense." The Peabody fund bent its energies and directed its policy toward securing the establishment of State systems of education which should make adequate and permanent provision for universal education. State authorities would have more power and general influence than individuals or denominational or private corporations. They represent the whole people, are held to a strict accountability, protected "from the charge of sectarianism and from the liability of being overreached by interested parties." State systems, besides, have a continuous life and are founded on the just principle that property is taxable for the maintenance of general education. The fund now acts exclusively with State systems, and continues support to the negroes more efficiently through such agencies.

XI. Congress, by land grants since 1860, has furnished to the Southern States substantial aid in the work of agricultural and mechanical education. On March 2, 1867, the Bureau of Education was established for the collection and diffusion of information. This limited sphere of work has been so interpreted and cultivated that the Bureau, under its able Commissioners, especially under the leadership of that most accomplished American educator, Dr. W. T. Harris, has become one of the most efficient and intelligent educational agencies on the continent. To the general survey of the educational field and comparative exhibits of the position of the United States and other enlightened countries have been added discussions by specialists and papers on the various phases of educational life produced by the incorporation of diverse races into our national life or citizenship. The annual reports and circulars of information contain a vast mass of facts and studies in reference to the colored people, and a digest and collaboration of them would give the most complete history that could be prepared.

The Bureau and the Peabody education fund have been most helpful allies in making suggestions in relation to legislation in school matters, and giving, in intelligible, practical form, the experiences of other States, home and foreign, in devising and perfecting educational systems. All the States of the South, as soon as they recovered their governments, put in operation systems of public schools which gave equal opportunities and privileges to both races. It would be singularly unjust not to consider the difficulties—social, political, and pecuniary—which embarrassed the South in the efforts to inaugurate free education. It required unusual heroism to adapt to the new conditions, but she was equal in fidelity and energy to what was demanded for the reconstruction of society and civil institutions. The complete enfranchisement of the negroes and their new political relations, as the result of the war and the new amendments to the Constitution, necessitated an entire reorganization of the systems of public education. To realize what has been accomplished is difficult at best—impossible, unless we estimate sufficiently the obstacles and compare the facilities of to-day with the ignorance and bondage of a generation ago, when some statutes made it an indictable offense to teach a slave or free person of color. Comparisons with densely populated sections are misleading, for in the South the sparseness and poverty of the population are almost a preventive of good schools. Still the results have been marvelous. Out of 448 cities in the United States with a population each of 8,000 and over, only 73 are in the South. Of 28 with a population from 100,000 to 1,500,000, only 2 (St. Louis being excluded) are in the South. Of 96, with a population between 25,000 and 100,000, 17 are in the South. The urban population is comparatively small, and agriculture is the chief occupation. Of 858,000 negroes in Georgia, 130,000 are in cities and towns and 728,000 in the country; in Mississippi, urban colored population 42,000, rural 700,000; in South Carolina, urban 74,000, rural 615,000; in North Carolina, urban 66,000 against 498,000 rural; in Alabama, 65,000 against 613,000; in Louisiana, 93,000 against 466,000. The schools for colored children are maintained on an average 89.2 days in a year, and for white children 98.6, but the preponderance of the white over the black race in towns and cities helps in part to explain the difference. While the colored population supplies less than its due proportion of pupils to the public schools, and the regularity of attendance is less than with the white, yet the difference in length of school term in schools for white and schools for black children is trifling. In the same grades the wages of teachers are about the same. The annual State school revenue is apportioned impartially among white and black children, so much per capita to each child. In the rural districts the colored people are dependent chiefly upon the State apportionment, which is by law devoted mainly to the payment of teachers' salaries. Hence, the schoolhouses and other conveniences in the country for the negroes are inferior, but in the cities the appropriation for schools is general and is allotted to white and colored, according to the needs of each. A small proportion of the school fund comes from colored sources. All the States do not

discriminate in assessments of taxable property, but in Georgia, where the ownership is ascertained, the negroes returned in 1892 \$14,869,575 of taxable property against \$448,884,959 returned by white owners. The amount of property listed for taxation in North Carolina in 1891 was, by white citizens, \$234,109,568; by colored citizens, \$8,018,446. To an inquiry for official data, the auditor of the State of Virginia says: "The taxes collected in 1891 from white citizens were \$2,991,646.24 and from the colored \$163,175.67. The amount paid for public schools for whites, \$588,564.87; for negroes, \$309,364.15. Add \$15,000 for colored normal and \$80,000 for colored lunatic asylum. Apportioning the criminal expenses between the white and the colored people in the ratio of convicts of each race received into the penitentiary in 1891, and it shows that the criminal expenses put upon the State annually by the whites are \$55,749.57 and by the negroes \$204,018.99."

Of the desire of the colored people for education the proof is conclusive, and of their capacity to receive mental culture there is not the shade of a reason to support an adverse hypothesis. The Bureau of Education furnishes the following suggestive table:

Sixteen former slave States and the District of Columbia.

Year.	Common-school enrollment.		Expenditures (both races).	Year.	Common-school enrollment.		Expenditures (both races).
	White.	Colored.			White.	Colored.	
1876-77.....	1,827,139	571,506	\$11,231,073	1885-86.....	2,773,145	1,048,659	\$20,208,113
1877-78.....	2,034,946	675,150	12,093,091	1886-87.....	2,975,773	1,118,556	20,821,969
1878-79.....	2,013,684	685,942	12,174,141	1887-88.....	3,110,606	1,140,405	21,810,158
1879-80.....	2,215,674	784,709	12,678,685	1888-89.....	3,197,850	1,213,092	23,171,878
1880-81.....	2,234,877	802,374	13,655,814	1889-90.....	3,402,420	1,296,959	24,850,107
1881-82.....	2,249,263	802,982	15,241,740	1890-91.....	3,570,624	1,329,549	26,090,310
1882-83.....	2,370,110	817,240	16,363,471	1891-92.....	3,607,549	1,354,316	27,691,488
1883-84.....	2,546,448	1,002,313	17,884,558	1892-93.....	3,697,899	1,367,515	28,535,738
1884-85.....	2,676,911	1,030,463	19,253,874	1893-94 *.....	3,835,593	1,424,995	29,170,351

* Approximately.

Total amount expended in 18 years, \$353,557,559.

In 1890-91 there were 79,962 white teachers and 24,150 colored. To the enrollment in common schools should be added 30,000 colored children who are in normal or secondary schools. The amount expended for education of negroes is not stated separately, but Dr. W. T. Harris estimates that there must have been nearly \$75,000,000 expended by the Southern States in addition to what has been contributed by missionary and philanthropic sources. In Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas annual grants are made for the support of colored normal and industrial schools.

The negroes must rely very largely upon the public schools for their education, and so they should. They are and will continue to be the most efficient factors for uplifting the race. The States, at immense sacrifice, with impartial liberality, have taxed themselves for a population which contributes very little to the State revenues, and nothing could be done more prejudicial to the educational interests of the colored people than to indulge in any hostility or indifference to or neglect of these free schools. Denominations and individuals can do nothing more harmful to the race than to foster opposition to the public schools.

XII. A potential agency in enlightening public opinion and in working out the problem of the education of the negro has been the John F. Slater fund. "In view of the apprehensions felt by all thoughtful persons," when the duties and privileges of citizenship were suddenly thrust upon millions of lately emancipated slaves, Mr. Slater conceived the purpose of giving a large sum of money to their proper education. After deliberate reflection and much conference, he selected a board of trust and placed in their hands \$1,000,000. This unique gift, originating wholly with himself, and elaborated in his own mind in most of its details, was for "the uplifting of the lately emancipated population of the Southern States and their posterity, by conferring on them the blessings of Christian education." "Not only for their own sake, but also for the sake of our common country," he sought to provide "the means of such education as shall tend to make them good men and good citizens," associating the instruction of the mind "with training in just notions of duty toward God and man, in the light of the Holy Scriptures." Leaving to the corporation the largest discretion and liberty in the prosecution of the general object, as described in his letter of trust, he yet indicated as "lines of operation adapted to the condition of things" the encouragement of "institutions as are most effectually useful in promoting the training of teachers." The trust was to be administered "in no partisan, sectional, or sectarian spirit, but in the interest of a generous patriotism and

an enlightened Christian spirit." Soon after organization the trustees expressed very strongly their judgment that the scholars should be "trained in some manual occupation, simultaneously with their mental and moral instruction," and aid was confined to such institutions as gave "instruction in trades and other manual occupations," that the pupils might obtain an intelligent mastery of the indispensable elements of industrial success. So repeated have been similar declarations on the part of the trustees and the general agents that manual training, or education in industries, may be regarded as an unalterable policy; but only such institutions were to be aided as were, "with good reason, believed to be on a permanent basis." Mr. Slater explained "Christian education," as used in his letter of gift, to be teaching, "leavened with a predominant and salutary Christian influence," such as was found in "the common school teaching of Massachusetts and Connecticut," and that there was "no need of limiting the gifts of the fund to denominational institutions." Since the first appropriation near fifty different institutions have been aided, in sums ranging from \$500 to \$5,000. As required by the founder, neither principal nor income is expended for land or buildings. For a few years aid was given in buying machinery or apparatus, but now the income is applied almost exclusively to paying the salaries of teachers engaged in the normal or industrial work. The number of aided institutions has been lessened, with the view of concentrating and making more effective the aid and of improving the instruction in normal and industrial work. The table appended presents a summary of the appropriations which have been made from year to year.

Cash disbursed by John F. Slater fund as appropriations for educational institutions.

To—	Amount.	To—	Amount.
August 13, 1884.....	\$24,881.66	April 30, 1891.....	\$50,650.00
April 30, 1885.....	30,414.19	April 30, 1892.....	45,816.33
April 30, 1886.....	38,724.98	April 30, 1893.....	37,475.00
April 30, 1887.....	39,816.28	April 30, 1894.....	40,750.00
April 30, 1888.....	46,183.34		
April 30, 1889.....	43,709.98	Total.....	439,981.78
April 30, 1890.....	41,560.02		

III.

OCCUPATIONS OF THE NEGROES.

[By Henry Gannett, of the United States Geological Survey.]

The statistics of occupations used in this paper are from the census of 1890, and represent the status of the race on June 1 of that year. The census takes cognizance only of "gainful" occupations, excluding from its lists housewives, school children, men of leisure, etc. Its schedules deal only with wage earners, those directly engaged in earning their living.

GENERAL STATISTICS.

In 1890, out of a total population of 62,622,250, 22,753,884 persons, or 34.6 per cent, were engaged in gainful occupations. Of the negroes, including all of mixed negro blood, numbering 7,470,040, 3,073,123, or 41.1 per cent were engaged in gainful occupations. The proportion was much greater than with the total population. This total population, however, was composed of several diverse elements, including, besides the negroes themselves, the foreign born (of which a large proportion were adult males), and the native whites. The following table presents the proportions of each of these elements which were engaged in gainful occupations:

	Per cent.
Total population.....	34.6
Whites.....	35.5
Native whites.....	31.6
Foreign born.....	55.2
Negroes.....	41.1

The diagram No. 1 sets forth these figures in graphic form. The total area of the square represents the population. This is subdivided by horizontal lines into rectangles representing the various elements of the population, and the shaded part of each rectangle represents the proportions engaged in gainful occupations.

The proportion was greatest among the foreign born because of the large proportion of adults, and particularly of males, among this element. Next to that, the proportion was greatest among the negroes, being much greater than among the whites collectively, and still greater than among the native whites.

Classifying the wage earners of the country in respect to race and nativity, it appears that 64.5 per cent were native whites, 22 per cent were of foreign birth, and 13.5 per cent were negroes.

Analyzing the statistics of occupation by sex, it is discovered that the proportion of native white males who had occupations was 53.4 and of females 9.4 per cent. The corresponding proportion of male negroes was 56.3 per cent and of female negroes 26 per cent. The male negroes were slightly more fully occupied than were the native whites, while among females the proportion of wage earners was much greater. The difference between native whites and negroes in the proportion of wage earners was, therefore, due mainly to the fuller occupation of women. To put it in another form: Out of every 100 native whites who pursued gainful occupations, 85 were males and 15 were females; of every 100 negroes, 69 were males and 31 were females. Indeed, a larger proportion of women pursued gainful occupations among negroes than in any other class of the population.

CLASSIFICATION OF OCCUPATIONS.

The primary classification of occupations made by the census recognized five great groups, as follows: (1) Professions, (2) agriculture, (3) trade and transportation, (4) manufactures, (5) personal service. These titles are self explanatory, with the possible exception of the last class, which is mainly composed of domestic servants.

The following table shows the proportion of the negro wage earners engaged in each of these groups of occupations. In juxtaposition, for comparison, are placed similar figures for the native white and the foreign born:

	Native white.	Foreign born.	Negro.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Professions.....	5.5	2.2	1.1
Agriculture.....	41.0	25.5	57.2
Trade and transportation.....	17.0	14.0	4.7
Manufactures.....	22.9	31.3	5.6
Personal service.....	13.6	27.0	31.4
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0

Similar facts are shown by diagram No. 2. In this the total area of the square represents the number of persons in the country pursuing gainful occupations. This is divided into rectangles by horizontal lines, the rectangles being proportioned respectively to the numbers of the native whites, the foreign born, and the negroes. The subdivision of these rectangles by vertical lines indicates the proportion in each group of wage earners.

The most striking facts brought out by this table and diagram are that only a trifling proportion of the negroes were in the professions, that much more than one-half were farmers, and nearly one-third were engaged in personal (mainly domestic) service. Indeed, over seven-eighths of them were either farmers or servants. The proportions engaged in trade and transportation and in manufactures were very small. In respect to the farming class, they contrasted sharply with the foreign born. In trade and transportation and in manufactures the contrast was even greater, in the contrary direction. The foreign born contained a much larger proportion of professional men.

Comparing the negroes with the native whites, equally interesting contrasts appear. Professional men were much more numerous among whites than among negroes. The proportion of the farming class, although much smaller, was nearer that of the negroes than was the same class among the foreign born. In trade and transportation and in manufactures the native whites had much greater proportions, while in personal service the proportion was much less than that of the negroes.

MALE AND FEMALE WAGE EARNERS.

It will be interesting to analyze these figures further. The following table classifies negro wage earners by occupation and by sex, giving for each sex the percentage engaged in each group of occupations:

	Male.	Female.
Professions.....	1.2	0.9
Agriculture.....	63.4	44.0
Trade and transportation.....	6.8	.2
Manufactures.....	7.0	2.8
Personal service.....	21.6	52.1

DIAGRAM NO. 1.—*Proportion of the population and its elements, which were engaged in gainful occupations in 1890.*

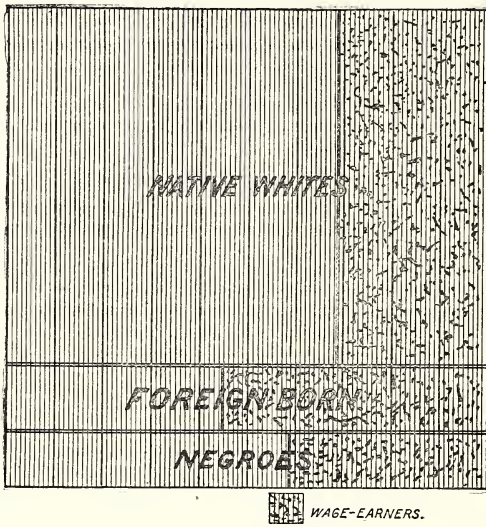
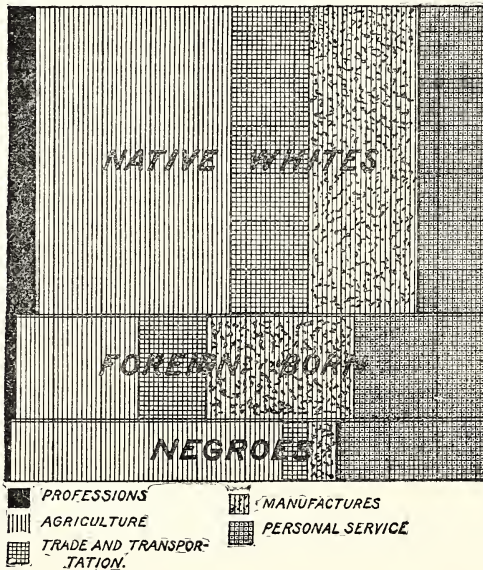
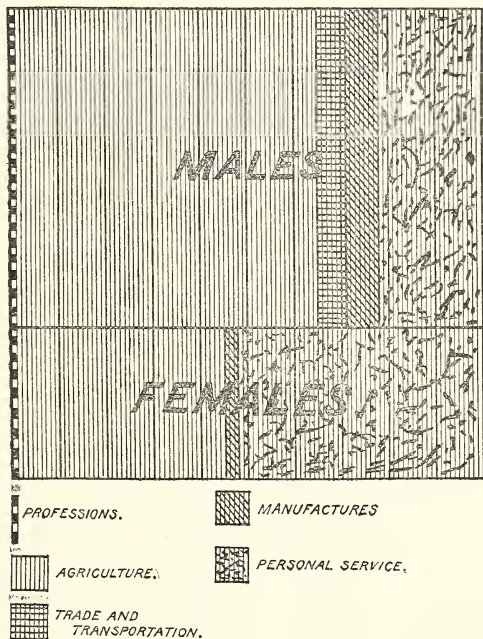


DIAGRAM NO. 2.—*Classification of the wage-earners by race and nativity and by occupations.*



These figures are also illustrated by diagram No. 3, the area of which represents all negro wage earners. The two rectangles into which it is divided represent the males and females; each of these is subdivided into rectangles representing the number in each group of occupations. Of the male negro wage earners, more than three-fifths were farmers and a little less than one-fourth were servants. The two classes jointly accounted for nearly 85 per cent of all.

DIAGRAM NO. 3.—Classification of negro wage-earners by sex and occupation.



Of the females, considerably less than one-half were farmers and more than one-half were servants—the two classes together accounting for 95 per cent of all. This large proportion of female negro farmers was doubtless made up in the main of women and female children employed in the cotton fields.

NUMBER OF WAGE EARNERS.

The following table, abstracted from the census publications, shows the number of negroes in all occupations and in each of the five great groups of occupations by sex and by States and Territories:

State or Territory.	All occupations.		Agriculture, fisheries, and mining.		Professional service.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
The United States.....	2, 101, 233	971, 890	1, 329, 584	427, 835	25, 171	8, 829
Alabama.....	192, 322	101, 085	146, 361	66, 123	1, 471	491
Alaska.....
Arizona.....	1, 091	71	29	3
Arkansas.....	86, 861	30, 115	68, 219	19, 069	1, 226	238
California.....	4, 301	1, 041	1, 084	14	86	21
Colorado.....	2, 765	792	180	4	75	13
Connecticut.....	4, 064	1, 964	879	1	61	10
Delaware.....	9, 334	3, 016	4, 157	34	97	32
District of Columbia.....	21, 238	18, 770	553	16	390	335
Florida.....	46, 302	19, 071	23, 690	7, 629	776	223
Georgia.....	246, 913	122, 352	172, 496	54, 073	2, 122	958
Idaho.....	83	23	16	1
Illinois.....	19, 270	4, 713	4, 323	134	486	116
Indiana.....	14, 648	4, 210	3, 273	37	530	126
Iowa.....	3, 615	730	973	11	78	11
Kansas.....	13, 889	3, 400	4, 171	110	357	69
Kentucky.....	76, 411	31, 255	38, 456	1, 013	1, 406	420
Louisiana.....	159, 180	83, 978	111, 820	49, 428	1, 251	355
Maine.....	409	145	104	2	8	2
Maryland.....	63, 166	32, 642	29, 516	743	640	275
Massachusetts.....	7, 593	3, 435	601	4	162	57
Michigan.....	5, 065	1, 329	1, 458	45	115	39
Minnesota.....	1, 719	383	72	2	57	13
Mississippi.....	198, 531	105, 306	167, 995	77, 925	1, 970	775
Missouri.....	43, 940	16, 715	15, 757	324	897	337
Montana.....	971	140	41	25	4
Nebraska.....	3, 741	959	242	3	63	7
Nevada.....	130	22	41	1
New Hampshire.....	242	107	60	5
New Jersey.....	16, 143	7, 738	4, 166	29	287	82
New Mexico.....	888	156	163	3	10
New York.....	23, 272	13, 064	3, 031	25	571	135
North Carolina.....	148, 370	68, 220	106, 493	33, 796	1, 619	565
North Dakota.....	146	23	35	7
Ohio.....	28, 085	7, 791	6, 201	108	617	246
Oklahoma.....	958	125	635	17	22	3
Oregon.....	536	99	106	2	23	5
Pennsylvania.....	37, 534	15, 704	4, 602	29	584	197
Rhode Island.....	2, 337	1, 362	270	2	38	18
South Carolina.....	186, 714	102, 836	149, 915	73, 588	1, 543	506
South Dakota.....	284	43	33	1	1	2
Tennessee.....	121, 016	44, 701	72, 316	12, 510	1, 736	592
Texas.....	123, 395	46, 091	85, 824	20, 758	2, 031	563
Utah.....	298	51	21	1
Vermont.....	322	109	112	1	3
Virginia.....	169, 343	71, 752	93, 745	10, 164	1, 654	911
Washington.....	902	153	250	2	16	2
West Virginia.....	11, 478	2, 623	4, 790	50	166	63
Wisconsin.....	855	265	168	4	27	11
Wyoming.....	563	75	141	58	1

Table showing the number of negroes in all occupations, etc.—Continued.

State or Territory.	Domestic and personal service.		Trade and transportation.		Manufacturing and mechanical industries.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
The United States.....	457,002	505,898	143,350	2,399	146,126	26,929
Alabama.....	25,426	33,380	9,147	140	9,917	951
Alaska.....						
Arizona.....	1,034	67	13		12	4
Arkansas.....	11,226	10,506	2,787	27	3,403	275
California.....	2,316	897	457	3	358	106
Colorado.....	1,702	715	406	5	402	55
Connecticut.....	1,925	1,781	634	7	565	165
Delaware.....	3,631	2,878	633	21	816	51
District of Columbia.....	12,680	16,734	4,776	195	2,839	1,490
Florida.....	13,229	10,421	4,106	52	4,501	746
Georgia.....	39,294	65,025	16,397	372	16,604	1,924
Idaho.....	57	21	8		2	1
Illinois.....	10,865	4,061	1,994	41	1,602	361
Indiana.....	7,950	3,849	1,426	23	1,669	175
Iowa.....	1,966	672	289	1	309	35
Kansas.....	6,898	3,077	1,148	20	1,315	124
Kentucky.....	22,649	28,916	7,381	66	6,519	840
Louisiana.....	31,609	31,292	6,045	129	8,455	2,774
Maine.....	174	128	68	2	55	11
Maryland.....	21,014	30,406	7,538	144	4,458	1,074
Massachusetts.....	4,296	2,914	1,402	34	1,132	426
Michigan.....	2,495	1,102	448	6	549	137
Minnesota.....	1,286	315	216	5	88	48
Mississippi.....	17,209	25,729	5,671	74	5,686	803
Missouri.....	18,899	15,614	4,862	44	3,525	396
Montana.....	815	122	45	1	45	13
Nebraska.....	2,743	881	323	4	370	64
Nevada.....	67	18	17	1	5	2
New Hampshire.....	81	84	24		72	23
New Jersey.....	7,715	7,339	2,111	25	1,864	263
New Mexico.....	651	150	40		24	3
New York.....	13,151	12,445	4,231	54	2,288	1,005
North Carolina.....	20,580	31,393	7,504	106	12,114	2,360
North Dakota.....	90	22	10		4	1
Ohio.....	14,814	6,955	3,027	40	3,426	442
Oklahoma.....	231	102	28	1	42	2
Oregon.....	328	81	42	1	37	10
Pennsylvania.....	22,505	14,297	5,213	104	4,630	1,077
Rhode Island.....	1,161	1,169	546	3	322	170
South Carolina.....	18,554	26,213	6,860	188	9,842	2,341
South Dakota.....	115	35	121	1	14	4
Tennessee.....	25,606	30,333	10,954	125	10,404	1,141
Texas.....	23,360	24,840	6,386	69	5,794	461
Utah.....	248	48	14	1	14	2
Vermont.....	143	102	33		31	6
Virginia.....	39,425	55,941	15,655	253	18,864	4,483
Washington.....	480	134	69		87	15
West Virginia.....	3,515	2,462	2,080	7	927	41
Wisconsin.....	481	161	74	1	105	28
Wyoming.....	313	71	31	3	20	

DIAGRAM NO. 4.—*Proportion of negro wage-earners to negro population.*

DIAGRAM NO. 5.—Grouping of the States and Territories.

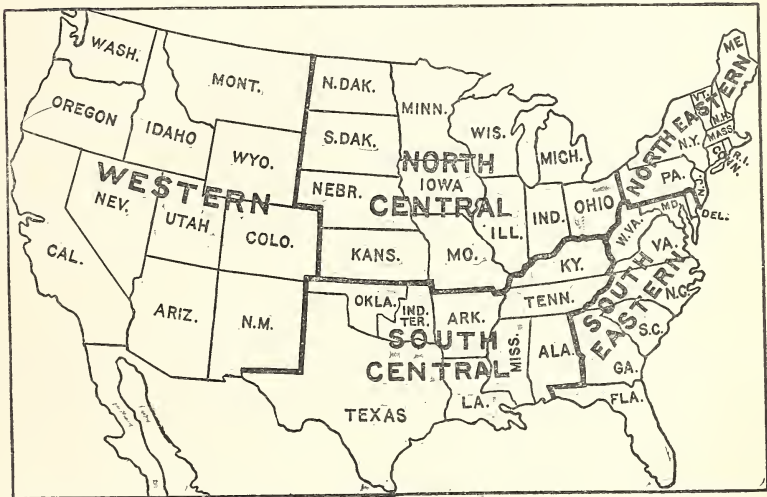
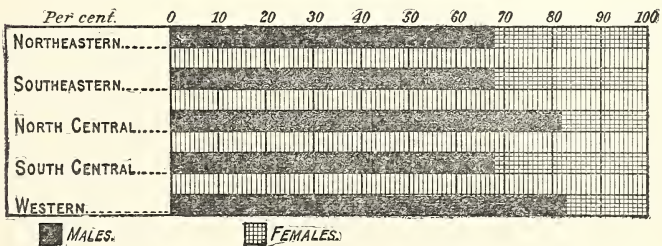


DIAGRAM NO. 6.—Proportions of male and female wage-earners.



PROPORTION OF WAGE EARNERS TO POPULATION.

The foregoing diagram No. 4 shows by the length of the bars the proportion which the negro wage earners bore in 1890 to the negro population of each State. This proportion was greatest in the States and the Territories of the West. Following these are the Northeastern States, while the lower part of the column is made up of the States in the Upper Mississippi Valley and those of the South.

OCCUPATIONS BY GROUPS OF STATES.

The distribution of wage earners among the five occupation groups differed widely in different parts of the country. To study it, it will be sufficient to group the States and analyze the statistics of each group.

The groups which will be used here are those which have been in use in the last two censuses, namely, the Northeastern and Southeastern, North Central and South Central, and Western groups. The States and Territories of which each group is composed are shown in map No. 5.

Examination of the States forming the above groups will show that the groups are in many respects very characteristic. The Southeastern and South Central groups contain nine-tenths of the negroes of the country. These States may be said to constitute the home of the negro, while in the Northern and Western States he is an immigrant.

OCCUPATIONS BY SEX AND STATE GROUPS.

Diagram No. 6 shows the distribution by sex and by groups of States of the negro wage earners. It appears that in the Northeastern, Southeastern, and South Central groups two-thirds of the wage earners were males and one-third were females, while in the North Central and Western groups about five-sixths were males and one-sixth only were females. This is in part due to the disproportionate number of males in these parts of the country.

Diagram No. 7 shows the distribution of the negro wage earners, classified by sex, among the five occupation groups and by groups of States. The length of each bar represents 100 per cent, and each bar is divided proportionately among the different occupation groups. Thus from it we read that in the Northeastern States 15 per cent of the male wage earners were engaged in agriculture, 56 per cent in personal service, 16 per cent in trade and transportation, 12 per cent in manufactures, and 2 per cent in the professions.

It is seen that a far larger proportion of male wage earners were engaged in agriculture in the Southern States than in the Northern and Western States, the proportion in the two groups of the former States being 64 and 71 per cent, while in the Northeastern States only 15 per cent were engaged in agriculture, in the North Central States 26 per cent, and in the Western States 17 per cent.

In trade and transportation the highest proportion was found in the Northeastern States, where it was 16 per cent; in the North Central States it was 14, and in the Western States 10 per cent, while in the Southeastern States it was 7 per cent and in the South Central States 7 per cent.

Of course, the magnitude of the proportion in the Northeastern States is due to the fact that this is the commercial and manufacturing section of the country, where a large proportion of all the population is engaged in these avocations. The same is the case, though in less degree, in the North Central States, while the Southern States are almost purely agricultural. The figures relating to manufacturing occupations show similar characteristics. It will be noted that in the Northern and Western States the occupations of the negroes were more diversified than in the Southern States. Agriculture and personal service in the Northeastern States occupied but 71 per cent of all wage earners, in the North Central States they occupied 75 per cent, and in the Western States 81 per cent, while in the Southeastern States these two occupation groups comprised 84 per cent and in the South Central 88 per cent of all.

The diagram shows in a similar manner the distribution of the female negro wage earners. There were engaged in agriculture in the Northern and Western States but a trifling proportion of negro women, while in the Southern States as a whole nearly one-half of the female negro wage earners were engaged in that avocation. On the other hand, personal service occupied fully nine-tenths of the female wage earners in the Northern and Western States, while in the Southern States less than one-half were engaged in it. Indeed, 94 per cent of the female wage earners of the West were engaged in personal service, 91 per cent in the Northeastern States, and 87 per cent in the North Central States. In trade and transportation the proportion was trifling and in manufactures it was small, although much larger in the North and West than in the South.

DIAGRAM NO. 7.—Distribution of occupations by sex and sections of the country.

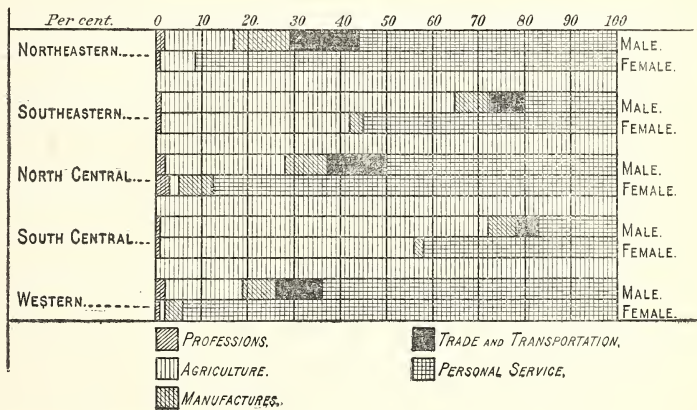
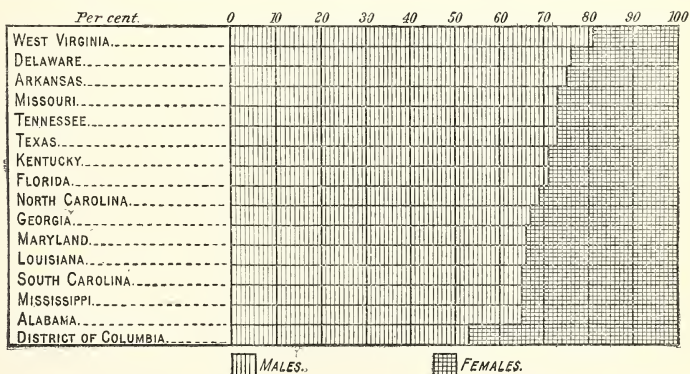


DIAGRAM NO. 8.—Proportions of males and females among the negro wage-earner.



Here also we see that agriculture and personal service occupied nearly all wage earners—91 per cent in the Northeastern States, 96 per cent in the Southeastern States, 89 per cent in the North Central States, 97 per cent in the South Central States, and 95 per cent in the Western States. Occupations were slightly more diversified in the North and West than in the Southern States, as was the case with the males.

OCCUPATIONS BY STATES.

It will now be of interest to extend this study in detail by States, but in doing so the study will be confined to the Southern, the former slave States, which are in a sense the home of the negro and in which more than nine-tenths of them live. In most of the Northern States the number of negroes is so small that any conclusions drawn from statistics regarding them are worthless and are likely to be misleading.

Diagram No. 8 shows the distribution by sex of the negro wage earners of these Southern States. The total length of the bar represents in each case all the wage earners, the white portion representing the males and the shaded portion the females.

This diagram shows that the greatest proportion of female wage earners is in the District of Columbia, where it is nearly one-half of all negro wage earners, and the least in West Virginia, where it is less than one-fifth of all. In most of the cotton States it ranges from one-fourth to one-third of all negro wage earners.

Diagrams Nos. 9 and 10 present the proportion of male and of female negro wage earners who are engaged in agriculture, personal service, and other occupations in the Southern States.

The first of these diagrams, representing male wage earners, shows that agriculture and personal service accounted for from 63 to 94 per cent of all male wage earners. Indeed, excluding the District of Columbia from consideration, from 73 to 93 per cent were accounted for by these two occupations.

Again, excluding the District of Columbia, which is not a farming community, the male wage earners who were farmers constituted in the different States proportions varying from 36 per cent in Missouri to 85 per cent in Mississippi. The proportion of farmers was highest in the cotton States and decidedly less in the border States. On the other hand, the proportion of males engaged in personal service was least in the cotton States and increased decidedly in those farther north.

The second diagram, illustrating the occupations of female wage earners, has certain features in common with that relating to males, but these features are more accented. In the cotton States a large proportion of the female wage earners worked in the fields and was therefore reported as engaged in agriculture, while in the border States but a small proportion was found there. On the other hand, domestic service claimed nearly all female wage earners in the border States, but in the cotton States a relatively small proportion.

Both the diagrams, and especially the first, show an important feature. In the cotton States wage earners were almost entirely either farmers or those engaged in personal service, but in the States farther north these classes were relatively smaller and occupations were somewhat more varied.

OWNERSHIP OF FARMS AND HOMES.

The statistics of farm and home ownership and of mortgage indebtedness of the Eleventh Census throw some light upon the pecuniary condition of the negro race.

The total number of farms and homes in the country in 1890 was 12,690,152, of which the negroes occupied 1,410,769, or 11.1 per cent. The proportion of negroes to the total population was at that time 12.20 per cent, showing a deficiency in the proportion occupying homes and farms when compared with the population.

The number of farms in the country was 4,767,179. Of these 549,642, or 11.5 per cent, were occupied by negroes, being a proportion greater than that of farms and homes combined.

The number of homes, as distinguished from farms, in the country was 7,922,973, of which 861,137, or 10.9 per cent, were occupied by negroes, being a proportion less than that of farms and homes combined.

Of the 549,632 farms in the country occupied by negroes 120,738, or 22 per cent, were owned by their occupants. The corresponding proportion for whites was 71.7 per cent. Of course, as regards tenants, the reverse was the case, the proportions being for whites 28.3 per cent and for negroes 78 per cent. More than three-fourths of the farms occupied by negroes were rented; in other words, more than three-fourths of the negro farmers were tenants, while less than one-fourth of the white farmers were tenants.

Of the farms owned by negroes 90.4 per cent were without incumbrance. Of those owned by whites 71.3 were without incumbrance, showing a much larger proportion incumbered than among those owned by negroes.

Of 861,137 homes occupied by negroes in 1890, 143,550 were owned by their occupants and 717,587 were rented, the proportions being 19 per cent and 81 per cent.

DIAGRAM NO. 9.—Proportions of male negro wage-earners engaged in agriculture, personal service, and other occupations.

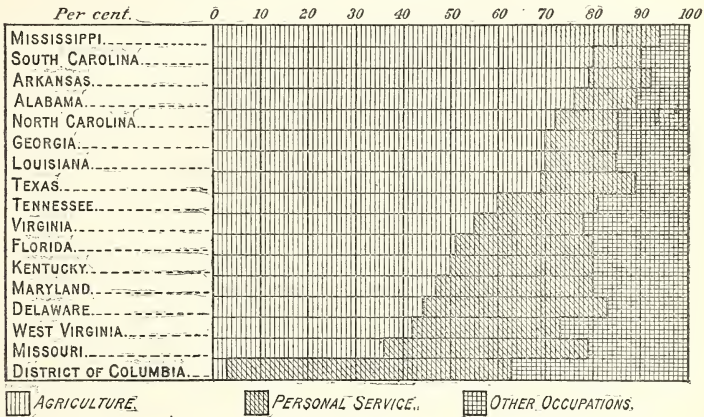
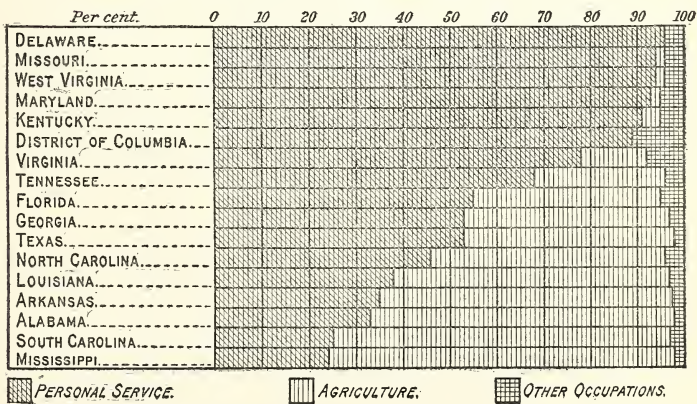


DIAGRAM NO. 10.—Proportions of female negro wage-earners engaged in personal service, agriculture, and other occupations.



Corresponding proportions for whites were 39.4 per cent and 60.6 per cent. Of the houses owned by negro occupants 126,264, or 87.7 per cent, were free, and 12.3 incumbered. Corresponding figures for whites were 71.3 and 28.7 per cent, showing, as before, a much greater proportion of free holdings among negroes than among whites.

Diagrams Nos. 11 and 12 summarize the above facts in graphic form. The total areas of the squares represent the number of farms and homes, respectively, those occupied by whites and negroes, respectively, being represented by the rectangles into which the squares are divided by horizontal lines. The vertical lines subdivide these rectangles into others proportional to the numbers occupied by owners without and with incumbrance, and by renters.

The male negroes occupied in agriculture numbered, in 1890, 1,329,584. Of these 510,619 occupied farms, the remainder, 818,965, being presumably farm laborers. The negro farmers—i. e., occupants of farms—constituted 38.3 per cent of the male negroes engaged in agriculture, leaving 61.7 per cent of the number as laborers. The corresponding figures for whites were 60.4 per cent and 39.6 per cent. The proportion of negroes engaged in agriculture who were farmers—i. e., occupied farms—was, therefore, much smaller than that of the whites. In spite of this low comparative showing, however, it must be agreed that, considering all the attendant circumstances, the proportion of negro farm occupants—more than one-third of all negroes engaged in agriculture—is unexpectedly large.

Summing up the salient points in this paper, it is seen that in the matter of occupations the negro is mainly engaged either in agriculture or personal service. He has, in a generation, made little progress in manufactures, transportation, or trade. In these two groups of occupations males are in greater proportion engaged in agriculture and females in domestic service. They have, however, during this generation, made good progress toward acquiring property, especially in the form of homes and farms, and, in just so far as they have acquired possession of real estate, it is safe to say that they have become more valuable as citizens. The outlook for them is very favorable as agriculturists, but there is little prospect that the race will become an important factor in manufactures, transportation, or commerce.

IV.

A STATISTICAL SKETCH OF THE NEGROES IN THE UNITED STATES.

[By Henry Gannett, of the United States Geological Survey.]

From the time of the earliest settlement upon these shores the United States has contained two elements of population, the white race and the negro race. These two races have together peopled this country, increasing partly by accessions to their numbers from abroad and partly by natural increase, until to-day (1894) the white race numbers probably 61,000,000 and the negroes 8,000,000. The history of the latter race, thus brought into close association with a more civilized and stronger people for two and three-fourths centuries, is one of surpassing interest. Unfortunately, however, this history, for the earlier part of the period, is, with the exception of a few fragments, utterly lost. For the last century, however, since the year 1790, the date of the first United States census, we have, at ten-year intervals, pictures of the distribution of the race and considerable information regarding its social condition.

SLAVE TRADE.

The slave trade flourished actively up to the close of the last century, and indeed it did not entirely cease until the year 1808. It was mainly in the hands of the English, including their North American colonies. It was a large and flourishing business for the shipowners of New England.

Of the number of slaves brought from Africa to this country, either directly or by way of the West India Islands, we have very little information. Prior to 1788 there are no records, and since that time the records of the slave trade do not distinguish between the slaves brought to the United States and those to other parts of America.

Of the number of slaves in this country in colonial times the information is almost equally scanty, consisting of little more than estimates by different historical writers. Of these, Bancroft's are perhaps as reliable as any. His estimates of the number of negroes at different times are as follows:

1750.....	220,000	1770.....	462,000
1754.....	260,000	1780.....	562,000
1760.....	310,000		

DIAGRAM No. 11.—Farms.

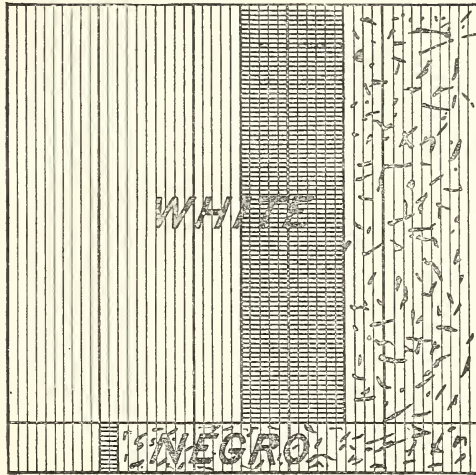
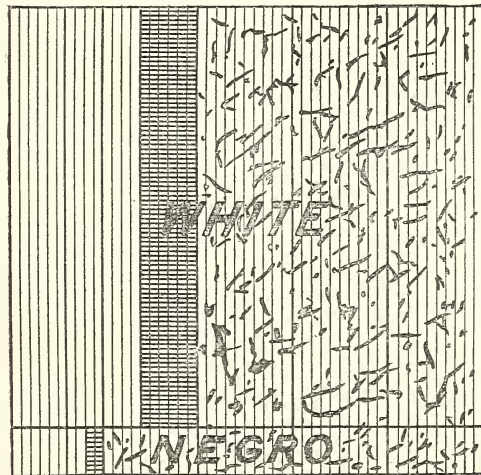


DIAGRAM No. 12.—Homes.



OWNED BY OCCUPANTS WITHOUT INCUMBRANCE.



OWNED WITH INCUMBRANCE.



RENTED.

NUMBERS OF EACH RACE.

In 1790 we have the first reliable data regarding the number and distribution of the negroes. The total number of each race at this and each succeeding decennial enumeration is shown in the following table:

Census year.	White.	Negro.	Census year.	White.	Negro.
1790	3, 172, 006	757, 208	1850	19, 553, 068	3, 638, 808
1800	4, 306, 446	1, 002, 037	1860	26, 922, 537	4, 441, 830
1810	5, 802, 073	1, 377, 808	1870	33, 589, 377	4, 880, 009
1820	7, 862, 166	1, 771, 656	1880	43, 402, 970	6, 580, 793
1830	10, 537, 378	2, 328, 642	1890	54, 983, 890	7, 470, 040
1840	14, 195, 805	2, 873, 648			

From this it appears that the whites have increased in a century from a little over 3,000,000 to nearly 55,000,000, and the negroes from three-fourths of a million to about 7,500,000. The whites were in 1890 nearly eighteen times as numerous as in 1790, the negroes nearly ten times as numerous.

The diagram constituting Plate I presents the same facts in graphic form. In each case the total length of the bar is proportional to the total population in the year indicated. The white portion of each bar represents the white population of the country, while the shaded portion represents the negro population.

The tables and diagram illustrate the rapid growth of the country in population, both of its white and its negro element.

PROPORTIONS OF EACH RACE.

The following table shows the proportions in which the total population was made up of these two elements at each census, expressed in percentages of the total population:

Census year.	White.	Negro.	Census year.	White.	Negro.
1790	80. 73	19. 27	1850	84. 31	15. 69
1800	81. 12	18. 88	1860	85. 62	14. 13
1810	80. 97	19. 03	1870	87. 11	12. 66
1820	81. 61	18. 39	1880	86. 54	13. 12
1830	81. 90	18. 10	1890	87. 80	11. 93
1840	83. 16	16. 84			

This table and Plate II show that on the whole the negroes have diminished decidedly in proportion to the whites. In 1790 they formed 19.27 per cent, or very nearly one-fifth of the whole population. At the end of this century they constituted only 11.93 per cent, or less than one-eighth of the population. At the end of the century their proportion was less than two-thirds as large as at the beginning. Moreover, this diminution in the proportion has been almost unbroken from the beginning to the end of the century. The proportion of the negroes has apparently increased in only two out of eleven censuses, namely, in 1810, immediately after the cessation of the slave trade, and in 1880. I say apparently, because in the latter case the increase is only apparent, due to a deficient enumeration of this race in the census preceding, namely, that of 1870.

RATES OF INCREASE.

The following table and the diagram accompanying it show the rates of increase of the negroes during each of the ten-year periods for the last century, and placed in juxtaposition therewith for comparison are the rates of increase of the whites of the entire country:

Decade.	Percentage of increase.		Decade.	Percentage of increase.	
	White.	Negro.		White.	Negro.
1790 to 1800	35. 76	32. 33	1840 to 1850	37. 74	26. 63
1800 to 1810	36. 12	37. 50	1850 to 1860	37. 69	22. 07
1810 to 1820	34. 12	28. 59	1860 to 1870	24. 76	9. 86
1820 to 1830	34. 03	31. 44	1870 to 1880	29. 22	34. 85
1830 to 1840	34. 72	23. 40	1880 to 1890	26. 68	13. 51

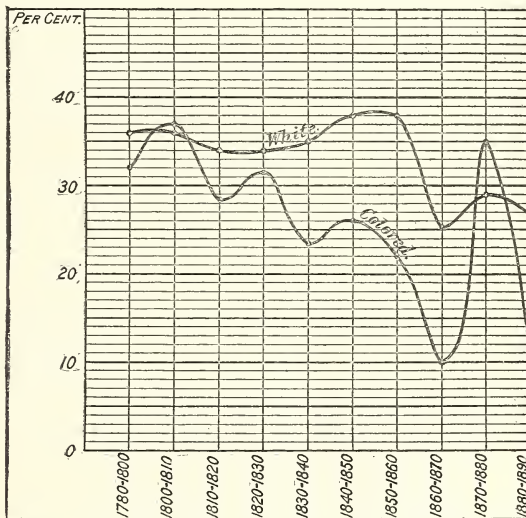
This table and diagram show that, with the exception of two ten-year periods, namely, those from 1800 to 1810 and 1870 to 1880, the negro element has in every case increased at a less rapid rate than the white element, and in many cases its rate of increase has been very much smaller.

Thus a comparison of the numerical progress of the negroes with that of the whites in the country, as a whole, shows that the former have not held their own, but have constantly fallen behind. They have not increased as rapidly as the whites.

It may be said that this is due to the enormous immigration which certain parts of the country have received, an immigration composed entirely of whites. This suggestion can easily be tested. White immigration on a considerable scale began about 1847. Prior to that time it was not of importance. We may then divide the century into two equal parts and contrast the relative rates of increase of the races during those half centuries. Between 1790 and 1840 the whites increased 4.5 times, the negroes 3.8 times. The latter element had diminished in relative importance in this half century from about one-fifth of the population to one-sixth.

In the succeeding fifty years the whites had increased 3.9 times, and the colored 2.6 times only. In other words, the greater increase of the whites has not been dependent upon immigration, since their rate of increase was greater than that of the negroes before immigration set in.

Rates of increase of white and negro population.



These figures, and the conclusions necessarily derived from them, should set at rest forever all fears regarding any possible conflict between the two races. We have before us the testimony of a century to show us that the negroes, while in no danger of extinction, while increasing at a rate probably more rapid than in any other part of the earth, are yet increasing less rapidly than the white people of the country, and to demonstrate that the latter will become more and more numerically the dominant race in America. Whether the negro will, through an improvement in his social condition, become of greater importance relatively to his numbers is a matter to be discussed later.

CENTER OF POPULATION.

The center of population, as it is called, may be described as the center of gravity of the inhabitants as they are distributed at the time under consideration, each inhabitant being supposed to have the same weight and to press downward with a force proportional to his distance from this center.

The center of population of all the inhabitants of the United States has been computed for each census. At the time of the first census, in 1790, the center of population was found to be in Maryland, on the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay, nearly opposite Baltimore. The general westward movement of population has caused a corresponding westward movement of this center, such movement following very

PLATE I.—Total population and white and negro elements.

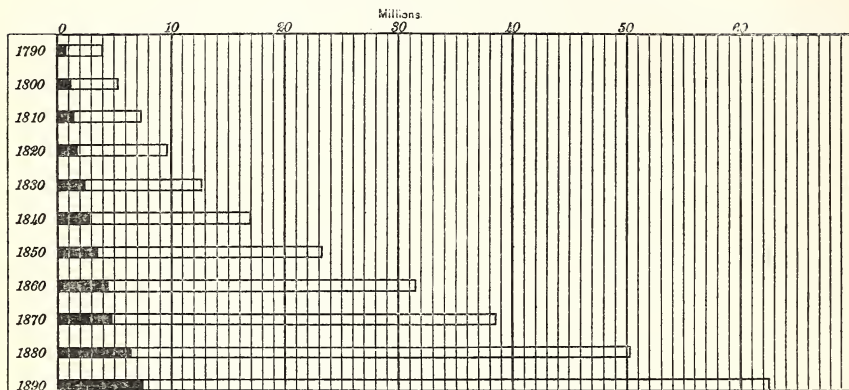
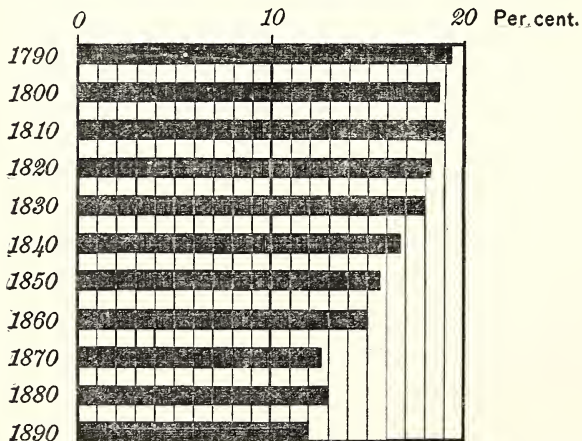


PLATE II.—Proportion of the negro element to the total population.



nearly the line of the thirty-ninth parallel of north latitude. In 1880 the center of the total population was found on the south bank of the Ohio River, nearly opposite Cincinnati, and in 1890 it was found in southern Indiana, 20 miles east of Columbus, in latitude 39° 12' and in longitude 85° 33'.

The center of the negro population has been computed in 1880 and in 1890. At the first of these dates it was found in latitude 34° 42' and in longitude 81° 58'. This position is in the northwestern corner of Georgia, not far from Dalton. In 1890 it was found to have moved southwestward into latitude 34° 26' and longitude 85° 18', being not far from the boundary between Alabama and Georgia and a few miles west of Rome, Ga. The longitude of the center of the negro population was very nearly the same as that of the total population, but in latitude it was nearly 5 degrees, or more than 300 miles, south of it. The positions of the center of total population and of the negro population in 1880 and in 1890 are shown upon the map which constitutes Plate VI.

The movements of the center of population are the net resultant of all the movements of population. During the past decade the negroes have moved in all directions, north, south, east, and west; but, as indicated by the movement of the center, the net resultant of their movements has been toward the southwest. As a whole this element moved in a southwesterly direction a distance of about 25 miles.

FREE NEGROES AND SLAVES.

Prior to 1870 the negro element, as returned by the successive censuses, was made up of two parts, free negroes and slaves. The proportions of these elements differed at different times, as is shown by the following table:

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1860.
Per cent which free negroes bore to all negroes....	8	11	13.5	13	14	13	12	11
Per cent of all free negroes found in former slave States.....	55	56	58	57	57	56	55	54
Per cent of all free negroes found in free States....	45	44	42	43	43	44	45	46

From this it appears that the free negroes constituted in 1790 only 8 per cent of all negroes, that the proportion increased rapidly to 1830, when they constituted not less than 14 per cent, and from that time the proportion diminished, until in 1860 they constituted 11 per cent of all negroes.

Moreover, the proportions of the free negroes found within the slave States and the free States differed at different times. More than half of the free negroes were found within the former slave States and less than one-half within the free States, and the proportion of free negroes found in the former slave States ranged from 54 per cent in 1860 to 58 per cent in 1810.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE NEGRO ELEMENT.

The negroes are distributed very unequally over the country. While they are found in every State and Territory and in almost every county of the land, the vast body of them are found in the Southern States, in those States lying south of Mason and Dixon's line, the Ohio River, the northern boundary of Missouri, and westward as far as Texas and Arkansas. The two maps on Plate III illustrate their distribution, State by State, over the country. One of these maps shows their density—that is, the average number in each square mile. It is an absolute measure of their numbers in different parts of the country. It is seen that they are the most plentiful in Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, and Mississippi, and secondarily in North Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia, Alabama, and Louisiana. On the other hand, in nearly all the Northern and Western States they are very sparsely distributed, there being in these States, with scarcely an exception, less than four of them to a square mile, while in many of them there is less than one to a square mile.

The other map shows the proportion which the negro element bears to the total population, State by State. This is a measure of its importance relative to the whites. From this map it is seen that in three States, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina, more than half the people are negroes. Indeed, in South Carolina three out of every five of the inhabitants are of this race. It is seen further that in all the States along the Atlantic and Gulf, from Virginia to Louisiana, together with Arkansas, more than one-fourth of the people are negroes, while, on the other hand, throughout the entire North and West the proportion of negroes is less than 5 per cent, and in many of the States it is less than 1 per cent of the total population.

PROPORTION OF THE NEGROES IN THE SLAVE STATES.

The distribution of the negro race may be still more closely characterized by the statement that in 1890 there were found in the former slave States not less than 92 per cent of all negroes. This proportion has differed at different times during the last century, as is shown in the following table:

Proportion of total negro element comprised in former slave States.

Year.	Per cent.	Year.	Per cent.	Year.	Per cent.
1790	91	1830	93	1870	93
1800	91	1840	94	1880	93
1810	92	1850	95	1890	92
1820	93	1860	95		

From this table it will be seen that at the commencement of this history the former slave States contained 91 per cent of the negroes of the country. As time wore on this proportion increased, until in 1850 and 1860 they comprised 95 per cent, or nineteen-twentieths of all, while since that date, i. e., during the period of freedom of the race, it has shown a slight tendency northward, the proportion in the former slave States having become reduced, as above stated, to 92 per cent.

THE NEGROES OF THE SLAVE STATES.

In the above pages the history of the negroes has been traced in a broad, general way, and compared with that of the entire population and the white element of the country. The history is more or less complicated with the results of immigration, and with other disturbing factors, which have affected mainly the North and West. We may now, without serious error, confine our study of the race to the Southern States, the former slaveholding States, in which are found more than nine-tenths of the whole number of the negroes. The movement of these people from the South into the North has been inconsiderable, and there has been but little movement of the whites in either direction across the boundary line between the sections. The South has received little immigration either from the North or from Europe, and the emigration from it has been unimportant. So far as emigration and immigration are concerned, it has been throughout our history almost isolated from the rest of the world. So we may, without serious error, study the relations of the whites and blacks of this region by itself, without reference to other parts of the country.

PROPORTIONS OF THE RACES.

The following table and accompanying diagram (Pl. IV) show the proportions in which the population of this part of the United States was composed at each census for the past hundred years.

Proportions in which the population of former slave States was made up.

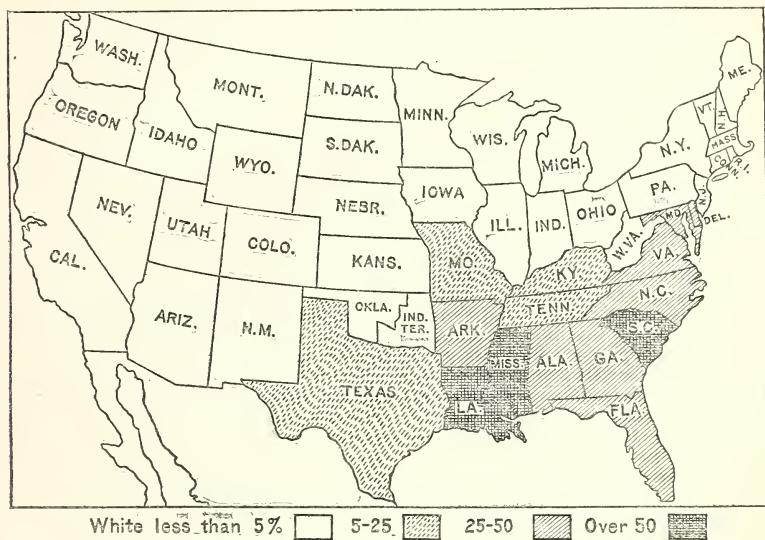
Census year.	White.	Negro.	Census year.	White.	Negro.
1790	65	35	1850	64	36
1800	65	35	1860	66	34
1810	63	37	1870	68	32
1820	63	37	1880	67	33
1830	63	37	1890	69	31
1840	63	37			

It appears from the above table that a century ago the population of the South was made up of whites and negroes in the proportions of 65 and 35 per cent, and that in 1890 the proportions were 69 and 31 per cent. The proportion of negroes increased from 1790 to 1810, when it reached 37 per cent, leaving only 63 per cent as the proportion of the whites, and remained practically stationary for three decades. Since 1840 the proportion of negroes has diminished.

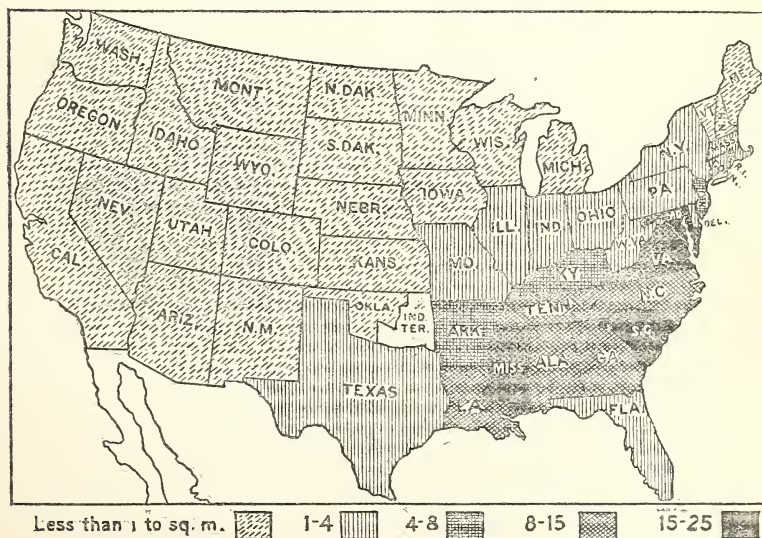
RATES OF INCREASE.

The following table, showing the rates of increase of the two races for each ten-year period during the past century, leads to a similar conclusion—that is, that for a half century the negroes increased more rapidly than the whites, while during the last half century they have increased less rapidly.

PLATE III.—Proportion of negroes to total population in 1890.



Density of negro population in 1890.



Rates of increase of white and negro elements of former slave States.

From—	White.	Negro.	From—	White.	Negro.
1790 to 1800.....	34	33	1840 to 1850.....	34	27
1800 to 1810.....	30	39	1850 to 1860.....	30	22
1810 to 1820.....	28	30	1860 to 1870.....	17	8
1820 to 1830.....	29	32	1870 to 1880.....	33	34
1830 to 1840.....	27	24	1880 to 1890.....	24	13

THE NEGROES IN CITIES.

It is well known that as the population of a State or country increases such increase goes in constantly rising proportion into its cities; in other words, that urban population increases at a more rapid rate than the total population, especially after the population has passed a certain average density. This country presents an excellent example of this tendency of population toward the cities. At the time of the first census only $3\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of the total population was in cities of 8,000 inhabitants or more, while in 1890, a century later, the proportion in cities had increased to over 29 per cent. The total population of the country had become very nearly 16 times as great, while its urban element had become 139 times as great. The latter had increased more than 8 times as rapidly as the former.

Having thus illustrated the general tendency of the people toward cities, it will be instructive to see how the negroes have behaved in this regard. In measuring their appetency for urban life I shall consider only the population of the former slave States, and shall contrast the negro with the white element of those States in this regard. I shall follow the practice of the Census Office also in considering as urban the inhabitants of cities of 8,000 or more.

In cities of 8,000 inhabitants or more there were found in 1860 only 4.2 per cent of the negroes of these States, while of the whites 10.9 per cent were found at that time in these cities. The violent social changes attendant upon the war produced, among other results, an extensive migration of negroes to the cities, so that in 1870 the proportion of them found in cities had more than doubled, being no less than 8.5 per cent, while of the whites there were found 13.1 per cent. In 1880 the proportion of negroes in cities had diminished to 8.4 per cent, while that of the whites had also diminished, being 12.4 per cent.

The census of 1890 shows a decided increase in the proportion of each race in the cities, that of the negroes being 12 per cent, and that of the whites being 15.7 per cent.

Thus it is seen that the proportion of the negroes in the cities has in every case been less than that of the whites, but that they have gained upon the whites in this regard. This gain is, however, very slight and is probably not significant. While the negro is extremely gregarious and is by that instinct drawn toward the great centers of population, on the other hand, he is not fitted either by nature or education for those vocations for the pursuit of which men collect in cities—that is, for manufactures and commerce. The inclinations of this race, drawn from its inheritance, tend to keep it wedded to the soil, and the probabilities are that as cities increase in these States in number and size, and with them manufactures and commerce develop, the great body of the negroes will continue to remain aloof from them and cultivate the soil as heretofore.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION.

The geographical environment of the negro has been made a subject of careful study by the Census Office, and many interesting facts regarding its distribution with reference to topography, altitude, rainfall, and temperature have been developed.

It is found that more than 17 per cent of them live in the low, swampy regions of the Atlantic Coast and in the alluvial region in the Mississippi Valley. This proportion contrasts sharply with that of the total population, of which only 4 per cent are found in these regions. Upon the Atlantic plain the proportion of negroes is also much greater than that of the total population, and, generally speaking, it may be said that they seek low, moist regions and avoid mountainous country. This peculiarity of their distribution is brought out more forcibly in their distribution with reference to elevation above sea level. At an altitude less than 100 feet above the sea there are found nearly one-fourth of the negroes, while only about one-sixth of the total population is in these regions. Below 500 hundred feet are found seven-tenths, while nearly two-fifths of the total population are found at this altitude. Again, below 1,000 feet there are found 94.5 per cent of all the negroes of the country, while of the total population there are found only 77 per cent below that altitude.

PLATE IV.—Proportion which negroes of former slave States bore to population of those States.

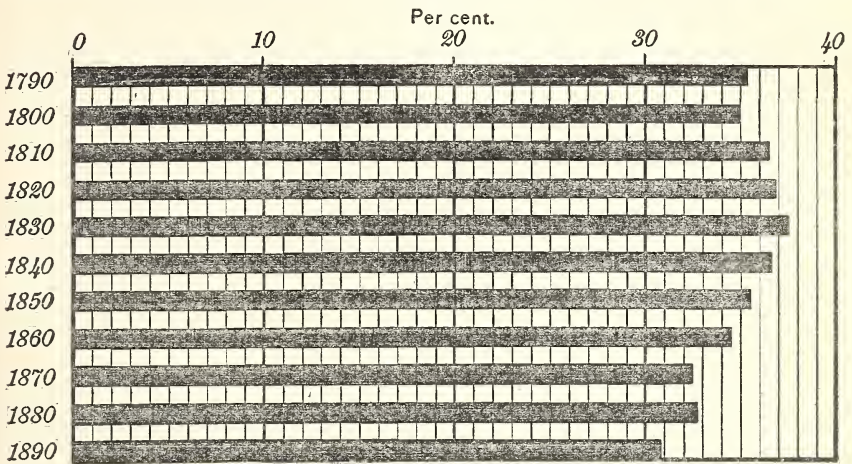
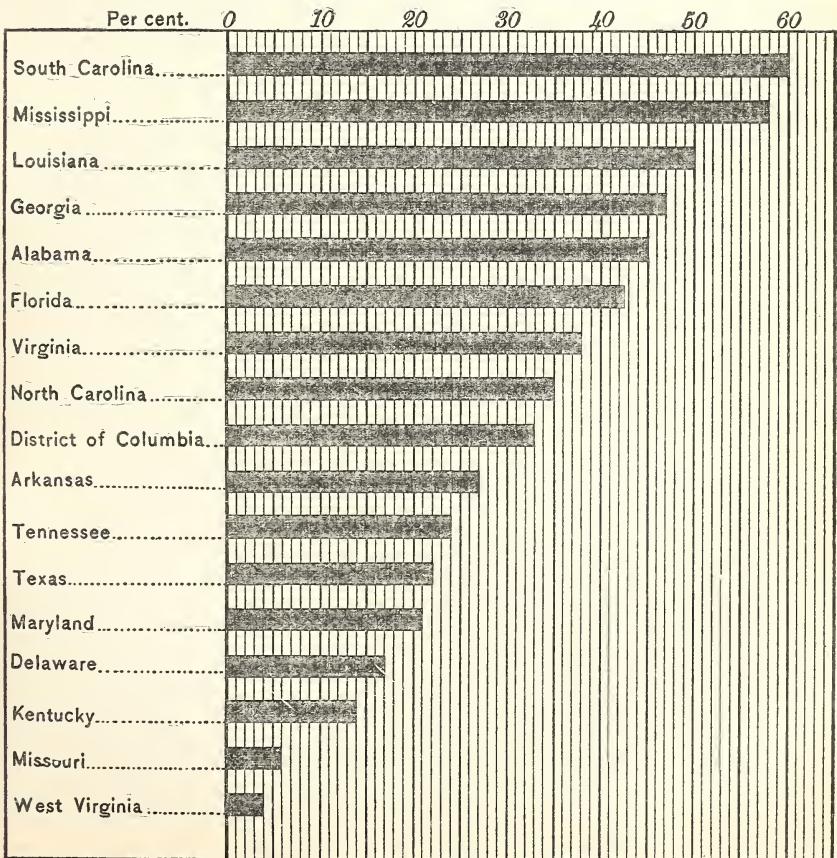


PLATE V^a.—Proportion of negroes to total population in 1890.



It is, of course, well known that the negroes prefer higher temperatures than the white race. A measure of this is given by the statement that while the total population lives, on an average, under a mean annual temperature of 53° F., that under which the negro lives is, on an average, 61° , or not less than 8° higher. The great body of the negroes live where the mean annual temperature ranges from 55° to 70° , very nearly 85 per cent of this element being found within the region thus defined.

Nothing perhaps more sharply characterizes the difference in the habitat of the negroes and the element of foreign birth than the difference in temperature conditions under which they are found, a difference which may be characterized by the following statement: In those regions where the annual temperature exceeds 55° are found seven-eighths of the negroes. On the other hand, in those regions where the temperature is less than 55° are found nine-tenths of the foreign born.

Those who are acquainted with the relations between the distribution of population and rainfall over the surface of the country are aware that the great body of the negroes is found in regions of heavy rainfall. Indeed, more than nine-tenths of their numbers are found where it exceeds 40 inches annually, and more than three-fifths where it exceeds 50 inches. These figures are greatly in excess of those concerning the total population.

HISTORY OF THE NEGRO IN EACH SLAVE STATE.

Thus far the distribution and history of the race have been considered broadly. It will now be of interest to take up each of the former slave States individually and trace the history of the race within its limits. This is summarized in the following table and group of diagrams (Pl. V), which present in each of the former slave States the proportion which the negro element bore to the total population at each census.

For economy of space the black bars representing the proportions in the diagrams are not extended to their full length, so the lengths of the bars do not represent the absolute percentage which the negroes bear to the total population. Since we are interested mainly in the relative lengths of the different bars of each State, and not in comparing those of one State with those of another, this is a matter of no consequence.

In Delaware the proportion of negroes in 1790 was about 22 per cent. This proportion increased gradually until 1840, when it was 25 per cent. Since then it has diminished, and in 1890 was about 17 per cent. In Maryland over one-third of the population were negroes in 1790. The proportion increased and reached a maximum in 1810, when it was 38 per cent. Since then it has diminished, and in 1890 was but 21 per cent. In the District of Columbia the proportion of negroes in 1800, the first year of record, was about 29 per cent. It reached its maximum with 33 per cent in 1810, and from that time steadily diminished until the opening of the civil war. In 1860 the proportion was 19 per cent. During the war large numbers of negroes took refuge within the capital, increasing the proportion to about one-third of the total population, which ratio has been maintained.

In Kentucky one-sixth of the population were negroes in 1790. The proportion increased until 1830, when it was about one-fourth of the population, since which time it has diminished and is at present but 14 per cent.

In Tennessee only one-tenth of the population were negroes at the time of the first census. That proportion steadily increased for 90 years, reaching its maximum in 1880, when it slightly exceeded one-fourth of the population. In the last ten years it has diminished a trifle.

The first report of population regarding Missouri was made in 1810. At that time about one-sixth of the inhabitants were negroes. In 1830 the proportion was slightly greater. Since then it has diminished rapidly, and in 1890 the negroes constituted less than 6 per cent of the population.

In the State of Virginia the negroes constituted in 1790 not less than 41 per cent of the inhabitants, and their proportion increased slightly for twenty years, reaching a maximum in 1810 of over 43 per cent. Since that time it has diminished steadily, and in 1890 constituted but $27\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, taking the States of Virginia and West Virginia together.

All the above are border States, and all, with the exception of Tennessee and the District of Columbia, show a similar history. They show an increase in the proportion for two, three, or four of the earlier decades, and then a constant and great diminution in the proportion. The other States show a very different history. North Carolina, starting with 27 per cent, has increased slowly and with some slight oscillations up to 1880, when the proportion reached 38 per cent. In the last decade it has diminished. South Carolina, starting with 44 per cent, increased her proportion until 1880, when more than three-fifths of the population were negroes. Since then there has been a trifling diminution. Georgia started with 36 per cent, and with

some slight oscillations continued to increase until 1880. Within the last ten years there has been a slight reduction. In Florida the oscillations have been considerable. The history commenced with 1830, when 47 per cent of the population were negroes. It reached a maximum of 49 per cent at the next census, followed by a diminution for two decades. Then in 1870 it rose again to 49 per cent, since which time it has diminished rapidly, especially during the decade between 1880 and 1890. The history of Alabama commenced in 1820, when one-third of her people were negroes. The proportion increased up to 1870, and since then has diminished. Mississippi's history began in 1800, when 41 per cent of her people were negroes, and with some slight oscillations the proportion has increased up to the present time. The history of Louisiana commenced in 1810, when 55 per cent of her population were negroes. Her history has been a diversified one, the maximum proportion of this race being reached in 1830, with 59 per cent. Since that time it has, on the whole, diminished, and in 1890 half the people of the State were negroes. The history of Texas began in 1850, when 28 per cent of her people were negroes. The proportion increased for two decades, when it reached 31 per cent. Since that time it has diminished rapidly, owing largely to immigration to the central parts of the State. The history of Arkansas begins in 1820, when a little less than one-eighth of its people were negroes. The proportion has increased almost continuously from that time to the present, and in 1890 the negroes formed 27 per cent of the total population.

Thus it is seen that in the cotton States the proportion of the negro element has in nearly all cases increased until a very recent time. Indeed, in two or three of them it has increased up to the time of the last census, while in most of them the only diminution in the proportion has occurred during the last ten years. All this indicates in the most unmistakable terms a general southward migration of this race. As compared with the whites, the border States have lost in proportion of negroes for the past half century, while the cotton States have continued to gain until very recently.

Percentage of negroes to total population.

State.	1890.	1880.	1870.	1860.	1850.	1840.	1830.	1820.	1810.	1800.	1790.
Delaware.....	16.85	18.04	18.23	19.27	22.25	25.00	24.95	24.01	23.82	22.44	21.64
Maryland.....	20.69	22.49	22.46	24.01	28.32	32.30	34.88	36.12	38.22	36.66	34.74
District of Columbia.	32.80	33.55	32.96	19.07	26.59	29.87	30.81	31.55	33.07	28.57
Kentucky.....	14.42	16.46	16.82	20.44	22.49	24.31	24.73	22.95	20.24	18.59	17.03
Tennessee.....	24.37	26.14	25.61	25.50	24.52	22.74	21.43	19.60	17.52	13.16	10.59
Missouri.....	5.61	6.70	6.86	10.03	13.20	15.58	18.33	15.78	17.23
Virginia and West Virginia	27.51	30.85	31.84	34.59	37.06	40.23	42.69	43.38	43.41	41.57	40.86
North Carolina	34.07	37.96	36.56	36.42	36.36	35.64	35.93	34.38	32.24	29.35	26.81
South Carolina	59.85	60.70	58.93	58.59	58.93	56.41	55.03	52.77	48.40	43.21	43.72
Georgia.....	46.74	47.02	46.04	44.05	42.44	41.03	42.57	51.41	42.40	37.14	35.93
Florida.....	42.46	47.01	48.84	44.63	46.02	48.71	47.06
Alabama.....	44.84	47.53	47.69	45.40	44.73	43.26	38.48	33.19
Mississippi.....	57.58	57.47	53.65	55.28	51.24	52.33	48.44	44.10	42.94	41.48
Louisiana.....	49.99	51.46	50.10	49.49	50.65	55.04	58.54	52.01	55.18
Texas.....	21.84	24.71	30.97	30.27	27.54
Arkansas.....	27.40	26.25	25.22	25.55	22.73	20.91	15.52	11.76

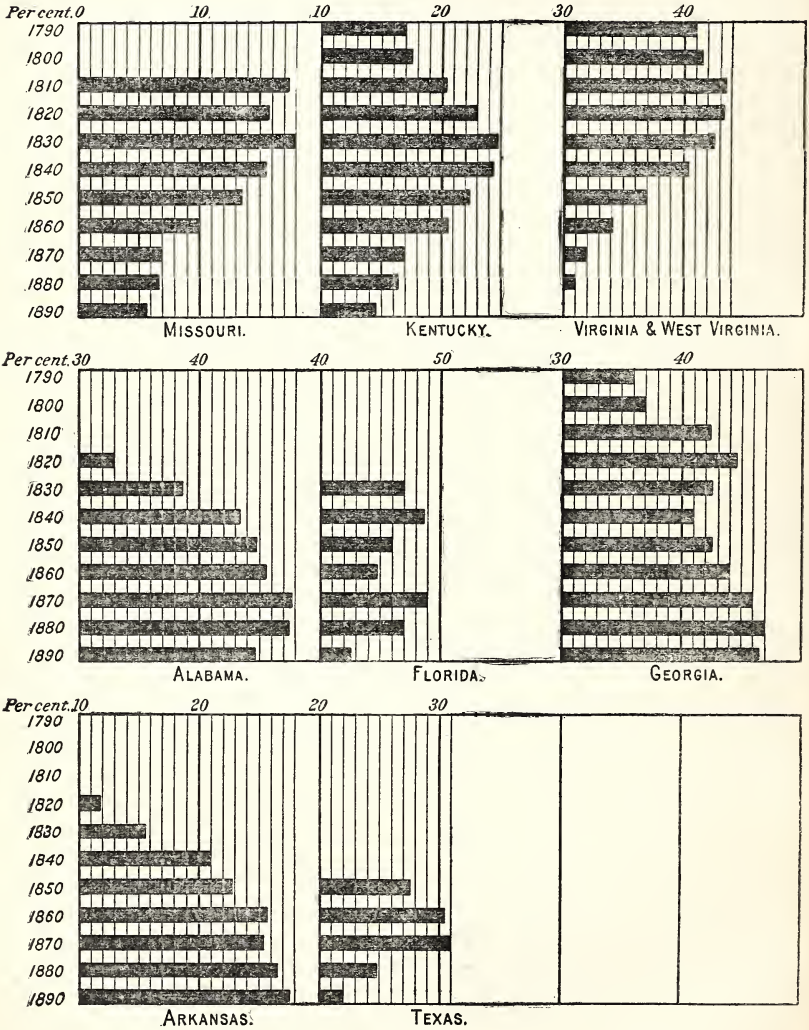
DETAILS OF MOVEMENTS OF NEGROES BETWEEN 1880 AND 1890.

The map on Pl. VI shows the movements of this race in detail during the ten years between 1880 and 1890, within the former slave States. The northern part of Missouri and western Texas are not represented upon this map, inasmuch as the number of negroes in these regions is not large.

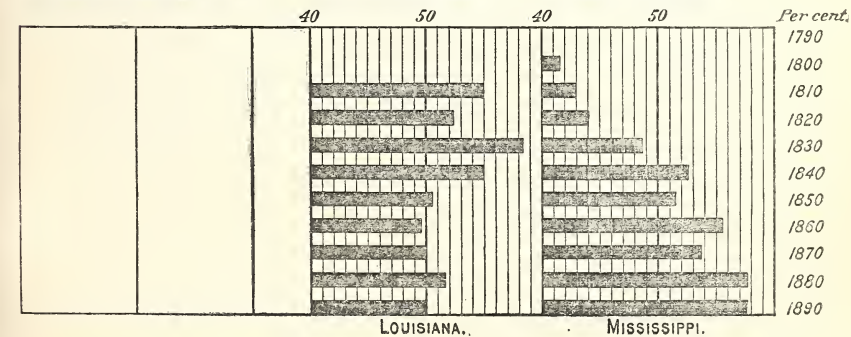
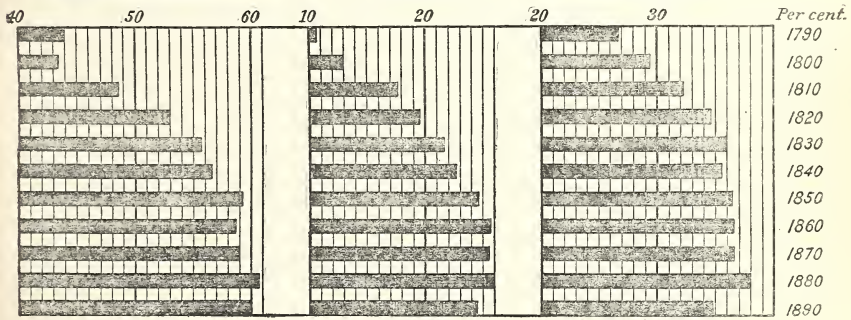
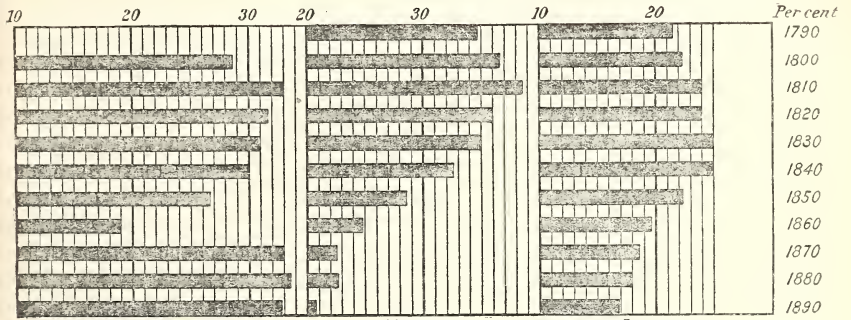
The areas upon this map which have the darkest shade are those in which the number of negroes has absolutely diminished during the decade in question. The areas in the lightest tint are those in which the negroes have increased, but at a rate less than the increase of the same element in the country at large. The areas of medium tint are those in which the negroes have increased more rapidly than in the country at large.

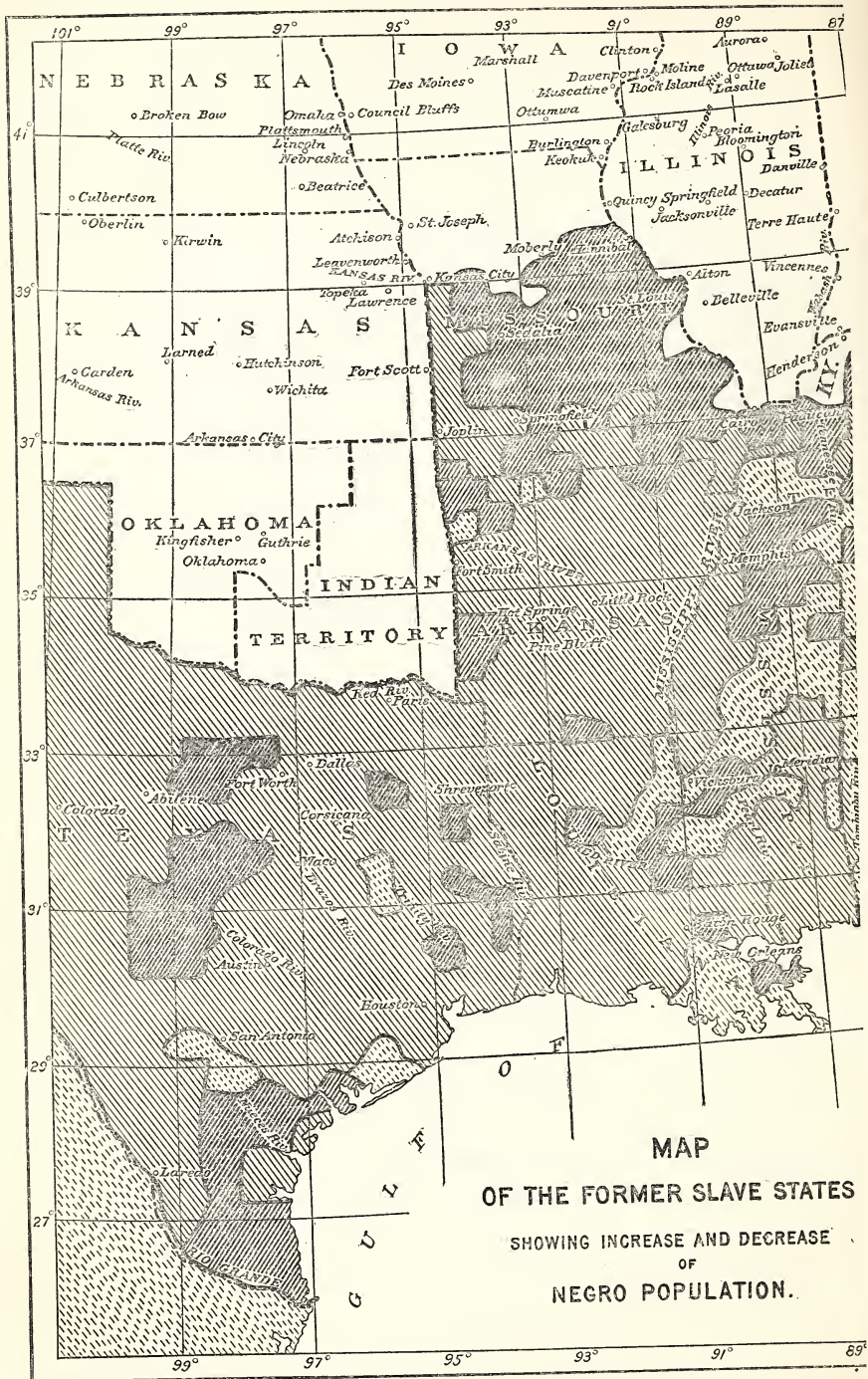
It is seen at once that the areas in which the negroes have decreased are mainly comprised in the northern of these States, principally in Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri, and secondarily in Tennessee and North Carolina. There are also areas of decrease in Texas and small areas in the other States, but these are of little importance in comparison with the great areas of the border States in which the number of negroes has actually diminished.

PLATE V.—Percentage of negroes to total population in

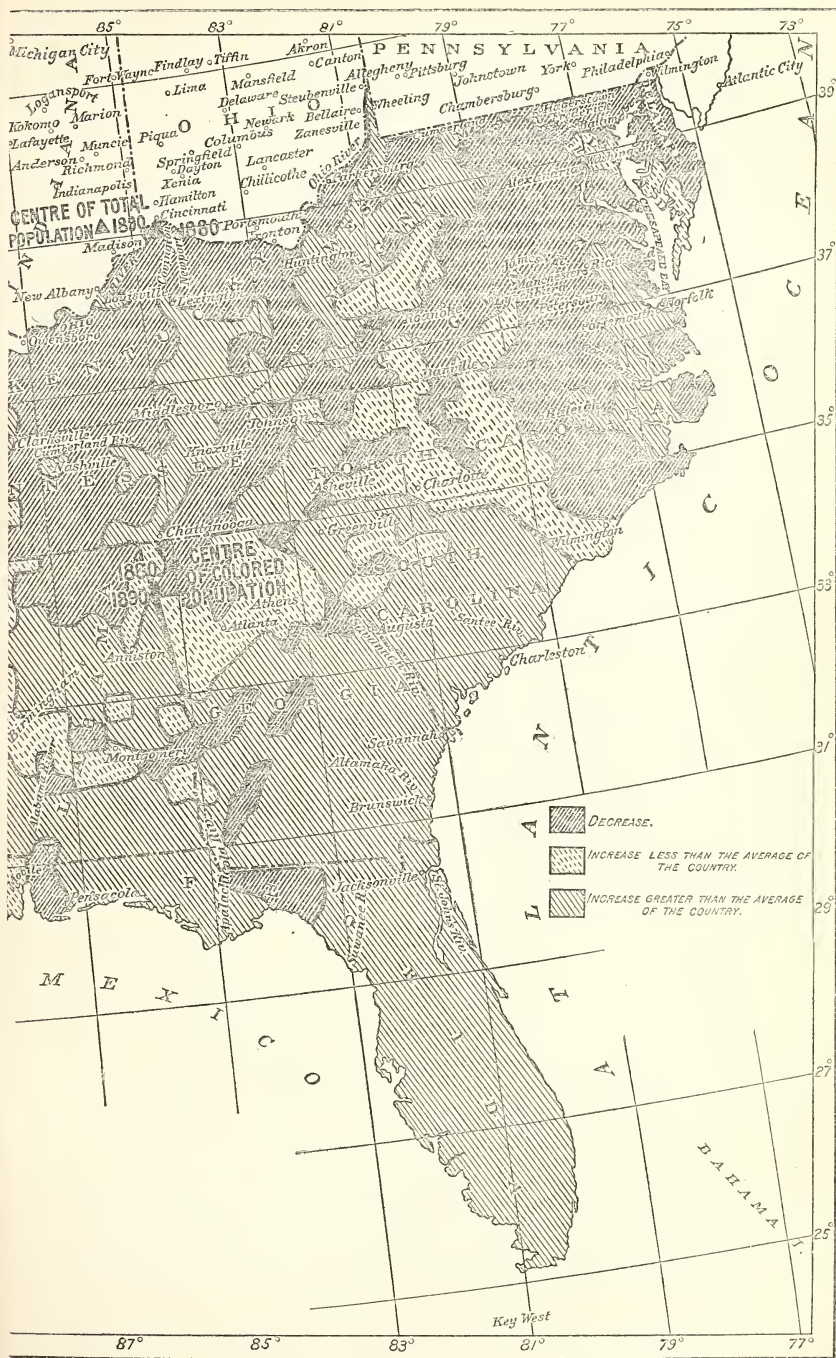


each of the Southern States at each census, 1790 to 1890.





MAP
OF THE FORMER SLAVE STATES
 SHOWING INCREASE AND DECREASE
 OF
NEGRO POPULATION.



On the other hand, the areas in which the negroes have increased more rapidly than in the country at large are found mainly in the southern parts of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and eastern Texas, with nearly all of Arkansas and Florida. In other words, the most rapid increase of the race has been in the southern and western parts of the region under consideration. There does not appear to be any decided movement into the "Black Belt," which traverses the central part of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. Indeed, the heaviest increase is south of this region.

CONJUGAL CONDITION.

The conjugal condition of the negroes is set forth for the first time in the reports of the Eleventh Census. With the exception of the matter of divorce, it is summarized in the following diagram (Pl. VII). This shows the proportion of males and females at various ages who were single, married, or widowed. It shows that under the age of 15 there are practically no marriages among the race. Between 15 and 20 a small proportion, perhaps about 1 per cent, of males were married and 14 per cent of the females. At ages between 20 and 25 a third of the males and nearly three-fifths of the females were married, and with advancing age a constantly increasing proportion of both sexes is either married or widowed. It is evident, however, that the women marry much younger than men. The proportion of widowed first becomes appreciable between the ages of 20 and 25 years. It increases much more rapidly among females than among males, and altogether the proportion of widows is many times greater than that of widowers, showing that many more widowers remarry than widows, and that they marry largely unmarried women.

Comparison of conjugal statistics of the negroes with those of the whites develops two points of difference: First, that the negroes marry younger than the whites; second, that the proportion of widows at most ages is greater than among whites. The first of these facts is in accord with the shorter life period of the race; the second is a result of the greater death rate of the race.

Statistics of divorce show more frequent severance of conjugal relations among the negroes than among the whites. The proportion of divorced persons to married persons in the United States at large among the native whites was 0.59 of 1 per cent, while among the negroes it was 0.67 of 1 per cent.

MORTALITY.

There is no question but that the rate of mortality among the negro population is considerably greater than among the whites. It is not easy, however, to obtain an accurate measure of the relative death rates of the two races. The census statistics upon this subject are unreliable, since the returns from which they are derived are by no means complete. Were the omissions uniformly distributed between the two races we might still derive a comparison from them regarding the death rates of the two races, but unfortunately there is every probability that the omissions are much greater proportionally among the negroes than among the whites. It is only in a few large Southern cities which maintain a registration of deaths that reliable figures are to be had. In these cities the relative death rates during the census year (1890) are shown in the following table:

	Death rate per 1,000.		
	Total population.	Native whites.	Negroes.
St. Louis	19	17	35
Baltimore	25	22	36
New Orleans	28	22	37
Washington	26	19	38
Louisville	22	18	32

From these figures it appears that in the large cities the annual death rate of the negroes is very nearly if not quite double that of the native whites. It is probable that in the rural districts the disproportion among the death rates is not as great, since it is probable that a rural environment is better suited to the negroes than the environment of a large city. However this may be, there is no reasonable question, as stated above, that the death rate of the negroes is much larger than that of the whites.

CRIMINALITY.

The proportion of criminals among the negroes is much greater than among the whites. The statistics of the last census show that the white prisoners of native extraction confined in jails at the time the census was taken were in the proportion of 9 to each 10,000 of all whites of native extraction, while the negro prisoners were

in the proportion of 33 to each 10,000 of the negro population. Thus it appears that the proportion of negroes was nearly four times as great as for the whites of native extraction. It should be added, however, that the commitments of negroes are for petty offenses in much greater proportion than among the whites.

PAUPERISM.

In respect to pauperism, the investigations of the census have been confined to paupers maintained in almshouses and have not been extended to those persons receiving outdoor relief, either permanent or temporary. The number of white paupers of native extraction in almshouses was found to be in the proportion of 8 to every 10,000 whites of native extraction, while the negro paupers were in the same proportion. Lest these figures should mislead, however, it must be added to this statement that in the South but little provision is made in the form of almshouses for the relief of the poor, this provision being confined almost entirely to the northern part of the country, a fact which in itself explains the small proportion of the negro paupers in almshouses. On the other hand, it is a matter of common knowledge to any resident of a Southern city that the negroes form a disproportionately large element of the recipients of outdoor charity.

ILLITERACY AND EDUCATION.

Of the progress of the negro race in education, the statistics are by no means as full and comprehensive as is desirable. Such as we possess, however, go to indicate a remarkably rapid progress of the race in the elements of education. During the prevalence of slavery this race was kept in ignorance. Indeed, generally, throughout the South it was held as a crime to teach the negroes to read and write, and naturally when they became freemen only a trifling proportion of them were acquainted with these elements of education. In 1870, five years after they became free, the records of the census show that only two-tenths of all the negroes over 10 years of age in the country could write. Ten years later the proportion had increased to three-tenths of the whole number, and in 1890, only a generation after they were emancipated, not less than 43 out of every 100 negroes, of 10 years of age and over, were able to read and write. These figures show a remarkably rapid progress in elementary education.

In 1860 the number of negroes who were enrolled in the schools of the South was absolutely trifling. Since the abolition of slavery the number has increased with the greatest rapidity. This is shown in the following table, which relates only to the inhabitants of former slave States. The first column shows the proportion which the number of white children enrolled in the public schools bore to the white population, and the second column the proportion which the number of negro children in the public schools bore to the total negro population of these States.

	White.	Negro.
1870	13.50	3.07
1880	18.33	13.67
1890	21.92	18.71

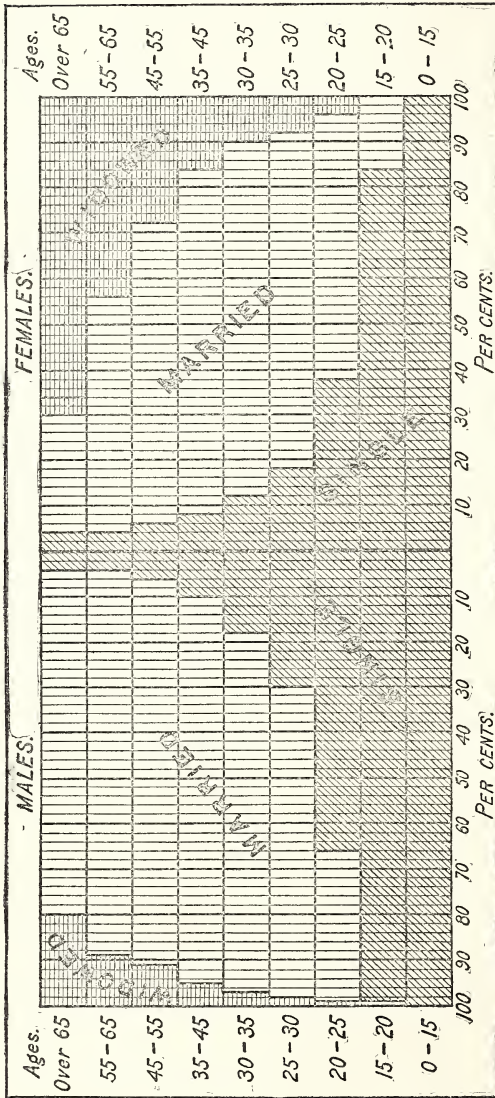
It is seen from the above table that in 1870 the white pupils constituted 13.5 per cent of the white population, and that in 20 years this proportion increased to nearly 22 per cent. On the other hand, the negro school children constituted in 1870 only 3 per cent of all negroes, but that in 20 years it has increased to nearly 19 per cent of all negroes. The proportion of negro school children increased at a far more rapid rate than that of the white school children, and in 1890 had nearly reached it.

The following table shows the proportion of such enrollment to population in 1890 in each of these states:

Per cent of school enrollment to population in 1890.

State-	White.	Negro.	State.	White.	Negro.
Delaware	19.12	16.38	Kentucky	22.27	20.40
Maryland	17.93	16.69	Tennessee	26.49	23.58
District of Columbia	15.24	17.61	Alabama	22.40	17.10
Virginia	21.59	19.20	Mississippi	27.71	24.60
West Virginia	25.58	20.04	Louisiana	13.43	8.82
North Carolina	19.79	20.80	Texas	21.06	22.21
South Carolina	19.49	16.46	Arkansas	19.98	19.22
Georgia	21.40	15.51	Missouri	23.24	21.76
Florida	24.37	21.85			

PLATE VII.—Conjugal condition of the negro element.



An examination of this table shows that in the District of Columbia, North Carolina, and Texas the proportional enrollment of negroes was greater than that of the whites, while in other States it was less.

The following table shows the rate of increase in the enrollment in each of these States from 1880 to 1890:

State.	White.	Negro.	State.	White.	Negro.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Delaware.....	10.75	108.42	Kentucky.....	34.44	89.20
Maryland.....	20.07	35.78	Tennessee.....	53.88	65.56
District of Columbia.....	27.62	67.34	Alabama.....	66.99	53.52
Virginia.....	44.44	78.77	Mississippi.....	30.75	50.66
West Virginia.....	33.68	59.72	Louisiana.....	61.72	42.56
North Carolina.....	29.51	22.97	Texas.....	179.36	143.75
South Carolina.....	45.64	55.33	Arkansas.....	101.08	121.29
Georgia.....	39.09	53.81	Missouri.....	27.18	36.42
Florida.....	98.07	132.71			

From this table it appears that in all excepting four States, namely, North Carolina, Alabama, Louisiana, and Texas, the enrollment of negro children in the public schools has increased more rapidly than that of the whites.

Summing up this article in a paragraph, the following conclusions may be stated: The negroes, while increasing rapidly in this country, are diminishing in numbers relative to the whites. They are moving southward from the border States into those of the south Atlantic and the Gulf. They prefer rural life rather than urban life. The proportion of criminals among the negroes is much greater than among the whites, and that of paupers is at least as great. In the matter of education, the number of negro attendants at school is far behind the number of whites, but is gaining rapidly upon that race.

Only one generation has elapsed since the slaves were freed. To raise a people from slavery to civilization is a matter, not of years, but of many generations. The progress which the race has made in this generation in industry, morality, and education is a source of the highest gratification to all friends of the race, to all excepting those who expected a miraculous conversion.

V.

MEMORIAL SKETCH OF JOHN F. SLATER.

John Fex Slater, of Norwich, Conn., who gave a generous fund to promote the education of the freedmen, was a quiet, thoughtful, well-trained man of business, who rose by industry, sagacity, and prudence to the possession of a fortune. His chief occupation through life was the manufacturing of cotton and woolen goods in Connecticut and Rhode Island. In recent years, as his means increased, he was interested in many enterprises, some of them established in New York and others in the West. He was a close observer of the social, political, and religious progress of the country, and a frequent, unostentatious contributor to benevolent undertakings, especially such as were brought to his attention in the town where he resided and in the church which he attended. From all positions which made him conspicuous he was inclined to withdraw himself, and he probably underrated the influence which he might have exerted by the more public expression of his opinions; but whenever he did participate in public affairs he showed the same independence, sagacity, and resolution which marked the conduct of his business. Under these circumstances the story of his life is simply that of a private citizen who was faithful to the responsibilities which devolved upon him, and who gradually acquired the means to contribute liberally toward the welfare of others. Notwithstanding the well-known unwillingness of Mr. Slater to attract the attention of the public, those who are concerned in the administration of his trust desire to put on record the characteristics of his long and useful life.

For three generations the Slater family has been engaged, either in England or the United States, in the improvement of cotton manufactures. Their English home was at Belper, Derbyshire, where William Slater, a man of considerable property, the grandfather of John F. Slater, resided more than a hundred years ago, until his death in 1782. At Belper and at Milford, not far from Belper, Jedediah Strutt was engaged as a partner of Sir Richard Arkwright, in the business of cotton spinning, then just becoming one of the great branches of industry in England.

Samuel Slater, fifth son of William Slater, was apprenticed to Mr. Strutt, and near the close of his service was for some years general overseer of the mill at Milford. Having completed his engagement he came to this country in 1789, and brought with

him such an accurate knowledge of the business of cotton spinning, that without any written or printed descriptions, without diagrams or models, he was able to introduce the entire series of machines and processes of the Arkright cotton manufacture in as perfect a form as it then existed in England. He soon came into relations with Moses Brown, of Providence, and through him with his son-in-law and his kinsman, William Almy and Smith Brown. With the persons last named he formed the partnership of Almy, Brown & Slater. For this firm Samuel Slater devised machinery and established a mill for the manufacture of cotton, at Pawtucket, R. I., in the year 1790, but as this proved an inadequate enterprise, he constructed a larger mill at the same place in 1793.

A few years later, about 1804, at the invitation of his brother Samuel, John Slater, a younger son of William, came from England and joined his brother in Rhode Island. The village of Slatersville, on a branch of the river Blackstone, was projected in 1806, and here until the present time the Slaters have continued the manufacture of cotton goods.

John F. Slater, son of John and nephew of Samuel, was born in the village just named, in the town of Smithfield, R. I., March 4, 1815, and received a good education in the academies of Plainfield, in Connecticut, and of Wrentham and Wilbraham, in Massachusetts. At the age of 17 (in connection with Samuel Collier) he began to manage his father's woolen mill at Hopeville, in Griswold, Conn., and there he remained until he became of age. In 1836 he took full charge of this factory, and also of a cotton mill at Jewett City, another village of the same town, where he made his home. Six years later he removed to Norwich, with which Jewett City was then connected by railway. Here he married, May 13, 1844, a daughter of Amos H. Hubbard, and here his six children were born. Only two of them, the eldest and the youngest, a daughter and a son, survived the period of infancy, and of these the son alone is living. Norwich continued to be Mr. Slater's home until he died there, at the beginning of his seventieth year, May 7, 1884.

Before his last great gift, Mr. Slater made generous contributions to religious and educational enterprises. He was one of the original corporators of the Norwich Free Academy, to which he gave at different times more than \$15,000. To the construction of the Park Congregational Church, which he attended, he gave the sum of \$33,000, and subsequently a fund of \$10,000, the income of which is to keep the edifice in repair. At the time of his death he was engaged in building a public library in Jewett City, which will soon be completed, at a cost of \$16,000. His private benefactions and his contributions to benevolent societies were also numerous. During the war his sympathies were heartily with the Union, and he was a large purchaser of the Government bonds when others doubted their security.

Some years before his death, Mr. Slater formed the purpose of devoting a large sum of money to the education of the freedmen. It is believed that this humane project occurred to him, without suggestion from any other mind, in view of the apprehensions which all thoughtful persons felt, when, after the war, the duties of citizenship were suddenly imposed upon millions of emancipated slaves. Certainly, when he began to speak freely of his intentions, he had decided upon the amount of his gift and its scope. These were not open questions. He knew exactly what he wished to do. It was not to bestow charity upon the destitute, nor to encourage a few exceptional individuals; it was not to build churches, schoolhouses, asylums, or colleges; it was not to establish one strong institution as a personal monument; it was, on the other hand, to help the people of the South in solving the great problem which had been forced upon them, how to train, in various places and under differing circumstances, those who have long been dependent, for the duties belonging to them now that they are free. This purpose was fixed. In respect to the best mode of organizing a trust, Mr. Slater sought counsel of many experienced persons—of the managers of the Peabody educational fund in regard to their work; of lawyers and those who had been in official life, with respect to questions of law and legislation; of ministers, teachers, and others who have been familiar with charitable and educational trusts, or who were particularly well informed in respect to the condition of the freedmen at the South. The results of all these consultations, which were continued during a period of several years, were at length reduced to a satisfactory form, and were embodied in a charter granted to a board of trustees by the State of New York, in the spring of 1882, and in a carefully thought-out and carefully written letter, addressed to those who were selected to administer the trust.

The characteristics of this gift were its Christian spirit, its patriotism, its munificence, and its freedom from all secondary purposes or hampering conditions. In broad and general terms, the donor indicated the object which he had in view; the details of management he left to others, confident that their collective wisdom and the experience they must acquire would devise better modes of procedure, as the years go on, than any individual could propose in advance. * * *

On the 18th of May, 1882, Mr. Slater met the board of trustees in the city of New York and transferred to them the sum of \$1,000,000, a little more than half of it

being already invested, and the remainder being cash, to be invested at the discretion of the board. On that occasion the trustees addressed him a letter acknowledging his generosity, and they invited him always to attend their meetings; but he never met with them again, and declined to guide in any way their subsequent action.

The gift of Mr. Slater was acknowledged by expressions of gratitude from every part of the country, and especially from those who were watching with anxiety the future of the blacks. The echoes of gratitude came also from distant lands. Henceforward, in the annals of Christian philanthropy, the name of John F. Slater will be honored among those who have given wisely, freely, and in their lifetime, to enlighten the ignorant and to lift up the depressed.

MEMOIR.

[By Rev. Dr. S. H. Howe, pastor of the Park Church, Norwich, Conn.]

Mr. John Fox Slater, founder of the fund that bears his name, was born in Rhode Island, March 4, 1815. His family came a generation before from England, and was identified with manufacturing interests in the countries both of its birth and its adoption. He who was to be associated in the public mind with industrial education among one of the races on the continent was born to the inheritance of a name which has held high eminence for its relation to industrial progress. One of his near relatives has been called the "father of American manufactures." Family tradition and family prominence along these lines early determined for him the career of a manufacturer, by which he laid the foundations of the fortune which he ultimately amassed. He early developed rare business aptitudes, as was evidenced by the intrustment to him of one of the mills of his father at the age of 17. From this early period he continued in the career of a manufacturer until his death, maintaining and enlarging the plant covered by his sole ownership not only, but also identified with other large manufacturing corporations as shareholder and director. Starting from the solid foundation of a good academical education, he found in business life a training and discipline which fitted him to grapple, with the hand of a master, with the largest questions in business and finance, and to achieve success where others failed. He had large experience in business life, and developed rare powers for the grasp of its intricate problems. His business successes were not due to the chances of trade, or the fluctuations of values, or to the daring and the ventures of speculation, but were the fruit of the sagacious and alert use of the opportunities which were in his own as in other men's reach. He possessed profound insight and exhaustive knowledge of affairs and men, with mental grasp and business training, some have believed, sufficient to have wisely controlled the financial interests of a nation. His judgment and counsel were sought by great corporations in the management of enterprises and industries which represented large investments and a vast outlay of capital. It is not strange that his ventures were so largely successful, and that his failures and losses were exceptional and rare.

Then his sagacity in business, which amounted to genius, was allied to honorable methods and to inflexible business integrity. Few men have had an aversion so severe and uncompromising to unfairness and to doubtful practices. His opportunities for speculation were many, but he carefully held himself aloof from all but the legitimate channels of trade. He gathered fortune by honorable methods—a fact of some significance to those who handle his munificent trust, and a significant fact to those who are helped to manhood and culture by it. The hands which created this noble foundation were clean hands.

Mr. Slater, as may be inferred from what has been said, was a man of wide intelligence, peculiarly receptive and hospitable to truth. To his strong Puritan sense of right and devotion to principle, he added that larger interest in the world and the age in which he lived, which gives scope and breadth to thought, and defends against mere local and provincial sympathies. And yet he was a public-spirited citizen in his adopted city, jealous of its good name, generous toward its charities. Toward his country he was patriotic and loyal, interested in its politics and its legislation.

He was a man of strong, pronounced personality; of fine fiber and of genuine manliness—a gentleman by instinct and training and habit; reserved and self-respecting, though genuinely sympathetic toward and accessible to all classes of men. He was sensitive concerning and deeply averse to that adulation which goes after great fortune for its own sake. It is the testimony of a friend who saw him most frequently through a long period of years and shared his confidence in a larger sense than others that in all his intercourse with him he had not heard a sentence that suggested the pride of fortune. He wished to be estimated for what he was and not for what he possessed. And this rule governed him in the estimate which he placed upon others. He was modest and unostentatious to the last degree. While

he was touched and gratified by the honor which came to him in connection with his great gift to benevolence, he did nothing to invoke it or to stimulate it. He remained amidst it all the same quiet, reserved, unostentatious citizen. He was to those who knew him well a most delightful and resourceful conversationalist. His breadth of view, his versatility, his familiar acquaintance with affairs and men, with questions of finance, politics, and religion, his taste for art, his knowledge of the world gained from travel, made his companionship delightful to those who shared it.

His interest in and gifts to benevolence antedated his later beneficence. Great gifts are never a bit of pure extemporization. Great things are not done on the spur of the moment. Those who develop unexpected resources on great occasions or show themselves capable of conspicuous sacrifices or services have had in advance their rehearsals. The noblest philanthropies are not extemporized or wrung forcibly from their authors by the stern importunity of death. Even legacies have generally a background of practical benevolence. Mr. Slater has given wisely and generously to objects that commended themselves to him. Many of these gifts were in the public eye, but it is the testimony of his nearest friends that he gave with larger liberality than the public could be aware of, with simplicity, and without ostentation, responding to cases of distress and suffering generously, but in such fashion as to conceal the giving hand.

But the conspicuous act of his life with which the public had most concern is of course the creation of the foundation for industrial education among the freedmen. Much that had gone before in his life had been leading up to this princely gift. He had always manifested a profound interest in education, had given largely, and had projected generous measures for educational work in the community, which, however, were yielded in the interest of his larger purpose. His interest in local education has been most worthily commemorated by the splendid memorial building erected in his honor by his son in connection with the Norwich Free Academy. Mr. Slater realized, and as his fortune grew was oppressed with, the sense of the responsibility of wealth, and planned long in advance to give in bulk to some worthy object of benevolence; and he resolved to execute this purpose in life rather than by bequest. The issues of the great civil war which unloosed the fetters of the slave, but which did not qualify him for the responsible duties of citizenship, gave Mr. Slater his great opportunity. He thought this problem through. He had been loyal, patriotic, and generous in his gifts when the struggle was upon the nation, and he rejoiced in the successful outcome; but here was a new field and an unlimited opportunity which he resolved to appropriate. His plan originated wholly and without suggestion from others with himself, and was elaborated to its minutest detail in advance of its publicity. Standing at this distance and looking through the experimental test of more than a decade of its working, it is impossible to resist the conviction that it was statesmanlike, patriotic, and Christian in its conception and spirit. Mr. Slater was wise to see what we have been learning, that the exigent want for the emancipated race was practical and industrial education. The higher education has its offices to take in exceptional instances, but for the masses of the race, so long submerged and held down to the low levels of intelligence where emancipation found it, the wisest, most practical, and resultful plan for its elevation was that devised by the founder of this educational fund. It was the instinct of patriotism and of practical statesmanship to go to the weakest spot in the body politic to strengthen it, as it was the impulse of Christian thought to place the ladder of ascent within reach of the foot of the lowest man, who was most hopeless of self-recovery. Perhaps this is occasion for surprise. Mr. Slater might have been patrician in his sympathies, exclusive and reserved in his associations. He had aptitudes and opportunities for aloofness from other than the privileged classes; he might have been exclusive in his sympathies rather than inclusive. But his sympathies swept him around to the opposite pole from that on which he stood. He crossed the whole diameter of society to find the lowest groove in our social and national life that he might do this conspicuous act of beneficence to the poorest of this nation's poor. Such examples of wise beneficence, which express the sympathy of the privileged for the unprivileged classes, do much to lighten the strain of self-government in a nation like ours. They do much to allay the antagonisms of society and to bridge the chasm which opens between those zones of enormous wealth on the one hand and a degrading poverty which are drawn across the map of our modern life. When wealth consents after this fashion to reach out helping hands toward the nation's poor and gives aid toward self-help, then many of the perplexing problems of modern socialism will be solved.

The wisdom of this foundation in its intent and aim can not easily be overstated. Not to create the conspicuous institution, that by concentration of forces focuses the public eye upon the giver, but rather and more wisely to distribute aid over a wide area, among a score or more of institutions; not to do the premature thing of providing foundations for university training for which the race has and for generations will have such scant preparation, but rather to make provision for training

along those practical and industrial lines, which is the exigent need, in order to self-help toward the creation of the home and an ordered life in the social community. The verdict of his fellow-workers in this field of philanthropic effort, after watching the experiment for a decade, is "Well done, good and faithful servant," and we may well believe that in these words we hear a higher verdict than man's.

The reflex influence of Mr. Slater's beneficence, we are persuaded, has been great. We can not estimate the good we do when we do good. The effect of this splendid beneficence in stimulating philanthropic enterprise, passing as it has into the currency of popular thought as a quickening inspiration, its impetus to the noble army of workers for the uplifting of the race, has been enormous. Its inspiration and influence upon this greatest decade of giving in all the history of the world has been immense we are confident. Other millions have gotten into the wake of this one; and we believe other men to whom God has given great wealth, and into whose hearts the passion of the cross has been poured, are to be moved by it to the breaking of their costly boxes of alabaster in the presence of the world's Christ. Such men are and are to be the saving and the enduring forces of the world. They may disappear from the eye; they cease to be seen as visible personalities, but they become immortal in the world as quickening influences. They walk in uncrowned regality through the ages. Their gifts, their lives, will be reduplicated as they spread by contagion the spirit of philanthropy among men; passing for a sort of fresh incarnation into the minds and hearts of others, who catch their spirit, and go to spread it and give it fresh forms and embodiments. Over such lives even death can have no power.

Mr. Slater only lived to see the genesis of the work he did, and of the forces he started in the world. His great gift, at that time almost an unprecedented one, awakened wide-spread interest. The news spread over the land and was borne across the sea. Hundreds of letters congratulatory and appreciative poured in upon him. His friends gave expression to their admiration. His city, to whose name his beneficence had imparted a fresh eminence and fame, made him aware of her appreciation of the honor he had bestowed upon her; but amid it all he remained the same unostentatious, quiet citizen—grateful and appreciative of the honor which had come to him, but accepting it rather as an unreckoned-upon accompaniment of his unselfish act. He remained in the routine of his accustomed business, and in the fellowship of friends and neighbors, as if he had only done a duty or accepted a privilege which lay in the path of his accustomed living. Two years later the fatal disease laid its hand upon him, when in the faith of a Christian he girded himself to go unto his Father's house. To many of us it was the summons to the presence of Him who was and is ever the Supreme Friend of the poor and the lowly, to hear His commendation: "In as much as ye have done these things unto the least of these, my brethren, ye have done them unto me. Enter into the joy of thy Lord."

VI.

DOCUMENTS RELATING TO THE ORIGIN AND WORK OF THE SLATER TRUSTEES, 1882 TO 1894.

Charter from the State of New York, approved April 28, 1882.

AN ACT to incorporate the trustees of the John F. Slater fund.

Whereas Messrs. Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, Morrison R. Waite, of the District of Columbia, William E. Dodge, of New York, Phillips Brooks, of Massachusetts, Daniel C. Gilman, of Maryland, John A. Stewart, of New York, Alfred H. Colquitt, of Georgia, Morris K. Jesup, of New York, James P. Boyce, of Kentucky, and William A. Slater, of Connecticut, have, by their memorial, represented to the senate and assembly of this State that a letter has been received by them from John F. Slater, of Norwich, in the State of Connecticut, of which the following is a copy:

[Here the letter printed below is inserted.]

And whereas said memorialists have further represented that they are ready to accept said trust and receive and administer said fund, provided a charter of incorporation is granted by this State, as indicated in said letter; now, therefore, for the purpose of giving full effect to the charitable intentions declared in said letter;

The people of the State of New York, represented in senate and assembly, do enact as follows:

SEC. 1. Rutherford B. Hayes, Morrison R. Waite, William E. Dodge, Phillips Brooks, Daniel C. Gilman, John A. Stewart, Alfred H. Colquitt, Morris K. Jesup, James P. Boyce, and William A. Slater are hereby created a body politic and corporate by the name of The Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund, and by that name shall have perpetual succession; said original corporators electing their associates

and successors, from time to time, so that the whole number of corporators may be kept at not less than nine nor more than twelve.

Said corporation may hold and manage, invest and reinvest, all property which may be given or transferred to it for the charitable purposes indicated in said letter, and shall, in so doing, and in appropriating the income accruing therefrom, conform to and be governed by the directions in said letter contained; and such property and all investments and reinvestments thereof, excepting real estate, shall, while owned by said corporation and held for the purposes of said trust, be exempt from taxation of any and every nature.

SEC. 2. Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, shall be the first president of the corporation, and it may elect such other officers and hold such meetings, whether within or without this State, from time to time, as its by-laws may authorize or prescribe.

SEC. 3. Said corporation shall annually file with the librarian of this State a printed report of its doings during the preceding year.

SEC. 4. This act shall take effect immediately.

Letter of the founder.

To Messrs. Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio; Morrison R. Waite, of the District of Columbia; William E. Dodge, of New York; Phillips Brooks, of Massachusetts; Daniel C. Gilman, of Maryland; John A. Stewart, of New York; Alfred A. Colquitt, of Georgia; Morris K. Jesup, of New York; James P. Boyce, of Kentucky, and William A. Slater, of Connecticut.

GENTLEMEN: It has pleased God to grant me prosperity in my business, and to put it into my power to apply to charitable uses a sum of money so considerable as to require the counsel of wise men for the administration of it.

It is my desire at this time to appropriate to such uses the sum of \$1,000,000; and I hereby invite you to procure a charter of incorporation under which a charitable fund may be held exempt from taxation, and under which you shall organize; and I intend that the corporation, as soon as formed, shall receive this sum in trust to apply the income of it according to the instructions contained in this letter.

The general object which I desire to have exclusively pursued, is the uplifting of the lately emancipated population of the Southern States, and their posterity, by conferring on them the blessings of Christian education. The disabilities formerly suffered by these people, and their singular patience and fidelity in the great crisis of the nation, establish a just claim on the sympathy and good will of humane and patriotic men. I can not but feel the compassion that is due in view of their prevailing ignorance, which exists by no fault of their own.

But it is not only for their own sake, but also for the safety of our common country in which they have been invested with equal political rights, that I am desirous to aid in providing them with the means of such education as shall tend to make them good men and good citizens—education in which the instruction of the mind in the common branches of secular learning shall be associated with training in just notions of duty toward God and man, in the light of the Holy Scriptures.

The means to be used in the prosecution of the general object above described I leave to the discretion of the corporation, only indicating as lines of operation adapted to the present condition of things, the training of teachers from among the people requiring to be taught, if, in the opinion of the corporation, by such limited selection the purposes of the trust can be best accomplished; and the encouragement of such institutions as are most effectually useful in promoting this training of teachers.

I am well aware that the work herein proposed is nothing new or untried. And it is no small part of my satisfaction in taking this share in it that I hereby associate myself with some of the noblest enterprises of charity and humanity, and may hope to encourage the prayers and toils of faithful men and women who have labored and are still laboring in this cause.

I wish the corporation which you are invited to constitute to consist at no time of more than twelve members, nor of less than nine members for a longer time than may be required for the convenient filling of vacancies, which I desire to be filled by the corporation, and, when found practicable, at its next meeting after the vacancy may occur.

I designate as the first president of the corporation the Hon. Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio. I desire that it may have power to provide from the income of the fund, among other things, for expenses incurred by members in the fulfillment of this trust and for the expenses of such officers and agents as it may appoint, and, generally, to do all such acts as may be necessary for carrying out the purposes of this trust. I desire, if it may be, that the corporation may have full liberty to invest its funds according to its own best discretion, without reference to or restriction by

any laws or rules, legal or equitable, of any nature, regulating the mode of investment of trust funds; only I wish that neither principal nor income be expended in land or buildings for any other purpose than that of safe and productive investment for income. And I hereby discharge the corporation and its individual members, so far as it is in my power so to do, of all responsibility, except for the faithful administration of this trust according to their own honest understanding and best judgment. In particular, also, I wish to relieve them of any pretended claim on the part of any person, party, sect, institution, or locality, to benefactions from this fund that may be put forward on any ground whatever, as I wish every expenditure to be determined solely by the convictions of the corporation itself as to the most useful disposition of its gifts.

I desire that the doings of the corporation each year be printed and sent to each of the State libraries in the United States, and to the Library of Congress.

In case the capital of the fund should become impaired, I desire that a part of the income, not greater than one-half, be invested, from year to year, until the capital be restored to its original amount.

I purposely leave to the corporation the largest liberty of making such changes in the methods of applying the income of the fund as shall seem from time to time best adapted to accomplish the general object herein defined. But being warned by the history of such endowments that they sometimes tend to discourage rather than promote effort and self-reliance on the part of beneficiaries; or to inure to the advancement of learning instead of the dissemination of it; or to become a convenience to the rich instead of a help to those who need help, I solemnly charge my trustees to use their best wisdom in preventing any such defeat of the spirit of this trust, so that my gift may continue to future generations to be a blessing to the poor.

If at any time after the lapse of thirty-three years from the date of this foundation it shall appear to the judgment of three-fourths of the members of this corporation that, by reason of a change in social conditions, or by reason of adequate and equitable public provision for education, or by any other sufficient reason, there is no further serious need of this fund in the form in which it is at first instituted, I authorize the corporation to apply the capital of the fund to the establishment of foundations subsidiary to then already existing institutions of higher education, in such wise as to make the educational advantages of such institutions more freely accessible to poor students of the colored race.

It is my wish that this trust be administered in no partisan, sectional, or sectarian spirit, but in the interest of a generous patriotism and an enlightened Christian faith; and that the corporation about to be formed may continue to be constituted of men distinguished either by honorable success in business, or by services to literature, education, religion, or the State.

I am encouraged to the execution in this charitable foundation of a long-cherished purpose by the eminent wisdom and success that has marked the conduct of the Peabody education fund in a field of operation not remote from that contemplated by this trust. I shall commit it to your hands, deeply conscious how insufficient is our best forecast to provide for the future that is known only to God, but humbly hoping that the administration of it may be so guided by divine wisdom as to be in its turn an encouragement to philanthropic enterprise on the part of others, and an enduring means of good to our beloved country and to our fellow-men.

I have the honor to be, gentlemen, your friend and fellow-citizen,

JOHN F. SLATER.

NORWICH, CONN., *March 4, 1882.*

Letter of the trustees accepting the gift.

NEW YORK, *May 18, 1882.*

JOHN F. SLATER, Esq., *Norwich, Conn.:*

The members of the board of trustees whom you invited to take charge of the fund which you have devoted to the education of the lately emancipated people of the Southern States and their posterity, desire, at the beginning of their work, to place on record their appreciation of your purpose, and to congratulate you on having completed this wise and generous gift at a period of your life when you may hope to observe for many years its beneficent influence.

They wish especially to assure you of their gratification in being called upon to administer a work so noble and timely. If this trust is successfully managed, it may, like the gift of George Peabody, lead to many other benefactions. As it tends to remove the ignorance of large numbers of those who have a vote in public affairs, it will promote the welfare of every part of our country, and your generous action will receive, as it deserves, the thanks of good men and women in this and other lands.

Your trustees unite in wishing you long life and health, that you may have the satisfaction of seeing the result of your patriotic forecast.

The thanks of Congress.

JOINT RESOLUTION of the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, approved February 6, 1883.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the thanks of Congress be, and they hereby are, presented to John F. Slater, of Connecticut, for his great beneficence in giving the large sum of \$1,000,000 for the purpose of "uplifting the lately emancipated population of the Southern States and their posterity by conferring on them the blessings of Christian education."

SEC. 2. That it shall be the duty of the President to cause a gold medal to be struck with suitable devices and inscriptions, which, together with a copy of this resolution, shall be presented to Mr. Slater in the name of the people of the United States.

JOINT RESOLUTION of the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, approved April 9, 1896.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the sum of one thousand dollars, or so much thereof as may be needed, is hereby appropriated out of any moneys in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to defray the cost of the medal ordered by public resolution numbered six, approved February sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-three, to be presented to John F. Slater, of Connecticut, then living, but now deceased.

SEC. 2. That said medal and a copy of the original resolution aforesaid shall be presented to the legal representatives of said John F. Slater, deceased.

By-laws adopted May 18, 1882, and amended from time to time.

1. The officers of the board shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and a treasurer, chosen from the members. These officers shall serve until death, resignation, or removal for cause, and vacancies, when they occur, shall be filled by ballot.

2. There shall be appointed at each annual meeting a finance committee and an executive committee. The finance committee shall consist of three, and the executive committee of five, the president of the board being, ex officio, one of the five.

3. There shall also be an educational committee consisting of six persons, three of whom shall be appointed by the board and three of whom shall be ex officio members, to wit, the president, the treasurer, and the secretary of the board.

4. The annual meeting of the board shall be held at such place in the city of New York as shall be designated by the board, or the president, on the second Wednesday in April in each year. Special meetings may be called by the president or the executive committee at such times and places as in their judgment may be necessary.

5. A majority of the members of the board shall be a quorum for the transaction of business.

6. In case of the absence or disability of the president, the vice-president shall perform his duties.

7. The secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of the board, which shall be annually published for general distribution.

8. The executive committee shall be charged with the duty of carrying out the resolutions and orders of the board as the same are from time to time adopted. Three shall constitute a quorum for business.

9. The finance committee, in connection with the treasurer, shall have charge of the moneys and securities belonging to the fund, with authority to invest and reinvest the moneys and dispose of the securities at their discretion, subject, however, at all times to the instructions of the board.

All securities belonging to the trust shall stand in the name of "the trustees of the John F. Slater fund," and be transferred only by the treasurer when authorized by a resolution of the finance committee.

10. The secretary of the board shall be, ex officio, secretary of the executive committee.

11. In case of the absence or disability of the treasurer, the finance committee shall have power to fill the vacancy temporarily.

12. Vacancies in the board shall be filled by ballot, and a vote of two-thirds of all the members shall be necessary for an election.

13. These by-laws may be altered or amended at any annual or special meeting by a vote of two-thirds of all the members of the board.

Members of the board.

Name.	Year.	Resigned or died.
APPOINTED.		
Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio.....	1882	* 1893
Morrison I. Waite, of the District of Columbia.....	1882	* 1888
William E. Dodge, of New York.....	1882	* 1883
Phillips Brooks, of Massachusetts.....	1882	† 1889
Daniel C. Gilman, of Maryland.....	1882
John A. Stewart, of New York.....	1882
Alfred H. Colquitt, of Georgia.....	1882	* 1894
Morris K. Jesup, of New York.....	1882
James P. Boyce, of Kentucky.....	1882	* 1888
William A. Slater, of Connecticut.....	1882
ELECTED.		
William E. Dodge, jr., of New York.....	1883
Melville W. Fuller, of the District of Columbia.....	1883
John A. Broadus, of Kentucky.....	1889	* 1895
Henry C. Potter, of New York.....	1889
J. L. M. Curry, of the District of Columbia.....	1891
William J. Northen, of Georgia.....	1894
Ellison Capers, of South Carolina.....	1894	† 1895
C. B. Galloway, of Mississippi.....	1894
Alexander E. Orr, of New York.....	1895

* Died in office.

† Resigned.

From 1882 to 1891 the general agent of the trust was Rev. A. G. Haygood, D. D., of Georgia, who resigned the office when he became a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church South. Since 1891 the duties of a general agent have been discharged by Dr. J. L. M. Curry, of Washington, D. C., chairman of the educational committee.

*Remarks of President Hayes on the death of Mr. Slater.**Gentlemen of the Board of Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund:*

Our first duty at this the fifth meeting of the trustees of the John F. Slater fund for the education of freedmen is devolved upon us by the death, since our last meeting, of the founder of this trust.

John F. Slater died early Wednesday morning, the 7th of May last, at his home in Norwich, Conn., at the age of 69. He had suffered severely from chronic complaints for several months, and his death was not a surprise to his family or intimate friends.

Two of the members of this board of trustees, Mr. Morris K. Jesup and myself, had the melancholy privilege of representing the board at the impressive funeral services of Mr. Slater at his home, at the Congregational Church, and at the cemetery in Norwich, on the Saturday following his death.

When he last met this board, his healthful appearance and general vigor gave promise of a long and active life. It was with great confidence that we then expressed to him our conviction that his wise and generous gift for the education of the emancipated people of the South and their posterity was made at a period of his life when he might reasonably hope to observe during many years its beneficent influence. But in the providence of God it has been otherwise ordered, and the life which we fondly wished would last long enough to yield to him the satisfaction of seeing the results of his patriotic forecast has been brought to a close.

He had a widely extended and well-earned reputation for ability, energy, integrity, and success as a manufacturer and as a man of affairs. He was a philanthropist, a patriot, a good citizen, and a good neighbor. He was a member of the Park Congregational Society in Norwich for many years and was warmly and strongly attached to the denomination of his choice. His church relations did not limit his sympathies, nor narrow his views of duty. In his letter establishing this trust is the following clause:

"The general object which I desire to have exclusively pursued is the uplifting of the lately emancipated population of the Southern States, and their posterity, by conferring on them the blessings of Christian education."

When asked the precise meaning of the phrase "Christian education," he replied that "the phrase Christian education is to be taken in the largest and most general sense—that, in the sense which he intended, the common-school teaching of

Massachusetts and Connecticut was Christian education. That it is leavened with a predominant and salutary Christian influence. That there was no need of limiting the gifts of the fund to denominational institutions. That, if the trustees should be satisfied that at a certain State institution their beneficiaries would be surrounded by wholesome influences such as would tend to make good Christian citizens of them, there is nothing in the use of the phrase referred to to hinder their sending pupils to it."

I forbear to attempt to give a full sketch of Mr. Slater. Enough has perhaps been said to bring to your attention the great loss which this trust has sustained in the death of its founder, and the propriety of placing on our records and giving to the public a worthy and elaborate notice of his life, character, and good deeds.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

REPORT ON EDUCATION IN ALASKA.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION, DIVISION OF ALASKA,
Washington, D. C., June 30, 1895.

SIR: I have the honor to submit the following annual report of the general agent of education in Alaska for the year ending June 30, 1895:

There is in Alaska a school population of from 8,000 to 10,000; of these, 1,030 were enrolled in the 17 day schools sustained by the Government. In addition to the Government schools, the missionary societies of the Moravian, Presbyterian, Episcopal, Methodist, Congregational, Baptist, Lutheran, and Roman Catholic churches sustained 24 schools with an enrollment of about 900 pupils. Of these latter, three-fourths were industrial pupils; these were clothed, housed, fed, and taught at the expense of the societies.

St. Lawrence Island, Bering Sea.—V. C. Gambell, teacher; enrollment of pupils, 52; population, barbarous Eskimos; mail, once a year. On the 15th of September, 1894, the revenue cutter *Bear* steamed away from St. Lawrence Island, leaving our two missionaries, Mr. and Mrs. V. C. Gambell, shut off from all communication with, or sight of, the civilized world for the next eight or ten months, as they then thought; but on October 2d a whale ship, which they vainly hoped would anchor, steamed close along the shore. When Mr. Gambell found that it would not stop, he hurried some natives into a boat, and, waving a coat to attract attention, rowed after it. The captain, seeing this, turned about and came back, taking Mr. Gambell on board. They had been in the Arctic over winter and were on their way to San Francisco, but hearing that the Gambells were on the island, had sailed near, so as to give them a chance to send letters or to afford them any help they could. After Mr. Gambell left the steamer and returned to their island home, their complete isolation began.

The school room is under the same roof and communicates with the house; but a new outside door allows the pupils entrance to it without going through the house.

The school opened the first Monday of November, 1894. The whole village was excited over this event. They are like one large family. Being separated from the main land by so much water, they rarely mingle with other Alaskans or Siberians, and, of course, intermarry constantly, so that everybody is related to everybody else, and the interests of one are the interests of all. So the opening of school would naturally be common talk. The pupils, ranging in age from 16 years down, are principally boys, the girls being too shy to go. The men were anxious to go, too, but it was thought best not to have them with the boys. Mr. Gambell had been apprised of the fact that the native language was very difficult to acquire, and this he has found to be the case. He teaches the children English, and they are as apt at learning as the average pupils in our schools. He writes, June, 1895, that the boys have learned enough English to be able to make themselves understood and to understand almost anything he wanted to tell them. They are particularly quick in arithmetic, as far as he has taken them, and specimens of their penmanship that he sent home are really remarkable. One exercise was copying on paper and reading short sentences written on the blackboard. After only a month's teaching they could read at once sentences containing words that they had learned. The men visit the school frequently, and are very much pleased to hear the sentences read. They sit breathlessly attentive until a sentence is read, and laugh heartily when it is rubbed out. When a boy hesitates, and fails to recognize a word at once, the men grow excited, and say, "oo-hook, oo-hook," an exclamation they use to their dogs when they want them to go faster. Some of the men try to write and make figures, but they do not succeed so well as the 15-year-old boys. In March, Mr. Gambell writes: "The boys are getting along well. They like number work, adding correctly and rapidly columns of five figures, some of them never making a mistake. Many of them know the multiplication table to the 'elevens.' I let them do so much of this because they like it, and I think they have more confidence in themselves and use

the English they know. They read well in the First Reader. I have used the phonetic method of teaching reading." They are fond of music, and learn the school songs readily. The whole village has learned these songs, and they can be heard at almost any hour of the day or night.

Teller Reindeer Station.—Teacher, T. L. Brevig; enrollment, 56; population, Eskimo. There are in the native village about 60 persons under 21 years of age. With but three or four exceptions, all of the children under 15 and over 6, have attended school with greater or less regularity. The discipline has been very easy to maintain. The teacher complains of lack of application and concentration with the pupils. Perhaps his difficulty is want of a common language, as the teacher does not understand the Eskimo and the Eskimos have not yet gained a sufficient knowledge of English to understand it.

Unalaska.—John A. Tuck, teacher, and Miss Mattie Short, assistant; enrollment of pupils, 39; population, Aleut. Good progress has been made during the year by the children in the practical acquisition of the English language. The greater part of those who have been under instruction for three years or more not only read, write, and speak, but do their thinking in English. In geography good work has been done, especially in drawing and interpretation of maps. The children encounter their greatest difficulty in mastering arithmetic, hence more than usual attention has been paid to their training in that subject. Many of the older pupils have fully conquered the four fundamental operations so as to be fairly rapid and remarkably accurate in their work. One girl has progressed well in mental arithmetic, and handles quite complex operations in fractions with ease and readiness. The attendance during the year has been mainly from the pupils in the Methodist Mission Home. Last spring a large and comfortable schoolhouse and teacher's residence was erected at an expense of \$5,000. Before it was occupied, during the prevalence of a severe gale, it was blown from its foundations, and the school as in former years is still kept in a rented building. We trust that another season will see the Government building repaired and in good shape for use.

Unga.—O. R. McKinney, teacher; enrollment, 40; population, Aleut. This school continued from September without interruption until Christmas, when it was found necessary to close the house a few days for repairs. Through January and February the entire school population of the village was enrolled. During March an epidemic of sickness closed the school again for three weeks. Rapid advancement was made in reading, spelling, writing, and hygiene, and moral lessons. In these studies they made better progress than the same class of children in the States; they did not prove so bright, however, in arithmetic, although one class finished both decimal and common fractions during the year and reviewed the subjects in other books. The teacher has been encouraged by the special interest which the children take in the school. They never seem to tire of it, and often ask why they can not have school all the time. Over against this encouragement is the discouragement of much drunkenness in the community without any court of law to control the community. The most atrocious crimes can be committed and the perpetrator be allowed to go free.

Afognak.—Mrs. C. M. Colwell, teacher; enrollment, 38; population, Russian Creoles. During the winter a school of the Russo-Greek Church was opened in the village. Almost all of the inhabitants of Afognak are members of the Russian Church, and as the church officials insisted upon the children attending the church school half of each day the work of the public school was materially interfered with.

The natives of this region are exceedingly poor, and in order that some of the poorer children might attend school the teacher provided them with clothing.

Kadiak.—C. C. Solter, teacher; enrollment, 56; population, Creoles. The attendance during the year has been unusually good, some days the schoolroom being too small to accommodate all those wishing to attend. The teacher also reports increased regularity of attendance. There was a notable absence of the larger and older pupils, they having dropped out to go into business; one of the boys has secured a clerkship with the Alaska Commercial Company. Special progress was made in penmanship, composition, writing and drawing. Greater progress could be made if the pupils spoke English at home; but in their homes and out of school they hear nothing but the Russian language; as a natural consequence very few of the smaller pupils comprehend enough of English to understand what the teacher is saying to them. Singing continues a great attraction in the school. At the close of the school year an entertainment was given to a crowded audience of parents and citizens generally. The children performed their parts well, eliciting many expressions of commendation from the audience. As intemperance is so rife in nearly all Alaskan communities it is a source of special gratification to the teacher that the school children have all signed a promise not to taste any intoxicating liquor of any kind until they are 21 years of age. They show much pride in being called "temperance boys and girls," and sport their blue ribbon badges. A suitable woodshed has been constructed during the year in connection with this schoolhouse.

Haines.—W. W. Warne, teacher; Miss Fanny Willard (native), assistant teacher; enrollment, 64; population, Thlinget. The past year has been one of progress and the best of the four years that the present teacher has been in charge. This is largely due to the increased number of children in the Presbyterian Home. Experiments have been made with fair success in raising garden vegetables and opening up a small farm.

Sitka, No. 1.—Mrs. G. Knapp, teacher; enrollment, 37; population, white—American and Russian. The opening of a parochial school in connection with the Russian Church and the ever changing population of the town caused a considerable diminution in the attendance at this school. A kindergarten was conducted for the white children—American and Russian—during several months of the year.

Sitka, No. 2.—Miss Cassia Patton, teacher; enrollment, 180. Several of the adult natives have been as anxious to learn to read and write English as the children, and as most of them had to work during the day, the teacher gave them instructions after school hours. As usual, the spring migration to the fishing grounds carried with it the majority of the children.

Juneau, No. 1.—S. A. Keller, teacher; enrollment 54; population, white. The schoolhouse during the year has been repainted and refurnished, new sidewalks were built to and around the schoolhouse, and pure, clean water conducted to the building from the city waterworks; also a small sum was spent in draining the marshy, swampy school ground and removing some of the stumps. The work should be continued on the playground until all of the stumps are removed and the ground thoroughly drained. The school itself has received more than usual sympathy and encouragement from the people themselves. The pupils are reported as bright and intelligent beyond the average. The winter being unusually mild, the regularity of the attendance of the primary class was better than ever known before; at the same time a large percentage of the children between 6 and 14 are still very irregular, and the teacher, in common with all the other teachers in Alaska, pleads for some law obliging regular attendance. At present no school in Alaska has advanced beyond the ordinary grammar grade. There are some pupils, however, that wish very much to continue the high-school work, and the hope is expressed that in time a high-school department may be established which shall draw advanced pupils from other sections. There is also great need for a primary teacher, Juneau having 40 children of the kindergarten age.

Juneau, No. 2.—Miss Elizabeth Saxman, teacher; enrollment, 50; population, Thlinget. During the year a comfortable building has been erected in the neighborhood of the native village. Here, as in several other places, the children of the Mission Home (Presbyterian) were the most regular in their attendance. The branches taught were reading from chart to World Reader, history, language, arithmetic, hygiene, geography, writing, and spelling. A small stock of kindergarten materials supplied the teacher proved of great service. Among the pupils was a middle-aged man who was so anxious to learn to read that he was always present at school whenever he was out of work. His diligence and zeal, although not accomplishing much for himself, was an inspiration to the children.

Douglas, No. 1.—L. A. Jones, teacher; enrollment, 42; population, white. During the winter an epidemic of scarlatina interfered very much with the progress of the school.

Douglas, No. 2.—Miss F. A. Work, teacher; enrollment, 26; population, Thlinget. This school consisted principally of children who were in the Friends' Mission Home. The pupils seemed anxious and willing to do anything required by the teacher, and while very bright in reading, writing, etc., seemed very dull in mathematics. As the Friends are proposing to establish a school the coming year for the native children, the Government will next season transfer this school to the neighborhood of the Treadwell Mills, where provision has been made for the erection of a suitable schoolhouse and teacher's residence.

Fort Wrangel.—Miss Anna R. Kelsey, teacher; enrollment, 61; population, Thlinget. During the previous vacation the well lighted and ventilated schoolroom had been further brightened up by a fresh coat of paint, adding much to its attractiveness to the children. The school has a moderate supply of apparatus, embracing physiological charts, maps, globe, numeral frame, unabridged dictionary, etc. A small supply of kindergarten material furnished the teacher has proved a valuable assistance. As at the other schools of the place, a Christmas entertainment was given the pupils. Much complaint is made of irregular attendance, many, even of children of 7 and 8 years of age, being kept from school to attend the native dances. A spirit of emulation, a desire to stand well in their classes, which has sprung up helped to secure good progress.

Klawack.—Miss Anna R. Kelsey, teacher; enrollment, 50; population, Thlinget. Owing to the smallness of the appropriation of Congress, this school has been closed for several years, and was opened during the present summer only during the vacation of the school at Fort Wrangel; but little more was accomplished than to keep up

a lingering hope in the minds of the population that some day they may be able to have school facilities for their children.

Jackson.—Mrs. C. G. McLeod, teacher; enrollment, 80; population, Thlinget. From year to year decided improvement is seen in the influence of the school upon the village. During the past year for the first time sufficient progress had been made to grade the school. The children are also showing a greater anxiety for education than formerly. A mother said to the teacher with regard to her 8-year-old boy: "What is the matter with Powell? He did not formerly care much for school; now he seems hungry for it, and frequently when the family breakfast is late, goes without his breakfast rather than be late at school."

CHURCH MISSIONS.

Cape Prince of Wales.—American Missionary Association (Congregational), Mr. and Mrs. William T. Lopp, missionaries; enrollment, 142, population, Eskimo. Upon the murder of Mr. H. R. Thornton, on August 19, 1893, there being no way of communicating with the outside world and securing another missionary, the station was suspended. In August, 1894, Mr. and Mrs. Lopp, who had been previously associated with Mr. and Mrs. Thornton, reopened the station. The past year has been the most successful and prosperous that the station has ever had. The total enrollment of the school was 142, and the average daily attendance during the school year was 108. In addition to the general exercises of the schoolroom, Mrs. Lopp conducted private classes of the advanced pupils and instructed the girls in knitting and sewing. In the fall of 1894, the Government gave the station 119 head of reindeer. During the past spring 78 fawns were born to the herd, of which 71 lived; at the present time the herd numbers 171. The reindeer were cared for by one experienced Siberian and five native Eskimo boys, ranging in ages from 14 to 19. Until April these herders lived in a log house 7 miles north of the village, and since then they have lived in a tent. The winter was unusually severe, and on several occasions when blizzards were raging the herd or parts of it were lost; but when the weather cleared up the missing ones were always found. Early in the winter of 1894 the natives seemed much interested in religion, so much so that a letter was sent to the Swedish Evangelical missions on Norton Sound inviting some of them to visit and help conduct a revival meeting. They responded by sending, in March, the Rev. David Johnson, who held special meetings for several weeks, with the result that a number of the Eskimos renounced their heathenism and accepted the religion of their teachers. Committees from a number of native villages have applied to Mr. Lopp to provide them schools.

SWEDISH EVANGELICAL UNION MISSIONS.

Unalaklik.—Missionaries, Rev. and Mrs. A. E. Karlson, Mr. David Johnson, Miss Hanna Svenson, and Miss Malvina Johnson; population, Eskimo; enrollment, 64. This is the central station on Norton Sound.

Golovin Bay.—Native missionaries, Rev. August Anderson, Rev. Mrs. N. O. Hultberg, and Mr. Frank Kameroff; enrollment, 49.

Yakutat.—Missionaries, Rev. and Mrs. Albin Johnson, Rev. K. J. Hendrickson, and Miss Selma Peterson; enrollment, 60; population, Thlinget.

PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL MISSIONS.

Anvik.—Rev. and Mrs. J. W. Chapman, Miss Bertha W. Sabine, and Dr. Mary V. Glenton, missionaries; population, Ingilik. During the year a new church building has been erected, and also a schoolhouse with accommodations for a few girls as boarding pupils; 3 girls were received as boarders during the winter. School was kept 173 days, with an average daily attendance of 16. Great prominence was given to instruction in English, with frequent translation exercises of native words into English and English into the Ingilik language; also the daily work has been first reader, reading chart, blackboard exercises, writing on slates, and translation exercises. During the three winter months Mr. Chapman took some of the older boys and gave them additional lessons outside of school hours. They can read at sight any simple English, write a clear, legible hand, translate fluently, and express themselves clearly in writing. A few of them are beginning to talk considerable English. A number of the psalms and hymns have been memorized by the school. The boarding girls take great interest in housework. Margaret, 10 years of age, makes excellent bread, biscuits, boiled rice, cleans fish or grouse, and keeps everything about the kitchen neat and bright. The day pupils among the girls do not make the same progress or take the same interest that the boys do. During the year Dr. Glenton has done much to mitigate the suffering of the people from disease and to teach the younger portion of them more attention to sanitary laws. Their language is the Ingilik. One of the teachers writes that the great trial of their work is not so

much isolation from the world with but one mail a year, nor the long, dark days of the Arctic winter, nor the severe cold, 40° below zero, but the three months of mosquitoes in summer, beside which the other annoyances become pleasures.

St. James Mission, Fort Adams.—Missionaries, Rev. and Mrs. J. L. Prevost, and Dr. Mary V. Glenton, medical missionary. The work at this station was suspended during the year while Mr. Prevost was East securing a needed rest.

Point Hope.—Missionaries, John B. Driggs, M. D., and Rev. H. E. Edson; enrollment, 86; population, Eskimo. The advancement of the children, while somewhat slow, has shown an improvement over preceding years and the question has not so much been how to secure the attendance of the children as to give attention to the number that come. This speaks well for the interest of the children, as the schoolhouse is more than a mile from the nearest residence, and a 2-mile round trip to school and return in that Arctic climate is no small journey.

ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSIONS.

The foundation of these missions on the Yukon River dates from 1886. The priests entered the Yukon Valley by way of Juneau, and first settled at Nulato, where a small day school was started. In 1888-89 a new site was selected lower down the river, and called Holy Cross Mission. This is situated about 350 miles from the mouth of the Yukon and is known on the map as Koserefski. Four sisters of St. Anne arrived, and a boarding school was started, which has proved to be most satisfactory. Soon about 40 girls and 30 boys were collected; several of these were very young, some only 3 to 4 years.

The majority of the pupils remain all the year; only a few of the children of traders go to their homes during the vacation season. With the increase of pupils extra help was needed and seven more Sisters were sent up.

The girls are taught how to sew and to make their clothing, and are also instructed in their native fur work, bootmaking, etc., by an Indian woman who has been with the Sisters from the start. The Sisters cultivate a large garden which produces potatoes, turnips, cabbage, cauliflower, radishes, and carrots. Experiments with other vegetables are made, and a large variety of hardy flowers have been raised with great success. The priests have also an extensive garden—this year one entire acre has been planted with potatoes. Timothy has been introduced, and its prospects are most favorable. The garden work is carried on entirely by the children. The natives of the neighboring village begin to show some little interest in gardening, but as yet none have acted on our advice to attempt a garden for themselves. They have coined a word meaning "big leaves," by which they designate cabbage, and are yet resting after this first agricultural effort. As an object lesson for them, we transplanted a number of wild raspberries and currants to a corner of the garden, and hope to improve these fruits by cultivation.

The children are taught to read and write, and the simple rules of arithmetic. They all, as a rule, write very beautifully, and also readily learn drawing. English is always spoken, and in a very short time there will hardly be found a village on the Yukon where a few English-speaking young people are wanting.

In connection with the boarding school at Holy Cross there is also a day school. This is held in a separate building, and is for the children of the adjoining village. The average attendance is about 30, and a number of women come very regularly. These receive a lunch of bread and tea in the middle of the day.

Innuit School.—Last year a school was started in the Delta region for the benefit of the coast Eskimo. Four Sisters have charge, and the routine, etc., is carried on exactly as at Holy Cross. There are two villages situated about forty-five minutes' walk from the school, and the children come with great regularity. Only a few as yet have been admitted as boarders, for experience teaches that it is better to keep them for a while on probation as day scholars. The Eskimos are most devoted parents and very loath to surrender their offspring. When, little by little, they see the benefit their objections fade away.

Russo-Greek Church.—The Russian Church has numerous stations along the southern coast of Alaska, with one on the Nushagak River, one upon the Yukon, and one at St. Michael.

MORAVIAN MISSIONS.

Bethel.—Missionaries, Rev. and Mrs. John H. Kilbuck, Mr. and Mrs. Benjamin Hel-mich, Miss Mary Mack, and George Nokoehluch (native) and Miss Philippine King; enrollment of pupils, 32; population, Eskimo. The school work was recommenced July 21, and was carried on very much as in previous years without any special changes or incidents to mark its even course. A special Bible class of the oldest boys was organized, who read the English fluently and translate readily into the native language. They are to be trained as catechists to visit and preach in villages when the white missionaries can not go. At the same time the missionaries form themselves

into a class for the study of the native language. In the last spring an Eskimo by the name of Neck invented a system of hieroglyphics for writing their language. He has translated several things into those characters, among them being the manual of the church and many of the parables and incidents in the life of the Savior. He can read this as readily as we read our print. On the 4th of October Miss King was transferred from Ougavig in order to assume the duties of the matron of the school. The Rev. Mr. Kilbuck had a severe attack of pneumonia which laid him aside for work from November to March. This, however, called out the zeal of the native element, and the catechists made eleven preaching journeys in Mr. Kilbuck's place. The interest created by these preaching tours was so great that the three villages of Napaskiegamiut, Napagjechagamiut, and Loamvagamieut have each asked for a religious teacher to reside permanently in their village. During the fall an important conference was held, in attendance upon which there were 21 native helpers and delegates in addition to the missionaries. At this conference the work was carefully mapped out for the year. During Mr. Kilbuck's sickness the shamans had a great gathering of the people at Qurechlagamiut for the purpose of creating opposition to the missionaries. They claimed that by their sorcery they had made Mr. Kilbuck sick, and that he would die; and that they would make all the teachers sick and die, and all the people that believed in the teaching of the missionaries should die. After they had worked themselves up to considerable frenzy against the mission work, David Skuviuk, an Eskimo boy who had attended school at Carlisle, Pa., got up before the assembled crowd and made an address so striking and convincing that the opposition was allayed and the assembly was turned from denunciation and hatred to praise and friendliness. He was followed by several of the schoolboys offering prayer. The boys taking part in such a large assemblage and in presence of their elders was a thing never before seen in that section. After the service one of the principal men from the seacoast said: "I have argued with men, but they have never shaken my determination to hold to the old tradition; but that little boy, in the presence of this audience, by his prayer unsettles me; there is something more than human that enables that boy to stand up and speak like that." The year has been one of large spiritual interest.

Ougavig.—Missionaries, Rev. and Mrs. Ernst L. Weber and Mr. and Mrs. David Skuviuk (natives); enrollment in school, 21. Twenty-six persons were confirmed to the church during the year, the native church numbering 52 communicants.

Carmel.—Missionaries, Rev. and Mrs. John Schoeichert, Misses Mary and Emma Huber; enrollment in school, 30, and average of 27; population, Eskimo. Nineteen boys and 9 girls were boarded in the home. During the year 13 communicants were added to the church. A temperance society was also formed, and a paper was signed by nearly all the fishermen and white men on the Nushagak River, promising their support in aid of efforts to maintain order and prevent the natives from making intoxicants.

METHODIST EPISCOPAL MISSIONS.

Unalaska.—Missionaries, Mr. and Mrs. John A. Tuck; attendance, 30 boarders; population, Aleut. During the year a commodious two-story building has been erected for the Jesse Lee Memorial Home, costing about \$5,000. Many of the 30 girls in the home are orphan waifs, gathered from various portions of the Aleutian chain of islands; they have been taken in, housed, fed, clothed, and educated; they are taken out of the misery and degradation that surrounded them in their aboriginal state, and are being trained up to become a civilized race, the future wives and mothers of that section of the country. In the vast territory tributary to Unalaska are numerous children, many of them children of white men and native mothers whose fathers have abandoned their mothers. Left to the care of poor, ignorant, and often drunken mothers, with no one to provide suitable food and clothing, in destitution and want, growing up like animals, it is not wonderful that this central home seems to them the very gate of heaven. Once under its Christian influences they rapidly become an independent, well-behaved set of children. Those who have been inmates of the home for three years or more, not only read, write, and speak, but seem to do their thinking in English. This is one of the bright spots in the midst of the general darkness and heathenism of western Alaska. In the fall of 1895 Mr. and Mrs. Tuck retired from the charge of the home, Mr. Tuck giving his entire attention as principal of the Government school. Miss Agnes I. Sowle, of Haganan, N. Y., was appointed to the principalship of the home; Miss E. Mellor, assistant.

BAPTIST MISSIONS.

Wood Island.—Missionaries, Mr. and Mrs. W. E. Roscoe and Miss Lulu Goodchild; attendance, 25 boarders; population, Russian creole. This mission is the only one in a distance of 1,100 miles. It is equipped with a good two-story frame building. At the close of the year Mr. and Mrs. Roscoe expect to retire from the work; their places to be supplied by Mr. and Mrs. C. T. Coe and Miss Hattie Snow. There are

hundreds of native settlements tributary to the mission, and the extent of the work is limited by the amount of funds which the Woman's American Baptist Home Missionary Society can secure for that purpose.

INDEPENDENT MISSION.

Mellakahla.—Mr. William Duncan, superintendent; enrollment, 105; population, Tsimpsheans. This unique settlement continues on the even course of its way; year by year progress is made. During the past year a handsome church has been erected by the community. The salmon cannery, in addition to paying out \$14,000 in wages to the community, has netted a dividend of 15 per cent upon capital invested.

PRESBYTERIAN MISSIONS.

Point Barrow.—During the fall of 1894 and spring of 1895 Mr. L. M. Stevenson succeeded in erecting and completing the mission house. Efforts were commenced as early as 1891 to send to this point building material, but owing to the inaccessibility of the station (300 miles north of the Arctic Circle), these efforts failed year after year until 1894. The erection of this house secures a comfortable home for the missionary, and furnishes an opportunity of carrying on his work with greater efficiency. During 1894-95 school was kept during November, December, and January, with an average daily attendance for two months of 51. Studies taught were spelling, first and second readers, and arithmetic. This station greatly needs a devoted man and his wife, who will go there expecting to make it their life work.

Last summer the revenue cutter was prevented by the arctic ice from reaching the Point, and the mission this winter is without its usual supplies. Owing to this, it has been reported that the school is closed.

St. Lawrence Island.—This large island is situated in the northern part of Bering Sea, almost under the Arctic Circle. In 1894 Mr. and Mrs. V. C. Gambell, of Wapello, Iowa, were landed and left there by the U. S. revenue cutter *Bear*, after a long and perilous trip from San Francisco to Bering Strait on a whaler.

The house which had been built three years previous was found comfortable, and the work more pleasant than expected. The school grew in interest from the opening to the close. At first all ages and classes came, crowding the schoolroom to suffocation. To secure better results, the pupils were limited to the children and young men and women. They proved apt scholars and took a pride, out of school, in airing their English, repeating to their parents and friends the English names of familiar objects. There was also no difficulty in preserving discipline, the young people seemingly not knowing how to act disrespectfully to their elders. After school the teachers frequently accompanied the pupils out upon the ice, climbing and sliding down the small icebergs or hillocks; sometimes out to a lake, where the skates of the teachers were an unfailing source of interest to the pupils. The year has been one of much success in the work. Last summer a good sewing machine and a cabinet organ were sent to the mission. Mr. and Mrs. Gambell sent by their annual mail a check for \$25 for the new Christian college in Utah. Point Barrow and St. Lawrence Island have a mail but once a year.

"Last winter was a very trying one for the native population. Food was scarcer than it had been any time since the famine of ten years ago, when three villages starved to death. As they depend almost entirely upon the sea for their food, the condition of the ice is a very important matter to them. When the wind is toward the shore, the men go out to considerable distances, seeking walrus, seals, and whale. Last winter while a large number were out a strong north wind suddenly set in, driving the ice from the shore and exposing them to great danger. All but four reached land in a short time, but these four were out until the next morning and almost perished. A snow storm set in, hiding the village from them; so a light was hoisted to the vane of the teacher's house, and the big bell kept tolling all night, enabling them to keep their bearings, as they could not otherwise have done. When, as happened to be the case last winter, the north wind brings the ice down in great blocks, and piles it up high as haystacks along the beach and far out into the sea, the natives are not able to go out from land, and great destitution prevails. Every seal that is caught is divided among the people, suffering having taught them compassion. The want of food was so great that in some houses every scrap of food was eaten, even to the walrus hide, which can be compared to nothing but the raw hide in a riding whip. Some of the natives had eaten even their dogs, which are as valuable to them as horses to us. Mr. Gambell gave as freely as possible of his own stores, always, however, exacting something in return, so as not to foster begging among them, a trait that is sadly prevalent. During the time of greatest straits, he several times gave the school, 30 or 40 boys, a dinner. Beans were once the bill of fare. While the meal was in progress he gave them the empty tin cans, telling them that he had no further use for them. The guests immediately ceased eating, hungry as they were, packed the beans back into the cans, and carried them home to share with their

families. When he gives them hard tack for shoveling snow, they carry it home to divide with the starving ones there. Where, in our country, would we find such self-denial and thoughtfulness among a crowd of hungry, starving boys? This destitution has greatly touched the missionaries. They forbear to waste a scrap of food, 'nothing being thrown out but potato parings and the scrapings of the mush pot.' They one day noticed the boys picking up something from the yard, and on investigation found it to be cherry seeds that they were saving to get the pits from to eat."

Haines.—From St. Lawrence Island to Haines is a journey of about 2,000 miles. At Haines is the ordinary force of workers, Rev. and Mrs. W. W. Warne, Miss A. M. Sheets, and Miss Fannie Willard (native). The sowing has been followed by the reaping, and the teachers are rejoicing in an outpouring of God's spirit upon the natives. The religious meetings are so crowded that all who would like can not attend. The greatness of the blessing necessitates an enlargement of the work. The schoolhouse, used also for church, should be enlarged so as to hold from 250 to 300. Also a consecrated layman and wife should be sent to relieve Mr. Warne of a portion of his secular duties and give him more time for evangelistic work.

Hoonah.—Here Mrs. John W. McFarland and Mrs. Mary Howell, two lone women, are holding the fort. They look after all the interests of the village, hear and settle disputes, care for the sick, keep school, and carry on all the religious services. This they have been doing for two years past. They greatly need the help of a devoted minister, and the Board of Home Missions is now corresponding with a student at McCormick Seminary for the place.

Juneau.—The workers in the native mission are Rev. and Mrs. L. F. Jones, Miss Sue Davis, Miss M. E. Gould, and Mr. Frederick Moore (native). The home, owing to the inability of the woman's executive committee to supply the necessary support, has not been as full as usual. The progress of those left in it, however, has been encouraging. The attendance at church continues good, and every communion sees new ones receiving Christian baptism and making a public profession of their faith in Christ and commencing a Christian life.

The white church is still without a pastor. There is a good probability, however, that one will be sent this coming spring. It is a very needy and important field. Rev. Mr. Jones, in addition to his work for the natives, is doing what he can in holding services and looking after the interests of the white population.

Sitka.—This central mission station continues to make progress from year to year. At the present time Mr. Austin writes that a very gracious revival is in progress and a large number have been received into the church on profession of faith. The native church now numbers over 600 communicants.

The attendance at the industrial school is smaller than usual as over 50 pupils had to be sent away last year on account of scarcity of funds. If the church at large could see the result of sending away these immortal beings, just coming to a knowledge of the light, the treasury would be filled to overflowing even in these hard times. Some of the girls sent away were sold by their friends, one to a Chinaman. Rev. A. E. Austin continues pastor of both the native and white churches, and Mr. U. P. Shull is superintendent of the industrial school. Professor Shull has an efficient corps of 13 godly men and women to assist him in the school. Messrs. Shull, Austin, and Wilbur issue a small monthly paper called the North Star, that should be in every family in the church.

Fort Wrangell.—This oldest mission station has had many reverses and drawbacks during its existence, but Rev. and Mrs. Clarence Thwing are bravely toiling away. The home has been closed from want of funds. Dr. Thwing publishes a small quarterly, the Northern Light, which is full of missionary news. If those who complain of want of material to interest missionary meetings will subscribe for the North Star and Northern Light they will be supplied with Alaska matter at least.

Jackson.—The workers are Rev. and Mrs. J. L. Gould, Mrs. A. R. McFarland, and Miss A. J. Manning. Miss C. Baker was transferred last fall from the mission to the Government school. The boys' home has been discontinued for want of funds. This is an important field.

Saxman.—For seventeen years past the Cape Fox and Port Tongas natives have been clamoring for a missionary. They were so few in number that the church would not be justified in establishing two missions. They were informed, however, that if the two tribes would settle in one place their request would be granted.

To assist in bringing this about, in the early winter of 1886 Mr. S. A. Saxman, Mr. Louis Paul, and Mr. Edgar started to select a suitable place. They were lost at sea in a storm, and for a time the whole matter dropped. In 1894 the two tribes again became clamorous for a missionary, and on the 4th and 5th of July, 1895, I held a convention with them on the subject. A site was selected and the people agreed to abandon their present villages and build upon the new site in order to have school and church privileges. In moving to the new place they sign a paper, similar to that required for settlement in Metlakahla, and which is in effect that no intoxicating liquors shall be brought into the village, none of their former

heathen customs, dances, rites, etc., shall be practiced, that when sick they will not apply to a shaman, and that they will attend church, school, etc.

Mr. James W. Young, with Henry Phillips as interpreter and assistant, is in charge of the Government school. A consecrated minister and wife will here find a door of usefulness wide open—a needy field where the people are hungry for the gospel, and an opportunity to mold the destinies of two tribes and bring them out of heathen darkness and barbarism into the marvelous light and joy of a Christian civilization. The new station has been named Saxman.

Klawack.—This station is still closed for want of funds. Miss A. Kelsey, of Fort Wrangell, taught the school for three months during last summer. Rev. Mr. Gould, of Jackson, has occasionally given the place some attention, and with much encouragement.

PERSONNEL.

Dr. Sheldon Jackson, Alaska, general agent of education in Alaska; William Hamilton, Pennsylvania, assistant agent of education in Alaska; William A. Kelly, Pennsylvania, superintendent of schools for the southeastern district of Alaska.

The First Comptroller of the United States Treasury, in a letter dated February 5, 1894, made a ruling that the voucher of James Sheakley, governor of Alaska, for services as councillor of the office of education in Alaska, from January 1 to June 30, 1894, amounting to \$100, could not be paid for the reason that he was a United States official drawing a salary from the Government, and could not be paid a second salary for looking after school matters. The advisory board was composed of the governor of the Territory, the United States district judge, and the general agent of education, all three officers of the Government, and as this decision prevented the payment of their compensation for extra services the advisory board was discontinued.

LOCAL SCHOOL COMMITTEES.

Sitka: Edward de Groff, Chas. D. Rogers, John G. Brady. Juneau: Karl Koehler, John G. Heid. Douglas: P. H. Fox, Albert Anderson. Fort Wrangell: Thos. A. Willson, Finis Cagle, W. G. Thomas. Jackson: Jas. W. Young, G. Loomis Gould. Metlakahla: William Duncan, David J. Leask. Kadiak: Nicolai Kashevaroff, F. Sargent, H. P. Cope. Unga: C. M. Dederick, Michael Dowd, George Levitt. Unalaska: N. B. Anthony.

Teachers of public schools.

School.	Teacher.	State.
Sitka, No. 1	Mrs. Gertrude Knapp	Pennsylvania.
Sitka, No. 2	Miss Cassia Patton	Do.
Juneau, No. 1	S. A. Keller	Indiana.
Juneau, No. 2	Miss Elizabeth Saxman	Pennsylvania.
Douglas, No. 1	Lathan A. Jones	Indiana.
Douglas, No. 2	Miss F. J. Work	Illinois.
Wrangell	Miss A. R. Kelsey	Pennsylvania.
Metlakahla	William Duncan	England.
Jackson	Mrs. C. G. McLeod	West Virginia.
Haines	W. W. Warne	New Jersey.
Kadiak	C. C. Solter	Kansas.
Unga	O. R. McKinney	Pennsylvania.
Afognak	Mrs. C. M. Colwell	Alaska.
Unalaska	John A. Tuck	Massachusetts.
Unalaska	Miss M. J. Short	Arkansas.
Port Clarence	T. L. Brevig	Minnesota.
St. Lawrence Island	V. C. Gambell	Iowa.
Reindeer station at Port Clarence	W. A. Kjellmann, superintendent	Wisconsin.
	T. L. Brevig	Do.
	M. A. Eira, Frederik Larsen, Johan Speinsen Tormensis, Johan Mikkel Josefser Nakkila, Per Alasker Rist, Aslak Larsen Somy.	Lapland.

Statistics of education in Alaska.

Public schools.	Enrollment.										Teachers in the public schools, 1894-95.
	1865-86.	1886-87.	1887-88.	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.	1892-93.	1893-94.	1894-95.	
Afognak	(a)	35	24	55	38	37	35	40	38	38	Mrs. C. M. Colwell.
Douglas City, No. 1.....	(b)	(b)	67	94	50	23	25	13	30	42	L. A. Jones.
Douglas City, No. 2.....	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	92	68	24	108	87	26	Miss F. J. Work.
Fort Wrangell.....	50	106	106	90	83	93	49	49	54	61	Miss A. R. Kelsey.
Haines.....	84	43	144	123	(b)	(b)	89	54	41	64	W. W. Warne.
Jackson.....	87	123	110	105	87	100	100	82	90	80	Mrs. C. G. McLeod.
Juneau, No. 1.....	96	236	25	36	31	33	26	23	25	54	S. A. Keller.
Juneau, No. 2.....	(b)	(b)	67	53	51	51	75	61	65	50	Miss E. Saxman.
Kadiak.....	(a)	50	81	68	67	80	69	74	59	56	C. C. Solter.
Karluk.....	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	33	29	(b)	(b)	(b)	
Killisnoo.....	(a)	125	44	90	32	68	33	137	75	(b)	
Klawock.....	(a)	184	81	75	68	50	38	(b)	(b)	50	Miss A. R. Kelsey.
Kotzeb, No. 1.....	43	60	60	67	58	54	59	50	43	37	Mrs. G. Knapp.
Sitka, No. 2.....	77	138	60	51	83	55	54	48	110	180	Miss C. Patton.
Unga.....	(b)	35	26	(b)	24	(b)	33	35	36	40	O. R. McKinney.
Unalakleet.....									24	39	J. A. Tuck.
Port Clarence.....	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	20	30	56	T. L. Brevig.
Metlakatla.....										105	William Duncan.
St. Lawrence Island.....										52	V. C. Gambell.

a Enrollment not known.

b No school.

Appropriations for education in Alaska.

First grant to establish schools, 1884	\$25,000
Annual grants, school year—	
1886-87	15,000
1887-88	25,000
1888-89	40,000
1889-90	50,000
1890-91	50,000
1891-92	50,000
1892-93	40,000
1893-94	30,000
1894-95	30,000
1895-96	30,000

TEACHERS AND EMPLOYEES IN CHURCH MISSION SCHOOLS.

Anvik (Episcopal): Rev. and Mrs. J. W. Chapman, Miss Bertha W. Sabine, Mary V. Glenton.

Point Hope: Rev. E. H. Edson, J. B. Driggs, M. D.

Yakutat (Swedish Evangelical): Rev. H. J. Hendrickson, Rev. and Mrs. Albin Johnson, Miss Selma Peterson.

Unalakleet: Rev. A. E. Karlson, Mr. David Johnson, Miss Malvina Johnson.

Golovin Bay: Rev. August Anderson, Rev. N. O. Hultberg, Mrs. N. G. Hultberg, Mr. Frank Kameroff, assistant.

Bethel (Moravian): Rev. and Mrs. John H. Kilbuck, Mr. and Mrs. Benjamin Helmick, Miss Mary Mack, Miss Phillippine King, and George Nokochluch (native).

Carmel: Rev. and Mrs. John Schoecheit, Misses Mary and Emma Huber.

Ugavik: Rev. and Mrs. Ernst L. Weber, Miss Philippine King, David Skuviuk (native).

Quinehaha: Kawagaleg (native).

Kozyrevski (Roman Catholic): Rev. Paschal Tosi, prefect apostle of Alaska; Rev. R. Crimont, S. J.; Brother Rosatti, S. J.; Brother Marchesio, S. J.; Brother Cunningham, S. J.; Sisters M. Stephen, M. Joseph, M. Winifred, M. Anguilbert, M. Heloise, M. Damascene.

Nulato: Rev. A. Ragaru, S. J.; Rev. F. Monroe, S. J.; Brother Giordana, S. J.

Shageluk Station: Rev. William Judge, S. J.

Kuskokwim River, Urukhamute: Rev. A. Robant, S. J.

St. Josephs, Yukon Delta: Rev. J. Treca, S. J.; Rev. A. Parodi, S. J.; Rev. F. Barnum, S. J.; Brother Thowigg, S. J.; Brother Negro, S. J.

Girls' School: Sisters M. Zyperine, M. Benedict, M. Prudence, M. Pauline.

Juneau: Rev. John Althoff, Sisters Mary Zeno, M. Peter, and M. Bousecouer.

Capo Prince of Wales (Congregationalist): Mr. and Mrs. William T. Lopp.

Wood Island (Baptist): Mr. and Mrs. W. E. Roscoe, Miss Lulu C. Goodchild.
 Unalaska (Methodist): Mr. and Mrs. John A. Tuck.
 Douglas and Kake stations (Friends): No report.
 Haines (Presbyterian): Rev. W. W. Warne, Miss Anna May Sheets, Miss Frances H. Willard (native).
 Fort Wrangell: Rev. Clarence Thwing, Mrs. Clarence Thwing.
 Hoonah Mission: Mrs. J. W. McFarland, Mrs. Mary E. Howell.
 Hydah Mission: Rev. J. Loomis Gould, Mrs. A. R. McFarland, Miss Christeana Baker, Mrs. R. R. Gould, Frank P. Loomis, Mrs. Frank P. Loomis.
 Juneau Mission: Rev. L. F. Jones, Mrs. L. F. Jones, Miss Susan Davis, Miss Mollie E. Gould, Miss Etta R. Berk, F. L. Moore.
 Point Barrow: L. M. Stevenson.
 St. Lawrence: V. C. Gambell and Mrs. V. C. Gambell.
 Sitka Mission: Rev. A. E. Austin, Mr. U. P. Shull, superintendent; Mrs. A. E. Austin, Mrs. U. P. Shull, Mrs. Margaret C. Wade, Miss Hattie E. Weaver, Mrs. Matilda K. Paul (native), Mrs. Ella C. Heizer, Mrs. Margaret A. Saxman, Mrs. Sadie L. Wallace, Miss Essie Gibson, A. T. Simson, Mrs. A. T. Simson, J. A. Shields, John E. Gamble, Willie Wells, B. K. Wilbur, M. D., Mrs. Adelia H. Carter, Charles E. Coates, Mrs. Charles E. Coates, Mr. Solberg, Mr. George J. Beck, Mr. F. E. Froese.

ITINERARY.

On the 6th of May I left Washington for Alaska, and reached the mail steamer *City of Topeka* at Seattle on the 24th. Schools and stations were visited during the summer at Metlakahtla, Fort Wrangell, Juneau, Douglas, Haines, and Sitka.

In July I made a special trip to the Cape Fox and Port Tongass Thlingets. For eighteen years past they have again and again asked for a school. As they were very much scattered they were told that it would not be practicable to place a school in each of their villages—that if they would unite in one place their request would be granted. To assist in bringing this about in 1886 Mr. and Mrs. Louis Paul were sent by the Home Mission Society of the Presbyterian Church, and Mr. and Mrs. S. A. Saxman by the Government to establish a school and mission work.

During the winter of 1886-87 Messrs. Saxman, Paul, and Edgar, while off in search of a suitable location for the new village, were drowned, and the enterprise, for the time being, was abandoned.

Unexpectedly in the spring of 1895 a special appropriation of Congress opened the way for a school building and negotiations were reopened.

The leading men of both tribes were notified, and a council called to meet me at Ketchikan July 4. During the morning of that day a small steamer passing up the coast made a landing and sold some liquor, upon which several of the leading men got drunk.

This delayed the council until the 5th. On the 5th there was a large attendance of men, with a long, full, and satisfactory consideration of the question of a new village and school.

With considerable unanimity public sentiment was in favor of a site at the lower end of Tongass Narrows. It was visited, carefully looked over, and a site marked for the schoolhouse.

The building, containing a schoolroom and a teachers' residence, was erected during August.

The consolidated village was named Saxman after the Government teacher who lost his life in looking for a suitable location for the village.

On the 15th of August I was back again at the office in Washington. The supervision of western and Arctic Alaska was this year delegated to my assistant, Mr. William Hamilton.

Leaving Washington on the 15th of April Mr. Hamilton reached Tacoma six days later, and took the *City of Topeka* for Sitka. At Sitka, taking passage May 1 on the mail steamer *Dora*, he visited Yakutat, Nucheek, Prince William Sound, Wood Island, Kadiak, Karluk, Unga, and Sand Point, reaching Unalaska May 12.

While waiting to join the United States revenue-cutter *Bear* in its Arctic cruise he became intimately acquainted with the work being done in the home under the supervision of Mr. and Mrs. Tuck, and reports that a neater, more intelligent, well-behaved set of children it would be hard to find anywhere in the country. In the schoolroom, which he visited repeatedly, he found that good progress had been made in the acquisition of the English language. From its commencement in 1889 until the past summer the home has been maintained in a small one and one-half story rented cottage. During the summer a commodious boarding house was erected.

Mr. Hamilton joined the *Bear* at Unalaska. The cruise of the *Bear* in 1895 was over much the same course as in previous years.

After patrolling the North Pacific during May and June the *Bear* left the wharf at Dutch Harbor, Unalaska, on June 24 for her Arctic trip. The next day she sighted through the fog first St. George Island and then St. Paul. The sea being too rough

to land, the ship pushed on to the northwest, passing St. Matthew Island on June 26 and reaching anchorage at St. Lawrence Island on June 28. Very soon the natives swarmed on board, bringing tidings that Mr. and Mrs. Gambell, in charge of the Government school on the island, were in excellent health and had had a very successful year. A sewing machine and a cabinet organ for Mrs. Gambell, with supplies for the family and a twelve months' mail, were landed safely through the surf. Hoisting anchor on June 30 the *Bear* crossed over to Indian Point, Siberia, about 40 miles distant. There two Cossack officers of the Russian army were found taking a census of the village. This was the first visit of Russian officials to that section of the Siberian coast in many years, and the natives brought the Russian coins they had received from them over to the ship to sell as curios. Here, as elsewhere on the trip, the ship's surgeon went ashore to treat the sick and ailing. The principal native of the village is Koharri, who is a noted trader all along the coast. He has a little frame whale house filled from floor to ceiling with tobacco, flour, and looking-glasses, which he has obtained from the whalers and from which he supplies the country for hundreds of miles around. This man has been known to have as much as \$75,000 worth of whalebone in his storehouse at one time. He does a business of probably \$100,000 a year, and yet not a single coin of gold or silver nor a single bank note or bank check is used, nor are any books kept. All transactions are by barter, furs and whalebones being exchanged for tobacco, flour, and whisky. This wholesale merchant of the north Siberian coast can neither read nor write, nor can anyone associated with him. Although so wealthy, he lives in an ordinary tent and sleeps on the ground on a pile of reindeer skins.

On several occasions the *Bear*, in search of reindeer, has turned southward from Indian Point and sailed up Holy Cross Sound, at the head of Anadir Gulf, some 300 miles into Siberia. In 1893, while in search of reindeer, we discovered a large river emptying into Holy Cross Sound. After visiting a herd of reindeer, an officer and crew entered the mouth of this stream, the *Bear* being the first ocean steamer that ever plowed those waters. This season the *Bear*, turning northward, anchored, on July 1, off South Head, St. Lawrence Bay. Peter and Kaimok, the leading men of that section, came on board and sold 40 head of reindeer. The herd, however, was on the opposite side of the bay and could not be reached until the ice should go out, a month later. Being unwilling to wait, the captain set sail for King Island, which was reached the next morning. At this point during two previous seasons the *Bear* was caught and imprisoned in large ice floes.

Leaving the island at 8 a. m., the *Bear* soon encountered large cakes of ice at the entrance to Port Clarence. Forcing her way through the ice, she found seven whalers at anchor inside, and news was received of the successful winter of the reindeer herds. The 4th of July was spent with the whaling fleet, at anchor. A baseball game on shore and a salute of twenty-one guns at noon, with a dinner on the *Bear* to the whaling captains, comprised the public celebration of the day. On July 5 the *Bear* left for St. Michael, where she arrived the following day. On July 8 anchor was hoisted and a trip was made to the native village on Sledge Island. On July 9 the steamer made Bering Straits, calling at East Cape, where four or five influential natives were taken on board to aid in procuring reindeer. Learning that there was a large herd about 50 miles to the northward, the vessel entered the Arctic Ocean. Early in the morning of July 11 the *Bear*, picking and pushing her way through the ice, reached Utan. At this place 16 deer were purchased and brought on board. Continuing the trip up the coast, the *Bear* tied up to a huge ice floe near Cape Serdze, Siberia. While there target practice was had at distant pieces of ice. On the 14th, learning that there were some deer at Chacorán, the vessel steamed over to that village, where 22 deer were secured. The ice closing in, the cutter was compelled to move a few miles farther south. At this point 73 head of deer were purchased, and at midnight the *Bear* got under way for the reindeer station at Port Clarence, passing through a gale on the 16th and reaching Point Spencer on the 17th, where she anchored. About noon on the 20th, the gale having subsided, the *Bear* steamed over to the station and landed the deer. The brig *W. H. Meyer*, with the annual supplies for the several stations and schools, was found wrecked on the beach in front of the station, having gone ashore during the gale on the night of the 17th. The supplies for the reindeer station had fortunately all been landed, but those for the schools at Cape Prince of Wales and Point Barrow were lost.

On July 22 the *Bear* weighed anchor and headed for Siberia for another load of reindeer, and on July 23 she reached St. Lawrence Bay. On the 24th she steamed to the head of the bay, where 43 head were secured. The next day she returned to the reindeer station, where the deer were landed on the 26th. On the 28th, the *Bear* having taken on board Mr. and Mrs. Hanna, who had been wrecked on the *W. H. Meyer*, with their supplies received from reindeer station, sailed for Cape Prince of Wales, where they were landed that afternoon. Again hoisting anchor the steamer left for Kotzebue Sound. On the way the schooner *Jessie* was boarded and examined. On July 30 the *Bear* anchored in the lee of Chamisso Island. On the 31st, while the

vessel was lying windbound, Dr. Sharp and Mr. Justice, of the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences, and Mr. Hamilton, together with a party of officers, made an excursion to Choris Peninsula. On August 5 the steamer left for Point Hope, where it arrived next day. Here the school and whaling stations were visited, and Dr. Driggs, one of the teachers, who had been in that country for five years, was taken on board to return to the States for a vacation.

On August 7 the *Bear* started up the coast for Point Barrow, wending its way through large packs of floating ice, and on the following day caught up with the whaling fleet at anchor near Icy Cape, at the southern edge of the great Arctic ice pack. The whaling fleet had been at anchor for nineteen days, waiting for the ice to open. The *Bear* lay there for fourteen days longer, waiting for an opportunity to get farther north. Parties from Point Barrow who came down the coast for their mail reported that the past winter had not been very cold, the lowest temperature being 30° below zero. Giving up all expectation of getting farther north, young ice forming on the sea and on the rigging of the vessel, the captain concluded to turn southward, which he did on August 22. The following day a shoal of walrus was sighted several miles away, and hunting parties were sent out and secured 10 of them. Picking up the walrus, the vessel continued southward, calling at Point Hope the next day and reaching the reindeer station August 27. Two days were spent in securing requisitions and finishing up the business of the year. On September 1 the steamer, while near St. Michael, took on board 16 destitute miners from the Yukon region. On the evening of September 4 the vessel anchored off the St. Lawrence Island village. The evening was spent in closing up the season's business at the station. Requisitions were made out for another year's supplies, last letters were received, farewells were spoken, and Mr. and Mrs. Gambell were again cut off from all communication with the outside world for another year. At 4 a. m. on September 5 the *Bear* was again under way. September 6 St. Matthew and Hall Islands were passed, and on the 7th anchor was dropped at St. Paul Island, where on the 8th a landing was made for a few hours. On September 9 a similar landing was made at St. George Island, and at noon on September 11 anchor was dropped in Dutch Harbor, Unalaska, closing the Arctic cruise of 1895.

At Unalaska, by the courtesy of Capt. C. L. Hooper, Mr. Hamilton was received on board the United States revenue-cutter *Rush*, on which he remained until her arrival at San Francisco, October 6. On October 9 the start was made for Washington, which was reached on the 14th, completing a trip of about 16,000 miles during the season.

INTRODUCTION OF DOMESTIC REINDEER INTO ALASKA.

When in the year 1890 I visited arctic Alaska for the purpose of establishing schools, I found the Eskimo population slowly dying off with starvation. For ages they and their fathers had secured a comfortable living from the products of the sea, principally the whale, the walrus, and the seal. The supplies of the sea had been supplemented by the fish and aquatic birds of their rivers and the caribou or wild reindeer that roamed in large herds over the inland tundra.

The supply of these in years past was abundant and furnished ample food for all the people. But fifty years ago American whalers, having largely exhausted the supply in other waters, found their way into the North Pacific Ocean. Then commenced for that section the slaughter and destruction of whales that went steadily forward at the rate of hundreds and thousands annually, until they were killed off or driven out of the Pacific Ocean. They were then followed into Bering Sea, and the slaughter went on. The whales took refuge among the ice fields of the Arctic Ocean, and thither the whalers followed. In this relentless hunt the remnant have been driven still farther into the inaccessible regions around the North Pole, and are no longer within reach of the natives.

As the great herds of buffalo that once roamed the Western prairies have been exterminated for their pelts, so the whales have been sacrificed for the fat that incased their bodies and the bone that hung in their mouths. With the destruction of the whale one large source of food supply for the natives has been cut off.

Another large supply was derived from the walrus, which once swarmed in great numbers in those northern seas, but commerce wanted more ivory, and the whalers turned their attention to the walrus, destroying thousands annually for the sake of their tusks. Where a few years ago they were so numerous that their howlings were heard above the roar of the waves and grinding and crashing of the ice fields, last year I cruised for weeks seeing but few. The walrus, as a source of food supply, is already very scarce.

The sea lions, once so common in Bering Sea, are now becoming so few in number that it is with difficulty that the natives procure a sufficient number of skins to cover their boats, and the flesh of the walrus, on account of its rarity, has become a luxury.

In the past the natives, with tireless industry, caught and cured, for use in their

long winters, great quantities of fish, but American canneries have already come to some of their streams, and will soon be found on all of them, both carrying the food out of the country, and, by their wasteful methods, destroying the future supply. Five million cans of salmon annually shipped away from Alaska—and the business still in its infancy—means starvation to the native races in the near future.

With the advent of improved breech-loading firearms the wild reindeer are both being killed off and frightened away to the remote and more inaccessible regions of the interior, and another source of food supply is diminishing. Thus the support of the people is largely gone, and the process of slow starvation and extermination has commenced along the whole arctic coast of Alaska.

To establish schools among a starving people would be of little service; hence education, civilization, and humanity alike called for relief. The sea could not be restocked with whale as a stream can be restocked with fish. To feed the population at Government expense would pauperize and in the end as certainly destroy them. Some other method had to be devised. This was suggested by the wild nomad tribes on the Siberian side of Bering Straits. They had an unailing food supply in their large herds of domestic reindeer. Why not introduce the domestic reindeer on the American side and thus provide a new and adequate food supply?

To do this will give the Eskimo as permanent a food supply as the cattle of the Western plains and sheep of New Mexico and Arizona do the inhabitants of those sections. It will do more than preserve life—it will preserve the self-respect of the people and advance them in the scale of civilization. It will change them from hunters to herders. It will also utilize the hundreds of thousands of square miles of moss-covered tundra of arctic and subarctic Alaska and make those now useless and barren wastes conducive to the wealth and prosperity of the United States.

A moderate computation, based upon the statistics of Lapland, where similar climatic and other conditions exist, shows northern and central Alaska capable of supporting over 9,000,000 head of reindeer.

To reclaim and make valuable vast areas of land otherwise worthless; to introduce large, permanent, and wealth-producing industries where none previously existed; to take a barbarian people on the verge of starvation and lift them up to a comfortable self-support and civilization is certainly a work of national importance.

Returning to Washington on November 12, 1890, I addressed to the Commissioner of Education a preliminary report of the season's work, emphasizing the destitute condition of the Alaskan Eskimo and recommending the introduction of the domestic reindeer of Siberia.

On the 5th of December following, this report was transmitted by the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior for his information, and on the 15th transmitted to the Senate by Hon. George Chandler, Acting Secretary of the Interior. On the following day it was referred by the Senate to the Committee on Education and Labor.

On the 19th of December Hon. Louis E. McComas, of Maryland, introduced into the House of Representatives a joint resolution (H. Res. No. 258) providing that the act of Congress approved March 2, 1887, "An act to establish agricultural experiment stations in connection with the colleges established in the several States," should be extended by the Secretary of the Interior over Alaska, with the expectation that the purchase, improvement, and management of domestic reindeer should be made a part of the industrial education of the proposed college.

The resolution was referred to the Committee on Education, and on the 9th of January, 1891, reported back to the House of Representatives for passage.

It was, however, so near the close of the short term of Congress that the resolution was not reached. When it became apparent that it would not be reached in the usual way, the Hon. Henry M. Teller, on the 26th of February, moved an amendment to the bill (H. R. 13462) making appropriations for sundry civil expenses of the Government for the year ending June 30, 1892, appropriating \$15,000 for the introduction of domestic reindeer into Alaska, which was carried. The appropriation failed to receive the concurrence of the conference committee of the House of Representatives.

Upon the failure of the Fifty-first Congress to take action, and deprecating the delay of twelve months before another attempt could be made, I issued, with the approval of the Commissioner of Education, an appeal in the Mail and Express of New York City, the Boston Transcript, the Philadelphia Ledger, the Chicago Inter-Ocean, and the Washington Star, as well as in a number of the religious newspapers of the country, for contributions to this object. The response was prompt and generous; \$2,146 were received.

As the season had arrived for the usual visit of inspection and supervision of the schools in Alaska, in addition to my regular work for the schools I was authorized to commence the work of introducing domestic reindeer into Alaska. The natives of Siberia who own the reindeer, knowing nothing of the use of money, an assortment of goods for the purpose of barter for the reindeer was procured from the funds so generously contributed by benevolent people.

The honorable Secretary of the Treasury issued instructions to Captain Healy to furnish me every possible facility for the purchase and transportation of reindeer from Siberia to Alaska. The honorable Secretary of State secured from the Russian Government instructions to their officers on the Siberian coast also to render what assistance they could, and on May 25, 1891, I again took passage on the revenue cutter *Bear*, Captain Healy in command, for the coast of Siberia.

The proposition to introduce domestic reindeer into Alaska had excited widespread and general interest. In the public discussions which arose with regard to the scheme, a sentiment was found in some circles that it was impracticable; that on account of the superstitions of the natives they would be unwilling to sell their stock alive; further, that the nature of the reindeer was such that they would not bear ship transportation, and also that, even if they could be purchased and safely transported, the native dogs on the Alaskan coast would destroy or the natives kill them for food. This feeling, which was held by many intelligent men, was asserted so strongly and positively that it was thought best the first season to make haste slowly, and instead of purchasing a large number of reindeer to possibly die on shipboard or perhaps to be destroyed by the Alaskan dogs (thus at the very outset prejudicing the scheme), it was deemed wiser and safer to buy only a few.

Therefore, in the time available from other educational duties during the season of 1891, I again carefully reviewed the ground and secured all possible additional information with regard to the reindeer, and, while delaying the actual establishment of a herd until another season, refuted the objections that the natives will not sell and the deer will not bear transportation by actually buying and transporting them.

The work was so new and untried that many things could only be found out by actual experience.

First. The wild deer men of Siberia are a very superstitious people, and need to be approached with great wisdom and tact. If a man should sell us deer and the following winter an epidemic break out in his herd or some calamity befall his family, the Shamans would make him believe that his misfortune was all due to the sale of the deer.

Second. The Siberian deer men are a nonprogressive people. They have lived for ages outside of the activities and progress of the world. As the fathers did, so continue to do their children. Now, they have never before been asked to sell their deer; it is a new thing to them, and they do not know what to make of it. They were suspicious of our designs. Another difficulty arises from the fact that they can not understand what we want with the reindeer. They have no knowledge of such a motive as doing good to others without pay.

As a rule, the men with the largest herds, who can best afford to sell, are inland and difficult to reach. Then business selfishness comes in. The introduction of the reindeer on the American side may to some extent injuriously affect their trade in deer skins. From time immemorial they have been accustomed to take their skins to Alaska and exchange them for oil. To establish herds in Alaska will, they fear, ruin this business.

Another difficulty experienced was the impossibility of securing a competent interpreter. A few of the natives of the Siberian coast have spent one or more seasons on a whaler, and thus picked up a very little English. And upon this class we have been dependent in the past.

However, notwithstanding all these difficulties and delays, Captain Healy, with the *Bear*, coasted from 1,200 to 1,500 miles, calling at the various villages and holding conferences with the leading reindeer owners on the Siberian coast. Arrangements were made for the purchase of animals the following season. Then, to answer the question whether the reindeer could be purchased and transported alive, I bought 16 head, kept them on shipboard for some three weeks, passing through a gale so severe that the ship had to "lie to," and finally landed them in good condition at Amaknak Island, in the harbor of Unalaska.

Upon my return to Washington City in the fall of 1891 the question was again urged upon the attention of Congress, and on the 17th of December, 1891, Hon. H. M. Teller introduced a bill (S. 1109) appropriating \$15,000, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, for the purpose of introducing and maintaining in the Territory of Alaska reindeer for domestic purposes. This bill was referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hon. Algernon S. Paddock, chairman. The committee took favorable action, and the bill was passed by the Senate on May 23, 1892. On the following day it was reported to the House of Representatives and referred to the Committee on Appropriations. A similar bill (H. R. 7764) was introduced into the House of Representatives by Hon. A. C. Durborow and referred to the Committee on Agriculture.

On April 15 Hon. S. B. Alexander, of North Carolina, reported the bill to the House of Representatives with the approval of the Committee on Agriculture. The bill was placed on the calendar, but failed to pass the House.

On the 2d of May, 1892, I started for my third summer's work on the coast of Siberia and Arctic Alaska in the United States revenue-cutter *Bear*, Capt. M. A. Healy, commanding, and, on the 29th of June following, selected in the northeast corner of Port Clarence (the nearest good harbor to Bering Straits on the American side) a suitable location for the establishment of an industrial school, the principal industry of which is the management and propagation of domestic reindeer. The institution is named the Teller Reindeer Station.

During the summer of 1892 I made five visits to Siberia, purchasing and transporting to Port Clarence 171 head of reindeer. I also superintended the erection of a large building for the offices and residence of the superintendent of the station, Mr. Miner W. Bruce, of Nebraska.

Returning to Washington in the early winter, agitation was at once commenced before Congress, resulting in an appropriation by the Fifty-second Congress, second session (March 3, 1893), of "\$6,000, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, for the purpose of introducing and maintaining in the Territory of Alaska reindeer for domestic purposes." The management of this fund was wisely laid upon the Commissioner of Education and was made a part of the school system of Alaska.

During the spring of 1893, 79 fawns were born to the herd at the Teller Reindeer Station, and during the summer 127 deer were purchased in Siberia and added to the Alaska herd.

At the expiration of his year's service Mr. Bruce resigned, and Mr. W. T. Lopp, of Indiana, was appointed superintendent.

During April, May, and June, 1894, 186 fawns were born to the herd, of which 41 were lost by being frozen or deserted by their mothers. During the summer I purchased in Siberia 120 head, which were added to the herd.

Siberian herders were employed at the beginning of the enterprise, not because they were considered the best, but because they were near by and were the only ones that could be had at the time. It was realized from the first that if the Alaskan Eskimo were to be taught the breeding and care of the reindeer, it was important that they should have the benefit of the most intelligent instructors and of the best methods that were in use. By universal consent it is admitted that the Lapps of northern Europe, because of their superior intelligence (nearly all of them being able to read and write and some of them being acquainted with several languages), are much superior to the Samoyedes deer men of northern Europe and Asia and the barbarous deer men of northeastern Siberia. Intelligence applied to the raising of reindeer, just as to any other industry, produces the best results.

Therefore, when in 1893 it was ascertained that the herd at Port Clarence had safely passed its first winter (thus assuring its permanence), I at once set about securing herders from Lapland. There being no public funds available to meet the expense of sending an agent to Norway in order to secure skilled Lapp herders, I had recourse again to the private benefactions of friends of the enterprise, and \$1,000 was contributed.

Mr. William A. Kjellmann, of Madison, Wis., was selected as superintendent of the Teller Reindeer Station and sent to Lapland for herders. He sailed from New York City February 21, and landed upon his return May 12, 1894, having with him seven men, their wives and children, making sixteen souls in all. This was the first colony of Lapps ever brought to the United States. They reached the Teller Reindeer Station safely on July 29, having traveled over 12,500 miles. Upon reaching the station Mr. Kjellman took charge, relieving Mr. W. T. Lopp, who desired to return to the mission work at Cape Prince of Wales.

In 1894 the Fifty-third Congress, second session, increased the reindeer appropriation to \$7,500, and the same amount was appropriated in the spring of 1895, at the third session of the same Congress.

Owing to the serious illness of his wife, and her need of the services of a physician, that could not be had at the station, Mr. Kjellmann resigned on the 20th of July and returned to the States. The same day Mr. Jens C. Widstead, of Wisconsin, the assistant superintendent, was made superintendent, and Mr. Thorvaald Kjellmann, of Norway, was appointed his assistant.

The experience of the past year has demonstrated the wisdom of procuring Lapps for herders. Their greater intelligence, skill, and gentleness in handling the deer, and the introduction of their improved methods of treatment, have greatly promoted the welfare of the herd. In 1894, 41 fawns out of the 186 born were lost under the supervision of the Siberian herders. In 1895 under the care of the Lapps but 10 fawns were lost of 280 born at the three stations, and 7 of these were from the herd at Cape Prince of Wales, where no Lapp was present, thus reducing the percentage of loss among the calves the past spring from 22 per cent in the previous year to less than 1 per cent for the present year. This great saving is due to the greater skill of the Lapps, and would alone pay the extra expense of procuring them as herders. It

has also been found that there is a hearty agreement in the work between the Lapps and the Eskimo.

In August, 1894, a commencement was made in the distribution from the central herd at the Teller Station, 119 head of deer being given to Mr. W. T. Lopp, in charge of the mission of the American Missionary Association at Cape Prince of Wales. In the spring of 1895 the herd was increased by the birth of 68 fawns.

The Eskimo have been so little accustomed to assistance from the whites that they have been somewhat skeptical concerning their being permitted to ultimately own the reindeer. As evidence of good faith, in February, 1895, a herd of 112 head was intrusted to three or four of the most experienced native apprentices. The following spring during fawning season a Lapp was sent to their assistance, and they lost only one fawn out of the 73 born.

The experience of the past four years has demonstrated the fact that the present system of procuring reindeer is too slow, and will take many years to accomplish the purpose of the Government. To expedite matters I would respectfully suggest the propriety of placing, with the consent of the Russian Government, a purchasing station somewhere on the Siberian coast, to remain through the year. If successful such a station ought to gather together 2,000 or 3,000 head and have them ready for transportation during the summer. Another plan, and a more feasible one, will be to contract with responsible parties for the purchasing and delivering of so many head of reindeer annually at certain designated points in Alaska. This latter plan will relieve the office of much anxiety.

THE POSSIBILITIES OF THE FUTURE.

There are in northern and central Alaska, at a moderate estimate, 400,000 square miles of territory that are unadapted to agriculture or the grazing of cattle, and that region is without an adequate food supply for the Eskimo inhabitants or the white miners and others who are now penetrating it in search of gold or trade. But that whole region is supplied with a long, fibrous white moss (*Cladonia rangiferina*), the natural food of the reindeer. This is capable of becoming food and clothing for men only by its transformation into reindeer meat and furs.

The best results in the raising of reindeer, and the most complete statistics, are found in Norway and Sweden. Taking those countries as a basis, we find that the northern provinces, known as Lapland, contain an area of 14,000 square miles, in which are 322,568 head of reindeer. This gives an average of 23 reindeer to the square mile.

Applying this ratio to the 400,000 square miles of arctic and subarctic Alaska (and there is no known reason in the general character of the country why we should not), we have as a result that Alaska is capable of sustaining 9,200,000 head of reindeer, which, at the valuation of \$9 each (the price in Sweden), will be worth \$83,000,000.

In Lapland there is an average of 32 head of reindeer to each person among the reindeer Lapps. Applying the same average to Alaska, the 9,200,000 head of reindeer will support a population of 287,500, living like the Lapps of Lapland.

EFFECT UPON ALASKA.

The stocking of Alaska with reindeer means—

First. The opening up of the vast and almost inaccessible region of northern and central Alaska to white settlers and civilization.

The original purpose in 1890 to introduce reindeer into Alaska was inspired by a desire to provide a new and more permanent food supply for the half-famishing Eskimo.

Since then the discovery of large and valuable gold deposits upon the streams of arctic and subarctic Alaska has made the introduction of reindeer a necessity for the white man as well as the Eskimo. Previous to the discovery of gold there was nothing to attract the white settler to that desolate region, but with the knowledge of valuable gold deposits thousands will there make their homes, and towns and villages are already springing into existence.

But that vast region, with its perpetual frozen subsoil, is without agricultural resources. Groceries, breadstuffs, etc., must be procured from the outside. Steamers upon the Yukon can bring food to the mouths of the gold-bearing streams, but the mines are often many miles up these unnavigable streams. Already great difficulty is experienced in securing sufficient food by dog-train transportation and the packing of the natives. The miners need reindeer transportation.

Again, the development of the mines and the growth of settlements upon streams hundreds of miles apart necessitates some method of speedy travel. A dog team on a long journey will make on an average from 15 to 25 miles a day, and in some sections can not make the trip at all, because they can not carry with them a sufficient supply of food for the dogs, and can procure none in the country through which

they travel. To facilitate and render possible frequent and speedy communication between these isolated settlements and growing centers of American civilization, where the ordinary roads of the States have no existence and can not be maintained except at an enormous expense, reindeer teams that require no beaten roads, and that at the close of a day's work can be turned loose to forage for themselves, are essential. The introduction of reindeer into Alaska makes possible the development of the mines and the support of a million miners.

Second. The opening up of a vast commercial industry. Lapland, with 400,000 reindeer, supplies the grocery stores of northern Europe with smoked reindeer hams, 10 cents per pound; smoked tongues, at 10 cents each; dried hides, at \$1.25 to \$1.75 each; tanned hides, \$2 to \$3 each, and 23,000 carcasses to the butcher shops, in addition to what is consumed by the Lapps themselves.

Fresh reindeer meat is considered a great delicacy. Russia exports it frozen, in carloads, to Germany. The Norwegian Preserving Company use large quantities of it for canning.

The tanned skins (soft and with a beautiful yellow color) have a ready sale for military pantaloons, gloves, bookbinding, covering of chairs and sofas, bed pillows, etc.

The hairs are in great demand for the filling of life-saving apparatus (buoys, etc.), they possessing a wonderful degree of buoyancy. The best existing glue is made of reindeer horns.

On the same basis Alaska, with its capacity for 9,200,000 head of reindeer, can supply the markets of America with 500,000 carcasses of venison annually, together with tons of delicious hams and tongues and the finest of leather.

Surely the creation of an industry worth from \$83,000,000 to \$100,000,000 where none now exists is worth the attention of the American people.

Third. The perpetuation, multiplication, and civilization of the Eskimos of that region. The Eskimos are a hardy and docile race. Their children learn readily in the schools, and there is no reason why they should not be made an important factor in the development of that land. The density of population in any section being largely dependent upon the quantity of the food supply, the increase of food supply will naturally increase the number of hardy Eskimo.

For the nurture of the reindeer and the instruction of the native people in this industry, it is desirable that there should be a migration to that country of skilled herders and their families. The inviting of this class of European settlers will not crowd out the native Eskimos, but will greatly assist them in their efforts to adjust themselves to the raising of reindeer. Lapp families, with their greater intelligence, skill, and gentleness in handling reindeer, and their improved methods of treatment, wisely distributed among the Eskimos, will be an object lesson to stimulate, encourage, and instruct them.

To awaken an interest in Lapland and open the way for the securing a larger number of Lapp herders, I would suggest the publication for distribution in Lapland of a small pamphlet in the Norwegian language upon the advantages of raising reindeer in Alaska.

DECENARY REVIEW.

As the present year closes ten years of education in Alaska by the United States Government, it seems an appropriate occasion for recalling the history of the past. Information concerning education under the Russian Government is very meager, the only available sources to the English reader being the admirable work of William H. Dall, *Alaska and its Resources* (pp. 351 and 352), and the annual reports of the Bureau of Education.

The first European settlers were Russians, attracted by the valuable furs and skins. Many of these married Indian women and raised families of mixed blood or creoles. As these children increased in number and grew up there began to be on the part of some of the fathers a felt need for schools. Accordingly Gregory Shelikoff, governor of the colony, and founder of the Russian-American Fur Company, established a school at Kadiak about the year 1792, which was taught by the trader. In 1793 Catherine II, Empress of Russia, through a ukase ordered missionaries to be sent to her North American Colony. In accordance with this order the following year 11 monks sailed from Ochotsk for Kadiak Island in charge of Archimandrite Josasaph, an elder in the order of Augustine Friars, who were expected to take charge of schools as well as churches. In 1805 the Imperial chamberlain and commissioner, Count Nikolai Resanoff, organized a school at Kadiak under the name of the "House of Benevolence of the Empress Maria," in which were taught the Russian language, arithmetic, and the Greek religion. In 1805 a school was opened at Sitka. It held a very precarious existence, however, until 1820, when it came under the charge of a naval officer who kept a good school for thirteen years. In 1833 this school came under the direction of Etolin, who still further increased its efficiency. Etolin was a creole, who by force of ability and merit, raised himself to the highest position in the country, that of chief director of the fur company and

governor of the colony. He was a Lutheran, the patron of schools and churches. While governor he erected a Protestant church at Sitka and presented it with a small pipe organ, which is still in use.

In 1840, besides the colonial school at Sitka, was one for orphan boys and sons of workmen and subaltern employees of the fur company, in which were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, mechanical trades, and religion. In 1839 a girls' school of a similar character was established and the number of boarders limited to 40. In 1841 a theological school was established at Sitka, which, in 1849, was advanced to the grade of a seminary. This made five schools at Sitka—two for the children of the lower class, two for the higher class, and one seminary. About the time of the transfer of the country the teachers were recalled to Russia and the schools suspended.

But with the change of government came a new people. The majority of the Russians left the country and their places were taken by Americans. Many came in from California, and on the 8th of November, 1867, less than a month from the time that the country passed under the United States flag, the citizens called a meeting and formed a temporary local government, and on the 18th of December, 1867, a petition, formed by 49 persons, 2 of whom "made their mark," was presented to the common council, asking that a citizens' meeting might be called to empower the council to establish a school. On the 20th of March, 1868, the council adopted some school regulations and appointed three trustees, who exercised a joint control with a committee of officers from the military post at Sitka. During the winter of 1868-69 a school building was purchased. The annual reports of the trustees have disappeared, and there is nothing to show the time when teaching commenced. In October, 1869, the council voted that the salary of the teacher should be \$75 per month in coin, and on March 1, 1871, it was ordered to be \$25 per month, which evidently means that at the latter period the post commander withdrew the \$50 per month which had been paid from the army funds. On the 12th of August, 1871, permission was given the bishop of the Greek Church to teach the Russian language one hour each day in the public school. During 1873 the school seems to have died out.

In 1879 and 1880 an attempt was made to establish a school for Russian children, which was taught by Mr. Alonzo E. Austin and Miss Etta Austin. In the winter of 1877 and 1878 Rev. John G. Brady was appointed to Sitka, and in April, 1878, a school was opened by Mr. Brady and Miss Fanny E. Kellogg. In December, through a combination of circumstances, it was discontinued. In the spring of 1880 Miss Olinda Austin was sent out by the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions from New York City, and commenced school April 5 in one of the guardhouses, with 103 children present. This number increased to 130. Then some of the parents applied for admission, but could not be received, as the room would not accommodate any more.

In November some of the boys applied to the teacher for permission to live in the schoolhouse. At home, they alleged, there was so much drinking, talking, and carousing that they could not study. The teacher replied that she had no accommodations, bedding, or food for them. But they were so much in earnest that they said they would provide for themselves. Upon receiving permission, seven native boys, 13 and 14 years of age, bringing a blanket each, voluntarily left their homes and took up their abode in a vacant room of one of the Government buildings. Thus commenced the boarding department of the Sitka school. Soon other boys joined them. Capt. Henry Glass, who succeeded Captain Beardslee in the command of the U. S. S. *Jamestown*, from the first, with his officers, especially Lieut. F. M. Symonds, U. S. N., took a deep interest in the school. As he had opportunity he secured boys from distant tribes and placed them in the institution, until there were 27 boys in the boarding department.

In the winter of 1882 the schoolhouse was burned, and the boys took refuge in an abandoned Government stable, which was fitted up for them. In the fall of 1882, after consultation with the collector of customs, the commander of the United States man-of-war, and the leading citizens, I selected a new location for the school outside of village limits and erected a two-and-a-half story building, 100 by 50 feet in size. This location was donated to the Board of Home Missions by the Rev. John G. Brady.

In 1869 Mr. Vincent Collier, secretary of the Board of Indian Commissioners, paid a visit to the native tribes along the southern coast of Alaska, and upon his return to Washington made a report of his journey, among other things, recommending an appropriation of \$100,000 to provide schools of instruction in the primary branches of the English language for the natives of Alaska. The report was indorsed by the Hon. J. D. Cox, Secretary of the Interior, and on April 22, 1870, transmitted to the Hon. James Harlan, chairman of the Committee on Indian Affairs, United States Senate. In the bill before Congress making appropriation for the Indian Department, etc., for 1870-71, a proviso was added for the support of industrial and other schools among the Indian tribes not otherwise provided for, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, \$100,000. The Indian Peace Commission had recommended a specific appropriation for the Indians in Alaska, as also

had the Secretary of the Interior. Congress preferred to make the appropriation general, leaving it to the Secretary to apply such part to the Alaskan Indians as in his discretion he might think best.

On the 16th of March, 1870, the Hon. John Eaton, Ph. D., LL. D., was appointed United States Commissioner of Education. From the very first he took a special and deep interest in trying to secure education in Alaska; and in his first Annual Report (1870), pages 336, 337, and 345, he makes a plea for the establishment of schools in Alaska. Again, in his Annual Report for 1871 (p. 404) he calls attention to the appropriation of \$100,000 previously mentioned, and states the fact that nothing had been done with it so far as pertained to education in Alaska, and closes with this paragraph:

"At the last session of the Forty-first Congress, an appropriation of \$100,000 was made for 'industrial and other schools among the Indian tribes not otherwise provided for.' This amount was recommended by the Board of Indian Commissioners, with the expectation that a considerable proportion would be used in establishing free schools among the Alaska and Aleutian Indians. It does not appear that any steps have been taken for that purpose, the money being expended among other tribes. No effort has so far been made to educate these Indians, estimated as numbering more than 70,000 souls. The discovery of gold induces the migration of whites. The few trading operations are also gathering a large force of employes. There is great need of some practicable educational work in this Territory."

In his Annual Report for 1872 (pp. 20, 21), he again calls attention to the neglected condition of Alaska, saying:

"Alaska lies entirely outside of all organized efforts for education, and presents the singular fact of being an integral part of the boasted most progressive nation in the world, and yet without the least possible provision to save its children from growing up in the grossest ignorance and barbarism. No report has been received by the office from the two schools which the Fur-Seal Company is bound by its contract to support among the Aleutians."

In his Report for 1873 (p. 424), he publishes a letter from Capt. Charles Bryant, agent for the United States Treasury Department, giving information of the two schools upon the Pribilof Islands, which the Alaska Commercial Company, in virtue of its lease with the Treasury Department, is under obligation to maintain during eight months in each year of the lease, commencing with May 1, 1870. In the Annual Report for 1875 (p. 463), he publishes a long letter from William H. Dall with regard to the need of educational privileges in Alaska. In the Annual Report for 1877 (p. 3, xl), he publishes a long report from Sheldon Jackson, superintendent of Presbyterian missions in Alaska, giving an account of the commencement of schools by the Home Missionary Society of the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America. In the Annual Report for 1878 (pp. 2, xvii and 266), he gives a second report of Sheldon Jackson upon the progress of the Presbyterian schools in southeast Alaska; also, the character and customs of the native population. In the Annual Report for 1879 (p. 264), he publishes the third report of Mr. Jackson. In the Annual Report for 1880 (pp. liv and 350), occurs another report of Mr. Jackson on the progress of the Presbyterian schools. Also the Annual Report of Education for 1881 (pp. lxxviii and 286).

This brings us to the commencement of organized education by the United States Government. The securing of action during all these years it will be noticed the deep interest taken by Dr. John Eaton, Commissioner of Education, and when, in the year 1877, I came to Washington to try and influence Congress to make provision for education in Alaska I received a warm welcome from the Commissioner and every facility and encouragement that it was in his power to render. I found in the general public very great indifference with regard to Alaska. The prevailing opinion was that there was nothing in that distant section worth the attention of the national Congress. The struggle to awaken a public interest throughout the country and through that influence to secure action by Congress was a long and tedious one.

In the winter of 1877-78 I visited many of the leading cities of the country from Boston to Chicago and St. Louis, making addresses upon the condition of Alaska; also as I had opportunity wrote articles on the subject for the public press. These addresses and articles were repeated again in the winters of 1878, 1879, 1880, 1881, 1882, and 1883.

On December 10, 1877, at my suggestion the Revs. Dr. Henry Kendall and Cyrus Dickson, secretaries of the Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church, addressed a letter to the honorable Secretary of the Interior, asking for Government aid for education in Alaska. In the spring of 1879 Hon. Carl Schurz, Secretary of the Interior, called upon Dr. Henry Kendall and Dr. Sheldon Jackson, who were about to visit Alaska, for a report upon the condition of the natives of Alaska, which report was sent to the Secretary of the Interior October 15, 1879. In reply the honorable Secretary of the Interior suggested the enlargement or increase of former efforts in the way of holding conventions throughout the country and rousing public sentiment.

This suggestion was adopted with the result that petitions and memorials commenced pouring in upon Congress. In January, 1880, Hon. James A. Garfield presented a series of these memorials in the House of Representatives, and on the 2d of February, 1880, Hon. Henry L. Dawes presented similar memorials in the Senate.

Through the rising public sentiment, and especially the influence of Gen. John Eaton, the Commissioner of Education, there was secured on December 1, 1880, an official recognition of the needs of Alaska when President Hayes, in his message to Congress, said with regard to Alaska: "The problem is to supply the Territory for a population so scattered and so peculiar in its origin and condition. The natives are reported to be tractable and self-supporting, and if properly instructed doubtless would advance rapidly in civilization, and a new factor of prosperity would be added to the national life. I therefore recommend the requisite legislation upon the subject."

Again on December 6, 1881, recognition was secured in the annual message to Congress of President Arthur, who says: "I regret to state that the people of Alaska have reason to complain that they are as yet unprovided with any form of government by which life or property can be protected. While the extent of its population does not justify the application of the costly machinery of territorial administration, there is immediate necessity for constituting such a form of government as will promote the education of the people and secure the administration of justice."

Again in his message to Congress December 4, 1882, President Arthur says: "Alaska is still without any form of civil government. If means were provided for the education of its people and for the protection of their lives and property the immense resources of that region would invite permanent settlers and open new fields for industry and enterprise."

Upon the 4th of February, 1882, Gen. John Eaton sent a special letter to the honorable Secretary of the Interior calling attention anew to the need of schools in Alaska. On the 8th day of the same month the Hon. S. J. Kirkwood, Secretary of the Interior, transmitted the same to the President, and upon the 15th of February, 1882, the President transmitted both letters to the Senate and House of Representatives.²

Whereas the United States is responsible for the proper care and government of Alaska, the native inhabitants of which and creoles of mixed blood are docile, peaceful, partially civilized, apt in the mechanical arts, and anxious for instruction; and

Whereas it is believed to be the wise policy as well as duty of the Government to adopt prompt measures for their education, with a view to their admission to the rights of citizenship; and

Whereas it is both cheaper and more humane to give them educational facilities now than to fight them hereafter at a largely increased cost; and

Whereas they are a self-supporting people, needing no annuities, clothing, or rations from the Government, but do need teachers, which they can not procure for themselves; and

Whereas the Government receives an annual revenue from Alaska of \$317,500, and only returns to that country in the form of salaries of United States officers, pay of monthly mail steamer, support of steam revenue cutter, etc., the sum of about \$65,000, leaving a net revenue of over \$250,000: Therefore,

We, the undersigned, citizens of the United States, do hereby memorialize your honorable body to appropriate from the revenue of Alaska in the Treasury the sum of \$50,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, to be expended by the Commissioner of Education, under the direction of the honorable Secretary of the Interior, for the establishment, under competent teachers, of schools for the instruction of the native population and creoles of Alaska in the English language, the common branches of an English education, the principles of a republican government, and such industrial pursuits as may seem best adapted to their circumstances.

² To the Senate and House of Representatives:

I transmit herewith, for the consideration of Congress, a letter from the Secretary of the Interior, inclosing a letter from the Commissioner of Education, in which the recommendation is made that an appropriation of \$50,000 be made for the purpose of education in Alaska.

CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, February 15, 1882.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, February 8, 1882.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith, for your consideration, a letter from the Commissioner of Education, in which he recommends that an appropriation of \$50,000 be made for the establishment and maintenance of schools in Alaska.

I concur in the recommendation that the appropriation be made.

Very respectfully,

S. J. KIRKWOOD, Secretary.

The PRESIDENT.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, February 4, 1882.

SIR: My attention is called to the provisions of the law determining the purpose and duties of this office, which provides that it shall "collect statistics and facts showing the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems and otherwise

Following this movement of the highest officials of the land, a series of lectures by myself on Alaska was arranged in the various churches of the different denominations in Washington, in February, 1882, and a card of invitation giving the dates and places of said lectures, was sent to each Congressman. In April of the same year, Dr. John M. Reid, secretary of the Methodist Episcopal Missions, and Dr. Henry L. Morehouse, secretary of the Baptist Home Missions, and Dr. Henry Kendall and William C. Roberts, secretaries of the Presbyterian Home Missions, at my request sent printed circulars to leading and influential men of their respective denominations throughout the United States, asking them to circulate petitions in their sections for signature to be mailed to their respective Congressmen, asking for the establishment of schools in Alaska.

The general assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, in session at Saratoga Springs, May, 1883, took the following action:

"In view of the pressing needs of Alaska, where our missions have been singularly successful, we recommend that the general assembly appoint a committee of five persons, who shall wait upon the President of the United States and the Secretary of the Interior, asking of the Government through them the establishment of civil government among these people of Alaska, and pressing upon them the necessity of establishing industrial schools in that Territory."

At the fifty-first annual meeting of the American Baptist Home Mission Society, Saratoga Springs, May 25, 1883, the following resolution was adopted:

"The committee on work among the Indians reported. * * * From the country of Alaska comes a cry for help as pitiful and as hopeless as any that ever startled Christian ears from the lands beyond the sea. What answer will our great denomination make to this repeated appeal? We repeat the recommendation made to the society a year ago, that missionaries be sent as soon as practicable to the Indians of Alaska." Report adopted.

The following was ordered sent to the President of the United States and the Secretary of the Interior:

"Resolved, That as Alaska is the only section of the United States where Governmental or local aid has not been furnished for the education of the people; and as the establishment of schools will assist in civilizing the native population, prevent Indian wars, and prepare them for citizenship;

"Therefore, the American Baptist Home Missionary Society in session at Saratoga Springs, May, 1883, would respectfully petition you to renew your recommendation to Congress for an educational appropriation for Alaska."

promote the cause of education throughout the country;" and it is affirmed that I have not yet made any specific recommendation with regard to education in Alaska. I can not claim to be ignorant of the fact that there is no law either for the protection of life or property or for the establishment of schools in that Territory, nor would I be among those who are indifferent to facts reflecting so unfavorably upon us as a people. I have sought diligently to gather all information in regard to the education of the children of Alaskans, as will be seen by reference to the several reports of this office. Prior to the purchase of Alaska the Russian Government had schools in portions of that country. When it was transferred to the United States those schools were generally discontinued, and the entire Territory, with few exceptions, has been left without any means of education. From the census of 1880 we learn that there are about 30,000 people in Alaska, and of these it is believed there are about 10,000 children or young people who ought to have some school privileges.

With regard to this people, it may be observed—

(1) That they are docile, peaceful, and have here and there some knowledge of useful industries; are apt in the mechanical arts, and anxious for instruction.

(2) They are a self-supporting people, needing no annuities, clothing, or rations from the Government, but do need teachers that they can not procure for themselves. These teachers should instruct them not only in letters, but in the arts of civilized life and the duties of American citizenship.

(3) If given an opportunity for this kind of instruction for a few years they would, it is believed, make good progress in throwing off tribal relations and in preparation to become an integral portion of the American people, thus contributing to the common wealth and prosperity of the country.

(4) It is well known that civilization in approaching an untutored people may be their destruction by sending its vices before its virtues. It is equally well known that various weeds spring up spontaneously where useful plants must be cultivated, and that not neglect but painstaking care is necessary to the improvement of the human mind.

The people of Alaska having received some measure of aid from the Russian Government, have expected the same from the United States. The natives, already to a limited extent demoralized by the introduction of intemperance and disease, it is thought would, by the introduction of schools, be prepared better to resist these evils and stand a far better chance to be a permanent and prosperous race.

(5) The development of the fishing interests, the discovery of gold, and the increase of commerce in that region are now calling public attention to it, and the time seems to have arrived when school privileges should be immediately provided. In 1870 Congress appropriated \$50,000 for educational purposes in Alaska, which, on account of difficulties of administration at that time, was not expended there. This amount could now be expended there, I am sure, with most satisfactory results.

In accordance, therefore, with these considerations, and in order not to come short of any duty required of me by law, I have the honor to recommend that Congress be requested to appropriate \$50,000 for the establishment and maintenance of schools for instruction in letters and industry, at such points in Alaska as shall be designated by the honorable Secretary of the Interior.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JOHN EATON, *Commissioner.*

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

Feeling the need, not only of enlisting the churches, as had been done through their central missionary societies, but also the educators of the land in behalf of Alaska, on the 23d of March, 1882, through the courtesy of Gen. John Eaton, Commissioner of Education, I was invited to address the superintendents' section of the National Education Association, at their meeting in Washington, on the needs of Alaska. The association unanimously adopted the following resolution:

"Whereas the native population of Alaska have alone of all sections of our common country been overlooked in educational provisions, and, whereas, the President has sent to Congress a special message asking for an appropriation of \$50,000 for education in Alaska, to be disbursed through the National Bureau of Education; Therefore,

Resolved, That this association earnestly request the Committees on Education and Labor of the Senate and House of Representatives to give favorable consideration to the above request."

The year 1883 was signalized by the unanimous action of the various educational associations that I could visit and address. On July 11, 1883, at the twenty-second annual meeting of the National Education Association held at Saratoga, N. Y., the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

To the Friends of Education:

"The National Education Association of the United States, in session at Saratoga Springs, July 9-11, 1883, took the following action with reference to education in Alaska:

"Whereas Alaska is the only large section of the United States for which some educational provision has not been made by law; and

"Whereas it is a reflection upon our interest in universal education that Alaska should be worse off than when under the control of Russia, the United States having neglected to continue the schools that for many years were sustained by the Russian Government, or substitute better ones in their places; and

"Whereas the President of the United States transmitted to the last Congress a paper from the honorable Commissioner of Education, calling attention to this neglect; Therefore,

Resolved, (1) That the president and secretary of this association be requested to prepare a paper asking the Government to make some provision for an industrial training school at Sitka, the capital; and for an appropriation to be expended by the Commissioner of Education, under the direction of the honorable Secretary of the Interior, for the establishment of schools at such points in Alaska as may be designated by the Commissioner of Education.

"(2) That copies of the paper so prepared, signed on behalf of this association by the president and secretary, shall be transmitted to the President of the United States, the honorable Secretary of the Interior, and the Committees on Labor and Education in the Senate and House of Representatives.

"Similar action has been taken by the department of superintendence of the association, by the National Education Assembly, and by the Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire and Connecticut State teachers' associations.

"In accordance with the above resolution of the association, we have sent memorials to the President, the Secretary of the Interior, United States Commissioner of Education, and both Houses of Congress.

"Since then we are gratified to notice that the President in his annual message, and the Secretary of the Interior and Commissioner of Indian Affairs in their annual reports to Congress have earnestly called the attention of that body to the needs of Alaska.

"Further action is dependent upon Congress. But in the many interests claiming the attention of Congress and the pressure of political matters preceding a Presidential election, nothing will be done, unless the friends of education flood Congress with petitions asking special attention to the urgent needs of schools in Alaska.

"Please therefore take the inclosed, or some similar petition, sign it yourself, offer it to as many friends and neighbors as convenient, and then mail it at an early date to your Representative in Congress, or to either of the Senators from your State, or to the person named in the petition.

"THOMAS W. BICKNELL, *President*.

"H. S. TARBELL, *Secretary*."

This paper was printed as a circular and sent by the thousand to the public-school teachers of the country.

At the second annual meeting of the National Education Assembly held at Ocean Grove, N. J., August 9-12, 1883, upon motion of Gen. T. J. Morgan, the following action was taken:

Resolved, That we recognize with profound gratitude to God the cheering progress that marks the efforts to civilize the American Indians; that we see in this an unanswerable argument in favor of the continuance on the part of the Government

of the so-called peace policy; that we urge upon Congress the enlargement of the work already in progress, until adequate provision shall be made for the systematic education of all Indians of proper school age; that we specially urge the importance of appropriation of money for general education in Alaska and for the establishment of an industrial and normal school at Sitka; that we pledge ourselves, and call upon all philanthropists, not only to aid the Government in this great work, but to do all that can be done, privately and publicly, to carry forward this great enterprise, until the American Indians become American citizens, with individual rights of property and suffrage and individual responsibilities and duties."

On the 19th of October, 1883, the Connecticut State Teachers' Association, in session at New Haven, took action as follows:

"*Resolved*, That we specially urge the importance of the appropriation of money for general education in Alaska and for the establishment of an industrial and normal school at Sitka; that we pledge ourselves and call upon all philanthropists not only to aid the Government in this great work, but to do all that can be done privately and publicly to carry forward this great enterprise until the American Indians become American citizens with individual rights of property and suffrage, and individual responsibilities and duties."

They were followed by the Vermont State Teachers' Association, in session at Montpelier October 25, 1883, who reported:

"The Vermont State Teachers' Association, in session at Montpelier October 24 to 27, 1883, learn with regret that since the transfer of Alaska from Russia to the United States, sixteen years have been allowed to pass without extending to the population educational advantages. We feel ashamed as American citizens that any section of our land should be worse off under our control than under the control of Russia, we having failed to continue the schools which for many years were sustained by the Russian Government. We learn, therefore, with great pleasure that on February 15, 1882, the President transmitted to Congress a communication from the Secretary of the Interior recommending that an appropriation of \$50,000 be made for the establishment and maintenance of schools in Alaska, and that the honorable Secretary of the Interior proposed to make to the coming Congress a recommendation for industrial schools in that country; therefore, we join in the earnest request of the better portion of the American people that an appropriation be made for the establishment of an industrial training school similar to those at Carlisle and Hampton, at Sitka, the capital. Also for the establishment under the direction of the National Bureau of Education of schools at the thin centers of population in Alaska. That copies of this paper signed by the president and secretary of this association be transmitted to the honorable Secretary of the Interior and to both Houses of Congress."

The same resolution was presented and adopted at the New Hampshire State Teachers' Association the following day.

Massachusetts brought up the rear at her State Teachers' Association in session at Boston, December 27 to 29:

"*Resolved*, That this association cordially seconds the efforts of those who are striving to induce the Congress of the United States to appropriate money for public education in the Territory of Alaska."

This list of educational conventions was crowned by a mass meeting held in Park Street Congregational Church in Boston on Sabbath evening, December 30. It was to have been presided over by Hon. Wendell Phillips, but being prevented from attending, Mr. Joseph Cook took his place. Mr. Phillips, however, showed his special interest by sending to the mass meeting the following letter, which was his last public letter on earth—a fit closing for his noble life. As his strength had been spent for the freedom of the slaves and the deliverance of the oppressed, it was suitable that his last public act should be a plea for Alaska.¹

¹ BOSTON, MASS., December 29, 1883.

MY DEAR SIR: What excuse the United States Government can offer for leaving Alaska without magistracy or schools passes my conjecture.

For some fourteen or fifteen years we have owed her a government and received large revenue from the Territory. Still it remains without law, magistracy, or schools. If it were so poor a country that we dreaded the expense of a government we might make some pretense of explanation—though in any circumstance we are bound to protect life and property wherever our flag floats, and see that the rising generation are fitted for citizenship and the duties of life. But Alaska has poured millions into the treasury, and one-third of what we have annually received would suffice for the whole expense of a government and schools. If we were called upon to make a beginning and introduce law and education there might be a shadow of excuse in this delay. But Russia had provided for both, and when we bought the province we had but to continue what she had established. From every point of view the condition of Alaska is a disgrace to our Government, and calls for immediate action. Cease to receive revenue from Alaska or give her an equivalent by protecting life and property, securing peace, and offering to every man, woman, and child the means of fitting themselves for citizenship and their duties. If we have not leisure to attend to our citizens, then, as the woman said to Philip of Macedon, "Cease to be King." I wish I could be with you to-morrow evening and give my aid in urging all this on the immediate attention of Congress.

Yours, respectfully,

REV. SHELDON JACKSON.

WENDELL PHILLIPS

With the hearty action and request of the National Education Association, already quoted, petitions were printed by the hundred thousand and sent to the public-school teachers of the United States, large numbers of whom secured signatures in their respective sections, and then sent them to Congress. Accompanying these, President Arthur, on the 4th of December, 1883, in his message to Congress, says:

"I trust that Congress will not fail at the present session to put Alaska under the protection of law. Its people have repeatedly remonstrated against our neglect to afford them the maintenance and protection expressly guaranteed by the terms of the treaty whereby that Territory was ceded to the United States. For sixteen years they have pleaded in vain for that which they should have received without the asking. They have no law for the collection of debts, the support of education, the conveyance of property, the administration of estates, or the enforcement of contracts; none, indeed, for the punishment of criminals, except such as offend against certain customs, commerce, and navigation acts. The resources of Alaska, especially in fur, mines, and lumber, are considerable in extent, and capable of large development, while its geographical situation is one of political and commercial importance. The promptings of interest, therefore, as well as considerations of honor and good faith, demand the immediate establishment of civil government in that Territory."

Spurred by the tens of thousands of petitions, as well as the repeated messages of the President, Messrs. Miller, Platt, Harrison, Rosencranz, Phelps, and others introduced bills either in the Senate or House of Representatives for establishing a civil government of some sort for the Territory, which resulted in the adoption of what is known as the Harrison bill, creating a government and schools in Alaska, which became a law on May 17, 1884. Thus culminated my long struggle, from 1877 to 1884, for education and civil government in Alaska, during which I delivered over 900 addresses on Alaska, held public meetings in all the leading cities from the Atlantic to the Pacific, had hearings before the committees of the Forty-sixth, Forty-seventh, and Forty-eighth Congresses, besides securing the cooperation of the missionary societies and the educational interests of the entire country.

The "campaign of education" that secured from Congress schools for Alaska, also secured the extension of law and government over that section.¹

¹ The Hon. John Eaton, LL. D., then Commissioner of Education, in his annual report for 1882-83 (pp. xlv, xlvi), says:

"As this report is going through the press, the House of Representatives, on the 14th of May, 1884, passed the Senate bill providing a civil government for Alaska, which was signed by the President on the 17th. This act creates a governor at a salary of \$3,000, a judge at \$3,000, a district attorney at \$2,500, a marshal at \$2,500, a clerk at \$2,500, four commissioners at \$1,000 each and fees, and four deputy marshals at \$750 each and fees. These officers are appointed by the President, with the exception of the deputy marshals, who are appointed by the marshal. The seat of government is established at Sitka. The four commissioners and four deputy marshals are to reside respectively at Sitka, Wrangell, Juneau, and Uналака.

"The laws of Oregon, so far as applicable, are extended over the district. A term of the district court is to be held each year at Sitka, commencing on the first Monday of May, and one at Wrangell, beginning on the first Monday in November. No provision is made for a territorial legislature or a delegate in Congress. The general land laws of the United States are not extended over the country. The squatter rights of Indians and others are recognized. Mission stations are continued in the occupancy of the 640 acres now claimed by them. The owners of mining claims can perfect their titles in the usual way.

"The governor is required to inquire into the operations of the Alaska Commercial Company and annually report to Congress the result of such inquiries and any and all violations by said company of the agreement existing between the United States and said company.

"The Secretary of the Interior is directed to select two of the officers, who, together with the governor, shall constitute a commission to examine into and report upon the condition of the Indians residing in said Territory; what lands, if any, should be reserved for their use; what provision shall be made for their education; what rights by occupation of settlers should be recognized, and all other facts that may be necessary to enable Congress to determine what limitations or conditions should be imposed when the land laws of the United States shall be extended to said district.

"The importation, manufacture, and sale of intoxicating liquors in said district, except for medicinal, mechanical, and scientific purposes, are prohibited.

"The Secretary of the Interior is directed to make needful and proper provision for the education of the children of school age in the Territory of Alaska, without reference to race, until such time as permanent provision shall be made for the same, and the sum of \$25,000 is appropriated for this purpose.

"Thus, after seventeen years of delay, a government has been secured for Alaska. In respect to this successful result this Bureau has endeavored to do its whole duty by obtaining trustworthy information in regard to the condition of the inhabitants and their educational needs, and by furnishing it to the Government officers and to the people. In this effort Prof. W. H. Dall, of the United States Coast Survey, and Rev. G. H. Atkinson, D. D., of Oregon, were especially helpful.

"The report of this office for 1870 had a notice of education in Alaska, and year after year these notices were continued as data warranted.

"In 1876 the Commissioner of Education, as representative of the Department of the Interior, expended a portion of the funds at his control to secure a representation of native life in Alaska for the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia.

"In February, 1882, a special report from this office on Education in Alaska, recommending an appropriation of \$50,000 for schools, was made to the Secretary of the Interior, and by him forwarded to Congress through the President.

"In 1877 Rev. Sheldon Jackson, D. D., superintendent of Presbyterian missions for the Rocky Mountain Territories, having had his attention called to Alaska, visited the southeastern portion, and

ESTABLISHMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

On the 2d day of March, 1885, the honorable Secretary of the Interior assigned the work of making provision for the education of the children in Alaska to the Bureau of Education.

“DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
“Washington, D. C., March 2, 1885.

“SIR: Section 13 of the act providing a civil government for Alaska devolves upon the Secretary of the Interior the duty of making needful and proper provision for the education of children of school age in that Territory until permanent provision shall be made for the same.

“The nature of the duties assigned by section 516 of the Revised Statutes to the Commissioner of Education would seem to point him out as the proper officer through whom the purpose of Congress should be carried into execution.

“I have to request, therefore, that you prepare a plan of operation and initiate such steps as are necessary and proper for carrying into effect the legislation above referred to, reporting the results of the same as may be hereafter directed by the Secretary of the Interior or whenever in your judgment there may be occasion for so doing.

“Very respectfully, etc.,

“H. M. TELLER, *Secretary.*

“The COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.”

It was a work of great magnitude, in a new and untried field, and with unknown difficulties. It was a work so unlike any other that the experience of the past in other Departments could not be the sole guide. It was a problem peculiar to itself, and must be worked out by and for itself. It covered an area of one-sixth of the United States. The schools to be established would be from 4,000 to 6,000 miles from headquarters at Washington, and from 100 to 1,000 miles from one another. And that in an inaccessible country, only one small corner of which has any public means of intercommunication. The teachers of five schools in southeastern Alaska would be able to receive a monthly mail; the larger number of the others could only receive a chance mail two or three times a year, and still others only one annually.

It was to establish English schools among a people the larger portion of whom do not speak or understand the English language, the difficulties of which will be better appreciated if you conceive of an attempt being made to instruct the children

established the first American school in that section on the 10th of August, 1877, with Mrs. A. R. McFarland as teacher. Later he established schools at Sitka, Haines (Chilkats), Boyd (Hoonahs), and Jackson (Hydahs). Returning to the States, Dr. Jackson commenced an agitation to arouse the dormant public sentiment of the country in behalf of a government and schools for Alaska. He held public meetings in many of the leading cities and many of the prominent towns from the Pacific to the Atlantic, delivering from 1878 to 1884 about nine hundred addresses on Alaska. He went before committees of the Forty-sixth, Forty-seventh, and Forty-eighth Congresses, and with unflagging zeal sought to enlist the interest of Congressmen. He secured the hearty cooperation of the missionary societies of the Baptist, Methodist, Congregational, Episcopal, Moravian, and Presbyterian churches.

“In 1880 he published a book on Alaska, and on March 23, 1882, delivered an address before the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, which was printed by this Bureau in Circular of Information No. 2, 1882. Of this circular three editions have been called for, making an aggregate of 60,000 copies. During the summer of 1883 he visited the twenty-second annual meeting of the National Educational Association of the United States, the second National Educational Assembly, and the State Teachers' associations of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, each of which passed strong resolutions asking Congress to provide a school system for Alaska.

“Through these meetings the teachers became interested, and thousands of petitions, from teachers, scattered from Maine to Texas and from Florida to Oregon, were sent to Congressmen, asking for schools for Alaska. So persistent and continuous was the pressure invoked by Dr. Jackson from so many, varied, and widely separated forces, that when the bill was reached Congress passed it with great unanimity.”

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, *Washington, D. C., May 1, 1885.*

MY DEAR SIR: In view of the very great and general interest manifested in regard to everything pertaining to Alaska, I feel like congratulating you on the reward you are now receiving for your long, unwearied, and very efficient labors on behalf of that distant portion of our country. When I remember your faithful work for Alaska while you were superintendent of Presbyterian Missions for the Rocky Mountain Territories, your able and successful efforts to arouse public sentiment in behalf of a government and schools for Alaska, and your addresses all over the country on the subject, taken with what has come under my personal observation while a Member of the Forty-eight Congress and a member of the Committee on Territories and on the sub committee having in charge the bill proposing a civil government for Alaska, I say without any hesitation that in my humble judgment, to you more than to any other one man or agency is due the success thus far attained in the direction of the establishing of a form of government, and the improvement in the condition of the inhabitants of Alaska. I took from the first, a special interest in the bill before our committee because of the information you furnished and your connection with the matter. Please accept my sincere congratulations on your appointment as the first superintendent of public instruction for Alaska, and believe me

Yours, very truly,

F. A. JOHNSON,

Member of Congress Twenty-first District, New York.

REV. SHELDON JACKSON, D. D.

of New York or Georgia in arithmetic, geography, and other common-school branches through the medium of Chinese teachers and text-books. Of the 36,000 people in Alaska, not over 2,000 speak the English tongue, and they are mainly in three settlements.

It was to instruct a people, the greater portion of whom are uncivilized, who need to be taught sanitary regulations, the laws of health, improvement of dwellings, better methods of housekeeping, cooking, and dressing, more remunerative forms of labor, honesty, chastity, the sacredness of the marriage relation, and everything that elevates man. So that, side by side with the usual school drill in reading, writing, and arithmetic, there is need of instruction for the girls in housekeeping, cooking, and gardening, in cutting, sewing, and mending; and for the boys in carpentering and other forms of woodworking, boot and shoemaking, and the various trades of civilization.

It was to furnish educational advantages to a people, large classes of whom are too ignorant to appreciate them, and who require some form of pressure to oblige them to keep their children in school regularly. It was a system of schools among a people, who, while in the main only partially civilized, yet have a future before them as American citizens.

It was the establishment of schools in a region where not only the schoolhouse but also the teacher's residence must be erected, and where a portion of the material must be transported from 1,500 to 4,500 miles, necessitating a corresponding increase in the school expenditure.

It was the finding of properly qualified teachers, who, for a moderate salary, would be willing to exile themselves from all society, and some of them settle down in regions of arctic winters, where they can hear from the outside world only once a year.

To the magnitude of the work, and the special difficulties environing it, is still further added the complication arising from the lack of sufficient funds to carry it on, there being appropriated only \$25,000 with which to commence it.

On the 9th of April the Commissioner of Education addressed a communication¹ to the honorable Secretary of the Interior, requesting authority to appoint a general agent to take charge of the Alaska work, and upon the 11th of April, 1885, the Secretary granted the request and directed the establishment of the office of "general agent of education in Alaska."

On the 11th of April, 1885, Rev. Sheldon Jackson, D. D., was appointed by the Commissioner of Education general agent of education in Alaska and at once entered upon the work.

In southeastern Alaska the establishment of schools, in comparison with the difficulties met in other sections of this land, was easy, as four of the seven schools can

¹DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., April 9, 1885.

Sir: In carrying out the orders of the Department under the law providing for the establishment of common schools in Alaska, I find a condition of facts which I wish to submit to your consideration, together with a recommendation. The nearest school in Alaska will be about 4,500 miles from Washington, and all of the schools will be widely separated from each other, some of them doubtless over 6,000 miles from this city. The appropriation of \$25,000 for the entire work is very small, and much should be done in the way of inducing the communities where there is money to cooperate in bearing expenses, and thus increasing the amount to be accomplished by the small fund at command. I see no way to organize schools sufficiently under these circumstances but by the appointment of someone in Alaska as a general agent of education.

Residing at Sitka, this superintendent could go out in the naval vessel to visit the several chief centers of population, where schools can be established, and interest the people, judge intelligently of the requirements for buildings, teachers, etc., and thus furnish the data for intelligent direction of the schools here in Washington. I therefore recommend that a general agent of education for Alaska be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, to report to this office for orders and instructions, at a nominal salary of \$1,200 a year, which will but little more than cover expenses. Before concluding to make this recommendation I may add that I have conferred with a considerable number of very intelligent persons who have visited Alaska, all of whom thoroughly concur in the view that it would be impossible to manage schools there efficiently without a local superintendent.

The governor of the Territory when here recently expressed himself to the same effect. In looking for the proper person to become such an agent, I find no one either so well qualified or so strongly recommended as Mr. Sheldon Jackson. He has repeatedly visited considerable portions of the country, and written a book which is a popular source of information in regard to its people and their progress, and led the way in the establishment of the schools at present taught in the Territory, and is now their superintendent. He was unanimously recommended for the position of superintendent of instruction by all of the private organizations some time since aiming to promote education in Alaska, and by a considerable number of prominent men. I have known Mr. Jackson thoroughly for a considerable number of years. He is a Christian gentleman of excellent ability, great energy, and, I believe, specially fitted to carry through successfully the plan of establishing schools in that far-off country.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JOHN EATON, Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, Washington, D. C.

Approved:

L. Q. C. LAMAR, Secretary.

be reached monthly by the mail steamer. Further, schools had been kept at all these points but two for several years by teachers in the employ of the Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church. This missionary organization was the first of the American churches to enter that neglected land. Finding no schools, they established them side by side with their missions, proposing to furnish educational advantages until the General Government should be ready to do it. Therefore whenever the Government was ready to undertake the work in any village occupied by the Presbyterians, they turned over their schools to the Government. As the Presbyterians had a body of efficient teachers already on the ground, acclimated, experienced in the work, more or less acquainted with the native language, and possessing the confidence of the people, it was both more economical to the Government and for the best interests of the schools that they should as far as possible be reemployed, which was done.

Special requests having been received for an early inauguration of the public-school system in Sitka and Juneau, I gave them my first attention.

Sitka.—By permission of the collector of the port, who is the custodian of the Government buildings, I took possession of a log house in the center of the village and repaired it as best I could under the circumstances. In this building a school was opened on June 22, 1885, with Miss Margaret Powell, of western Pennsylvania, as teacher. The pupils were from white and Russian creole families. On the 16th of November, 1885, a public school was established for the native children, with Miss Kate A. Rankin, of western Pennsylvania, as teacher.

Juneau.—This was the principal mining center of Alaska, with the largest American population of any place in the Territory. A log carpenter shop was erected and fixed up for the school room, and the school opened on the 1st of June with Miss Marion B. Murphy, of Oregon, as teacher. Looking forward to the erection of a suitable school building in the near future, I selected a block of land in the center of the village, with the concurrence of the United States Commissioner, and had a cheap fence thrown around it, in order to secure it for school purposes.

Hoonah.—This important village is 130 miles by water north from Sitka. The school, originally started by the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions, was transferred to the Government and the fall term opened on Tuesday, September 1, the teacher being Mrs. Maggie Dunbar McFarland, wife of the missionary at that place.

Fort Wrangel, 333 miles southeast of Sitka, had a school which had been under way since 1877, supported by the Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Presbyterian Church. It was transferred to the Government and opened the 1st day of September, with Miss Lydia McAvoy as teacher.

Haines (200 miles by water north of Sitka).—This school likewise was transferred from the missionary society and was opened the 1st of September, with Miss Sarah M. Dickinson, an educated half-breed, as teacher.

Jackson.—This village is 533 miles by water south of Sitka. The school that had been opened by the Presbyterian missionaries in 1881, was likewise transferred to the Government and opened as a public school on the 1st of September, 1885, with Miss Clara A. Gould as teacher.

There being no regular communication between Sitka and western Alaska, and as it would take the entire season to go from Sitka to San Francisco, visit the leading places in western Alaska and return, I was unable the first year to do more for that section than to send Mr. Salomon Ripinsky to Unalaska, where a school was opened in October, 1885.

Communication with interior Alaska in 1885 was very difficult. If I wished to visit the school on the Yukon River, my nearest way was to take the mail steamer from Sitka to Juneau, 166 miles, then hire a canoe and natives to take me, together with blankets and provisions, to the head of Dyva Inlet, about 100 miles. Then leaving the water, a fresh crew of natives would be hired to carry my supplies 25 miles on foot, over a dangerous mountain trail, to the upper waters of the Yukon, then construct a raft and float down the stream 1,500 miles to Nulato, or 1,750 miles to Anvik. The trip would occupy two months. Another practicable way was to take the mail steamer to San Francisco, 1,600 miles, then a chance steamer to St. Michaels, 3,264 miles, then a small river steamer that makes one trip a year to Nulato, 769 miles, a total distance of 5,633 miles. To make the trip and return in the same year would require close connections.

If I wished to visit the school at Bethel, I could take a mail steamer from Sitka to San Francisco, 1,600 miles, then wait until some vessel sailed for Unalaska, 2,418 miles, then wait again until some trading vessel had occasion to visit the mouth of the Kuskokwim River, 461 miles, and go from thence in a bidarka (sea-lion-skin canoe) 150 miles up the river, a total of 4,629 miles. By the same tedious route the teachers received their annual mail, except that it started from San Francisco.

During the summer of 1884 the American branch of the Moravian Church, upon my representation, had sent a commission, consisting of Rev. A. Hartman and Rev. H. Weinland, to visit the western section of Alaska and secure a suitable location

for a mission to the Eskimos. The result of their exploration was the locating of a mission station named Bethel, 150 miles up the Kuskokwim River.

On the 18th of May, 1885, a party consisting of Rev. William H. Weinland and Rev. J. H. Killbuck (Delaware Indian) and their wives, with Mr. John Torgerson, the mechanic and lay assistant, sailed from San Francisco, reaching the mouth of the Kuskokwim on the 19th of June. Being on the ground I appointed Mr. J. H. Killbuck teacher at Bethel.

At Killisnoo, 80 miles northeast of Sitka, a school was opened in January, 1886, with George B. Johnston as teacher. The same winter Mr. Louis Paul, a native, was sent to open a school at Port Tongass.

Having given the entire school year for 1885-86 to the organization of public schools in southeastern Alaska, I commenced early arrangements to make a trip to western Alaska during 1886-87.

The work of education in Alaska for 1886-87 was greatly hindered by the delay of Congress in making the appropriation. Until it was definitely known how much would be appropriated for education no plan of work could be arranged. Until the appropriation was actually made the office was left in doubt whether it would be able to enlarge the work, or merely continue existing schools, or disband them.

The appropriation was not made until August, 1886. In the meantime the trading vessels that sail from San Francisco to Bering Sea in the spring and return in the fall had all sailed, and with them the only regular opportunity of sending teachers and school supplies to western Alaska. To wait until the following spring would involve the delay of another year in establishing the schools. Under the circumstances there was no alternative but to charter a vessel for the work of the Bureau. This, in addition to meeting a necessity, enabled the Commissioner to secure reliable information concerning the educational needs of the principal centers of population among the civilized Russians, Aleuts, and Eskimos of southern and southwestern Alaska.

With the commencement of the public agitation, which resulted in securing schools for Alaska, the Commissioner had sought diligently for reliable and explicit information concerning that unknown region. When, in 1885, the responsibility of establishing schools in that section was placed upon him he more than ever felt the need of the information that was necessary for intelligent action in the school work. An application was then made to the honorable Secretary of the Navy, and he issued instructions to the commanding officer of the U. S. S. *Pinta*, then in Alaskan waters, to take the general agent of education in Alaska on a tour of inspection along the coast. A combination of circumstances prevented the ship from making the trip.

The necessity which arose in the fall of 1886 of sending the teachers furnished the long-desired opportunity of securing the needed information.

The schooner *Leo*, of Sitka, was chartered, because the terms were lowest, and because the vessel had auxiliary steam power, which enabled it to get in and out of harbors and through the narrow channels between the islands, where, without this auxiliary power, we would have been delayed weeks.

The cruise proved a stormy one, consuming one hundred and four days. Passing through the equinoctial storms, we encountered the early winter gales of that high latitude. We lost 2 sails, were stranded on a reef of rocks, nearly lost a sailor overboard, while repeatedly great seas washed completely over us.

Taking on board of the *Leo* Mr. John H. Carr and wife; Mr. W. E. Roscoe, wife and child; Rev. and Mrs. James A. Wirth, and Rev. and Mrs. L. W. Currie and child, together with their household effects and provisions, also necessary school supplies, I sailed from Puget Sound September 3. Visits were made to Kadiak, Wood Island, Spruce Island, Afognak, Karluk, Akhiok, Ayakharalik, Kagiak, Unga, Belkofsky, Unalaska, Jackson, Klawak, Tuxikan, Sitka, Killisnoo, Hoonah, Juneau, Douglas, Wrangell, Loring, and Port Tongass. At Unga, on the Shumagin Island, I landed Mr. and Mrs. John H. Carr with school books, desks, etc., for the establishment of a school. Mr. and Mrs. W. E. Roscoe were similarly landed at Kadiak; Rev. and Mrs. James A. Wirth were landed through the breakers at Afognak, and the Rev. L. W. Currie and family were landed at Tuzikan, at all of which places schools were established.

On the 1st day of July, 1886, a contract was entered into with Dr. William S. Langford, secretary of the Protestant Episcopal Mission Board of New York City, by which Rev. Octavius Parker, of Oregon, was appointed teacher, and directed to establish a school in the Yukon Valley. Being unable to reach his destination the first season the school was opened temporarily at St. Michael on the coast. A similar contract was made with the officers of the missionary society of the Moravian Church to establish a school at the mouth of the Nushagak River. Rev. Frank E. Wolf, of Wisconsin, accompanied by his family and Miss Mary Huber, were sent as teachers to that place. These schools, with the one at Bethel, 500 miles from each other, and central to a population of from 10,000 to 12,000 uncivilized Eskimos in western Alaska, were the entering wedges to the civilization of that whole great

region—the beginning of better things. Prof. S. A. Saxman and wife were transferred from Loring, which school was abandoned, to Fort Tongass. The year 1887 was marked by the visit to southeastern Alaska of the Hon. N. H. R. Dawson, then Commissioner of Education; also the establishment by the Secretary of the Interior of a Territorial board of education composed of the governor of the Territory, the judge of the United States district court, and the general agent of education. Under the new order of things a set of rules and regulations for governing the schools of Alaska was issued by the Secretary of the Interior on June 15, 1887. The year was also noted by the removal of some 700 civilized and christianized Tsimpshean natives, under the lead of Mr. William Duncan, from Metlakahla, British Columbia, to Point Chester, Annetto Island, Alaska; the colony was called New Metlakahla.

The school temporarily established the previous year at St. Michael on the coast of Bering Sea was removed to Anvik in the Yukon Valley. During the year a second school was established at Juneau for the use of the native children; considerable friction was developed by the attempt to unite the children of the white and native population in the same school room. During the year a school building was erected by the Government at Killisnoo. This was the first school building erected by the Government in Alaska.

The native industrial training school, Sitka, Alaska, was established by the Woman's Missionary Society of the Presbyterian Church, in 1880. In the absence of any public provision by the Government for needy orphans, they were freely received into the school. Small children whose mothers had died, and for whom there was no one to care, were also received. It became a refuge for homeless and friendless waifs, for children fleeing for their lives from the tortures of witchcraft. It gave them a good home and a training that made them good citizens instead of allowing them to grow up vagabonds. It also became a reformatory to which the United States district court, not knowing what else to do with young offenders, committed them. It was the only place in Alaska where a young man could learn a trade. It also became the high school to which bright pupils in the various day schools, desiring greater advantages than their local school could afford them, were advanced. It also, to a limited extent, gave normal training to the first of the native teachers of the country. In 1884 it was made a contract school under the Indian Bureau of the Government, but in 1887 it was transferred to the care of the Bureau of Education, with an enrollment of 186 pupils, representing 15 nationalities or tribes. During the year an English school and mission was opened at Yakutat by Rev. Adolf Lydell, representing the Swedish Evangelical Mission Union of the United States. During the school year 1887-88, schoolhouses were erected at Sitka and Juneau, and the Government hospital at Wrangell refitted and made into a comfortable schoolroom. The school year 1887-88 was marked by the death of Rev. L. W. Currie, teacher at Klawaek, the erection of a building for school No. 2 at Sitka, the transference of 2 boys and 4 girls from the training school at Sitka to the East for education. The 4 girls were sent to the Ladies' Seminary at Northfield, Mass., at the expense of Mrs. Elliott F. Shepard. The 2 boys were cared for at the Indian school at Carlisle.

During the year 1888-89 the former school board of three was increased to five by the addition of the United States commissioner at Fort Wrangell and Mr. William Duncan, superintendent of the colony of Metlakahla. In 1889-90, to take effect on the 1st of July, 1890, the Secretary of the Interior issued a new set of rules and regulations for the conduct of schools and education in the District of Alaska. Among the important changes made by the new rules was the discontinuance of the Territorial board of education, experience having proved that it did not work well, and a system of local unpaid school committees was inaugurated. Owing to the growth of the work it was deemed advisable to create the position of assistant agent. Mr. William Hamilton was appointed to this position. During the year comfortable frame schoolhouses and teachers' residences were erected at Kadiak, Karluk, and Afognak. At Douglas a substantial frame schoolhouse was erected, and at Chilcat a log schoolhouse.

Of the Alaskan children in eastern schools Miss Frances Willard graduated at a young ladies seminary at Elizabeth, N. J., in June, 1890, and was the first to return to Alaska and take up teaching; she was appointed assistant teacher in the industrial school at Sitka.

The inauguration of schools in Arctic and subarctic Alaska among the Eskimos was the special feature of educational work in Alaska for 1890-91. Hitherto the schools had largely been confined to the North Pacific and Bering Sea coasts of Alaska, together with the valleys of the Yukon, Kuskokwim, and Nushagak rivers. But in 1889 Commander C. H. Stockton of the U. S. S. *Thetis*, who had recently returned from a cruise along the Arctic coast of Alaska, made a personal representation to me of the need of schools among the Eskimo settlements of that region. Upon reporting the request to the Commissioner of Education I was authorized to

visit the headquarters of the various missionary societies and confer with the secretaries of the same with regard to the establishment of contract schools in Arctic Alaska, with the result that the Woman's Executive Committee of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church, agreed to establish a school at Point Barrow, the northernmost point of land on the main continent of North America. The American Missionary Association of the Congregationalists agreed to establish a school at Cape Prince of Wales on Bering Straits, and the Episcopal Board of Missions at Point Hope, lying about midway between the other two. These comprised the three principal villages on that part of the coast. School buildings were erected at Cape Prince of Wales and Point Hope, and a room in the Government refuge station was secured for the school at Point Barrow.

In the spring of 1890, by permission of the Secretary of the Treasury and the courtesy of Capt. L. G. Shepard, chief of the Revenue-Cutter Service, and Capt. M. A. Healy, commanding the revenue-cutter *Bear*, I was able to visit the entire Alaska coast of Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean; also about 100 miles of the coast of Siberia, both south and north of the Arctic Circle. As the captain of the ship had been requested to take a census of the coast villages of that region, I had unusual facilities for reaching the larger portion of the people. My trip also enabled me to attend in person to the locating of the teachers at Cape Prince of Wales, Point Hope, and Point Barrow, the erection of the buildings, and the providing of the necessary supplies. In visiting the various localities I found a great lack of sufficient food supply in the country. The ancestors of the present population had an abundant food supply in the whale and walrus of the sea, and the fur-bearing animals of the land, but the destruction of the whale by the American whalers, and of fur-bearing animals by improved breech-loading firearms, had so diminished the food supply that the present inhabitants were slowly decreasing in number for want of food. While coasting along the shore of Siberia I found a barbarous people similar to the Eskimo of Alaska with an abundant food supply because they had large herds of domestic reindeer. As it was impossible to restock the ocean with whale as a stream could be restocked with fish, the suggestion was very natural to introduce the domestic reindeer of Siberia into Alaska, teach the Alaskan natives the management and breeding of the deer, and thus not only produce a new supply but also lift the population a step forward in civilization, change them from hunting to herding, accumulating property, etc. Upon my return to Washington I made a report to the Commissioner of Education, which was transmitted to Congress, urging the adoption of this plan of introducing reindeer into Alaska.

During the year a large, substantial school building was erected at Yakutat and a small school building at the Kake village on Kupreanof Island.

In 1891 I made my second annual tour to the Arctic, inspecting schools on the Alaska side; also purchasing and transporting reindeer from Siberia.

The leading event of the year 1892 was the actual introduction of domestic reindeer into Alaska, an account of which is given in this report under the head of "Introduction of domestic reindeer into Alaska."

On January 10, 1892, Mr. C. H. Edwards, Government teacher at Kake, while endeavoring to protect the natives of the village where he lived from the landing of whisky contrary to law by some smugglers, was shot by them and a few days afterwards died. After the force of a trial, the murderers were turned loose to continue their nefarious operations.

On the 29th of June, 1892, an industrial school for the instruction of Alaskan young men in the raising and breeding of reindeer was established at Port Clarence, near Bering Straits. This school was named the Teller Reindeer Station, and on the 4th of July the first reindeer for the herd were landed at this station from the revenue cutter *Bear*.

On May 1, the Hon. James Sheakley, who had been local superintendent of schools in southeastern Alaska for the past three years, resigned, and Mr. William A. Kelly was appointed in his place.

On the 19th of August, 1893, Mr. Harrison R. Thornton, teacher at Cape Prince of Wales, was shot with a bomb gun in the hands of two or three hoodlum young men, who had been debarred the privileges of the school because of misbehavior. The young men were immediately shot by their relatives and neighbors, as the only method the villagers had of showing their abhorrence of the deed.

On February 18 the schoolhouse at Killisnoo was discovered to be on fire, and burned to the ground. On account of the smallness of the appropriation for schools, the building could not be rebuilt, and the school for the time being was closed.

In the spring of 1894 I secured seven families of Norway Lapps and sent them to the reindeer station, to take the places of teachers previously secured in Siberia, a fuller account of which is found under the head of "Reindeer." During the summer and fall of 1895 school buildings were erected at Unalaska and Saxman.

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

SHELDON JACKSON,
General Agent Education for Alaska.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE SOCIAL UNIT IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF THE UNITED STATES.¹

Early inclusion of school affairs in New England as a part of the local civil affairs of the "town."—Birth of the district community system as population dispersed itself in the wilderness.—The form of administration this community system assumed when the boundaries of the "town" again became those of the school district ("township system").—The form of school administration in the Southern States upon the introduction of public schools after the close of the civil war (county district system).—The members of the school community.—Its area.—Its functions.

I. THE ORIGIN OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICT.

At one time or another an institution has appeared, and in the great majority of cases still exists, in almost all of the States of the Union which is probably the most communistic as well as democratic feature of our political institutions and is certainly the smallest minor civil division of our system. This institution may be called generically the school community in the United States. Its communistic feature is that wealth and occupation are taxed for the support of schools irrespective of the benefit directly derived by the individual owner or laborer and its democratic feature is that the component members of this school community form or originally formed a legislature for school affairs which votes to tax itself and elects persons to manage its affairs during the intervals elapsing between its meetings. It is evident that such a community could come into existence, at least spontaneously, only in an environment marked by the absence of well defined and acknowledged shades of social standing;² for a symmetrical and homogeneous organization of public education, a very democratic process, if left to develop freely is sadly impeded in a State whose population has in the course of time been segregated into nobility, gentry, trades-people, yeomen, and wanderers in search of work, as in England in the times of Henry VIII and Elizabeth, or of nobility, professional persons, tradesmen, and peasantry, as in France or Germany before the French Revolution.

There is considerable probability in the assumption that the education of the people first became an affair of political self-government in the Puritan or religious commonwealth of the New World. Every "township"³ of 50 householders was required to appoint a teacher who was to be paid by the parents or masters of those who received instruction, or by the inhabitants in general by way of supply as "the major part of those who order the prudentials of the town shall appoint." Here for practical purposes is first connected the word township with school affairs.

In 1636 the general court of Massachusetts gave public sanction to the township, an institution which had become spontaneously the political unit of the colony.⁴ In New England, as a rule, entire communities settled down and erected at once a township, which was not merely an aggregation of human beings nor a mere municipal organization, but a well-defined and represented political entity.⁵ It became a body corporate as well as politic, could possess and dispose of property, could sue and be sued.⁶ But it was a close corporation. Not residence but votes gave

¹ By Mr. Wellford Addis, specialist in the Bureau.

² It is noticeable how the exceptions to this remark in past times originally appeared as one passed southward from New England. In Pennsylvania, for instance, the constitution of 1790 contained the following provision: "The legislature shall provide for the establishment of schools in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis." This provision was repeated in the constitution of 1838. Mr. Wickersham refers to the provision as an "objectionable policy of educating the poor as a class." Hist. Ed. in Pennsylvania, p. 276.

³ It will be observed that this old law calls the New England town a township. It was so in England, the word town and township being used interchangeably.

⁴ Palfrey, *Compendious History of New England*, Vol. I, p. 172.

⁵ Lodge, *English Colonies in America*, p. 411; Palfrey, Vol. I, p. 172.

⁶ Palfrey, Vol. I, p. 274-276.

membership, and either by law or the force of public opinion every member, or free-man, as he was called, must be a member of the recognized church,¹ and thus voters in church meetings and voters in town meetings were the same persons, until the religious test gave way to other qualification. It has been maintained that the town meeting was merely the vestry meeting of the parish of the Anglican church adapted to Puritan needs in the American wilderness. But it must be remembered that there was more than one kind of parish in England at the time of the Puritan emigration to America. "For the purpose of civil government the term 'parish' meant a district separate from the ecclesiastical parish, from the 'highway parish,' and from the civil division called a township,"² it being especially created in 1601 as a poor-law parish. The lay business of the New England town was not a part of the ecclesiastical proceedings, but the ecclesiastical business was a part of the proceedings of the town meeting, which was a body politic sending representatives to a general court or legislature, which also considered ecclesiastical concerns. Into this town meeting, as has just been remarked, was also carried the—at that date—church duty of education, which thus became a civil instead of an ecclesiastical function as far as English America is concerned. Education in Europe in the age of the Reformation, says Francis Adams, "was not a civil but an ecclesiastical matter, and its aim was religious, not political."³

The wisdom of endowing the local unit of civil administration with this formerly special function of the ecclesiastical unit is unimpeachable. As early as 1616 the English privy council and in 1633 Parliament had enacted that a school should be established in every parish (ecclesiastical) of Scotland, where practical, at the expense of the parishioners, and in 1646 authoritative supervision of the schools was placed in the hands of the presbyteries. The expenses of the schools were to be borne by the landowners, though one-half of the rates might be obtained by them from their tenants.⁴ But after a century or more of irreligious wrangling between the presbyteries, who directed, and the lairds, who paid for the education of the Scotch, the former appealed to the central government at London for pecuniary relief, while the English church, after incubating the matter for a century or more, gave birth to the wild and tumultuous efforts of Bell and Lancaster,⁵ parliamentary inquiries as to the misappropriation of "foundations" for elementary education, and finally after 1870 to a rapid series of acts which established a system noted for its peculiar manner of operation and general intricacy. In 1795 a bishop of the Anglican church, from his political place in the House of Lords, naively remarked, in answer to the demand that the law-making power should be educated, that he did not know what the mass of the people in any country had to do with the laws but to obey them; which, according to him, is their *raison d'être*.

In America the spirit of the political government of schools has at length spread over the whole country. But as the environment changed in which the idea was first applied it has frequently been modified to suit changed conditions. In general this modification has been made in one of two forms, one of which is called the "school district system," or more properly the school community system; the other the "township system," or more properly the township school district system. The school district or community system seems to have originated somewhat in this way. As the population of each little nucleus of settlement spread itself out from the center of the original "plantation," it early became convenient in Massachusetts and Connecticut, at least, to allow neighboring families at a distance to form themselves into a school district, and this system so necessary in a growing agricultural community, such as Massachusetts was before the war of 1812, was adopted after years of use⁶ as the State system by the act of 1789, and was not repealed until manufacturing had restored those concentrations of population which in the early colonial days had invited township control of school affairs. This originated the school district community, which is the form of public school management operated in the greater number of the States.

It is evident, however, that whatever form the exigencies of each particular territorial or economic situation compelled or induced the people to adopt, the success of local self-government in school affairs depends upon the willingness of the constituent individuals of the community to tax themselves for the benefit of their children,

¹ Palfrey, Vol. I, pp. 121, 172, 272.

² Stubbs, Constitutional History of England, Vol. I, pp. 247-248, 5th ed.; also C. J. Elton, barrister at law, in *Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed., article quoting act of 1886, regulating the interpretation of the word "parish" in the statutes.

³ Elementary School Contest [in England], p. 20. This assertion of Mr. Adams is borne out by facts so familiar to students of the education of the people (popular education as it is called) in Europe, that further quotation or reference seems unnecessary, especially as the idea underlies the practical treatment of the theme in Europe during times past.

⁴ Cf. Historical Survey of Education in Scotland, by A. Tolman Smith, Rept. Comr. Ed., 1889-90, pp. 214-235.

⁵ The public "poor schools" of Pennsylvania tried this cheap expedient with no direct results.

⁶ Martin, Evolution of Massachusetts Public School System, p. 92.

and upon their willingness, at whatever cost, to deprive themselves of any immediate pecuniary benefits arising from the sale to others of their children's time or the personal monopolization of it at home; in general, the absence of a narrow or selfish spirit not only in the family but also in community affairs; or, to say the same thing, in other words a spirit of reasonable emulation and compromise. This desire, of course, is dependent on the value attached to education by the parent and in a measure upon the inclinations of the child. As it has been found that some communities are not always willing or able to tax themselves as highly as other and perhaps neighboring communities, a persevering attempt is being made to rectify what is considered to be not a necessity but a defect of the administration of our school systems. The question is largely dependent upon the economic condition of the locality and of the State; in other words, upon the unequal distribution of wealth and upon a general desire to distribute the highest benefits to all, irrespective of the inability of some to pay for them.¹

Other than the political and corporate side of the school community there is another which has reference to the territory over which its jurisdiction extends. In Massachusetts the early judicial and administrative relations of the towns were with the central authority called the General Court. For the purpose principally of judicial convenience, the New England colonies were at various times after 1643 divided into counties, the administrative and representative functions of the towns not being interfered with. Like the General Court of Massachusetts, the House of Burgesses (borough representatives) of Virginia was composed of members representing "hundreds and plantations," but in 1634, when the population of Virginia had increased to 5,000 and had spread itself over the land with the view of finding eligible tobacco fields, then shires or counties were created and the burgesses were thereafter returned as representatives of the counties.² The community of Virginia was a series of plantations which were indistinguishable from one another inasmuch as tobacco culture gave them the same character by tending irresistibly to promote the constant expansion of the area of each plantation,³ which thus became in area a small principality containing a squire, his family, and their numerous servants—in short, the *Latifundia* of the later Roman Empire. In Virginia, therefore, the county is made the unit of administration which was under the jurisdiction of the "commissioners of the county court"⁴ with a grand jury to move attention to defects in county administration. In the public lands of the West it is true that the blocks of land that were laid off into counties as they get a sprinkling of population are divided with mathematical regularity into squares of 36 square miles called townships, but it is particularly necessary to note that the New England settlers of these squares of lands are careful to distinguish them from real "towns" by calling them Congressional townships because the survey of the original wilderness was authorized by the act of Congress of 1786.

II. LEGAL AND POLITICAL CHARACTER OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICT.

Although the law books insist that the school district is a quasi corporation, in almost every State the legislature has specifically made it or its executive body a body corporate and in three States (Ohio, Illinois, and Kentucky⁵) a body politic and corporate. The circumstance that has caused the law writers to use the term "quasi corporation" seems to be the original formation of the district in New England, where the district school probably was looked upon as an educational succursal or outlying post of the original "town" school, tolerated as it were by reason of the distance that attendance at the village or "town" school proper would require to be traveled. Thus when a neighborhood built its own school and formed itself into a body for managing its own school affairs without legislative sanction, as was originally in New England the case, it was called a quasi corporation to accommodate the fact to legal necessities.

As beyond doubt the school district is a body corporate, it remains to inquire if it be not as it exists to-day also a body politic. It is admitted at the outset that it is a body established for a special purpose and that it is unrepresented as such in the State legislature. But on the other hand, it embraces all the inhabitants within a series of well-defined areas which together form the area of the State, and though in some cases it excludes nontaxpayers and in others it includes women, nevertheless practically its voters are the voters of the State. The particular fact, however, that goes to show that the school community is a body politic is the power it possesses

¹No sooner had the towns taken the schoolhouses than the same people who, in the district meetings had resolutely opposed any improvements, came forward and demanded new houses in the district." (Martin, *Evolution of Massachusetts Public School System*, p. 209.)

²Cooke, *Virginia*, p. 202, footnote.

³Bruce, *Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century*.

⁴Doyle, *English Colonies in America*, Vol. I, p. 217.

⁵In Oregon it has been decided that a school district is a public corporation. (2 *Oreg.*, 306.)

of levying taxes, especially for purchasing sites and erecting buildings and its place in the administration of the affairs of the State so far as they relate to school affairs.¹

The corporate and political character of the school community having been shown, it remains to point out the several forms which it has assumed. The most widely disseminated form of the school community is the so-called "school district." In this system are found frequently a "school meeting" and always a school board of trustees or of directors, or of education, elected by the voters of the district, in whose hands is placed the administration and the control of school affairs with the exception that teachers who have not received a certificate from a State or county authority may not, in the great majority of cases, be employed, and the local taxation is not always entirely dependent upon the local will. Another characteristic is the changeableness of its boundaries, which may vary from year to year if certain legal provisions are complied with. Such a system as this may be called the district community system to distinguish it from another form of the district which has wholly or in practice inflexible boundaries such as the school district whose boundaries are coterminous with those of the "Congressional township" (of 36 square miles) as in Indiana or in Alabama or with the boundaries of "towns" as in New Hampshire or Massachusetts. Districts having these inflexible boundaries are usually said to have adopted the township system, but as each district or township has a board of education, trustees, or school committeemen to administer the school affairs of the township, the difference between such a system and the district community system must be found in the larger extent of territory under its control and its connection with the other civil authority whose jurisdiction is confined within the same limits as its own.²

From the foregoing it would seem that there are in every State two systems of administration, one for civil and the other for school affairs, though in both the controlling powers are the same. These powers are (1) the voters (who in the district community system form the "district school meeting"), (2) the State legislature who, though elected by the voters, may not be considered as quite the voters themselves, and (3) the boards of trustees, committeemen, or of education elected by each local community, whether district, town, township, or county, which wholly inaugurates and administers local school business, except where the district meeting is something more than a voting place.² Occasionally an exception is found. In the case of North Carolina the board of county commissioners (a "civil" authority) sits as a "county school board," and in the city of Buffalo the common council administers the affairs of the city public schools, but these instances must be considered lightly. This isolation of the administration of school affairs is not an anomaly in the administration of English-speaking nations from time to time. England was divided into poor-law parishes, land-tax parishes, burial-acts parishes, and highway parishes, and eventually consolidated into the "civil parish," and in America the administration of poor laws through overseers of the poor in Massachusetts and New York, but not in the Southern States, presents an analogy.

The two forms of school districts which have been alluded to in the foregoing one as the school district community system, and the other as the district township or district county school system, as the case may be, are mainly distinguished from each other by their political, territorial, and financial relations to the civil authorities; and in investigating the nature of these differences it is advisable to speak first of the constituency, then of the area of the school district community, which apparently came into being about the middle of the eighteenth century, was legalized in Massachusetts in 1789, and was endowed with the power of taxing itself in 1800. If by way of illustration school township districts are spoken of, it will be understood that the constituency and area of such districts are not being treated of as

¹ Of Delaware it is interesting to note that each Catholic congregation or its vestrymen are made a body politic and corporate.

Mr. Martin, in History of the Massachusetts Public School System, in speaking of the evils of the district system, a system which sprang into existence spontaneously about the middle of the eighteenth century, remarks: "When the church affairs had been given to the parish, the care of roads and the care of schools to the district, there was little left for the town to do."

² Perhaps there is another characteristic feature that distinguishes the two forms of the district system usually pitted against each other as the "township versus the district system." If this be the case the import of the other characteristic is readily inferred from the following:

"The school committee [of Massachusetts towns] are an independent body, intrusted by law with large and important powers and duties; and, although every discretionary power is liable to abuse, against which no perfect safeguards can be provided, yet we [the supreme court of Massachusetts] are aware of no substantial reason for supposing that the power of fixing teachers' salaries is more liable to abuse by the school committee than by the city council." (*Bachelor v. Salem*, 4 Cushing, 603, as quoted in 98 Mass., 587.)

In Indiana the supreme court has used the following language regarding the power of a trustee of a school township: "The township trustee is clothed with almost autocratic powers in all school matters. The voters and taxpayers of the township have little, if, indeed, any, voice or part in the control in the details of educational affairs. So far as actual authority is concerned the trustee is the corporation, although in contemplation of law it is otherwise." (*Wallis v. Johnson Tp.*, 75 Ind., 374; *Bucknell v. Widner Tp.*, 73 Ind., 501.)

they are only the school side of the well defined "civil" political body and area which it is the purpose of an increasing number of text-books to make understood.

CONSTITUENT MEMBERS.

The constituency of the school district community being in the great majority of cases specifically a body corporate for public school purposes, and as such embracing within well-defined local territorial demarkations practically all the electoral body of the State, it naturally follows that the qualifications for voting at a school meeting should be those required at an election for representatives in the legislature. Such, in general, is the case, though from the school district being a territorial unit occasionally a provision is found requiring a residence within its boundaries of 30, 40, or 60, or even 150 days immediately preceding the election.

There are, however, two exceptions to the general statement that the qualifications required from the voter in the school district meeting or election are those required of the voter at general State and local elections. One of these is that in a number of States women are allowed to vote, a provision which enlarges the right of franchise, and the other is that a property holding or tax paying, or child-having (either as parent or guardian) qualification is exacted, which seemingly restricts the electorate, giving it a tinge of self-protection as though the property holders were afraid to permit their possessions to the rule of the majority. Certain provisions for the endowment of women with suffrage in connection with school affairs are worthy of note. In Kentucky "any widow having a child 6 to 20 years of age, and any widow or spinster having a ward between the ages of 6 and 20, may vote at a school district election." In Michigan and Connecticut no woman, though 21 years of age, the usual requisite, may be registered unless she can read in the English language. In New Jersey a woman can not vote for the election of members of district trustees, though she may vote upon all other school questions. The case of New Jersey is an apt illustration of the two bodies politic within the same territorial confines, for at a civil township election a woman can not be permitted to vote, while at a school district election (the school district being a township) she is entitled to vote on all questions except for trustees, to which office, however, she is eligible.

The other occasional departure from the usual course of bestowing the franchise in this country is well stated in the law of Idaho, which recites that "none but actual resident freeholders and heads of families of each school district shall vote at an election [for levying a tax]." That this provision where occurring may not necessarily be made to work any particular injustice may be attested by the character of the law of New York, where every person of full age residing in the district for thirty days next preceding any school district election may vote thereat if he or she owns, hires, or leases real property in such district liable to taxation for school purposes, or is the parent or has the quasi custody of a child of school age having attended the district school for eight weeks within the year last past, or who owns personal property assessed on the last preceding assessment roll of the town exceeding \$50 exclusive of exemptions. Frequently the delinquent payer of school taxes is debarred from voting, and in some cases of deciding in regard to borrowing money for building, a mere plurality of votes will not carry the measure at issue.

There are characteristics in the organization of the school community of the South Atlantic and Gulf Coast States, Texas accepted, that mark those communities as an exception. It is extremely doubtful if this phenomenon can be attributed to the social conditions existing in the Southern States which require the maintenance of two systems of public schools. But whatever be the explanation it seems legitimate to conclude that the school systems of the southeastern and southern coast are systems of State schools, while in Massachusetts, to take the most striking example, the school system is a town[ship] system, though most freely directed by the legislature to carry out reforms or inaugurate innovations. Five Southern States have a county board as the real local school authority. In one of these (Florida) the county is divided into three districts, and a member of the board is elected from each; in another (Georgia) the grand jury choose the county board; in another (Mississippi) the county board is composed of a member from each supervisor's district appointed by the State superintendent, and in the fourth and fifth the county board is appointed by the governor. The other States of our southern coast have a county superintendent as the local school authority, who is appointed in Alabama and Virginia by the State superintendent, and in South Carolina (under the old law) is elected by the people. North Carolina has no county superintendent, and its schools are under the authority of its "county commissioners," sitting as a "county board of education." The more local or district authority, as far as it occurs, is appointed by the county authority, except in Mississippi, where the "patrons" elect three district trustees, and in Virginia, where an electoral board, composed of the county judge, commonwealth attorney and county superintendent, elect the district boards for the school subdivision of the county.

AREA.

The "school district" as a part of the earth's surface, is constituted on quite different lines from the "Congressional township," and even from the original "towns" of New England. The area of a school district is a matter of convenience determined by its inhabitants, and its boundaries, judging from the ever present and numerous provisions for changing them, are readily manipulated. The school district is formed in one of three ways—either offhand by an authority of the county, by petition to such authority by certain inhabitants of the district, and subsequent vote, and finally, by local organization and subsequent notification of the county authority. When the legislature has fixed the boundaries of a district as coterminous with those of a "Congressional township," as in Indiana and Alabama, or as coterminous with those of a "town," as in New Hampshire, the school district system is said, in common pedagogic parlance, to have been abolished and the town system to have been adopted; but the original fact that each school community had but one "district school" must not be allowed to obliterate, another fact that any given amount of territory called a school district may have more than one "district school" if there are pupils enough to warrant them. Nor must it be forgotten that, when the increase of population in a large district called for two schools in one district, the ease with which a school district could be formed naturally invited the formation of a new district from the old one, and consequently a new set of officers was required in addition to the set already in existence. The effort to minimize the distance which the child would have to travel and the contrary evil of having two or more weak schools is apparent in the legislation of States having the district system. Even in the township school district system a deep stream to be crossed or a difficult road to be followed will sometimes make it necessary to carve out a district irrespective of township lines. The principle of the district system is that the school community immediately served should have charge of its school or schools; the principle of the township system is that a few persons should not have charge of the affairs of the school by which it is served, as it tends to foster petty local animosities, contrariness, and over economy. The school district meeting is the assemblage of a neighborhood, the township system or "school township district," as it is sometimes called, is the removal of such questions to a more varied assemblage or to a board.¹ When the area of the school district is broadened so as to embrace a large county the assemblage of the school community is impossible and direct legislation by it is out of the question.

Before passing to the consideration of the formation of the two kinds of districts, the rather anomalous case of the State of New York must be noted. The subdivision of that State is done in a manner which distinguishes it at once from the town school system of New England, the district community system of both the Mississippi Valley and of New England, and the county system of the Southern States. The legislature has divided the State into school commissioner districts, and each school commissioner subdivides his school commissioner district into common school districts. There were, in 1894, 114 school commissioner districts in New York, each, on the average, containing 425 square miles, and 97 common school districts. But no city may be included in any school commissioner district. Each of these two classes of areas, excluding the city district class, is solely a school area, and although the functions of the school commissioner are probably the same as those of the county superintendent in the South and West, the school commissioner is not a county officer.

FUNCTIONS.

Under the two preceding sections the members and the area of the school district community has been spoken of; it yet remains to compare its functions with that of the school township district.

In many States the school meeting is a legislative institution as conclusive in its decisions, so far as untrammelled by the law, as it is regular in its assemblage. Its functions are (or may be): (1) In every case to elect the officers required by law to be elected in order to supervise and accomplish the business of the school district; (2) to provide school accommodations; (3) in many cases to levy tax for the general support of schools, and (4) in some cases to decide questions regarding the administration of the schools of the district. In general, the duties of the meeting are to elect officers, pass upon financial questions, fix the site of schoolhouses, and vote upon changing boundaries.

The "school meeting" is not a feature of the township district system. In Massachusetts, for example, the town meeting elects the body that manages school affairs. In New Hampshire, however, where the civil town and the school district town are coterminous, there is a town meeting and also a school district meeting, which may be held between the 1st day of March and the 20th of April at the usual place at

¹ See footnote 2 on p. 1460.

which town meetings are held. Pennsylvania and other States, whose school districts are townships, have no school meeting in the proper sense of the term, though elections are held for officers. In Indiana it has been remarked from the bench that the voters and taxpayers of the township have but little, if indeed any, voice or part in the control of the details of township educational affairs, although in contemplation of law it was otherwise; the voters may petition the trustee to locate a schoolhouse, but he may use his discretion in the matter. Compare the position of the Indiana trustee, whom the court called an autocrat, with the condition of affairs in the time of school districts in Massachusetts, where, in one instance, farmers who never came out at a Presidential election came forth with great alacrity during two years to attend ten district school meetings made necessary by a contention as to the proper location of a schoolhouse. A peculiarity of administration in our southern coast States has been pointed out under the constituency of the school district of that portion of the Union (p. 1461).

But it is not in the manner that local wishes make themselves felt that the distinguishing characteristic of the two kinds of management of school affairs is evident. That characteristic is found in the taxable area, or, in other words, the financial arrangements proper to each of the two systems. Each board of local school officers has four functions to perform connected with (1) the reception of money from the State or county, (2) its disbursement, (3) the levying, and (4) disbursement of local taxes. To show these facts as far as given, it is convenient to arrange the methods adopted in each State in the following form, which is published subject to future emendation:

Maine.—The town meeting elects a school committee and levies local taxes, which are collected as other taxes are. State money is paid to town treasurer. Disbursements are made upon written order of municipal officers on certified bill of items being presented.

New Hampshire.—Town school district meeting elects school board. The civil authority of the town assesses a tax at a rate fixed by legislature, and pays over amount to the town school district board. A town school district may raise money for support of schools, which shall be assessed and collected and paid over by town as other school taxes are. It may also raise money for purchasing sites and erecting buildings and furnishing and insuring them; but the civil authority, on application of the creditor shall annually assess one-fifth of such debt, such tax being held by the town (civil) treasurer to the order of the creditor. Each town school district has its own treasurer, who disburses school funds upon the order of the school board; it also has one or more auditors to examine the treasurer's accounts.

Vermont.—The town meeting elects board of school directors, and assesses a tax which is recommended by directors; but such tax shall not be less than one-fifth nor more than one-half of the poll tax and 1 per cent of assessed value of real and personal property, unless town, by special vote, increases the amount. Town treasurer receives money coming to town through hands of State authorities, and also the amounts raised within the town; he disburses these sums on the order of the board of school directors.

Massachusetts.—The town meeting elects a school committee and levies tax, which is assessed, collected, and disbursed in like manner as other town taxes. The money apportioned to town through State officials is placed in its treasury.

Connecticut.—There are as yet two systems in this State, the permissive town district system and a district community system.

In the case of the town district system the town meeting elects a school committee and levies tax estimated to be necessary by school committee. Selectmen (civil authority) and school committee of town deposit all moneys and securities "coming into their hands" with town treasurer, who also has custody of money coming from State officials.

In case of district community system the district meeting elects a district committee and levies taxes for establishment of schools, payment of teachers, and for construction, purchase, repair, and furnishing of schoolhouses, and in general has power to make all agreements and regulations for establishing and conducting schools not inconsistent with the regulations of the town, having jurisdiction of the schools in each district. But the [minimum] amount to be raised by each district is fixed by the school visitors of the town and the selectmen in joint meeting, and the amount so fixed is certified to district committee. [It is impossible to say whether this tax is in reality a town tax or district tax. The creation in Connecticut of a board of school visitors of a town was evidently a measure looking toward the consolidation of the school districts in each town into one large district, whose boundaries would coincide with those of the town. It may be said of Connecticut and of Rhode Island that the legislature considers the town as the ultimate political unit.] Each district has its treasurer and collector.

Rhode Island.—The town must establish and maintain schools, but may divide itself into districts. The town meeting elects a school committee and levies tax,

which is paid over to town treasurer, who keeps a separate account of money received from the State officials and from the town collector. [A proportionate part of money received from the State is called "teachers' money."]

If a town divide itself into districts each district elects a board of trustees and taxes itself to support public schools and to provide facilities, including buildings and sites, for instruction, but all district taxes shall be collected by the district collector (or the town collector, if the district so vote) in the same manner as town taxes are collected. Each district has its treasurer and collector, whose duties are those performed by the town treasurer and collector when handling school money.

New York.—There are two kinds of educational areas (excluding cities) one of which appears to be merely the sphere of influence of an official, while the other, under the name of the common school district, is a body corporate. The common school district meeting elects 1 or 3 trustees, and levies taxes to supply deficiencies in teachers' wages after money received from the State has been exhausted, to supply buildings, sites, and other facilities for instruction, and judgments of record and other incidentals. The district has its own collector and may have its own treasurer, who disburses the money received by the district from the State or from its own levies, on order of the district school trustees.

New Jersey.—The voters in the school township meeting (cities excluded from the school township) elect a board of education and may raise by tax such other sums as may be needed for school purposes, which is collected like other township taxes, and is held and disbursed by collector of township on order of the president and clerk of the board of education. The State tax comes to the township collector through the county collector by order of county superintendent of education.

Pennsylvania.—Townships (and boroughs and cities) elect a local board, which fixes and levies tax for support of schools and for buildings, and also elect assessors. A member of the board shall act as treasurer, or a treasurer may be elected, who receives all State appropriations, district tax, and other funds of the district, and disburses the same on order of the board. [It is regrettable that, in the digest of public schools, appearing in the annual report preceding this, by an inadvertency in transcribing notes the annual appropriation of \$1,000,000 made by Pennsylvania was not mentioned under this State.]

Delaware.—Stated school meeting elects a school committee and votes the amount to be raised for free school or schoolhouse, but if the majority vote is against tax the amount required is raised by subscription. School committee collects its levies through its own collector or the collector of the hundred. It draws orders on the trustee of the State school fund when entitled to do so.

Maryland.—The district school trustees are appointed by the county board of school commissioners, who are themselves appointed by the governor. The county board elects a treasurer and in case the State money coming into his hands (which is to pay teachers and provide school books and stationery) is insufficient the county school commissioners are directed to levy and collect a tax approved by "civil" county authority, which tax is collected as are other county taxes, but are eventually paid to the treasurer of the school county.

Virginia.—The county judge, commonwealth's attorney, and the county superintendent are a board for the election of [district] school trustees, who estimate amount of money required for extra expenses of district and report same to county school board, which is composed of all the members of all the school boards, with the county superintendent as chairman. The county school board recommends to the "civil" authority the tax required for "county school purposes," which or so much as may be allowed the civil authority levies, and also recommends a tax to be levied upon a district which has reported that it requires for school purposes more money than its proportion of the tax for county school purposes will bring to it. This latter tax is also levied by civil authority. State money is paid by warrant to county superintendent, who indorses it over to civil county treasurer, who collects and disburses all county school moneys, but he keeps the State, county, and district money separate. Disbursements seem to be made by order of district board.

North Carolina.—County board of education, which is school title of "civil" authority, elects district committee. County levies tax to supply deficiency of money received by county from State and apportions all school moneys among the districts, which when so apportioned is subject to the order of the district committee. The civil county treasurer is the custodian of school funds received by the county from the State or from its own levies.

South Carolina.—A board of district school trustees are to be selected in a manner to be named by legislature, and any school district may by authority of legislature levy "an additional tax for the support of schools" beyond that levied by the civil county authority and apportioned to districts in proportion to enrollment in schools. County civil treasurer is custodian of all State and county funds. [Provisions of new constitution.]

Georgia.—Each county shall constitute one school district, which is under the

authority of a county board of education selected by the grand jury. The county board may levy a local tax to supplement the State apportionment after two successive grand juries have acquiesced in the proposition to submit the matter to the voters and two-thirds of the voters have voted for the tax. The State treasurer holds the State school money until it is wanted by county school district board for payment of debts due and awaiting payment on the 30th of April, 31st of July, 31st of October, and 31st of January of each year.

Florida.—The county school board is elected by the people. It recommends the amount of tax to be levied for support of schools to county "civil" authority, by which estimate is accepted or modified. County "civil" collector collects money which is disbursed by county "civil" treasurer as school treasurer. Subdistricts may be formed having a board of trustees elected by the people; such districts may levy a special-school tax.

Alabama.—The county superintendent, who, if not elected by people, is appointed by State superintendent, is charged with the reception and disbursement of school moneys, but all local school funds raised by taxation or otherwise are expended in district where raised.

Mississippi.—The patrons of the school (except in separate school districts, i. e., a municipality) elect a board of trustees. When funds received through State officials are not sufficient to carry on schools for more than four months the civil county authority may levy tax on all property and polls not situated within a separate school district, such tax to be collected and disbursed by county treasurer. Any municipality of a school district may levy tax in same manner. State money for school purposes is first paid to county treasurer and to treasurer of separate school district.

Louisiana.—The parish (county) school board is appointed by the State board of education. The police jurors of the parishes and the boards of cities, towns, and villages may levy a parish or municipal tax. Whenever one-tenth of the property taxpayers of any parish, city, or incorporated municipality shall petition the police jury or municipal authorities to increase the rate of taxation for the purpose of constructing public buildings, the body petitioned orders an election to decide whether the levy shall be made. The parish "civil" treasurer has custody of all school funds whencesoever coming.

West Virginia.—The district board of education, which is elected by people, determines the rate of taxation necessary for teachers' and building funds and outstanding debts. The amount received from the State and the levy for teachers' pay is called the "teachers' fund." State money is apportioned to districts through county superintendent. The county "civil" assessor assesses the rate fixed by district board and the sheriff or collector collects and disburses it.

Ohio.—The several kinds of districts (city, village, or township) elect a board of education which determines the entire amount of money necessary to be levied as a contingent fund for the continuance of the district school or schools after the State funds are exhausted, and for other purposes. The money from the State comes through the county officials, and district levies are assessed and collected as county taxes are, but are paid over to district treasurer, by whom it is disbursed.

Indiana.—A school township district board of trustees is elected by people, which board may levy a tax and has the custody and disbursement of all school funds.

Illinois.—Each township is a township for school purposes and the school business of the township [auditing accounts and reporting statistics?] is done by a board of trustees elected by the people. But townships are broken up into "one or more" districts having a district board of directors, and incorporated cities and villages have their own board of education. The board of directors of each district and the board of education of each city or village must levy a tax for support of schools; but all school funds are held by township treasurer subject to the order of the board.

Kentucky.—District trustees are elected by people. District may vote to tax itself but must appoint a treasurer. In cities the board of education may levy tax or request civil authorities to do so. Teachers' salaries are paid by county superintendent on certificate of board of trustees. The county superintendent appears to be the custodian of moneys received from the State; cities appear to receive their share of State money directly from State treasury.

Tennessee.—The board of district school directors is elected by people; but in case it is necessary to supplement State and usual county funds in order to continue school five months, the county court must levy an "additional tax," or submit matter to voters. The civil authority of incorporated places may also levy supplementary tax. The county "civil" trustee is the custodian of all moneys received from the State or raised in the county, but he must keep the school accounts separate from the accounts for civil affairs.

Michigan.—As in Illinois, there is a semblance of township district organization, but there is a district community system, each community having its district board of directors, which is elected by the school meeting. The board levies taxes for

general school purposes. The supervisor of the township assesses the taxes voted by the school district, as well as others laid upon it, which is collected by the township treasurer and disbursed by him on order of the proper district officer.

Wisconsin.—The annual school meeting elects a district school board, a member of which is treasurer. No district may contain more than 36 square miles, and any township may adopt the township system. The district meeting levies taxes for support of schools, which taxes are assessed and collected by town, whose treasurer appears to hold district money subject to the order of the district board. The money apportioned to the districts by the State (teachers' money) comes to them through the hands of the county and township officials; money raised by township is apportioned by township to districts.

Minnesota.—Any district may contain an entire township or 36 square miles in different townships. The district meeting elects a district board of trustees, one of whom is treasurer. In addition to the 1 mill county tax assessed by county on each district and returned to it, each district meeting may vote a tax for support of schools or for building purposes. It would appear that the district treasurer receives all money raised and in the district. He disburses all moneys coming to the district either mediately or directly from county officials.

Iowa.—Each civil township and each originally independent school district is a [township] school district, but each township district is divided into subdistricts. Each subdistrict elects a subdistrict school director and the subdistrict school directors form the township school district board. This board estimates the amount necessary to support the schools, which the county "civil" authority levies and eventually pays over in the same manner as other township taxes are paid over. The county "civil" authority also levies and apportions a county tax. The financial agents of State and county school funds are the same as control State and county revenue. Each board of township directors has its own treasurer, who receives money from county "civil" treasurer.

Missouri.—The school meeting elects a board of district school directors and fixes the rate of tax to be levied, which is apparently collected and disbursed by "civil" township authority. State moneys are apparently disbursed by county "civil" treasurer.

Arkansas.—District school meeting elects district board of directors and may levy tax, which apparently is collected and paid over by county "civil" authority.

Texas.—The voters of each community (district) elect a board of district trustees and may vote tax upon itself, which is levied and collected by county authorities, by whom it is disbursed, as are (presumably) all school moneys coming from the State treasury.

North Dakota.—Each civil township not organized under the district system is a [township] school district, which elects 3 school directors and a treasurer. The board levies tax by resolution, which tax is collected by county auditor and is paid by his order on the county treasurer to the district treasurer.

South Dakota.—Each civil township in each county not organized under the district community system is a school township district, but each school township district may be subdivided by vote. The voters elect a district school board, and may levy taxes for the support of schools. One member of the board is elected as treasurer. The tax voted by district is levied by "civil" county authority at the same time as county school taxes are levied. The school district treasurer disburses school moneys on order of board, which moneys he receives from county "civil" treasurer on order of the county superintendent.

Nebraska.—The electors of each school district elect a district school board, one member of which is treasurer, and decide what tax shall be levied (through the county "civil" authority). The State and county money is held in county treasury until apportioned by county superintendent, when it is received and disbursed by district treasurer. The district money is paid by county "civil" treasurer to school district treasurer on order of district board.

Kansas.—The voters, in school meeting, of each school district, elect a district school board, one member of which is the treasurer, and may levy a tax. State and county money is paid to county "civil" treasurer, from whom it is drawn by school district treasurer, after being apportioned by county superintendent.

Colorado.—The voters of each district elect a district board of school directors, and may levy tax if money received from State and county taxes is insufficient to pay school expenses. Such tax is levied by county "civil" authority, and held in county treasury as are the other school moneys coming from State and county, subject to the order of the district board.

Wyoming.—The voters of the district elect a board of directors, who may levy a tax, which is levied by the county "civil" authority, at the same time that the county school taxes are raised; but the collector shall pay the district tax directly to the treasurer of the district that voted it. State and county school money are held in county treasury subject to the order of proper officers.

Montana.—The voters of each school district elect a district board of trustees, and may tax itself for school purposes, but such tax is collected by county "civil" authority, and when collected is held to the credit of the district. State and county money is apportioned by county school superintendent.

Idaho.—The voters of the school district elect a board of school trustees and vote tax which shall be levied by county "civil" authority, which levies and collects the county school tax. The county superintendent apportions State and county money in county treasury to each district to whose order it is thereafter subject. In independent districts the board of trustees may levy tax.

Washington.—The voters of each school district elect a board of district directors, which may levy tax if ordered by vote of electors. Such is levied and held by county "civil" authorities subject to order of district, as are the State and county school money when apportioned by county school superintendent.

Oregon.—The voters of each district elect a board of district school directors, and may levy tax. The county treasurer is the custodian of all funds apportioned to districts in the county, and holds such funds subject to order of clerk of school district when they have been apportioned by county superintendent.

California.—The voters of the district elect a district board of school trustees, and may vote tax, which the county "civil" authority levies and collects at the time of collecting county school taxes. The county superintendent apportions State and county school money to districts, but the State funds may be used only for paying teachers. The county treasurer seems to be the general custodian of all school money received by or raised in county, cities excepted. No county assessor, collector, or treasurer is entitled to fees for handling school money.

Nevada.—Each village, town, or incorporated city is a school district, which elects a district board of school trustees, and may levy tax, which is levied and collected by county "civil" authority at the same time as county school taxes are collected, all of which are collected into county treasury as on special deposit. State school money is devoted entirely to paying teachers, and it and the county school money are apportioned to the districts by county superintendent.



CHAPTER XXXV.

THE CONVEYANCE OF CHILDREN TO SCHOOL.

The question of the consolidation of rural schools continues to receive the thoughtful attention of educators. It has been frequently demonstrated and is generally conceded that it would be better, both on economical and on pedagogical grounds, to unite the many small and weak schools of a township, dispersed over a large extent of territory, into a few strong, well-equipped and well-conducted graded schools, located at convenient points.

The adoption of the town system in the management of school affairs in several States has rendered this procedure more feasible, by placing the control of all the schools under one central authority, with power to locate and discontinue schools wherever needed in its discretion, and which is competent to reduce the disjecta membra of a school system to healthy and well-rounded educational organisms. The chief hindrance to consolidation now to be considered lies in the distance some of the pupils would have to travel from their homes to reach the nearest union or graded school, in thinly populated sections.

The expedient has been tried on a considerable scale in Massachusetts, and is being favorably considered elsewhere, of transporting the more distant pupils to school at the public expense. The importance of this experiment and the influence it may exert in determining the future character of rural and village schools, would seem to render it advisable to recapitulate what has been undertaken and accomplished in this direction.

A law of Massachusetts approved April 1, 1869, reads as follows: "Any town in this Commonwealth may raise by taxation or otherwise, and appropriate money to be expended by the school committee in their discretion, in providing for the conveyance of pupils to and from the public schools."

The then secretary of the State board, J. White, refers to this act as "introduced into the legislature through the efforts of a practical man from one of our rural towns of large territory and sparse population, where the constant problem is, how to bring equal school privileges to all without imposing undue taxation.

"In too many cases the town seems to have forgotten that the most important element in the solution of the problem has been the character of the school, and have bent their efforts to making them accessible to all. This has led to such an unwise multiplication of them as not only to shorten the time of their continuance, but greatly to diminish their efficiency, while at the same time the expense of maintaining them has been largely enhanced.

"The act recognizes the fact that it is a far better policy for the town to spend a few dollars in conveying, in severe and stormy weather, and through drifts of snow, children who have no means of conveyance, to a well appointed and good school, rather than to waste hundreds in planting small and feeble schools at their doors.

"I have little doubt that the future history of not a few of them will amply justify the wisdom of the grant.

"It is to be remembered that the law is not compulsory. It simply gives the power to the towns, whose citizens are amply qualified to judge as to the propriety of exercising it. Certainly there is little danger of its abuse."

Secretary White then quotes from a letter written by the chairman of the school committee of an important town in Worcester County, which he says "shows what has already been accomplished by the aid of this act and of the act to abolish the school district system, and is a sufficient reply to the sneering criticism to which it has been exposed in high quarters." The letter runs as follows:

"We have been consolidating and grading since spring. Instead of 11 schools of the old six-months grade, we have now 5 primary and 2 grammar, and shall be able to keep at least eight months this year, with no addition to the appropriation, though we pay better wages and transport the children in two districts at an expense of \$10 per week."

The first general statement of the results in Massachusetts of the law authorizing the public conveyance of pupils to school was made by Supt. W. L. Eaton, of Concord, in 1893, in a pamphlet prepared for the Massachusetts public school exhibit at the World's Columbian Exposition. In it he said:

"Since the year 1869 the cities and towns of Massachusetts have been authorized by law to appropriate and expend money for the conveyance of pupils to and from the public schools. At first this authority was used, in accordance with its apparent purpose, mainly to convey pupils to the high school, as generally there was but one such school in a town. Within a few years, however, many communities have used this authority to increase the educational advantages of the children—constantly decreasing in numbers—who live in the districts at a distance from the centers of population. This has been accomplished by closing many district schools and transporting, at public expense, their pupils to the neighboring district school or to the village. * * *

"In order to secure full information regarding this important movement, a circular letter of inquiry was sent to 165 cities and towns. Replies have been received from 135, and the answers tabulated. The following summaries are of interest:

"I. The cities and towns that reported an expenditure for 1891-92 of \$83,500, will expend for the current year \$48,300.

"II. Fifteen towns and cities report conveyance to high school only, at a cost of \$8,650.20 for 462 pupils.

"III. It appears that in the remaining 120 towns and cities there were, prior to the beginning of this movement to consolidate, 632 outlying schools. Of this number, 250 have been closed within the past twelve years, and to-day nearly 2,000 pupils are being conveyed to adjacent district schools, or to the village schools.

"IV. To the question, Is it the policy of your town ultimately to close all the schools outside the centers of population? twenty-five answer yes, without qualification; forty answer no; and nearly all the others reply that their towns are working for that end, or are considering the question, or hope to accomplish such a result.

"V. To the request of a brief statement of the reasons that determined the towns to close district schools and transport the pupils to other schools, the replies indicate two distinct purposes—one financial and the other educational. In many of the towns of the State the depopulation of the districts outside the villages has made it cheaper to transport to other schools the few pupils living in the districts than to teach them in situ. In other towns the desire to make strong central schools, and the purpose to give all the children of the town the benefit of better teachers, better appliances, and better supervision, have been the dominant motives to determine consolidation.

"VI. To the question whether the results have been satisfactory, there is a substantial agreement in the affirmative. The most emphatic expressions of satisfaction come from those towns in which the educational motives have been the dominant ones. Repeatedly comes the assertion from this latter class of towns that the parents would not return to the old system of isolated schools if it were possible.

"The town of Concord is regarded generally and properly as the pioneer in this movement to close all district schools and to convey their pupils to the graded central schools."

State Agent G. T. Fletcher thus reports (Mass., 1893-94):

"The exodus of young men and women to the cities of Massachusetts and the States of the West has left many of the towns poor in people and property. For what these rural communities have done and may do for the Commonwealth they deserve aid in their time of need. The State should cooperate with the towns in securing for their children educational advantages equal to those possessed by wealthy communities. The school population has diminished in a greater ratio than that of the adults because large families of children were common formerly, uncommon now; but the number of schools has not been reduced in like proportion to the number of the children, and as a result many schools are too small to be interesting and profitable.

"Last year sixteen towns in three counties had a school attendance of only 1,076 pupils, an average of 11 to a school, for seven months in the year. The average cost per pupil for schooling was \$18.33. As some schools had only 6 pupils, and a few only 3, the cost per pupil was much greater, being as high as \$60 in the smallest school, while in a school of 25 pupils, the cost averaged less than \$3. These figures show the expensiveness of educating pupils in small schools, a fact which the people do not seem to realize. The average wages of teachers in these towns was only \$5.50 a week, for which sum good teachers can not be secured.

"Two things may be regarded as objects to be kept in view—efficiency and economy. Means to secure these ends are comfortable and convenient schoolhouses; necessary appliances; no more schools than are needed; intelligent teaching and skilled superintendence. There can not be efficiency without economy in school matters. A scattered population with small means must endure some privations not

felt in thickly settled communities, such as remoteness from post-office, stores, church, schools, physicians; but in this Commonwealth every child should have opportunities for a good common-school education. The State must give more pecuniary aid, perhaps by increase of school fund and distribution of all the income of it among the poorer towns.

"Country people should perceive that the conditions under which the old district school was a power in the land no longer exist. Fifty pupils in one school, ranging in age from 4 to 21 years, many of them mature young men and women, was no uncommon occurrence less than fifty years ago. Last year nine towns had less than 50 pupils as an average attendance in all of their schools, and twenty-one towns had less than 75 pupils as a total average attendance; but some of these towns had 8 schools. It must be evident to every intelligent, candid person who gives the subject consideration that a less number of schools is a necessity and that only by combination can this result be attained. If a rural school has 25 pupils, a competent teacher can be economically employed. In a good community such a school has advantages not possessed by village or city schools. When the attendance is small in schools it seems to be wise to effect in some way a union of schools.

"In many towns the schools can be conveniently united by twos or threes, according to size and location. In other towns all the children can be gathered at a center where a graded school can be established. Only in this way can the best primary instruction be secured and a high school become a possibility.

"These facts should have great weight with the people. A few good schoolhouses will be needed, and the cost for repairs and fuel will be reduced. Fewer and better teachers will be employed and the children will receive better instruction, which is the ultimate object to be reached, as only for them do schools exist.

"There are some objections to any plan of union, but they are overbalanced by the advantages. When the people in the rural towns are willing to do all they can to educate their children, the State should supplement these efforts wisely by money and management. Many towns have made a good beginning in this work.

"The following letter from Seymour Rockwell, esq., of Montague, for nearly thirty years a member of the school committee of that town, is given here at my request, for the results of his experience:

MONTAGUE, MASS., *December 6, 1893.*

"DEAR SIR: For eighteen years we have had the best attendance from the transported children; no more sickness among them and no accidents. The children like the plan exceedingly. We have saved the town at least \$600 a year. All these children now attend school in a fine house at the center, well equipped. The schools are graded. Everybody is converted to the plan. We encountered all the opposition found anywhere, but we asserted our sensible and legal rights and accomplished the work. I see no way to bring up the country schools but to consolidate them, making them worth seeing; then the people will be more likely to do their duty by visiting them.

"Yours, truly,

SEYMOUR ROCKWELL.

"Mr. G. T. FLETCHER."

Mr. George A. Walton, agent of the Massachusetts State board of education, reported in 1894 concerning the schools of Barnstable and Middlesex counties as follows:

"The schools have been consolidated, small schools being brought together and united with larger ones. This process has been proceeding at a rapid rate within the past six or eight years, and includes a large number of schools in both Barnstable and Middlesex counties. Orleans has brought into one building all her schools; Harwich has voted in favor of a complete consolidation; the town of Barnstable, with the advent of the new normal school at Hyannis, will concentrate all her children of lower grades of that village in one building, as she has already concentrated the advanced grades of that and the neighboring villages in her high school. Mashpee and Sandwich and other towns are moving in the same direction. In many towns the process is phenomenal. Some notable instances of consolidation within a few years in Barnstable are Orleans and Mashpee; in Middlesex, Acton, Ashland, Bedford, Belmont, Billerica, Concord, Dracut, Holliston, Lexington, Maynard, North Reading, Sherborn, Sunbury, Tyngsboro, Wayland, and Weston. The consolidation in Concord, Bedford, and Lexington is as creditable a part of our school history as their stand in colonial days is of the history of the nation.

"The extent to which the schools are consolidating may be inferred from the expenditure returned for transporting children, the expenditure being made to aid the consolidation. Eight out of the fifteen Barnstable County towns and thirty-six out of the fifty-four Middlesex towns pursue the policy of transporting to school. The expenditure for this purpose has increased in the county of Barnstable from \$2,682.66 in 1893 to \$3,033.85 in 1894, and in Middlesex from \$13,901.87 to \$18,155.36.

"A result which follows from consolidation is a better grading of the schools. Concord, whose schools fifteen years ago were as confused a set as could be found anywhere, is now a model of complete and systematic classification. She began the work of consolidating and grading under Supt. John B. Tileston, and has fostered and perfected it under her present superintendent, William L. Eaton. Forty towns and cities in Middlesex have all their schools, with here and there an exception, under a good system of grading. Included in these are schools ten years ago found at the crossroads and in the highways. The same is true of towns in Barnstable County.

State Agent John T. Prince reports the same year (1894) on the schools of Bristol and Norfolk counties as follows:

"Increased attention has been given in recent years to the consolidation of schools, either for the purpose of better grading, for bringing together small schools, or for uniting small outlying schools with a central school. In either case it becomes necessary frequently to convey children from one neighborhood to another or from an outlying district to the village center. Three different plans of conveyance are followed:

"(1) Conveyance by carriage from some central point, as, for example, the abandoned schoolhouse, to the school or schools which the children attend.

"(2) Conveyance by carriage which passes through the principal thoroughfare of the neighborhood from the most distant point, the children being obliged to walk to the carriage from homes which are situated on the side roads.

"(3) Conveyance by carriage from the homes of all the school children of the neighborhood.

"It is evident that the latter plan, although more expensive than either of the other plans, is the one most convenient for the pupils, and it has been found by experience to be the one which gives the greatest measure of success.

"The amount paid for conveyance and the basis of payment vary greatly according to circumstances. Some towns pay so much a week or mile for each pupil carried, and some so much by the season for carriage and driver. Experience has demonstrated the importance of making a careful selection of a driver who can take proper care of the children and keep them in control.

"The following towns of Bristol and Norfolk counties have to a greater or less extent consolidated their schools within the past few years, and to accomplish this purpose some of them have been obliged to convey the children by carriage or cars at public expense: Braintree, Cohasset, Dartmouth, Dover, Fairhaven, Foxboro, Franklin, Mansfield, Milton, Norfolk, Norton, Quincy, Raynham, Seekonk, Taunton, Walpole, Westport.

"Some of the above-named towns are contemplating extending the plan to other schools, and other towns not included in the list are considering the matter. It may be of some interest to know what the result of the experience of these towns has been. In response to my inquiries, superintendents and secretaries have reported as follows:

"*Braintree*.—We have consolidated three schools—Middle Street, Iron Works, and East—into the new James Perkins School, East Braintree. The Middle Street School pupils are transported in a barge. We have closed the ungraded school at Mayflower Park, and its pupils are transported by the street railway at half fare to the Pond and Monatiquot schools. Last year we closed the West School, and transported the pupils by barge to the Pond and Monatiquot schools. Consolidation is cheaper. The people were apprehensive of trouble at first. They find that the pupils do so much better in the large graded schools with excellent heating, ventilation, and sanitation, that it would be impossible to induce them to change back to ungraded schools. On bringing the pupils of different schools together, we found that those in the ungraded schools had done on the whole just about three years' work in four years. In all-round development they were more than this behind. Our schools are all perfectly graded now—one class, each doing a year's work, in each room—with only one exception, where the two highest grammar classes in one school are quite small and are in one room. I think there can be no question that well-graded schools in which the classification is not rigid, and in which it is easy for pupils to pass either way, up or down, can do much better work than ungraded schools. This is certainly being proved by our experience.

"*Cohasset*.—All except the primary schools of outlying districts are brought into one central building. The result is an undoubted increased efficiency of the schools.

"*Dartmouth*.—We have consolidated one school—Allen Street—during the past year by transporting the children to Smith Mills. Two schools were consolidated previous to this year. All parties concerned are well pleased with the consolidations, and much better work seems to be done for the pupils.

"*Dover*.—The pupils of the North School neighborhood are transported to the Sanger School at the center. Thus far it is a complete success.

"*Franklin*.—The results have been beneficial.

"*Mansfield*.—Beneficial in every way.

"*Milton*.—One grammar school was given up in 1833, and the pupils distributed among three others which were better graded. Better results came from associating children with others of the same attainments and advancement. All the advantages of better classification are secured.

"*Norfolk*.—A small school was closed a year ago last September. Very good results have followed, as we are able to have three schools at the center—of primary, intermediate, and high-school grades.

"*Norton*.—One school building was closed. The pupils are conveyed to another school near by. All agree that it was a wise move.

"*Quincy*.—Consolidation of schools was made several years ago. Results excellent for the child, the school, and the city.

"*Randolph*.—There was consolidation some few years since, the effect of which, I think, is bad, for the reason that too many scholars are in some rooms at present, and give the teacher too much to do, otherwise I do not know of any objections. No other objection has come under our observation.

"*Raynham*.—One school was closed, and the pupils sent to another, after obtaining the consent of parents in one district to send their children to the other school, without additional expense to the town. Think we may have to transport some of the pupils this winter term. The results are more than we anticipated. Better results follow in the school work. Most parents appreciate it, and it is a financial saving to the town.

"*Seekonk*.—We have removed the schoolhouse at Luthers Corner to a lot containing one-half an acre, and built an addition to it, 25 by 32 feet, which gives us two good-sized rooms. The primary and intermediate grades occupy one room, the grammar grade the other. The school in the adjoining district has been discontinued. Most of the scholars from that district attend the new school, conveyance being furnished. The result is very satisfactory to both parents and scholars, with one exception.

"*Taunton*.—Three schools have been closed on account of the small number of pupils, and these few have been transported to other small schools. The cost has been between \$900 and \$1,000. I like the plan so well that, if possible, I would close others.

"*Walpole*.—One section of the town belonged to a union district. The house was in Dedham. The house was destroyed by fire a year ago last September. Since that time the pupils of this section have been transported to the North district. Good results."

Another Massachusetts State agent, Mr. A. W. Edson, discusses the question of public conveyance of pupils as follows:

"*Consolidation and transportation*.—There is a decided tendency on the part of intelligent and progressive communities to close the small schools in remote districts and to transport children to the graded schools of the villages, where better classification, better grading, and better teaching are the rule. This is done not so much from an economic standpoint as because of the firm conviction that the children receive greater educational advantages there than in the small ungraded schools.

"The number of children in the back districts is small, and growing less every year. With few children and small classes there can be but little enthusiasm and progress.

"The leading arguments in favor of this movement are:

"1. It permits a better grading of the schools and classification of pupils. Consolidation allows pupils to be placed where they can work to the best advantage; the various subjects of study to be wisely selected and correlated, and more time to be given to recitation.

"2. It affords an opportunity for thorough work in special branches, such as drawing, music, and nature study. It also allows an enrichment in other lines.

"3. It opens the door to more weeks of schooling and to schools of a higher grade. The people in villages almost invariably lengthen the school year and support a high school for advanced pupils.

"4. It insures the employment and retention of better teachers. Teachers in small ungraded schools are usually of limited education, training, or experience, or are past the age of competition. The salaries paid in cities and villages allow a wide range in the selection of teachers.

"5. It makes the work of the specialist and supervisor far more effective. Their plans and efforts can all be concentrated into something tangible.

"6. It adds the stimulating influences of large classes, with the resulting enthusiasm and generous rivalry. The discipline and training obtained are invaluable.

"7. It affords the broader companionship and culture that comes from association with large numbers.

"8. It results in a better attendance of pupils, as proved by experience in towns where the plan has been thoroughly tried.

"9. It leads to better school buildings, better equipment, a larger supply of books, charts, maps, and apparatus. All these naturally follow a concentration of people, wealth, and effort, and aid in making good schools.

"The large expenditure implied in these better appointments is wise economy, for the cost per pupil is really much less than the cost in small and widely separated schools.

"10. And, again, it quickens public interest in the schools. Pride in the quality of the work done secures a greater sympathy and better fellowship throughout the town.

"These reasons for consolidating schools and concentrating effort have great force with people interested in the proper education of the coming generation. The future is likely to see increased attention given to this movement.

"There are, however, objections raised to the plan, some of them frivolous, others deserving careful attention, chief among which are:

"1. Depreciation of property; decreased valuation of farms in districts where schools are closed.

"2. Dislike to send young children to school far from home, away from the oversight of parents; and to provide a cold lunch for them rather than a warm dinner.

"3. Danger to health and morals; children obliged to travel too far in cold and stormy weather; obliged to walk a portion of the way to meet the team, and then to ride to school in damp clothing and with wet feet; unsuitable conveyance and uncertain driver; association with so many children of all classes and conditions; lack of proper oversight during the noon hour.

"4. Insufficient and unsuitable clothing; expense to parents of properly clothing their children.

"5. Difficulty of securing a proper conveyance on reasonable terms; or, if the parent is allowed compensation, of agreeing upon terms satisfactory to both parties, parents and town officials.

"6. Local jealousy; an acknowledgment that some other section of the town has greater advantages and is outstripping any other locality.

"7. Natural proneness of some people to object to the removal of any ancient landmark or to any innovation, however worthy the measure or however well received elsewhere.

"To these objections it may properly be said:

"The first one is more imaginary than real, for any level-headed man with children to be educated will place a higher value on the quality of the schools and the school spirit in the community than upon the number and accessibility of the schools. Experience has demonstrated the fact that property in towns committed to this plan has appreciated rather than depreciated in value.

"The second and third objections are the most serious. It behooves school authorities to see that the danger is reduced to a minimum. Suitable conveyances, covered, should be provided, and competent and careful drivers selected. No risks should be taken. During the noon hour some teacher should remain with the children who carry luncheon.

"The fourth, fifth, and sixth objections have no great weight. The last one has great influence with those people who choose to live, move, and die as did their ancestors, on the theory that this is the last generation, and that any special efforts at improvement are just so much more than is wise or necessary."

Amount expended for transporting children to school for the past seven years in Massachusetts.

Year.	Amount.	Year.	Amount.
1888-89.....	\$22, 118. 38	1892-93.....	\$50, 590. 41
1889-90.....	24, 145. 12	1893-94.....	63, 617. 68
1890-91.....	30, 648. 68	1894-95.....	76, 608. 29
1891-92.....	38, 726. 07		

In connection with these figures the secretary of the State board of education, Hon. Frank A. Hill, remarks:

"The law authorizing towns to pay for the transportation of pupils was enacted in 1869. The object of the law was to favor the establishment of better equipped, better supported, and better taught schools, without, however, increasing necessarily their cost. This could be done by the consolidation of scattered and feeble schools, the maintenance of fewer but better buildings, and the hiring of a smaller

number of higher-grade teachers. But the difficulty to be overcome was the disposition of children remote from the central schools. This was met by the transportation law. The growth of the transportation expenditure is largely the measure of the extent to which consolidation is carried. To a slight extent it is due to a possible increasing indulgence to pupils who can walk the required distance to school, but whose parents are averse to their doing so.

"The expenditure for 1894-95 was \$76,608.29, an advance of \$12,990.61 from the expenditure of the preceding year. Two hundred and thirteen towns, as against 199 last year, make returns for transportation expenditures, ranging from \$1.55, \$3, and \$5 for Carver, Goshen, and Swansea respectively, to \$2,195, \$2,523.75, and \$2,699.85 for Concord, Lexington, and Weston respectively.

"While vexatious questions not unfrequently arise about the necessity, the kind, the extent, the distance, and the cost of transportation, the general policy of transportation as a factor in the solution of the question as to what can be done for small ungraded schools in sparsely settled regions of the State is proving to be very helpful.

"While the school committee has no right to expend money for transportation unless the town has specifically authorized such expenditure, it has exclusive and absolute charge of the settlement of all details about transportation after it has once been authorized by vote of the town. Whatever the committee does, it is always under statutory obligation to provide convenient schooling for every eligible child. Schooling is made convenient by locating the schoolhouse near the child or transporting the child to the schoolhouse. What is a reasonable walking distance the committee must decide for itself. The secretary, when asked his opinion about reasonable distances, inclines to the view of his predecessor, that little children should not be made to walk much over a mile, although older children of grammar-school age may walk a mile and a half or even more. But numerous conditions may serve to modify this opinion. If for little children the mile lies through lonely, unfrequented, wooded, or difficult roads, it would be too great or too dangerous a distance for them to walk. If, on the other hand, the way lies over a well-traveled thoroughfare, with good sidewalks, and houses all along the road, it would not be a hardship for the children to walk a considerably greater distance than one mile. Transportation should not be used to reduce sturdiness, self-reliance, and reasonable self-denial in boys and girls. It can not be made equally convenient for all families. It often has to be partial for some while complete for others. In cases of genuine doubt, the leaning should be toward the convenience of the child."

In the Massachusetts school report of 1894-95 are given the results of an inquiry regarding the rural schools of three counties in the western section of the State, conducted by State Agent G. T. Fletcher. The questions touching consolidation and conveyance submitted to the school committees and the gist of the answers thereto, as given by Mr. Fletcher, are as follows:

"Do you favor the consolidation of small schools, and the conveyance of pupils when necessary? Give reasons for your opinion."

Nearly all the replies are in the affirmative, so far as the theory is concerned, while many committees find difficulties and sometimes impossibilities in the way of application.

The reasons for consolidation of schools by conveyance of pupils are as follows: Increase in the size of the schools, rendering it possible to have better classification; better attendance, because the school is more interesting and profitable, and pupils can ride in comfort and safety when weather conditions would be unfavorable for walking; and the saving of money by closing small schools, making it possible to employ better teachers.

Some maintain that the contact with a larger number of pupils excites a healthy emulation, and that the small district school does not bring the pupils into touch with the conditions of life which they must meet later.

"To what extent has the plan of uniting schools been tried in your town, and with what results?"

Eighty towns report a trial of the plan. Fifty of them state that results are favorable. As committees may desire particulars about methods of combination and conveyance and advantages secured, or the nature of obstacles and objections encountered, the names of some of these eighty towns are given: Ashburnham, Bernardston, Bedford, Carver, Dover, Dana, Essex, Erving, Egremont, Gil, Granby, Holliston, Huntington, Leverett, Littleton, Ludlow, Maynard, Montague, New Braintree, Norfolk, Phillipston, Rutland, Shelburne, and Templeton are among the fifty reporting favorably. Agawam, Carlisle, Conway, Lanesboro, Pelham, and Richmond report some favorable results but much opposition from parents. Auburn, Berkley, Prescott, and Worthington do not favor the plan. Other towns have not tried to unite schools.

Conveyance of children to union schools should be considered as a part of the expense of schooling, and not as a separate charge. The distance which children

may be required to walk to school is a question that gives committees much trouble, and in regard to which they would like some decision by authority.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

A law of New Hampshire provides that town school boards "may use a portion of the school money, not exceeding 25 per cent, for the purpose of conveying scholars to and from the schools." This has been done by the school boards in various towns, and the results have been reported as follows:

1892.

Barnstead.—It was decided in the spring to open schools in nine districts. Later the parents at the North, Shackford, and Bickford districts petitioned for schools, representing the number of pupils to be 5, 6, and 7, respectively. It had been a rule with previous school boards to grant a school to any district containing five or more children of school age. Your board followed the rule and opened schools as petitioned; but after a trial of one term it saw fit to abolish both schools and rule. It was found that 6 and 7 on the petition meant 4 and 5 on the register. Schools were maintained for the remainder of the year in nine districts as at first intended.

After closing the school at the North, the pupils there were conveyed to Locke's Corner, during the fall and winter terms, at an expense of \$36. Those of the Bickford district were conveyed to the Parade at an expense of \$20, and in the winter term \$17.50 was paid for conveying the pupils from the Tasker district to the South, the distance having been measured and found to exceed $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles. Thus at an expense of \$73.50 the maintenance of three schools was avoided, and a net saving effected of something over \$250.

Epping.—The daily conveyance of the few scholars in the North River district, to and from the East Epping School, begun in 1890 and continued through the last school year, has resulted in improving the school and saving about one-half the expense of maintaining another separate school. It is now proposed to make a greater improvement and saving, by moving the North River schoolhouse to a new lot, centrally located for the united schools.

1893.

Alstead.—As in previous years, it has seemed best in some cases to furnish accommodations in neighboring schools, a course which has not been determined wholly by the number of pupils, but also by the opportunities for transportation and the advantages to be obtained in other localities. It is well known that larger schools offer many advantages. Better teachers can be secured, greater unity of method and purpose attained, and increased interest on the part of the pupils assured. On the other hand, there is a natural reluctance to having the old schoolhouse vacated, and our children taken to more distant ones. To adjust these conflicting interests is often the most difficult problem the school board has to solve.

Amherst.—All the schools, with two exceptions, have been in operation during the year. No. 7, which was discontinued in 1891, remained closed, the scholars, few in number, attending elsewhere. At the opening of the fall term it was thought best to pursue the same policy with No. 4, giving the scholars the privilege of the village schools, and providing for their transportation. So far as the board is aware, this change has been largely satisfactory and is a step in the direction of consolidation.

Colebrook.—It was thought practicable to take advantage of the present school law, and an effort was made to unite several schools and so do away with two or three small ones, but was nearly everywhere met with disapproval. There are 3 schools in town with an average of 5 pupils, and the expense of running these schools for the year has been about \$300. Now it seems to us that if one-third, or even one-half, of this money had been used for transportation, and the remainder to lengthen the other schools, the children would have been the gainers. As long as these small schools continue, there will be a tendency to employ cheap and inexperienced teachers.

Walpole.—There is no more difficult problem that the school board is called upon to solve, or under existing conditions one more likely to come up anew with each returning year or term, than how to successfully graft the town system of schools to the old district accommodations. In this connection we refer you to the treasurer's report, which shows \$244 as the sum paid during the year for conveying scholars to and from school, whose attendance we thought it was unreasonable to expect without in some measure overcoming the obstacle of distance. This is always a delicate matter for the school board to handle, and seldom can they arrange it satisfactorily either to themselves or to parents. If the town system is to continue as at present, we recommend to serious consideration whether it would not be wiser to

abandon the makeshift policy that we have been obliged to pursue in the past, and relocate some of the houses in the sparsely settled parts of the town, thereby avoiding in a great measure the cost of conveyance.

Westmoreland.—Money paid for the conveyance of pupils is a unique and peculiar application of the public taxes and should be paid out with particular consideration.

1894.

Barnstead.—By keeping the number of schools down to 9 we have had twenty-nine weeks of school for every scholar in town, the longest school year we ever had.

There has been some complaint about going so far as a few of our scholars are obliged to go to attend school, although conveyance is provided for them. We admit it is rather inconvenient to get ready every day and ride a mile and a half; so is it quite as hard for those who live just within the mile and a half limit to get ready and walk all the way. This they do, however, without murmuring. If a few small children living at a distance from the schoolhouse are unable to attend in the coldest weather, it must be borne in mind that the schools begin early in the season, and that they have as much schooling as they would if two or three more houses were opened and the length of term shortened accordingly, while all others have the advantage of the long school.

Dover.—The conveyance of pupils to and from the graded schools below the high school has been continued during the year with satisfactory results from Littleworth, Knox Marsh, and Eliot Bridge sections of the city.

Allow me to call attention to two other parts of the city to which this plan might be extended advantageously:

	Tolend school.	Upper factory school.
Total enrollment during the term	11	5
Average enrollment	10	5
Average attendance	7	4
Average attendance for December.....	3.5	2.8

The majority of the children attending these two schools live at such distance from them that they are obliged to take their dinners to school; stormy and cold weather interferes very seriously with their attendance; the schools are so small that enthusiasm is of necessity lacking; the children do not get the benefit of the courses in music and drawing conducted by our special teachers in all schools accessible to them.

It seems to me that if this matter were presented to the parents of the children of these schools, they would, on purely business principles, prefer to have the children carried to the graded schools rather than continue the present arrangement. Surely a child can ride in a covered barge 3 miles with less hardship and discomfort than he can walk half that distance. Comfortable transportation would nearly double the school advantages of some of the pupils here considered.

Hampstead.—It is probably impracticable, in a somewhat sparsely settled township like ours, to establish and maintain a graded system of schools in a large, central school building. Of course, if it were practicable, the board has no doubt that the town would willingly make such changes as would be necessary to bring about the result. The greatest obstacle to be overcome seems to be one of transportation, both in respect to its inconvenience to the pupils and the expense attending it. If these difficulties could be overcome, nothing would be of greater value to our children than such a graded school, which all pupils of the town could attend, from the primary to the highest grammar grade. A school of, say, four rooms would then enable the school course to be divided in its execution among four competent teachers, each of whom would push along the pupils of her room to the next, until the primary pupils would finally emerge from the school well prepared for the high school, whose course of study should be adapted to take the pupil at graduation from the highest room of the graded school, and pass him along without any break in his intellectual progress. The fact that at present nearly all of the applicants to the high school are obliged to enter the so-called preparatory course is not the fault, wholly, of the teaching done in our schools. Our teachers have far too many daily recitations. The recitations are much too short, necessarily so. In the hurry and rush of swiftly changing classes and brief recitations, almost no time can be found for extended explanation; and hence the pupil must depend too much upon the text-book and his own resources. Under these conditions the brightest, naturally, will do much, but the duller ones must suffer.

VERMONT.

The school law of Vermont contains a provision similar to that of New Hampshire, authorizing town school boards to expend not exceeding 25 per cent of the school moneys for the conveyance of pupils to and from school. State Superintendent of Education U. S. Stone, in his report for 1893-94, discusses the conditions in Vermont as follows:

"The question of transportation can not be discussed without a more detailed consideration of the fundamental question of unprofitable schools. The depletion of the remote school districts through the concentrating tendency of the times and the diminution in the size of families has brought with it a train of disadvantages and inequalities which it is the aim of the new law to minimize.

"A decrease in population in any community is always attended by a decrease in property valuation. This decrease increases the burden of taxation to the remaining inhabitants. It usually costs as much for repairs and fuel for a school of 4 as for a school of 40; also teachers' wages and the valuation of school property of the two schools are not proportionate to the respective number of pupils. If a new building is necessary the onus in some places is grievous and unjust. These financial conditions have resulted in the practice of economy, which is disastrous to good schools. It neglects repairs and supplies, shortens the length of schools, and invariably secures only the cheap and incompetent teacher.

"Furthermore, the small school in itself is unprofitable for the child. He loses that attrition of mind with mind which is necessary for keenness; he loses the stimulation to excel which can exist only in larger classes; he loses vigorous habits of thought and work unless well buttressed and supplemented at home.

"The new law contemplates the discontinuance of those schools financially and educationally unprofitable, and to mitigate cases of gross inconvenience and inequalities enacted the following law:

"Section 667 of the revised law says:

"Schools shall be located at such places, and held at such times as in the judgment of the board of directors will best subserve the interests of education and give all the scholars of the town equal advantages so far as practicable; the board of directors may use a portion of the school money, not exceeding 25 per cent thereof, for the purpose of conveying scholars to and from school."

"No provision of the law has been more vexing to school directors; no provision has so vitally touched the people. Opposition or hostility or sentiment against the closing of schools originated naturally enough from the instinctive dislike of parents to have their children committed to the conveyance of another, and to a long removal from home; also from an apprehension of a depreciation of real estate. The latter is partially fancied, the former is real. A remote good school has, in the opinion of an intelligent man, no more serious financial effect upon his property than a close poor school.

"In 1893 there were 153 schools of 6 pupils or less in the State; in 1894 there were only 65 such schools, making 88 less schools of the kind in 1894 than in 1893. The aggregate cost of these schools at the average rates would be about \$25,000. After deducting the amount for transportation and dividing by the average cost per day throughout the State to run our schools, we find that by the closure of such schools we could give every boy and girl in the State three days more of schooling, making an approximate aggregate of 250,000 days of schooling.

"One of the impossibilities of human wisdom is to frame a law that will equalize the burdens of life. Our varied conditions necessarily produce inequities. Under any system it will cost one child more physical labor to attend school than another—not a legal fault, but an unavoidable condition.

"If the new system has enhanced these inequalities, the balance must be struck between such increased inequalities on one side and justice through equalization of taxes and larger advantages to pupils on the other.

"It is doubtful if this section of the law can be improved. As it is now, each board is a law unto itself and there is wisdom in such delegation of power. In some instances it might seem better if the town had a voice in the matter of transportation by appropriating specific funds and dictating conveyance. But the town can not easily and justly dictate what pupils should be carried, neither can the town by vote nor the State by law adjust inconveniences. Distance is only one factor in transportation; character and condition of roads and age of children must likewise be considered. The discretion of the directors is a safer solvent than any legal enactment or town vote."

Though there are no statistics on the subject, the practice of transporting pupils to school would seem to have made some progress in Vermont, inasmuch as the county examiner of Windham County reports to the State superintendent: "So far as my observation extends, the school directors have been quite conservative in the

matter of consolidation of schools, and, in most instances, liberal in providing transportation in cases where schools were done away with. In a few cases complaint has been made that directors were inclined to be rather frugal in payment for transportation charges, and there is some slight feeling that there should be some appeal from the decision of the directors in such matters. It is my own opinion that any change in that direction would be the cause of more loss than gain, as it would be a cause for litigation and expense to individuals and to towns."

CONNECTICUT.

A provision of the school law of Connecticut authorizes town school boards to unite the school of any district with that of an adjoining one whenever in their judgment the number of pupils is so small that the maintenance of a separate school is inexpedient, and provide transportation for the pupils of the school discontinued. The following extracts from town reports bearing upon this subject are given:

"*Litchfield*.—A matter which is going to cause much trouble and expense is that of transporting distant pupils to and from school. Several claims have been made for this during the year, only one of which was allowed. It is very difficult to decide just who should, or should not, be paid for such work. We have tried to have sessions of school within reasonable distance of the pupils' homes, and feel that the parents should supplement the efforts of the committee by extra exertion themselves. One of the great drawbacks of sparsely settled communities is the remoteness from schools. Farms thus located are cheap, and the dearth of educational and social privileges is only a part of the bargain. To remedy this the buyer must himself do something. It can not be expected that the town must help him out of his bad trade by bringing to his door these advantages the same as the grocer does his wares.

"*Enfield*.—The first important question discussed was the consolidation of schools. This subject was given much earnest thought and the most careful consideration. It was finally decided to maintain schools in Thompsonville, Hazardville, Enfield Street, Scitico, King Street, Wallop, and Weymouth, as the most central and accessible points, and to bring all the scholars of the town into these schools. Had there been any feasible way of bringing the scholars in Jabbok and Hubbard districts together into one school, it is probable that a school would have been maintained in that part of the town. A very careful survey of the whole town was now made, in order to apportion the scholars of those districts whose schools were abandoned to the several schools most accessible to each. A house-to-house canvass was made, the number of children in each family ascertained, and in all cases where it was possible the family was given their choice of schools. In this way all of these scholars were assigned to the schools which the committee had decided to maintain.

"By the closing of these small district schools, many scholars were of necessity left at a considerable distance from a school in active operation. In considering how best to get these scholars to the nearest school, the committee found itself confronted with that terrible form of affliction, that veritable nightmare of trouble and anxiety, known as transportation. The school laws say that the committee may furnish transportation. The law contemplates that the school committee has the power to discontinue and consolidate schools, and that the people are expected to get their children to school wherever the schoolhouse is located. If transportation is furnished it comes from the good will of the committee, and not from any necessity imposed by law. It was voted that transportation be furnished as far as expedient. This question of transportation has occasioned all the dissatisfaction toward consolidation which has come to the ears of the committee. Our attitude is this: Every dollar spent in carrying scholars, beyond what is absolutely and manifestly necessary, is a dollar wasted. School money is not intended for horse hire, but for purposes of education. In Massachusetts, where consolidation is in force throughout the State, advantage is taken of milk wagons and all manner of conveyances to lessen the expense of transportation, and save the school money for the legitimate uses of the school. The great difficulty is that people themselves are not anxious enough to get their children to school. They are not ready to meet the committee halfway. If a covered carriage would drive up to their door in the morning and get their children and bring them home every night, they would throw up their hats and hurrah for consolidation, and think they were doing wonders for the cause of education. The school board is in full sympathy with the idea of transportation, and heartily regrets that a few isolated families are inconvenienced in getting their children to school. The plan of gathering scholars from house to house is not feasible on account of time and expense, but everything has been done compatible with good judgment and the economical use of money.

"The following schools were abolished: Bements Brook, No. 12, with an average attendance for the past four years of 11 scholars; cost the town \$267.25 in 1893.

Brainard, No. 10, with an average attendance for four years of 7 scholars; cost for 1893, \$278.15. London, No. 9, average attendance for four years, 13 scholars; cost the town for 1893, \$277.96. Jabbok, No. 6, average attendance for four years, 13 scholars; cost the town for 1893, \$274.23. Hubbard, No. 3, average attendance for four years of 12 scholars; cost the town \$338.81 for 1893. East Wallop, No. 11, average attendance for four years of 6 scholars; cost the town \$253.15. Here were 6 schools with an aggregate attendance of 62 scholars, costing the town \$1,689.55 for the school year. The simple perusal of these figures convinces the judgment that this is an extravagant use of school money. To transport these scholars for the past year it has cost the town \$1,045, a net gain of \$644.55. This saving in money is an item well worth consideration, but more important still is the fact that we have placed these scholars in schools where the advantages are superior to their old district schools.

"The committee has been able to reduce the number of schools in the town from 13 to 7, and to accommodate all the scholars without crowding. They have not found it necessary to build any new school buildings, nor to make additions to the old ones. We can not discover that the cost of maintaining our 7 schools has been materially increased by the addition of the scholars from the districts whose schools were discontinued. It is obvious that 7 schools can be carried on for far less money than 13, and this shows what an important item this \$1,045 spent for transportation becomes. Whatever money we have saved by the consolidation of schools has been expended in such a way as to render value received for the expenditure. The expense incurred for transportation, although necessary and unavoidable, makes no showing in our record for the year, and we can not suppress a regret that so large an amount of money must be diverted from its legitimate purpose."

RHODE ISLAND.

[From the report for 1894 of State School Commissioner Thomas B. Stockwell.]

Conveyance of children.—In connection with the closing of some very small schools in towns where the district system has been abolished, there has arisen quite a question as to what extent the town should provide free conveyance or transportation for the children whose schools are thus closed to the nearest school.

Upon the general question the law is silent in so far as express terms are concerned, but it has always been the ruling of the department that the powers conferred upon the school committees with reference to the management of the schools were very broad and that matters found to be necessary for the best and wisest conduct of the schools were within the scope of the committee's power, unless specifically prohibited. Accordingly, in a few instances, at different periods, some committees have made more or less provision of this character. But the local feeling against the closing of a school is generally so strong that committees are very loath to take such action.

The time, however, has fully come when this question of what we will do with these few children scattered over large tracts of country must be answered, and that, too, in a manner that shall be consistent with the rights of the children and the duties of the town.

There are 64 schools in the State having less than 10 pupils each. These are divided among eighteen of the towns of the State, showing that the evil of small schools is quite well distributed. Now, for the purposes of a school, less than 10 children are worth but little; such small numbers give no chance for any system of classification; they afford no opportunity for the cultivation of the healthy spirit of emulation and interest which numbers always foster; the pupils fail to learn the lessons of personal adjustment and adaptation which are so essential a preparation for life and for which the public school, if it be of good size, affords almost the ideal conditions.

Now, it is very clear that it is useless to expect that, save in rare instances, these schools will ever attain to any larger size; hence, if we are to have larger schools, the only way is to bring these pupils together in a smaller number of schools. But this is impossible in many cases unless provision is made at public expense for carrying the children to and from school; instead of bringing the school to the child, which has always been the idea, we now reverse and carry the child to the school. The result is the same in both cases—the best facilities and advantages possible for the child.

In our neighbor on the north and east, Massachusetts, this experiment has been tried for several years, until it has passed beyond the experimental stage and has become recognized and advocated as one of the best and most satisfactory schemes of modern times.

The last report from one of the agents of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, Mr. George A. Walton, says that eight out of fifteen towns in Barnstable County and thirty-six out of fifty-four in Middlesex County pursue the policy of concentrating their schools into one or two and transporting the children to and

from school without charge. The gross sum expended last year in those two counties for the transportation of children was \$21,189.21. It is their experience also that, after the people have once realized the difference between the two methods, they are never ready to go back to the old.

I think, therefore, the time has fully come to advocate this plan as a policy to be taken up and adopted. We have a number of towns where there are several of these small schools scattered all over the town. Not only the matter of keeping up the school must be taken into account, but the schoolhouse itself is in need of attention. Before more money is spent upon all of these small, scattered buildings, it should be carefully considered whether the time has not come to leave them and erect one or two houses in their place.

I believe this course to be in the line of economy, with reference both to the buildings and their care, and also to the efficiency of the schools and the interests of the pupils. While, as above said, it is undoubtedly within the province of a school committee to do this thing, and certainly within that of a town to decide upon such a course, it would very probably be helpful in bringing matters to a crisis if the law were so amended as to provide in express terms for this action.

NEW YORK.

[From report of State Supt. Charles R. Skinner for 1894-95.]

I can not refrain from again calling the attention of the public to the matter of the consolidation of weak rural districts. * * * There were 7,529 school districts in this State where the average attendance upon instruction in the public schools during the last school year varied from 1 to 20 pupils, while there were 2,983 districts in the State where the average daily attendance during the past school year was less than 10 students. To maintain a school, provide proper facilities, and employ a teacher for so small a number of students is manifestly a perversion of that aid which the people so generously accord the educational interests of the State. * * *

The township system, or some unit larger than the present system, in my judgment, is the only solution of the difficulty, and until the State shall have adopted that system, its rural schools will continue to decline in efficiency. There is, in my opinion, no better school in America than the union free school and village school of our State, but the results there obtained can not possibly be achieved in the weak rural districts where the average attendance is less than 20 pupils, and as shown above in nearly 3,000 districts, less than 10. The ambitions and rivalries of the students—incentives to greater exertion on the part of the pupils—which prevailed thirty-five years ago in these country districts no longer exist. The school is lifeless, can not be graded, there is little enthusiasm among the students and that activity and earnestness which comes from numbers is entirely lacking. * * *

My attention has been called to many districts of the State that have maintained a teacher during the past school year by the State teachers' quota of \$100 apportioned to each district maintaining a teacher for a period of thirty-two weeks, where there have been no students whatever in attendance. The property in that district thereby escapes all taxation for school purposes, while in the adjoining district property of the same valuation is sometimes very largely taxed to provide the school facilities, and the State aid to that school is diminished by the teachers' quota, which some inhabitants of an adjoining district simply absorb without rendering any service whatever to the wards of the State. If New York hopes to maintain her preeminence in educational matters, this wrong must be righted. In my judgment it can never be under the existing district system. I earnestly bespeak the careful consideration of this problem on the part of legislators and people interested in the school system of the State. Until relief shall have been obtained, however, by legislation in this direction, these districts should be consolidated with adjoining districts. I have caused to be prepared a bill, which has been presented to the legislature at its present session, greatly facilitating such consolidation, and also providing for the transportation of pupils where such consolidation will make necessary long distances to be traveled by the pupils. Should this proposition meet with legislative and executive approval, I look for a substantial improvement in the school facilities of many of our rural districts. This relief is but tentative, and the full measure of improvement to which the pupils of the rural districts, as well as the taxpayers therein, are entitled will only come by the adoption of some system of district representation other than that which now exists.

CARRYING PUPILS TO SCHOOL.

[Communication to the Wisconsin Journal of Education.]

Some time ago we gave an account of the experiment at Concord, Mass., by which the country schools were abandoned and all the pupils carried to the village graded

school at a considerable saving of money and the advantage of having better schools for the country children and more months in the year. The plan has been adopted rapidly in Massachusetts in the last four years, and is now in use in more than half the towns. That State has the advantage of the town system of school government, which makes this method of bringing children to school instead of carrying the school to the children much easier to manage.

Now Ohio is following in the same line. Kingsville, in Ashtabula County, in the old Western Reserve, secured the necessary legislation to consolidate their subdistricts three years ago and carry the pupils to the center. The expense of schooling for pupils in the districts outside the center has been reduced from an average of \$22.75 to an average of \$12.25. Fewer teachers are employed and better salaries paid, and thus better teachers secured. More pupils attend school and they attend more regularly, and they have the advantage of larger classes and more time for each class. And there has been a saving in money to the taxpayers of more than \$1,000 in the three years.

Madison, Lake County, has followed this example the present school year, and we take from the statement of the principal in the Ohio Educational Monthly some things of interest. He says:

"Fifty pupils from three adjoining subdistricts are conveyed in covered vehicles, or barges, at a total expense of \$392 for the school year of nine months, three teams being required. All of the children are carried directly from their homes; none are compelled to walk any distance; the longest ride for any one is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles. (This is an improvement on the Concord plan.)

"The job of carrying these pupils is let under a written contract, each contractor giving a bond of \$100 for the faithful performance of his part of the contract.

"Following are some of the provisions of the contract:

"1. The contractor to furnish a covered conveyance which can be closed at the sides and ends as the weather requires, seats to extend lengthwise of the vehicle, with steps and a door at the rear end. There must be seating capacity sufficient to accommodate all of the pupils in the subdistrict without crowding.

"2. The contractor to furnish a good team, and robes sufficient to keep the children comfortable, and in very cold weather to heat the inside of the conveyance with soapstones or an oil stove.

"3. The team to be driven by the contractor or some trusty person of adult age who shall have control of the children, and be responsible for their conduct while they are in the conveyance, no profane or indecent language, quarreling, or improper conduct to be allowed therein.

"4. The conveyance to arrive at the schoolhouse not earlier than 8.30, nor later than 8.55 a. m., and to leave at 4.05 p. m.

"Following are some of the good results which I can already see in the new plan: (1) The pupils enjoy the advantages of that interest, enthusiasm, and confidence which numbers always bring; (2) pupils can be better classified and graded; (3) tardiness and irregular attendance are reduced to the minimum; (4) no quarreling, improper conduct, or improper language so common among children on their way to and from school; (5) no wet feet or wet clothing, nor colds resulting therefrom; (6) pupils have the advantage of better schoolrooms, better lighted, better heated, better ventilated; (7) this plan is sure to result in fewer and better teachers, better paid."

We have in Wisconsin an optional township law. This has been adopted only in the north and newly settled part of the State. It has not been popular in the older settled part of the State. But now let some town in Wisconsin try this plan of carrying the scholars to the school instead of the school to the scholars and show practically its advantages and it would be the strongest possible argument for a township system of school government. One public-spirited citizen in a town favorably located could work out this reform in his own town. Could not some one of our county superintendents inspire some school district officer to work up this plan for his own town?

CHAPTER XXXVI.

A CHECK LIST OF AMERICAN SUMMER SCHOOLS.¹

I. POSITION AND OBJECTS.

The summer school is an American product and a mixture of two ideas. It stands as the nineteenth century form of the Greek games and represents also the medieval desire to popularize knowledge. It was suggested largely by the camp meeting which is a sort of religious folk-mote—a summer school of religion. It is a cross between the picnic and the lecture room, and in some places the former was made the more prominent of the two ideas.

The summer school is due in part to the fact that twenty years ago few had the idea of making themselves professional teachers; they were doing the work of a teacher as a stepping-stone to something else and all their spare time was used in preparation for their life work. Now teaching has become a life work and summer schools are used in preparation for it. Further, it is one of the results of the discovery that it is unnecessary to loiter away three months of the year, but that a considerable part of this time can be employed to advantage if accompanied with a change of environment and occupation. On this point writes Melvil Dewey, the apostle of the summer school: "Thousands testify after trial that the change of surroundings and occupation, the stimulus of congenial companions, interested in the same subjects, and the many provisions of our best summer schools for healthful recreation are better preparation for hard work the next year than a vacation spent in idleness. In brief, it is evident that the tendency is growing among teachers to congregate for a few weeks during the long vacation; our problem, therefore, is how to get the most good from these meetings."

On the other hand, the summer school has not had a road to travel that is entirely free from obstacles. Dr. W. B. Harlow, writing in *The Academy* (Syracuse) as early as 1886, introduces an article in opposition to the summer school with the quotation of a philosophic passage from Thoreau: "Sometimes in a summer morning I sat in my sunny doorway from sunrise till noon, wrapt in a reverie amid the pines and hickories and sumacs, in undisturbed solitude, while birds sang around or flitted noiselessly through the house; until by the sun falling in at my west window, or the noise of some traveler's wagon on the distant highway, I was reminded of the lapse of time. I grew, in those seasons, like corn in the night. They were not time subtracted from my life, but so much over and above my usual allowance." He continued by quoting Dr. Holmes: "All lecturers, all professors, all schoolmasters have ruts and grooves in their minds into which their conversations is perpetually sliding," and with these quotations as a preface Dr. Harlow emphasizes his own fear of the narrowing influence of the summer school by exclaiming: "It is from these ruts that our summer vacations may happily deliver us. During these times of recreation the companionship of others of our own profession may be agreeable; but if this results in so narrowing our lives that no other topic but school can awaken our enthusiasm, let us for two months at least flee from one another as if we were in danger of catching the plague," and continues by asking the question if the majority of "true teachers, after ten months of faithful labor in crowded rooms," are in a "fit condition to spend their vacation in brain work?"

A milder note of objection comes from Anna McClure Sholl, in *The Bachelor of Arts*, who enters a protest to one phase of the movement by contrasting the propagandism of university extension and the summer school with the usual conservatism of educational institutions; it used to be that the man sought the school, now the school seeks the man and like a real chapman takes to the road with its wares.

While the summer school is not an old institution it is one which has already outgrown its name. The term is now used to denote that large and increasing number

¹ Prepared by Dr. Stephen B. Weeks.

of schools which avail themselves of the comparative leisure that is offered by the summer vacation of teachers to emphasize methods of teaching or advanced instruction along particular or special lines. The idea of the summer school was at first to give normal instruction, or to make investigations into one subject only, but the movement is now developing into a general summer course, while some institutions, like the University of Chicago, the Michigan Mining School, and the Michigan Agricultural College, throw open their doors to a regular summer session, which they treat in all respects just as they do any other session of the school year.

The summer school has outgrown its original idea in another direction. It is now no longer a summer school, but a winter school as well. As the summer was originally chosen because of its comparative freedom and the greater suitability of climate in the Middle and Northern States, so the idea has been reversed in the extreme South and we have the Florida Chautauqua held at De Funiak Springs in February and March, and the Catholic Winter School of America, which held its first session in New Orleans February 16 to March 14, 1896, and was a financial success.

The length of the term varies in different schools from a few days to three months. The tendency to increase the length of time and make use of as much of the vacation as possible is increasing and there has been a material change in the character of the courses offered. At first it was the custom to give many short courses, or single lectures. It is now the custom to make the courses of lectures as continuous and connected as possible. The summer school has come down to business rather than pleasure.

Summer schools may be divided roughly into the following classes according to the phases of education which they emphasize particularly: (1) Schools that teach special branches of knowledge, as ancient and modern languages, literature, psychology, natural sciences, law, medicine; (2) schools of the arts, as drawing, industrial art, music, oratory, etc.; (3) professional, normal, or schools of methods where the training of teachers is the main idea—summer schools of pedagogy; (4) general, where all or nearly all the subjects in the general curriculum of education are treated; (5) Chautauqua, where the idea of study is united with that of rest and recreation and where the Chautauqua course of reading (C. L. S. C.) is made the basis of the educational work.

Again, from the standpoint of control they may be divided into several classes: (1) Private, which range in scope from a school devoting itself to preparing students for college or to making up the deficiencies of common school teachers, to a private school of chemistry, law, or Bible study; (2) college or university, which are usually more general in character; (3) State, which are generally devoted to the training of teachers, are more or less local and even migratory in character.

In the matter of fees they range all the way from the private with fees sufficient to support the school to the public State schools which are free. As a rule they are not self supporting.

In the matter of location, a change of environment is needed first of all. Consideration must be taken of the (1) available educational plant, and (2) the advantages of the environment of the locality chosen. Much depends on the contagious inspiration of large numbers with common sympathies. The location should possess several attractions; beauty, healthfulness, etc., are attractions, but many places other than summer resorts should be and are chosen. The value of life for two months to a country teacher in New York City in the environs of an institution like Columbia College are very great, while the advantages of life in the country to a city teacher are equally as great.

The summer school in modified forms now exists also in England, Canada, Scotland, Germany, Wales, Switzerland, France, Sweden, Turkey, and in Japan, where a summer school for Bible study and conference of Christian workers, modeled on the Northfield Conference, was held at Doshisha in 1887, and was transferred the next year to Hakone, where it had soon 200 students and lasted twelve days.

II. THE FIRST SUMMER SCHOOLS.

Harvard College seems to have been the first to recognize that colleges and universities were under obligations to students whose circumstances prevented them from attending the regular courses. In 1863 university lectures were given on Saturdays at Cambridge for the special benefit of teachers in the secondary schools. At a later date these lectures were abandoned.

A few years later, 1869, a dozen professors and students, chiefly from the scientific schools of Harvard University, made a trip to Colorado, where scientific results of considerable value were obtained. During the next four years parties of students under Professor Marsh and other Yale professors made several expeditions to the Rocky Mountains. They secured a large and valuable collection of geologic and mineralogical specimens which are now deposited in the Museum of Natural History in New Haven. Professor Orton, of Vassar, was also accustomed to spend a few

weeks with his students during the spring or summer vacation in the coal regions of Pennsylvania, in the Helderberg Mountains of New York, or in other regions of geological interest. These excursions served the purposes of instruction, but they were hardly schools; they were rather gatherings of special investigators than of students.

The first idea of a permanent summer school can probably be ascribed to Prof. N. S. Shaler, who first suggested to his colleague, Prof. Louis Agassiz, the establishment and maintenance during the summer of a seaside laboratory at Nantucket for the benefit both of university students and of teachers of science in secondary schools. The outcome of this suggestion was the establishment of the Zoological Laboratory, known as the Anderson School, on Penikese Island. Professor Agassiz, in a prospectus issued December 14, 1872, outlined the "programme of a course of instruction in natural history to be delivered by the seaside in Nantucket during the summer months, chiefly designed for teachers who propose to introduce the study into their schools, and for students preparing to become teachers." Financial difficulties threatened at first to overwhelm the school, but it was relieved by the generosity of John Anderson, of New York, who was attracted by the efforts of Professor Agassiz and offered as a station for the school Penikese Island, in Buzzards Bay, 25 miles southeast of Newport, R. I. The island was admirably adapted to the work, and this gift was soon supplemented by an endowment fund of \$50,000 from Mr. Anderson. Another friend presented a yacht for collecting and other purposes. A building was erected with accommodations, including 58 lodging rooms. The school was opened July 8, 1873, and there were 43 students that year. In December, 1873, Professor Agassiz died. The work was conducted the next year by his son, Prof. Alexander Agassiz, and 46 students attended; but the school did not meet with sufficient support and the project was given up.

From this summer school of biology have grown a large and increasing number of schools, devoted to original research, just as in Europe seaside schools and laboratories may be traced to the influence of the International Marine Laboratory at Naples.

The most direct successor to the Penikese laboratory was the private laboratory of Prof. Alexander Agassiz established at Newport in 1877. In 1876 a summer school of biology was established at Salem, Mass., by the Peabody Academy of Sciences, but was discontinued in 1881. Then followed the Chesapeake Zoological Laboratory of the Johns Hopkins University in 1878 and one was opened at Annisquam, Mass., in 1881.

The influence of the work of Professor Agassiz soon began to make itself felt in other lines of study also. In 1874 Prof. Asa Gray, of Harvard, organized a summer school of botany to meet the same conditions and accommodate a similar class of students as the Penikese School. It was successful and has been continued since. The Kirkland School of Cleveland, Ohio, under Professor Comstock, of Cornell, attracted attention in 1875, but had no other session. Butler University, Indiana, conducted a successful migratory school through the mountains of Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, during the summer of 1877. It was under the direction of Professors Jordan and Brayton and obtained valuable scientific results. Other early summer schools were the Bowdoin College summer school of botany, chemistry, and mineralogy, begun and continued for six weeks in 1876; Cornell summer school of zoology, 1876; the summer school of drawing, conducted by Walter Smith in Boston in 1875; the normal institute of drawing and painting of Syracuse University in 1876, and the Concord summer school of philosophy and literature (1879-1888). The Sauveur Summer College of Languages, first established and opened at Plymouth, N. H., in 1876, by Dr. L. Sauveur, is the oldest school of its class; from 1877 to 1883 the college was at Amherst, Mass. Dr. Sauveur then retired and in 1884 reopened his school in Burlington, Vt. It had a peripatetic existence and in 1894 was again united with the Amherst Summer School of Languages, which had been founded in 1877 by Dr. Sauveur, and the first joint session was held in 1895.

In the Southern States the pioneer was probably the University of Virginia, which began with a law school in 1870. Summer normals for the training of teachers were held at the University of North Carolina as early as 1877.

The mother of another class of institutions that cover the Union like a net work and stimulate summer schools proper was Chautauqua, founded in southwestern New York in 1874. It grew out of a Sunday school assembly. Chautauqua assembly itself was organized in 1874; the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle (C. L. S. C.) in 1878; the summer college in 1879; the correspondence college in 1885. There are now some 59 summer assemblies on the pattern of Chautauqua in the United States. The summer meetings of Oxford and Cambridge are based on the same model—and there are reading circles in England, Russia, Japan, and Australia. It has also been imitated in America by the organization of the Catholic Summer School at Plattsburg, of which the first session was held in 1892, and by the modification of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle course to meet

the needs of Jewish readers, known as the Department of Jewish Studies. The history of Chautauqua, written with detail by Prof. Herbert B. Adams, will be found in another part of the present report.

But Chautauqua looked toward general culture, not special training. The Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute stands for the idea of the special training of teachers. This school started in the summer of 1878. Its originator and first president was Col. Homer B. Sprague, Ph. D., who first selected the place, interested others in the scheme, put the plan into operation, and got the school incorporated under the laws of Massachusetts. Another school of this class is the National Summer School of Methods, located at Glens Falls, N. Y., which grew out of the union of four schools, the National School of Methods, the school organized four years later at Round Lake, N. Y., the Glens Falls Training School, and the Niagara Falls School.

To these schools, in which the idea of pedagogical training or of special courses is predominant, must be added another class, which emphasize the idea of general training, counting in some cases toward a college degree. Professor Agassiz began the experiment at Harvard in the summer of 1869 with a geological school taught in part in Cambridge and in part in western Massachusetts. From that time summer instruction in geology, designed especially to acquaint teachers with methods of instruction to be followed in the field, has been continued to the present time, one of the most successful of its early sessions being that of 1875, which was held at Cumberland Gap. During the summer of 1896 courses will be given at Harvard as follows: 5 in English, 2 each in German and French, 1 in general American history, 1 in education and teaching, 1 in methods of teaching geometry and algebra, 3 in mathematics, 3 in engineering, 1 in freehand drawing, 1 in physics, 4 in chemistry, 1 in botany, 5 in geology, 1 in physiology and hygiene for teachers, 2 in physical training, together with courses at the medical school and dental school. Women are admitted to most of these courses, and it seems probable that their ultimate admission to American colleges on the same terms as men will be brought about through the summer school. The Harvard courses "are adapted to the needs of those who intend to be teachers in the several subjects. Several of the more elementary, however, are intended to meet the needs of beginners, and may be taken by students in lieu of the corresponding courses in the college and the Lawrence Scientific School, and may be counted toward a degree."

As has been remarked already, some institutions, like the University of Chicago, make no distinction between different parts of the year, and provide for a regular summer quarter.

III. BIBLIOGRAPHY OF AMERICAN SUMMER SCHOOLS.

- American summer schools. Review of Reviews, XIII, pp. 553-555, May, 1896.
- Burford, S. The summer schools of 1895. The American University Magazine, II, pp. 311-313, August, 1895.
- Catholic Summer School:
The new home of the summer school at Plattsburg. The Catholic World, LVII, pp. 67-84. Illustrated.
- Sheedy, Morgan M. The future of the summer school. Catholic World, LVI, pp. 165-173. November, 1892.
- Chautauqua:
Adams, Herbert B. Chautauqua: A social and educational study. Report of Commissioner of Education, 1894-95, pp. 977-1077.
- Beauchamp, W. M. Chautauqua and other Iroquois names. Science, XVIII, pp. 261-263.
- Boyesen, H. H. The Chautauqua movement. Cosmopolitan, XIX, p. 147. June, 1895.
- Chautauqua. Lend a Hand, VII, pp. 223-230. October, 1890.
- Chautauqua as a summer resort. Chautauquan, VII, pp. 610-612.
- The Chautauqua Circle. Nation, XLIX, pp. 290, 332, 350.
- Chautauqua Religious Association. Spectator, LV, p. 1163.
- Chautauqua system. Lend a Hand, XIII, pp. 270-284. October, 1894.
- Cook, Albert S. Chautauqua: Its aims and influence. The Forum, XIX, pp. 689-706. August, 1895.
- Crooker, J. H. The Chautauqua Circle. Unitarian Review, XXXII, p. 225.
- Fitch, J. G. Chautauqua Reading Circle. Nineteenth Century, XXIV, pp. 487-500.
- Flood, Theodore L. Old Chautauqua days. Chautauquan, XIII, pp. 561-593. Illustrated.
- Hale, E. E. Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. The Century, IX (n. s.), pp. 147-150.
- Chautauqua Reading Circle. Unitarian Review, XXVIII, p. 233.

Chautauqua—Continued.

- Hastings, F. Recreation and religion at Chautauqua. *Sunday Magazine*, XVII, p. 622.
- Kimball, K. F. Central office of the C. L. S. C. Chautauquan, XI, pp. 611-615. Illustrated.
- Noble, Frederic P. Chautauqua as a new factor in American life. *New England Magazine* (n. s.), II, pp. 90-101. Illustrated.
- Post, D. H. Chautauqua. *Harpers' Magazine*, LIX, pp. 350-360. Illustrated.
- Visit to Chautauqua. *American*, XIV, pp. 281-282.
- Vincent, J. H. Chautauqua a popular university. *Contemporary Review*, LI, pp. 725-735.
- The Chautauqua movement. Boston, Chautauqua Press, 1886, with introduction by President Lewis Miller.
- Going to Chautauqua. Chautauquan, XI, pp. 588-591.
- Wells, W. Scientific conference at Chautauqua. *Meth. Quarterly*, XXXVII, p. 57.
- Concord School of Philosophy:
- Clark, X. Concord School of Philosophy. *The Nation*, XXXI, p. 74, 164.
- Concord School of Philosophy. *Critic*, I, p. 199.
- Concord School of Philosophy. *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, XIV, pp. 135-138, 251-253.
- Concord School of Philosophy. *Literary World* (Boston), XIV, p. 272.
- Concord School of Philosophy in 1883. *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, XVII, pp. 213-215.
- Concord School of Philosophy in 1884. *Critic*, V, pp. 55, 69.
- Goethe at Concord: Review of the life and genius of Goethe. *Critic*, V, p. 115. Lectures at the Concord School of Philosophy.
- Lathrop, George Parsons. Philosophy and Apples. *Atlantic*, XLVI, pp. 652-656.
- McCosh, James. Concord School of Philosophy. *Princeton Review* (n. s.), IX, p. 49.
- Pallen, C. B. Concord School of Philosophy. *American Catholic Quarterly*, XIII, p. 555.
- Ward, J. H. Concord School of Philosophy. *International Review*, IX, pp. 459-467.
- Conventions and summer gatherings of 1895. *Review of Reviews*, XI, pp. 523-524. May, 1895. Illustrated.
- Dewey, Melvil. Summer schools. *Regents Bulletin of the University of the State of New York*, No. 29, Extension No. 8, pp. 431-514. August, 1894.
- Summer schools. *Ibid.*, Extension Bulletin, No. 9, pp. 1-142. A second edition, revised and enlarged.
- Forthcoming events. *Review of Reviews*, IX, p. 673. June, 1894.
- Forthcoming conventions and great gatherings of 1893, at Chicago and elsewhere. *Review of Reviews*, VII, pp. 539-547. June, 1893. Illustrated.
- Harlow, W. B. Summerschools. *The Academy* (Syracuse), I, pp. 151-153. May, 1886.
- M., A. M. Some notes on the summer school. *The Critic* (o. s.), XI, pp. 173, 174 (n. s., VIII). October 8, 1887.
- Patzner, C. E. The summer school problem, I, work and relations; II, as related to the training of teachers. *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, XXIII, pp. 39-41, 63-66. February and March, 1893.
- Putnam, Benjamin W. The Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute. *New England Magazine*. July, 1887.
- Shaw, Albert. Conventions and summer gatherings of 1892. *Review of Reviews*, V, pp. 411-424. May, 1892. Illustrated.
- Sholl, Anna McClure. Summer schools. *The Bachelor of Arts*, I, pp. 465-478. September, 1895.
- Summer professional training for teachers. *School Review*, III, pp. 397-402. June, 1885.
- Summer school. *The Dial* (Chicago), XVIII, pp. 313-315. June 1, 1895.
- Summer schools. *The Literary World*, XVII, p. 168. May 15, 1886.
- Summer schools. Report of Commissioner of Education, 1879, pp. ccxvii, ccxviii.
- Summer schools for teachers. *New England Journal of Education*, III, p. 151. March 25, 1876.
- Summer schools of 1895. *The School Journal*, L, pp. 412-448, 514, 596-599. April 20, May 11, June 1, 1895.
- Thwing, Charles F. Summerschools. *Harper's Magazine*, LVI, pp. 501-510. March, 1878. Illustrated.
- Vacation schools. Report Commissioner of Education, 1877, pp. cxx-cxxi.
- White, E. E. Professional training of teachers in summer schools. *Proceedings N. E. A.*, 1894, pp. 100-106.
- Willoughby, Westel W. The history of summer schools in the United States. Report Commissioner of Education, 1891-92, pp. 893-959.

IV. CHECK LIST.

[Total number of summer schools reporting, 319.]

Post-office address of school.	Name of school.	Length of term.	Term begins.	Character of course.	Name and address of principal.	Remarks.
I	2	3	4	5	6	7
ALABAMA.						
Eufaula.....	Summer School.....	10 weeks.....	June 17.....	F. L. McCoy, Eufaula.....
Talladega.....	Chautauqua Teachers' Assembly.....	8 days.....	July 2.....	George R. McNeill (superintendent), E. R. Eldridge, Troy.....
Troy.....	Peabody Summer School.....	4 weeks.....	June 1.....	Normal.....	Booker T. Washington, Tuskegee.....	Sixth year, 1895. Organized 1895; for colored youth.
Tuskegee.....	Tuskegee Summer Assembly.....	2 weeks.....	Aug. 1.....	Theology; domestic economy; pedagogy.....
CALIFORNIA.						
Berkeley.....	University of California Summer School of Biology.....	10 weeks.....	June 1.....	Biology.....	Prof. W. E. Ritter, Berkeley.....	Begun 1893.
Do.....	University of California Summer School of Chemistry.....	6 weeks.....	June 10.....	Chemistry; for teachers.....	Prof. W. B. Rising, Berkeley.....	Begun 1891.
Do.....	University of California Summer School of Mining Engineering.....	Mining engineering.....	Prof. S. E. Christy, Berkeley.....
Do.....	University of California Summer School of Physics.....	6 weeks.....	June 5.....	Physics; for teachers.....	Prof. Frederick Slate, Berkeley.....
Do.....	University of California Summer School of Surveying.....	Surveying.....	Prof. H. I. Randall, Berkeley.....
Coronado Beach.....	Coronado Beach Summer School.....	4 weeks.....	July 2.....	Science, literature, and normal General.....	Daniel Cleveland, San Diego.....	Organized 1895.
Long Beach.....	Chautauqua Assembly Summer School.....	A. J. Cook, Claremont.....
Pacific Grove.....	Hopkins Seaside Laboratory of Leland Stanford Junior University.....	6 weeks.....	June 17.....	Zoology, botany, embryology, and physiology of marine forms.....	O. P. Jenkins and C. H. Gilbert, Stanford University.....
Do.....	Summer School.....	2 weeks.....	July 1.....	Chautauqua.....	Thos. Filben, D. D., San Francisco.....
Do.....	W. C. T. U. Summer School of Methods.....	9 days.....	July 16.....	Mrs. Sturtevant-Peet.....
Pasadena.....	Throop Polytechnic Summer Normal School.....	6 weeks.....	July 5.....	Drawing and stoid.....	Charles H. Keyes, Pasadena.....
Shasta.....	Summer School.....	8 days.....	July 29.....	Chautauqua.....	Thos. Filben, D. D., San Francisco.....
Sisson.....	Mount Shasta Normal.....	12 weeks.....	June 1.....	Normal.....	William Henslow, College City.....
Stanford University.....	Leland Stanford Junior University Summer School.....	8 weeks.....	June 3.....	General.....	D. S. Jordan (president), Stanford University.....
COLORADO.						
Boulder.....	Summer School of the University of Colorado.....	6 weeks.....	July 13.....	Carl W. Belser, Boulder.....

Colorado Springs	Colorado Summer School	4 weeks	July 15	Science, philosophy, and languages.	G. B. Turnbull, Colorado Springs.	Begun 1892.
Denver	Denver Normal and Preparatory Summer School.	5 weeks	June 15	Normal	Fred. Dick, Denver	
CONNECTICUT.						
Norwich	Connecticut Summer School for Teachers.	18 days	July 8	General	Charles D. Hine, Hartford	
Storrs	Agricultural College Summer School.	8 weeks	About June 25	Horticulture, agriculture, and entomology.	B. F. Koons, Storrs	
DELAWARE.						
Dover	Summer School of Methods	5 weeks	July 3	Normal	C. C. Tindal	Do.
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.						
Washington	Columbian University Summer School.	6 weeks	June 22	General	Howard L. Hodgkins, Ph. D., director.	Begun 1894.
FLORIDA.						
Apalachicola	Summer School for Teachers	2 months	July —	Normal	Dr. W. F. Yocum	Public, with help from Peabody fund.
Daytona	do	do	do	do	J. M. Williams	Do.
De Funiak Springs	do	do	do	do	Dr. C. P. Walker, De Funiak Springs.	Do.
Do.	The Florida Chautauqua	4 weeks	Feb. 20	Chautauqua	Rev. W. L. Davidson, D. D., Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio.	
Inverness	Summer School for Teachers	1 month	Aug. —	Normal	Arthur Williams, Inverness	Do.
Kissimmee	do	2 months	July —	do	Thomas F. McBeath, Kissimmee	Do.
Live Oak	do	1 month	Aug. —	do	J. B. Parkinson, Live Oak	Do.
Palatka	do	2 months	July —	do	Rev. F. Pasco, Palatka	Do.
Tallahassee	do	do	do	do	Theo. J. McBeath	Public, with help from Peabody fund; for colored.
GEORGIA.						
Athens	University of Georgia Summer School of Mathematics.	6 weeks	July 1	Mathematics	Prof. Charles M. Snelling, Athens.	
Danvers	Northeast Georgia Chautauqua Assembly.	12 days	Aug. 1	Chautauqua	Rev. William Shaw, Atlanta	Third session, 1895.
Hawkinsville	Ochutlege Chautauqua			Normal	N. E. Ware, Hawkinsville	
Macon	Greer Summer School			General	J. B. Gambrell, Macon	
Oxford	Emory College Summer School			Preparatory to the college	W. A. Candler, Oxford	
ILLINOIS.						
Alton	Piasa Bluffs Chautauqua Assembly.	4 weeks	July 23	Normal	O. M. Stewart, St. Louis, Mo.	
Bloomington	Illinois Wesleyan University Summer School.	6 weeks	June 19	General?	Wilbert Ferguson, Bloomington.	
Carthage	Carthage College Summer School	4 weeks	July —	For teachers and college preparatory.	W. W. Troup, Carthage	

Check list—Continued.

Post-office address of school.	Name of school.	Length of term.	Term begins.	Character of course.	Name and address of principal.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ILLINOIS—continued.						
Champaign	University of Illinois Summer School.	4 weeks.	June 17	General; for university students and public-school teachers.	Andrew S. Draper, Champaign.	
Do.	University of Illinois Summer School of Biology.	3 months.	June	Biology.	Stephen A. Forbes, Urbana.	Opens, 1896; station located at Havana, on Illinois River.
Chicago	American Institute of Normal Methods (Western division).	18 days.	Aug. 6	Normal.	A. W. Hobson, Chicago.	
Do.	Berlitz Summer School of Languages.	2 months.	July	For teachers.	Louis M. Harbert, Chicago.	
Do.	Chautauqua Summer School.	6 weeks.	July 11	Schools of arts and sciences; pedagogy (4 weeks); sacred literature; music; expression; physical education; physical arts.	George E. Vincent, Chicago.	
Do.	Chicago Commons School of Social Economics.	2 sessions of 1 week each.	Apr. 22-29 Aug. 22-29	Social economies.	Prof. Graham Taylor, Chicago.	(Chicago Commons is the social settlement of Chicago; Theological Seminary.)
Do.	Chicago Kindergarten College Summer School of Pedagogy.	4 weeks.	July 15	Pedagogy.	Miss Elizabeth Harrison.	
Do.	Columbia School of Oratory Summer School.	do	June 30	Oratory.	Mary A. Blood, Chicago.	
Do.	Cook County Normal Summer School.	3 weeks.	July 15	Normal.	Francis W. Parker, Chicago.	
Do.	Illinois Medical College Summer School.	(a)	(b)	Medicine	H. H. Brown, M. D. (secretary), Chicago. T. C. Duncan, M. D. (president), Chicago. William S. Mack, Chicago.	
Do.	National Medical College Summer Courses (homoeopathic).	3 weeks.	July 29	Surgery, summer-diseases, etc.		
Do.	Prairie Summer School.	3 weeks.	July 6	For teachers and supervisors of art education in public and private schools.		
Do.	Soper Summer School of Oratory.	5 weeks.	July 6	Oratory.	Henry M. Soper (president), Chicago.	This is a part of the regular work, the college year being divided into 4 quarters.
Do.	University of Chicago Summer Quarter.	3 months.	July 1	Regular work.	W. K. Harper (president), Chicago.	
Dixon	Rock River Assembly	2 weeks.	July 30	Chautauqua	J. M. Rudrauff	

Effingham	Austin College Summer School.	5 weeks	Preparation of teachers.	Hon. H. B. Kopley, Effingham.
Galesburg	Knox Conservatory of Music.	6 weeks	June 17	Music	Wm. F. Bentley, Galesburg.
Do.	Knox Summer School.	5 weeks	do	General	John H. Bixley, Galesburg.
Harvard	Chautauqua Assembly.	5 weeks	School of methods for reforma- tion work.	M. P. Wilkin.
Hoopes-ton	Greer Normal College Summer School.	8 weeks	June —	Regular college work	Jesse E. W. Morgan, Hoopes- ton.
Lake Forest	Lake Forest University Summer School.	5 weeks	June 22	Science and mathematics.	Miss Mary Hartmann.
Normal	Normal Summer School	3 weeks	May 25	Psychology, pedagogy, and method.	Prof. E. P. Colton, Normal.
Do.	do	8 weeks	For teachers and college pre- paratory.	B. W. Eaker, Quincy.
Quincy	Chaddock College Summer School.	4 weeks	Music and fine art.	Miss Jane Addams, Chicago.
Rockford	Hill House College Extension Summer School.	6 weeks	Early in July.	Chas. A. Blanchard, Wheaton.
Wheaton	Wheaton College Summer School.	5 weeks	May 21	L. M. Sniff, Angola.
INDIANA.	Tri-State Normal College Sum- mer School.	5 weeks	June 25	General	Joseph Swain, Bloomington
Angola	Indiana University Summer School.	8 weeks	July 1	General	M. W. Baker
Bloomington	Normal Summer School	6 weeks	June 25	Prof. H. M. Kingery, Craw- fordsville.
Crawfordsville	Wabash College Summer School	4 weeks	July —	Chautauqua work	John M. Conlter, Lake Forest University, Ill.
Do.	Winona Summer School	5½ weeks	June 25	English, history, mathemat- ics, chemistry.	W. S. Stott, Franklin
Eagle Lake, near War- saw.	Franklin College Summer School.	8 weeks	June 10	Chemistry	H. A. Gobin, Greencastle
Franklin	De Pauw University Summer School.	8 weeks	July 22	W. E. Stone, Lafayette
Greencastle	Purdue University Summer School of Chemistry.	8 weeks	About June 10.	A review term for teachers	A. Jons
Lafayette	Normal College Summer School	5 weeks	June 18	Normal, academic, and col- legiate.	John C. Willis, Mitchell
Marion	Southern Indiana Normal College Summer School.	2 weeks	July 31	Chautauquan	Leslie J. Raftzger, Richmond.
Mitchell	Earlham College Summer School	6 weeks	June 29	Normal	Francis M. Stalker, Terre Haute.
Richmond	Island Park Assembly	10 weeks	June 10	Regular and review	H. E. Brown, Valparaiso
Rome	Indiana State Normal Summer School.
Terre Haute	Northern Indiana Normal Sum- mer School and Business Insti- tute.
Valparaiso

^a Various courses.

^b At various dates.

Organized 1895; in-
struction in physical
culture only in 1896.

A private enterprise,
Do.

Held in buildings of
Rockford College.

Begins 1896.

More than 15 years old;
conducted by regu-
lar faculty.
Began 1893.

Began 1894 as private-
enterprise.

Check list—Continued.

Post-office address of school.	Name of school.	Length of term.	Term begins.	Character of course.	Name and address of principal.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
IOWA.						
Colfax.....	Iowa Chautauqua Assembly.....	2 weeks.....	July 14.....	Chautauqua.....	J. Edward Mershon, Des Moines.	Began 1890.
Des Moines.....	Business College Summer School, Des Moines Summer School of Methods.....	4 weeks..... do.....	July 24..... July 6.....	Business..... Normal.....	Angus McKinnon, Des Moines W. A. Crusinburg.	Do.
Do.....	Drake School of Oratory Summer School.....	do.....	July —.....	Oratory.....	Ed. Amherst Ott, Des Moines.	
Do.....	Iowa College of Law Summer School.....	do.....	May 28.....	Law.....	P. S. McNutt, Des Moines.....	
Do.....	Matthews Summer Training School.....	4 weeks.....	June 18.....	Normal.....	Miss Elizabeth K. Mathlows, Des Moines.	
Do.....	Summer Latin School.....	9 weeks.....	June 22.....	Latin.....	C. O. Denny, Des Moines.....	Began 1891.
Grimmell.....	A School of the Kingdom.....	8 days.....	June 25.....	To consider the question: Can we love a political rival of Christianity? College and preparatory.....	George D. Herron, Grinnell.....	Held in buildings of Iowa College.
Morningside, Sioux City.	Morningside College Summer School.....	6 weeks.....	For teachers.....	G. W. Corr, Sioux City.....	
Shenandoah.....	Western Normal College Summer School.....	4 months.....	Apr. —.....	Chautauqua.....	J. M. Hussey (president), Shenandoah. F. W. Barron, Spirit Lake.....	Summer school to be organized 1896.
Spirit Lake.....	Spirit Lake Chautauqua Assembly.....
KANSAS.						
Baldwin.....	Baker University Summer School.....	6 weeks.....	July 17.....	General.....	Miss Lillian Scott, Baldwin.....	
Dodge City.....	Soutle College Summer Normal School.....	2 months.....	June —.....	Normal.....	E. H. Vaughan, Dodge City.....	
Emporia.....	State Normal Summer School.....	8 to 10 weeks.....	June 12.....	do.....	A. R. Taylor.....	Began 1893.
Holton.....	Campbell University Summer School.....	10 weeks.....	June 8.....	General.....	E. J. Hoehshel, Holton.....	
Lindsborg.....	Bethany College Summer School.....	3 months.....	June 2.....	Carl A. Swenson, Lindsborg.....	
Pleasanton.....	Linn County Institute and Summer School.....	do.....	June 17.....	J. C. Lowe, Mound City.....	
Salina.....	Northwest Kansas School of Theology.....	2 weeks.....	Aug. 26.....	Theology.....	Rev. L. O. Housel, Beloit.....	Affiliated with Kansas Wesleyan University.
Sterling.....	Cooper Memorial College Summer School.....	6 weeks.....	June —.....	General.....	Prof. S. A. Wilson, Sterling.....	
Winfield.....	Southwest Kansas College Summer School.....	do.....	June 15.....	do.....	C. A. Place, Winfield.....	
KENTUCKY.						
Kirksville.....	Elliot Institute and Normal School Summer School.....	2 months.....	June 4.....	Whitty Waldrop, Kirksville.....	

Lexington	Kentucky Chautauqua Assembly.	10 days	June 20	Chautauqua	Rev. W. L. Davidson, Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio.	Under auspices of Bowdoin College.
Waddy	Central Normal School and Business Institute Summer School.	8 weeks	June 9	Normal	J. B. Seerest (president), Waddy.	Under State control.
Winchester	Point Burnside Summer Training School of Kentucky Wesleyan College.	2 weeks	June 16		Rev. E. H. Pearce, Winchester.	Under State control. Began 1894.
LOUISIANA.						
Amite City	Summer Schools	4 weeks	June 3	Normal	C. E. Pyrd (instructor), Amite City.	Under State control. Began 1894.
Lake Charles	Peabody Summer Normal School.	do	May 27	do	John McNeese (superintendent), Lake Charles.	Under State control.
Do	Summer School for Colored Teachers.	do	do	do		
New Orleans	Catholic Winter School of America.	do	Feb. 16	General	J. J. McLaughlin, New Orleans.	First session.
New Roads	Summer School	do	June 17	Normal	R. L. Himes (instructor), New Roads.	
Opelousas	do	do	do	do	H. E. Chambers (instructor), Opelousas.	
MAINE.						
Brunswick	Summer Course in Science.	5 weeks	July 9	Scientific	F. C. Robinson, Brunswick.	Under auspices of Bowdoin College.
Eliot	Greenacre Assembly.	9 weeks	July 1		Miss Sarah J. Farmer (secretary).	
Do	The Greenacre School of Music.	5 weeks	do	Music	Miss Mary H. Burnham, New York City.	
Foxcroft	Summer School for Teachers.	18 days	Aug. 12	Normal	Prof. E. L. Sampson, Foxcroft.	Under State control.
Fryburg	Maine Chautauqua Union.	do	July 23	Chautauqua work	Rev. George D. Lindsay, Portland.	
Do	Summer School for Teachers.	do	July 15	Normal	Mrs. N. Waterhouse, Portland.	Do.
Lewiston	Ministers' Institute of Cobb Divinity School.	9 days	Sept. 2	Theology	George C. Chase, Lewiston.	Under auspices of Bates College.
Northport	Summer School for Teachers.	do	July 29	Normal	M. C. Hill, Belfast.	Under State control.
Northport Camp Ground.	Chautauqua and Sunday School Assembly.	8 days	Aug. 14	Chautauqua and Sunday School work.	Rev. George D. Lindsay, Portland.	Began 1892.
Old Orchard	Eastern New England Chautauqua, Biblical Institute and F. E. Assembly.	5 weeks	July 22	Chautauqua	E. W. Porter, Peabody, Mass.	
Orono	Maine State College Summer School.	3 weeks	July 15	For teachers and preparatory.	A. W. Harris, Orono.	
Saco	Summer School for Teachers.	do	July 23	Normal	John S. Locke, Saco.	Under State control. Began 1894.
Seal Harbor, Mount Desert.	Seal Harbor Summer School.	10 weeks	July 7	College preparatory.	Joseph Allen, Ithaca, N. Y.	
Turner	Summer School for Teachers.	do	Aug. 5	Normal	J. H. Conant, East Turner.	Under State control.
MARYLAND.						
Annapolis	Naval Academy Preparatory School.	2½ months	June 1	Preparatory	Robert L. Wernitz, Annapolis.	

Check list—Continued.

Post-office address of school.	Name of school.	Length of term.	Term begins.	Character of course.	Name and address of principal.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MARYLAND—cont'd.						
Baltimore.....	John Hopkins University Marine Zoological Laboratory.	2 months.....	Apr. 7	Marine zoology.....	Prof. William K. Brooks, Baltimore.	Organized 1870; laboratory for research at Beaufort, N. C.
Mountain Lake Park..	Mountain Chautauqua Assembly.	3 weeks.....	Aug. 5	Chautauqua.....	Charles W. Baldwin (president).	
MASSACHUSETTS.						
Amherst.....	The Sauveur College of Language and the Amherst Summer School.	6 weeks.....	July 1	Language.....	W. L. Montague, Amherst.....	The Sauveur Summer School (founded in 1870) and the Amherst Summer School of Language (founded in 1877) were united in 1894 and the first joint session was held in 1895.
Boston.....	Massachusetts Institute of Technology Summer School.	Courses vary in length.	June-Aug.	Professional; the different departments are held at various suitable points.	H. W. Tyler (secretary), Boston.	Women are admitted to all courses except in the mechanical and dental schools.
Cambridge.....	Harvard University Summer School.	7 weeks.....	July 3	General.....	N. S. Shaler (dean), Cambridge.	Organized 1873.
Cottage City.....	Emerson College of Oratory Summer School.	4 weeks.....	About July 10.	Oratory.....	C. Wesley Emerson (president), Boston.	
Do.....	Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute.	5 weeks.....	July 13	For teachers.....	William A. Mowry, Hyde Park.	
Cotuit.....	Cotuit Summer School.....	10 weeks.....	July 8	College preparatory and general.	Charles E. Fish, Exeter, N. H.	
Northampton.....	Connecticut Valley Chautauqua Assembly.	10 days.....	July 14	Chautauqua.....	Rev. W. L. Davidson, Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio.	A series of conferences; the World's Students' Conference; Y. W. C. Conference; General Conference for Christian Workers; begun about 1883.
Northfield.....	Northfield Bible Conference.....	2 months.....	About July 1.	Bible study.....	D. L. Moody.....	

Plymouth.....	School of Applied Ethics.....	5 weeks.....	July 7	Economics, ethics, education, history, religions, Music.....	Henry C. Adams, Ann Arbor, Mich. H. E. Holt, Lexington.....	Began 1892. Held in Tufts College building.	
Tufts College.....	H. E. Holt Normal Institute of Vocal Harmony..... Summer School.....	3 weeks.....	
Wellesley.....	6 weeks.....	July 8	General.....	Helen L. Webster, and Ellen Hayes, Wellesley.	
Woods Hole.....	Marine Biological Laboratory.....	4 months.....	June 1	Biology.....	C. O. Whitman, Chicago, Ill.	
Worcester.....	Clark University Summer School.....	2 weeks.....	July 15	Psychology, education, mathematics, anthropology.....	G. Stanley Hall, Worcester.....	Incorporated 1888.	
MICHIGAN.							
Agricultural College.....	Michigan Agricultural College Summer session..... Summer School.....	Regular work.....	Lewis G. Gorton, Agricultural College. Prof. Delos Fall.....	This is a part of the regular term of the college. Began 1894; held in buildings of Albion College.	
Albion.....	
Do.....	Summer School of Chemistry.....	1 month.....	July 1	Chemistry.....	Prof. Delos Fall, Albion.....	
Alma.....	Albion College Summer School.....	4 weeks.....	July 8	A. F. Burke, Alma.....	Begins 1896.	
Ann Arbor.....	Summer School of University of Michigan.....	6 weeks.....	July 7	General.....	Prof. E. A. Lyman, Ann Arbor.....	
Bay View.....	Bay View Summer University.....	4 weeks.....	July —	Chautauqua work.....	John M. Coulter, Lake Forest University, Ill. G. J. Edgcomb, Benton Harbor.....	Under auspices of Michigan Camp Ground Association.	
Benton Harbor.....	Summer School of Pedagogy and Review.....	6 weeks.....	June 24	
Big Rapids.....	Summer term of Ferris Industrial School.....do.....	May 30	W. N. Ferris, Big Rapids.....	
Detroit.....	National Summer Music School.....	12 days.....	July 1	Mrs. Emma A. Thomas, Detroit.....	
Flint.....	Flint Normal College and Business Institute Summer School.....	6 weeks.....	July 6	For teachers.....	G. E. Swarthout, Flint.....	
Grand Rapids.....	Summer School of the Grand Rapids Kindergarten Training School.....	2 months.....do.....	Kindergarten training.....	Mrs. Lacrocia Willard Treat, Grand Rapids.....	
Holland.....	Trope College Summer School.....	5 weeks.....	July 7	Normal.....	J. W. Humphrey, Holland.....	Began 1889.	
Houghton.....	Michigan Mining School Summer Session.....	Apr. 20	Regular work.....	M. E. Wadsworth (director), Houghton.....	The regular session of the school extends throughout the summer.	
Newaygo.....	Teachers' Summer Normal.....	
Olivet.....	Olivet Summer Review School.....	6 weeks.....	June 24	General, except Latin.....	W. V. Chalmers, Grand Rapids C. G. Wade, Olivet, and W. F. Bishop, Eaton Rapids.....	
Do.....	Olivet Summer School in Latin.....do.....	July 3	Latin.....	George N. Ellis, Olivet.....	
Petoskey.....	Petoskey Normal Summer School.....	3 months.....	July 1	Commercial, normal, and collegiate.....	M. O. Graves, Petoskey.....	
MINNESOTA.							
Minneapolis.....	University of Minnesota Summer School.....	4 weeks.....	July 29	Normal.....	Prof. D. L. Kiehle, Minneapolis.....	
Waseca.....	Waseca Assembly.....	Rev. H. C. Jennings, Mankato.....	

Check list—Continued.

Post-office address of school.	Name of school.	Length of term.	Term begins.	Character of course.	Name and address of principal.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MISSISSIPPI.						
Aberdeen	Aberdeen Normal	4 weeks	June 3	Normal	J. H. Phillips (director), Aberdeen.	Under Peabody fund.
Brookhaven	Brookhaven Normal	4 weeks	July 1	Normal	W. W. Magruder, Agricultural and Mechanical College.	
Meridian	Meridian Summer Normal	4 weeks	June 6	Normal	J. U. Barnard (director), Meridian.	Do.
University	University Summer Normal	do	do	Normal and general	Wickliffe Rose (director), University.	Do.
MISSOURI.						
Columbia	University Summer School of Science.	6 weeks	do	Science and language	M. L. Lipscomb, Columbia	In reality a summer school of methods for secondary schools.
Kansas City	Fairmount Chautauqua Assembly.	2 weeks	May 30	Chautauqua	Rev. W. L. Davidson, Chautauqua Falls, Ohio.	
Sedalia	Missouri State Chautauqua Assembly.	do	do	do	J. G. White, Sedalia	
Trenton	Avalon College Summer Normal	8 weeks	June 9	Preparation of teachers	F. A. Z. Krumler (president), Trenton.	
Warrensburg	State Normal Summer School	6 weeks	June —	Normal	Prof. F. M. Walters, Warrensburg.	
MONTANA.						
Bozeman	Teachers' Review Normal	do	July 8	Normal	A. J. Walrath, Bozeman	
Butte	Summer School	do	do	do	J. F. Davies (superintendent), Butte.	
Helena	Montana Summer School	4 weeks	July 29	do	R. G. Young, Helena	
Twin Bridges	Montana Normal Training Summer School.	5 weeks	June 22	Normal review and commercial training.	Charles W. Birchard, Twin Bridges.	Organized 1891.
NEBRASKA.						
Beatrice	Beatrice Chautauqua Assembly	2 weeks	June 16	Chautauqua	Rev. W. L. Davidson, Chautauqua Falls, Ohio.	
Crete	Doane College Summer School	do	In 1896	Music	H. Bert King, Crete	
Do	Nebraska Gospel Union Summer Bible School.	8 days	July 17	Bible study	N. Fay Smith, Lincoln	
Fremont	Summer School	10 weeks	June 9	Normal	W. H. Clemmons	
Lincoln	Cotner University Summer School	7 weeks	July 1	do	J. A. Beattie, Bethany	
Do	University State Institute	3 weeks	June 14	General; for teachers	G. E. MacLean, Lincoln	
Neigh.	Gates College Summer Normal	6 or 8 weeks	July —	Normal methods	Rev. W. Griffiths, Neigh.	

Normal	Lincoln Normal University Summer School.	10 weeks	June 5	Normal	Hill M. Bell, Normal.
Orleans	Orleans Chautauqua and Summer School.	18 days	June 9		R. H. Estorbrook, Orleans.
Plainview	Summer School	8 weeks	do	Pedagogy, science, and business art.	J. E. Mannix, Plainview.
Wayne	Nebaska Normal College Summer School.	10 weeks	June 10	Normal	J. M. Pile, Wayne.
York	York College Summer School for Normal work.	6 weeks	June —	Normal work and teachers' reviews.	W. S. Reese, York.
NEW HAMPSHIRE.					
Durham	New Hampshire Agricultural and Mechanical College Summer School of Biology.	4 weeks	July 8	Biology	Charles S. Markland, Durham.
East Effing	Wedding Chautauqua Assembly	do	July —	Chautauqua, art, French, cooking, vocal culture, and music	Rev. O. S. Basketel, Manchester.
Plymouth	National Summer Music School for Teachers.	3 weeks	July 20		G. E. Nichols, Boston, Mass.
Do	New Hampshire Summer Institute.	2 weeks	Aug 15	Normal	Fred. Gowling, Concord.
NEW JERSEY.					
Asbury Park	Berlitz Summer School of Languages.	3 months	June 1	French and German	N. A. Joly, New York City.
Avalon	Avalon Summer Assembly	5 weeks	July 8	General	Charles S. Dolley, M. D., Philadelphia, Pa.
Delaware	South Jersey Chautauqua Assembly.		July —	Chautauqua	Charles J. Ogden, Delaware.
NEW YORK.					
Buffalo	Summer School of Pedagogy	12 days	July 13	Pedagogy	Prof. F. M. McMurry (dean), Buffalo.
Chautauqua	Chautauqua assembly department.	7 weeks	June 29	Lectures, concerts, dramatic readings, etc.	
Do	Chautauqua collegiate department.	6 weeks	July 6	Arts and sciences, pedagogy, sacred literature, music, expression, and physical education.	William R. Harper, Chicago, Ill.
Do	Chautauqua Summer School.	do	do	Chautauqua	W. A. Duncan, Syracuse.
Cold Spring Harbor	Biological Laboratory Summer School of Brooklyn Institute.	do	July —	Biology	Prof. F. W. Hooper, Brooklyn.
Cornwall-on-Hudson	New York Military Academy Summer School.	3 months	June 15		
Friendship	Central New York Summer School.	3 weeks	July 26	Professional, academic, training class, drill, and review.	T. H. Armstrong, Friendship.
Glens Falls	National Summer School				Sherman Williams, Glens Falls.
<p>Branches are held at Detroit, Mich., and Glens Falls, N. Y., in buildings of State Normal School.</p> <p>More general in character than the college department.</p> <p>See Adams's history of Chautauqua in this report.</p> <p>Twelfth session, 1895.</p>					

Check list—Continued.

Post-office address of school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Name of school.	Length of term.	Term begins.	Character of course.	Name and address of principal.	Remarks.	
NEW YORK—continued.							
Ithaca	Cayuga Lake Summer School.	3 weeks	July 20	Normal and college preparatory.	F. D. Boynton (manager), Ithaca.	Begun 1894.	
Do	Cornell University Summer Law School.	8 weeks	July 8	Law	J. G. Schurman (president), Ithaca.	Organized 1893.	
Do	Cornell University Summer School.	6 weeks	do	General	J. G. Schurman, Ithaca.	Organized 1892.	
Moers	Moers Summer School.	25 days	July 22	Mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, experimental psychology, pedagogy.	Fred. E. Dudley, Moers.	Begun 1895.	
New York	University of the City of New York Summer School.	6 weeks	July 9	Surveying and kindred subjects	H. M. MacCracken, New York City.		
Do	School of Mines of Columbia College.			Manual training	Seth Low (president)	Conducted at Litchfield, Conn.	
Do	Summer School of Manual Training.	5 weeks	July 6		Prof. Charles A. Bennett (director), Morning Side Heights.		
Do	The Metropolitan Normal Art Summer School.	4 weeks	July 13	Art	Langdon S. Thompson, Ph. D., New York.	Organized 1891.	
Oswego	The Mid-Summer School	18 days	July 15	Normal	George R. Winslow, Binghamton.		
Peekskill	Clinton Classical Summer School.	14 weeks	June	College preparatory	Charles W. Clinton, Peekskill.	Begun 1892; see Adams's History of Chautauqua in this report.	
Plattsburg	Catholic Summer School of America.	6 weeks	July 6	General	Rev. Thos. J. Conaty, Worcester, Mass.		
Point O' Woods	Long Island Chautauqua Assembly Association.	4 weeks	July	Chautauqua work	Nat. W. Foster, Riverhead.	Begun 1891.	
Port Leyden	Port Leyden Summer School	8 weeks	Aug.	To prepare for New York State examinations.	C. D. Hill		
Rochester	Silver Lake Assembly and Summer Assembly.	8 weeks	July 7	Schools of music, language, physical training, expression, English Bible, art, kindergarten, mathematics, business, history, philosophy, etc.	Ward Platt (superintendent), Rochester.		
Tully Lake	Central New York Summer School.	18 days	July 16	For teachers	J. A. Bassett, Richfield Springs.	Begun in 1894; held at Round Lake.	
Waterford	Eastern New York Summer School for Teachers.	4 weeks	July 14	Law	Alexander Falconer (president), Waterford.		
ASHVILLE.	Biblical Summer School.	3 months	July 1	Law	Hon. John Manning, Chapel Hill.		
Chapel Hill	University Summer Law School.						

Do	University Summer School for Teachers.	5 weeks	June 25	General	Prof. Edwin A. Alderman, Chapel Hill.	Organized about 1885.
High Point	Summer Normal for Colored People.	18 days	June 23	Normal work	Frank H. Clark (superintendent), High Point.	
Morehead City	North Carolina Teachers' Assembly.	2 weeks	June —	Normal	Charles J. Parker (secretary), Raleigh.	
Wake Forest	Wake Forest Summer Law School.	10 weeks	July —	Law	Prof. N. Y. Gulley, Wake Forest.	
Whitsett	Fairview Institute and Commercial College.	8 weeks	June 8	General and preparatory	W. T. Whitsett, Ph. D., Whitsett.	
NORTH DAKOTA.						
University	University Summer School	4 weeks	July 21	For teachers	Webster Merrifield, University	Under auspices of Red River Valley University; begun 1895.
Walpaton	Summer Review School.	do	July 8	General	L. H. Allen, Walpaton	
OHIO.						
Alliance	Mount Union College Summer School.	6 weeks	May 12	do	T. P. Marsh, Alliance	
Athens	Ohio University Summer School.	do	July 1	do	Eli Dunkle, Athens	
Berea	Baldwin University Summer School.	8 weeks	June —	do	Watson I. Taylor, Berea	
Cincinnati	Art Academy Summer School	10 weeks	do	Art	J. H. Gest (assistant director), Cincinnati.	Organized 1895.
Do	Cincinnati Summer School	2 months	July 1	General and college preparatory.	W. C. Washburne, Cincinnati.	Organized 1894.
Cleveland	Case School of Applied Science	6 weeks	July 6	Chemistry, mathematics, mechanical engineering.	Cady Staley, Cleveland	
Do	School of Theology of Western Reserve University.	10 days	July 8	Theology	Charles F. Thwing, Cleveland.	
Do	The Stryker Summer School for Teachers.	9 days	do	General	A. B. Shauck, Dayton.	
Dayton	Summer School for Teachers.	5 weeks	do	Preparatory for students in languages, mathematics, and history.	Prof. J. H. Grove, Delaware	
Delaware	Ohio Wesleyan University Summer School.	6 weeks	June 22	General	Prof. W. A. Chamberlin, Granville.	
Granville	Denison University Summer School.	do	July —	General	W. V. Smith, Cleveland	The summer session of the National Normal University.
Lakeside	Lakeside Summer School.	8 weeks	June 16	Normal	Alfred Holbrook (president), Lebanon.	
Lebanon	Summer School.	do	do	Normal	Rev. Washington Gladden, Columbus.	
Oberlin	Oberlin Summer School of Christian Sociology.	10 days	June 20	Sociology	C. C. Biglow, Stryker	
Stryker	The Stryker Summer Normal.	6 weeks	July 22	Normal	T. H. Soundeeker, Tiffin	
Tiffin	Heidelberg University Summer School.	do	June 24	Preparation of teachers		In buildings of Urbana University.
Urbana	Summer School.	3 weeks	July 8	Preparation of teachers		Has been maintained about 15 years.
Wooster	University of Wooster Summer School.	8 weeks	June 17	For teachers and college preparatory students.	J. G. Black, Wooster	

Check list—Continued.

Post-office address of school.	Name of school.	Length of term.	Term begins.	Character of course.	Name and address of principal.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OREGON.						
Ashland	Southern Oregon Chautauqua Association.	10 days	July 8	Chautauqua	G. F. Billings	Organized 1893.
Eugene	Oregon Summer School	4 weeks	July —	General	C. H. Chapman, Eugene	
Gearhart Park, near Astoria.	Summer School	6 weeks			Prof. H. S. Lyman, Astoria	
Lakeview.	Lakeview Summer School for teachers.	5 weeks	July —	General	J. J. Monroe (superintendent), Lakeview	Began 1894.
Oregon City	Williamette Chautauqua Association.	10 days	July 20	Chautauqua	Robert A. Miller, Oregon City	Organized 1894.
PENNSYLVANIA.						
Beaver Falls	Summer School	6 weeks	July 1	College preparatory	Prof. W. H. Wilson, Beaver Falls	In Geneva College buildings.
Carlisle	Diekinson College Summer Law School.	8 weeks	July —	Law	Dr. William Trickett (dean), Carlisle.	
Carlton	Carrier Seminary and Summer School.	2 weeks	June 17	School and college preparatory.	Rev. F. H. Beck, D. D. (president), Brookville.	
Collegeville.	Ursinus Summer School	5 weeks	July —	College preparatory and teachers.	Rev. Henry T. Spangler (president).	Under auspices of Ursinus College.
Jefferson	Monongahela College Summer School.	14 weeks.	Apr. 1	Normal	Dr. S. T. Wiley, Jefferson	
Mount Gretna	Summer School of the Pennsylvania Chautauqua.	1 month	July 1	Chautauqua	Rev. Theodore E. Schmauk, Lebanon.	
Philadelphia.	Conenont Lake Summer School of Pedagogy.	25 days	July 8	Pedagogy	Prof. Edgar F. Smith, Philadelphia.	
Do	Summer School of Chemistry	6 weeks	July 1	Chemistry	Neff College of Oratory, Philadelphia.	
Do	Summer Session of the Neff College of Oratory.	6 weeks	July 13	Oratory	Dr. Edward T. Devine, Philadelphia.	Held this year in buildings of the University of Toronto.
Do	University Extension Summer School.	25 days	July 1	General		Under auspices of University of Pennsylvania and in its buildings.
South Bethlehem	Lehigh University Summer School.	4 weeks	June 24	Surveying	Prof. M. Merriman, South Bethlehem.	
Strattonville.	Carrier Seminary Summer School.	2 weeks	June 11	Secondary work	Rev. Francis H. Beck, Brookville.	
Washington	Washington and Jefferson College Summer School.	6 weeks	July 8	General college preparatory	Prof. Schmitz, Washington	

RHODE ISLAND.									
Kingston	College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts Summer School.	3 weeks	July 14	Normal	Agriculture and shopwork.	J. H. Washburn, Kingston.	A western session is also held in or near Chicago.		
Providence	American Institute of Normal Methods.			Music		Silver, Burdette & Co., Boston, Mass.	Held in buildings of Brown University.		
Do	Summer School of Normal Methods in Music.							Embodies many features of university extension.	
SOUTH CAROLINA.									
Columbia	South Carolina College Summer School.	16 days	July 3	General, for teachers.		James Woodrow, Columbia.			
SOUTH DAKOTA.									
Lake Madison	Lake Madison Chautauqua Schools.	2 weeks	July 9	Normal		H. E. Kratz, Ph. D., Sioux City, Iowa.	Organized 1891.		
Rapid City	State School of Mines	Indefinitely through summer.	May 1	Summer field work in engineering and geology.		Dr. V. T. M. Gillyvandy, Rapid City.	A part of the regular work.		
Vermillion	American Institute of Christian Sociology (branch).			Sociological		Prof. C. M. Young, Vermillion.	Organized in 1894.		
TENNESSEE.									
Decherd	Terrill College Summer School.	8 weeks	July 1	General.		James W. Terrell.			
Harriman	Summer School of Languages and Normal Training.	do	June —	For teachers		W. L. Stooksbury, Harriman.			
Huntingdon	Southern Normal University Summer School.	do	May 14			J. A. Baker, Huntingdon.			
Knoxville	Bible School of Knoxville College.	3 weeks	July 5	Bible study		J. S. McCulloch, Knoxville.	For colored teachers.		
Do	Southern Students' Conference.	10 days	June 14	do		H. P. Anderson (treasurer), Asheville, N. C.	Under auspices of International Committee of Y. M. C. A.		
Lebanon	Summer Law School of Cumberland University.	8 weeks	June —	Law		Andrew B. Martin, Lebanon.	Organized 1896.		
Monteagle	Monteagle Summer School.					Prof. A. P. Bourlang, Nashville.			
Nashville	Central Tennessee College Summer School.	8 weeks	June 10	Preparatory and normal		M. W. Deagan and D. W. Byrd, Nashville.			
Do	Vanderbilt University Summer School of Chemistry.	6 weeks	June 22	Chemistry		Dr. J. F. McGill, Nashville.			
Rogersville	Southern Summer Bible and Training School for Young Women.	10 days	June 7	Bible training		Miss Effie K. Price, General Secretary International Committee Y. W. C. A., Chicago, Ill.	Organized 1894.		
Spencer	Summer Normal.					J. A. Saffey, Spencer.	Under auspices of Rogersville Synodical College.		
TEXAS.									
Belton	Baylor Female College Summer School.	8 weeks	June 19			C. P. Fountain, Belton.			

Check List—Continued.

Post-office address of school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Name of school.	Length of term.	Term begins.	Character of course.	Name and address of principal.	Remarks.	
TEXAS—continued.							
Dallas Fort Worth.	State School of Methods. Teachers' University School.	3 weeks. 8 weeks.	June 4 June 17	For teachers, specialists, and advanced students.	J. L. Long, Dallas. E. E. Bramlette and I. C. Case, Fort Worth.	Began 1885; uses facilities of Fort Worth University. Incorporated 1888.	
Georgetown Salado	Texas Chautauqua Assembly Summer Normal.	8 weeks. 3 months	June 24 June —	Preparatory, teachers, civil service.	George Irvine, Georgetown. T. J. Witt, Salado.		
Sherman	Austin College Summer School.	2 months	May 25	Normal.	D. F. Eagleton, Sherman.		
Temple	Central Texas Normal College.	8 weeks.	June 8	General.	W. E. Spivey, Temple.	Continues open all the year.	
Waco	Baylor University Summer Session.	8 weeks.	June 8	General.	W. H. Pool (head professor), Waco.	This school was first inaugurated about 1870.	
Do.	Baylor Summer School of Music.	do	do	Music	Prof. G. A. Schaus, Waco.		
UTAH.							
Salt Lake City.	University of Utah Summer School	6 weeks.	June 24	General.	Dr. J. E. Talmage, Salt Lake City.		
VERMONT.							
Barton.	Orleans County Summer School and Institute.	2 weeks.	July 8	Normal.	H. J. Stannard, Barton.		
Bethel	Summer School of Methods	do	July 29	do	J. W. Pierce, Springfield.	Began 1892; held at Springfield in 1896.	
Brandon.	Summer School	do	July 28	do	Joseph Dunbar, White River Junction.		
Chester.	Summer School of Methods	do	July —	do	do		
Essex Junction.	Summer School	2 weeks.	July 28	do	do		
Morrisville	do	do	July 8	do	W. A. Bebel, Morrisville.		
Richford.	Franklin County Summer School of Methods.	do	July 13	For teachers.	H. E. Rustedt.		
Rutland	Summer School of Languages	25 days.	July 8	Languages	August Knodach, New York City.		
Do.	Summer School.	do	do	do	do		
St. Johnsbury	Caledonia County Normal Training Summer School.	2 weeks.	Aug. 13	Normal.	Alfred Turner.	Under State control.	
Westford.	Crittendon County Summer School.	do	July 29	do	W. P. Kelly, St. Johnsbury. John E. Allen, Westford.		

VIRGINIA.										
Bedford City	Summer School of Methods	4 weeks.	June 24	do	E. C. Glass, Lynchburg	Organized 1880; held in Randolph-Macon Academy buildings. Begun 1894.				
Lexington	Washington and Lee Summer Law School.	8 weeks.	July 1	Law	John Randolph Tucker and Charles A. Graves, Lexington.	Begun 1894.				
University Station, Charlottesville.	Summer Class in Chemistry	2 months	do	Chemistry	J. W. Mallett, University Station, Charlottesville.	Under auspices of University of Virginia.				
Do.	Summer Course of Law Lectures	do	June 27	Law	John B. and Raleigh C. Minor, University Station, Charlottesville.	Under auspices of University of Virginia.				
Do.	Summer School of Medicine	do	June 1	Medicine	Dr. W. A. Lambeth, University Station, Charlottesville.	Under auspices of University of Virginia.				
WASHINGTON.										
Burton	Vashon College Summer Normal.	5 weeks.	July 1	For teachers.	A. C. Jones, Burton	Begun 1896.				
Seattle	Puget Sound Summer School	do	July 8	General, for teachers.	C. A. Taylor (manager), Seattle.	Held in buildings of Old University.				
Tacoma.	Puget Sound University Summer Normal School.	6 weeks.	July 1		Rev. Charles W. Darrow (registrar), Tacoma.					
WISCONSIN.										
Hillsboro	Hillsboro Summer School for Teachers.	do	July —	For teachers.	A. F. Elmegreen, Hillsboro	Begun 1895.				
Lake Geneva	Western Secretarial Institute Summer School.	10 days.	June 21	Y. M. C. A. work.	John W. Hansel (general secretary), Chicago, Ill.	Organized 1894; 4 sessions are held: June 21-30, College Students' Conference; July 2-16, Y. M. C. A. Summer School; July 17-Aug. 17, Institute Summer School; Aug. 14-14, Institute programme.				
Madison	Columbian Catholic Summer School	3 weeks.	July 19		Dr. Ed. McLaughlin (secretary), Fond du Lac.	Begun 1895.				
Do.	Monona Lake Assembly.			Chautauque	James E. Mosely, Madison.					
Do.	University of Wisconsin Summer School.	6 weeks.	July —	General.	J. W. Stearns (director), Madison.					
Milwaukee	Turner School for Physical Training.	do	July 1	Normal and preparatory	Prof. Carl Betz, Kansas City, Mo.					
Oshkosh.	State Normal School Summer School.	do	July —	Teachers	G. S. Albee, Oshkosh.					
Viroqua	Summer School	6 weeks.	do	Chautauque	Howard Miller, Viroqua.					
Do.	Viroqua Chautauque Assembly	5 days.	do		J. S. Parker, Viroqua.					

CHAPTER XXXVII.

ORIGINAL ESTABLISHMENT OF STATE SCHOOL FUNDS.

By Rev. A. D. MAYO, M. A., LL. D.

In a former essay, in the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1893-94, we sketched the rise and progress of the educational ideas and practices of the original thirteen American colonies from their settlement to the formation of the Government of the United States, 1790. We now come upon a period of American educational history equally important—the era of conflict for the supremacy of the common-school idea, during the first half century of the Republic, 1790-1840.

At the beginning of the present century every fundamental idea of popular education now in practical operation in the United States had been formulated in a manner sufficiently intelligible, with a hearing sufficiently extensive, to make it the common property of the educational public of the country. In the New England colonies, from the first, the basal idea of the American common school, that the people may educate all children through the agency of the State and local governments for American citizenship, had been adopted and put in general operation as far as private circumstances and the condition of public affairs would permit. In the central and southern colonies, owing to various peculiarities in their condition, this method of educating the children and youth had not been in favor. But even in the least favorable of these colonies we have seen that the same ideal was cherished. Especially were the foremost statesmen of Virginia and the famous men of the central colonies, like Benjamin Franklin, Dr. Richard Rush, and others of national renown, fully committed to this policy. So powerful had this impulse for universal education become that even before the organization of the National Government the Congress of the Confederation, by the unanimous vote of all States in attendance in 1787, had placed in the ordinance for the settlement of the Northwest Territory the provision for the setting apart of the sixteenth section of each township for public schools and of two entire townships of each new State for a university. By this memorable act the new Republic put on record its approval of the American idea of the support of education by the State, in all its departments, from the district school of the open country to the State university.

This idea, the contribution of the New England colonies to the new Republic, fixed in the great ordinance of 1787 by the insistence of New England men, was demanded by the original settlers of the Ohio purchase and destined thenceforth, like every original and characteristic principle of our American order of society and government at every period of the national development to appear with new vigor until it has become to-day the prevailing system of universal education in every State and Territory of the Union.

But all experience in popular government demonstrates that while it is one thing to formulate a splendid ideal in the conviction of the foremost minds, and even to incorporate it in the constitution and statute law of States and in the practical policy of the nation, it is quite another thing to place on the ground a vigorous and successful application of the same that shall actually perform what has been promised and realize even a moderate expectation of favorable results. More than half a

century ago Sir Bulwer Lytton, then a student in the university, commenting on the movement for public education at that time awakening attention in England, pointed out the fatal weakness of any general system of training the children of the British masses while the parents remained in their present state of ignorance and indifference. Even more essential is it in a country where all legislation is but the record of the people's will, and where every effective statute must represent the absolute determination of the majority of average voters, that the people, by an effective and permanent majority shall stand behind any successful scheme of popular education. It is impossible for the local, State, or National Government by any agency at its command to do more than put on the statute book fit laws and enforce them as far as popular opinion will permit.

Thus we shall see that the second period in the history of the American common school, now to be considered, the first half century of the Republic from 1790 to 1840, is a pertinent commentary on this fundamental condition of all representative government. Even in the educationally most favored portion of the Union—New England—where the people for one hundred and fifty years had been accustomed to the earlier phases of the common school, we shall see how slowly the ideal was realized and through what dreary years of open opposition, partial obstruction, and feeble maladministration from unfavorable or indifferent public sentiment the good work dragged on, even till the great rousing word of Horace Mann, like the "voice of one crying in the wilderness," challenged the New England people of all sorts and conditions to repent of their educational shiftlessness.

Violent conflicts mark the progress of the common school idea in the central section of the Union. Up to the close of this half century none of these important Commonwealths had a public school system satisfactory to any competent observer. The thirteen Southern, even the seven new Southwestern States, were compelled to wait through yet another long generation in that destitution of free public education which was their chief disability up to the close of the civil war. And the history of the new Northwest, so favored as the first recipient of the munificent national donations of public lands for popular education, not only bears testimony to the fact that the intense and persistent interest of the people is the breath of life to the people's common school, but also that no endowment of education, however bountiful by State or nation, can be relied on to support an effective system of universal education unless reinforced by vastly greater sums of money persistently voted and wisely applied by local communities that represent the unconquerable determination of a large working majority of the citizens.

The opening half century of the Republic was memorable in many ways as a period of amazing growth in all things affecting the material welfare of the people and the development of national stability and renown. In these fifty years the area of the Union had been extended by the purchase of Louisiana from 800,000 in 1783 to 2,000,000 square miles in 1819, five times the area of the original thirteen inhabited colonies, equal to 158 States as large as Massachusetts. Thirteen new States had been added to the national fold. Before 1830 the population of the country had tripled and in 1840 was 17,000,000. The four new States of the Northwest had already gathered a population of 3,000,000, almost equal to the human outfit with which the original thirteen colonies inaugurated the perilous experiment of tearing themselves away from the most powerful empire on the globe. There seem to be no reliable statistics of the property valuation of the nation at the close of these eventful fifty years, but it must have been in due proportion to the increasing extent, resources, and population of the country.

The great forward movement in new methods of labor and transportation, the child of the most marvelous revolution in modern history, the advent of labor-saving machinery, which has changed all the conditions of human existence in civilized lands within the past seventy-five years more than all the wars and legislation of the past five centuries, had been felt as an electric thrill in every portion of the Union. By 1840 there were 25 canals in operation, with 1,600 miles of waterway,

and more than 1,000 miles of railroad. Steam navigation had already peopled the vast world of the western American lakes and rivers by means of what the spectators of the first voyage of Robert Fulton's steamboat up the Hudson River pronounced "the wildest of all wild fowl." The invention of the cotton gin had fixed the destiny of the Southern States as slave territory for half a century. The growth of the manufacturing interest in the North had already predicted the impending conflict for the separation of the Union on the lines of the industrial protective policy. The second war against Great Britain and the close of the interminable skirmish with the Indian tribes had given peace and stability to the whole country east of the Mississippi. Yet still, with a population so largely hugging the seaboard, with the Atlantic States only partially occupied from a point some 200 miles west of the ocean, and with two-thirds the area of the occupied country so sparsely populated that, in comparison with the old world, the United States was still a straggling line of settlements in a boundless wilderness, it is easy to realize the obstacles to the establishment of any general system of education for the masses of young America.

ORIGINAL ESTABLISHMENT OF STATE SCHOOL FUNDS.

Yet, amid all the interruptions and discomforts of these turbulent first years of the Republic, the determination of the people to educate the coming generation for the great position of the new American citizenship was neither dead nor sleeping. Especially in all the Northern States, not only in the original seven, but in the six that had come into existence since the organization of the National Government, was this determination more plainly manifested with every decade. It is one of the most notable characteristics of an Anglo-Saxon people, at once after the primary question of the classes versus the masses has been disposed of, to begin that gradual, persistent, and irresistible march to the front for the security of every essential element of free institutions, which never fails of victory in the fullness of time.

In the Southern States of the Union, as we shall see, the purpose to inaugurate the coming American system of universal education was never absent from the mind and heart of its great statesmen; not one of the first class having been found in active opposition to the good schooling of the white children and youth. And, despite the persistent opposition to public education from social, ecclesiastical, personal, and political quarters, each of these States made the effort to lay up a permanent fund for education, and all at different times moved in the direction of the establishment of a general system of schools.

The little State of Delaware, between 1796 and 1837, had gotten together a school fund of \$150,000 from bank stocks and the bonds of the State. We have already put on record the great service rendered to the whole country by the State of Maryland in the continuation of a movement inaugurated by Delaware, virtually compelling the consideration and final settlement of the disposition of the national domain in the Northwest, whereby all the States beyond the Alleghanies have been the recipients of increasing millions for the schooling of the children. This was a service not yet acknowledged by any sufficient recognition from Congress of the claims of the original thirteen States which won the independence and laid the broad foundations of the Union.

Although Virginia did not respond to the appeal of her great educational statesman, Jefferson, backed by the influence of every public man of the first order in the Old Dominion, for a complete system of common schools, yet in 1810 the literary fund was instituted which in 1812 amounted to \$2,000,000.

In 1811 South Carolina, and North Carolina in 1825, made the same application of public funds, like Virginia, chiefly in the direction of the "free school" for the poorer class of white children and youth, or for their schooling by the subsidizing of private and denominational seminaries. One of the first acts of public policy in Georgia was setting apart a generous quantity of public lands, chiefly in local appropriations, for the only sort of schools then in vogue—academical and collegiate

establishments. Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Missouri, and Arkansas shared in the national bounty inaugurated at the admission of Ohio to the Union in 1803, although in some of these States from various causes little is now left of all received in this way. In 1806 Congress gave to Tennessee 100,000 acres of land for every college, and similar appropriations for academies. The State received also one thirty-sixth of its remaining unoccupied territory for common schools. A large proportion of this went the way of a great deal of this early appropriation of the national drug, the wild lands of the far West and Southwest. The present school fund of this State was a later arrangement. Kentucky and Louisiana made large grants in 1821 for education; one-half the net profits of the Bank of the Commonwealth in Kentucky was appropriated as a literary fund for common schools. Later, in 1847, 800,000 acres of land, at that time a valuable investment, were voted by Louisiana for common schools.

But it was especially in the thirteen Northern States that this preliminary action of collecting funds for the permanent support of common schools was pushed with a will and a watchful care that was prophetic of great things to come.

As early as 1733 the Province of Connecticut had moved in this direction; and the first substantial fruit of the ordinance of 1787, which set apart a generous domain in northeastern Ohio almost as extensive as the home State, and known as the "Connecticut Reserve," was the dedication of the major part of the avails of that territory to education, making the common-school fund of Connecticut at least \$1,000,000 in 1795.

In 1786 the State of New York set apart two lots in each township of its extensive tract of unoccupied lands for "gospel and school purposes," and in 1801 the net proceeds of half a million acres of vacant and unappropriated lands were turned into a permanent school fund of the State.

In 1821 New Hampshire placed a one-half per cent tax on all bank capital in the State as a fund for the support of common schools. Immediately after the accession of Maine to the Union, in 1821, that State appropriated the proceeds of twenty townships of public land for education.

In 1820 New Jersey laid the foundations of her present school fund in bank stock and the funded debt of the State. The States of Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Vermont relied on annual or occasional appropriations from the legislature to meet the exigencies of public instruction.

The State of Massachusetts, although foremost among the colonies in the movement for education, and to-day not behind any State of the Union in this respect, has never been an earnest advocate for the establishment of a large school fund, and only within the past six years has imposed a State tax for education. Her common-school fund of \$3,870,548 is a comparatively late arrangement, its foundations having been laid in the appropriation of the vacant lands of the Province of Maine. Its income of \$172,179 is about equally divided between the support of half a dozen normal schools, the salaries of the secretary and agents of the State board of education, and certain of the smaller towns. Of the \$10,661,356 appropriated for the common schooling of her 412,593 children, an average of \$31.20 for each child in 1894-95, all, save perhaps a quarter of a million, was raised by direct taxation and appropriation by the people in the 353 towns and cities of the Commonwealth. We believe this notable example of the yearly consecration of vast sums to this sacred use will more and more become a fruitful example for all the States.

In the year 1890-91, of the entire sum yearly appropriated for common-school education in the United States, but 5.6 per cent was drawn from the income of permanent invested funds; of the remainder, 18.7 from State, 67.8 from local taxation, and 7.9 per cent from other sources; Texas being the most indebted to invested land funds, 44.3 per cent.

Another favorite method of raising money for educational and religious uses in the earlier days of the Republic was the lottery. In the light of the recent violent conflict which has resulted in the overturning of the gigantic lottery system of

Louisiana, which threatened to bring more than one American Commonwealth into humiliating subjection to an unscrupulous and destructive corporation, it is significant that many of the original American colleges, including Harvard, Columbia, Williams, and numbers less celebrated, besides churches and benevolent organizations without number, were the favored recipients of this questionable source of revenue. The regents of the University of the State of New York, the original State board of education, projected a scheme by which one-fourth the avails of four lotteries were applied to academies and common schools. Union College, New York, with others, received aid in this way. The original movement for the establishment of the famous University of Michigan had resort to the same method of raising funds. In the same way the original seminaries of Georgia; William and Mary College, Virginia; and Brown University, Rhode Island, were among the number of the elect of fortune. Perhaps the last of these schemes was the lottery for the establishment of a public library in the city of Louisville, Ky., within the memory of the present generation.

It should be said that the moral and financial disapproval of the entire system of lotteries, outside the charmed circle of the "grab-bag" of the church fair and the devices of the ladies' benevolent society, is a development of the last fifty years in our country and that still, through half the civilized nations, this is regarded a perfectly legitimate means of replenishing the depleted treasury of the most sacred organization and the holiest of philanthropic and religious agencies.

The total amount of public lands dedicated to education during the first century from the breaking out of the war of independence, 1776-1876, was 80,000,000 acres with 60,000,000 acres additional swamp lands; 160,000,000 acres, with additional grants; in all 250,000 square miles; ten times the area of New York, equal to the entire area of Texas, twice the area of Great Britain and Ireland, and the full size of France; constituting 80 per cent of the \$129,000,000 of the present State funds for common-school, university, and industrial education. Of this vast sum, until 1862, when the appropriation for agricultural and mechanical colleges included all the States, the old colonies, which ceded their original claims to the great Northwest and whose treasure and blood largely contributed to the gain of the imperial territory beyond the Mississippi, had received no gift of national lands. Since the admission of Oregon to the Union, in 1848, all the new States have received two sections of each township, the sixteenth and thirty-sixth. Several of the States beyond the Alleghanies by the careful administration of this magnificent gift of the people have accumulated large, permanent funds for education: Illinois, \$12,000,000; Missouri, \$10,000,000; Indiana, \$9,000,000; Minnesota, \$6,000,000; Nebraska, \$5,000,000; Iowa, \$4,000,000. But these figures are only a tentative estimate of the present value of these school lands, which are constantly appreciating. Most bountiful of all endowments for the children is the immense landed property of the State of Texas, made by the Republic and retained by the State on its admission to the Union. From this an annual income of \$3,000,000 is now derived, and by fair management it may yet be relied on to educate the children of the State. Several of the larger Western cities have wasted a fund that, properly administered, would have educated their people; even the remainder constitutes an important source of income. In the appendix to this essay a table will be found containing all the information accessible concerning the amounts of land and money received by the various States for the schooling of the children.

Before 1841 sixteen States had received additional gifts of 500,000 acres of land each; an aggregate of \$3,000,000 of their school funds for special purposes. Between 1849 and 1860 thirteen States received 62,429,000 acres of swamp lands appropriated to school uses. At one time from 3 to 5 per cent of the net proceeds from the sale of public lands were turned into the State treasuries. In 1818 one-sixth of similar income was given for universities, amounting to \$1,000,000. Besides this, saline lands, public properties of large value, and, directly and indirectly, other large sums have been donated by the National Government, almost exclusively to the States

admitted since the provision of the Republic for schools. The ordinary estimates of these values give little idea of the present amount thus appropriated of the "treasure laid up in Heaven" for this sacred use too often, like other sacred deposits, ruthlessly broken into and despoiled.

In 1836 the Government of the United States distributed \$42,000,000 as "surplus revenue" among the 26 States then existing. Of these States 16, in part or wholly, appropriated their portion to the establishment or increase of their school fund; 8 the entire sum, \$10,000,000; 8 only in part; several gave nothing.

Within the last thirty years, beginning with 1862, the Government of the United States has distributed 9,600,000 acres of public domain to all the States for the encouragement of agricultural and mechanical education, and, with a few exceptions, this bounty has been well applied. The recent failure of the noble and statesmanlike Blair bill for the distribution of \$70,000,000 to all the States for the overcoming of illiteracy, especially in the South, was much regretted by the most thoughtful friends of popular education in all sections of the country.

We have thus introduced this brief account of the establishment of permanent funds for the support of common schools at the beginning of our review of this period, particularly to direct attention to the fact that the only permanent and reliable method of support for universal education is the habit of yearly local appropriation from public taxation. Even in the States most favored in this respect, the income from this source would only put on the ground a feeble and intermittent system of public instruction. Instead of the \$150,000,000 now appropriated in the country for the American common school, only \$10,000,000 would be available as the income of permanent funds to-day—only equal to the sum the one State of Massachusetts now invests in the public education of her 412,000 children and youth.

We shall certainly fail to grasp the true genius and history of the American common school until we realize that by no feat of legislation, by no dispensation of skilled supervision, by no combination of the numerous devices that fill the pages of our educational journals and absorb the attention of so many "eminent educators" is this Republic to be saved from the curse of illiteracy, that working together for evil of all the forces of ignorance, superstition, shiftlessness, vulgarity, and vice which underlies the more superficial ailments of the body politic. From the first day of the least colony to the memorial year of this mighty nationality this work of training the coming generations for good manhood, good womanhood, and worthy citizenship has gone forward or fallen behind in proportion to the obstinate and continuous zeal of a reliable working majority of the people and their willingness to be taxed beyond all other purposes for this, the one abiding interest of a democratic State.

Still, this early American habit of "laying up against a rainy day" in the establishment of these school funds, and the persistent practice of the State governments in the same direction, are most conclusive proofs of that original interest in the education of the whole people, the final outcome of which is the present vast organization we call the American common school. A favorite device of all the open or secret enemies of this fundamental American institution, never so essential to our national existence and true glory as to-day, is the pretence that our present system of universal education is the fruit of private, corporate, ecclesiastic, or scholastic zeal, and, like all similar structures, may be changed or abolished at the will of its creators. But the American common school, like the American nationality and order of society, is a most characteristic creation of the whole people. Like all other characteristic productions of the national genius and experience, it has been a gradual growth, subject to great variations, exalted or depressed at the full or ebb tide of public opinion.

And one of the most convincing proofs of this fact is the way in which the people of the United States, during the first thirty years after the formation of the Union, when they numbered less than 10,000,000 responsible white people; in the poverty

that included the whole country for years after the exhausting struggle for independence; during the stormy first quarter of a century, when the government and people were deeply agitated by the French Revolution and worried by British aggression, culminating in the war of 1812; while the emigrants to the new portion of the country in the West were still cultivating their fields and worshipping God with one hand on the rifle and one eye on the track of the treacherous savage; when the whole population of the Union was scattered through a territory almost as large as that occupied by the swarming millions of Europe, and hindered by laborious methods of transportation from social intercourse and industrial cooperation; went steadily to work to lay up a treasure in the strong box of almost every State against the time when they could do more than at present for the schooling of the children. There is a moral sublimity, not only in the devotion of the great men of every State, but in the persistent effort of thousands of little poverty-stricken communities, to push this one interest amid all the distractions of rival claims. It will be well to keep in view, at every subsequent step of our reading of this "great and wondrous story," this original gathering of public opinion in a current steadily increasing in power and volume, just as the majestic career of the "Father of Waters" may be predicted by one who sits on its wooded shores up in the wilderness of the mysterious borderland out of which it issues, gathering breadth and depth and majesty at every mile of its resistless journey downward to the sea.



CHAPTER XXXVIII.

EDUCATION IN THE NORTHWEST DURING THE FIRST HALF CENTURY OF THE REPUBLIC, 1790-1840.

By Rev. A. D. MAYO, A. M., LL. D.

We are now prepared to begin a more detailed examination of different portions of the Union in their dealing with education during the first half century of the Republic. And by far the most interesting portion of the new nationality in this respect is the new Northwest. For here, at the earliest period, we find illustrated the facts we have already noted: (1) That only by the intense and persistent purpose of a whole people and its willingness to make a yearly sacrifice for the children can the American common school ever be placed on its feet, much less nursed up to its full stature. (2) We shall see how, even during their earliest years, the four Northwestern Commonwealths that had been admitted to the Union before 1840 were developing certain advanced ideas and broad methods of dealing with the entire subject of universal education which have become more powerful with the passing years, and, at present, are felt as one of the most decided modifying influences in the school systems of all the original States.

But we shall do great injustice to the people of these settlements in the boundless wilderness of the Northwest of 1790 if we estimate their progress in the establishment of an effective system of popular education by reference to the condition of the same communities within the period of the memorable era since 1860. The close of the civil war in 1865 left the group of Northwestern States by far the most conspicuous figure in the reconstructed Union. They had furnished nearly 1,000,000 soldiers, one-third the entire body of the Grand Army of the Republic. Their foremost military commanders had steadily gained the confidence of the people during these critical years, and the three who, in succession, held the supreme position in the national Army were natives of Ohio. With the exception of two Vice-Presidents called to the Chief Magistracy of the Republic by the providence of God and one President afterwards elected, the Presidency of the United States from 1860 to 1892 has remained in the narrow circle of the three Northwestern States first admitted to the Union. It was well-nigh impossible for the elderly Eastern visitor to the city of Chicago in the late memorial year to place himself back in the period of his own boyhood when the New England family was stowed away in the old-time emigrant wagon and the interminable journey "out West" began with a religious service in the old church, and home and neighborhood prayers and tears mingled with the "great expectations" and aspirations of its occupants. But if we can briefly run over some of the more evident obstacles to the establishment of a satisfactory arrangement of the general educational training of the children during the first thirty years after the settlement of Ohio, in the four States that then constituted the Northwest, we may better appreciate what was really accomplished against obstacles almost insurmountable.

1. First must be considered the original movement of the rival ecclesiastical forces of the old East to capture this new "land of promise" and preempt, especially, the

secondary and collegiate departments of the educational field as the most efficient agency of denominational religious propagandism. It is not just to impute to the leaders of this movement any save the highest motives, from their own point of view, in their attempt to cover the new country with their churches and schools, which would become the most important annex to the religious establishment.

We have already seen that the unanimity of theological belief and ecclesiastical polity, until the period of the Revolution, was one of the most favorable elements in the establishment of the common school system of the original Eastern States; since the "religious question," which is largely the question to what extent each religious body shall be able to use education as a factor in its own upbuilding, was thereby entirely eliminated. We have also seen how the diversity of religious sects in the Central and Southern Provinces made the establishment of anything like a satisfactory public educational system impossible, until many years after the formation of the United States Government. But the war for independence, like all similar upheavals of society, had, for the first time, introduced into New England the seeds of theological dissent and sharp ecclesiastical competition. At once, from all the older States east of the Alleghanies, the different religious bodies and the active apostles of what was then called "infidelity," made haste to take possession of the promised land. The result was that before the school lands could be made to yield an income sufficient for even a meager common school, the country had been occupied by private denominational and so-called "collegiate" seminaries, chiefly available for the families of the more prosperous sort.

2. This enterprise wrought along the lines of the social currents that were formed in these States at the very beginning of their existence. Although the mutual companionship of hardship and peril in a new country favored a certain democracy in public affairs, yet nowhere are the social lines more strictly drawn than in the original occupation of such a region as our new Northwest. New England was by no means a social democracy at the close of the war of the Revolution; and there were families and families among the emigrants from Massachusetts and Connecticut in the little society that was represented at the first "ball" in Marietta, Ohio, where fifteen ladies, "as conspicuous for politeness as elsewhere," appeared as the original "upper ten" of the Buckeye State.

But after the first spurt of emigration, largely from the soldier class of the East, the majority of the emigrants for an entire generation were from the Southern and Central States, where social discrimination was even more strongly marked. The bulk of the population of the Northwest, for the first twenty-five years, was strung along the 450 miles of the northern shore of the Ohio River. Of the 47 members of the convention that framed the constitution of Ohio, 16 were from Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Kentucky, 9 from New York and New Jersey, and only 8 from New England. There was less enthusiasm for the new Western life in the New England than in the Southern and Central States. Both Massachusetts and New York had large tracts of land on sale, and were in no haste to build up rival Commonwealths beyond the mountains. Until a generation later, when the growing tide of New England emigration was propelled through the new Erie Canal and the Lakes to the Northern section, the new West was largely a new South, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. The people who came from this portion of the Union were unaccustomed to the common school and naturally fell into the home ways of educating the children according to the methods in vogue from the beginning in their own colonies.

3. The extreme poverty of the people, for all purposes save the actual supply of the necessities of life, was a powerful obstacle to the early establishment of public schools. The New England contingent, respectable and progressive in ideas as it might be, was largely composed of families, left at the close of the war in absolute necessity of some "paying" occupation, with no resources save the indefinite land bounties and "certificates of indebtedness" issued by a Government representing an impecunious new Republic; a 20-shilling certificate not being equal to 5 shillings of available currency for actual use. Their one hope was to realize from this almost

hopeless source of support a new home in the far West. And, while the fruitful lands and genial climate of their new abode were an assurance against starvation, the history of the settlement of any American State, previous to the last fifty years, is a record of hardship, poverty, sacrifice, trial, fearful sickness and death, only paralleled by the waste of war. Amid these trials it is not strange that, outside a few village settlements, it was next to impossible to support the common school for all.

4. Even the possession of a generous endowment of school lands at first was little more than a prophecy of hope for an indefinite future. These public school lands were at first leased at low rates, especially in Ohio, were slowly taken up, and from lack of experience in such operations, often sacrificed. In time the generous provision of two townships for the support of a university was lost, except the saving of the meager income of a few thousand dollars a year; and the greatest of the Western Commonwealths was compelled to wait another half century before its final State university could be established. Col. Rufus Putnam, of Marietta, Ohio, informs Dr. Manasseh Cutler, of Massachusetts, at an early period of the settlement, that the entire resources of the common-school lands were but \$3,000, and Dr. Cutler, as agent for the Ohio company, sends on a few hundred dollars to pay the first minister and teacher of the new colony. Ohio has never reaped any advantage from her educational fund of school lands comparable with the remaining four States of the original group of the Northwest.

5. Until the close of the second war with Great Britain, in 1815, these States were terribly worried by the peril from hostile Indians. This was only overcome by the decisive victory at the battle of the Thames, and the destruction of British influence through the entire region. Previous to the purchase of Louisiana there was the constant danger, emphasized by Washington and felt by all well-informed public men, of a revolt of the entire Western section, and the establishment of a rival government to the United States. One of the urgent reasons for the sale of the great track of land to the Ohio company, repeatedly enforced on public attention, was the advantage of sending to the banks of the Ohio a colony of ex-Revolutionary soldiers, under their honored commanders, of undoubted patriotism, knowing no other country than that for which they had given their past eight years of service to preserve and defend as a heritage. There can be little doubt that Virginia and the South were reconciled to the prohibition of slavery in these five new States, by the hope of protection for their settlements on their exposed northwestern border, as well as by the expectation of trade through the proposed channels of interior commerce suggested by Washington. This chronic state of border conflict was followed by the breaking out of the war of 1812, in which the entire territory of Michigan and the whole northern frontier, were for a time in the possession of the common enemy. Notably, the first twenty-five years of the Northwest was a period of "wars and rumors of wars," in all ages unfavorable to the organization of any save the few superior schools which are always established where a body of educated and well-to-do people is found.

6. The difficulty of this position in a country like the Northwest can only be partially understood, even by comparison with such a country as New England remained until a quarter of a century ago. Instead of the tolerable roads of a country founded and developed under the advantages of a compact township government, these new settlers on the "bottom lands" of the Ohio and its tributaries found themselves, during six months of the year, dwelling in a weltering continent of mud, and were always staggering through a wilderness, with none of the modern appliances for personal movement or the transportation of crops. Dr. Manasseh Cutler, in 1788, spent thirty days in his "new sulky" and on horseback in his first journey from Ipswich, Mass., to the new settlement of Marietta, on the Ohio. It was thirty-five years from this settlement before the construction of the Erie Canal in New York, and forty years before the Great Lakes and the Ohio River were connected by a new water highway. First, the track of the buffalo; then the

Indian trail; next the river "batteux" and the wilderness pack horse; and, "after many days," in 1818, the steamboat of the old time on the river represented the first great effort of the "wild West" to "get out of the woods" and in hand shake with the civilization "away down East," beyond the formidable barrier of the Alleghany Mountains. The traveler who sees the difficulties at the present time in the Southern States, which still live so largely under the conditions of a border land, in getting children to and from the scattered country schools, can partially realize this special hindrance to the early establishment of efficient instruction in the new Northwest.

7. Another formidable obstacle to the adoption of the New England common school system in these States bordering the Ohio was the constant peril that these Commonwealths would eventually become slave States, like their neighbors Kentucky and Tennessee. The broad views of the Congress of the Confederation that framed the great ordinance of 1787 soon gave place to the ambition of the extreme leaders of the slave-holding class to capture this new domain as an annex to the original South in its industrial, social, and political estate. At once, spite of the prohibition in the ordinance and its implied authority for all time, a persistent effort was made to force across the river the "peculiar institution." For more than 500 miles south of the Ohio, a slave State faced the wilderness that was to be changed to the new Northwest. A majority of the people emigrating to this country for the first thirty years were from the slave States or communities in sympathy with them. The original law, which is identified with the name of Jefferson, robbed of its half-way prohibition against the institution, was the only general statute of the Northwest Territory until the ordinance of 1787, by the insistence of the Ohio Company represented by Dr. Cutler, prohibited slavery through the entire extent of the Territory. But the original Virginia idea of State sovereignty was supposed to override this territorial statute and the new constitution of Ohio, in 1802, was made anti-slavery by the casting vote of one member of the convention. Governor William Henry Harrison was president of a convention called to urge the introduction of slavery into Indiana, and Jefferson, then President of the United States, was quoted in its favor. Indeed, for several years Indiana and Illinois were slave Territories, and only after a conflict that until recent years has never been understood by the student of American history, were both these great States secured at last for freedom; Illinois largely by the intrepid and far-seeing statesmanship of its Virginia-born governor, Cowles. This original conflict between the old and new civilization of the Republic on the banks of the Ohio was long and intense and greatly hindered the people from giving earlier attention to education. It was not till 1824 that this internecine war for the possession of the new Northwest was finally closed by the decision of the people that Illinois should be a free State. This contention left behind a trail of injustice in the form of a system of odious and oppressive "black laws" that remained on the statute books of Ohio until 1837. And even the "remainder of wrath" was revealed during the entire progress of the civil war.

8. Even at this period, 1820-1830, forty years from the original settlement, there were but 800,000 people in the entire Northwest, of which more than half were in Southern Ohio. Indiana had but 200,000; Illinois, 55,000; Michigan, 10,000, and Wisconsin was still a wilderness. In 1802, there were but 45,000 people in the entire territory of Ohio. In 1815, Cleveland, Ohio, was a small village; Cincinnati a town of 3,000 people. Columbus, the new capital, was being cut out of the woods in 1816.

That a people, not so numerous as the population of the three leading cities of these States in 1890, dispersed through a realm so vast and inaccessible, should linger in putting on the ground its final system of public education is not remarkable to the student of American history, who is well informed of the prodigious obstacles which the "march of Empire" surmounted in its progress toward this magnificent realm, to-day one of the most favored portions of God's heritage in any land.

With these preliminary considerations in mind, it may be well to introduce our review of the gradual development of the common school in the Northwest by a consideration of the relative historical position of these 17 Western States to the Union. And no view of this wonderful section of the Republic can be seen in true historical perspective unless the observer stands on the original natural outlook of Ohio.

OHIO

The historian, George Bancroft, has said: "Nature made Ohio the highway of ideas." The present accomplished United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. William T. Harris, has elaborated this forcible statement in its educational application by the following suggestive and illuminating sentences: "It seems that whenever a body of educational reformers with similar ideals became moved with a strong impulse to put their principles into practice, they chose Ohio as the scene for their experiment. Here were found intelligent people from the East, without the conventional limitations of the older communities which they had left, and at the same time with a warm appreciation of education. In this way Ohio has led the nation in several important educational movements, which, springing up on her fresh soil from her peculiar conditions, have spread to other places where similar conditions prevail. Especially in the West and Northwest is her influence traced. She was the first State formed out of the great Northwest Territory, and many of her problems had to be solved outright, without precedents from older States. Their solution was accepted by her younger sisters as they entered the family of States, and, in time, many of them have reacted upon the older East."

According to her latest historian, "prior to the ordinance of 1787 there is no trace of a magisterial or civil officer, French, English, or American, only squatter sovereignty;" and until 1796 no established road, in what is now the State of Ohio, the most eminent representative of the new American Northwest. In one century Ohio has become the fourth State in population in the Union, having risen from 42,000 in 1803 to 3,672,316 in 1890. In area Ohio is one of the lesser of the northwestern group, containing 41,060 square miles and 26,700,000 acres, with an extent of some 200 miles in each direction. With the exception of a ragged region in the southeast and a beautiful "rolling country" in the southwest, its surface is a sharp contrast to the old picturesque East, no hill reaching an altitude of 1,500 feet. In equable fertility of soil and general mildness of climate it surpasses all its older sisters in similar latitudes, while its mineral resources, still revealed by new discoveries, would set up an old-time empire.

In property valuation Ohio is excelled by only three of the States—New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts—having piled up the enormous sum of \$1,778,138,457 in less than a century. The governor declared, in 1890, that in percentage of school attendance Ohio led the Union. Of its eminence during the past thirty years in the military and civic history of the nation, it is hardly necessary to speak. Though now surpassed in population by Illinois, with more than one metropolitan city in the Northwest greater than Cincinnati, and in special ways outstripped by several of her later-come sisters in the majestic galaxy of the seventeen Commonwealths of the Northwest between the Alleghanies and the Rocky Mountains, Ohio is still the most conspicuous and characteristic representative of this portion of the country. For the new Northwest is now foremost in population and political power, and evidently destined to remain the great controlling section, holding all outlying realms in orderly and harmonious relations in the august union of States.

What happened before 1787, during the two hundred and fifty years from the original discovery of the Mississippi River by De Soto in 1541, is not in the line of this essay. The leading European powers two centuries ago fell into the habit of ceding away the American continent "from sea to sea," to little squads of their emigrating subjects. During the half century before the war of the Revolution, the wilderness of the Northwest was little save a "dark and bloody ground;" Indians, Frenchmen,

Englishmen, pioneer Americans fighting there together in a succession of wars, in which the uttermost barbarism of unregenerate human nature had full swing, with a good deal of the elements of a vigorous manhood of the future. Happily for all, the earliest attention of the Congress of the new Republic was given to compromising the rival claims of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. All were at last buried in one of the most important political events of the country, the cession of the whole Northwest by these States, from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi, to the nation, and the speedy organization of this vast region under a Territorial government, simply a reservoir of new States.

Then and there were laid, for the first time in the history of the world, the original foundations of a group of Commonwealths which, with no previous experience of Old World governments or social arrangements, could begin the grand experiment of constitutional democracy and carry it on to a logical result. The foundation stones of this majestic temple of the new civilization were: First, free labor; second, freedom of religion; third, freedom of education, secured by the greatest national gift ever made to the people through the donation of a vast domain of land for a perpetual common school fund, with generous allotments for the higher instruction; fourth, political freedom, assured by the three fountain heads of life—labor, religion, and education. This great enactment, the ordinance of 1787, flung open Ohio, “the glorious gateway of the West,” to the first general movement of populations on the northern latitudes toward the setting sun. From that day has proceeded, like an unfolding drama, the most wonderful story of human progress in the annals of time—the growth of the Northwestern United States between the western slope of the Alleghanies and the summits of the Rocky Mountains.

The original five States covered by the ordinance of 1787 now contain 250,000 square miles and a population of 13,500,000, more than four times the number of the whole country in 1787. Within the past forty years has come marching in the splendid procession of the new States beyond the Mississippi. This section of the Republic now includes seventeen Commonwealths, with Missouri and West Virginia. The Northwest now has an area of 1,230,000 square miles and a population of 23,553,000, excelling the New England and Middle States by 5,000,000, with a capacity for the development of material resources and dense occupation impossible to estimate. Its thirty-four United States Senators give it the foremost place among the four groups of States. It is an empire of young people, every American and European State having sent of its most vigorous, able, and progressive youth to swell the tide of its marvelous prosperity.

Since the *Mayflower* struck Plymouth Rock it has been the habit of New England to be “up in the morning early” and take a first hand in whatever good thing was going on the American Continent. Having fought a hundred years, and once sent one-sixth of her population up to the Adirondack country of New York to prevent France from isolating her from the then unknown country, the great West, and having captured the army of Burgoyne, who repeated the experiment of “leaving the Yankee out in the cold,” New England was “on hand,” foremost in the organization and settlement of the new Northwest Territory, the future home of her superfluous boys and girls. Whether Nathan Dane or Manasseh Cutler deserves the honor of engineering the ordinance of 1787 through Congress matters little. But the ordinance was largely made up from the laws of Massachusetts, and represented the New England ideal of Republican institutions, which, after a century of debate, closed by the civil war, was finally incorporated in the amended Constitution of the United States.

It was in keeping that this beginning should be followed by the establishment of the Ohio Company by New England men, to make the first permanent settlement in what we now call the Northwest. In 1788, after the wearisome business of getting the enterprise in motion, Rufus Putnam and a little group hardly larger than the Puritans of Plymouth two hundred and seventy years before, reached the headwaters of the Ohio River, built a fleet of boats, one named the *Mayflower*, sailed

down to the mouth of the Muskingum, and then, in honor of Queen Marie Antoinette of France, named the first town in Ohio, Marietta, celebrated the first Fourth of July in the Northwest, and, true to the habits of old Connecticut, held a mighty feast, where a "pike weighing a hundred pounds" was devoured at a barbecue, lasting "all night till broad daylight." Washington declared that this colony was the best body of emigrants the world ever saw, made up of the foremost people of New England, furnishing a good supply of the first civil and other dignitaries of the new territory. Marietta still remains one of the best towns beyond the Alleghanies—an educational center of no mean reputation.

The slave-holding population of Virginia and Kentucky at once took the alarm at this apparition of free society across the river, for already the French had introduced negro slavery in their vagrant occupation of the wilderness, and for a generation the question of the ultimate freedom of the Northwest was in debate. They gave the new territory the name "the Yankee State." But if Yankee means New England, the name was not well applied to Ohio, for while New England did first put down her foot, broad and strong, on the shore of "the beautiful river," and afterwards, broader and stronger in the Connecticut Reserve on the lake, and generally had her part in all the immigration from the old East, still Ohio followed the lead of New York, and, from its earliest days, was a cosmopolitan Commonwealth.

Next came John Cleve Symms, with his colony of New Jersey men, which, after a few years' paddling about at the mouths of the two Miami rivers, established Cincinnati, the first settlement in the Northwest to achieve metropolitan honors, still one of the most interesting and cultivated of the great cities of the Union, naming the county Hamilton, as Marietta was located in Washington. Next came the unfortunate venture of a speculating syndicate of New York sharpers that landed a colony of homesick Frenchmen on the Ohio River at Gallipolis, which, after unutterable hardships, faded out, making no mark on the new territory. Now came Virginia, having secured a valuable grant in the southeast corner of the new country as a military reservation, in a settlement which was like the prow of the Old Dominion ship thrust into the vitals of the new Northwest. Later, a colony of antislavery Kentuckians established themselves at Chillicothe. Then came on in succession the Scotch-Irish and Germans from Pennsylvania, in the center, the Connecticut and other Northeastern crowds occupying the north, which, from the difficulty of access, developed with a slower growth than the valley below.

From that day on these different elements of American population have divided the old Northwest into sections, often as exclusive as the original Eastern, Middle, and Southern States. As late as 1854, going to live in Cleveland, Ohio, we found the State virtually divided into three distinct portions—the New England element in the northeast, the Pennsylvania and Middle States in the center, and a cosmopolitan civilization, with a large influx of Southern blood and the inflow of the new German and British immigration, in the South. Ten years later, at Cincinnati, we found in this the most cosmopolitan of American cities, a third of its entire population of German origin, large numbers from the Middle and Southern States, and more people of French than of New England birth. The Northwest assumed, without question, what New York and the old middle region had been two hundred years in teaching—that young America was to be fashioned by "mixing the babies up" from all regions of the civilized with a sprinkling of the uncivilized world. The question of "native Americanism," in the political "slang" of thirty years ago, never disturbed the slumbers of the Northwest.

From the little select colony of "132 men, besides women and children," who began the fight with the awful "all out-doors" of the Northwest wilderness at Marietta; from the raw beginning of Cincinnati in 1788, when Grandfather William Henry Harrison testified that "he saw more drunken men in forty-eight hours than in all his life," with not over 5,000 in the whole territory north of the Ohio River in 1796, to the foundation of Cleveland, on the lake, with two Connecticut families and "one French house" in 1796; fifteen years after "the ordinance" only 40,000, at the

admission of the State to the Union in 1803—for a long generation, to the memorable year when the first steamboat burst like an apparition upon the thunderstruck inhabitants of the Ohio River, from Pittsburg to Cincinnati, in 1811, and its fellow on the lakes in 1818, the new State of Ohio was chiefly engaged in “getting out of the woods” and learning to stand on its young republican legs. There were 230,000 people in 1810, for, spite of the terrible journey from the far-away East to the interminable “far West,” young America insisted on pushing toward the setting sun.

The most remarkable feature in the growth of Ohio and all the States of the Northwest group, save Kansas, which was born in the later revolution, was their quiet, uneventful, irresistible push to the front, only stopping to elbow out of the way some obstacles from the outside. The first business was to take the Indian in hand. He was effectually disposed of by “mad Anthony Wayne,” first by administering a terrible thrashing, then conciliating the defeated savage, so that he actually remained a “good Indian” for twenty-five years. The second crisis came in the war of 1812–1814 with Great Britain, when it seemed that for the last time the fond delusion possessed the English that, through the Canadas, the Northwest might be reclaimed. That business was settled effectually by Commodore Perry on Lake Erie, and on land by the man that wore Grandfather Harrison’s hat, at Tippecanoe and the battle of the Thames.

But that Western pioneer life, uneventful and, as Mr. Matthew Arnold would put it, “uninteresting,” was of the sort that tried the souls and slaughtered the bodies of men and women, leaving the “fittest who survived” the bone and sinew of the new Republic. There is no pioneer life like it to-day, for nowadays an entire colony floats into New York Harbor from the ends of the earth on a “palatial” steamer, boards another palace on wheels and in a week is established in its new home on the farther slope of the “Rockies,” with American civilization like a roaring ocean tide on its heels. We can remember when Cincinnati and New Orleans were the two cities beyond the Alleghanies toward which the ambitious young men of the East set their faces.

It was the peculiar privilege of Ohio, first of the States formed under the new dispensation, that it was never cursed by a great, crude, precocious metropolis. The city of Cincinnati grew slowly, and still, in its corporate limits, has less than 500,000 people. Cleveland, thirty years ago, was a big village of 30,000, and to-day has but a quarter of a million. In all the State there are not a dozen towns containing 25,000 each. There was a great deal more time in ten years of the moderate life of an Ohio farmer a generation ago than in half a lifetime of his “enterprising” descendant, tearing along the hot pavement of the Chicago of to-day. It remains the marvel of the world how Ohio, then in swift succession Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, then on and on, ever faster, as the years sped along, the big sisterhood beyond the Mississippi came up, “growing while men slept,” to the fateful hour when the old South confronted the new civilization of the Northwest, determined to rule this new America or be forever quit of its Northern side. In 1860 Ohio was foremost of the dozen States then included in the Northwest. Abraham Lincoln wrote to her governor at the beginning of the war, “Ohio must lead.”

We all know how Ohio came upon the field, with her bodyguard of ten new States; first split Virginia in two, placing a new free State as big as South Carolina between herself and the fury of the seceding Old Dominion; then in four short years sent 320,000 soldiers to the front, more than one-tenth of the entire Union Army; while the Northwest gave to the country in its great emergency a group of military and civic leaders that, in the final judgment of the republic, will seem not inferior to the colonial fathers who made the Union.

But more instructive than dilating on this wonderful advent of the Northwest before the world in 1860 will it be to seek after the causes of this marvelous development, that in a brief half century built up the new America in the wilderness which, in the nation’s hour of peril, came to the rescue of the republic on whose success depended the hopes of mankind.

First of all, we note the supreme fact that here in the Northwest, for the first time in history, human society was established on Democratic-Republican foundations, by a people whose ancestors, for two hundred years, in the thirteen colonies had been outgrowing old European habits of thinking and living, and had, at last, set up on a new continent a government made for man. Doubtless it was and still remains an advantage, in some important ways, to have been born and reared in the old eastern section of the nation, with its splendid history of two centuries, in which is written the inspiring record of the progress of humanity from the government of the masses by the classes to a government "of the people, for the people, by the people." But it is almost impossible for the average citizen, even of the new East of to-day, to understand what a burden was lifted from the life of the emigrant who, at any time before 1860, turned his back on the Atlantic coast and set his face toward the setting sun. Even in New England and the old Middle States all things that made for human progress in freedom of thought and natural ways of life went slow, badgered and flanked at every step by conventionalities from across the water, coming down from the beginning of the colonial life. But out on the plains of the "great West" all this was in the past. Here was a society that began where the foremost of the Old World left off, all ready to go on and realize a lofty ideal, with no obstacle save the inevitable resistance of physical nature and human nature to any radical change. It was not strange that under such an inspiration, environed with such an opportunity, human nature renewed itself, "Old things passed away, and all things became new."

2. Consider a moment what this new order of society involved. First, free labor. Here was no slave; every man his own master; the young man able to put forth his uttermost energies to become the best for which he was made. Second, freedom of religion. The new church in the wilderness was compelled to drop a good deal of the old tyranny of sect and creed. While there was a terrible temptation on the one hand to fanaticism, and on the other to a wild breaking loose from all authority, yet it was well that the old ecclesiasticisms, stiff and stained with the grime and blood of centuries of European conflict, should be summoned to a great washing day out on the frontier of Christendom. Third, a recast of social affairs in an order of society where capacity and fidelity in facing the tremendous perils of the new life should become the test of social merit. Here was a community where hopeless poverty as it festered in the basement story of the Old World order should be impossible. Here the necessities of good neighborhood, the peril of common dangers, the inspiration of common success, held good people together. Every worthy family going West found a generous domain, the gift of a great nation that had been set up to protect the rights of man.

3. The original settlers of Ohio were by all odds the best class of immigrants that ever occupied a new country. The same was true in a great measure of all the original five States of the Northwest, but none was so favored as Ohio. Almost every good family in the old thirteen colonies had its representative, often its superior young people, out West. From New England and New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New Jersey, Virginia and the old South, and new Tennessee and Kentucky, the flower of the new generation thronged this new world. An important element was the class that left the South, like the Kentucky settlers of Chillicothe, Ohio, and the North Carolina Quakers of Indiana, driven out by the hatred of slavery. Many of these people liberated their slaves in the Northwest, sometimes not to the immediate advantage of the poor negro, who has had his battle to fight in the West as in the South. Every little county town for half a century was a university for the training of this crowd of able and ambitious youth. We are not surprised that the secretary of Lafayette, even in 1825, visiting the West, declared "Ohio the eighth wonder of the world," and it is certain that Abraham Lincoln knew what he was talking about in 1861 when he said, "Ohio must lead."

4. The development of the free common school in all its departments, where it for the first time was enabled to "have free course, run, and be glorified," was a mighty

uplift in the training of the new West for the critical years of 1860-1865. It is amazing how slowly this the most characteristic American institution grew up in the old Eastern land. In 1835 the common-school system of New England was little better than in some of the Southern States to-day. Horace Mann, worn out by his good fight for free education and free politics in Massachusetts, gave the closing days of his splendid life to his grand educational work at Antioch College, Ohio. To-day the great cities of the Northwest are all distinguished for their munificent provision for the free schooling of the children, and the magnificent educational policy of their States is the wonder of the world.

Free education for all was made possible for the new America in the West by the most munificent gift ever offered to a people in the allotment of public lands for the common schooling of all. At the beginning of the century New England, after almost two hundred years, had only gotten on the ground the beginnings of the American common school. The Middle States were behind, and the old South had not looked at universal education as a possibility. President Hayes has said that "this first opportunity, offered to the new State of Ohio, had more to do with the crop of distinguished people half a century later than any other cause."

5. Daniel Webster said that the bringing in of the correct business habits of New England, with its system of securing the title of lands, would forever deserve the gratitude of the West. The entire circle of home virtues, careful economies, and moderate habits of living which had been wrought out in the old colonies were a priceless heritage to the makers of this new empire beyond the mountains which until the war of the Revolution had bounded American civilization.

6. These opportunities, with the old East behind and a new West always beckoning ahead, greatly stimulated these people in a remarkable development of the executive faculty in every department of life. A distinguished statesman of Ohio, who read law at Harvard in his youth, says: "I was always struck by the amount of suppressed ability in the New England life of fifty years ago. I was sure that this man, who now managed a little farm, a little store, a narrow profession, could manage a bigger arrangement under more favorable circumstances." The first impression made upon us by life in Ohio in 1854 was the great number of young men concerned in important affairs. The second impression was that below the noise and confusion of these immature workers was a conservative body of quiet, able, thoughtful people, who wielded an influence even greater than in the older part of the country. Ohio has always been a conservative State, and from the one million of her people who have gone farther West has come a great number of able, wise, influential leaders of the recent States; made up of sometimes crude materials from abroad; subjected to periodical tempests of political, social, and religious excitement.

Out of these and similar opportunities was built up the Northwest of 1860, compacted from varied elements into that prodigious executive power then the supreme need of the Republic. On going to Cincinnati in 1862, where we lived till 1872, we realized at once the downright decisive type of this Western life. The man for the Union was all for the Union. His opponent was no shirk, but stood up and proclaimed his unbelief. The West, through these awful four years, with one hand held down a great body of disloyal people, chiefly of Southern origin, while she sent forth the armies and the great leaders under whose masterly generalship the Confederacy was not only defeated but destroyed. It was in the order of Providence that at this critical period of the nation's life the civilization of the new Northwest was developed just to that point of intelligent and decisive executive ability whereby it not only saved the Union, but easily and naturally became the controlling power in the public affairs of the nation which it remains to-day.

But since that already far-off day a new Northwest has come up that challenges every section in the honorable strife for leadership in the higher realms of the national life. The World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago in the summer of 1893 revealed to all nations what we already know of the new America beyond the mountains. What will be the influence of this great event on this group of

Commonwealths can hardly be questioned. With the deluge of people flowing in from all the world; with the marvelous appliances of prosperous industry and boundless opportunities for the acquirement of wealth; with the prodigious efforts for universal education and the corresponding growth in general intelligence and refinement through the mingling of races that brings to every community the best experience of mankind; with such noble ambitions as now inspire the foremost young people of this new land, what may not come to pass during "the years of the right hand of the Most High" that are before the new Northwest.

It must be conceded that the original suggestion for the dedication of a section of each township of land in the new Northwest in behalf of universal education came from New England. It was only a natural conclusion that a people who for more than a century had supported the only common-school system in the New World by a persistent annual putting their hands to the pocketbook, with no help from permanent invested funds, should hail the first opportunity in Christendom to dedicate a splendid domain to the children. They were looking fondly to the "far West" as a home for the thronging millions of the coming generations, and anticipated that the burdens of settling a new country would render such a heritage of inestimable value.

This idea found expression in two early plans for the organization of this land of promise; that of Timothy Pickering and Col. Rufus Putnam. But it was reserved for one man, whose eminent ability and worth and great services, at a critical point of action by the Congress of the Confederation in 1787, gave the new Republic the Northwest that saved it in 1860-1865, to wear the crown of honor for this preeminent act of Christian statesmanship.

Dr. Manasseh Cutler insisted on the introduction of the memorable clause of the ordinance of 1787: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." In support of this declaration, he made it a condition of the first great purchase of land from the General Government that the sixteenth section of each township should be reserved for common schools, and that a similar provision should be made for the support of the Christian ministry and a State university in each of the States to be created from the original northwestern territory. Judge Ephraim Cutler, of Marietta, Ohio, also introduced into the first constitution of Ohio the educational clause, and was on the floor of the House twenty years later thanking God that the new Commonwealth had finally come to the point of organizing an effective system of public education and taxing the whole people for the common school.

Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes has characterized the old-time Congregational ministry of New England as the "Brahmin class." While possessing none of the vested power of either a Catholic or Protestant state priesthood; since the church organization was, from first to last, like the government and the school, the creature of the popular will, there was perhaps never in Christendom a class which by sheer weight of ability, character, and practical executive capacity for two centuries held a group of communities, peopled by a restless, zealous, and self-asserting race, in such willing loyalty. The common school of New England was in no sense the child of the church, and in every sense the child of the people. But it was by no means the least lively member of that lusty group of triplets that, after the style of the old mythologies, leaped full born from the brain of New England—the state, the church, and the school. The church and the ministry were the birth relatives of the common school. The old-time Congregational clergy were, to a great extent, the organizers, administrators, and teachers of the common school, and without a fair estimate of their service we shall fail to understand many things in its original constitution or appreciate the peculiar difficulty of transferring it, in its original fashion, to a new country like the Northwest.

Certainly, in the history of New England, no man stands up a more complete representative of the all-round, active, and effective New England "minister" of this

period than Manasseh Cutler. For two generations somewhat obscured even from public view by the pretensions of men his action forced into undue prominence, his recent biography by his descendants is one of the most valuable contributions to the history of his own section and indispensable to the understanding of the early settlement and educational beginnings of the first colony of the Northwest-Ohio.

Manasseh Cutler was born in Killingly, Conn., in 1742; "brought up" on a farm, and graduated from Yale College in 1765. He appeared first in Massachusetts as a teacher in Dedham in 1765, and married the daughter of Rev. Dr. Balch in 1766. Already a young man of promise, he seems to have been taken in hand by Providence, like so many of our most eminent Americans, and led from "pillar to post," held to one position just long enough to get at the heart of success therein; through a variety of experiences, trained and toughened for the crowning act of his life in a far-off wilderness, then almost unknown to the shut-up northeastern colonies along the stormy Atlantic coast. For three years he was a merchant at Marthas Vineyard, Mass., sending ships to sea and prospering at his business. He finally decided to return to Dedham to study divinity with his father-in-law, and "with great reluctance" submitted to the prevailing discipline of the divinity student of the period—having his hair cut off and his head covered with a dark wig. But he kept his own brain inside his head notwithstanding, and in due time was settled in the little town of Douglas as a minister of a colonial Congregational church.

In 1770, at the age of 28, he was made A. M. at Harvard and was also spotted by the "o'er gnid" as "heretical." In the same year he moved to his final parish, in the little corner of old Ipswich called "The Hamlet," now the town of Hamilton, Essex County, where, as the minister of a country society, he remained fixed till the end of his life.

He never was a celebrated preacher, possibly preferring to air his "heresies" outside rather than inside the pulpit. But his journal, practically kept for fifty years, is a remarkable record of the power of human endurance displayed by the old-time Yankee parson. There were perpetual ministerial visitings in families, catechizing of children, a sense of moral supervision of the manners and morals of the community, and a general social life, often represented by a hundred people at dinner, and a throng always surging through the parsonage—all on an income of \$1,000 a year. He was, like the more active of his class, farmer, gardener, real estate agent, doctor, in his case actually studying medicine and taking his degree for practice; for many years a teacher and perpetual "school committeeman," an office including all, and a good deal besides, the present duties of city superintendency; citizen at large, member of the legislature, and, finally, as long as he would serve, member of Congress. From 1782 he was principal of a private classical school that educated numbers of valuable people, among others the founder of the manufacturing city of Lowell, Mass. He was a close student, especially of natural science, and a member of all the learned societies in the country. He was a man of commanding presence and charming address, thoroughly accomplished in affairs. At 45, by unanimous consent, he was chosen to manipulate the Congress of the Confederation, which for a dozen years had floundered through a deluge of debate that would fill 40 stout volumes with the vexed question of organizing the Northwest Territory. In less than a week, with an order for the purchase of 5,000,000 acres of Western land in his pocket, he brought order out of confusion and dictated the formation of a new committee for a fresh consideration of the whole matter. Without eminent distinction, save for that time, as a careful and reliable student of nature, Dr. Cutler had the instinctive master faculty of reading the capacity of men for important services, the rare gift of irresistible persuasion, and a decisive executive power of "striking when the iron is hot" and holding on till the end. He lived to the age of 83, and for the last forty years of his life his mind and heart were bound up in the first serious attempt to plant on the northern shore of the Ohio a colony, largely from New England, which should give a notable impulse to a group

of new Commonwealths founded on the chief corner stone—"Religion, morality, and knowledge necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind."

OHIO IN EDUCATION.

We have already called attention to the history of the passage of the ordinance of 1787 and the settlement of Ohio at Marietta. It now remains to tell the less attractive story of the slow progress of the common school in a State from the first pledged to the education of the whole people.

When Dr. Cutler appeared before the committees of the Congress of the Confederation in 1787, he summed up the alternative on which, as on a golden hinge turned the decision of the Ohio Company concerning the contemplated purchase of a vast tract of the Northwest Territory for the purpose of settlement according to the New England plan of social organism. He said, "If we venture our all, with our families, in this enterprise we must know beforehand what kind of foundations we are to build on." It was his absolute insistence, specially on the essential conditions of free soil and government aid for free education, and the support of the gospel, that placed under the famous ordinance of 1787 this corner stone. He saw, with the prophetic vision of a true educational statesmanship, in this waiting wilderness the possibility of a group of mighty commonwealths in which, as he wrote, "the field of science may be greatly enlarged and the acquisition of knowledge placed upon a more respectable footing than in any other part of the world. This will be an advantage which no other part of the earth can boast, and which probably will never occur again; that, in order to begin right, there will be no wrong habits to combat and no inveterate systems to overturn. There is no rubbish to remove before laying the foundations." In placing in the ordinance the memorable sentence, "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government," he and those he represented proposed that "the organic law of the Northwest should be the basis of a Christian civilization."

The good doctor did not propose, in the favorite saying of his neighbors, "to let the grass grow under his feet" after his great victory at New York. He returned home, as his journal records, to give a large portion of his time to the furtherance of the new scheme of colonization. On December 3, 1787, five months after the passage of the ordinance, the first colony for the occupation of the Ohio purchase left Ipswich Hamlet. The party was gathered in the old church, his own son, who afterwards lost his life in the new country, being one of the number; the doctor prayed and preached, and the procession moved—the little advance guard of the mighty host that New England has sent forth for more than a century toward the setting sun.

Six months later, June 20, 1788, we read that the doctor "bought a new sulky" and painted and reconstructed it with his own hand for the 1,000-mile journey on his first visit to the promised land. He even seems at times to have had a floating idea of casting in his own lot with the new community. For thirty toilsome days did he sit in the sulky, accompanied by two friends on horseback, until compelled himself to leave the carriage in western Pennsylvania and "rough it" across the Alleghenies to the Ohio River. He found Harrisburg, Pa., a pleasant village of 100 houses. Arriving in due time at Marietta, he preached the first sermon in Campus Martius Hall on July 28, and on September 9 turned his face once more to the East, which was hereafter to be his abiding place. One of his first cares was to make arrangements to send a Christian minister to the new colony, who arrived during the following year—the leading man of the settlement, in old-time New England fashion, having kept the service of Sunday alive meanwhile. In November, 1788, immediately after reaching home, the doctor sends back \$200 to pay the preacher, Mr. Daniel Story, and the schoolmaster, probably the same person, "for the present." In December, 1788, Gen. Rufus Putnam, the "head center" of the new colony, writes that they continue religious exercises, and "last Monday we had the first ball in our country, at which were present fifteen ladies as well accomplished in

the manners of polite circles as any I have seen in the old States. I mention this to show the progress of society in this distant country."

It is not to be supposed that such a people would consent to remain long under the threatening shadows of a possible illiteracy for their children. On May 6, 1789, the directors of the Ohio Company ordered that General Putnam and Dr. Cutler "make such application to Congress as they shall judge expedient for passing a charter for the university and for the encouragement of learning in this settlement." On September 29 of the same year, Dr. Cutler writes to Winthrop Sargent, president of the Ohio Company: "If Congress should be disposed to favor the establishment of the university, I am confident that it will have no inconsiderable influence on the spirit of migration from this part of the country." In 1790 President Washington, in his message of January 8, emphasized the importance of the encouragement of education in the new settlement. Meanwhile Dr. Cutler was busily employed in visiting the 4 public schools in his own town, which he finds "in good state, pretty well supplied with Webster's last edition of the first part of his Grammatical Institute. The masters and committees spent the evening and supped with me." Three years later Ipswich Hamlet, under the vigorous engineering of the locally omnipotent doctor, emerged into the new town of Hamilton. His son Charles died in Marietta in the same year. The church, ministered to by the Rev. Daniel Story, was the first of the New England Congregational order formed west of the Alleghanies.

In 1799 General Putnam informs the company that the university township contains 46,080 acres. It included the two best townships in the whole province. It was already occupied by settlers, who, by some arrangement, seem to have secured free possession for five years. After that the land could be leased for \$12 per 100 acres, which would furnish an annual income of \$5,529.60 for the university. The common school and ministry lands amounted to 62,700 acres, which, loaned for \$6 per 100 acres, gave the meager sum of \$3,762, one-half for schools and one-half for the ministry. Here seems to have been the "beginning of sorrows" in the toleration of the free "squatter" occupation of these superior university lands, which grew into the usual pioneer greed for personal possession with an assured right to all that the settler could include in his horizon. This university domain was so loosely held by any responsible power that "the college" failed to receive its proper income and never has been able to lift its head high among the stately assemblage of Northwestern State universities.

It may have been some of these pioneer disasters that prompted Dr. Cutler to respond to the repeated and urgent demand from Marietta that he should prepare a plan for the organization of the university: "What has been passing in the world these last ten years has rendered me less democratic." Certainly the elaborate plan which he sent out to the colony for this organization appears to have been drawn up under the fear of a waste of the funds and in distrust of any public supervision of education. It tied up the entire fund for university and common school education, together with their disposal and management, the appointment of the faculty, and the details of school administration, in the hands of a close corporation of eleven trustees, forever renewing itself, the original board to be appointed by the company. Here was revealed the inevitable result of attempting to manage a pioneer American colony "at arm's length" by a company of men, however able, wise, and devoted, at another end of the country. This idea of the supervision of education in Ohio reminds one of the notion of more than one of our great educators to-day who see no hope for any system of universal education in this Republic which is not worked by an absolute educational supervisor, turning the crank in Olympian state, in the solemnity and isolation of his own exclusive and unassailable position. General Putnam replies: "There are several academies in neighboring parts of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Kentucky where Latin and Greek are taught, and the Muskingum Academy at Marietta is at present capable of teaching the languages, and I think it can not be long before Latin schools will be established in several places in the territory."

The Muskingum Academy was probably the first seminary of the kind established and the building erected for it the earliest structure built for educational use in Ohio. It was projected in 1797, at a meeting of the citizens of Marietta, of which General Putnam was chairman. But even before this organization, David Putnam, a graduate of Yale College, is found teaching there in 1793. President Andrews, of Marietta College, says: "It is probable that, from the beginning of the colony until the time that Marietta College was founded, in 1835, this town possessed almost uninterrupted facilities for instruction in the higher branches of an English education, and most of the time for such classical instruction as was required for preparation for college." The Territorial legislature, with an instinct for affairs that is the first break with the "close corporation" idea of the less confiding East, modified the plan of Dr. Cutler and appointed two boards of trustees, one for the management of the university and another for the common school and ministerial lands, with power to lease and secure the improvement of the estate.

Meanwhile, on December 30, 1791, a committee appointed by the Ohio Company assembled at Marietta to select the two townships of university lands and determine on the location of the institution. "In a fleet of canoes, propelled by the power of setting the pole against the swift and narrow channel of the Hocking River, accompanied by armed guards against the lurking savages, and carrying their own pork, beans, and hardtack that made up their rough fare, this committee of old veterans of three wars proceeded to fix, with compass and chain, the boundaries of the university lands." The estate selected was in the townships now called Athens and Alexander, in Athens County. In 1799 the Territorial legislature appointed a committee, with the inevitable General Putnam chairman, to lay off the college ground in generous pioneer style, with room for all necessary buildings, "bordering on or inclosed by spacious commons."

The work was done and approved by the legislature in 1800. The author of *The Higher Education in Ohio* declares of the original plan of Dr. Cutler: "In no way, directly or indirectly, did the proposed charter indicate that the university, when once created, was to stand in any public or semipublic relation to the State. No right was to be reserved to the legislature to modify the charter at any future time, or to exercise any authority in the affairs of the college." But in 1802 the legislature, by act, established the university and gave the land grant to it in trust.

But, in distrust of the narrow plan of organization proposed, it struck out the present practical conception of the new State university, now so prominent an element in the educational life of the Northwest. The first board of trustees was appointed by the legislature, representing the people, for life. But as its members passed away, their successors were to be chosen by the Territorial or State legislature. No limitation of the right to hold property was imposed. The legislature reserved the right to add to or take from the powers granted to the trustees, as might be regarded best for the progress of the university. This was the first of that series of legislative acts by which the people of the Northwest, through a good deal of blundering and some mischievous legislation, have built up the present American system of State universities, academical and industrial, which is the crown of the American system of common schools.

The new institution was called the "American Western University," a name prophetic of the type of institution it represented. The trustees were the foremost men of the colony. But the school really had no existence till 1804, when the State legislature passed an act which superseded the statute of 1802. The name was then changed to "The Ohio University," its objects and duties were declared to be "the instruction of youth in all the various branches of liberal arts and sciences, the promotion of good education, virtue, religion, and morality, and conferring all the degrees and literary honors granted in similar institutions." The curriculum of the college included the classical and English languages, mathematics, rhetoric, logic, geography, and mental and moral philosophy.

The governor of the State and the president of the university were ex officio members of the board of trustees. A reorganization of the university afterwards fixed the number of trustees at 21, who, at present, are appointed by the governor of the State, subject to confirmation by the senate. But 3 students appeared on the day the university opened. The first class of 2 was graduated in 1815.

Then came in the unwise and overindulgent habit of leasing the university lands, which virtually gave away this noble heritage to private settlers, and until the present day has kept this and its sister college at Oxford in a state of impecuniosity that has greatly hindered their usefulness and postponed for half a century the final effort of the people of Ohio to establish a State university worthy of this great Commonwealth. A splendid domain, valued at \$1,000,000, is so burdened that it has realized only \$7,500 a year. Until 1881 the State refused additional aid and the entire amount contributed by the legislature is less than \$75,000. It is unnecessary to prolong the account of the first attempt to establish a State university in the Northwest. Like other similar collegiate institutions of the new States, this and its sister college, Miami, at Oxford, have numbered among their graduates many of the most celebrated public characters of the country. One of the first graduates from Athens was Thomas Ewing. But while it was reserved for the Northwestern States that were formed at a later date, especially Michigan and Wisconsin, to develop this most original and important feature of the higher education to an extent far beyond the limited support and supervision of the old-time college like Harvard, William and Mary, and Yale, the fundamental principle, that the people should establish, support, and, through elected or appointed bodies, control the entire policy of the highest organizations of educational life in the State, is plainly laid down in the charter for the Ohio University in the wilderness of Athens County, in 1804. "During the first quarter of the present century the Ohio University was the only institution of collegiate rank in the Northwest Territory, and the number of its graduates had not exceeded 25." The financial blight that followed it from the first culminated in 1843, when by legislative act the income was so limited that for several years before 1850 no class was graduated, and the institution was virtually closed, although afterwards reorganized and continued in moderate prosperity to the present time.

It would appear to have been a necessity that the new State of Ohio, considering the slow growth of population, the hinderances in travel, and the great distance between the two original settlements in the Territory should divide its all too meager outfit for the establishment of a university. Only a month after the passage of the ordinance of 1787, John Cleves Symmes, of New Jersey, proposed to purchase a tract of land at the opposite corner of the present State from the location of the Ohio Company, based on the great bend of the Ohio River, in the southwest angle of the State, and including the beautiful country between the Great and Little Miamis; a region not excelled in fertility and loveliness in the entire West. But it was not until September, 1794, that Washington, as President of the United States, confirmed this purchase. Symmes broke down financially with the result that the one township of land for the establishment of an academy and other public schools and seminaries of learning included in his purchase was finally located at Oxford, Butler County, outside the original purchase, but in what was called "the district of Cincinnati." In 1809 the State passed an act intrusting the management of the landed estate to 14 trustees with power to establish a university described in the charter in the same terms as the Ohio University, now already at work in Athens. The town at Oxford sprung up at the call and to this day, like Athens, is known chiefly as a college town and educational center.

But it was not until 1816 that the new university was born, under the usual pioneer figure of a grammar school housed in a small wooden building. Eight years more elapsed before the child had grown to college dimensions. In 1824 Dr. Bishop, a Scotch ex-professor of Transylvania University, Kentucky, where he had acquired a reputation as a "defender of the faith" against imputed "irreligious influences,"

was placed at the head of the new college. This act seems to have fixed the ecclesiastical leanings of the institutions, for it is said that every president of Miami has been of the Presbyterian faith; although, being normally a State university, there has been no offensive display of sectarianism.

The school came up as a representative of the cosmopolitan population of the "Cincinnati district," in contrast to the New England type of the Marietta settlement. It looked to the South largely for students and was always strictly conservative in its political leanings. Its curriculum followed closely the original type of the Southern college—classics, mathematics, and a "mental and moral philosophy" not easily distinguished from the Protestant Evangelical Theology. From the period of its beginning until a suspension of activities between 1873 and 1885 Oxford University had the checkered career that has been the fate of the majority of pioneer colleges in the West. But it has always maintained a good reputation for faithful scholarship and vigorous teaching within the lines of the old-time course of study and methods of discipline. Some of the ablest Western educators have been included in its faculty, of which, perhaps, Dr. W. H. McGuffey has the widest reputation as a teacher and maker of one of the best series of school readers ever put into the hands of American children.

But the blight of impecuniosity was over Oxford, as Athens, from the beginning. Its entire income was derived from the uncertain rentals of the university lands, tuition, and other college fees. The faculty worked on salaries from \$500 to \$1,200 a year. The great civil war cut off its supply of Southern student material and left it in 1873 "laid up for repairs" for twelve years, while its funds were accumulating. The State, practicing so much economy that it has not yet established a State normal school, has given it the sum of \$50,000, all since the reopening in 1885.

But we do not call to mind any institution of the higher learning in the West that has done so much and so valuable work, on means so slender, amid conditions so discouraging as Miami University. It was from the first a place where a young man of small means and lofty aspirations could find a welcome. Its situation, in the heart of one of the garden realms of western America, near the most enlightened border of Indiana, was favorable. The entire fees for tuition were \$15 per term, and opportunity has been always at hand to enable worthy and promising young men to "work their way through college." Among the number who have thus "worked their way" out and up into conspicuous position in the West and the Republic we find the names of 1 President of the United States, 4 governors of Western States, 4 United States Senators, 4 foreign ministers of the nation, 9 eminent judges, and as many lawyers of high reputation; clergymen without number, including some deservedly celebrated; 5 college presidents, and several dozen of the most influential men of affairs in the Northwest, including Oliver P. Morton, William S. Groesbeck, J. W. Noble, and others. Certainly, in the past days of American education, these little country colleges, officered by a hard-working faculty, not unfrequently by the foremost educators of the time, where the fashion was "lean living and high thinking," and where ambitious students often took to farm work to obtain resources "to keep the pot boiling" during term time, performed a service for American citizenship which points to the heart of college life; the grouping of an eager, resolute, indefatigable set of young men to live with half a dozen first-rate, all-round scholars, for four years, and carry away with their diploma a devoted and self-sacrificing manhood that will go before them, like a guiding star, as they climb the successive steps of a splendid career.

Oxford and Athens, within the past dozen years, seem to have renewed their youth, have enlarged their curriculum, adjusted their methods to modern necessities, and bid fair to retain their hold on the people, while at the same time they expose the unfortunate policy by which the State of Ohio in the early time virtually wasted its magnificent land endowment for education and, with all her splendid achievements, still lags behind in some of the most essential qualities of a great educational Commonwealth.

These were the only organizations of the higher education with which the State of Ohio concerned itself during the first fifty years of the Republic. Other collegiate and academical seminaries came up during that period—the Western Reserve College, now Adelbert, of the Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio; the early days of Oberlin, Marietta, and St. Xavier's, of Cincinnati, being among the best known. All these were distinctively denominational institutions, although compelled by their connections and environments to cooperate in greater or less degree with the slow upward progress of the common school. "No State in proportion to its population has seen a larger number of colleges organized within its boundaries," says Dr. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education. Of these, 6, including a number established during the past forty years, are nonsectarian, and one of the most hopeful, the University of Cincinnati, is the highest department of the public school system of that city.

Along with this multiplication of "colleges" and "universities" went an early corresponding movement for the building of academies and private schools of every grade. The majority of the original settlers brought from the Southern and Middle States the old faith in the denominational and private, as opposed to the public support of the superior grades of the common school. A great deal of the good educational training for the first fifty years in the life of Ohio as a Commonwealth—training which revealed the State in 1860 to the world as a rival of New York and a future leader in the affairs of the Republic—was obtained at these numerous seminaries supported by the zeal of religious bodies and the contributions of their patrons.

It was given to Ohio thus to represent the transition period in the new Northwest between the British and American systems of educating the people. Certainly no American State has obtained better results from the old, and to-day no State goes before Ohio in zeal and progressive spirit in the adoption of the new methods of universal education. Many of its so-called "colleges" and "universities" have, by necessity, been only more or less vigorous academical schools; coeducational or for the separate instruction of boys and girls. And, at every step upward to its present educational eminence, all varieties of these institutions have been necessarily in almost vital connection with every class. There has been a special experience in the building up and in the amazing growth of several great private schools for the normal instruction of teachers which have sent forth hundreds of graduates to the West and South during the past twenty-five years. We shall refer to this side of the educational life of Ohio further on and trace the development of the more concentrated use of means and the massing of forces that has resulted in the "association of Ohio colleges" which dates from 1867.

While the new State of Ohio was thus engaged in the attempt to furnish its more favored class with the opportunity for the academical and collegiate education of their children, the common school for the elementary instruction of the masses during the first thirty years from the settlement at Marietta and for a full quarter of a century from the organization of the State could hardly be said to exist. Governor St. Clair was installed over the Territory in 1788, but in his first message to the Territorial legislature made no reference to education, although, doubtless, he owed his position to the good will of Dr. Cutler as a recognition of his service in securing the passage of the ordinance of 1787. The land grant for educational purposes is declared by competent authorities to have been "sufficient for a liberal independent support of common schools with a university." At once the people seemed to have made an effort to utilize this source of educational support. But this system of leasing lands to impecunious settlers and afterwards of selling lands for a nominal price, then inaugurated and still in vogue in some of the new States, was better calculated to attract a population than to educate the children of the emigrants who actually occupied the country. The Territorial legislature, in 1800, "discussed" the subject and recommended the Delegate in Congress, W. H. Harrison, "to secure equal rights to school lands for all children." In 1802 the new constitution of the State was formed. By

the efforts of Judge Ephraim Cutler and other like-minded members of the convention this clause was placed in the fundamental law :

ARTICLE VIII.

SEC 3. * * * Religion, morality, and knowledge, being essentially necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of instruction shall forever be encouraged by legislative provision, not inconsistent with the right of conscience.

SEC. 25. That no law shall be passed to prevent the poor in the several counties and townships within this State from an equal participation in the schools, academies, colleges, and universities within this State, which are endowed, in whole or in part from the revenue arising from donations made by the United States, for the support of schools and colleges; and the doors of the said schools, academies, and universities shall be opened for the reception of scholars, students, and teachers of every grade, without any distinction or preference whatever, contrary to the intent for which said donations were made.

We seem to recognize here the appearance of that sectarian jealousy of the public school which for so many years waged a persistent war against everything save the most meager and ineffectual arrangements for public elementary schooling, reserving to itself the control of all the higher grades of education.

Under these conditions it is not remarkable that this constitutional provision remained virtually a dead letter for almost twenty years. Until 1820 we are informed that the only schools of importance were found in the larger towns, while the masses of the people were left poorly supplied. A school bill, offered by Judge Cutler, was lost in the upper house of the legislature. The common practice seems to have been similar to that of many of our Southern States previous to their recent revival in popular education; to use the small amount of money gathered from the land lease to pay tuition bills to such schools as might be on the ground. At first these schools were really private as distinguished from public. Gradually, in the more prosperous counties, the little private seminary was evolved into a common district school. In 1806 a portion of the State was districted and funds from the sixteenth sections and military lands ordered to be secured. In 1817 Governor Worthington recommended the establishment of a free school at the new capital of the State, "to educate, at same expense, the sons of poor parents (no other) for teachers." Without any definite system of public schools, with no recognition from the legislature, which was absorbed with matters vastly more important to the physical status of affairs and the safety of the Territory, the more progressive people did their uttermost to supply the children with the means of education. Doubtless, in all such formative periods of the American common school, these local movements, in communities widely separated, without cooperation with each other, do not receive due credit from the historian; for history, in the regulation sense of the term, chiefly concerns itself with the record of exceptional men at the moment of their supreme influence; like a celestial geographer of our planet, stepping over the mountain tops of this world and handing in a report of these summits up aloft as a veritable "description of the earth." Still, in lack of more interesting details of these early movements, at present only to be obtained by laborious investigation of township and village chronicles, we are grateful to be able to call attention especially to the two men who, by common consent, were the leaders recognized and followed by the educational common-school public which achieved its first substantial advantage in the legislation of the years 1820-1824.

Nathan Guilford was born in Worcester County, Mass., in 1786; was graduated at Yale College, and, in 1816, is found established in the law, the favorite profession of educated young Americans, in a new State; a sort of "open court" with avenues leading out into every form of industrial, public, or philanthropic activity. He brought with him from New England the profound conviction that the real motive power of a new commonwealth must be generated in the fit education of the children. Cincinnati, at this time already the literary center of the entire region beyond

the Alleghanies, had no system of public schools, and there was nothing of importance of the sort in the State. Mr. Guilford drifted more and more into the position of a general reformer and agitator for the upper story of civilization in the city and State of his adoption. For seven years he edited "Solomon Thrifty's Almanac," a clever imitation of Dr. Franklin's "Poor Richard," with decided influence. In 1820, as chairman of a self-appointed committee, he addressed a forcible plea for popular education to the legislature and people of Ohio which brought him into large public notice as a leader in the first crusade for "young America" out west. In 1821 we find him in the legislature of the State, in company with Ephraim Cutler, as member of a committee of 7 appointed to draw up a scheme of public school instruction. The majority of the committee reported a bill which was declared by Guilford and Cutler useless for practical purposes. Under the form of a minority report they prepared a document that woke up a controversy which arrested the attention of the entire Commonwealth, and four years later, 1824, resulted in carrying through the legislature a bill, framed and engineered by these two great leaders, "for the founding of a general system of common schools, to be built upon and improved."

This bill contained provisions for a county tax of one-half mill on the dollar for education; for the township clerks and city auditors to be school officers; for an examination of teachers; a division of townships into school districts by vote of householders, with other useful provisions, but with no provisions for its own enforcement. Yet it was only by the most strenuous appeals of these courageous leaders that this bill was forced through the legislature, and Judge Cutler, now a veteran in the service of education, is said to have exclaimed on the final passage: "Lord, now lettest thou thy servant depart in peace, according to thy word; for mine eyes have seen thy salvation."

But a statute thus carried by a worked-up majority through the legislature, "at the point of the bayonet," proved unpopular and difficult of enforcement. For eleven years more the ship of state in Ohio was educationally in the hands of a crew that sailed "by guess," with no chart or compass and no accurate observation of the north star. But the good seed once sown did not perish under the faithful culture of its devoted friends. Between 1825 and 1836 the people of Ohio were gradually opening their eyes to the fact that only a community that would put its hands deep into its own pockets can be assured of an effective system of public education. From one-half mill the school tax was carried to three-fourths, then to 1, and in 1836 to 1½ mills on the dollar, and the county commissioners were given power to add one-half mill in 1836.

Meanwhile the foremost teachers of the State were every year becoming more alive to the importance of the movement for better common schools. In 1831 "The college of teachers" was formed in Cincinnati, including among its leaders Pickett, Kinmont, Williams, Samuel Lewis, Dr. McGuffey, and Dr. Ray, for the time the most distinguished of Western educators. The membership was made up of the most eminent literary and school men of the Mississippi Valley and, with its meetings, discussions, printing of reports and pamphlets, became a great power in the land. In 1833 this body demanded State supervision of schools with other reforms. In 1835 the State legislature was induced to vote \$500 to aid Prof. Calvin Stowe, of Lane Theological Seminary, Cincinnati (the husband of Harriet Beecher Stowe), in the inspection of common schools in Germany. His report, with another from Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, was largely influential in moving the sluggish waters. In 1836 the first State convention of teachers in Ohio was held at Columbus, and seems to have given a powerful impetus in the right direction. Samuel Lewis made one of his "great speeches," and Professor Stowe read a portion of his report. The convention demanded the improvement of common schools, the establishment of school libraries, and the election of a State superintendent of education. By a majority of 1 in the house of representatives a State superintendency was ordered, and Samuel Lewis was appointed to the office in 1837. For a dozen years school funds had been collecting from the sixteenth section of the United States land grant,

from the income of saline lands, and later from the interest of the surplus revenue of the United States divided among the several States.

But the good work was only well begun. In 1831 "the State had no school fund; not more than half the school districts had schoolhouses, and they not worth \$10 each; the tuition fee was universal, and the country schools were in session but three months in a year." During the six years before the election of Lewis to the superintendency something had been done in the accumulation of funds and a good deal in the waking up of a public opinion demanding that, after fifty years of "fooling" with this great practical interest of the State, something worthy of a Commonwealth like Ohio should be done. "The acceptable year of the Lord" had already come to New England in the revival that resulted in the establishment of a State board of education of Massachusetts and the appointment of Horace Mann as its first secretary, really dictator of public-school affairs in the Bay State during the subsequent fifteen years and leader of a body of educators in all the Northern States whose patriotic zeal, thorough comprehension of the public needs, and absolute consecration to the public good, may not inaptly be compared to the original group of fathers of their country. By their effort the tide of battle between the common school and its open enemies and half-hearted advocates, which for so long had wavered to and fro, was now turned and the victory was won for the children of the Republic.

Of this noble brotherhood none deserves higher honor than Samuel Lewis, first superintendent of common schools in the State of Ohio. He was, in the best sense of the word, "the people's man" in the crisis that now confronted this great Commonwealth, just entering on the second period of its career in training for the eminence into which it vaulted as the foremost State of the Republic in the nation's hour of supreme peril in 1860. A native of the same State as Nathan Guilford and Ephraim Cutler, though thirteen years the junior of Guilford, Samuel Lewis was born in Falmouth, Cape Cod, Massachusetts, in 1799, and at the age of 14 emigrated to Cincinnati, Ohio. At first a farmer, then a house-builder, at 20 he adventured on climbing the "steep and rugged way" of the study of law, on an income of \$150 a year and living on bread and water, in the office of Judge Burnett. At 22 he was admitted to the bar and, like his friend Guilford, drifted to the higher profession of educational reformer by native instinct. He persuaded his friend, William Woodward, to make the original contribution which became the corner stone of the famous Woodward High School of Cincinnati and was also influential in persuading Mr. Hughes to make a similar donation, on which the present Hughes High School of Cincinnati is founded. Out of this original custom of the gift of property for education, including the university fund by McMicken, grew up a public spirit of generous giving that, within the past 30 years, through munificent benefactions, has given to Cincinnati perhaps the most complete system of popular instruction of any American metropolis.

The eminent services of Lewis in behalf of popular instruction pointed to him as the fit pioneer State superintendent of education. On a salary of \$500 a year he entered upon his great work in 1837. He traveled on horseback 1,200 miles through the State, visited 300 schools, everywhere stirring up the people and carefully observing the condition of affairs. In his first report, in 1838, he recommended school buildings, town boards of education, the establishment of a State fund of \$200,000, the giving to cities and important towns the right to tax themselves for the secondary and higher education; that school districts be empowered to lay taxes to build schoolhouses and that boards of examiners for school-teachers be appointed. As in the case of Horace Mann, the difficulty was to obtain reports from the local authorities. In the year 1835-36, only 33 county auditors had complied with the request, and their reports were unreliable. The salary of the superintendent was afterwards raised to \$1,200, and he issued several numbers of an influential document, but the labors of years of incessant activity were now telling on this faithful servant of the people. He resigned his position in 1839. The office of State superintendent was abolished by a reaction of public opinion in 1840, and

its duties thereafter thrown upon the shoulders of school officials and teachers, town assessors and, especially, the fidelity of women teachers in the schools of the State.

But a great work had already been done. From 4,300 schools and 150,000 pupils in 1837, the administration of Samuel Lewis had lifted the number to 7,300 schools and the attendance to 250,000, almost doubling the number of schools and pupils and multiplying the agencies at work for improving the quality of popular education. From \$350,000 in 1837, the State had climbed to the expenditure of \$1,000,000 in 1839-40. The remainder of the twelve years of the life of Mr. Lewis was spent largely in the advocacy of several advanced movements, temperance, and anti-slavery, and by frequent "running for office" on those hopeless tickets upon which we find the names of the early reformers of that day.

Both these remarkable men, Guilford and Lewis, were residents of Cincinnati, but previous to 1837 that city had no system of public schools. Having led "the army of the Lord" to its first great legislative victory in 1824-25, Nathan Guilford concentrated his attention on his own city to make it an educational object lesson of what a new American metropolis should be. From the first Cincinnati had among its earlier settlers a group of enlightened and public-spirited men and women who, for many years, made it the center of literature, art, music, and progressive ideas in the new West. Nathan Guilford wrought with the most enlightened and practical efficiency as a true friend of the Commonwealth. Having obtained from the legislature a law authorizing the establishment of a city system of public schools, the city council refused to impose a school tax. Guilford then was elected a member of the city council and "forced the fighting," obtained a grant of \$40,000 for the first great schoolhouse, and made Cincinnati the leading free school city beyond the Alleghanies. He was elected first superintendent of the common schools, and by a famous educational festival, in which the children marched with music and banners about the streets and assembled in the First Presbyterian church to hear addresses of congratulation, captured the heart of the Queen City, which, from this day for half a century, has never for a year been found wanting in its warm regard for the children. Mr. Guilford served as city superintendent from 1849 till 1852, and died in 1854 at the age of 68. His estimable wife was still living ten years later, one of the most thoroughly alive women in the great city Cincinnati had then become in all the good works and forward movements of the stirring period of the civil war.

Here we reach the limit of our present discussion of the common-school life of the first Western State during the first half century of the Republic. We have given the history of the beginnings of the common school in Ohio somewhat in detail, because here was first fought out on the great open field of the Northwest the battle between the New England idea of the people's school and the various forms of private, parochial, and corporate education prevailing in the Central and Southern States. Though the conflict was long and at times uncertain, extending through the entire period of sixty years from the occupation of the Territory to the great revival of popular education in 1840, the leaders of the masses thus far are seen to be largely of New England origin and to them must be awarded the credit of the final victory. But in this long period of warfare "the people of all sorts and conditions" and the foremost men of all sections of the country had done "a power of thinking" on this matter. Almost every scheme for training a generation of young Americans had been tried; various new expedients suggested; broader methods of instruction struck out; and a school public steadily established. The result was that to Ohio must be given the credit of inaugurating the majority of the educational movements which have given a peculiar character to the northwestern type of the American common school. Some of these movements, like the complete organization of the State university, normal training of teachers by the State, county supervision of schools, and the vigorous handling of the local district school, have been carried out with more eminent success in the neighboring States; and the time

is rapidly coming when Ohio must "take a new start" if she proposes to lead, even in Western educational affairs. But for more than half a century, even to the close of the civil war, this State was the natural leader of the Republic west of the Alleghanias in all that concerned the training of its singularly able and cosmopolitan people for the grand demonstration in arms, statesmanship, industrial activities, and general mental and social culture, which, in the decade of 1860-1870, drew to her all eyes from every quarter in Christendom.

In the development of the American common school, from its early beginnings in the New England colonies to its complete acceptance as the reliance of the American people in the training for American citizenship, each State and every section of the country has borne its own honorable and essential part. We have seen how the idea of universal education, by the aid and under the supervision of the State, obtained the unanimous indorsement of the Congress of the Confederation. One of the first acts of the Congress of the United States was the ratification of the ordinance of 1787, which pledged the five original Northwestern States to complete civil and religious liberty and the "encouragement forever of schools and the means of education." Five years before this memorable closing act of the Continental Congress, a fit companion piece of the Declaration of Independence, the first proposition for an appropriation of public lands in the Northwest Territory for the support of education appears in a bill offered by Colonel Bland, of Virginia, June 5, 1783, although it appears to have gone no farther than the prevailing Virginia idea of the period, the founding of a "seminary of learning." The suggestion was incorporated in the law of 1785 when, at the suggestion of New England members, it became a part of the general law for locating and disposing of lands in the new Territories of the Northwest; and we finally meet it, in the more extended form in which it now appears, in the ordinance of 1787, the title deed to education for every child henceforth to be born in the New World beyond the western mountains.

INDIANA.

We have already traced the action of the State of Ohio, the first Commonwealth wrought out of the imperial northwestern realm, and noted the gradual steps by which this, now one of the four leading States in the Republic, availed itself of the priceless privilege of universal education there offered. And we have seen that every idea that has since become a characteristic of the elaborate public-school system of the Western and Pacific States appears as a suggestion or an actual experiment during the formative period of the common school in that State; the period now under consideration from the establishment of the Union to the year 1840, the first fifty years of the Republic.

But alongside of Ohio, originally a part of her vast territory, was meanwhile growing up a new Commonwealth, in which the educational drama rehearsed by its older sister was to be acted in a style peculiar to itself. The earliest settlers of Ohio were so largely of New England origin that they can be said to have brought with them the old-time pattern of the New England common school and, in a halting and ineffectual way, attempted its establishment in their new home. But the Territory of Indiana had quite another origin. It was discovered and partly occupied by a French emigration from the Canadas as early as 1680, and at the formation of the National Government was a remote settlement chiefly of French colonists in a far-off wilderness, largely in possession of the Indian tribes and, outside the village of Vincennes, only beaten up by a wandering crowd of hunters, traders, and trappers.

"For one hundred and thirty years Indiana had no capital within her own territory." Her small affairs were tossed about from hand to hand in Paris, London, Quebec, New York, Philadelphia, and Marietta. At the organization of the Northwest Territory, Governor St. Clair wrote that "the inhabitants of the Wabash Valley are the most ignorant people in the world. There is not a fiftieth man that can either read or write." During the century of the occupation by the French

there is no record of a school until the appearance of the Anglo-American settlers. As the inevitable result of this collision during two brief decades, the few thousand French people included in what is now Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, had fallen to the rear, hereafter never to be recognized as an important element in the making of the Commonwealth.

But to no State in the Union may we look for a more instructive history of the natural growth of the common school idea than to Indiana; and nowhere is that idea, in several respects, now more completely organized and more effectively administered than in the State whose opening years were so inauspicious. But this great work—whose splendid outcome is now seen in a State school fund of \$10,000,000, an annual expenditure of more than \$5,000,000 for common schools, in perhaps the most thoroughly articulated system of public instruction in the Union, and especially in the success in the grading of the country district school—has been a slow and tortuous growth of more than half a century, dating from the organization of the Northwest Territory in 1790 to the formation of its new constitution in 1851; half a century from its admission as a State in 1816 to the final establishment of its present educational system by the school law of 1865.

The peculiar interest of this history is found in the fact that the early American settlers of Indiana were chiefly from those portions of the country that had not yet adopted the idea of the formation of any system of public education. While the foremost men, including the first territorial governor, William Henry Harrison, brought thither the prevailing opinions of their native States concerning the necessity of the higher education for a superior class, the masses, who for a third of a century were struggling with the obstacles of settling a new country nowhere more formidable than in the densely wooded lowlands of this territory, until 1820 confined to the border of Ohio and the shores of the Ohio and Wabash rivers, in 1815 numbering but 65,000, battling with Indians and a terrible unhealthiness more destructive than war, were in no condition either to rise out of their own illiteracy or to produce the means for the schooling of their own children. Large numbers of the poorer people from the old Southern States were among these settlers, for whom a rough life in a new country for half a century seemed necessary as a "lift" even to the old-time district schoolhouse door.

Another great obstacle to the early establishment of the public or any effective system of schools was the peculiar political organization that involved the infant Territory in perpetual agitation.

Although the ordinance of 1787 prohibited negro slavery in the most peremptory terms and was thought by its authors to require the abolition of the institution as it was inherited from the French and English government, it still required a campaign of thirty years to put it under the ban of constitution and law, thence to linger in its original haunts, the valley of the Wabash, for other years. The majority of the early inhabitants of the Territory were from slave-holding States. Governor Harrison, a Virginian, seconded the effort to repudiate the original compact. Even Thomas Jefferson, President of the United States, was not averse to the toleration of "the peculiar institution" for a time, so long that it would be equivalent to fixing the destiny of Indiana as a slave State. While this fundamental question was up no progress could be expected in the organization of the educational life of such a community.

The State of Indiana has furnished within the past ten years perhaps the most philosophical and illuminating group of local historical writers concerning its early history of any Commonwealth west of the Alleghanies. In the history of Indiana, previous to its organization as a State, by Dunn, the story of the early conflict in the Territory for freedom has been for the first time fairly put on record. The circular of information issued by the National Bureau of Education, "The higher education in Indiana," by Prof. J. A. Woodburn, of the University of Indiana, is a complete record of the growth of the State into its present educational condition. The same institution has given to the public the best general history of education

in the United States by Professor Boone. A reference to these publications will put the reader in possession of the details of this most interesting narrative—the rise and progress of the public school idea in Indiana; its slow and sure growth from decade to decade; its final victory over all effective opponents in 1851, and its complete triumph as the logical close of the splendid war record of the State in the final school system of 1865. It is only necessary in this connection to briefly refer to the successive steps by which this result has been achieved.

When the Government of Prussia, at the close of the first Napoleonic wars, cast about for a method to promote the future security and eminence of the State, it intrusted to the most eminent educators of the kingdom the formation of a complete school system, which was enacted into law and enforced on the people by the irresistible power that, even now, overrides the popular will in the German Empire. But, whatever may be the impulse and inspiration derived from distinguished leaders, no American community has been thoroughly established in the habit of universal education except by a slow learning of the lesson through long years of painful and humiliating experience of the miseries of popular illiteracy.

For a series of years before 1850, these facts of the actual educational condition of the State of Indiana were spread before the government and people with the same relentless statement of home truth as by Horace Mann and Henry Barnard in New England. It was then revealed to the Government that Indiana, at the end of the first half century of its life as a State, rated lowest among the free States in popular intelligence and the means of popular education. Until 1853 the capital of the State had no free schools. Of 273,784 children of school age, only 48,180 attended the common schools. In 1840 "one-seventh of the adult population could not read, and a good proportion of those who could, read indifferently." In 1850, the State had sunk to the rank of twenty-third among the twenty-six States in popular intelligence, only three slave States below her. Between 1840 and 1850, with an increase of population of 50 per cent, the illiteracy had increased 100 per cent.

Indeed, as stated in the opening pages of Professor Woodburn's circular of information, in 1848 for the first time the question of the public support of free schools was submitted to the popular vote, with the result that, in a vote of 100,000, the small majority of 16,836 decided the future policy of Indiana as a free-school Commonwealth.

But this result was not the vote of a temporary majority, worked up in the fierce heat of a revival season, but the somewhat reluctant, though final, decision of a State which, perhaps more completely than any in the Union, was ruled by and always has been under the control of the masses of the people; of masses drawn for years from States not yet committed to the common school idea. Even before the separation of the territory from Ohio, measures had been taken looking to the security of the school lands in the sixteenth section of each township.

In 1804, four years after this separation, an act of Congress set apart the sixteenth section of every township for common schools and a complete township in each of the grand divisions of the new Territory, including the remaining three States of Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin for a university. President Monroe designated a township in a county named for himself as the endowment of the "Seminary of Learning." The first general assembly in the Territory, at Vincennes, incorporated "An university in the Indiana Territory," in a highly rhetorical prelude, and the act was approved by Governor William Henry Harrison in 1806. The Vincennes University was ushered in by another magnificent educational "thundering in the index." The Indians were invited to patronize it, and a lottery was established for raising the \$20,000 necessary to set it in operation. It was not till 1810 that the school was opened. Until 1825 it lived a precarious life, unsupported and neglected by the State, which in 1824 withdrew from its connection. Through a long period of litigation with the State, under different names, this seminary emerged in 1853, and now exists as a flourishing academical secondary school.

It was not till the admission of Indiana to the Union, in 1816, that the idea of universal education appears as a feature in the life of the new Commonwealth. The first constitution of the State contains the following provisions on the general subject of education:

ARTICLE IX.

SEC. 1. Knowledge and learning generally diffused through a community being essential to the preservation of a free government, and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country being highly conducive to this end, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to provide by law for the improvement of such lands as are, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State for the use of schools, and to apply any funds which may be raised from such lands, or from any other quarter, to the accomplishment of the grand object for which they are or may be intended. But no lands granted for the use of schools or seminaries of learning shall be sold by the authority of this State prior to the year 1820; and the monies which may be raised out of the sale of such lands, or otherwise obtained for the purposes aforesaid, shall be and remain a fund for the exclusive purpose of promoting the interest of literature and the sciences and for the support of seminaries and public schools. The general assembly shall from time to time pass such laws as shall be calculated to encourage intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvements, by allowing rewards and immunities for the promotion and improvement of arts, sciences, commerce, manufactures, and natural history, and to countenance and encourage the principles of humanity, honesty, industry, and morality.

SEC. 2. It shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis, and equally open to all.

SEC. 3. And for the promotion of such salutary end the money which shall be paid as an equivalent by persons exempt from militia duty, except in times of war, shall be exclusively and in equal proportion applied to the support of county seminaries; also all fines assessed for any breach of the penal laws shall be applied to said seminaries in the counties where they shall be assessed.

SEC. 4. It shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit to form a penal code, founded on the principles of reformation and not vindictive justice, and also to provide one or more farms, to be an asylum for those persons who by age, infirmity, or other misfortunes may have a claim on the aid and beneficence of society, on such principles that such persons may therein find employment and every reasonable comfort, and lose by their usefulness the degrading sense of dependence.

SEC. 5. The general assembly, at the time they lay off a new county, shall cause at least 10 per cent out of the sales of town lots in the seat of justice of said county to be reserved for the use of a public library in such county, and at the same session they shall incorporate a library company, under such rules and regulations as will best secure its permanence, and extend its benefits.

"No efficient school law was ever passed under that constitution" under which the State lived for thirty-five years, until 1851. During this period a succession of educational laws were placed on the statute books; but none of them relating to the building up of a public school system appear to have been of any considerable effect.

The first of these statutes dates from the beginning of the State, 1816, and gave permission for the electors of townships to establish schools; but, "with no visible means of support," the schools, save in a few favored districts, did not appear. In 1818 power was given the governor to appoint a seminary trustee for each county to accumulate funds for an academical school. In 1824 the law directed the establishment of a seminary in each county and a district school. In 1828 "The College," afterwards the University of Indiana, was established by law at Bloomington, and all university funds transferred thereto. In 1837 further legislation was had concerning public schools. Still other school laws, in 1849, added to the mass of legal educational literature, while the educational status of the Commonwealth was sinking, as heretofore described.

The radical defect of this entire system of laws, any one of which, could it have been operated, would have at least arrested the spread of illiteracy, was the old weakness of all public school legislation in the Southern and some of the Central

States, its merely permissive character. All these statutes virtually left the people of every school district in the State to judge whether they would attempt the education of their children at public expense. Of course, the more advanced communities were moved to avail themselves of these provisions; while the great majority, which needed the sharp goad of compulsion, took no action and feebly leaned on the frail reed of private, denominational, and corporation schools for their supply of intelligence.

But a lesson seems to have been learned from the experience of Ohio concerning a better care of the public lands of the State which were the foundation of the school fund. From the first, under a system of leasing, and after 1824 by sales, these lands were handled with a jealous care. Yet, from this source a sum less than \$3,000,000 was realized. But, from subsequent sources—the United States surplus revenue fund, sales of swamp and saline lands, management and taxation of banks, etc.—the fund has steadily grown, until Indiana boasts of \$10,000,000, one of the largest State school funds in the Union.

During this period of the education of the people for the final adoption of the common school, a system of county seminaries, somewhat resembling the subsidized academies of New England, was developed. Between the years 1825 and 1843, 24 of these institutions were incorporated by the State. The buildings, furnishings, and fuel were supplied by county funds, while a moderate tuition fee was charged for instruction. Beside these, 37 denominational, private, and corporate schools of the same sort had been given charters by the legislature during the same period. This group of 60 academical institutions, with the aid of several denominational colleges and the young State university, furnished an opportunity for the schooling of numbers of men and women, afterwards eminent in public and private life, and kept alive the sacred fire till its outbreak at a later day. That it was from these institutions that the final public school system was evolved, a familiar claim by the successors of their original faculties and patrons, is not in all cases so clear. One of the most persistent forces in every American State in the hindrance of universal education under the protection of the Commonwealth has always been found in a considerable class of these academical and collegiate schools, although their more progressive teachers have often been foremost in the leadership of the people toward better things.

Up to 1840, the limit of the present inquiry, the struggle for some effective method of educating the people of Indiana was still going on. But the effort was bearing fruit. Step by step the friends of the common school made their advance. Every device of the enemies of popular education was met, seen, and conquered. The young State university, like the majority of State institutions, beat up against a teasing wind of opposition. But, in a warfare like this, protracted through half a century and including two or three generations of children, an American people learns what is never forgotten. The result of this hard-fought conflict was that in no State of the Union has the great lesson been better learned. The present organization of the public school system of Indiana, through all its departments, will be found to contain several unique features, decidedly in advance of the older States. It is especially strong where Ohio is weak—in the organization of an effective system of country district schools, in the county supervision, and in the institutions and agencies for the instruction of teachers. For the details of this deeply interesting period we refer again to the circular of information of the National Bureau of Education, prepared by Professor Woodburn, to whose exhaustive and philosophic review of the entire history of education in Indiana we are largely indebted.

ILLINOIS.

The history of the common school in the State of Illinois falls largely outside and beyond the limits of this portion of our essay—the first half century of the Republic, 1790–1840. At this latter date, 1840, a historian declares, "Illinois was no

more a wilderness." Discovered and partially explored by Marquette, La Salle, Hennepin, and Joliet, in the later quarter of the seventeenth century, the new territory along the borders of the Mississippi became, first the missionary and afterwards the trading ground of scattering emigrants from the Canadas on the north, and later from Louisiana on the south. Kaskaskia and Catokia were the first of these settlements, followed by Peoria and Fort Chartres. But all finally gravitated to Kaskaskia, which became the rural metropolis of this little Creole paradise.

Gossipy old Governor Reynolds, the Froissart of the Northwest, dilates on the ideal condition of this early French community until the relentless English, fifty years later, 1735, began to stir up the Chickasaw Indians to antagonize the French, who claimed possession of the entire region between Quebec and New Orleans. We are told by him of the "innocence, morality, and honesty" of this little colony in the far-off wilderness on the shore of the Father of Waters that such a people as they "need no government;" and that there was neither government nor court in the territory until, by the treaty of Paris in 1763, the Northwest Territory became a portion of the British possessions in America with headquarters in Quebec. At this time there were 3,000 people, almost exclusively French, in Illinois. Two-thirds of these at once abandoned the country and the remainder melted away, as was probable a people with neither court, government, wealth, nor education would do on collision with the stalwart race that from the group of little stormy islands in the North Atlantic seas weaves its web of commerce, constitutional government, education, and compact society around the world.

But the "seamy side" of this Creole millennium appears in the light cast upon it by the zealous and devoted Catholic Jesuit priesthood that stood for all that government implies for this people during the half century of French occupation in the Northwest. The educational ideal of this fraternity, as far as related to this colony, was the conversion of the Indians to Christianity. But although a portion of the common people cooperated with them by marrying the Indian women and although the colony generally managed to keep the peace with the "noble savage," yet one of the most zealous missionaries writes: "Our life is spent in rambling through thick woods, in climbing over mountains, in paddling the canoe across lakes and rivers, to catch a poor savage, who flies from us and whom we can tame neither by teaching nor caresses."

Father Reynolds tells us that these happy settlers "had use for neither knowledge nor wealth and therefore possessed not much of either." But they had, unfortunately, the usual supply of the natural instinct of laziness and at once took to negro slavery with a relish. In 1719 a French adventurer, acting under the auspices of the "Company of the West," established in Paris in 1717 as a result of the grand boom of John Law, brought to the Illinois territory a colony of 200 French mechanics and 500 negro slaves bought in the West India Islands. The Jesuits established "a college" in Kaskaskia in 1721, which does not seem to have greatly disturbed the stolid ignorance of the common people. The poetic sentimentalism that fashions an ideal community out of such a condition of affairs is rudely shattered by what came from half a century of this experiment on the banks of the Mississippi. Apart from the general arrest of the valuable emigration of a more vigorous race, this beginning of "free and easy" bequeathed to Illinois another half century of conflict over the institution of slavery almost as intense and bitter as the subsequent civil war in which the father of the new republic, Abraham Lincoln, was called from this same region to govern, suffer, and die in behalf of the Union.

The establishment of slavery on "the American bottoms" and on the lowlands of the southern portion of the territory brought thither an emigration, largely of the least forcible and intelligent of the southern people, nonslaveholding at home, but moved with a desire to become slaveholders on the new soil. From the day of the organization of the Territory of Indiana, which included Illinois, in 1800, till the final vote of the people in 1823 when the question of a convention to place a

proslavery clause in the new constitution of the State was voted down, after a turbulent campaign of two years and by only 1,800 majority, the Territory and State paid dearly for its half century's experience of ignorance and superstition.

As in the history of a family left to come up in the "natural" way of no government and the indulgence of all the unregulated whims of childhood, so a state pays heavily for an early "outing" of the ignorance, superstition, shiftlessness, vulgarity, and vice, the constituents of that illiteracy which is a poison in the blood of an American colony. It is almost incredible that it can be said of the third State in the Union in population and the seat of the wonderful metropolis of the Northwest that for the first one hundred years after its settlement it "had no schools." Of course, there was, meanwhile, as always in any country out of barbarism, an irregular habit of teaching by the clergy and educated people that composed the governing class. But with this exception the educational history of Illinois dates from its incorporation in the Territory of Indiana, set off from Ohio in 1800.

The British occupation in 1763 was followed by the terrible Indian war which is the theme of the earliest volume of the historical series of Francis Parkman, *The Conspiracy of Pontiac*. The entire northern region of the Northwest Territory was overrun, and 20,000 emigrating Virginians pushed back over the border. For thirty years, through the Revolutionary epoch until 1795, the history of the Northwest is little more than a record of the bloodiest series of Indian wars on the continent. There could be little space for education, especially in any shape like the American common school, to develop amid such a condition of affairs.

It is the opinion of some of the northwestern historians that had George Rogers Clark, who certainly displayed a marvellous genius in frontier warfare, been vigorously supported by Virginia or the Continental Congress he could have accomplished the conquest of the Canadas from the rear, which had failed in the assault at the front door with the defeat of the expedition of General Montgomery. However this may have been, it was not till the overthrow of the British influence at the battle of the Thames, in 1815, that England really let go her iron grip on what is now the most prosperous division of these five great Commonwealths.

Illinois was set off from the Territory of Indiana in 1809 and admitted as a State into the Union in 1818, with an area of 56,000 square miles and a population of 55,000. We are favored with a list of several early schoolmasters whose heads rose above their weaker brethren during the early days of Territorial life. John Doyle taught a school at Kaskaskia in 1778. The "first American schoolmaster" is reported to have been John Seely, in 1783. These early pedagogues, as in the Central and Southern States, were largely a wandering tribe from foreign parts. One "Halfpenny," an enterprising Irishman, is spoken of as "schoolmaster in general of Illinois, having taught all the children that were educated about this period." Jacob Clarke figures as the pioneer instructor in the higher branches. As in early New England, the education of the day did not bar out the approach of superstition, for as late as 1790 the Illinois Territory had its craze on witchcraft, or hoodooism, in which several unfortunate negroes were sacrificed.

In 1800 "schools were scarce," the tide of emigration from the least intelligent side of the South and Southwest not furnishing an encouraging field for the schoolmaster. As late as 1814 Bibles and schoolbooks were only to be obtained from the educational centers of the East. But, although immigration flowed in from the date of the separation of the Territory of Ohio, in 1800, and especially from the establishment of its own Territorial status, in 1809, with a Maryland governor, the second war with Great Britain, lasting until 1815, held the attention of the people to the exclusion of higher interests. The close of this war also brought in a blessed era of peace with the Indians, only disturbed by the brief episode of the Black Hawk war later on.

About this time the story of the youth of John Reynolds, afterwards governor and Senator in Congress from Illinois, and one of the most picturesque of the numerous fathers of this new country, comes in. The son of an Irish family, and a

good hater of "perfidious Albion," he drifted from the East to this new land of promise. In his paternal home, one of the best in the neighborhood, but without shingles or glass windows, at 15 he felt the stirring of a mighty desire for the knowledge which is power. On horseback, by a journey of 500 miles through a wilderness, he sought the new college of Tennessee, at Knoxville, where he appeared clad in homespun and wearing a cap of fox skin. He studied the Latin and mathematical course of the period and, like so many boys of the old time, fell back upon his mother's home, broken in health, only to "endure unto the end and be saved." It is not strange that such a man, on becoming governor of Illinois in 1830, should insist that the income of the school lands, long practically useless, should be appropriated for the children then on the ground. The usual disorder of the old frontier life seems before this to have neutralized it. Lynch law is said to have been first known by that name in Illinois in 1805. Negro slavery, under the French holding, still held on until abolished by a decision of the courts in 1845.

The constitution of the new State of Illinois, admitted to the Union in 1818, accepted the conditions imposed by Congress that the sixteenth section of each township should be sacredly preserved for the education of the whole people, and that two entire townships should be held for the establishment of a seminary and university. The first governor of Illinois was Ninian Edwards, who, thirty years later, in his old age, became the first State superintendent of education.

The city of Upper Alton led the new State in the establishment of common schools by donating 100 town lots—half "for the support of the gospel" and half for public schools—and by imposing a tax on the remainder of the real estate. But there was no general attempt to establish a common-school system until 1825.

The first school law of Illinois, like most similar statutes, is ushered in with a very ambitious prologue. This law was only a permissive act, whereby schools could be opened in all the counties of the State for all white children between 5 and 20. The voters of the county were permitted to establish school districts, elect school officers, and impose a tax of one-half mill per 100 on the valuation for the support of education. The State board itself was thus empowered to pay \$2 of every \$100 raised by taxation for roads and schools, five-sixths for the latter use. The avails of the school lands were to be given only to such communities as complied with these conditions.

But this law failed of general effect from the old weakness of being a permissive act. A majority of the people of the State had not yet been educated into the idea of taxation for "schooling other people's children." There was but a partial response, and a reaction which sent to the statehouse a legislature that, four years later, repealed the clause concerning State aid and forbade the taxing of any man for school purpose unless by his own consent in writing. This action, which virtually made a system of common schools in Illinois impossible, carries us to 1830.

For the next twenty years the State worried on through that thicket of legislation by which a half-hearted Commonwealth pretends to satisfy the demands of a restless educational agitation without committing itself to any established policy of universal education. But meanwhile a rising power was being evolved in the denominational colleges and seminaries established especially in the more intelligent counties, like Edwards, settled by a colony of English people, by whose vote, it is claimed, the anti-slavery majority in the contest of 1823 was obtained. In 1818 Dr. John Murray, a celebrated Baptist missionary from Connecticut, established what became a theological seminary. The same work was done by Peter Cartwright for the Methodist brotherhood in 1828. Illinois College was set up by the Congregational denomination in 1832, with one of the most vigorous of the great Beecher brotherhood, Edward Beecher, as president. The Episcopal, Catholic, Presbyterian, and other religious bodies followed the example, and by 1840 the State, "no longer a wilderness," was reasonably supplied with the usual style of academic and collegiate seminaries, chiefly under ecclesiastical government.

It was largely owing to the heroic efforts of the presidents and faculties of some of these institutions that "the good fight" for an effective system of common schools was pushed to a victory in 1854. The friends of universal education were now reinforced by the immigration from the Eastern States, now at high tide of the great wave of educational progress setting from New England even to the farthest border of the new West. The Ladies' Association for the Education of Girls, formed in 1833; the Illinois Institute of Education in 1835; the State Association of Educators, in 1853, with other similar arrangements of the friends of the common school, were a powerful stimulant. Especially was the good work pushed on by an important convention held in 1844, at Peoria, which addressed a memorial to the legislature demanding the establishment of a State superintendency of education and the imposing of a general school tax. This was followed by a movement of inquiry from the legislature, to which only 59 of 97 counties replied with unsatisfactory information of the state of affairs. It was found, in 1850, that the State had 2,640 public schools with 132,000 pupils in attendance; the number of schools having doubled and the attendance increased fourfold in the ten years since 1840. At this time the State fund had increased to \$1,000,000. By 1854 this movement had come to a head in the establishment of a State superintendency of education. Ninian Edwards was the first occupant of the post, and his elaborate first report was foremost in a procession of able official documents which record the stages of progress of the common school in Illinois up to the present year.

With the consideration of the educational history of the three northwestern Commonwealths first admitted to the Union (Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois), we reach the close of what may be called the era of conflict over the establishment of the American common school through the vast area now occupied by the twenty States which, at present, aspire to the domination of the republic. The emigration of the people of the United States westward where "the course of empire takes its way" has been largely on parallels of latitude and the social, educational, and political status of the northern and central West was for many years largely determined by this fact. A line projected from the southern boundary of Connecticut to the Mississippi River includes, on its northern boundary, the entire State of New York, with the exception of the city; a portion of northern Pennsylvania, the northern section of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, and the entire States of Michigan and Wisconsin. Along this parallel, with the exception of the original settlement of Ohio, has flowed the tide of emigration from New England.

Previous to the Revolution the enterprising farmers of Yankeeland "had no call" to invade the domain of the patroons and their Dutch colonies, who with an increasing element from Great Britain and the Continent, were in possession of the valley of the Hudson and Mohawk rivers as far as Utica, where the mighty western wilderness set in. A sprinkling of New England people in this region, with a larger number on Long Island and the towns about the harbor of New York, the colony of Connecticut people in the valley of Wyoming, Pennsylvania, for which the Western Reserve in northern Ohio was afterwards exchanged; the unique settlement of Massachusetts emigrants in Liberty County, Ga., with scattering merchants and adventurers down the southern Atlantic coast, were the overture to the grand march of this New England army of occupation which has so indelibly impressed itself on the entire region between central New York and the Mississippi River.

If there were any doubt where the American common school had its origin and where it became an undestructible factor in the civilization of the State, that doubt would be dispelled by its history north and south of the parallel of latitude already described. Even so notable an illustration as the State of New York is a case in point. The common school only obtained a solid foothold here when the settlement of western and northern New York brought to bear the public opinion of that portion of the State which reflected the educational ideas of New England. The city of New York, on the southern side of the Connecticut parallel, was still in the hands

of "The Public School Society," a private corporation; and almost the entire valley of the Hudson, including the city of Albany, in the rudimentary stages of the common school, when western New York, from Oneida County on to the lakes, was alive with the new educational impulse. Outside the movement by the Connecticut colony in the valley of Wyoming, there was no considerable interest in behalf of popular education in Pennsylvania till the beginning of the second third of the present century. The history of the protracted conflict for the introduction of the people's school into southern Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, notwithstanding the bounty of the nation in the bestowal of immense land grants, involved with the contest to make each of these new States an appendage to the slaveholding section of the Union, has already been noticed.

But it is a significant fact that the new Northwest was saved from this fate by the wise and patriotic leadership of three Virginia statesmen. Thomas Jefferson first introduced the prohibitory clause against slavery in his original bill for the organization of the Northwestern Territory. Without the aid of a committee with a southern majority, Manasseh Cutler would have been powerless in his campaign in behalf of the ordinance of 1787. John Randolph, at a subsequent period, through his report in Congress, secured the rejection of the petition of the Territory of Indiana for the establishment of negro slavery. Governor Coles, of Illinois, was the prime factor in the final dedication of that State to freedom. But all these States were at first settled by a majority from the central and southern portion of the country, where the common school had no existence, save in the aspirations and devoted efforts of a group of their most enlightened statesmen and educators. The result was that, for an entire generation after the settlement of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, all these States, now so prominent in their devotion to popular education, were in the throes of a conflict which, with other causes, greatly hindered the beginnings of the common school and left the State university at the close of the period now under consideration little more than a country college, striving against rival denominational institutions which, for many years, prevented its ascendancy.

MICHIGAN.

It is sometimes a great advantage to a State as well as to a child to have been born late in the history of a nation or a race. It was in many ways a prodigious advantage to the States of Michigan and Wisconsin that their educational history practically began at the close of this period of conflict between the Western people and the sects and classes which stood between them and the attainment of universal education. Although Michigan was discovered as early as 1609 and settled in the inefficient French missionary and trading style in 1668, Detroit, the umbilical cord that bound the civilization of this territory to the United States, was not occupied till 1701. There was a good deal to interest the antiquarian, the novelist, and the student of race peculiarities in the hundred years of French occupation of the territory until the year 1763, at the close of the French and Indian war, when Great Britain became the mistress of the colonies and at the same time of the Northwest. But, despite the persistent efforts of the Catholic priesthood for the general uplift of the French and the conversion of the Indian population, the educational history of Michigan was a blank during this entire period.

A shrewd observer of this time remarks that "an Indian would be baptized a hundred times a day for a hundred dinners," and that "the only good missionaries do is to baptize children and old people who die." But this hard-working and self-sacrificing class, of which Father Richard was a noble example, did what their English and American successors never could accomplish. They kept the peace between the savages and the colonists and made this period of the early life of the Northwest the only approach to an idyllic state of anything in the record of the white occupation of the country beyond the Alleghanies. But the most philosophical historian of Michigan remarks: "Until the occupation by the British in 1760 there was not a sail on the lakes nor a printing press in New France."

Little more was achieved for the education of the people during the British occupation, 1760-1796, when, as the result of Jay's treaty, the American flag was first displayed in Detroit. In 1805 the Territory became a portion of Indiana by separation from Ohio and in 1802 Detroit became a town. But, even then, Michigan was little more than a settlement of some 4,000 white people, chiefly French, on the outward margin of a vast unknown wilderness along the borders of the Great Lakes, chiefly interested in the fur trade, with but 400 farms. Until 1812, the agricultural interests of this magnificent realm were in abeyance. It was supposed that the interior was an uninhabitable area of swamp lands and the little colony relied on Ohio, hundreds of miles away, across a perilous region of forest and lake shore, for its regular supplies. Almost immediately on the American occupation came a new peril from the ferocious Indian wars which for fifty years desolated the Southwest and Northwest, followed by the second war with Great Britain in 1812. It was not till the victory of Perry on the lakes and the defeat of Proctor and the most important Indian ally of the British, Tecumseh, at the battle of the Thames in 1813, that the Territory had a breathing spell from the buffetings of its stormy childhood.

Then, under the leadership of its great Territorial governor, Lewis Cass, of New Hampshire, did the infant colony rise slowly upon its feet and begin to "run the race" for empire. Still, in 1820 there were but 10,000 people in Michigan, the easy-going French in the majority. But, with the completion of the Erie Canal in 1825, began the hegira from New England, where the school boys were singing:

Come, all ye Yankee farmers who wish to change your lot,
Who've spunk enough to travel beyond your native spot,
And leave behind the village where pa and ma do stay
Come follow me and settle in Michigan.

In 1830 preemption rights to the public lands were first granted. In 1825 there were seven steamboats on Lake Erie, and a daily line of steamers from Detroit to Buffalo in 1830. At this date the population had increased to 32,000 and Governor Cass, who had led the people, was called to Washington as a member of the Cabinet of President Andrew Jackson.

From this time on the population of the new Territory was drawn almost entirely from New England or western New York and northern Ohio, which were largely an extension of "Yankee land." In 1832 there were 50,000 and in 1834 80,000 people in Michigan. The Territory was separated from Wisconsin in 1818 and admitted as a State into the Union in 1837.

Then came in the most formidable of the diseases characteristic of a new American State, the inflation of values; a wild era of speculation and financial air-castle building, with the inevitable reaction that follows alike the distemper of youthful "big head" and a young community inflated with a sense of its own prosperity and half insane with a boundless expectation of wealth and power. The real history of the common school in Michigan does not begin until ten years later, when the new country planted itself firmly on the idea of building up the American system of universal education in a way even more complete than had yet been achieved by any of the twenty-five preceding States of the Union.

The educational history of Michigan thus falls chiefly within that period of school history beginning with the great revival of the common school in New England in 1830-1840, under the leadership of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and the group of remarkable men and women who caught the inspiration which, like the beacon in the old Scotch Highlands, smote the summit minds of the nation from the north-eastern Atlantic coast to the far-off Mississippi and flashed a light downward to the Gulf. The leadership of public education in Michigan, from the first until a recent date, was more largely from the region east of the Hudson than elsewhere. Crary and Pierce, to whom the Territory owed its early movement in the organization of the common school, were both from this quarter. The successive presidents

of the University of Michigan, Tappan, Frieze, Haven, and Angell, represent eastern New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island.

During the period of early French and English occupation something was done by the Jesuits and the priesthood, especially by Father Richard, to establish primary and secondary schools. His attempt to obtain from the legislature the endowment of his system was not successful. The usual attempts were made, before and during the war of the Revolution, to establish private English schools, and the advent of the New England people was signalized by the push of the different religious bodies to inaugurate the regulation system of denominational academies and colleges. Before 1850 several of these foundations were laid which, in time, became flourishing and useful institutions of learning. But, for some reason probably connected with the early trials of the country from war and financial embarrassment, all these movements were anticipated by the activity of the public school, broadened to establish a system of public education similar to the attempt in New York and Georgia, in which a grand university organization was made to include the entire arrangement for schooling the whole population.

In 1817 the legislature passed "An act to establish the Catholepistemiad, or University of Michigan," and an attempt was made in Detroit, a building erected, and a small school of the elementary and secondary grade established. The plan included a central university and the establishment of local schools of all grades in a complete system. The leading central school was to be under an unsectarian influence, the leaders of the different churches being interested in the administration, and the use of the Bible being directed for moral instruction. It was a happy stroke of educational policy that identified the first real attempt to educate the people of Michigan with that uniformity of the entire system of popular instruction that has not yet been reached in any State east of the Alleghanies. As the first logical outcome of the New England common school was the cooperation of all sections in placing the educational clause in the ordinance of 1787, so the second and final step was taken when this grotesque Catholepistemiad, the University of Michigan, was held to include all that a great State could achieve for the schooling of its entire population.

In 1821 this motley group of Latinized pedantry slowly evolved into plain English as the beginning of a State university. The State was empowered to establish colleges, academies, and schools tributary to the University of Michigan. Religious tests in public education were, once for all, abolished. But it was not till 1829 that the general school laws were revised, a department of education established, and a superintendency of common schools recommended. The result was a three-months' annual common school, still incumbered by a rate bill, only to be remitted to the children of the poor. But even then, according to our own experience in our student days at a period a dozen years later, the wages of teachers were on a par with those of the present negro schoolmasters and mistresses in Mississippi, \$6 to \$8 per month for women and \$12 to \$20 for men. The territorial council granted charters for a few private and denominational academies.

The leader of the common-school movement of Michigan was John D. Pierce, whose service to the State was as valuable as that of Horace Mann to Massachusetts, or Henry Barnard to Rhode Island and Connecticut. A missionary, sent from the East and a graduate of Brown University, Rhode Island, he saw at once the great necessity and opportunity of the new land in which his lot was cast, and where he gave up his beloved and accomplished wife to early death.

In 1835 a convention, which planned the admission of Michigan to the Union, placed in the first constitution of the State a provision for a three months' school and the establishment of the university. This provision was the united work of General Crary and Mr. Pierce. Crary was an Eastern man who had acquainted himself, like the educators of the Eastern States, with the early educational system of Prussia and the report of Victor Cousin of France. It was to his wise and farseeing

policy that the school lands of the new State were rescued from the wasteful management of the townships and intrusted to the permanent charge of the State. It is owing to this that the 1,000,000 acres of common school and 46,000 acres of university lands bequeathed to the State have been so wisely managed as to inaugurate a new policy in this respect for the entire Northwest.

The constitutional provision of 1835 reads as follows:

ARTICLE X.—*Education.*

SEC. 1. The governor shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the legislature, in joint vote, shall appoint a superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for two years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law.

The legislature shall encourage by all suitable means the promotion of intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to this State, for the support of schools, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, shall be and remain a perpetual fund; the interest of which, together with the rents of all such unsold lands, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of schools throughout the State.

The legislature shall provide for a system of common schools, by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each school district at least three months in every year; and every school district neglecting to keep up and support such a school may be deprived of its equal proportion of the interest of the public fund.

As soon as the circumstances of the State will permit, the legislature shall provide for the establishment of libraries; one at least in each township; and the money which shall be paid by persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines assessed in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws, shall be exclusively applied for the support of said libraries.

The legislature shall take measures for the protection, improvement, or other disposition of such lands as have been, or may hereafter be, reserved or granted by the United States to this State for the support of a university; and the funds accruing from the rents or sales of such lands, or from any other source for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund for the support of said university, with such branches as the public convenience may hereafter demand for the promotion of literature, the arts and sciences, and as may be authorized by the terms of such grant; and it shall be the duty of the legislature, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of said university.

This action was followed by the appointment of Mr. Pierce as superintendent of public instruction in 1836, on the admission of Michigan as the thirteenth new and the twenty-sixth State in the Union. For five years the new Commonwealth enjoyed the great advantage of having this wise and enthusiastic leader of education in the foremost official position in the Commonwealth. His educational ideas were largely influenced by his careful inspection of all that was being done in the East, and by his friendship for the great leaders of the "revival season" of 1830 to 1860. The organization of the university that took place in 1852 was a happy outcome of the experience of all the great collegiate institutions that have come up, under different auspices, in the older portions of the country.

By 1840 the educational system of Michigan may be said to have been well begun, although it was yet a full decade before it was in fair operation. At this time there were in the State more than 200,000 people, and the great agricultural and mining industries were getting well on their feet.

With this brief record of the earlier years of public education in Michigan, the first chapter of the story of the common school in the Northwest is virtually closed. Until the end of the first half century of the Republic in 1840, the States of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois had been, as Territories and Commonwealths, for almost this entire period enjoying the benefit of national aid to education from the munificent gift of public lands for the common and university schooling of their entire youthful population. Yet in all these States the progress from the old-time, scattered, inefficient, and almost hopeless private, church, and corporate system prevailing in the Central and Southern States from which a majority of their early emigration was drawn, had been slow and discouraging to the friends of universal education. But, by the year 1840, these States had made their way educationally "out of the woods,"

and were reasonably sure of a permanent success in the great enterprise of educating their own people. But more than one decade was to pass before either of them came in sight of their splendid achievements in popular education during the past quarter of a century.

The State of Michigan alone was an exception to this record because of the delay of its final settlement until the earlier conflict of the organization of the north-western country had passed by. Being chiefly settled by colonists from New England, western New York, and northern Ohio, who brought with them their favorite idea of popular education and the actual common school of the earlier years; being also greatly favored by the first continuous line of transportation between the Northeast and the Northwest through the Erie Canal, and the introduction of steam navigation on the Great Lakes, Michigan was able to begin at the point where its older and more southerly neighbors had left off. There was never in this State any real struggle for the establishment of the common school such as we have recorded in its three neighbors, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Here, first, the wise policy of an effective correlation of all departments of public instruction was introduced and carried out with a vigor and public spirit that has placed Michigan high up on the roll of American States. Although, notably in Massachusetts and Virginia, and in less degree in New York and some of the later sixteen Commonwealths, State aid had been obtained for the earlier colleges; and, probably, the intention of the founders of Harvard was that it should become a State institution; and in the five new States beyond the Alleghanies a fair beginning had been made in the direction of establishing a State university founded on the land grant of Congress; yet in Michigan this policy was most fully apprehended and, from the first, carried out in an intelligent and successful manner. As a result, the University of Michigan now ranks all the State universities and maintains an enviable companionship with the most celebrated of the original foundations of the East; being in some ways the rival of them all and, in others, a model for the imitation of all establishments for the free higher education at the cost of the Commonwealth.

WISCONSIN.

The State of Wisconsin, last of this illustrious group of States organized out of the original Northwest, was, in succession, a portion of the Territories of Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan. The early history of its occupation by the French missionaries and traders from Canada, and the thrilling story of its Indian wars is every way as romantic and suggestive as of either of its neighbors. But in all this record there is little to interest the student of the American common school. No such idea as is contained in this title ever seems to have entered into the head of the benevolent "Fathers," who, through almost incredible toils, perils, and sacrifices, often unto death, for more than a century, virtually held the spiritual, social, and, in large measure, the industrial and civic affairs of this immense region under their control. Many of these were men of more than ordinary culture, and all of large native endowment for the work in which they were engaged. In some degree they provided for the schooling of the small class of superior families that were content to abide in the wilderness; and they gave to the children and youth of the "common people," and even to the Indians, the benefit of the regulation church catechizing, in some cases with the addition of the most elementary instruction in letters. But in neither the original civil nor educational government of the French provinces in the Canadas or Louisiana was there any real intention or practice of educating the masses of the people up to the self-respecting and self-helping conditions of their neighbors, the British provinces along the southern border.

The actual settlement of Wisconsin was delayed even beyond that of Michigan, of which it was, up to 1836, the "wilderness" portion. In 1818 the two counties of Brown and Crawford included its entire area of 54,450 square miles. In 1823 the Territory was first made a separate judicial district. In 1834 there were less than

5,000 people within its borders. Milwaukee was founded in 1835 and in this year the Territory sent its first delegate, George W. Jones, to Congress, and assumed its proper condition of separate Territorial existence in 1836. In 1836 the first Territorial legislature held its session, and in that year the first public school was opened, taught by Mr. West in Milwaukee. In 1838 the legislature took up its residence in the beautiful capital city of Madison, and in 1841 J. D. Doty was appointed governor. In 1846 the people voted on the decisive change to Statehood, and in 1848 Wisconsin was admitted to the Union—seventeenth of the new and thirtieth of the entire group of American Commonwealths. There were but 10,000 people in the Territory in 1836; but twelve years later, on its admission to the Union, there were 210,000.

The beginning of the common school in Wisconsin, in 1836, was made under the Michigan Territorial law. In 1836 the State University was nominally established by the dedication of two townships of Government lands, 46,000 acres, as its endowment, and the choice of Madison as its seat. Its original organization followed that of Michigan, and included the impracticable New York and Georgia scheme of making the university the working hand, instead of the crown, of the entire public school system; including, also, the establishment of subordinate schools and a board of examiners for them. At the beginning, apparently without serious debate, the public school system was rescued from all ecclesiastical entanglements by a declaration of absolute religious freedom in its administration.

In the first constitution of the State we read:

ARTICLE X.—*Education.*

SEC. 1. The supervision of public instruction shall be vested in a State superintendent and such other officers as the legislature shall direct. The State superintendent shall be chosen by the qualified electors of the State, in such manner as the legislature shall provide; his powers, duties, and compensation shall be prescribed by law: *Provided*, That his compensation shall not exceed the sum of twelve hundred dollars annually.

SEC. 2. The proceeds of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to the State for educational purposes (except the lands heretofore granted for the purposes of a university), and all moneys and the clear proceeds of all property that may accrue to the State by forfeiture or escheat, and all moneys which may be paid as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines collected in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws, and all moneys arising from any grant to the State where the purposes of such grant are not specified, and the five hundred thousand acres of land to which the State is entitled by the provisions of an act of Congress entitled "An act to appropriate the proceeds of the sales of the public lands and to grant preemption rights," approved the fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, and also the five per centum of the net proceeds of the public lands to which the State shall become entitled on her admission into the Union (if Congress shall consent to such appropriation of the two grants last mentioned), shall be set apart as a separate fund, to be called the school fund, the interest of which, and all other revenues derived from the school lands, shall be exclusively applied to the following objects, to wit:

1. To the support and maintenance of common schools in each school district and the purchase of suitable libraries and apparatus therefor.

2. The residue shall be appropriated to the support and maintenance of academies and normal schools and suitable libraries and apparatus therefor.

3. The legislature shall provide by law for the establishment of district schools, which shall be as nearly uniform as practicable; and such schools shall be free and without charge for tuition to all children between the ages of four and twenty years, and no sectarian instruction shall be allowed therein.

4. Each town and city shall be required to raise by tax, annually, for the support of common schools therein, a sum not less than one-half the amount received by such town or city, respectively, for school purposes from the income of the school fund.

5. Provision shall be made by law for the distribution of the income of the school fund among the several towns and cities of the State, for the support of common schools therein, in some just proportion to the number of children and youth resident therein between the ages of four and twenty years, and no appropriation shall be made from the school fund to any city or town for the year in which said city or town shall fail to raise such tax, nor to any school district for the year in which a school shall not be maintained for at least three months.

6. Provision shall be made by law for the establishment of a State university at or near the seat of the State government, and for connecting with same, from time to time, such colleges, in different parts of the State, as the interests of education may require. The proceeds of all lands that have been or may hereafter be granted by the United States for the support of a university shall be and remain a perpetual fund, to be called the "university fund," the interest of which shall be appropriated to the use of a State university, and no sectarian instruction shall be allowed in said university.

7. The secretary of state, treasurer, and attorney-general shall constitute a board of commissioners for the sale of the school and university lands and for the investment of the funds arising therefrom. Any two of said commissioners shall be a quorum for the transaction of all business pertaining to the duties of their office.

8. Provision shall be made by law for the sale of all school and university lands after they shall have been appraised, and when any portion of such lands shall be sold, and the purchase money shall not be paid at the time of the sale, the commissioners shall take security by mortgage upon the land sold for the sum remaining unpaid, with seven per cent interest thereon, payable annually at the office of the treasurer. The commissioners shall be authorized to execute a good and sufficient conveyance to all purchasers of such lands, and to discharge any mortgages taken as security when the sum due thereon shall have been paid. The commissioners shall have power to withhold from sale any portion of said land when they shall deem it expedient, and shall invest all moneys arising from the sale of such lands, as well as all other university and school funds, in such manner as the legislature shall provide, and shall give such security for the faithful performance of their duties as may be required by law.

In 1850, at the second session of the State legislature, a complete system of public schools was established by law and a State superintendent of education appointed. The second report of Superintendent Root, in 1851, shows a phenomenal increase of interest during the first term of his administration. There were then 29 counties and 339 towns in the State; 1,800 entire and 700 partial school districts; 2,200 places where public school work was actually going on, with 68,000 children enrolled; 67 per cent of the school population in some sort of attendance five months in the year; men teachers receiving \$17 and women \$8 per month. There was \$173,000 invested in 1,223 schoolhouses. There were also 87 private schools in the State, in which 3,500 pupils were instructed. The State school fund at that early period of its development amounted to \$538,000, with an income of \$47,000, about half a dollar a year to each child. Ten per cent of the State fund was appropriated for school libraries. This was the first response of Wisconsin to the new departure of its earliest State legislature in abolishing all Territorial statutes and inaugurating a complete system of instruction for the Commonwealth.

With this splendid record of the fifth and last of the original Northwestern States admitted to the Union, we suspend the attractive task of telling the story of the great development of popular education in the Northwest.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL IN NEW ENGLAND FROM 1790 TO 1840.

By Rev. A. D. MAYO, M. A., LL. D.

In a speech in the British Parliament, on the "Government plan of education," in 1847, Thomas Babington Macaulay said: "Illustrious forever in history were the founders of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts; though their love of freedom of conscience was illimitable and indestructible, they could see nothing servile or degrading in the principle that the State should take upon itself the charge of the education of the people."

We have traced the New England idea of universal education from its incorporation in the earliest colonial law of 1642 till the formation of the constitution of the State of Massachusetts, in 1780, the first time the duty of the State to educate the whole people was placed in the written fundamental law of a Commonwealth. Beginning now with Massachusetts, we are to follow the working out of this original ideal through what may be called the period of conflict; for through the first half century of the Republic the great enterprise, so bravely inaugurated and persisted in for one hundred and fifty years by the foremost colonies of New England, of schooling the entire population by the aid of a people's government, found itself beset with new difficulties and somewhat arrested in its logical development. No study can be more instructive in the peculiar method by which a characteristic American State, by means direct and indirect, encounters, deals with, and finally overcomes a great public peril than the story of the American common school during this most critical period in its career. For it must be evident to every careful student of the national history that had this fundamental institution of the New England civilization gone down in the struggle, the final establishment of any satisfactory scheme of universal education for the whole people of the United States would have either been an impossibility or have suffered an "indefinite postponement."

The victory in the war for independence and the mighty effort of organizing the new nationality of the United States were not achieved without the reaction on society, inevitable from every supreme effort of human nature. One of the most important of these results was the final breaking up of the virtual unanimity of religious belief and ecclesiastical administration which, for almost two centuries, had held the New England people in a grip of iron, and was the central inspiration of all activities in church, state, education, and social life. Even before the breaking out of the war the indications of this great change were apparent. Indeed, after the first forty years in the Massachusetts colony, the attempt to found a government on a theocracy of the Old Testament pattern had been abandoned with the abolition of the religious test of the suffrage. There still remained a personal tax imposed on every citizen for the support of public worship; but in time this was modified by the permission to appropriate it according to the ecclesiastical convictions of the taxpayer. But this was not felt to be a hardship in a community as

completely of one mind in religious matters as has ever been seen in any intelligent portion of Christendom. It has already been explained how, because of this unanimity in theological belief and church polity, the "religious question," which beyond the Hudson River for generations prevented the establishment of any general system of public instruction, did not appear as an obstacle in the leading New England colonies. For, while, as a matter of course, there was a good deal of religious teaching in all the schools, it did not provoke dissent, and, below the organism of the ecclesiastical congregational polity, the people had their own way in all public affairs. Until the period now considered the schools were all essentially public, being to a greater or less extent supported by State or local aid and always dependent on the legislature for their final status.

But the prodigious agitation of the Revolutionary epoch, with the intimate mingling of the New England soldiery, the majority in the field, with the people of the other colonies, brought in a loosening of the bonds of religious uniformity and filled the land with dissent and contention in the most vital concerns of the public welfare. Already, half a century before the Revolution, Harvard College, the theological barometer of Massachusetts, had been shaken by frequent outbreaks of what were regarded by the extreme religious party as "unsettled and heretical views" in matters religious. The old severe type of student discipline, imported from the British schools, had been overthrown. The offensive discrimination in social standing in classing the students had been done away with. An important official of the university had been chosen from the laity. In every struggle between the more stringent and liberal elements in the election of president and members of the faculty the victory more and more inclined to the broad-church side. It was a striking fact that even in the days of complete outward unanimity of religious sentiment and in the relentless application of a severe creed even to the affairs of social life neither Harvard University nor the grammar schools that were tributary to it were bound by any theological test. It was the inevitable development of this ideal of the freedom of education that now for a time came in, and, by its sharp collisions with the principle of denominational control of schools, greatly embarrassed the entire system of public instruction in New England for half a century.

The first result of this movement was the dissent of a considerable branch of the New England people from the dominant church and the coming up of the Baptist, Methodist, and Independent organizations. The Revolutionary epoch left a great deposit of open and secret unbelief in any form of Christianity, which the intimate connection of the American people with France and the popular sympathy with the earlier phases of the French Revolution intensified. The extreme republican views of Thomas Jefferson and the rising party in public affairs that owed allegiance to him provoked a strong reaction in the New England States, and the Puritan clergy became, in large measure, his most decided opponents.

The first educational demonstration was the effort to present Yale College in Connecticut to the people as the theological rival of Harvard, and for several years this institution contained the larger number of students. As early as 1762 the attempt to establish a rival college in Massachusetts alarmed the friends of Harvard. But it was not till 1795 that the free school, supported by the legacy of Col. Ephraim Williams, who lost his life in the French war in 1755, appeared as a challenge to Harvard in Williams College, in the northwest corner of the State.

Within ten years the remarkable religious movement that was the origin of the American Foreign Missionary Society gave to this new college, on the far-off border of the State, a name and fame it has never lost. Later came the establishment of Amherst College, in the valley of the Connecticut, in the year 1818, developed also from an academy founded in that beautiful village as early as 1815. Both these new colleges, with Harvard, up to the year 1840 were to a greater or less extent the recipients of the State's bounty; and, while greatly extending the application of good culture to the people, were also powerful instrumentalities in the develop-

ment of the religious dissent that wrought at cross-purposes with the complete success of the people's common school.

For it must always be kept in mind that the Massachusetts policy of general education, afterwards developed into the idea of the American common school, included all grades of instruction. It began at the top, in the founding of Harvard College in 1637, by what was then a munificent endowment for a colony so small and straitened in the goods of this world. To all intents and purposes Harvard was as essentially a State university during the first century of its existence as any of the great schools called by this name later in the West. The legislature of the colony always claimed and exercised the right of changing its organization, to a considerable extent subsidized it, and, till a later period, the governor, lieutenant-governor, and a portion of the senate of the State were included in its board of overseers. The liberal arrangements and free spirit which, from the beginning, had characterized this in many respects most catholic of American universities kept it in close communication with the public grammar schools on which it depended for its student material. For many years the grammar and even the common district schools of the State were being taught by the clergy, students, and young graduates of the university and the colleges.

These "free schools," "grammar schools," "academies" were the second step made by the people of the colony toward a complete system of public instruction, already a sort of university extension "dispensed to the superior people." During the entire period before the Revolution they constituted the most influential department of the common school system. With few exceptions organized by a movement of the whole people, incorporated by the legislature, their boards of administration chosen by the people or appointed in their charter, to a considerable extent supported by public appropriations, State or local, these seminaries were the ancestors of the free high school which now in Massachusetts has obtained its highest development in the Union. Ninety per cent of the children of that State live in towns where a high school is located and all towns are empowered to support students in them—the only State in which the establishment of this class of schools is made compulsory by legal enactment.

In the year 1789 the somewhat languid organization of public instruction below the free grammar schools was strengthened by the act requiring every town of 100 families to maintain 1 school for six months, or 2 or more for terms that should together be equivalent to six months, in which should be taught orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, and "decent behavior." From this act dates the appearance of the "district school system" in New England, by which every town was divided into districts, to favor the attendance of the children. Towns of 200 families and upward were required to support a grammar school and teachers to obtain a certificate of good morals and reliable character. In 1800 the towns were empowered to call meetings of the people of their districts for the purpose of raising money to build and furnish schoolhouses, and in 1817 school districts were made corporations and empowered to hold property for educational purposes.

This organization of public instruction, by making the district within the town the unit of activity, was a natural outcome of the intensely independent character of the New England people, who reluctantly parted with the least fragment of local authority. It was also, in great measure, enforced upon the people by the necessities of the case; the population outside the villages living in a sparsely settled, rural country; the towns 6 miles square; rapid transit impossible from the borders over the lofty hills and through the dense forests, and during the winter greatly hindered by deep snows and the severity of the weather.

There was yet no educational State school fund, the earliest movement for this dating from 1834, and there has never been in Massachusetts any considerable State tax for education; up to a very late period all, save perhaps \$150,000, of the nearly \$10,000,000 expended on schools in the State being raised by local taxation, personal

gifts, or some form of cooperation. There can be little doubt that in the earlier stages of the development of the elementary department of public instruction the district arrangement was a powerful agency of success. It bound up the families of a little neighborhood district in a corporation, intensely interested in the most vital need of a community—the education of the children; made the district school the focus of public interest, even more than the sometimes distant church, and ground into the conviction of the people the all-important fact that the schools must be supported by their own ample and annual contributions. This is the first and most important condition of the success of any complete system of common schools, for, until the habit of local support is formed, there can be no security that the system of public education will have any but a variable income. The very slow growth of the public school in the new Northwest, and the present condition of the common school system of the Southern States, testify that this is the “previous question” which cuts off all others in the successful administration of this institution.

That the New England “district system” did at first accomplish this there can be no reasonable doubt. That, as the years went on, with the rapid development of village and city life, and the concentration of wealth in centers of industrial activity, serious disadvantages were developed which hindered the best results in the country district schools of New England, there can be as little doubt. The strong conservative instincts of the New England people still clustered about this, one of the most characteristic features of the old-time society. Even the fiery zeal of Horace Mann and his startling exposure of the disadvantages of the arrangement, especially after the drift of active young people from the rural districts caused by the rise of manufactures at home and the emigration to the West, could not prevail against this love of dealing at first hand with an interest so sacred as the schooling of the children. It was not till 1882 that the district system was finally abolished in Massachusetts and the town made the unit of school administration. In the remaining New England States this system held on till a later date, and it still obtains in Connecticut to the confessed injury of its educational interests.

The second colonial act for the furtherance of education, in 1647, had established a common-school system which was both compulsory on the people and free, as far as the elementary schools were concerned. This act required every town of 50 householders to support a school for all to learn to read and write; and every town of 100 families to establish a grammar school, where “youth may be fitted for the university.” It is affirmed that this is the first act of any State to establish a free public school, supported and supervised by the whole people. In 1683 all towns of 500 families were required to maintain 2 grammar schools and “two writing schools;” the latter corresponding to the present elementary schools, although they gave little more than the bare elements of knowledge. The provision in the constitution of the State adopted in 1780 seems to give a much wider latitude to the legal support of education. It includes “the university at Cambridge; public schools and grammar schools in towns; the interests of literature and the sciences and all seminaries of them; encouraging private societies and public institutions by rewards and immunities for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trade, manufactures, and a natural history of the country,” besides a generous measure of public supervision and encouragement of all the private and public virtues. This ideal of State oversight of the higher interests of the people was written by John Adams and stands in the constitution of the Commonwealth to-day, although by successive legislatures the sphere of governmental interference with the general mental and moral development of the people has been greatly limited. It was under the broad provisions of this fundamental law that the acts already referred to, of 1789, 1800, and 1817, were passed.

It is probable that, with the development of the district school system and the increasing expense of building houses and keeping alive a four-months school in the year, the ability of all save the few larger towns was not sufficient for the support of the old-time grammar school “to fit youth for the university.” At any rate this

clause of the school law seems to have fallen into desuetude as early as the beginning of the present century. In order to meet this growing necessity of the secondary education, the general court in 1797 acted on the report of a committee, of which Nathan Dane, already identified with the great ordinance of 1787, was chairman, in which the practice that had grown up of endowing academies by the gift of wild lands in Maine, then a part of Massachusetts, was raised to a definite policy and was continued for twenty-five years. At this time 7 academical schools, 4 in Maine and 3 in Massachusetts, had already been subsidized by gifts of a township of land to each. It was further provided that half a township of land should be given to several more of this class of schools that there might be an endowed academy for every 25,000 people in the Commonwealth. By this act the State reaffirmed its original policy of subsidizing the secondary as well as the higher education. These schools, first called academies by the dissenting religionists of England who were debarred from the use of the universities and great public schools by religious disabilities, were not essentially different from the free high and middle schools of Great Britain, although somewhat modified from their ancient exclusively classic character to meet the demand for the general education of all who desired to go beyond the district common school.

Besides these academics endowed by the State a large number came up by the action of the towns, chartered by the State and empowered to hold educational funds from \$5,000 to \$100,000; the majority not exceeding \$20,000, and yet purely local in their establishment, private, or denominational. In 1800 there were 14 of these incorporated academies, but the number rapidly increased until, in 1840, there were more than 50 in the State. The benefaction of Governor Hopkins, of Connecticut, at an earlier period, had given to New Haven and Hartford, Conn., and Hadley and Cambridge, Mass., a lift in this direction. Dummer Academy at Byfield, Newbury, was the oldest of these academical schools, established in 1763. In a report to the legislature in 1859 it is stated that "no academy endowed by a town or a State is a private school. Academies are all, to a certain extent, public schools, established as such upon a legal basis of public policy."

These schools were established with the fixed intention of extending the advantages of a superior education. They were all of local importance, enabling the youth of both sexes to extend their acquaintance with letters. Many of them were noted in their day, and, like the celebrated Phillips academies, are still among the best seminaries of the country. A succession of able and often admirable men presided over them, and the generation of famous public characters in New England during the first half of the present century was largely educated therein. In respect to the teaching of the classics, even in the early colonial days, the grammar schools were not inferior to the best in England. The student was required to read, write, and speak Latin, and be well informed in the Greek grammar in order to be admitted to Harvard, and both languages, with the Hebrew, were included in the college curriculum.

And not the least of the merits of the better academies was their social influence upon their pupils. They made the towns in which they were established the proper educational and cultivated social centers of the State. Here came the ambitious boys and girls from "the whole region round about," often at desperate sacrifice, to obtain the schooling necessary to enable them to teach and fill all honorable places in the community, as well as to fit themselves for college. The discipline was good, and the intercourse between the sexes generally a model of natural and virtuous conduct. The village in which the school was located was to its pupils a great, open household, where they came and went with the confidence and enjoyment of a generous hospitality. The churches were closely connected with them, and depended largely on their teachers and older pupils for aid in music and teaching in the Sunday school. None of them gave free tuition; but the expenses were not discouraging, the wages of a district school teacher for a term of three months at \$10 to \$20 a month being sufficient for all charges for a corresponding term. Many

students from the best families of New England were thus schooled in the intermediate time before the present elaborate organization of the common school. And, although the present high school of Massachusetts, to which every child has free access, is often a better school, especially in the breadth of its course of study and superior methods of instruction, yet there went forth from the old-time academy a peculiar and powerful influence to bind together the rising hope of the land, which no longer is enjoyed or even understood by the present favored generation.

But the people of Massachusetts were not satisfied even with this opportunity, and, in 1826, the law now in force was passed, compelling every town of 500 families to support a free English high school, and every town of 4,000 inhabitants a high school where pupils could be fitted for college. This has now become a permissive law for all the remaining towns in the State, with a provision that children in communities not supporting a high school may be educated at public expense in a neighboring town.

In 1826 all towns were required to elect a school committee, which exercised a restraint on the conduct of "the prudential committees" of the districts, also examined teachers, and in a general way supervised all the schools. This could be made an admirable system of supervision. The school committee of 3, or some number divisible by 3, elected in successive years, was generally composed of the clergymen and other leading citizens who, with small compensation, rendered valuable service to the people by a constant and affectionate oversight of the school children. The school districts after 1827 were empowered to hire their own teachers, but their power was limited by the examining board, consisting of the school committee of the town. Outside of this there was no supervision of the common schools. The county is a comparatively unimportant factor in the civil administration of New England and only in one State, Massachusetts, has a system been recently established of district supervision whereby several towns unite for this purpose. Boston did not recognize the need of a city superintendent until 1851, and few of the cities of New England followed her example till a considerably later period. The obstinate faith in the Yankee mind and heart that the people, by their direct representatives, themselves watched and supervised by everybody in town, were capable of managing their own educational affairs, had its good and evil side. It did build up a wondrous public sentiment and a remarkable capacity for dealing with the largest affairs of the country. It sent forth thousands of young men and women to all parts of the nation, competent to any demand of public responsibility. It kept alive the love for education, growing year by year, and to-day, under conditions so widely different, it holds up New England, on the extreme corner of the Union, to an excellence in educational matters not only confessed at home but well understood in all the great centers of good learning in christendom.

The city of Boston, from the first the head and front of New England culture, industrial enterprise, and philanthropic zeal, always had its own "notion" concerning public school matters. It was deeply concerned in the establishment and support of Harvard College in Cambridge, and for a century the great school of the city. The legislature that established the school sat in Boston and it was only an hour's walk from the old State House to College Green. At first Harvard was only a grammar school, and later a secondary school was set up by its side. The faculty were chiefly taken from the most distinguished classes of the city, and the Puritan preachers generally were educated there. For sixty-five years the graduates numbered only 8 a year; but out of its student population came a body of men that made a deep impression on the provincial life. Some of them were from England and returned to achieve high distinction in important positions. The ministers and teachers of New England for a century, and especially of Massachusetts, were largely drawn from this favored class. While the original endowment of £400 came from the colonial legislature, and the first private gift of importance from a young English gentleman, John Harvard, hardly domiciled in the province, the college, for more than half a century, was cherished in the heart of the people. The leading New England colonies

were assessed in private and public contributions for its support, and until the Revolution there was a steady wind of benefaction blowing across the ocean from Great Britain. But Boston was always at its right hand for material and spiritual aid. A marvelous and almost pathetic combination of gifts was all the time flowing in. Such was the early habit of giving for education that there can be no doubt that this city, for regular and systematic contributions to education, charity, science, and arts, is unsurpassed by any community anywhere.

The Boston Latin School, established about the same time, was from the first the pride of the city. A second school of the same type, afterwards set up, was abolished and the present institution is now one of the best known and highly esteemed schools of the higher secondary grade in the United States. Up to the period now in review, the schools of Boston were classed as "reading" and "writing;" the former proper academies, and the latter a meager arrangement, generally in session at the off hours of the regular school. The children, before the age of 7, were instructed entirely in private. The ability to read English was the condition of admittance to the grammar school. The girls were only permitted to attend the writing schools until 1789. Then Caleb Bingham opened a private school of a superior grade, which at once attracted a crowd of young women, and so prevailed with the fathers of the town that they "broke the record" of a century and a half and reconstructed the school system, giving the boys and girls alternate sessions in a double-headed grammar school course. This arrangement held on for forty years. Still the girls were allowed to attend but six months in a year, from April to October; though all this time, and long before, the common schools of the rural districts and villages were coeducational. The Latin school at this time taught only Latin, and its pupils were obliged to go to the grammar schools or to private schools taught by the regular teachers for what they could gather in English. At this time a school board of 12 members was established, taking the place of the "selectmen" of the town and volunteering assistance in the management of the schools; and among them are found the names of the most distinguished men of the city.

The Latin School dates from 1649; the grammar schools from 1684. In 1685 there were 4 grammar schools in the city. In 1812 a special school was established for colored children. In 1818 \$5,000 was appropriated for the schooling of children from 4 to 7 years of age, the beginning of public primary education in Boston. In 1821 the present English High School for boys was established; and in 1828 a similar school was opened for girls. But Boston was not yet enlightened on the "woman question" in education, and abandoned this school after a few years, granting in its place an extra two years in the grammar schools to the girls. In 1828, 10 schools, 1 in each primary district, were established as intermediate between the grammar and the primary schools.

The Boston "master," from the days of old Master Cheever down, was a mighty man in the land. He did not lose his importance as the years rolled on. One of the most strenuous of the many battles of Horace Mann was fought against a combination of these Boston masters who were dissatisfied with his upsetting policy; and not until 1851 did they bend their necks under the easy yoke and the light burden of the amiable régime of a Boston school superintendency, which has always been the mildest method by which a supervising man could persuade, coax, and, often by indirect policy, bring in the most important educational reforms.

It is a difficult, almost an impossible task, to determine the quality of the instruction in the schools of Massachusetts during this period. Beginning with Harvard University, it may be said in general that, while the fifty years between 1790 and 1840 were not the period of its greatest celebrity, compared with the present administration a day of small things, yet there was on several lines a steady advance, and at no time did this institution lose its original character as the foremost of American universities.

One cause of its apparent loss of ground during these years was the theological and ecclesiastical entanglement into which it was forced by the logic of its original

unsectarian foundation. In common with all the public grammar schools of the colony Harvard, in its original charter, set up no restraint in the direction of religious belief as concerning its student population. The fundamental idea of the college was that of an institution of learning, sworn to fidelity to the Christian religion, and consecrated to the training of young men for the Christian ministry. The first college seal which, after two changes, still remains the one authorized by the college record—"three open Bibles on the field of an heraldic shield with a syllable of 'veritas' upon each of them"—was significant at once of Christian discipleship and confidence in the power of truth. The sentences, "In Christi gloriam" and "Christo et ecclesiæ," marked the force of the Puritan influence near the beginning of the eighteenth century. But despite the pressure of a portion of the more zealous clergy and the almost complete occupation of all its positions of eminence by this class, Harvard at heart always seems to have been a layman's college, and in all her dealings with ecclesiastical affairs to have gravitated to the convictions of the foremost civic, literary, and educational leaders of the State.

At the period now spoken of, owing to the notable change in the theological complexion of many of the old Puritan churches, which, following the lead of Dr. Channing, were carried over to a position of extreme independency and a sympathy with what was known as the Unitarian belief, the body of overseers, drawn from public men and the clergymen of the six towns adjacent to Boston, became identified with what was regarded the new heresy; the clergy and laity representing churches with which many of those of the "Evangelical" persuasion would hold no "communion." This change for a generation threw the university almost entirely in charge of a management drawn largely from the membership of the fifty leading churches of the Unitarian faith in and around Boston. The theological school became the headquarters for the clerical supply of these churches, and the president and professors of Harvard, with few exceptions, were of similar type. This did not in the least change the theoretical attitude of the college, which remained open to the utmost freedom of thought with no spirit of persecution to opponents in the faith. As all but one of the remaining colleges of New England, now several in number, were directly connected with one of these great evangelical bodies, and all offered respectable opportunities to their students at smaller pecuniary cost than Harvard, it was not strange that its patronage did not rapidly increase, and that it fell somewhat under the imputation of being a Boston preserve—a sort of educational "chapel of ease" for the sons of wealthy families of city proclivities, moderately reinforced by a similar class from other States.

Another cause of this partial suspension of activity and influence was the habit, half a century ago confirmed in all American colleges, of raising clergymen or professional scholars to the presidency. For an academy or a small college of the denominational type this was a good enough policy, and many of the most eminent presidents and professors of the country have been drawn from the clerical ranks. But it is not often that the large financial and executive capacity and the knowledge of and broad cosmopolitan sympathy with the world now essential to maneuver a great collegiate school through the tempestuous seas of American life is found in connection with this profession. The presidents of Harvard during this half century were a body of admirable men, several of great scholarship and some on the way to distinguished public station. But it was evident that the college was still in a degree local in its sympathies, representing the spirit of the eastern New England religious, literary, and social class, and not sufficiently open to impressions from other parts of the Union. The growing alienation of the Southern States from the North, especially from New England, which was regarded as the head and front of the great political heresy of "abolitionism," also diverted from the college a considerable number of students from this quarter. The university was still in theory largely under the influence of the State; its board of overseers, the governor, lieutenant-governor, senate, and the State still claiming a sort of authority as a final court of appeal. But its real "steering committee" was, as now, the

corporation of Fellows, a body of 7 men, practically a close corporation where all important matters originated, and without whose consent nothing could be done.

But as far as concerned the discipline, the curriculum, methods of instruction, general spirit, and steady increase of educational force, this period was one of the first importance. During these years, apparently uneventful, the old Harvard was steadily renewing itself and laying the strong foundations on which could be erected the imposing superstructure of its present great prosperity and world-wide fame. More than 20 of the most important professorships and lectureships were either founded or fully endowed between 1790 and 1840. Several of these chairs were occupied at different times by men like Buckminster and Channing, Parker and Story, Pierce, Longfellow, Frisbie, Ticknor, Follen, and Sparks, while the latter, with Everett, Walker, and Felton, sat in the presidential chair. The type of instruction was not inferior, indeed confessedly superior, to anything then in vogue in the country. The course of study had been greatly enlarged. It was during this period that the first attempt was made to introduce the present elective system of study. In the year 1824 the old ironclad scheme of two centuries was first broken into, and under the influence of Prof. George Ticknor and Judge Story a new arrangement of studies was effected in 1825-1827. This movement continued with variable results until 1849, when the college fell back, and until 1886 Harvard went on in a course of study not dissimilar to that of the larger American colleges, although of somewhat broader scope and adorned by the eminent scholarship and literary power of some of its great professors.

Jared Sparks, Andrew Peabody, F. H. Hedge, James Walker, Charles Follen, Francis Bowen, Thomas Hill, and others, had a reputation far beyond university walls. In the theological department were found Norton, Palfrey, Francis, Noyes, Stearns, Abbot, Peabody, and the two Wares, and from this school went out a body of clergymen of the Unitarian faith who became largely identified with the support of education, philanthropy, and reform politics in all portions of the Union.

But perhaps the most evident change in Harvard during this period was the complete abolition of the old semimonastic type of discipline, in which it had writhed, as in an iron cage, for two centuries. The reading of the original body of "rules and regulations" under which, with slight modifications, the college went on for one hundred years, is like witnessing a sort of dumb show of human nature on the rack of a scheme of life that in aiming at spirituality and the supernatural is all the time hovering on the verge of a half-savage brutality. The result was that for more than a century the reputation of Harvard as a college for disorder of many kinds made it a byword and a warning to the country. It was only after a generation of this experience that the authorities of the institution learned that after all a college student is a man in the making, and that a boy, a mischievous or even a wicked boy, can be handled best along the lines of a Christian sympathy and confidence combined with the example of a faith which, even in learned pundits and doctors in spectacles, has not parted with humanity and common sense.

From a condition of affairs in which the members of the lower classes lived in a state of perpetual humiliation toward their superiors; when the solemn farce of trouncing a bad boy was opened and closed with prayer by the venerable president, himself the executioner; when a system of constant suspicion and tireless vigilance in spying out offenses was in full blast; when the relation between student and professor was, at best, a sort of "armed neutrality," to the present state, with the improved relations between the classes; the college gymnasium and "athletics" in which the bounding animal spirits of the young men can be duly exploded, and the perpetual stimulus of a course of study that by its variety, thoroughness, and adaptation to all grades of capacity and taste, appeals to all but invincible dullness or incurable levity or vice, is one of the most striking proofs of the growth of a wise and Christian educational theory and practice during the lifetime of one set of college men. The two rival colleges, Williams and Amherst, coming up at a later date, were never encumbered with this absurd mechanism of instruction and discipline.

Under the admirable presidency of Mark Hopkins and Dr. Humphrey, sustained by a remarkable body of scholarly and devoted professors, these schools grew steadily in favor with the New England people. Within the past twenty years they have shared in the prodigious expansion of endowment and patronage enjoyed by all the New England colleges, and at present are not excelled by any similar institutions of the higher education in the country.

It is unnecessary to add to what has already been said respecting the change from the old-time system of public grammar schools to the academical régime of this period. In one respect it was not an advantage; for while, as late as 1840, probably not a dozen towns in Massachusetts were supporting a free high school of special merit, there was space for all that the 50 or more academies and private seminaries in the Commonwealth could accomplish. Some of these during these years achieved a commanding reputation, and to-day, for a thorough and extended course of study, rank with many colleges of other States. A few had little cause for existence and "died a natural death." But the majority, while sharing the defects of the prevailing secondary educational methods and generally short in teaching force, were a real opportunity to the youth of the adjoining regions. Without them it would have been impossible that the work of the secondary education could have been carried on. While, doubtless, in some ways a barrier to the more rapid advancement of the common school, they were not often found in public opposition to it. The teachers of the common schools for fifty years found in them the only competent instruction for their work, a large proportion of their students being engaged during the winter and midsummer months in the district and village schools of their respective neighborhoods. Notwithstanding the opposition of some of the more conservative principals, the majority of the smaller academies gracefully yielded to the necessity of the more complete system of high schools which came in with the new development of village and city life, the attractions of manufacturing industry, and the concentration of population. Many of them were finally merged, with their buildings and funds, in the new high school of the town, and bear an honorable record of the educational life of the neighborhood seminary from its earliest settlement.

Such was the organization of the common school system of Massachusetts up to the year 1837, when, by the establishment of the State board of education and the appointment of Horace Mann as its first secretary, the State for the first time laid its powerful hand in earnest to the gigantic work of revising the entire system of public instruction. The early reports of Secretary Mann revealed the actual condition of educational affairs at this time as respects the elementary district schools of the several districts and villages of the State. Without entering on the complete discussion of these famous reports, we now refer, in passing, to the results achieved for popular education by the support of the common school system two hundred years in this the first American State to adopt it, and, in several important particulars, the Commonwealth which has the honor of establishing the present system of the American common school.

At the close of the first half century of the Republic, 1840, the State of Massachusetts had a population, in round numbers, of 700,000, and a taxable valuation of \$206,500,000. There were 3,000 public schools in the State, with 265,000 pupils, and an average attendance of 207,000, six months and twenty-five days in the year. There were 6,000 teachers of all grades; two-fifths of the number men. These teachers were paid on an average \$25.44 for men and \$11.38 for women per month, with board in families of the district or at a permanent place. There was raised by taxation for public schools \$465,000, by a tax of .0022, \$2.63 for each child between 4 and 16. There were 854 academies and private schools in the Commonwealth, attended by 27,000 pupils, costing the people \$340,000. The country teachers often were supported by the system of "boarding round," each family entertaining in proportion to its number of children in school. It will be seen that Massachusetts at that time was expending for the education of 27,000 children and youth—one-tenth

of the whole number attending school in private institutes—three-fourths the entire sum paid for 265,000 pupils in the common schools.

Notwithstanding the law of 1826 regarding the establishment of free high schools in towns of a certain population, only 14 of the 43 to which the statute applied had complied therewith. The supervision of the schools was completely in the hands of the school committee; there was not a city, district, or State supervisor in the Commonwealth, and in many of the towns, even in some of the considerable places, the school committees were grossly negligent of their duty. In only one-fifth of the towns did the school committees receive compensation for their labor, and the demand for remuneration often resulted in the loss of a reelection. In the first report of these committees, including 294 of the 305 towns in the State, "there was great complaint of the condition of the schoolhouses, of the literary and professional qualifications of the teachers, irregularity of attendance, and the general apathy manifested by all toward popular education."

In 1827 Governor Levi Lincoln said in his message: "The cause of learning languishes both from the parents and incompetence of instructors." There was no school for the special instruction of teachers in the State, although from 1827 repeated efforts had been made in the legislature to appropriate funds for a normal school. The result of all these efforts was the establishment of a State school fund in 1834 from the sale of wild lands in Maine, the claim of the State on the Government of the United States for military services, and 50 per cent of all moneys thereafter to be received from the sales of public lands. The State fund was limited to \$1,000,000 and its distribution left to the legislature. Until 1826 the election of school committees by towns was optional, afterwards compulsory, and in 1838 they were required to present annual reports to the towns and to contract with the teachers of the public schools, with \$1 a day for their services. Since the passage of the law of 1789 the towns had been divided into school districts, which in 1817 were made corporations and in 1827 authorized to elect prudential committees for local administration. Horace Mann declared "the law of 1789, authorizing towns to divide themselves into school districts, the most unfortunate law on the subject of common schools ever enacted in the State." And Secretary Dickinson declares that "in every section of the country education had found this law the greatest obstacle to any intelligent progress in the schools." It was forty years later, 1832, that after repeated efforts the district system was finally abolished and the town or city made the unit of common-school administration in Massachusetts. The movement to supply the schools with libraries was one feature of the "new departure" of 1837. Previous to this only social and private libraries had existed, rarely free to all readers.

The operating causes of this condition of educational affairs in a State that for two centuries had been foremost in its regard for popular instruction, and was never indifferent to good culture, must be found radically in the spirit of personal and local independence, which is one of the most potent elements of the success of New England, and still remains a marked characteristic of the native-born New Englander. It was this that for ninety years held on to the district school system in town and city in Massachusetts, and in several of the New England States even for one hundred years. There being in Massachusetts no system of State taxation for education, and until 1834 no State school fund, the people relied solely on their own local taxation for the support of their schools. In the majority of towns the people were in no condition to supply the funds needed for the building of good schoolhouses, the payment of competent teachers, and the general conduct of good schools. The physical structure of the country through nine-tenths of the State, at first a wildness of hills and dense woods, and the severity of the climate in winter compelled a division of each township into several districts, often little more than a neighborhood.

Another cause is found in the fact that this was emphatically the period in New England of church disintegration; the first great breaking up of the old Puritan

organization of religious affairs, which until the beginning of the century had virtually included the whole population of the State, into antagonistic denominations. Each of them was moved by a natural impulse to establish its own system of academies and colleges, and each of the leading Protestant bodies soon had in New England a college and a theological seminary of its own faith. And while there seems to have been no general crusade against the public school system from this quarter there was a powerful indirect influence, especially among the more cultivated and zealous religious people, to send their children to the denominational schools.

In 1837 there were nearly three times as many private and academical schools in the State as towns, and it became a fashion for every village of any importance to attempt to support a school of the secondary sort. There was also a custom of holding a "fall" school for one term in the autumn. It was of a higher grade than the district school, and was attended only by those who paid tuition fees. In these academies, private schools, and colleges the superior common school teachers received all the education required by the popular demand, but with practically no training in pedagogics. It was very much the practice that every ambitious young man and woman at all inclined to study regarded it almost a social necessity to "keep school" for one or more terms in summer or winter. The old-time ideas of social distinction were still in force, and the "upper ten" did not take to the notion of "mixing" their own offspring with the children of the "common people."

These causes, combined with the great public agitation of these troubled years, the war with Great Britain in 1812, so disastrous to the industrial interests of New England, and the slow recovery from the fearful poverty in which the whole country was left by the Revolutionary epoch, sufficiently explain the fact that in 1837, after two hundred years of the common school, the State of Massachusetts did not appropriate so large a sum per capita for the children in her public schools as any State of the South to-day, and that the average wages of the teachers in these schools did not exceed those of the present negro instructors of common schools for the colored children of this entire section.

But below this record of the outward condition of the common schools of Massachusetts, then the best in the Union, lies the more important estimate of the quality of the instruction there dispensed and the question what actual progress had been made in this respect during this period of fifty years.

We are compelled to believe that the common school of New England of this period has suffered injustice in the critical estimate of the expert educator of the present time. In American affairs it is always probable that the expert of any sort, at home or abroad, will fail to appreciate the actual condition of the national life. For affairs in a Republic constituted like our own depend not only on the present will, but the actual mental and moral status of the people who, in fact, reconstruct every American institution with every new year. The American common school, at any period of its existence, can never be fairly estimated by comparison with a system like the German, in which a practically despotic power at the head of national affairs determines its organization and is felt as a directing hand to the outermost extremity of its administration, enforcing compulsory laws of school attendance, and holding the entire scheme of secondary, university, and professional instruction, public and private, under its control. Especially in the New England States, in the period now under consideration, the common schools were exclusively in the hands of the people of each locality, and in the continental European estimation would not be regarded a system at all, being mainly dependent on the ability and spirit of the people of each neighborhood in a civilization where a forcible executive personality was the ideal of superiority, and a lively political jealousy was always on the alert against aggressions on the common welfare, combined with the overweening influence of men of strong prejudices and obstinate will. Hence it is only by a general survey of the condition of New England society as a whole and the educational spirit and habits of a State like Massachusetts, especially by an

intimate knowledge of the peculiarities of society in the New England towns, that a fair conception can be obtained of the actual status of education at this time. Our own early educational experience dates back to the last decade of this period—1830-1840—and with that in view we are able to estimate facts greatly modifying the conclusions that might be drawn from the study of the school life of that day.

The one fact apparent to every well-informed person in this period of the life of New England in general, and Massachusetts in particular, is that there was in every region of society a profound respect for education and a universal habit of reverence for an educated class. In every little town, however backward, there were children and youth whose proficiency in the common school and love for study made them conspicuous, "the town talk." The deep interest with which the progress of such a boy or girl was watched, and the great efforts of parents, friends, often strangers, to aid any capable and aspiring student in "getting an education," were a beautiful feature of the town life. The clergy were especially noted for this patriotic spirit. They were generally members of the school committees and often watched the schools with sleepless vigilance. Their sons and daughters were often the teachers, and every country minister of any pretension drew about him a group of bright young people for mental improvement, often "fitting for college" those who were unable to pay the expense of attendance on a classical seminary. The district school shared with the church the constant interest of the people in all save exceptional towns. In the dearth of popular amusements and an exciting outward life, its goings on were canvassed in every household, and the influence of the superior people was a powerful factor in its success.

The college and academy were at that time a far more pronounced subject of general interest than at present. There was, in the rural districts and the villages, practically no element of population supplied from "foreign parts," and no organized religion opposed to the prevailing Protestant church. The clergymen were almost universally graduates of the colleges and the influential teachers and directors of the leading seminaries, and they constantly kept before the people not only the merits of the higher education, but a personal interest in the president and professors of the college and the principals and teachers of the best secondary academic schools in the neighborhood. Notwithstanding the dearth of books for general circulation and the feeble estate of journalism, there were still, in almost every town, small collections of good English literature accessible to every eager youth. It was a fixed habit of the men to meet at the village store, the shoemaker's, blacksmith's, and carpenter's shops, the various mills, especially the gristmill and sawmill, to hear the weekly "paper" read and to thoroughly discuss its contents, and this kept alive an intense interest in the discussion of all affairs of public and local interest. A New England town of 1,000 people, seventy-five years ago, with a village at the center of half a hundred houses, during the long winter months shut up from travel, with all its energies turned in upon itself, was a battery of electric brains. Men, women, and the older children, were in constant social communication, meeting often several times a week at church, lyceum, and visiting; kept alive by a vital interest in all things important to a good community. The one unfortunate habit of "drink," which was the scourge of so many of these places, had not yet undermined the personal virtue of the people to a dangerous degree; and the old-time style of personal self-respect, of noninterference with the rights, opinions, and even prejudices of neighbors and townsmen, so favorable to the growth of practical good living, original thinking, and common sense, was a prodigious power in shaping the peculiar life of the New England town.

And there can be no question that the teachers of the district schools in New England during this period were drawn from a superior grade of the population, and in many instances were more competent than at the present time. Notwithstanding the low rate of wages, school teaching was almost the only occupation by which ready money could be earned by young people of either sex. Especially was this true of the young women who had not fallen upon the days when 350 ways of getting a

respectable livelihood are open to the sex. The occupation was thoroughly respectable, even honorable, and the schoolmaster and schoolmistress were, as often as otherwise, called from the best social and educated class. It would be a singular community in which many of the young women in highest estimation had not been, for a year or two, occupied in this way. The boys who proposed to go to college or look toward professional life taught school in the winter term of two to four months, and thousands of students in this fashion "paid their way" through the academy and college. The habit of "boarding round" brought these teachers in contact with the families of their pupils. Or, when the teacher was domiciled at home or in a permanent place, the best society of the district and town was opened to the newcomer.

The coming to a town which supported half a dozen district schools of several college students every winter, or of fine young women from abroad during the summer, was a positive element in the society of the place. For a term of several months of their residence these interesting strangers were the center of attraction, and, if superior young people, they became a notable addition to the mental and moral resources of the home-staying youth. They were the "main-stay" of the winter lyceum, the delight of the winter evening party, the zest of the summer trip to the mountain, or the Saturday outing, and often the most interesting relations of life were the outcome of this experience. In this way there was a perpetual circulation of the genuine life-blood of society, consisting of the most attractive and promising young folks of the Commonwealth through all portions of the State; and a true democracy of character, ability, and culture was thus obtained. And this was the time when the best portion of the New England people were living in the villages and rural districts, before the evil day when the farms were losing the most substantial classes. These New England district school boys and girls and their teachers were the material from which was drawn in the generation following, in the nation's hour of peril, the leadership in State, church, business, army, and society, and the progressive and political class that saved the Republic.

Of course these schools were greatly deficient in what we now regard the superior methods of instruction, facilities for illustration, school books, convenient buildings, and much that is now regarded of supreme importance. But, after a generation devoted to the improvement of public education in these respects, we are coming to understand more clearly that after all the chief elements of success in school life are good material in the pupil, worthy manhood and womanhood in the teachers, and a love for knowledge and ambition to excel which dominate the work. The great teachers of music tell us that, in a scale of 10, 9 points of success in a public singer imply a good natural voice.

Nothing in school life will atone for the lack of good natural ability, enthusiasm, persistence, and an all-round common sense in finding the best way to get at the main point. Wellington said: "The art of war is nothing but two men fighting with clubs, and the one that has the longest club, the most strength, pluck, and endurance will come off conqueror." The good teacher in the old-time school had a more familiar acquaintance with the better class of pupils than is now possible in the graded schools of our cities and often gave them a generous portion of time, out of school or on holidays. And nowhere on earth does unusual ability, personal magnetism, force of character, and high enthusiasm for living tell in molding and inspiring a group of children more powerfully than inside one of these old-time Yankee schoolhouses.

During this period, the first notable advance was made in the improvement of school books. George Washington sat down to his table, after he left school at 13, and wrote out, in his own plain, bold hand a series of short treatises on the different branches studied "in the field" and family schools of his early youth; probably the pith of the few awkward and pedantic apologies for text-books to which he had access. Before 1800 arithmetic had not been taught with books in the New England common schools; geography was still a college study; science did not exist for the

public school; indeed, outside the college, later than this, "philosophic geology was not taught in New England and there was not even a bare catalogue of the animals of Massachusetts." Noah Webster had just entered on his great career of supplying the children and youth with a better sort of readers and spellers, with an appendix of grammar and matters of general intelligence, than had before been accessible. The catalogue of helps to learning that figures in the report of many of the foremost men of the time, in the memory of their school days, is meager to the last degree. But before 1840 a great advance had been made. The Assembly's catechism no longer was regarded as the standard central dish at the feast of knowledge. The Bible came to be read and understood in a way more natural and less mechanical. The series of school readers prepared by Rev. John Pierpont was perhaps the most valuable ever made in any land, being a complete introduction to the best literature of the language. Woodbridge, Morse, and Olney in geography; Adams and Smith in arithmetic; Murray and Greenleaf in grammar; with an increasing number of text-books of equal merit, especially Colburn's mental arithmetic, were a godsend to the studious youth.

But, after all these helps to knowledge, there has been found no substitute for the act of "taking off your coat and rolling up your sleeves" and going to work to "dig out" the heart of the matter in any school task on hand. The dire necessity of school work and the strict government of the schools of that early day were a valuable discipline which is often found wanting in the elaborate expedients for cultivating the "play instinct" in children, in which the necessity of discipline in child life is left out and only the very natural desire to play remains. And, despite the severity of the discipline, there is a solid merit in the old style of "keeping order," compelling a bad boy or a mischievous girl to fall into line and obey the "rules and regulations," that can not be dispensed with in the training for republican citizenship. The popular estimation in which a teacher was held who displayed the governing faculty amid the trials of old-time New England school-keeping was, in itself, a powerful stimulus to the cultivation of that faculty for doing things and leading in all worthy enterprises which has made the New England man and woman famous at home and known and respected all around the world.

Thomas Carlyle once said to Theodore Parker: "There is nothing like the preaching of hell to take the conceit out of a man." The teaching of the gospel of obedience to law, illustrated by the certainty of a sound thrashing, has made a man of many a boy who, under a vacillating or feeble dispensation of discipline, would have grown up a bully, a sneak, or a brute. The goings on in the old New England schoolhouse was like the continuous session of a court of justice in the heart of a community, and, in connection with the sittings of the justice of the peace in the tavern hall and the town meeting in the great meeting house, kept the mind of the neighborhood fixed on that reign of law and order which saved it from the excesses of border life and the anarchy of lynch law. The democracy of the common school was a prodigious training for good citizenship; for here there "was no respect of persons" and the son of the minister, lawyer, doctor, or richest man in town was as sure of a "trouncing" for obstinate disobedience as any boy in school; and the parent who would presume on any family or personal superiority as an exemption from the school discipline of his child was sure of the imperative negative of the entire neighborhood. And by the patriotic extracts in the old-time school readers, the declamation of the speeches of great statesmen, and the constant excitement of partisan politics that raged about the little red schoolhouse like the lashing of an angry sea upon a storm-beaten island, the boys and girls were schooled in that patriotism which, a generation later, flamed out in the rush from the old Lexington and Concord battle grounds to Washington of the first regiments to "rally round the flag" and save the Union.

There can be no indirect training so good in its general mental and moral results as the constant outdoor occupation of the Yankee boy and the drill of his sister in good housekeeping that went on, "never hasting, never resting," like a procession

of the powers of nature. It was still the day when the New England woman had not yet found relief from the terrible trial of good housekeeping in a newly settled country which built up the soul while it wore out the body. There was no great leisure class in the country, not even in the village or city; and the woman of superior natural gifts, generous culture, and graceful manners was as often as otherwise her own housemaid and taught her daughters how to live as the "helpmeets" of the men who were building a mighty republic.

And, in the estimate of the results of the common school of that period, we must also take into account the fact that New England society was the most concentrated and powerful human agency ever put on the ground of a new country to bring good things to pass. It was a voluntary combination of men and women, generally of native power and obstinate will, of unusual capacity for mental and moral accomplishment, driven as by a high wind toward one great purpose, the building of the new Republic. In the society of the New England of that early day all good things went together—church and school, business, home, and public duty, were but the vital forces of a life concentrated, almost beyond conception in these days of dissipated energy and boundless distraction, on self-control and effective power. This combined energy of the whole town ebbed and flowed through the schoolhouse like a resistless tide. Out of this contact with public opinion came a great influence on the humblest school, an influence that in the superior communities was felt in sending out a large number of public and famous people who made their mark all the way from the Atlantic to the Pacific. And while in a certain way the district school (and there was rarely any other) was held in low esteem by the academy and the college, yet all the higher institutions of learning and agencies of culture were a part of a great movement that was felt by every ambitious boy and girl every day of the school life.

These fifty years were the seed time when so many of the great educational agencies were planted in New England that have borne mighty crops of good culture for the nation. The American Academy of Arts and Sciences was established in 1780. The New England and Boston Societies of Natural History came up between 1815 and 1830. The Boston Athenæum in 1806 was a child of the club that published the *Monthly Anthology*, the first literary magazine that appeared after the Revolution. The American Philosophical Society was established in 1816; the American Academy in 1780; the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1790; with other associations that, in subsequent years, became important instrumentalities of national culture and the models of similar organizations in all portions of the land. All these were then in that state of enthusiastic operation when their influence, especially on the aspiring youth of a State, is at its best. It was the day of the beginning of the library, Concord, Mass., claiming the oldest of all, in 1672, and New Bedford, Mass., the first free public library. In 1841 Harvard College had 41,000 volumes in the library which had risen from the flames that consumed the precious collection given by John Harvard. In 1838 there were 50 district school libraries, with 10,000 volumes, in the State. Almost every little town had one or more collections of books and the use of a "social" or "ladies' library," or the private collection of the minister, or doctor, or well-to-do family were accessible, by friendly loan or at a nominal fee, to every boy or girl who would be careful in the use.

And, although the era of metropolitan journalism and the modern magazine had not yet dawned, the weekly newspaper, coming up from Boston or the county town once a week; read at the post-office to the eager crowd of farmers, talked over in the store, the tavern, the carpenter's, shoemaker's, and blacksmith's shop, and while waiting for the grist to be ground at the mill, was a power in the land. The habit of meeting in the long winter evenings by the men at these central places, and the interminable visiting between families, where the brisk talk always gravitated to the events of the day of local and general importance; where all things in heaven and earth were discussed in a straightforward, courageous way, made every town a practical university. And there were great themes to be discussed: the administrations

of Presidents George Washington, John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, the French Revolution that shook America like an earthquake, the war of 1812 with Great Britain, the settlement of the new West, the Indian campaigns of Jackson and Harrison, the naval victories of Perry and Decatur, the great battle over the Missouri compromise, which was the alarm bell that summoned the nation's defenders to arms for the great civil war yet forty years off.

The lyceum was not the least of these outside agencies of popular culture; indeed, it became almost an annex to the New England district school. It came up about the year 1788, introduced by Josiah Holbrook, of Connecticut, and spread like a prairie fire all over the land. Beside the proper work of the weekly lyceum, by which it was best known, it grew by 1830 to a vast organization for general improvement. Through a series of years it held great conventions in the chief cities of the country, became a powerful propagandist for the establishment and improvement of public schools, favored the collection of libraries, introduced the system of popular lectures, and in many indirect ways pushed forward the general work of creating the public opinion that demanded the educational revival of 1830-1840. The most eminent men in the Union were deeply interested in it, presided at, and addressed its conventions. Out of it came the Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge in 1828, the American Institute of Instruction founded in Boston in 1830, the American Lyceum (national), in 1831, whose object was the advocacy especially of common-school education and the general spread of knowledge. The American Annals of Education, of Boston, and the Magazine of Useful Knowledge, in New York, were indebted to this powerful movement for their existence. Its general conventions were held from 1828 to 1839 in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Hartford. At a national delegate convention, called to discuss education in the United States, held at Philadelphia in 1839, Hon. Theodore Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, presided, and other celebrated public characters were present. This meeting memorialized Congress to appropriate money for elementary education in the South; proposed the dedication of the public lands to the same purpose, and was only suspended by the overshadowing of its work by the educational uprising of the people, which was largely a result of its persistent agitation.

But nowhere was it so influential as in New England, and it is doubtful if any agency of popular intelligence was ever more effective in the country. Once a week, from December to June, the people of these towns thronged the big school-house or, on occasions of special interest, the largest church or the tavern hall to witness the tournament of debate, where all the mental athletes of the community were enlisted in the discussions; the best literary talent impressed for "the paper," generally edited by the women, and the entertainment was often introduced by a free lecture, usually given by some invited guest. The women brought their "knitting work" and listened while the needles flew. The big boys and girls heard with all their ears and souls. The questions discussed ranged through all themes interesting to thoughtful men and women living in the morning glow of the making of a mighty nation; the annexation of Texas to the Union, capital punishment, the national bank, education, matters of local interest, tariff, war and peace, slavery, woman's rights, religious and moral topics outside sectarian limitations, temperance, the economies of home life and training of children, public improvements in town and State—all came up for "high debate" and the final adjudication of a vote. Here originated the lecture system that a generation later became such a powerful agency in all the Northern States of the Union, and, during the twenty years before the outbreak of the civil war, like a stout ship drawn into the vortex of a maelstrom, went circling about the awful question of slavery into whose "bloody chasm" the old Union was plunged in 1860 to emerge as the new Republic in 1865.

The temperance reformation was at the height of its early enthusiasm during the later years of this period, and the country was shaken by the appeals of an army of "reformed drunkards" and professional lecturers. The religious revival was mighty for waking up the deeper nature of the people, and often the cause of violent

controversy on the highest themes of human interest. In short, during this period the whole people of the United States, from the city out to the most quiet hamlet, were agitated with the tremendous stir of a mental and moral interest prophetic of the mighty upheaval of the nation's life in the revolutionary epoch, on the perilous edge of which the nation stood; and the country district school, the academy, and the college were the "nerve centers" of this profound agitation; the older pupils being often more educated by what was going on without than within the school-room. In this way the common school of that day was not less a seminary for the entire community than a school for the children. It was the one center of the common intelligence, where the vital energies of the people were concentrated, and, more notably than any other institution, contributed to the training of a people already dimly looking forward to the awful period of conflict for the preservation of the Republic.

In the American order of society no permanent leadership is possible. Twice in the nation's history the patriotic people have leaned on Washington and Lincoln as the providential father of the old and the new Republic. Happily for us no Bismarck or Gladstone can ever become an American possibility. The great revival of the common school, inaugurated in Massachusetts by the establishment of the first State board of education and the appointment of Horace Mann as its first secretary, spreading from State to State till the entire northern section of the country was involved, and even the educationally far-off South was stirred as never before, was the work of no one man, nor even a group of "great educators." It came "in the fullness of time," when, as in all matters of supreme interest in our country, the half-conscious masses were pushing upward from below and the best informed and most effective lifting from above, and at the fit moment the man or the group of men appear in whom both these movements are incarnated and good things are done in a way that, for rapidity, thoroughness, and permanence, is the amazement of the world.

It was a prodigious advantage, especially to Massachusetts, that at the period we now consider there was in reality no considerable class of public or influential people of any station that desired to be known as the opponents of the common school. Inherited from the days of the fathers, and consecrated by the toils, sacrifices, and prayers of almost two centuries, whatever might have been the disposition of a portion of the more favored classes to educate their own children in the academic and private schools, which, as far as the opportunity for the secondary education was concerned, were, outside a few localities, the only agencies available, yet the advocate of popular education in any form was sure of a hearing among the more intelligent people, and only counted on the personal interest and professional prejudice of those directly concerned as patrons and teachers in these seminaries for secret or open antagonism. Daniel Webster sounded the keynote of New England statesmanship when he said, "If I had as many boys as old King Priam, I would send them all to the country district school." He had been a country schoolmaster, and for a few months had Edward Everett as a pupil—preeminently the educational statesman of the period, repeating in New England in characteristic way the position of Thomas Jefferson at an earlier date in the Atlantic South. Almost every public man of high distinction in New England had been in his youth a common-school boy, and frequently a teacher in the district school. While the clergy of New England were to a greater or less degree deeply interested in the colleges and academies, yet in Massachusetts at this time they were oftener than otherwise the working members of the school committees, and from their number came perhaps the majority of the splendid body of educational reformers that ushered in the glorious day of the advent of Mann, Barnard, and their immediate associates. It was most fortunate that Edward Everett was governor of Massachusetts at the time the legislative committee was appointed which, next to the committee of the Congress of the Confederation that fifty years before reported the ordinance of 1787, gave the American common school to the new Northwest. Another most influential friend of

popular education was Dr. William Ellery Channing, who, although burdened with the double leadership of an important religious movement and the unpopular advocacy of the more conservative type of the antislavery agitation, was always at hand to give the weight of his lofty reputation and matchless eloquence to the good cause. Levi Lincoln year after year had been the honored governor of Massachusetts and a firm friend of the common school. He inaugurated the movement that twelve years later resulted in the establishment of the first State normal school in the United States.

But there was a yet more influential class of practical educators, leading teachers, professors, and presidents of the colleges and superior schools of the State, who constituted the inner circle of this rising reform and most distinctly voiced back to the masses of the people this educational gospel in the practical form it finally assumed. Some of them had been for many years "known of all men," as "in season and out of season" pleading for the coming generation. Others came in at the "beginning of the end" of the agitation and were at once swept into active and often conspicuous service during the coming years. It would be a grateful task to recount, in a memorial volume, the names and services of this splendid body of men and women from New England alone. No "circular of information" could be more instructive and full of encouragement to the workers in our Southern States than the story of the labors, trials, and discouragements through which these heroes of the good fight pressed forward, "putting the hand to the plow and looking not back," at a time when the common school in Massachusetts was in a more discouraging condition than in Virginia and Texas to-day. We can only refer, as in a catalogue, to a few of these most conspicuous workers of the different States, as they come up in the progress of our story, although aware that many names may be omitted perhaps equally worthy of recognition. Those now mentioned were all natives of Massachusetts or spent their professional life chiefly in that State. Some of the most eminent were identified with the new departure of the common school beyond the Berkshire hills, in the Middle and Western States.

Warren Colburn was one of the benefactors of half a dozen generations in preparing, in connection with George B. Emerson, that joy of all school children, Colburn's Mental Arithmetic, which even now is one of the best text-books in use. William Russell was an indefatigable lecturer on education, and exposed without fear or favor the defects of the common schools, especially protesting against the neglect of the old-time grammar and new free high-school system in favor of the private and denominational academy. He made an unsuccessful attempt to establish a private normal school in Lancaster, Mass. Lowell Mason was the father of music in the common schools of America; indeed was the great leader of the movement that woke up the people to the appreciation of good music and organized the popular musical associations in Boston which have made that city so distinguished in this department of the fine arts. He was a devoted friend of the common schools. Gideon F. Thayer established in 1818, in Boston, the first Chauncey Hall private school.

Samuel N. Hall was born in New Hampshire, but, like many of the great sons of the Granite State, found his proper sphere of labor in Massachusetts. He has the reputation of establishing in New Hampshire and afterwards in Andover, Mass., the first effective school of pedagogies in the Union, and his writings and experiments as a teacher had great weight in the final adoption by the State of the normal-school system in 1837-1840. No man was more conspicuous and indefatigable than James G. Carter. For years he lectured, wrote, and in every public way labored to lift the educational wheel out of the slough of indifference and despond in which it was mired for half a century. He was the chairman of the legislative committee that reported the act for the establishment of the State board of education, and was appointed the first member of the board by Governor Everett. George B. Emerson began his career as teacher in Boston as the first principal of the Boys' English High School in

1820. Afterwards he established one of the most celebrated private schools for girls in the country, in the same city, which lost its illustrious master in 1855. He was also a member of the first State board of education and deeply interested in the establishment of the first 3 State normal schools, the assistant of Warren Colburn in making his mental arithmetic and algebra, and an active member of the Boston Masters' Association and Natural History Society.

John Lowell, too early called from life, was a member of the distinguished family of manufacturing capitalists which gave its name to the city of Lowell. He left a handsome fortune to establish the Lowell Institute, a free lectureship that for half a century has offered every season courses of valuable public lectures on a variety of themes, and has enriched the educational literature of the country by the moderate library of its own publications. William C. Woodbridge, a relative of Dr. William Ellery Channing, was a most untiring worker in all that concerned the welfare of common schools. He practically introduced in them the study of geography, which until 1824 had been taught in few public schools, by his text-books, written in connection with Mrs. Emma Willard after extensive study and foreign travel. He was always interested in the early efforts at educational journalism in Massachusetts; published the *Annals of Education*, in which the improved methods of instruction he had become acquainted with in Europe were illustrated. He was an active worker in the Hartford, Conn., societies for the improvement of common schools. He was called in as adviser in connection with the school system of New York, and was largely influential in persuading Lowell Mason to transfer his residence from Georgia to Massachusetts and inaugurate his great work for music in the schools. He was closely identified with the organization of the lyceum and the American School Society. Always a sick and poor man, and dying at 50, broken down by his enormous labors, his life was a shining example of the consecration of great and varied powers to the welfare of humanity.

President Mark Hopkins, of Williams, and President Heman Humphrey, of Amherst College—the former perhaps the most eminent of the New England educators, the instructor of Garfield, Dawes, Dickinson, and scores of men distinguished in all departments of professional life; the latter the powerful president that lifted the new Amherst College to a respectable rank among American institutions and combined a solid scholarship and zeal for religion with “a saving common sense,” whose sons have become conspicuous in the great centers of influence in the Union—were both warm and influential friends of the common schools. Samuel Appleton, a member of a distinguished Boston family, was a generous benefactor of schools—one of the noble band of wealthy men and women whose gifts to education, charity, and art have made their city famous.

Josiah Holbrook was a native of Connecticut and a graduate of Yale College, but his prodigious work in the organization of the American lyceum, a common school for all people, which afterwards went through the Union, and under whose auspices great conventions were held in all parts of the country, enlisting the good will of the most eminent statesmen, scholars, and professional leaders everywhere, was so intimately connected with Boston and Massachusetts that he may be included among the celebrities of this calendar. In connection with the foremost educators of the State, he was deeply interested in the organization of the Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge in 1829 and the American Institute of Instruction in 1830; next, to the National Association of Teachers—still the most important organization of American educators, and many associations connected with his private interests. He was largely engaged in the introduction of school apparatus, hitherto almost unknown—the meager blackboard being the first appearance of any outside help in the district school. With Senator Henry W. Blair, of New Hampshire, he shares the distinguished honor, at an early day, of laboring to move the American Congress to act in behalf of popular education in the Southern States. It is impossible to overrate the influence of the American Lyceum—the most effective extemporaneous university on record—in the awakening of the people to the educational

needs of the country and the organization of the mighty movement for educational reform in 1830-1840.

Ebenezer Bailey will be long remembered as the accomplished master of the first free high school for girls in Boston, the subsequent principal of a famous "female academy," and the author of a text-book in algebra that was a decided advance on previous treatises in this to the children of fifty years ago, abstruse science. John Bromfield was the generous giver of a sum—for the time munificent—which established the Boston Athenæum Library and Museum of Fine Arts. The Athenæum is now a choice library of 150,000 volumes, and the art treasures are in the possession of the Academy of Fine Arts in Boston. Rev. Samuel J. May was one of the most zealous and effective of the clerical advocates of the new departures in the schools; a friend of Horace Mann; for a time principal of the State normal school at Lexington, Mass., and during the later portion of his life a most efficient friend of popular education and all good reforms in Syracuse, N. Y. Rev. Charles Brooks was an eloquent lecturer on education, and largely contributed to the formation of the public opinion that stood behind Horace Mann. He was especially interested in the establishment of normal schools. Rev. Cyrus Pierce was already a distinguished teacher when called by Horace Mann in his later life to be the first principal of the first State normal school in America. He labored so effectually that the name "Father Pierce" is still a household word in Massachusetts, along with the associated name of Nicholas Tillinghast, first principal of the State normal school at Bridgewater. William A. Alcott was one of the roundabout men of all educational work who appear at a providential juncture and shoulder the tasks of many good men. He was united with those already mentioned, and there was nothing good going in the way of popular education that was not connected with his name.

Besides this illustrious group of educators at home, true to her instincts, as described by Washington, of "spreading herself," New England was at this time sending abroad a large number of active and distinguished workers in the great good cause of the children and youth. Among the most celebrated were John S. Hart, so well known as the famous principal of the Philadelphia free high school for girls, and an author of wide celebrity; Rev. Calvin E. Stowe, husband of Harriet Beecher Stowe, who made the important report on free schools at a critical period in the educational movement in Ohio; Francis Dwight, the brilliant editor of an educational journal in Albany, N. Y.; David R. Page, principal of the first State normal school of New York, at Albany, both too early removed by death; Dr. Johnson, in Pennsylvania; Rev. George W. Hosmer, who as a clergyman in Buffalo, N. Y., became an important worker in the schools of that city and afterwards the successor of Horace Mann in the presidency of Antioch College, Ohio; Rev. John H. Heywood, a native of Worcester, Mass., first a teacher in New Jersey, afterwards for half a century an honored clergyman in Louisville, Ky., a most efficient member of the school board of that city and still a fast friend of the common school; Rev. James Freeman Clarke, who as a young man, the minister of a new and unpopular church in Louisville, Ky., still so commended himself to the people that he was placed on the school board, and for a time served as superintendent of common schools, perhaps the first man who held that office west of the Alleghanies, and Rev. William G. Eliot, who, although born and educated in Washington, D. C., was of a distinguished New Bedford, Mass., family. He went as a young man to St. Louis, Mo., when the town had but 8,000 people, opened the first free school west of the Mississippi River in the basement story of his new church, built by Boston money; and at the end of a long and useful life could point to Washington University, one of the most complete and effective organizations for the secondary and higher, academic and collegiate, artistic and industrial, medical and legal education west of the Mississippi River in the Union, as one result of his varied labors in his adopted State. But lack of space alone compels us to close this catalogue of celebrities who so devoted themselves to the people's uplifting on the eve of the great common-school revival at the opening of the second half century of the Republic.

The era of the higher education of woman had not yet come. But there was a great amount of excellent work done in the academies for girls in Massachusetts and other States. Notable among these institutions was the Troy (N. Y.) Female Seminary, where Mrs. Emma Willard so long sat at the head of the movement for the advanced education of woman, affectionately remembered in the history of education in Connecticut, Vermont, and New York. Chief in importance of the daughters of Massachusetts was Mary Lyon, who, in the establishment of the Mount Holyoke Seminary (now College), first rendered it possible that the girls of New England could obtain a superior education at a rate so reasonable that few were left out for lack of means. This famous seminary, where, even until the present day, the domestic labor of the students has been combined with a solid method of mental training, has been a power in the land; having educated great numbers of girls from all portions of the Union, furnished the original suggestion for Wellesley College, and been the model for numbers of excellent schools elsewhere, sending forth many efficient teachers and devoted Christian missionaries to heathen lands.

It is always difficult to place before even an intelligent and sympathetic reader the secret of a situation or an institution which alone can account for its celebrity. The old-time district school of New England has fared badly in the estimate of a class of critics, trained amid the abundant opportunities and expert methods of instruction and discipline now as thoroughly appreciated and used in the schools of Massachusetts as anywhere in the country. But even the present generation of New England educators does not always appreciate the fact that the finest results of the present were bound up in the system of the grandfathers and grandmothers. It has even been denied in high quarters that New England ever had a system of schools deserving the name till within the past five and twenty years. Perhaps a realistic picture of a typical small New England town in the Massachusetts of sixty years ago may help to the understanding of the vitality there was in this early school-keeping and why it has "had free course, run, and been glorified" now ever since the great day when Horace Mann marshaled the forces of reform that had been slowly gathering during a generation and led them to the victory that finally declared the American common school the foremost educational agency in training the children for good citizenship in the Republic.

The following quotation from a personal sketch describes a typical family of pioneers:

My own childhood and youth, until one and twenty, was cast in one of the most characteristic of the mountain towns of western Massachusetts, near the valley of the Connecticut River, on the border of New Hampshire and Vermont. The town was 6 miles square, and was originally set apart by the Colonial legislature just before the Revolutionary war to the families of a company of soldiers enlisted from what is now the city of Boston for service in the French and Indian war, all of whom had lost their lives in this dangerous and exhausting campaign. Several of these families were among the best of old Boston and all were of the good stock that sent one-sixth of its entire population to the great northern battlefield of the Adirondack woods and waters, which for half a century before the war for national independence was the training school of the New England soldiery met by Washington at Cambridge and, as he said, of which almost the entire Regular Army was composed at the close of the war. They went up, my grandfather and grandmother, with the rest, and "possessed the land," apportioned according to the special claims and needs of the families, about the year 1776. My grandfather, who had just been married, was one of the heroes of Bunker Hill, having dug in the trenches all night and slept the sleep of a tired-out warrior during the battle. But he did the next best thing to fighting; he married a good Boston girl and took her up to her home in the wilderness, riding behind him on horseback on a "pillion," where the grandmothers used to sit clasping the strong support on the saddle before. Then he went to New Jersey and served a full term under Washington and came back to his mountain farm; worked hard at everything that came up—farmer, storekeeper, tavern keeper, maker of potash, mechanic, deacon of the church, "esquire" and representative to the "great and general court" for the town; dying at 83, one of the best off in worldly goods and not behind in any way among his contemporaries in the entire county. My great-grandfather, on my mother's side, at 96 "took the western fever"

in the valley of the Connecticut in Massachusetts; sold his farm and emigrated to St. Lawrence County, in northern New York, to "grow up with the country;" voted for Gen. William Henry Harrison for President of the United States at 100, and died of a "cold" caught walking at the head of a procession to celebrate the inauguration of the "hero of Tippecanoe," who followed him soon to the grave. Another grandfather was one of the old-time "men of all work" that held a New England town together; storekeeper, apothecary, tailor, settler of estates, the friend of widows and orphans; at his death the oldest postmaster in the Union, except a brother of the first grandfather, who held that position for an equal term in Kentucky. There were a score of men in that county who had this outfit of practical education and have done first-rate service to the State. In my childhood the town was not yet 60 years old and all the original families still occupied the land, the young people being the second generation from the settlement.

The town was one of those picturesque "blocks" of land that seemed created for the admiration of the lover of nature. A mountain, 1,600 feet above the sea, overlooked the central village, itself shelved on a terrace 1,000 feet above high tide. Half a dozen noble hills, from 1,000 to 1,200 feet in height, divided the territory into a series of narrow valleys, each known by the name of the brook that flowed into one of the three rivers that watered its southern, western, and northern borders. Off at the northeast the hills climbed up to Mount Monadnock that towered, an azure pyramid, 20 miles away. The town was said to have been originally a dense forest of New England pine on the lowlands, while the rains had worn the steep slopes of the mighty hills to their granite bones. Half a dozen clear ponds dotted the surface, each still in my day good fishing ground in the summer, and in the winter a natural "skating park," encircled by the solemn woods and roofed by a sky resplendent with a sunlight and moonlight such as never yet had "shone on sea or land." There were certain meadows, green, silent, and mysterious, that haunted the dream of every truant boy. Nine-tenths the town was on a hillside, and there was hardly a farm a western New York or Ohio farmer "would have taken as a gift."

At that time of settlement there was no civilized West beyond the valleys of the Hudson and the eastern section of the Mohawk River; both these charming valleys were largely occupied by the New York Dutch territory of the great patroons, who still lorded it over their dependents in a way no well-constructed Yankee would endure. Now and then one of our restless young men pushed out to teach school in the region around Albany and Troy, and came back to entertain the neighbors with "the tricks and manners" of the natives of that distant country where his lot had been cast. At the time now spoken of not half a dozen young men of the town had "gone West," although several enterprising youngsters had ventured to Boston, to Maine, and the new manufacturing cities of New England to become men of mark among the foremost of the land, and from them have descended a remarkable group of men and women in every department of society in all portions of the Union.

There were never 1,200 people in the town, and out of that little company have come a dozen clergymen, several judges of the courts, doctors enough to kill or cure a city of half a million, mayors of cities, and members of legislatures and of Congress, artists, authors, scholars, and successful people without number, a larger proportion of the population, it is said, living to a greater age than in any town of similar class in the nation. Women distinguished at home and abroad were not wanting, one becoming the wife of a wandering Englishman of rank, who "came, saw, and" was "conquered," and bore her off to a palace in the lake district in England. There are now but 700 people left in the old town, but last year they were reported to have read more books in proportion to their numbers than the people of any town in the State, for, shut up through the long winter in the town without railroad connection with the outer world, they are compelled to live on each other and the good library established by one of the sons or daughters of the town now living in a far-off city.

There were eight school districts in the town, in which the 200 or 300 "children and youth," with occasional pupils of larger growth, were schooled from four to six months in the year. The terms were divided between summer and winter, with perhaps, each year, a private school of a higher grade "kept" during the three autumn months in the basement room of the leading church. For more than fifty years after the settlement of the town the people had worshipped and "sat under preaching" together in the great "meetinghouse" on the common, big enough to contain the entire population; the high pulpit, overhung by a threatening "sounding-board;" the two rows of seats on the pulpit front below the parson for the deacons and chief men of the place; a double row of galleries for the volunteer choir of 50 young persons and half a dozen musical and unmusical instruments; in my day the highest gallery pews overlooking the minister's head being appropriated by such of the small boys as were permitted, on a solemn promise of good behavior, to sit up aloft. The walls of the great wooden temple were pierced with small windows, and when at the first Christmas celebration they burst forth at dusk in a

blaze of glory there was little more to be desired in this world by the boys and girls assembled on "the common" to witness the grand illumination.

The central schoolhouse, which sufficed for the "upper and lower villages," was built on a granite ledge that on one side fell down in a precipice to the high road. It was a square wooden building, painted red, with a big ruinous woodshed and dilapidated outbuildings, surmounted by a cupola in which a lightning rod was fixed with no connection with the ground. To-day the school-house occupies the site of the old meetinghouse, and a sweet-toned bell from a Louisiana sugar plantation, that received it from some convent in Spain in the olden time, found at the Union occupation in 1863 in a pile of metal in New Orleans, destined to be cast into Confederate cannon, and brought home by a returning soldier, rings the children to school. There were never 50 scholars in the old school-house, and the outlying districts furnished from 15 to 30 each in their better days.

Here every summer, for three months in the village and two in the outer districts, and an equal term in the winter, all the children went to school. Beginning at 5 or 6, they sometimes held on till past 20, especially in the winter, when a class of big boys and girls were installed on the higher back seats, the benches rising, as in a medical lecture room, from the foot of the master's desk to within a short distance of the roof. A big sheet-iron "cap" was fitted upon the huge open fireplace beside the master's platform, and all winter a fierce fire of round and split logs roared up the chimney, possibly efficient to warm "the little angels that sit up aloft," but requiring a perpetual "going to the fire" to keep the children in this lower world from freezing. The schoolhouses were all moderately comfortable—as well heated and ventilated as the farm houses—though wanting the conveniences of modern seats and the appliances for the easy learning of anything. Each had around it a spacious yard, sometimes a grove, and there was no lack of opportunity for sliding, skating, or "rasseling" in winter and all sorts of games in summer, the exercise now called "manual training" being sufficiently attended to at home, where every boy and girl was in constant "training" for a New England worker. In my case the discipline consisted in driving two cows a mile to pasture before breakfast and driving them home after supper, "tending store" at odd hours, and working on my grandfather's farm in haying time, at 25 cents a day, to buy the Albany Weekly Journal and the Penny Magazine, with now and then the luxury of a book long desired and fondly cherished.

There were two or three libraries in town, containing perhaps 500 volumes, and the old minister had a good collection of the authors of Queen Anne's day. A new doctor brought to town the first copy of Shakespeare I ever saw. Half a dozen of us boys and girls read it through in a week. I was so "fired up" by the "tragic muse" that I rose up from an hour with King Henry V to offer battle royal with a squad of good-natured big schoolfellows, who never understood why they were set upon in that special way. But they rallied, and speedily I found myself "reduced to the lowest terms." The old doctor, who was jealous of the rival newcomer, said to my father: "Your boy is not a fighting character. He has been reading Shakespeare. That Shakespeare makes boys 'sassy' and we must put it down." The good old doctor long ago went to his reward, but "that Shakespeare" holds on.

I had read every book in town that I could understand when I left home at the age of 20 to go to college, and I doubted if the parson or even the new doctor himself could understand a good many of the musty volumes that I tried anew and gave up in despair every year.

But there was teaching and "government" in the 8 district schools that somehow developed from that crowd of 300 "children and youth" a remarkable set of men and women, who achieved a success in life of which any country might be proud. And the explanation was not found in the possession by their teachers of any special "method of instruction," for I doubt if one of them had ever heard of a normal school. I never in my youth heard a discourse or read an "article" on school discipline; but the school master or mistress that couldn't "keep order" and teach "good morals and gentle manners" in this little republic was either summarily "run off" by a rebellion among the big boys or dismissed with no recommendation by the school committee. The ordinary teachers dealt with the three R's, especially arithmetic; a little history and geography of the Peter Parley order, and occasionally the easy beginnings of algebra. The "languages" were taught in private by the minister or at the "fall school" of select scholars. We had already come into the use of a greatly improved style of schoolbooks—Rev. John Pierpont's admirable readers; Adams's, Smith's, and Colburn's arithmetics and algebras; Morse's, Peter Parley's, and Olney's geographies, and Greenleaf's grammar. There was also a good deal of instruction out of school, given generally by the better set of teachers to the more promising pupils during the long winter evenings, sometimes in a regular evening school for arithmetic or spelling, or to a little squad of youths gathered about the master or mistress or assembled in the minister's study.

But besides this work at the schoolhouse, the whole town "kept school." In a community so concentrated as a school district every family had its eye on the schoolhouse from the first to the last day of the term. The teacher was the "town talk," especially if a stranger, a college graduate, or a minister's daughter. They were taken up at once into the society of the place, petted and "treated to all there was in the house." And rarely would one come across a group of young men and women more worthy of the affection and respect of a superior community than the teachers of these schools during the fifteen years of my acquaintance with them. The young men were often students or graduates from college, with few exceptions the best of the best families; the young women the daughters from the most cultivated homes in the county—the choice young folk that afterwards became "leading spirits" all the way from the Atlantic to the Pacific Slope. The schoolmasters were the life of society during the winter; kept the village lyceum at the high-water mark; managed an extempore theater, under the innocent name "speaking school;" presided over the "spelling school;" and were often the chief singers in the church choir. They gave all they had, almost "without money and without price," for the poor little salary of \$12 to \$25 per month and board for men, and \$6 to \$10 for women. Each of them had often an entire class of the more ambitious boys and girls "fitting" for the academy or college. Among these teachers, perhaps half a hundred in all the schools in town during the fifteen years of my acquaintance, there had been but few failures. And the best of this business was the result of this "working together for good" upon the children. The youthful side of the community came up in the focus of the interest and affection of a whole people. The superior youth were followed by the most stimulating and inspiring good will of their native town. No training of mind, morals, or manners by a select class, that isolates the child from this large observation and sympathy of a friendly community, can take the place of a concentrated public which made a university of every respectable town in New England during the most critical period of its developing civilization.

A small number of our young folk were able to leave home, for a term or a year, for attendance on one of the several academies within 20 miles of the town. I suppose, as in my own case, the chief advantage of a short period spent in this sort of schooling was the social opportunity of contact with the best life of the country and the acquaintance with the considerable number of superior young people brought together in this way. If a boy was "fitting for college," he sometimes "took off his coat" and studied hard; as young Horace Mann prepared for admission to Brown University in four months. But even at Harvard the entrance examination was not a very formidable ordeal. Anybody who had passed with credit through the common school and, at the academy or at home, had acquired a moderate English education, read a few hundred pages of Latin and Greek, with less mathematics, got in at the country colleges. Yet even in these seminaries the real "tug of war" began and was not relaxed until "commencement day." Half a dozen fortunate fellows from the Boston Latin School, Andover, and Exeter, or a superior country academy, came well prepared for the freshman class, and on that scale the class work was organized. And this made the life of three-fourths the members of the first class in college emphatically "a hard road to travel," especially for those who during the winter months were compelled to teach school, often beyond the vacation term, to "keep the pot boiling" at college. Yet the honors of the senior class were often won by these hard-working country boys, too often at a sacrifice of health and life that would shock the educational public of to-day. Half my own class of 30, including myself, "broke down" and drifted away, and not half a dozen are now alive. The old-time New England college was an educational slaughter house, and any institution of learning that should now present such a physical record would itself be condemned with universal execration. The almost absolute lack of provision for physical training; the struggles of ambitious young men, imperfectly prepared for college life; the exhausting vacation labors at school-teaching or other occupations, and the detestable arrangements for diet and comfortable living made the enterprise of "getting an education" almost as hazardous as service in the army in war time.

The girls had not yet come to their day of opportunity, although a few went to Mount Holyoke Seminary, Mrs. Willard's famous school at Troy, or some less celebrated female academy. Many of these academies were coeducational, and these, I believe, had the best record of educational and social success.

The whole educational life was bound up with the heart and mind of the people, and the district school was a great educator in more than one way, because it was the vehicle through which learning, virtue, and enterprise were dispensed to the children in a town of 1,000 people. It was also the one place where the children were gathered together, free from that "strife of tongues" in politics, religion, business, and social scandal which was the terror of the old New England society. The Bible was read, prayers were made, and the good master and mistress preached,

often better sermons than the parson in the church, on all the common duties of life and the practical applications of religion, but rarely with any purpose of sectarian proselytism.

Not the least of the good things in the old-time district school of New England was the discipline of "keeping school" upon the large number of young people engaged in it. To a careless, ignorant, selfish spirit no toil is so hateful, no weariness so exhausting, no return so thankless as the service in the schoolroom. But the majority of the teachers in these schools, especially in the better sort of towns, were the best young men and women of the time, and the proportion of this class engaged in this work was larger than at present. It is impossible that a right-minded, ambitious, tolerably intelligent young man or woman, working in the focus of public observation, brought in such intimate relations with the best and in a position to observe the worst elements of society, should not be improved, disciplined, and in all ways impressed. Thousands of teachers in the country and village district schools of New England of half a century ago were educated by their first term of professional service as in no other way, especially in the knowledge of character, the ability to govern and influence other minds, and the aspiration for higher authority and a loftier success in life. I can truly say that to my own five winter terms of service as teacher in the district school, never receiving a salary as large as the better class of negro teachers now expect in the Southern States, I owe an inspiration and an insight into life which I never obtained in school and scarcely found in church.

A singular moderation and discretion seemed to hedge about the school from the distracting life of the neighborhood. It was "a peculiar people" that trained and educated their children in this way. The way was not, perhaps, the modern high-road to knowledge, but for the waking up of deep thoughts, high purposes, and noble ambitions it was a great school. There was in it all, in the entire arrangement of society in the New England life of half a century ago, a profound respect for knowledge, a reverence for eminent attainments and ability, and a willingness to aid youthful capacity and worth in its fight for success. Hence the condition of a New England town in its school keeping at that early day had a special value, from the fact that the majority of the tolerably intelligent people and everybody of good faculty of observation knew what they were talking about and directed their minds to something really valuable in view of some particular people or class of children. One notable feature of the carefully guarded and supervised education of the present is that it is practically a department of society, lifted out of reach of common observation, of which as little is known as of the goings on of any other sort of professional activity. Thus a good part of the public and private contention over the schools is by people practically unacquainted with the record of the American common school, unacquainted with what is going on in the schoolroom, often with only a formal or intermittent interest in public education. It is all the difference between a whole people doing a good thing with all the force of their highest ability and best intelligence through a beloved institution and in cooperation and sympathy with the practical world, and a professional class teaching in an isolation only broken by the grind of expert supervision, with the "hope delayed" of a wise or intelligent response to any appeal to the community for justice, sympathy, or cooperation in this difficult work. Despite all its shortcomings, new Massachusetts owes to the district school of fifty years ago a debt the present generation will never repay.

The civilization of the New England colonies for the one hundred and fifty years before the Revolutionary war was one of the most concentrated and isolated in the records of modern history. The stormy New England seacoast of 700 miles furnished its only practical communication with the more civilized portion of the world. On the north were the Frenchman and his Indian allies, always prepared for war. The splendid valley of the Hudson was first in possession of the Dutch, who had bequeathed to their British successors a system of land occupancy abhorrent to the independent and intelligent farmers of the eastern colonies. At an early date some enterprising "mynheer" of Manhattan had built a fine stone tavern on the East River to accommodate the travel of the Yankees to Virginia. It is well remarked by a careful student and illuminating historian of these colonies that "the neglect of Old England was a great factor in the early progress of New England." Originally cast by the religious intolerance of the mother country into a far-off wilderness, and for one hundred and fifty years chiefly noticed for some new manifestation of industrial, social, or political hostility, this people, who were largely drawn from the class that fifty years later wrought the greatest revolution in the British Islands,

early learned to stand by each other and work out their own salvation with fear and trembling before the Judge and Sovereign of all the earth.

Never was there a people with a more notable genius for local self-government. "Before there was any royal or colonial constituted authority the towns of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, of their own right, were exercising all the necessary powers of government." In religion pledged to the theocratic ideal of government, and at first making an honest effort to establish a theocracy in the New World, their practical executive faculty soon got the better of their creed, and after a brief period they settled down to a virtual republic. State, church, school, social, and industrial affairs were all the direct offspring of the will of "the responsible people," and never after in any essential respect were permitted to break loose from their sovereign's control. The congregational polity of the church and the original fashion of the elementary school were the results of the common necessities of such a community. The force that held all together was a common sense of public affairs that touched every detail of the life in this world, while looking upward with the intense faith of the devotee to the world to come, all worlds being included in the personal and watchful providence of God. In forty years after the first settlement of the colonies New England was in all essential respects a government and order of society as compact and thoroughly outlined as to-day. With one hand it tilled the stubborn soil and out of its meager supply of mineral wealth laid the foundations of American manufacturing industry. From its stores of fish, tobacco, and native products it built up the first American commerce. In marked contradistinction to the policy of the Middle States, the New England people were jealous of foreign interference and limited the occupation of every new town by a careful discrimination.

In its early experiments at establishing a currency New England exploded half a dozen financial theories. Its township system of government was the training school of the most influential and powerful section of the nation, the original Northwest, and well might Thomas Jefferson say in his conflict over the embargo: "I felt the foundations of the Government shaken under my feet by the New England township." At first the minister of the church was chosen in town meeting, everybody was taxed for the support of public worship, and church attendance was made compulsory. But the Bible could not be read at any public ceremony, nor a minister permitted to perform the rite of marriage, so great was the jealousy of a union between state and church. By arrangements for ownerships of lands and herding cattle in common, in connection with the most obstinate individuality in private possessions, the people learned the great art of living together. Indeed, despite the theory that New England was the child of Holland, "about all the Puritans of the Plymouth colony learned in Leyden was how to live together in a foreign country." "They knew they were Pilgrims and looked not much on those things they had left, but lift up their eyes to ye heavens, their dearest cuntry, and quieted their spirits." They believed in fighting for all their rights, and practically exterminated the Indian as soon as he proved an obstruction to civilization, although he was offered every opportunity to be converted and educated "and made a man of."

For half a century before the Revolution New England was in almost continual warfare on its northern border, and the magnificent Adirondack world of northern New York was the military academy where was trained the soldiery which not only composed the majority of the Revolutionary Army, but, as Washington said, "was almost the entire Army at the close of the eight years' conflict." Although the early common school was the handmaid, it was never the child or the annex of the church. Both church and school were the offspring of the "reasonable" voting people. In 1641, at the first movement for the election of delegates to a "general court," "a body of liberties" was drawn up almost in the terms of the later Massachusetts "bill of rights," its fundamental political principles being essentially republican. One of the first laws of Massachusetts was for the compelling of parents, guardians, and employers of children and youth to attend to the education that would qualify them for good

citizenship. In Windsor, Conn., children bound out to apprenticeship were secured in the opportunity to be taught reading, writing, "casting accounts," and a trade, with an outfit of clothing, a musket, and 20 shillings at manhood.

In short, it has been well said that "the most noteworthy contribution of New England to history is the contribution of solid common sense to the art of living." But the "common sense" here noted is not a superficial knack of handling the common affairs of the material side of life, but that rare and decisive blending of all faculties in the sovereign art of "good judgment" applied to life itself in all its amplitude of interest, from the least duty of the moment to the vast concerns of national affairs and the uplifting expectations and hopes of eternity.

CONNECTICUT.

It can not be denied that the settlement of the Massachusetts Bay Colony included a larger contingent of able men and, on the whole, was a better representative of the broader and more cultivated element of the New England life than its neighbors. The settlement of Connecticut was effected by a class of men equally obstinate and capable, but somewhat repelled and worried by the tendencies that, after the close the English migration in 1640, pointed to the enlargement of the Puritanic social and religious limitations. Hartford and New Haven were in no respect below their predecessors in their love for education. We have already seen that the first Massachusetts school laws were at once reproduced in Connecticut; that for half a century the new colonies sent a regular detachment of students to Harvard and contributed according to their means for its support; and that more than one of the pious old schoolmasters of Boston, including Cheever and Bailey, were called from New Haven. There is little doubt that the claim of Dr. Henry Barnard is correct, that up to the Revolutionary war the condition of public education in Connecticut was a nearer approach to the present American common-school system than in any of the remaining colonies. Indeed, at this period, if we are to believe the reports of the day, there was little or no illiteracy in Connecticut. The parent and guardian was compelled by law to instruct his children and wards and bring them up to some calling or employment. Every town was taxed 40 shillings on £1,000 with a State tax, which was paid only to those towns which obeyed the statute for local taxation. A common school was kept six months in the year and the grammar school was, in most of the larger country towns, to fit students for college. Yale college, established in 1700, was a corporation somewhat under the control of the legislature, which appropriated £120 yearly for its support. Neither social nor sectarian distinctions were permitted to intrude. "All were brought under the assimilating influences of early association and similar school privileges." It is not remarkable that a colony, which for more than a century had been developed under such auspices, should have come forth in the Revolutionary epoch as one of the foremost of the land and at one stride should have taken a position among American States never to be essentially shaken. And one of the most conclusive proofs of this superiority was the establishment of the first State school fund in the Union. Begun in 1650, it was consummated in 1795 by the dedication of the proceeds of the sales of the Western Reserve of Ohio as "a permanent and irreducible fund" for the support of common schools. In 1800 the population of Connecticut was 250,000 and, up to that date, it had gone on under the educational statute of 1650 as modified by successive acts of the legislature during one hundred and fifty years.

It would seem to be a strange anomaly that the two American colonies most prominent for the obstinate individuality of their people should have consented to sit down through many years of the national life under the charters of their earlier days, conferred by the Kings of England, with no serious attempt to frame constitutions appropriate to a republican Commonwealth. But such was the case with Rhode Island and Connecticut. The charter of 1650, given to the united colonies of Hartford and New Haven by King Charles II, was adopted as the constitution of

the State of Connecticut and so remained until the formation of the first original fundamental law in 1818 in a convention authorized by a bare majority of the people. The reason for this may perhaps be found in the liberal provision for suffrage in the colonial charter, every man swearing loyalty to the government being qualified to vote for magistrates, and the legislature thus chosen empowered to appoint the judges of the courts. There was no mention of education in this charter and none was added on its indorsement by the State in 1776, and, with the exception of a brief provision respecting Yale College and the State school fund, no addition was made in 1818. The people took the responsibility from the first and established a system of public schools more stringent than now exists in this or any other Christian country. The towns were required under penalty to establish common and the cities high schools. The parent, guardian, or master was charged with the triple obligation of teaching the children to read, write, and cipher, or some equivalent; to guard the morals of youth; and to bring up the boys to a "trade, calling, or occupation." In default of this, was a penalty or fine and, in case of aggravated disobedience, the child was taken in charge by the State and "bound out" or put into a manufactory. For years the hideous law of the old-time Hebrew and Roman barbarism remained on the Connecticut statute books, whereby a child could be put to death by the public authorities for persistent rebellion against parental control. We are not aware of the proof that any child was slaughtered under this edict. And it is not easy to decide whether the perpetual complaints of youthful "ungodliness," disorder, and general depravity were the morbid exaggeration of the "ower-guid," or the natural reaction from this attempt to build up a new Hebrew theocracy and revive the Old Testament code in a new world.

But this ironclad system of compulsory education was, singularly enough, enacted and enforced in the most democratic of all the colonies; where the clergy were elected by the people of the "societies," as the church was called, were forbidden to administer marriage, and where Yale College went on for several generations with no religious-test charter. But the historian who looks for superficial legal consistency in the days of these powerful and "stuffy" old makers of New England will be in chronic maze. The fundamental ideal of the New England of the colonial period was that the people, under God, were the creators and administrators of state, church, school, and, as far as may be, of social and industrial life. No rule is so despotic as a democracy where all are of one mind "to will and to do" according to their own good pleasure. In such a State, every caprice, prejudice, or malignity that for the time possesses the popular brain will be "enrolled in the capitol" as law and enforced at all hazards. The isolation of the Connecticut colonies doubtless intensified popular opinion and held this small number of able and conscientious folk in a compact body for the first one hundred and fifty years of their history. But one thing was secured—the most intelligent community of people then in the world. There was probably very little illiteracy in Connecticut up to the Revolutionary period, although, in notable, broad-minded, and influential men in every department of life this colony was not distinguished especially above Virginia, Massachusetts, and New York.

From the first, however, the clergy of Connecticut seemed to have been relatively a more influential body than in Massachusetts. Sandwiched between the comparatively progressive colonies of the eastern section of New England and the serene solidity of the Dutch of Manhattan these "defenders of the faith" early began to warn against the danger of heresy in Boston. For sixty years, however, Harvard College was the head school of the higher education for Hartford and New Haven; every Connecticut town was supposed to contribute something toward the new seat of learning; and a large contingent of students, including the leading families, was constantly on hand. But up to this period Harvard was little beyond a school for the clergy, who were utilized in large numbers as teachers of the common schools. But, as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century, the elements of religious

progress and dissent appeared in Cambridge. The Connecticut "watchman on Zion's walls" sounded the alarm, as did the college in northwestern Massachusetts. Both Williams and Yale came into existence somewhat as a quiet protest against the dangerous tendencies of the university. Yale College was founded by a club of ten Connecticut ministers, who "pooled" their libraries and "put their heads together" to build up a home center of scholarship and religion which should be a bulwark against the outer world.

As long as the people were of the same mind the common-school system went on under the direction of the towns which made the "societies" or parishes, the same people voting in town and "society" meetings for the administering of their respective interests. There is no evidence of revolt by the exclusive religious or social public against the democratic equality in these early schools, where the children of rich and poor, high and low, sat on the same rude benches and "meekly received the engrafted word." This was a mild combination of the most elementary preparation of the three R's, flavored with a daily dispensation of the Westminster Catechism and all "well rubbed in" by "the terrors of the law;" that ironclad discipline which turned the heart of one of the greatest educators in America, Dr. Eliphalet Nott, in his boyhood in Connecticut, against the barbarism of the birch, strap, and ferule and sent him forth to organize in Union College, at Schenectady, N. Y., the famous "moral suasion" system of discipline which has now become the habit of every respectable college and university and public and private high school in the country.

But it was inevitable that the heresies of the outward world by the dissenting bodies of Massachusetts and Rhode Island and the good-natured indifference of the Dutch of Manhattan should invade this Connecticut preserve of "pure and undefiled religion." As early as 1712, a dozen years from the establishment of Yale College, the first movement was made by the ecclesiastical party to capture the educational system of the colony and make the "society," properly the parish or church, the unit of school administration. By the law then enacted the parish then existing or to be created was practically made a school district, bound to attend to the local administering of the education of all children, and the public tax of 40 shillings on £1,000 was paid over to the society authorities. This is declared by Dr. Henry Barnard, the learned author of the History of Education in Connecticut, the first departure from the time-honored school system of New England, in which the town, without the legal cooperation of the church, established, administered, and with the aid of rate bills collected from the patrons, supported the common schools. The first step in 1712 was to make the society or parish church a school district and put into its hands the responsibility and labor of local management, although the towns still reserved the power in the background as the recognized authority for all that was done.

But "it is the first step that costs" in all things. This "first step" so emphatically taken, the others followed in due order. By a series of laws (all of which can be read in that masterly state paper, the educational report of Supt. Henry Barnard, in 1853), these parishes were clothed with increasing powers. They could divide the parish into separate school districts, choose a school committee, and, finally, came to be the recognized administrators of both the district and county high schools. The details respecting the obligation of towns and methods of taxation underwent changes, but through all these successive variations is heard the steady tramp of the church and the clergy to establish a control of popular education as complete as in any European nation in any period of modern history.

The climax was reached when, in 1795, the preliminary steps taken sixty years before toward the establishment of a permanent school fund were completed in the dedication of the \$1,000,000, received from the sales of State lands in the Western Reserve of Ohio, as an "irreducible fund" for the education of the people, thus making Connecticut the leader of American States in this regard. This act precipitated the collision between the churches and clergy and the majority of citizens

who still held to the original right of the whole people, in their fundamental function of voting in town meeting, to the control of the schools. For a short period already a law had been on the statute book by which no private school could be established and no person teach at all without a license from the proper authorities, thus placing the entire system of education in the hands of "the societies." Now a further effort was made to give to the churches or parishes, under the thin disguise of "school societies," (1) the entire responsibility for the initiation, organization, and administration of all public schools, and (2) the control of the new State fund for the entire management of the church and school. By the law of 1793 the annual income of the State school fund was to be distributed among the school societies according to their population, etc., for the support of the clergy and the schools. The societies were empowered, in addition, to receive the avails of the State school tax and to impose additional taxes, by a vote of two-thirds of the people, for additional advantages in the county and the establishing of the secondary education in high schools. This would have established, at the beginning of the century, in the heart of a New England colony, a system of public schools, in their practical operation similar to that now in the mind of one portion of the Roman Catholic hierarchy in this country, public in name, subsidized by the State, but really in the hands of the clergy. Yale College was already a denominational school, yearly growing into a stronger antagonism to what was regarded the "skeptical tendencies" of the more Eastern States, still to some extent dependent on the State for support.

But here the people "drew the line." The new bill secured the powerful support of Rev. Timothy Dwight, the prospective president of Yale, who in an elaborate sermon defended it by the same line of argument by which the Catholic bishop of Connecticut now defends the subsidizing of the parochial schools of his own church. The bill was also supported by the clergy as a body, who certainly had the plausible excuse that here was a provision for their support that somewhat relieved them from the unreliable dependence on the yearly vote of supplies by their people. But a violent discussion was precipitated through the press and in the legislature, which resulted in the compromise measure of 1794. By this statute the income of the State school fund was to be given to the school societies, but for the sole use of the schools; and the parishes were compelled to make special application to the legislature for the use of any portion of the money for church purposes. But on the real fighting ground, the right and power of the parish, under the name "school society," to manage the education of the people, the ecclesiastical party held its own. It confirmed public education in what has been well named "the disastrous policy" for almost half a century, under which, from the foremost, Connecticut was steadily drifting to the rear column of the common-school army of the Union.

The first division of the income from the school fund, in 1800, amounted to \$23,651, and in 1813 reached \$35,000. But it was soon discovered that, as in so many States of the Union, this, the biggest "pile" of money in the Commonwealth, was becoming the carcass where all the eagles were gathered together. Here the people once more took the field and summoned Hon. James Hillhouse from his seat in the Senate of the United States to the office of "commissioner of the school fund." Anticipating the career of the rising young politician Horace Mann, in Massachusetts, twenty-five years later, Mr. Hillhouse left his high place in the national Senate to go home and work for the children. During the fifteen years of his admirable administration the fund was increased and a sum distributed to the schools larger than the original plant. In doing this, Commissioner Hillhouse established a precedent of incalculable value to the country. His successor was Hon. Seth Beers, for years an assistant trained in his office, and who afterwards was made superintendent of public schools as one function of his office as commissioner of the school fund. From the administration of Hillhouse the fund was increased by 1825 to \$1,700,000, and during the twenty-three years of Hillhouse and Beers, \$1,200,000 had been expended in the distribution.

But even this beneficent provision for the children was perverted through the

administration of public education by the "school society," during the entire period from the beginning of the century till the great educational revival of 1830-1840. It is no special reproach to any church that it can never administer a system of popular education save as an annex to its own ecclesiastical and spiritual establishment. Intrusted by the common consent of mankind with the high special function of ministering to the religious nature and the guardianship of personal piety and morality; dealing with the awful issues of sin and holiness and the eternal fate of the human race, it can not be expected that any matter, in comparison so unimportant as the training of childhood and youth for the duties of good citizenship in this world, will be administered in any but a half-hearted or a partisan way. Any school, save one of the higher sort which is a training seminary for a priesthood, will always in this connection be a sectarian preserve, under the control of a body of men or women consecrated to and honestly working for ends so infinitely superior to those proposed by the common school that the education will be, in fact, of the Sunday-school type, and the school only an "annex" of the church. Moreover, the Protestant ecclesiastic was, during the first fifty years of the Republic, the most influential class in New England, and nowhere in New England was this class more able, devoted, and influential than in Connecticut. But during these years this State was still one of the smaller Commonwealths in population; was a fearful sufferer from the effects of the war of 1812; greatly depleted by the first rush of emigration to the new Northwest, and in no good condition to assert itself in the line of an effort for the advancement of the common school. The churches were poor; the clergy lived in narrow circumstances, and public affairs in State and nation were greatly disturbed.

Under all these conditions it is not remarkable that the district school, under the sole direction of the school society which represented the ecclesiastical more than the public interest, steadily declined in public favor, lost the approval of the superior people, and fell into disrepute even with those whose sole dependence was upon it for the education of their own children. The provincial laws for local taxation and the support of the higher grades of instruction fell into desuetude. From the gift of Governor Hopkins, Hartford and New Haven were able to support respectable high schools. New London and some other places still kept alive the old-time county high school. But more and more the people came to depend on the annual distribution of the income of the State fund for their chief reliance, eking out a deficit by an occasional extension of the term through private subscription. In 1820, when the distribution of the State fund reached \$62,000, the State tax was thrown overboard and the school system of Connecticut declined to a commonplace district school; in session a short term in winter and summer, taught by incompetent teachers; in a majority of cases confined to the most elementary branches, with school books often little better than useless; with no aids for the teacher, who often "boarded round;" in schoolhouses generally unfit for occupation and with next to no arrangements for the illustration of the best oral method of instruction, so necessary to the instruction of young children.

During this period some unimportant and some valuable additions were made to the school legislation of the State. The most important was the law compelling manufacturing corporations to be responsible for the education, industry, and morals of children in their employ. This was, possibly, the beginning of this type of valuable legislation in the country. But the abolition of the State school tax in 1820 was a reactionary policy, and the growing neglect of the habit of local taxation for schools became a chronic evil, fatal to the success of any effective system of public education. Naturally, the wealthy and educated class, as in all similar conditions of public opinion and policy, provided for themselves through the multiplication of private and academical schools. In 1830 it was ascertained that the people of Connecticut were paying for the schooling of 10,000 children and youth in the academies and private seminaries as much as for the 70,000 in public schools. The old reputation of the "land of steady habits" for popular intelligence was rapidly

passing away. The coming in of a foreign-born population at the call of the rising manufacturing interest was giving the State a new experience of an illiteracy of the European rather than of the American type.

In 1824 there seems to have been a passing tidal wave of reform in American school affairs that swept through the Eastern and Middle and beat lightly against the shores of the new Western and Southern States. The chief result in Connecticut was to wake to an active and aggressive life a body of notable men and women who cooperated under the name of The School Society. They began a systematic agitation, through the press, public address, and especially by the formation of the earliest educational associations in the country for the reform of common-school education. In 1827 was formed at Hartford the Society for the Improvement of Common Schools, with men like Noah Webster, Henry Barnard, Gallaudet, May, Olmsted, Skinner, Holbrook, Hillhouse, Williams, and others as its moving spirits. These men at once put themselves in communication with a similar class in Massachusetts—Fowle, Brooks, Alcott, Carter, Hall, Russell, Woodbridge, Emerson, and their associates. A lively campaign for the children was inaugurated which, during the coming ten years, increased till "it thundered all round the sky."

As early as 1816, Denison Olmsted, principal of the New London High School, had begun the vigorous exposure of the inefficient system of public education. He advocated "an academy for teachers" twenty years before the first State normal school was established in Massachusetts. In 1822 Governor Wolcott called the attention of the State, in no unmistakable language, to the condition of public school affairs. From the old habit of eleven months' school in every town, they had declined "till there was not a school of sufficient grade in the State, supported by public funds." At this time Commissioner Hillhouse was succeeded by Hon. Seth Beers, under whose vigorous administration the State fund still accumulated. In fifty-six years \$4,200,000 had been distributed to the people on an original capital of \$1,000,000.

In 1826 the governor of the State returned to the agitation and a legislative report revealed the gravity of the situation. There was absolutely no State supervision of the schools supported in large measure by the distribution of the income of the State fund, and no reliable public information of their condition. The neighboring State of New York had moved in the matter of State superintendency in 1812 by calling Gideon Hawley, of Connecticut, to the position of first state school commissioner and, on the abolition of the office, combining its duties with those of secretary of state. Meanwhile attention had been attracted to the admirable management of the State school fund of Connecticut, but at the same time the weaker features of the school system of the State were exposed to national observation. The opposite policy of Massachusetts, in supporting her common schools almost entirely by local public taxation, was approved by the leading educators of the country.

In 1830 an important convention was held in Hartford in the interest of common-school reform. The venerable Noah Webster presided, and President Heman Humphrey, of Amherst College, Massachusetts, made a powerful and illuminating address. At this time there were 1,600 school districts in the State. Schoolmasters were paid \$11, and schoolmistresses \$4 a month, generally "boarding round." The committees of the school societies were declared grossly negligent of their duties, and often there was no school in session during the summer. In 1828 an important document had revealed to the people the condition into which this fatal policy of handing over to "the societies" the most precious interest of the State had landed Connecticut in one generation. Unless this and similar representations were grossly exaggerated, there is no State of the Union to-day in a more desperate plight in respect to popular education than Connecticut in 1830.

In 1834 a legislative committee reported that the attempt in 1831 to collect educational statistics had been a failure. Only 136 of 209 school societies had responded to the inquiry, and they imperfectly. The committee urged further action along the same line. In 1836 the sum of \$739,000, received by the State as its portion of the distribution of the "surplus revenue," was deposited with the towns, with the

direction that one-half, and, by the consent of the town, the whole amount should be held as a permanent school fund. In 1837, after fifteen years' agitation, the school societies were required by the legislature to make definite reports on the condition of the schools. Henry Barnard had now come to the front as the Erasmus of the great reformation of which Horace Mann had already appeared as the Luther, in Massachusetts. The report issued by the legislative committee of which he was a member was a sufficiently explicit document to arouse a community even more impervious to assault than the "school society" public of Connecticut. It was seen that men teachers were paid \$14.50 and women \$5.75 per month, chiefly "boarding round." The State was in a disgraceful condition of demoralization in regard to school books. In one polyglot school were found 5 different spellers, 24 readers, 9 geographies, 11 arithmetics, 7 histories, and 6 grammars. Six thousand children in the State were in no school, and 10,000 children and youth of the well-to-do families were costing, in private, more money than 70,000 in the common schools.

In 1838 matters came to a head. A State board of education appointed by the governor was authorized, with an additional member for every county. This board appointed Henry Barnard as its secretary.

No document in the educational history of this country is more instructive than the elaborate chronicle of the common schools of Connecticut prepared by Henry Barnard and issued by him as his eighth report on assuming the position of State superintendent of education for a second term in 1853. So thorough was the lesson learned from this that the educational movement which characterized the second half century of the Republic adopted, as a fundamental idea of public educational policy, the absolute separation of church and state in the common school. Since that disastrous experiment no American Commonwealth has called on any or all of its religious bodies to relieve the people of their responsibility of superintending public education by officials directly responsible to themselves. "Religion, morality, and knowledge" are still inscribed on the pillars of the schoolhouse as "essential to good government and the happiness of mankind;" but it is "religion, morality, and knowledge" as apprehended by the whole people in their actual relations to life, and applied by their own elected representatives for the making of good citizenship.

The State school fund was built up from the sale of the public domain secured to Connecticut at the time of the final decision respecting the claim of several States to the Northwest Territory before the establishment of the present Union. The only lesson to be drawn from this record is the bad policy of depending entirely either on a State school fund or State taxation for the support of public education. As a demonstration of the danger of such abuse of school funds by an American Commonwealth, this is a valuable object lesson, further illustrated in the case of several of the Northwestern States, that for a generation depended so largely on the income of the land grants secured by the ordinance of 1787; for all experience has demonstrated that the only effective motive power of the common school is an enlightened and resolute public opinion that moves the people to generous and persistent local taxation for education.

The most important lesson taught the American people by the example of Connecticut during these melancholy years is the absolute necessity of refusing any complicity with the ecclesiastical power under any denominational name by any scheme, however specious, in the administration of the common school. The people of Connecticut before this period were the foremost of all the colonies in the hearty support of public schools and the most successful in securing a high condition of public intelligence. In proportion as they permitted the church and the ecclesiastical power to encroach on their prerogative, they fell from their high estate. Although the same people ruled in town meeting, as citizens of the State, and in the parish meeting and "school society" under the influence of the church, yet in the one case they recorded their own judgment on matters very near their common interest and on which they had deeply thought, while in the other relation

they followed the lead of their spiritual advisers on a subject too often left to the judgment of ecclesiastics and scholars by the parents and guardians of children.

For half a century did the people of Connecticut battle in vain to get out of the maze of this entanglement. It was not till 1856 that the school societies were finally abolished and all their properties and functions turned over to the common-school authorities of the towns. And still the vicious system of individual school districts which has held on with such an obstinate grip in New England is retained in this State, to the acknowledged harm of the general educational interest, while the common schools are more than half supported by local taxation and improved in many essential ways.

But even more than we have seen in Massachusetts, the depressing effects of this long interregnum in popular education in Connecticut was modified by an environment of eminent people. They kept alive the best educational tendencies of the State, made Yale College a strong tower of the higher education, and prevented the people from going to sleep by an agitation through the press and speech that gathered strength with every successive year. The good cause was also greatly favored by the influential position occupied by many Connecticut men and women who, in other States, stood foremost in the upper walks of college, academic, and public responsibility, and were careful that the great success of the State in the development of its school fund should not be forgotten.

One of the most conspicuous advantages of our republican form of government, especially in an intelligent community, is that, when legislatures fall behind in wisdom and honesty, even into a slough of corrupt politics, the brain, character, and executive power, always latent in the community or State, assert themselves through every channel of influence outside political agencies and finally bring the majority of the people to recognize their danger and perform their duty. There is always a special difficulty in arousing an American city or State to the neglect or abuse of its common-school interest, because it is so easy for the people of wealth and culture, especially the professional classes, to withdraw their own children into the exclusive circle of private or denominational church seminaries and let the "common herd" struggle on as best they can. Besides, the education of children and youth has been for so many centuries an almost unquestioned prerogative of the clergy and the scholastic class in Europe, that it is not remarkable that our new American colonies, which were, even to the last, deeply attached to the mother country, were disposed to let matters in this respect drift in the "good old way" of the fathers, and not risk the novel and expensive experiment of educating the younger third of the State by putting their hands deep in their pockets, at best fearfully shallow.

Connecticut, for reasons already mentioned, was, and remains to the present day, the most conservative of the New England States. The State lived under the provincial charter of King Charles II for thirty years after the establishment of the Union; resisting far more strongly than the more Eastern colonies the progress of theological and educational reforms. But, as a compensation for the slow movement of the masses and their average clerical advisers, no American community during the first half century of the Republic produced a greater number, not only of eminent, but "first men," in several important movements that have so largely modified the educational policy of the whole country. It would be a valuable contribution to our educational literature if somebody would gather up the deeply interesting facts stored in that great educational treasure house, Barnard's American Journal of Education, and supplement it by a volume containing the biography of the grand army of Connecticut educators, who from the earliest period have emigrated from the old colony even to the nation's "jumping-off place" in every direction, to say nothing of the not less notable host who at home have battled for the better time to the children and youth. A brief notice of a few of the best known of these admirable men and women will only reveal the great company of

the true and good that can be remembered to the honor of the State and for the encouragement of every friend of popular education the world over.

At the beginning of New England education in Connecticut and Massachusetts Master Ezekiel Cheever, born in England, began his long and honorable career as the head of the first school in New Haven, Conn. Finding the ecclesiastical atmosphere somewhat too rare in that locality, he emigrated to Massachusetts and, first at Ipswich and afterwards in Boston, won and wore the laurels at that day accorded to the successful teacher of youth.

Later we find Caleb Bingham, a native of Connecticut, who took up the educational work in Boston at a critical point, led the Boston girls up to the open door of knowledge and lifted the inefficient common-school system of the city out of the ruts into the beginning of its present estate, where \$2,000,000 are yearly expended for the training of 80,000 children in public and private schools.

About the middle of the seventeenth century, Governor Hopkins, of Connecticut, left one of the earliest of the generous contributions for education in the Hopkins fund, with which the famous high schools of Hartford and New Haven are to-day partially supported, and in which Hadley, Mass., and Harvard College are, to some extent, still participating.

During the past century the State of Connecticut has given three men of commanding ability to the national leadership of common-school education; each at a critical period appearing as a providential educator—Noah Webster, Henry Barnard, and William T. Harris. Of these, Noah Webster was the patriarch in respect to time, and with the progress of the years may be declared most eminent of all the prophetic minds who, at the beginning of the Republic, laid the foundations for the training of the whole American people for American citizenship. Certainly no man, at a period so early, grasped the idea that any system of universal education in the United States must be essentially an American system, like the National Government, industry, church, and social order, born of the genius and organized and administered by the executive faculty of the whole people. With a prescience and singleness of mind that earned for him the name of fanatic and estranged the literary class of more than one generation, he early laid hold of the idea of a national culture for a republican order of affairs in a new world, and, with a patience born of insight, wrought during sixty laborious years to forge the implements by which the youth of the New World might fashion their destiny.

He never concerned himself especially with the details of school keeping in any department, well knowing that if the masses of the people could be furnished with the suitable agencies for making their way to the sources of knowledge, they could be trusted, with the passing years, to fashion a practical and effective scheme for general enlightenment. Like all reformers in the misty and illimitable realm called education, he was some what ridden by fancies and wasted too much time and strength in the trial of impracticable experiments. But, with the development of the higher scientific and educational agencies of the country, these have disappeared, and Noah Webster is now remembered as the man of whom such weighty sentences as the following can be written: "He saw the vast crowds of American children. He knew that the integrity of the country was dependent on the intelligence of their votes." * * * "He made a speller which has sown votes and muskets." * * * "He made also a dictionary which has grown under the impulse he gave it into a national encyclopedia, possessing an irresistible momentum." * * * "He made elementary education possible at once and furnished the American people with a key which moved easily in the lock." It was such anticipations as these that supported the colonial educational movement of Dr. Benjamin Franklin; inspired the more radical and comprehensive scheme of Thomas Jefferson; made possible the great revival under the lead of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and their coadjutors, and is now being realized in the national advance along the lines of the new education, of which the most eminent representative is the present United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. William T. Harris.

Noah Webster was born of a good family in the village of East Hartford, Conn., in 1758. He soon got through with the poor-enough district school of the day and, by the help of the Rev. Mr. Perkins and the Hopkins Grammar School, of Hartford, entered Yale College at the age of 16 and graduated in due time. At this date Yale had 150 students, 3 professors and 3 tutors, and a library of 4,000 volumes. The only public library of New England was a collection of 12,000 books made by a Boston bookseller, who advertised a stock of 10,000 on his shelves. Young Webster's college life fell upon the opening years of the Revolutionary war. He played the fife at the head of the student brigade, which escorted Washington through New Haven on his way to assume command of the Continental Army at Boston. He spent a vacation under arms in the reserve to the extemporized crowd of "embattled farmers," who fought, conquered, and "led captive" the army of Burgoyne from northern New York to the New England seaboard.

After graduating he opened a private school at Sharon, Conn., studied law, and in 1780 was admitted to the bar although he never became a professional lawyer. Yale College was passing through its transition state from a local school of theology to a proper institution of the higher education. Between 1748 and 1778 the per cent of clerical graduates had fallen from one-half to one-tenth of the student force; the old-time system of classification of students by social standing had given place to the alphabetical arrangement; and the time was approaching when Dr. Timothy Dwight would take the reins as president and give the first positive impulse that has placed the little academical and clerical school of the last century in the forefront of American universities.

It was the day when the almanac did the work of the newspaper and, outside two or three New England colonies, the mass of the American people had not come up to any reliable intention of promoting general elementary education. Webster said in 1790, "Knowledge is more diffused among the laboring people (the farmers) of New England than in any country on the globe. They read, write, calculate, read the Bible and about all the best English authors—the Spectator, Rambler, Dr. Doddridge, etc. On political subjects the learning of our eminent American statesmen is superior to that of most European writers, and their opinions more correct. There is a lack of clerical and scientific learning, and there are few tolerable libraries, and these exceedingly imperfect. Great numbers of the most valuable authors have not found their way across the Atlantic. There is little hope of education from the action of legislative bodies. Some false theories and errors in science which the British nation has inherited from illustrious men, and nourished from an implicit reliance on their authority, are to be overthrown by the genius of America."

In sentences like these we come upon the radical genius of Noah Webster. He saw at once that it was neither from reliance on European leadership nor dependence on the assumption of legislative authority at home that the American people must expect the schooling that would make, for the last and most hopeful human venture on earth, the new American citizenship. He saw more clearly than many a "great educator" of the present day that in this respect the American people would get only what they demanded and were willing to pay for, organize, supervise, and stand guard over from generation to generation, whatever might be the opinions or action of the leaders of the higher education or self-appointed magnates of the national culture. He realized that during his own life he might be subjected to a practical ostracism from the large and influential class whose intellectual life revolved within the narrow circle of Old World ideas and ideals of education. At an early age he entered upon the prodigious work of putting into the hands of his countrymen, of "all sorts and conditions," the tools with which, educationally, they could "work out their own salvation."

His labors were concentrated upon such an arrangement for adjusting the native language to the use of the heterogeneous populations of the colonies as would furnish a proper medium for the imparting of knowledge and fusing into one people the multitude of many nationalities and tongues that found themselves within the

frail inclosure of the Confederation and the scarcely more reliable bond of the Union of 1788. He lost no time in "fooling" with his radical work and less than might be predicted by trifling with impracticable experiments. As early as 1782, at the age of 24, he planned his famous Grammatical Institute, the fruitful parent of the great world of American schoolbooks and the first publication in the interest of general education which attracted at once the attention of the foremost men of the country and was adopted by the people with an eager relish prophetic of much in the years to come. This threefold work included the famous spelling book, a grammar, and a series of readers; and during the coming years evolved into a succession of useful popular educational works, a History of the United States, The Teacher, Manual of Useful Studies, etc.

While getting on his feet he "kept the wolf from the door" by teaching, lecturing, editorship, vigorous public pamphleteering, the all-round work which any rising young man was compelled to undertake in those days when the first severe strain came upon the new system of republican government. But his political and journalistic writings were but a sort of preparation for the continuous labors of his mature years. Indeed, as a writer, his theme was one long deliverance on patriotism; the necessity of emancipation from the characteristic ideas, as from the political domination, of the Old World; the culture of self-reliance in a young people, hitherto regarded as a backwoods population at the farther end of creation, but destined to become at no far distant time the instructors of the world along the lines of popular self-government and a new order of social affairs.

While the northern division of the Army of Independence was resting on the Hudson River awaiting the final order to disband, Noah Webster was putting the finishing touches to his new spelling book in a neighboring village. Timothy Pickering sat up all night to read through an early copy and wrote home to his wife that it was "a work that would do honor to the country." The speller was the first American schoolbook that won national fame and received from several States the first copyright. In 1783, largely from Webster's urgency, Congress recommended a general law of copyright, and in 1790 the first national laws in behalf of the rights of American authors were passed. Of the success of Webster's spelling book it is hardly necessary to speak. By 1849 24,000,000 copies had been sold, and the demand continued at the rate of 1,000,000 copies a year. It was everywhere bought by the country storekeepers as a necessary part of their stock in trade. During the civil war it was republished for the South. The revival of education in this section at the close of the war brought it forward and from 1866 to 1873 8,000,000 copies were disposed of. It lay next the Bible in the home of the freedmen, and is still held in peculiar reverence through large sections of the Union.

The grammar was an attempt to construct a text-book on the basis of the English language that should not be practically a translation of a Latin accidence. The readers were filled with extracts from the patriotic speeches and writings of American statesmen and divines. Each of these works contained an annex of useful general knowledge, and in a way this series of Webster's schoolbooks covered the entire field of the elementary popular education, supplanting the clumsy and misleading text-books of the eighteenth century, out of which George Washington, at the age of 13 graduating from all he knew of a school, probably concocted his famous series of manuscript treatises on the different branches of knowledge, which are now preserved, among other treasures of early American literature, in the library of the State Department at the national capital.

But all these studies and essays at authorship up to the age of 50, however important in themselves, were regarded by Noah Webster as preliminary to the central work of his life, to present a "revised and improved" encyclopedia of language to the American people which should redeem the mother tongue from the corruptions and entanglements in which it had been involved by the writers and lexicographers representing the Johnsonian era of British literature.

Dr. Samuel Johnson was then the undisputed authority in all matters connected therewith, not only at home but on this side the water. Webster had come to the conclusion that Johnson's Dictionary had wrought a corruption of the English of an earlier day and, in a controversy with Dr. Ramsay, the head of the literati of Charleston, S. C., stoutly maintained this assertion. He was also greatly impressed with the difficulty of English spelling and, like Dr. Franklin before him and an increasing throng of American scholars at the present day, labored for a reformation. He asserted that an abbreviated spelling would serve the double purpose of making the language far more easy of acquirement, save years of time to the learner, be a great agency in the unification of the different portions and classes of the country, favor the publication of American books, and be a powerful influence in emancipating the American people from British ideas and habits of life. He also proposed and partly executed a new translation of the Bible. He spent a year in Philadelphia with the aged Dr. Benjamin Franklin, and became in a way the inheritor of the opinions and labors of this greatest popular educator of the colonial American mind.

With all these vast and vague aspirations surrounding his central purpose, like a drifting world of golden clouds and rainbow mists enveloping a mighty mountain summit, he sat himself down in 1806 at the age of 50 to begin the work of his life, the preparation of his Comprehensive Dictionary of the English Language. He had already published a Comprehensive Dictionary, containing 5,000 additional words beyond Johnson's, with reliable tables of importance, which were an innovation on the lexicography of the period. Previous to this he had begun a series of extended journeyings through his own country which he continued through his life, lecturing, studying, and mingling with all classes in all sections of the Union. Some of his theories have the mark of a shrewd originality; as that the nasal pronunciation of the New England people was a result of their equality of social position, a state of society in which the peremptory habit of speaking characteristic of the slaveholding States would not be tolerated, as every man spoke to his neighbor in a deliberate and half-inquisitive manner. It was his conviction that his labors tended to wake up and make permanent a spirit of mental independence among American youth. He said, "I have contributed in a small degree to the instruction of at least 4,000,000 of the rising generation, and it is not unreasonable to expect that a few seeds of information planted by my hand may germinate and grow and ripen into valuable fruits when my remains shall be mingled with the dust."

Having made this initial essay toward his final work, he set about the preparation of his great dictionary, well named "A Vast People's Schoolbook," in the most deliberate and determined manner. He sold his ancestral home and lived in a plain cottage in the country; changed his abiding place from time to time in pursuit of economical living, and resisted all appeals of family and friends for additional personal comfort and enjoyment that would wean him from the one mission of his life. He lived at New Haven, Conn.; Amherst, Mass.; New York, then a city of but 3,500 houses; at Princeton, N. J.; and Philadelphia, Pa.; finally, from necessity, at Paris and Cambridge University, England, where, in 1825, he finished his stupendous work, which was published in 1828 and thoroughly revised in 1840. He died in 1843, engaged in a further revision, at the age of 85. His original dictionary was the first publication to take advantage of the national copyright law in 1806.

One of the peculiarities of the final work was the liberal quotations from American writers in illustration of the use of words. He maintained that the best authors of our country wrote the language as well as contemporary Englishmen. He anticipated the day when President Eliot, of Harvard, could inform a club in Boston, on his return from an extended vacation tour through the north of Africa, Asia Minor, and southeast Europe, that "the English language is now a sufficient guide to a traveler in any part of the civilized world." Webster declared that in two centuries English would be spoken by more people than any other language, save possibly the Chinese, the language of the vast population of that still

half-barbaric realm. He seemed already to hear the approval and encouragement of his labors from the thronging millions of the English-speaking people around the globe.

It is not in the line of this essay to engage in the long-drawn discussion of the merits and defects of the original or the present Webster's Dictionary. That at the time of its earliest publication, seventy years ago, it was a prodigious advance in the direction of introducing the English-speaking people on this side the Atlantic to their own magnificent language, the language of constitutional government, the depository of the world's noblest literature, destined to follow the progress of free government and universal education around the earth, can not be denied. His theories and crotchets concerning a revised spelling were at least as rational as most of the similar "reforms" of the present day; and his often eccentric notions of derivation and pronunciation, with other fancies which were the changeful environment of his great central achievement, have gradually been eliminated from his work. At first derided by a portion of the literary and learned class in his own country and neglected abroad, his dictionary has been adopted by the ablest group of philologists in America as the substance of the most useful popular dictionary of the English tongue, and is more widely in use than any rival. It doubled the number of words found in any dictionary of the period.

That it should have done all this at the time and under the circumstances of its authorship places Noah Webster at the head of the long line of American men and "noble women, not a few," whose lives have contributed to that type of culture of the American people which has passed into and abides in the most characteristic national creation, the American common school. It was significant that his own college, Yale, that was always nearest the heart of the American people in the old days, and still, of all the educational collegiate establishments that have come down to us from the colonial period, is most in touch with our new American life, should at last adopt the work of its most famous early graduate and give to its enlargement and perfecting the best effort of long years of philological investigation, never leaving its hold on his original idea till it became the best known handbook of the American use of the English language.

While in the organization, administration, arrangement of methods of instruction, and general manipulation of the common school in all its departments we must assign the foremost honors to others, the final verdict of the American educational public will be that in the department of the preparation of an original school literature, the beginning of the prodigious national industry of the making of common-school books in which American authors hold an undisputed preeminence, Noah Webster stands without a rival, the patriarch and prophet among them all. Here is honor sufficient for one man and, with the added distinction of other educators, like Henry Barnard, Emma Willard, Eliphalet Nott, and others only less celebrated, places the little Commonwealth of Connecticut at the head of the column of direction leading up to the decade of the auspicious revival of American popular education in 1830-1840, during the first half century of the national experience of the American common school.

In a similar line we find James Wadsworth, the head of the honored family of that name, established in the valley of the Genesee, in western New York. With his earliest appearance in what was then the American "out West," his interest and activity in popular education began and continued through his long and beneficent life. Born in 1768, in Connecticut, he became an efficient agent in the first important movement in his adopted State, New York, for the improvement of the common schools. It is claimed that the Empire State was the pioneer in the system of free school libraries, which have not only been a growing local blessing to the whole country but, in many of our larger cities and villages, have become the nucleus of the free public library that is now justly regarded as the right hand of the common school. By personal effort and the free use of his money he was perhaps the most

influential of all men in this movement, which extended at a later date to Massachusetts and Ohio.

When the State of New York in 1812 awoke from the lethargy of two hundred years and, under the vigorous leadership of De Witt Clinton and other distinguished publicists, took the first advanced step in the steady march toward the great educational achievement of the present day, it called a young lawyer of Albany, Gideon F. Hawley, of Connecticut, to the post of first State superintendent of education, more than twenty years before Massachusetts appointed Horace Mann and nearly thirty years before Connecticut called Henry Barnard to a similar position. Mr. Hawley was also for many years the secretary and later a member of the New York board of regents of the University of the State of New York.

William A. Alcott was born in Connecticut in 1798, and during the period now under consideration was emphatically the "man of all work," besides his service as a tireless public and private worker in nearly every important associated effort in behalf of education. The catalogue of his popular books includes more than one hundred publications and for an entire generation his name was a household word among the homes, churches, and schools, especially of New England States. Says his biographer: "No living individual has devoted more hours during forty years to education, especially in the common school and the family." He was not only the working man in many of the educational organizations of that day, but the inspiration of thousands of young men and women who, in their own way, have become shining lights in the educational history of the nation.

During the same period Prof. Charles Davies, born in Connecticut in 1798, had lived through his career as an educator of national reputation and had been professor at West Point, Columbia College, and the State normal school in Albany. He was the author and translator of a series of text-books in mathematics of wide repute and became an honored leader in that class of studies through all the colleges west of the Hudson River.

Thomas H. Gallaudet, though born in Philadelphia of Huguenot extraction on his father's side, was a son of a Connecticut mother and lived out his crowded and beneficent career in Hartford, Conn., where he came as a schoolboy. He was the leader in the great enterprise of establishing the institution for the deaf, dumb, and blind in that city; was also a fast friend and indefatigable worker in the interest of the public instruction of the masses, and a member of the first society in New England for the improvement of the systems of universal education. He was the author of the memorable saying, "public schools a public blessing."

John Kingsbury, born in Connecticut in 1801, rendered a most valuable service to the city of Providence and the State of Rhode Island by founding one of the most celebrated female seminaries in the country. In this school the gospel of thoroughness, which has now become the watchword of the new education in every superior school for the sex in the Union, was ground into the very texture of the instruction, under which an entire generation of the young women of Providence were schooled.

President Timothy Dwight, still one of the most celebrated of the presidents of Yale University, as the head of the higher education in Connecticut for a generation, although in his early ministry found on the wrong side in the critical discussion concerning the original distribution of the State school fund, was still a most earnest friend of the common-school revival of 1838.

President Heman Humphrey, of Amherst College, Massachusetts, remembered by the students of my own generation as the venerable father of us all, especially through his wise and instructive preaching in the college chapel and his admirable series of "freshman lectures," was an enthusiastic friend of popular education, and gave one of the most stirring addresses at the celebrated convention in Hartford that "forced the fighting" in 1838.

Another president of Yale College, and in more than one respect one of the leaders of the educational reform of a later period, Noah Porter, did yeoman's service

in this revival by a prize essay on "Popular education in Connecticut," while still a young minister in Springfield, Mass. This essay is one of those classics that could be republished to-day with great profit, bound up with the remarkable pamphlet of President Thornwell, of South Carolina College, the racy address of Hon. Henry A. Wise, of Virginia, to his constituents on public education, and other not less characteristic and "epoch-making" deliverances in other portions of the Union.

Rev. Wilbur Fisk, not a native of Connecticut, but closely identified with the higher education as first president of Wesleyan University at Middletown, should not be forgotten. At this juncture he stood up, a tower of strength, in the good cause of a broader and higher scholarship in the upper story of the educational temple which, without a foundation on the bed rock of general intelligence in the people, is in our country "a house built on the sand."

Foremost among the famous women of the country, in a period when it required the courage of the greatest scholar of the "stronger sex" to assert the right of American girls to the higher education, were the sisters Emma Willard and Almira Lincoln Phelps. These two admirable women, who made a splendid record at the Troy (N. Y.) Female Seminary, which for years stood foremost as the promise and prophecy of the hundreds of important institutions now opened to the young women of America, were born and educated in Connecticut. Mrs. Willard's seminary became a national school for the mental, moral, and social uplift of the young women of many States. At the Patapsco Seminary, in eastern Pennsylvania, her sister, Mrs. Lincoln Phelps, labored at the preliminary stages of popular nature studies, then almost neglected in seminaries for girls, but now made one of the most attractive departments of study in all the American women's and coeducational colleges in the land.

We have already made mention of James Hillhouse, distinguished as the manager of the first considerable public educational State fund of the country—that of Connecticut. His name can never be left out of the record of the faithful public servants who, in every State, with a holy obstinacy, have guarded the children's money from the assaults of the public plunderer. He was, besides, for fifty years, the treasurer of Yale College, and his name is cherished as one of the first citizens of his native State.

Josiah Holbrook, born in 1788, has already been commemorated in this essay as the author of the American Lyceum, founded in the town of Millbury, Mass., in 1826. It would be impossible to estimate the influence of this great "man of the people," a sort of educational Benjamin Franklin, during his long and active life, working in every possible way in behalf of popular intelligence. The lyceum was an influence all the more powerful because so widely diffused and often so elusive and indirect. But no living educator who, as a boy in school sixty years ago, found in the village lyceum the delightful entertainment of the northern winter evening can be indifferent to the vast influence of what came from the long and varied labors of this remarkable man.

Prof. Denison Olmsted, as early as 1816, while master of the New London (Conn.) High School, was a reformer of the district school work in Connecticut. From that day until he became a member of the first State board of education in 1840 he never withheld his voice or pen in the campaign of a quarter of a century for the people's school. He advocated "an academy for teachers" twenty years before Massachusetts and twenty-five years before Connecticut moved for a State normal school. As the author of valuable text-books on natural science, his name was familiar to every student in the country.

Most eminent of all this illustrious company, and not second among the greatest educational men of this period, was Henry Barnard; still, by a gracious Providence, spared to a generation that can hardly conceive the state of popular education into which he was born in Connecticut in 1811. Early dedicated to the cause of universal education; fitted by the best home training, foreign travel, and wide acquaintance

with men and affairs, for a "nation's man;" with a large historical faculty and an industry that was never fatigued, he has lived through a brilliant career of active service as the first State superintendent of schools in Connecticut and Rhode Island; later, president of the State University of Wisconsin, and first United States Commissioner of Education. But far beyond any or all his achievements in these laborious offices is the value of the collection of educational literature in the 30 volumes of the *American Journal of Education*, which has received the highest honors of recognition from the school authorities of France, Austria, and Italy, and still maintains its unquestioned place as the great treasure-house of information in the educational literature of the English language.

Rev. John Pierpont, a native of Connecticut, was not only distinguished as one of the foremost preachers and temperance reformers in Boston and as not the least of the earlier group of American poets, but in his two school books, the *National Reader* and *American First Class Book*, gave the country by far the best series of school readers for the superior grades of pupils that has been printed in the English language. Thousands of young people owed their introduction to good English literature to the admirable selections in these volumes, the extensive use of which during the period now considered atoned for many defects in the common schools of the day.

Joseph T. Buckingham rose from a poor boy in a neglected Connecticut family to one of the magnates of the Boston press and a public man of large influence in Massachusetts.

Dr. William B. Sprague, for many years a distinguished Presbyterian divine in Albany, was one of the early graduates of the theological class of President Timothy Dwight of Yale College and a native of the State. In his elaborate work, *Annals of the American Pulpit*, he did a work for the churches of America similar to that of Henry Barnard in the educational biography of the country.

Dr. Horace Holly, for a time the leading preacher of Boston, was one of the first and by far the most distinguished of the presidents of Transylvania University, Kentucky. Although transplanted from New England to Kentucky somewhat before the fit time for his appreciation and hearty acceptance, he is still a name of power in the Southwest through the admiration of many distinguished men who dated their first awakening to noble ambitions to their student days under his presidency. More fortunate in their location were his two brothers, Myron and Orville L. Holly, who removed to the State of New York and became eminent, the former in connection with the building of the Erie Canal, the latter through his long and valuable labors as the editor of historical papers in connection with the State library. Sally Holly, the daughter of Myron Holly, spent her life in teaching the freedman in Virginia, and other members of the family have acquired national reputation.

Dr. Jared Sparks, president of Harvard College, author of the life of Washington and Franklin, and editor of the valuable series of *American Biography*, was also a native of Connecticut. In theology Moses Stuart and Dr. Robinson, of the Andover Theological Seminary, were students of the Yale theological school during this period; earlier and later associated with the memorable names of scores of clergymen of high repute, the Beecher family, Horace Bushnell, Dr. Taylor, Emmons, Hopkins, Jonathan Edwards, and numbers more or less celebrated.

All these men in many ways represented the educational influence of Connecticut at home and abroad. Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, of Boston, the adviser of George Peabody in his grand benefaction of the Peabody educational fund, and from the first president of its board of trustees, traced his family record to the Winthrops of Connecticut.

Later in this illustrious roll of educational celebrities must be mentioned Dr. William T. Harris, who, born in Connecticut in the opening year of the educational revival, 1835, a student of Yale College, became first known by his great work in the organization of the public school system of St. Louis, Mo. As a learned scholar and the most distinguished American representative of the spiritual as opposed to the

material systems of philosophy, he is known in all the higher circles of philosophic culture. At present, as fourth United States Commissioner of Education, he stands without a peer as a representative American educator.

In the year 1856, on the occasion of an article in the *Atlantic Monthly*, then especially the organ of the Boston literati, Rev. J. M. Tarbox, D. D., of Connecticut, published an interesting article in the *New Englander*, a New Haven magazine, afterwards reprinted in a pamphlet styled *Old Connecticut v. The Atlantic Monthly*. To this racy and instructive monograph we may refer any reader who desires to pursue at greater length the glorious record of the contribution of the little State of Connecticut to the higher life of the Union. "The roll of honor" spread on these glowing pages included only such names as could be gathered from the first half century of the nation's life and, of course, was relatively greater than could be gathered to-day, when the West has come up to a notable literary, educational, and especially a public life of its own. But even now there seems to be little cessation in the reliable contributions of the "old hive" to the rapidly rising civilization of the new West and the Pacific Slope.

According to this statement, no State in the Union, during the formative first half century of the national life, had made so many and so important contributions, public, professional, and educational, to the Republic as the Commonwealth which the French De Tocqueville called "that little yellow spot on the map of the Confederation that seems to me one miracle." To say nothing of its contribution to the earlier literature of the nation, in which Trumbull, Barlow, Dwight, and other authors were conspicuous, we find later, the Beechers, Percival, Mrs. Stowe, Mitchell, Holland, Winthrop, and by descent, Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes. The claim that Connecticut has been especially noted in the "first men" who were the authors of "first things" seems well made out. In 1821, thirty-three of the one hundred and twenty-six members of the convention that revised the constitution of New York were from this State, and in 1860 there were fifteen Connecticut men in the legislature of New York. Early in the century one-fifth of the members of the Congress of the United States hailed from this little Commonwealth; and John C. Calhoun declared that, at one period, the descendants of Connecticut and graduates of Yale College were only 5 less than a majority of the members of Congress. Said De Tocqueville: "This little yellow spot on the map of the United States has produced the clock peddler, the school-master, and the Senator. The first keeps time, the second tells what to do with it, and the third makes laws and civilization." Sixteen college presidents in many States, in 1856, came from the "land of steady habits," while Massachusetts had produced but 18, with a population then twice as large. Of these, 2 were presidents of Columbia, 2 of Union, and 4 of Hamilton College, New York; 2 of the College of New Jersey; 2 of Illinois College; 1 of Oberlin, Ohio; 2 of the University of Georgia, and others. Among these are the names of Jonathan Edwards, father and son; President Nott of Union, and Finney of Oberlin. Up to 1835 Connecticut had sent 158 Congregational and Presbyterian clergymen to northern Ohio alone. The first law school in the Union was established at Litchfield, Conn., in 1784. The little village of Lebanon, Conn., thirty years ago, had furnished 69 graduates of colleges and 5 governors of States. Professor Silliman, so well known in natural science, should not be forgotten. Cassius M. Clay, of Kentucky, a graduate of Yale, reports that the chief justice of Connecticut declared he had found in all his acquaintance but two Connecticut men who could not read and write. This referred to the period before the Revolution, previous to the decline of popular education during the first fifty years of the Republic.

It should not be forgotten that the early and most successful efforts to Christianize and civilize the Indians were made in this State. Eliot, in 1657; Pierson, in 1662; Newton, in 1648; the agents for the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, in 1752, and others gave to this work great labor and a devotion that deserved better rewards. The movement by Eleazar Wheelock, 1730-1740, to establish a seminary for the Indians, was practically the beginning of Dartmouth College, at Hanover, N. H. to

which place the Connecticut school was removed, as nearer the homes of the students of this race.

The history of education in Connecticut with Yale left out would be the best possible illustration of Hamlet minus the Prince of Denmark. Yale College, from its foundation by a close corporation of ten Connecticut evangelical clergymen in 1700, was in many ways a different institution from the great university of the present; but it was in a far more intimate way than any college or university in New England now the center and head of the somewhat contradictory agencies that gave to this little State its prodigious influence in the upper regions of American civilization.

For, while, with the exception of Harvard, for one hundred and fifty years previous to the Revolution, none of the New England colleges were "State institutions" in the sense in which the present group of "State universities" hold that name, yet, by the very conditions of New England society, both these institutions of learning stood in very intimate relations to the common schools, and were even more intimately connected with the academies which sent up their yearly tale of students for their entrance examinations. Unlike the almost universal habit in the Western and Southern States, these colleges have never maintained a preparatory department, the work done in this, often the largest department of the college, being usually done in the earlier days by the academies or private tutorship by the clergymen of the town.

It is true that, especially in the smaller country colleges, up to the period included in this portion of our essay, the entrance examination was often deplorably superficial, the boy who gave indication of any capacity for study being admitted without conditions. A large proportion of their students, as of Yale and Harvard, were country boys, whose opportunities for preparatory study had been confined to the "coaching" of the village parson and a few terms at a country academy, the funds for this and the college term being earned by teaching school during the winter months and often by severe labor for hire. But it was also true that, once inside college walls, there was generally no lowering of the standard to suit the unprepared. A special hardship was that, while a small group of the freshman class came in well fitted, through training schools like Exeter, N. H., Andover, Mass., and the Boston Latin School, the majority were expected to "keep up" in a course of study that from the opening day was comparatively easy to the more favored, but "Latin and Greek" to them. The drudgery was increased by the frequent necessity of the country-bred student to spend the entire winter months at school teaching, the term sometimes exceeding by several weeks the midwinter college vacation. To this and the sanitary arrangements of these colleges, there being few inducements to needful exercise, and to the half-starvation rations on which these boys attempted to climb the steep hill of science, encouraged by the educational "fad" of that period, "lean living and high thinking," must we ascribe the melancholy wreck of life and health in all these seats of learning. Half the class in which the writer of this essay was a freshman, including himself, dropped out during the early years of the course, almost uniformly from failure of health. The opponents of the higher education of woman on sanitary grounds would find themselves confuted to their entire confusion by the study of the health and life record of the boys' colleges in the New England of fifty years ago.

But these very conditions brought the higher institutions of learning in New England nearer the heart of the people. Their students and graduates were the best teachers of the "winter schools" in all the districts that were so fortunate as to employ them, and their superior graduates, as at present, furnished almost the entire corps of instructors for the better sort of academies. It was a common habit in the smaller New England towns to open a subscription school for three months in the autumn, where a higher class of studies, including the classics, could be pursued, and the teacher was usually a college graduate of the previous summer or a student from one of the theological schools. Until the Revolutionary war the teachers of the best public schools were often the clergymen, and rarely any but

the graduates of Harvard, Yale, Dartmouth, and Brown. And however earnestly the more ecclesiastical portion of the clergy of all the religious bodies might insist in holding up the ideal of a "Christian" as opposed to their notion of the common-school "secular" education in the colleges established under the auspices of their own sect, the people of New England could always be trusted to capture and use for the purposes of the broadest educational training then required every college and academy they cared to favor with a constant and remunerative patronage. There is not in New England to-day, outside the borders of the high-church Protestant and Catholic following, a college, rarely an academy, that cares to place in the foreground its denominational religious association or in any way, even indirectly, makes its theology or polity a bar to perfect freedom of study and thought in its classes. Harvard and Yale at first, and the former always, repudiated any test of this sort. Thus, in the absence in New England and the Middle States to-day of the subsidized State university of the West and South, all its colleges and universities and the majority of its private academies and corporate schools have, in some respects, the same relation to the people as if entirely supported by the State.

The clerical organization of Yale College at the beginning somewhat differentiated it from Harvard, which was the child of the State, and, until a later period of its history, in vital connection with the Commonwealth. Its founders were ten clergymen, of the Connecticut Evangelical Congregational type of their time; and even to-day their successors are the core of the governing body of Yale University. We have already referred to the very evident reaction, especially in western Massachusetts and Connecticut, against the growing liberty in thinking of Harvard which appeared in 1700 and a hundred years later left the college practically for half a century in the hands of the most unecclesiastical and unorganized of the religious bodies of the country. Yale appeared at once in a certain way as a "defender of the faith" of the fathers; although, at a later period, there sprang up in its very heart, the theological department, a movement represented by the famous Dr. Taylor, which, perhaps, is destined to a much wider influence on theological opinions than the bolder and more aggressive attitude of its older rival.

This period, from the beginning of Yale till the elevation of Rev. Timothy Dwight to the presidency, in 1795, was so filled with complications regarding its connection with the State and personal and theological differences that, at the election of this distinguished clergyman to the presidency, the college was at a low ebb.

Timothy Dwight was born in Northampton, Mass., in 1752; was a graduate of Yale College, served as tutor in his alma mater, and was a chaplain in the Revolutionary Army. At the time of his accession to the presidency of Yale, in 1795, he was a clergyman of established reputation in the town of Greenfield, Conn., where he also had established a flourishing private school for boys. His eminence as a preacher and educator pointed to him as the providential president who could lift the college out of the ruts and place it in its proper attitude before the State and the country. At this time it was little more than a collegiate school, with 100 students, taught by 1 professor and 3 tutors, with the pittance derived from a small legislative subsidy and tuition fees for its support. Its buildings were dilapidated, and its reputation was somewhat "worse for the wear" as the result of local controversies now forgotten. It would seem that a young man of whatever promise must have had great confidence in himself to put his shoulder against a wheel so obstinately sunk in the mire with any except the idea of sacrifice, prolonged through years of toil and weary waiting for a result that never comes.

But the new president had in him the stuff of which great men are made. He came to the work fully armed for all the requirements of the situation. At once he took the burden of the entire instruction of the senior class in college; preached twice a Sunday in the college chapel; taught the students of theology, among whom were Moses Stuart, Lyman Beecher, William B. Sprague, and Nathaniel W. Taylor, and had his eye on all that was going on within college walls. With rare insight

into the ability and adaptation of men, he placed in three new professorships, Day, Silliman, and Bailey, each of whom became educators and authors of national reputation, and one, Professor Jeremiah Day, his immediate successor in the presidency. At one whirl of the big college broom he swept out of doors a whole set of college customs and reformed the entire spirit and method of college discipline. He abolished fines as a penalty for college offenses, and, during his entire presidency of seventeen years, like President Nott, of Union College, New York, relied far more on his profound knowledge of student nature and personal influence than on college edicts for government, although, when a crisis invited, he soon established the idea that a college is not a realm outside the power of civilized, moral, and legal restraint. He was able to get the means for gradual improvements, new buildings, and additional teachers, although, even in 1840, the income of Yale from additional funds was only \$1,500 a year, and the deficit in tuition fees was made up by personal solicitations from wealthy friends.

When Dr. Dwight began, he found little taught in the college except a very moderate allowance of Latin and Greek, mathematics, astronomy, and physics, chiefly from text-books. In bringing Day, Silliman, and Wolsey to their several departments, he had placed on a broad foundation the study of mathematics, natural science, language, and belles-lettres. Within four years the attendance on the college doubled. The vigorous administration attracted attention all over the country, and at once Yale began to draw a considerable proportion of its students from beyond Connecticut, especially from New York City and the Southern States. President Dwight, finding it little more than a "collegiate school," left it a college of national fame on the high road to its glorious future. His reputation as a religious head of the college was greatly enlarged and extended by his success in dealing with the growing unbelief in religion of the French type of half a century ago, implanted largely through our relations with France in the Revolutionary and subsequent period, while his scholarship pointed out Yale at once as one of the most catholic and liberal of all the centers of clerical education in the land.

President Dwight resigned the presidency of Yale in 1817. He had already indicated Jeremiah Day as his successor, and this very able man was at once introduced to the presidency, which he held twenty-nine years, till 1846. His life was prolonged until the great age of 94, to the last devoted to his beloved Yale. Under his administration it is noted that the personal element in the government of the college, so prominent and essential during the years of his predecessor, fell into the background, and the faculty assumed its rightful place as the governing power of the interior life of the student community. It was during this period that Theodore D. Wolsey first appears at Yale as professor of Greek, ending as the president of the college for twenty-five years—1846-1871—having also become an author, especially in civics and social science, of national reputation. The medical, theological, and law departments of the college were strengthened by additional endowment, and men of ability, and not unfrequently of national fame, installed as teachers therein. During this period occurred the two notable student rebellions of the college, both of which were so wisely and successfully dealt with that Yale for the past fifty years seems to have been remarkably free from such unpleasant occurrences.

The startling increase in numbers at Yale is proclaimed by the wide territory from which students were drawn. During the last fifteen years of President Dwight's administration nearly every State in the Union was represented. At this time came up the great influence of Yale on the rising college and academic life of the new Northwest. Illinois College, in 1825, was a child of an extemporized society for home missions. With this movement toward the new West the college put on a certain cosmopolitan air and a sympathy with the educational life of the masses, which the university of to-day still retains. It is justly claimed that the faculty of Illinois College was one of the powerful influences in the final establishment of the common-school system in that State, after a bitter conflict of an entire generation.

Many of the older generation of distinguished men in the Union are published as the graduates of these and the following twenty years. William M. Evarts and Chief Justice Waite, Samuel J. Tilden and Edwards Pierpont were of the class of 1839. The Yale Literary Magazine and the American Journal of Science, established by Professor Silliman, were among the strongest of the rising publications of the country. Noah Webster graduated in 1798, and to Yale belongs the credit of taking up his unfinished labors in the molding of the American type of the English language and embodying the highest results of philological science in the successive later editions of Webster's dictionaries. The original government of the college has been modified by successive changes, and now consists of a central group of the successors of the original 10 among the 18 "fellows" and of the governor and lieutenant-governor of the State, and 6 representative graduates elected by the alumni.

During the administration of President Day of twenty-nine years, 2,500 students were graduated from Yale and probably no similar body of young men were ever sent forth from an American college whose career has been more decisive in the building of the nation and especially the new States of the North and Southwest. Among them were a score of eminent judges, including a Chief Justice of the United States and the heads of the supreme courts of New York, South Carolina, and Ohio; Chancellor Kent and Jeremiah Mason being among the number of its law graduates. John C. Calhoun was of the class of 1804 and Cassius M. Clay, of Kentucky, was a student of a later date. In education, 80 colleges in different parts of the country have been indebted to Yale for their presidents or for prominent members of their faculties. Six of the presidents of Yale, 38 professors and 316 tutors in 1865, had been chosen from its own graduates. In all, 18 college presidents in 15 States; in New England, 6 presidents and 29 professors; in New York, 9 presidents and 16 professors; in New Jersey, 5 presidents and 8 professors; in Ohio, 11 presidents and 17 professors; in Indiana, 1 president and 2 professors; in Michigan, 7 professors; in Illinois, 3 presidents and 7 professors; in Wisconsin, 2 presidents; in Missouri, 5 presidents and 8 professors; in Colorado, 2 presidents and 4 professors; in Virginia, 1 president, and 1 professor; in North Carolina, 4 professors; in South Carolina, 1 president and 4 professors; in Georgia, 2 presidents, and 1 professor; in Alabama, 3 professors; in Mississippi, 2 presidents; in Louisiana, 1 president and 2 professors; in Kentucky, 1 president and 1 professor; including 27 States, 4 West Point and 4 Naval Academy professors, "with a multitude no man can number" of academic, professional, and common-school men in all portions of the country, have scattered from this great center of civilization. In 1877 more than 2,000 clergymen were numbered in the roll of its theological graduates, including such names as Timothy Dwight, Jonathan Edwards, and Manasseh Cutler. The fruitful last twenty years have been no exception to the great reputation of Yale as an educator to the American people, including President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University, of Maryland; William Preston Johnston, of Tulane University; Oscar H. Cooper, of Texas, most accomplished of the State superintendents of education in the Southwest; President Harper, the head of the important university experiment at Chicago; and Chauncey M. Depew, whose oratory has become one of the best of American high schools. In science and invention Eli Whitney and Professor Morse, two men who, perhaps more than all others, have determined the material prosperity of the country, were graduates of Yale. But this essay is not a catalogue of American universities. The object of this sketch of the educational history of Connecticut is to show that while, from local and temporary causes, the peoples' common school suffered eclipse during the first fifty years of the Republic, yet, within its own borders, was found a group of the most distinguished of the common-school men and representatives of popular education, in Webster, Barnard, Holbrook, Harris, and their colaborers, in every year from the beginning of the great revival of 1830-1840 to the present day.

VERMONT.

For one hundred and seventy-five years from its discovery the valley of Lake Champlain was only a battlefield. The French Government had apportioned the land on either side in great feudal grants, which fell to the ground in 1760 on the conquest of the country by the English. The whole region, outside the shadow of its fortified posts and away from water carriage, was almost inaccessible. A bitter feud raged between the colonies of New York and New Hampshire for the possession of the territory of Vermont, and the few settlers there lived in a state of contention little short of war. Ethan Allen, a stout, shrewd, and profane border champion, led the rough Green Mountain boys in their resistance to the Dutchmen of the Hudson Valley, and left the seeds of a hatred that yet lingers in the "sleepy hollows" of eastern New York. The invasion of Burgoyne swept the western shore clean of its population, and at the close of the Revolution there were not 1,000 people in the whole valley, and they chiefly in Vermont, opposite Crown Point, and at the head of the lake, at Whitehall.

But now the difficulties between the colonies were composed by the admission of Vermont into the Union in 1791. Land titles were adjusted, military bounties were paid in grants, and population flowed in. In 1791 7,000 people were dispersed through the valley. Burlington is scarcely older than Cincinnati, and the real settlement of the Valley of Champlain and the Valley of the Ohio date from the same period, the establishment of the American Union.

But even under conditions so discouraging the early settlers of the Green Mountain State made provision for the common schooling of their children. The town of Bennington as early as 1763 levied a school tax and established the district school. In 1777 the territory so long fought over with bitter controversy and occasional border violence between the Yankees of New Hampshire and the Dutchmen of New York, by the pressure of events, became the independent State of Vermont. In 1778 the first State constitution was adopted. In 1782 the legislature empowered the towns to establish schools and appoint school trustees, and districts were authorized to choose officers to hold property, establish schools, build schoolhouses, etc. The constitution of 1793 contained the provision quoted in an earlier portion of this essay.

Four years later, 1797, the legislature made the provision for establishing common schools compulsory upon every town. In 1796 an English writer on the United States, in a work published in London, declares that "in every charter of a town provision is made for schools, with a certain quantity of land for support. In 1791 the legislature established a college at Burlington with 10 trustees. Mr. Ira Allen had offered the sum of £4,000, on certain conditions, toward its establishment." This college was the University of Vermont, founded on paper in 1791, but not opened until 1800. The establishment of this university by the State was rather in accordance with the coming policy of the new Northwest than of the New England of the period, as it has always remained substantially a State university, and at present includes as one department the agricultural and mechanical college established by the donation of national public lands in 1862, with added appropriations in 1890. The nation owes to the venerable senior member of the United States Senate, Hon. Justin S. Morrill, of Vermont, the inauguration of this most valuable legislation in behalf of industrial education, which, after long agitation and one Presidential veto, was perfected in 1862, amid the excitements and financial burdens of the great civil war.

The first place in the United States referred to as "Out West" in New England was the present village of West Springfield, on the farther shore of the Connecticut River, opposite the beautiful city of Springfield, Mass. Much more was the new State of Vermont and the part of New York west of Schenectady and north of Saratoga in the opening years of the Republic associated with that inspiring name.

The speedy movement of the few thousand people on the western slope of the Green Mountains to plant the town, district, and county grammar schools, and the State university, all before the beginning of the present century, was a happy augury for the success of the new Commonwealth. Middlebury College, representing the prevailing Congregational Church of New England, was also established on the basis of the Connecticut, western Massachusetts, and Rhode Island institutions, as a proper denominational seminary; and the Protestant Episcopal Church set up in 1834 the only remaining seminary of collegiate grade in the State.

During the first twenty years of the century the progress of common-school education in Vermont was necessarily slow. Until 1841 there was no provision for more than one public school in a district, and not until 1850 were the common schools declared free. The secondary schooling during these early years was almost entirely in the hands of private and denominational academic schools, there being thirty-two seminaries of this sort in the State in 1832. Vermont grew slowly and was early depleted by the migration of enterprising youth to the rising West, to which this State has contributed a large number of distinguished men, Stephen A. Douglass, of Illinois, and Horace Greeley and Henry J. Raymond, of the city of New York, being representatives of a catalogue that, if published, would bear ample testimony to the vigorous stock and remarkable faculty of success possessed by the boys and girls of the Green Mountains.

But the home-staying Vermonter has always shown a remarkable ability of "getting on the Lord's side" as far as the affairs of this world are concerned. Even during the stormy period that preceded and followed the second war with Great Britain, practically extending to 1820, the good work of educating the children went steadily on. The New England district arrangement was established at an early day, and, although probably a stimulant to local effort at first, became in time, here as elsewhere, an obstacle to the development of the most effective system of public instruction. The obstinate policy of Vermont, New Hampshire, and even Massachusetts, in holding out for this narrowing and obstructive method of school administration, prolonged to a very recent period in all New England outside Massachusetts, would form an instructive object-lesson for the warning of all American States.

In 1821 the grand jury of each county was required to examine into the condition of the school districts in respect to their compliance with the statute securing to all the children of the State an opportunity for education. In 1827 the towns were instructed to withhold the distribution of school funds from the districts that did not support the schools. Not till 1870 were the towns permitted to abolish the district system, and even at present the States of Vermont and New Hampshire have scarcely recovered from the wrench caused by this change of administration. At first instruction in the district schools was confined to "the three R's." By 1827 the laws required reading, writing, geography, arithmetic, history of the United States, and "good behavior." Contiguous districts were permitted to unite for the support of one additional school of superior grade before the advent of the free high school, at a date previous to the period referred to in this portion of our record.

In 1827 the revised school law established committees of supervision in the towns and a State board of commissioners of education, but this law was repealed in 1833. It was not till 1844 that the general assembly was required to elect a State superintendent of schools. The office was held from 1845-1850 by Superintendent Eaton. Charles G. Burnham succeeded for a year, when the law was ignored by the refusal of the legislature to elect until 1856. Since then the State has been served by a series of faithful officials. Gradually the present method of supporting public education has been wrought out, by which the towns depend on the income of lands originally given them and of the United States surplus revenue, supplemented by State and local taxation. The State has no permanent school fund. Vermont is one of the few States that protects the child in the right to, at least, a twelve-weeks annual schooling by compulsory law. There are three subsidized academies now attempting the work of normal schooling in the State.

In 1832 Vermont had a population of 104,000 and expended in the neighborhood of \$100,000 for its public school system. With a school population averaging 43 to each district, the attendance was only 20; the school age being 5 to 20. At this time Burlington had a population of 5,500. The State university already had 175 students and several college buildings, superbly placed on an elevated plateau commanding a magnificent prospect of the Green Mountain range toward the east and a western outlook over Lake Champlain to the Adirondack wilderness. The university has always maintained an honorable reputation for faithful work and, in later years, has shared with all the New England colleges the harvest of generous giving for the higher education which has placed them on permanent foundations and made Harvard and Yale among the most prosperous and well endowed seats of learning in America.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Nothing in American history more plainly declares the vital influence of popular education upon a people determined to secure it for their children than the development of the three northern States of New England during the past 250 years. When we contemplate the present condition of that portion of the vast Appalachian Mountain realm, central to the original Union, lifted up between the Atlantic Coast and the valley of the Mississippi, its great extent, inviting climate, and astonishing resources in mineral wealth, water power, forest, and pasture lands, to say nothing of the large amount of fertile soil in its valleys, even to-day only on the threshold of what must be a great future, and contrast with it the success of Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine, in all except the seacoast of the two latter States, beyond comparison inferior in everything that invites population and makes for the success of an American Commonwealth, we realize the supreme influence of education in the prosperity of an American State.

No American State has so happily illustrated the capacity of a superior people to wrench success out of the grip of a hostile nature as New Hampshire. The State has a territory of only 9,392 square miles, and a country whose one superior advantage of a marvelous sublimity and beauty of natural scenery is weighted by a soil always stubborn and often sterile, and a stern climate where "the farmer has three months to raise things and nine months to eat them up." Yet, from the earliest settlement, its people looked to the education of the children as the hope of the future, and no State has earned a nobler fame by the men and women it has sent forth to every corner of the Republic.

After various provincial changes, New Hampshire finally became an independent colony in 1680. Until the establishment of its State government it was, in educational matters, practically like the adjoining province of Maine, an outlying region of Massachusetts; its school arrangements were under similar laws, and it suffered from the toils, hardships, and exposures of a border life. But as early as 1743 Dartmouth College was established by the transfer of Eleazar Wheelock's Indian School of 20 pupils from Lebanon, Conn., through a generous gift of land by the province. A charter was granted by Governor Winthrop in 1769. The Indian department, like all similar attempts to educate the American Indian as an undeveloped Anglo-Saxon American, failed, half the Indian students having fallen back upon savage life. At the first commencement in 1771 four graduates appeared. The college received its name from the Earl of Dartmouth, who was the president of an association formed in England to assist the movement. Wheelock died in 1779, but his son retained the presidency of the college till 1815, when he was supplanted and a new organization adopted. This, in turn, fell to the ground by a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States reaffirming the validity of its original foundation. It has been a great blessing that New Hampshire has been almost the only State of the Union to resist the mania for the multiplication of colleges. Dartmouth, from the first, has been the pride of the State, always respectable as one of the upper strata of institutions for

the higher education, a nursery of famous men, and never more prosperous or worthy of praise than at the present time. Although at different times the recipient of the bounty of the State, it has never been a State university in the sense of the University of Vermont. The agricultural and mechanical college of New Hampshire, for a time an annex of Dartmouth College, is now a separate institution, dedicated the year of this writing.

But from the first New Hampshire has been rich in academies. As early as 1781 Phillips Academy was established at Exeter, and during the following thirty years a large number of excellent schools of the secondary education gave to the State the enviable reputation for academical opportunity it retains to the present day.

As in Massachusetts, before the Revolution the larger towns of New Hampshire were expected to support a grammar school, whose preceptor must teach the elementary branches, unless the town came to the rescue by the establishment of schools for this purpose. The Indian wars and the strain of the Revolutionary epoch told severely on the ability of the people to sustain their original system. But in the first constitution of the State, in 1784, appears the comprehensive clause previously quoted securing to the children of the Granite State forever that great American chance of public instruction for every American child, concerning which Daniel Webster said: "If I had as many boys as old King Priam I would send every one of them to the country district school."

Perhaps a glimpse at the boyhood and early manhood of this foremost of the group of eminent statesmen that New England has given to the Republic will best light up the condition of educational affairs in New Hampshire during the last twenty years of the eighteenth century:

Daniel Webster was born in 1782 in the little provincial town of Salisbury, now Franklin, N. H.; the younger of two sons and the fourth child of the second wife of his father. He was not himself born in a log cabin, but the elder children were, for the family home was on the frontier, with a vast northern wilderness beyond, stretching to the southern plains of Canada. Daniel said he did not remember when he could not read the Bible, his mother and sisters having been his first teachers. While still a child he was sent from 3 to 4 miles every day to a little district school where only reading and writing were served up, and when this meager seminary was too far off he was boarded with a neighboring family for convenience in going to school. One of the graceful acts of his later life was shown in a series of kindly letters addressed to one of his old teachers, Master Tappan, the third under whom the boy was tutored. This relic of the old-time New Hampshire schoolmaster, in his old age, was a parishioner of the author of this essay. He died at a great age; his mind faded away almost to the memory of his "scholar," Daniel Webster, "the godlike" Little Daniel was no prodigy, and, while he "read better than his master," writing was always to him a difficult and hateful act. He devoured all the books at home, the Spectator of Addison, Dr. Watts's Psalms and Hymns, and other volumes in the little village library.

In 1796, at the age of 14, his father placed him in Phillips Academy, Exeter, where as the junior of 90 boys, "like a cat in a strange garret," he began the real work of his school education. During the first term he gave his mind to reading, grammar, and arithmetic. The Latin grammar came with the following term, under the instruction of three men afterwards celebrated—Rev. J. S. Buckminster, Judge Thacher, and Counselor Emery. One of them sent him up to a higher class with the prophetic message, "Webster, you will go into the other room, and, boys, you will never see him again."

Returning home in 1797, his father placed him in the family and under the tutorship of Rev. Mr. Wood, in the neighboring town of Boscawen. It was on this memorable journey that his father told him he "lived only for his children," and proposed to send his dear boy Daniel to Dartmouth College; and the boy laid down his head on his father's shoulder and wept tears of joy. To do that required a sacrifice that not only pledged the father, but the entire family, to years of toil and careful

economy. He studied with Mr. Wood, and very soon was sent "up aloft" as before, entering Dartmouth in 1798. At college he read English history and devoured Don Quixote at one sitting, "not laying down the book for five minutes." He paid his board at college by editing a village paper containing abundant extracts from the English literature accessible to the editor, and made a few addresses, which he declared were "written in an unnatural and flashy style." It was characteristic that at Phillips Academy he never was able to muster courage to appear on the platform for declamation. In his sophomore year he summoned a family council in behalf of a college course for his elder brother, Ezekiel, and after a serious overlook "of the sinews of war," by his own offer of aid this brother, who died a young man of great promise, became his companion in study.

At the age of 19, in 1801, he graduated from college. Having already begun the study of the law, he taught a school at Fryeburg, Me., for \$350 a year, earning 50 cents additional at night by copying law papers. His law studies were continued with this local lawyer until the graduation of his brother. Then, obtaining a school for Ezekiel in Boston, he went thither to the beginning of his illustrious career.

But it was not every son of New Hampshire who had the pluck and "sacred fire" to push through these formidable obstacles to an education at this period; nor was many another son blessed with a father, mother, and sisters ready to pledge all things in this world for the furnishing of the upper story of life. The first constitution of the State of New Hampshire, framed in 1784, contains the already quoted declaration of the obligation of an American State to its children.

In 1789 the legislature fixed a rate of assessment for the school tax and provided for the examination of teachers. In 1808 a further addition was made by an increase of the tax and appointment of a supervising committee in the towns. At an early day the subject of gathering school libraries appears to have been mooted in the towns and school districts. In 1821 the State began the establishment of a literary fund by a tax of one-half of 1 per cent on the capital of all banks. In 1827 there was further revision of the school laws, which gave to the towns a somewhat larger function of administration, although the district school committee had the practical management of school affairs, a local right which only during the past twelve years has been surrendered after a fight of a century's duration, and the town finally has been established as the unit of school life.

For two centuries in New Hampshire the progress in the evolution of an efficient system of public education was slow, and only a dozen years after the waking up, by the great revival in the neighboring States of Massachusetts and Connecticut, did New Hampshire follow in the establishment of teachers' institutes, which continued from 1846 till 1874. It was 1848 before a State board of school commissioners was appointed, and in 1867 the State superintendent of education reported the country school realm a field sorely in need of vigorous supervision. From that day the State has shared in the great educational progress of the country, and to-day, with the disadvantage of the steady drain of the efficient people from its rural districts, is not behind in the race for intelligence, with a strong increase of opportunity for the secondary education in a State normal and free high schools. Previous to the beginning of the century there seems to have been an unusual prejudice against the employment of women as teachers, and in 1800 the wages of the pedagogue ranged from \$4 to \$10 per month; the master or mistress often boarding around.

MAINE.

In the early colonial era Massachusetts was by no means, in physical proportions, the "pent-up Utica" of to-day. With her nearest attachment of New Hampshire, more extended than herself, and her vast "down-east" annex, the province of Maine, her dominions were not inferior even to the original Commonwealths of the Northwest, and amounted to 50,000 square miles. New Hampshire at an early date shook off her dependence, and in 1680 set up for herself. But for one hundred and

forty years more the outlying territory of Maine held on with a somewhat divided allegiance. During the last thirty years of this period the great landed estate of Maine enabled Massachusetts to act with liberality in the endowment of academies, and afterwards, in 1834, to lay the foundations of her State school fund from the sale of her extensive, though still undefined, distant possessions.

Before 1820, when Maine was admitted to the Union as a State, its educational history was involved in that of Massachusetts; the school legislation and general educational arrangements being as nearly alike as circumstances would permit. Bowdoin College, chartered in 1794, was twelve years in getting out of its cradle upon its feet, and was lifted in 1806 into active operation by the gift of 6,000 acres of land by Hon. James Bowdoin, of Boston, from whom it received its name. Waterville College was also established at an early period. Fryeburg Academy was founded in 1792, in a region just reclaimed from the northeastern wilderness. From that date, year by year, we read the names of a succession of academical schools, the majority subsidized by gifts of land, which ministered to the growing need of something better than the meager common school of the day in a country so sparsely populated could supply. These district schools were not essentially different from those of the other portions of New England similarly situated.

But the people of the Pine Tree State were by no means disposed to be "left out in the cold" in the movement for a better schooling of the children, that gathered strength in New England from the close of the Revolution till the final peace between the mother country and the new Republic in 1815. The constitution of the State, adopted in 1820, contains the following relating to literature:

A general diffusion of the advantages of education being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, to promote this important object, the legislature is authorized, and it shall be their duty to require, the several towns to make suitable provision, at their own expense, for the support and maintenance of public schools; and it shall further be their duty to encourage and suitably endow, from time to time, as the circumstances of the people may authorize, all academies, colleges, and seminaries of learning within the State: *Provided*, That no donation, grant, or endowment shall at any time be made by the legislature to any literary institution now established, or which may hereafter be established, unless, at the time of making such endowment, the legislature of the State shall have the right to grant any further powers to alter, limit, or restrain any of the powers vested in any such literary institution as shall be judged necessary to promote the best interests thereof.

As soon as possible the legislature moved for the passage of a law for the taxation of each town to the extent of 40 cents for every inhabitant, the avails of the tax to be distributed among the school districts for education. From the first the schools were free and, with an endowed academy in almost every considerable center of population, furnished a respectable opportunity, as things went at that day, for the beginnings of an education. The free high-school system of the State was delayed for half a century more, until 1873.

In 1825 there were in the new State 2,419 school districts with 138,000 children and youth of school age; 101,325 were actually in school, and \$137,000 was expended for public education. There were then 337,000 people in the State and it was estimated that in 1833 there would be 140,000 children and youth of school age, 5 to 20. The schools of the State began with a large per cent of "regular attendance" and to-day Maine has the largest relative number of children between 6 and 14, under this head, in the Union. At this time, 1825-1830, the schools remained in session four and one-half months in the year, with an average of 40 pupils to a district, and an expenditure of \$1.35 per capita for the number attending. There was already more than \$220,000 invested in academic schools, attended by 1,000 pupils at a yearly expense of \$50 to \$60. The record of this period closes fitly with the establishment of a State board of education in 1846 composed of one member from each county, elected by the local school committees in joint session. The first official secretary of this board was W. G. Crosby, who served from 1846 to 1849. The great movement for popular education in Maine has come since the close of the civil war.

RHODE ISLAND.

Of all the thirteen early American Colonies the most unique was what might almost be called the nation of Rhode Island. It was settled by Roger Williams, who, with his well-earned reputation as the founder of the first human government established on the idea of the absolute separation of state and church, combined a restless and "come-outer" disposition which drove him out of the ministry of the most democratic of all the religious bodies into the position of a "seeker" after religion. A colony thus founded, sandwiched between three provinces as obstinate in their religious policy as Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, and Connecticut, would naturally attract a population as far off from its neighbors as might conveniently be. Thus grew up, around the lovely shores of Narragansett Bay and Providence River, with headquarters at Newport, a little dominion, in which each of its four counties claimed and possessed a state house, every town was relatively a kingdom, and every family a "peculiar institution."

It does not seem that the zeal for "civil liberty" by the early inhabitants of Rhode Island, largely of the Baptist denomination, conduced to either superior culture, unusual morality, or Christian courtesy. The way in which good Parson Manning, first president of Brown University, spoke and wrote of a clerical brother in the church, who had apostatized from the popular denomination in favor of a creed that stretched the infinite love of God to the incredible extent of infolding not only sinful man but fallen angels and even the Prince of Darkness in "the restitution of all things," bears mournful testimony to the difficulty of casting out the devil of personal intolerance, even while ready to live and die in behalf of "freedom of conscience." While the neighboring Colonies of Massachusetts and Connecticut established Harvard and Yale universities with no religious test, the movement for the charter of Brown in 1764 culminated in a violent controversy with Rev. Dr. Stiles, of Newport, who, invited to draw up the charter for a new college, made the governing body consist of a majority of non-Baptist officials, under the impression that what was called for was a union college in which each evangelical body should be represented in proportion to its membership. This charter was defeated. But once rid of this incumbrance and the governing power lodged in the Baptist denomination, the college at this early day did repudiate all religious tests in its methods of instruction, and in this respect has maintained a broad and progressive spirit of administration even to the present day.

The early history of the higher education in New England would be incomplete without a brief reference to George Berkeley, bishop of Cloyne. He was born in Kilkrimmin, Ireland, in 1684, and died at Oxford, England, in 1753. His life of well nigh 70 years was contemporaneous with Swift, Locke, Leibnitz, Boyle, and Newton, and he left a name in philosophy and a reputation for a broad and practical catholicity in religion that declared him one of the ornaments of the literature and church of England. His graduation at Trinity College, Dublin, was followed by a fellowship and a series of promotions as traveling companion of a bishop's son and a secretaryship to the Earl of Peterboro and the lord lieutenant of Ireland; followed by an appointment as dean of Derry, in 1724, at the age of 40.

An idealist by temperament and philosophy, he was of all others the man to be caught up into the seventh heaven of romantic aspiration for a mission of education and evangelization in a new world, still to the young Irish poet, priest, and scholar a wonder world of hope and splendid opportunity. Discouraged and disgusted with the routine life of a regulation Church-of-England official at home, he struck out on a magnificent plan for the founding of a college for the enlightenment and christianization of the natives, but apparently with no prejudice against the ignorant and vicious white folk of the British Colonies over the sea. A fund, derived from lands acquired by a recent treaty with France, hove in sight as an endowment of £20,000 for this institution, and he was the man to burn his ships and "sail out into the west," a new Columbus on a nobler mission than the discovery of the Indies. He

seems to have inspired several young men with his own enthusiasm, one of whom was the first artist imported into the Colonies from Great Britain. In 1728, soon after his marriage, he left his deanery and, with all his worldly goods and household gods, pushed off into what was regarded with good reason as a visionary experiment.

As a practical enterprise, this cherished plan came to nothing, for he did not go to the Bermuda Islands, but landed at Newport, R. I., in 1728, with his young wife, a lady companion, and the three apostles of his educational project. Here he purchased a farm of 100 acres, built a residence, and spent a few years, chiefly occupied in writing and hoping against hope for the fruition of his grand mission. But the hard-headed ministry at home did not dispense the £20,000, his own fortune rapidly disappeared, and the impossibility of the millennium that hovered for years before his imagination was at last admitted. He returned to England to an appointment as bishop of Cloyne, an Irish diocese, and spent the remainder of his life upon the philosophic, scientific, and literary works which have made a positive addition to the literature of the language.

But, like so many men whose dearest plans fail of execution, the influence of Bishop Berkeley on American educational affairs turned out far greater, broader, and more beneficent than the sinking of \$100,000 in another abortive effort to civilize and christianize the North American Indians through the agency of the English school and church of one hundred and fifty years ago. The little city of Newport, R. I., had then a population of 6,000 and was the most thriving town in America of its size, with a mixed multitude divided into sects and fragments of sects—four sorts of Anabaptists, Presbyterians, Quakers, infidels, and many of no profession at all. The good missionary of higher things was not to be suppressed by any discouragement. He wrought with all diligence as preacher, center of culture, promoter of good enterprises, author, and friend of the superior education. He was greatly charmed by the natural loveliness and salubrity of the place, and would gladly have founded his college there had it been possible there could be a college at all.

One of the most useful of his numerous inspirations was the establishment of the literary association that founded the Redwood Library, at one time the second in importance in America, and from the first a great power in the Colony. William Ellery Channing pursued his studies there after his graduation from college, and one of his most eloquent periods was called forth as a reminiscence of his life among the books and strolls along the sea-beaten cliffs of Newport. An acquaintance with Rev. Mr. Elliott and Rev. Samuel Johnson turned his attention to Yale College. After his return to England he gave his estate of 100 acres to this struggling seminary as an endowment for scholarships which, like so many similar gifts of those days, has become rather a pleasant tradition than a positive aid to education. His subsequent donation of 1,000 volumes, valued at £500, to the library of Yale, was in its time a great benefaction. He proposed doing something of the kind for Harvard, and encouraged the plan of a college at New York of the Church of England type; afterwards realized in Kings, now Columbia College, of which his friend, Rev. Dr. Johnson, was first president.

There can be no doubt that the residence of Berkeley at Newport was a positive agency in the establishment of Brown University; and, in all the ways by which the residence of a man of commanding personality and powerful influence in the uplift of a community can enter into the tendencies and inspire its best efforts, he was one of the highest and noblest ministers of a Christian civilization in the eighteenth century to Rhode Island.

But the gift of foresight and prophecy is often a more potent influence in the progress of a people than any special good work wrought in the lifetime of the best man. Berkeley celebrated what he supposed the success of his great educational project by a burst into song. His "Verses on the prospect of planting arts and letters in America," though of no high merit as poetry, were prophetic in a vaster and more

exalted sense than the writer dared to hope, and add another to the long roll of inspired predictions of a future quite beyond the present realization of the prophet. It is always in order "to keep before the people" such words as this great and good man wrote under the uplifting inspiration of a purpose that has embalmed the name of Berkeley in the memory of every lover of American education and liberty.

Verses on the prospect of planting arts and learning in America.

The Muse, disgusted at an age and clime
 Barren of every glorious theme,
 In distant lands now waits a better time,
 Producing subjects worthy fame.

In happy climes, where from the genial sun
 And virgin earth such scenes ensue,
 The force of art by nature seems outdone,
 And fancied beauties by the true;

In happy climes, the seat of innocence,
 Where nature guides and virtue rules,
 Where men shall not impose for truth and sense
 The pedantry of courts and schools—

There shall be sung another golden age,
 The rise of empire and of arts,
 The good and great inspiring epic rage,
 The wisest heads and noblest hearts.

Not such as Europe breeds in her decay;
 Such as she bred when fresh and young,
 When heavenly flame did animate her clay,
 By future poets shall be sung.

Westward the course of Empire takes its way;
 The four first acts already past,
 A fifth shall close the drama with the day:
 Time's noblest offspring is the last.

But it was in respect to the education of the children and youth of the State for good citizenship that the people of Rhode Island, for one hundred and fifty years, fell into the same delusion as the strictest of all sects who can see no halfway house between an ultra sectarian administration of public education and an ultra secularism that repudiates all acknowledgment of religion. The only logical attitude of such a mind is the absolute denial of the right to educate at all by the State; since education by common consent does imply more or less the public confession of obligation to practical religion and public morality. The early settlers of Rhode Island did not hesitate before that dilemma, and for one hundred and fifty years, till the middle of the nineteenth century, would have none of the common schools of Connecticut and Massachusetts, and even refused to subsidize the higher education.

The result could have been predicted from the first. The colony, from its peculiarly favorable situation for commerce, grew into an important industrial community, Newport at one time being the second city in the provinces. From the social pretension of its leading class and the prevalence of negro slavery, it being the headquarters of the slave trade, Rhode Island was more in touch with the aristocratic Southern than with the more democratic Northeastern colonies. The well-to-do families educated their children abroad or at private schools, some of which were established immediately after the founding of Providence, Newport, and the few large towns. From the intimate connection which the people held with their neighboring provinces and the gradual coming in of settlers therefrom, there came up a superior class of remarkable ability and influence; so that the long hesitation of this least of all the colonies in coming into the new Union was felt as a peril to the new experiment of the national government. The establishment of Brown University, as early as 1764, with its Latin school annex at Providence, and the vicinity of Harvard and Yale for the more favored minority of the people, were

doubtless, for a time, a hindrance to the legitimate results of this obstinate policy of noninterference by the State in matters educational.

But, as always must be true, the final outcome of all ultra individual theories of life leads inevitably to the semibarbarism of "every man for himself;" the most extreme form of a privileged class in sharp contrast with dense ignorance and a low grade of morality at the opposite pole. The Colony of Rhode Island found itself at the middle of the nineteenth century in the unenviable condition of having, for one hundred and fifty years, denied to the children of the poor man the one chance of rising to that equality of opportunity and rights without which society is only another name for slavery. It is a somewhat discouraging result that this long agitation for "personal liberty," in a State so favored by nature and an exceptional population, drove the mass of its people finally into a revolution which trembled on the precipice of a civil war to earn the common rights so completely enjoyed by other States.

Until the year 1799, Rhode Island has no common-school history. Brown University was founded in 1764, seventh in the roll of the American clerical collegiate schools that survive to the present day. Its foundation was not from within but from the demands of a convention representative of the Baptist people, held in New Jersey, that, after the successful building up of an academic and theological seminary at Hopewell, N. J., something should be attempted on a larger scale. The fact that the Baptist people of New England had concentrated in Rhode Island was deemed a reason for founding the university in that State, and Jared Manning, a graduate of Princeton, and a young minister of shining abilities and great zeal, was sent to Newport to feel the educational pulse of the Colony. According to the explanation of Manning and his associates, he was outwitted by Dr. Stiles, whom he employed to draw up a charter for the proposed school. The doctor "fixed" the board of fellows, the governing board, as an anti-Baptist "ring." The discovery of this in the legislature postponed the movement. But in 1764 it had its foundation, beginning practically as a parish school kept by Rev. Mr. Manning, who had removed to Warren, where he opened a private Latin school in connection with the college department. In a few years the institution was removed to Providence, then a town of 4,000 people, being invited by a gift of £400. The larger offer of Newport was rejected and the larger city made a sharp effort at the establishment of a rival college. But this plan having failed, Providence was left to support the "College of Rhode Island" as it might.

The first Baptist church of Providence, whose pulpit had been left vacant by the secession of Roger Williams, gladly accepted Rev. Mr. Manning, who, with a college class of 20 and a united salary of \$500, worked on with small encouragement until his death in 1798. The president was of Scotch descent; trained in the old-time discipline of the classics; translating Greek and English into Latin as a condition of admission to college; with a severe ideal of discipline. At Princeton, his alma mater, the student was expected to "take off his hat within 10 yards of the president and 5 of the tutor," while the freshman was required to act as a fag, in the sense of always being ready to run on an errand for a superior student or teacher.

It was high time this large and devout body of Baptist Christians moved in education. The president of Brown testified that but two clergymen of the sect had a liberal education, and "they not clear in the doctrines of grace." Both in England and America, during its early days, this now great and progressive denomination of Christians was under the eclipse of a strong prejudice against learning among the clergy and a great lack of education in the laity.

But President Manning had no faith in ignorance, and toiled on, with an heroic and patient devotion during this early period. At the first commencement, in 1769, 7 graduates were sent abroad, and out of this little early class a majority became known and honored for ability, public usefulness, and good culture. The college was supported by subscriptions gathered from various portions of the country. The South sent £500. Every member of the denomination was urged to contribute a

sixpence a year for three years. A gift of £800 came from England, with the names of Benjamin Franklin, Benjamin West, and Hollis, the benefactor of Harvard, among the contributors. The corner stone of the first building was laid in 1770 by one of the numerous and generous family of Brown, which, after the munificent gift of \$158,000 by a younger member of the family, bequeathed its name to the university in 1804. But during the life of President Manning the school languished with 20 to 40 students, 1 additional professor, and several outside lecturers; the president acting as pastor of the great church, teacher of the Latin school, and general representative of the educational spirit of the time. He commanded the respect and affection of the people at home, and was sent as a representative of Rhode Island to the Congress of the Confederation by the legislature.

The war of the Revolution came upon the new enterprise with crushing force. The buildings were occupied as barracks by the American and French soldiery. Newport was once in the hands of the enemy and poverty and distress were the order of the day. In 1777 the school was suspended till 1780. From the depreciation of the currency of the colony, four-fifths the president's salary was cut off and he was left in dire extremity for a livelihood. He "freed his mind," in good old-time clerical fashion, by declaring that "a more infernal set of men, under the name of a legislature, never, I believe, disgraced the world." But he persisted in his good work. Invited to open with prayer the session of the convention of Massachusetts that was wrestling with the problem of coming into the new Union, he fell on his knees and prayed for the Union with an eloquence and pathos that greatly contributed to the final decision. He labored against some of his own clergy in Rhode Island to the same good result.

He was a firm friend of popular education, and his last work, as the chairman of a committee, was the drawing up of a forcible petition for the establishment of a system of free schools for Providence. This was presented to the town meeting ten days after his death, in 1791. Whether his constant plaint on "the decadence of religion" during the Revolutionary epoch was more than a formal disapproval of all religious sects except that to which he had so faithfully consecrated his life, is not evident. But the dense bigotry of creed and the narrow code of social morality at that day was responsible for a good deal of dissent that broke out into a violent prejudice against the church, clergy, and all that was held up as the religion of Jesus Christ.

In 1790 President Washington, accompanied by Thomas Jefferson, his Secretary of State, visited Providence and was received with honor by the college. He made the usual official speech in reply. It would be interesting to read the speech that was not made by Jefferson, then the foremost educational philosopher and the coming statesman of the Union.

A gift of 1,300 volumes from Rev. Mr. Richards, of Wales, was a great boon to the college. Indeed, at the death of President Manning, the institution was a great way from being an accomplished fact. In 1792 there were but 22 students, and the library numbered 150 volumes; the philosophical apparatus consisted of an electrical machine and a microscope, with an air pump in prospect. Its entire endowment was but £900. Good President Manning was often grieved to the heart by the depravity of his students, some of whom had broken the windows of the Friends' meeting house. Mr. Hart, of South Carolina, writes urging him not to "spare the rod" in the discipline of his son John. Through the entire administration of the first president, the college of Rhode Island had but one building over its head, and the students and teachers boarded at \$1 a week. It was out of such beginnings that the great American universities of to-day were built up; every brick and beam of the structure being consecrated by the prayers and tears and lifeblood of their devoted friends.

The thirty-six years between the death of President Manning and the beginning of the long and powerful administration of President Francis Wayland, 1791-1827, were marked by a gradual increase of attendance and greater ease in matters financial

than this disheartening beginning. Until 1802 the college moved on under the charge of its new president, Maxcy, who still retains the reputation of an accomplished scholar; two professors, 2 nonresident lecturers, 3 medical lecturers, and 2 tutors. The vacancy occasioned by the departure of President Maxcy was filled by President Messer, who held the position till 1827. This long period of service by a president who, with great imputed professional and scholastic merits, seems to have combined an eccentricity of personal character and manners, brought the institution into a state satisfactory to none of its friends. The methods of instruction seem to have been superficial, the teachers too often only partially attached to their classes, and the college was getting a bad name for the disorder among the students, which is the inevitable result of placing even a worthy and able man of grotesque and obstinately repulsive personality over a college full of young Americans. From 1804 dates the new baptism of the school into the name of Brown University, under which it has acquired its present reputation among American colleges. The generous and distinguished family to which the university owed its financial success during the coming fifty years of its history contributed in the neighborhood of \$158,000 to its endowment and placed on the ground the buildings which were Brown University until a considerably later date than 1850.

Meanwhile the absence of theological teaching and the general liberal spirit of the institution were a strong point in its favor, in a measure compensating for the absence of better educational facilities. Brown University had its roll of celebrated men from the beginning. The repudiation of the common school by the people of Rhode Island for three-fourths of a century from its establishment forced the college into an intimate and popular attitude before the people. Its Latin school annex was one of a number of good secondary schools which came at the demand of the increasing wealth, culture, and public importance of the State. It was in the period including this chapter of our essay, previous to 1845, that it numbered among its graduates Horace Mann and Barnas Sears, the two great apostles of the American common school in the northern and southern sections of the Union, and George William Curtis, for twenty-five years the most conspicuous representative of the higher journalism of the country. Its two greatest presidents, Wayland and Sears, have been more conspicuously identified with the common-school interest of the Republic than any similar officials of the older colleges of the New England States. Brown was the first university of large reputation that established a professorship of didactics, and in Prof. S. S. Green, who held this chair, the State of Rhode Island and the country possessed one of the most charming lecturers and wisest experts developed by the later movement we call the "new education."

The advent of Francis Wayland to the presidency of the university in 1827 ushered in the period of the renaissance of Brown University. He came to the post unburdened by the narrow college methods and ideals of the day, and beyond all other men, except President Mark Hopkins, at Williams College, was the most conspicuous representative of the higher education in New England for a full third of a century. A native of New York, a graduate of Union College, and, as far as such a man could be, a disciple of the great college reformer of the period, Dr. Eliphalet Nott; with an established reputation, and on the high road to fame as one of the foremost preachers and thinkers in the American Protestant Church, he had just accepted an important professorship in his alma mater when called to the presidency of Brown. It was an experiment that might have appalled even an abler and more positive man than himself, for the problem was, in a State that still persisted in opposing the general sentiment concerning popular education in the northern section of the Republic, among a people celebrated for a personal independence that verged on the border of impracticability, dependent on the most aristocratic social class of New England, to lift a college that for more than half a century had been struggling for existence, with dilapidated buildings, a wreck of a library, and not sufficient material to do proper work, with a reputation for scholastic inferiority and a disorderly student population, up to the level of the leading colleges of the time.

But the work was done; so well done, from the beginning, that there has never come the necessity of doing it over. Whatever may have been the original opinions and expectations of President Wayland, the earlier years of his presidency were wisely and firmly given to establishing the university on solid educational foundations. With an iron hand, but in a spirit eminently judicial, he suppressed the "glorious independence" of the student contingent, and during his entire administration could boast that hazing the freshmen at Brown was "a lost art," and "rebellion" a practical impossibility. He dusted out the corps of temporary tutors, who "drop in" upon a college recitation room to eke out a subsistence, or illustrate a professional reputation by "substituting" in place of a professor. He insisted that, only in the last necessity, should the text-book be seen open in the recitation room, both teacher and student being required to have the substantial contents of the lesson of the day in mind, and so well in hand that the treatment of a subject and not a mechanical recitation should be the work of the hour. He awoke confidence among the men of wealth and influence in the State; obtained money for a new outfit of illustrative apparatus, library, and buildings, and raised the institution from the reputation of financial impecuniosity to educational respectability. All these years, at the risk of being stranded by what was regarded an undue severity of discipline and an unpopular demand for thorough scholarship, in the face of the lingering jealousy of the higher education and the clamor for a cheap and superficial outfit, even for the ministry, he persisted in these reforms.

It was a providential coincidence that this period of President Wayland's service at Brown University covered the first years of serious effort by the people of Rhode Island to establish a genuine system of common schools. How much the known sympathy of the great president upon the hill in Providence contributed to the result is not easy to be determined. Even more, the persistent effort of the head of the college to raise the standard of scholarship would force upon the thoughtful people of the State the necessity of laying broader foundations in the better schooling of the masses below. But when the hour struck and the decisive day had fully come, Dr. Wayland was found all ready for the new departure in college life, which was the real initiative in the readjustment of studies and the inauguration of the elective system in every American college and university of the first class.

Meanwhile, alongside the new administration at Brown, was found in John Kingsbury, one of its early graduates, a reformer equally efficient, if less widely known, in the neglected sphere of the superior education of young women. A class companion in college of Prof. Edwards Park, of Andover, and Bishop Burgess, of Maine, Mr. Kingsbury, near the time of the appearance of Dr. Wayland at Brown, opened a school for girls in Providence, which, during the thirty years of its existence, educated 5,000 young women in a way rarely experienced in New England before. He began with an exposure of the quality of "educational hash" served to its students by the average female seminary of the day. According to Dr. Kingsbury, there was, "beyond the elements, a little history, a smatter of French, Latin, algebra, and geography only in a few schools outside of Boston." He challenged his patrons with declarations like these: "No school can remain good which is not in some things distasteful to the young and clashes with the current sentiment of much called good society;" "to educate the whole number well, rather than to educate a few to distinction;" "common sense more valuable than literary or scientific culture;" "adopting every improvement, whether demanded by public sentiment or not, rejecting all that does not commend itself, whether demanded or not;" "daily seeking aid of heavenly wisdom and guidance."

He discarded at once the mischievous and exhausting habit of elaborate examinations and public exhibitions; placed his girls and their instructors upon their honor; never but three times in thirty years was late at his desk, and generally "toned up" the entire realm of woman's education. Besides all this, he was active in the American Institute of Instruction; a great friend of Sunday schools and missions; the secretary of Brown University, and, in his later years, one of the commissioners of common schools for the State.

Another valuable institution, largely favored by the bounty of another of the numerous family of Brown, was the Providence Athenæum, which became a literary center for the city of Providence, as the Redwood Library, at one time second in importance in the United States, had for many years occupied a similar place in Newport.

The Friends' school, one of the most substantial and useful of the secondary seminaries of New England, owes a debt of gratitude to the benevolence of another member of the Brown family. Inaugurated as a representative school of this religious body in 1794, it was kept alive from year to year by personal contributions. But not till its removal to Providence, through the liberality of Moses Brown, in 1819, did it take the position it has since occupied. At present it seems not only to be an excellent school of a genuine academical order, but furnishes an advanced course of study. For several years its faculty included several members of the Smiley family, so well known of late as enlightened friends of Vassar College and deeply interested in the work of home evangelization.

It is one of the characteristic and most hopeful features of our American civilization that, even when the masses of any community, State, or section of the country for a long period seem indifferent or hostile to the universal education which is the highest interest of republican society, the entire system of the secondary and higher education, so fixed and unalterable abroad, becomes flexible, leans downward, and goes out of its way, sometimes "across lots," to repair the damage and avert the uttermost consequences of this radical neglect. Even in the vast realm below the Potomac and Ohio rivers, including a region as extensive as Central Europe, this was done, in a measure, by extending the opportunities of the best schooling to the superior children of the humbler classes; even putting in peril the integrity of the secondary and higher instruction to meet the wants of the great varieties of pupils drifted in reach of the sheltering arms of the academy and college. But in Rhode Island, the most compact of American Commonwealths, only 1,250 square miles in extent, with more than three-fourths its population of 345,000 in 1890 massed in its two chief cities, two-thirds of it being in Providence, this adjustment of the higher to meet the crying need of the less intelligent strata of citizenship was most evident. It was, perhaps, because of the excellence of much that was in active operation in these larger cities and towns, and the satisfaction of the well-to-do classes in this direction, with the constant lifting up from the lowest estate that is only found in our American life, that the organization of common schools was so long delayed.

We have already indicated the residence of Bishop Berkeley at an early day in Newport and the gathering in that city of a brilliant and cultivated society as one of the incitements to the first building up of Brown University, and afterwards to the establishment of the private schools of Newport, Providence, and the lesser capital cities of the little Commonwealth.

But all this was only the old story of the past order of affairs, wherein the precious opportunity of acquiring the knowledge and mental discipline of the schools is withheld from the masses. Until the close of the eighteenth century the colony from its settlement was a protest against religious bigotry; but neither the State government nor the leading class seem to have been strongly moved with an intimation of the duty of every civilized and Christian community to care for the improvement of a majority of the people on whom the very material existence of a State depends. The attempt of President Manning, representing the latent sense of this obligation, which, after the State fully allied itself to the new Republic, was somewhat more evident than before, to persuade the city of Providence to assume the schooling of her own children, failed. It was not till ten years later that a sharp reminder from the opposite quarter of society brought the legislature face to face with that imperious question of public education which "will not take no for an answer," and finally prevails despite every form of private, social, ecclesiastical, and public hostility.

The first apostle of the common school in Rhode Island was found in John Howland, an influential member of the Mechanics' Association of Providence, and himself

a successful worker in that craft. In 1798 he brought the subject of the dearth of suitable opportunities for education before this association. When it was determined to move, there was a hesitation concerning the preparation of a suitable memorial to the legislature, and the suggestions of Mr. Howland were adopted. With characteristic moderation the legislature reported a provisional act which was submitted to the towns for examination. It was not till 1800, after Providence and Newport had approved, that an act was passed appropriating 20 per cent of the State taxation to education on condition that the towns would support schools under certain limitations proposed by the State. At once Providence, stirred up by Mr. Howland, availed herself of the law. Several private schoolhouses were bought by the city for \$6,000 and a system of public education was at once inaugurated. But the inevitable reaction came in 1803 when the law was repealed, no town save Providence having taken advantage of its provisions. Mr. Howland declared that "while the wealthy and educated people of the State did not oppose, the class for whose benefit the law was specially intended was largely indifferent or hostile." An arrangement by which the small rural districts have always retained a greatly disproportioned representation in the legislature, then, as afterwards, bore its legitimate fruits. The voice of the two cities, in which three-fourths of the population, wealth, and personal influence of the State were concentrated, was suppressed by this disposition of political power conferred upon the least prosperous, intelligent, and progressive portion of the State.

During the following eighteen years the people of Rhode Island were not disturbed even by any "revisiting the glimpses of the moon" by the "perturbed spirit" of the dead and buried common school. In 1821 the legislature appointed a "committee of inquiry" into the condition of public education. But this report, if indeed written, was not considered, and for six years more things went on as before. But in 1827, the year that Dr. Francis Wayland put his hand on the helm of the storm-beaten craft of Brown University, there came in a responsive wave of educational revival. Newport, in 1825, voted to raise a tax for the support of a free school. In 1827, after an agitation of a generation, the legislature set apart, from the income of a tax on lotteries and other assessments, the sum of \$10,000 annually for public schools.

Every town was empowered to collect a tax, not exceeding twice the amount received from the State, to supplement the appropriation. This preliminary legislation was followed by other acts for the building of schoolhouses. In 1836 the city of Providence finally "got itself together," established a system of graded schools similar to those of other New England cities of its importance, and appointed Nathan Bishop superintendent. It is claimed that in the matter of city supervision of schools Providence led the Union. From that day the schools of Providence have been generously and successfully supported. In 1839 the State raised its annual appropriation to \$25,000, aided by the reception of the United States surplus revenue. But still the good work dragged on; the situation more discouraging to the educational public from the poor pretense of doing what was in no large sense well conceived or executed.

In 1843 the first correct revelation of the educational condition of the State was made to the legislature. The retribution of long years of neglect of the people's fundamental right and necessity had come at last. The combination that had held the State in the grip of the original charter, granted to the colony by King Charles II of England, for more than half a century of the national life was confronted by an uprising of the people that, for a time, threatened to reach the dire extremity of a civil war. In the emergency both political parties in the legislature turned to the people's common school as a reconciling agency. The revelations of the report, presented by a committee of inquiry, were a surprise and humiliation to a people who had lived all their lives alongside a state of affairs of which they seemed to have no real conception. It was found that 1,600 in 108,000 of the people of Rhode Island were wholly illiterate, while the neighboring State of Connecticut, although in the bonds of its inefficient school system, could boast that only 526 in 309,000

were in utter ignorance. Outside the two chief cities and a few large towns, the schools were in a disgraceful condition; schoolhouses dilapidated, teachers meanly paid, probably at their full worth, and the schools practically useless.

The new constitution, born amid the throes of a popular revolution, contains this decisive and comprehensive clause:

ARTICLE XII.—*Of education.*

SEC. 1. The diffusion of knowledge, as well as of virtue, among the people, being essential to the preservation of their rights and liberties, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to promote public schools and to adopt all means which they may deem necessary and proper to secure to the people the advantages and opportunities of education.

SEC. 2. The money which now is, or which may hereafter be appropriated by law for the establishment of a permanent fund for the support of public schools, shall be securely invested, and remain a perpetual fund for that purpose.

SEC. 3. All donations for the support of public schools or for other purposes of education, which may be received by the general assembly, shall be applied according to the terms prescribed by the donors.

SEC. 4. The general assembly shall make all necessary provisions by law for carrying this article into effect. They shall not divert said money or fund from the aforesaid uses, nor borrow, appropriate, or use the same, or any part thereof, for any other purpose, under any pretense whatsoever.

The time was now ripe for such a thoroughgoing reformation in popular education as has seldom been witnessed in any state in Christendom. With the new constitutional provision as a corner stone, with the example of Massachusetts already for ten years awakened from the lethargy of half a century by the thunderstorm of Horace Mann's eyelonic proclamation of his modest office of "secretary of the board of education," with Connecticut thoroughly aroused on the hither side, and, last of all, with the revelation of her own condition before the whole country, and with the leading educators in all the high places of university and academic life urging on, matters came to a head. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, was invited to look over the field and suggest a plan of operation by which the good work could be well begun. He came, and, after due investigation from a tour of observation through the whole country, made a statement before the legislature and prominent citizens so convincing and reasonable that his hearers were not only "fully persuaded," but "showed their faith by their works," and offered him at once the laborious and difficult position of first superintendent of common schools of the State of Rhode Island.

The story of how he accepted the offer, and how, through four memorable years, he wrought in his place, until he was recalled in 1850 to his own State for a second time to serve as the guide of its common school system, remains to be told as one of the most inspiring chapters of the record of the "great revival of education in the United States," midway of the nineteenth century.

If we have seemed to linger too long on the story of the common school in New England during this critical period of the first half century of the national life, it is because in what did not happen then and there and in what was made to happen by the great outbreak of enthusiasm and energy at the close of these years, this little northeastern corner of the Union stood conspicuous among all the States of the North and in sharp educational contrast to the Southern section of the Republic. For still another thirty years was New England to retain her leadership in this great national enterprise, the training of Young America, under the auspices of the State, for good American citizenship.

Of the numerous services rendered to the national life by New England this is by all odds the most conspicuous and permanent. That in due time this leadership, like her eminence in material prosperity, industrial genius, literary and artistic production, and the initiative in social, political, and moral reform, will pass onward into the charge of the great central realm of the West, from the valley of the Hudson to the Rocky Mountains, so largely settled by her own progressive sons and daughters, is neither to be denied nor regretted. For to every section of this Republic comes in

its own good time the opportunity to make a prominent and characteristic impression upon the nation. New England has done this, her best work, for all time. But such work leaves no individual or State exhausted and obsolete. Rather is it a perpetual inspiration at home, ever burning like a quenchless flame on the altar; inspiring to a more profound and broader conception of education itself; demanding of every new generation that intense and vital interest on the one theme whose faithful and persistent working out through the passing years will alone insure the perpetuity of that type of American society which shall become the normal school of freedom for all men in all lands around the world.

[Errata. Page 1542, paragraph 2, last sentence, should show that Ninian Edwards was Territorial governor of Illinois (1809-1818) and third governor of the State (1826-1830); also that his son Ninian W. Edwards was first State superintendent of instruction, 1854. Ninian Edwards died in 1833.]

CHAPTER XL.

PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS.¹

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

Parochial schools, called also parish schools, have not been separately shown in previous reports of the Bureau of Education. It is therefore fitting to explain conditions relating to these schools with a fullness that would not otherwise be desirable. It will be the effort to make an unbiased statement of historical accuracy. As far as it can be conveniently done, the views of authorities cited will be given in their own language.

There is some difficulty in clearly defining parochial schools, owing to variation in the use of the term. For example, a number of denominations maintain schools for their children which some might consider parochial, with no violence to the general definition, and yet it might be very difficult to separate some of these maintained by congregations from kindred schools maintained by the denomination. It has been found more convenient to treat the schools of the Friends, for example, as private denominational schools, although their elementary departments and some elementary schools may closely correspond to the parochial schools of some other denominations.

Moravian parochial school.—A peculiar case is that of the Moravians at Bethlehem, Pa. Besides a theological seminary and a seminary for young ladies, there is a school, established in 1742, still known as the Moravian parochial school. It is maintained by the congregation. Religious instruction is regularly given. The pupils from Moravian families observe the holidays of the church. The school has expanded within a few years so that it embraces a full set of departments from kindergarten to classes fitting for college. The advanced classes are partly made up of tuition pupils without regard to residence or religious profession. The elementary departments correspond to what are popularly called parochial schools, while the advanced departments correspond somewhat to an academy or other preparatory school. This school is remarkable for the long record it has as a school of elementary religious instruction and for the steadiness with which it has been quietly held to its original purpose.

Some similar combinations of elementary and advanced religious instruction in care of congregations might be found in other denominations. Some denominations have devoted great attention to education without establishing distinctively elementary congregational schools for the inculcation of their tenets.

Parochial schools defined.—The term parochial or parish school as here used applies to elementary schools maintained by congregations for their children with particular reference to their religious instruction. Such schools are to be distinguished from institutions maintained by groups of churches, such as dioceses, presbyteries, synods, assemblies, conferences, associations, or denominations, or supported as missions.

THE GENERAL DEMAND FOR RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

Over all the world, wherever civilization has advanced to the establishment of schools of any sort, in any age, the prevailing religious system makes the study of truth as shown in the books deemed sacred the fundamental idea in education, if not directly, yet as the ultimate foundation.

¹ By James H. Blodgett, A. M.

Hindoo boys repeat whole books of their sacred literature to their Brahman teachers, and the texts of the Koran are the fundamental teaching of such schools as are maintained by Mohammedans in India, western Asia, or northern Africa. From Mosaic times the Jews have made the religious instruction of children paramount. When the Christian religion grew out of the Jewish the same ideas as to the instruction of children were carried over into the new conditions. With a general agreement of purpose in this respect there is a wide diversity in the methods used, and parochial schools are not maintained by those who, aiming for a like result, deem other agencies in operation adequate for elementary purposes.

In the United States we have now many forms of religion, but only Jews and Christians of some name are in such numbers as to affect statistics noticeably.

The Jews.—The devout Jew is hardly less earnest than of old as to the importance of religious instruction of children. In the persecutions of the centuries much of this instruction was driven to the privacy of the home, and the organization of Jewish schools was so far forbidden, discouraged, or interrupted that the Jew has not brought a formal habit of parochial schools to this country. There are numerous classes on Saturday, or at hours outside ordinary school, for the special purpose of impressing the doctrines of Judaism, but they are carefully planned to avoid conflict with the appointments of the public schools of their vicinities. The Jews have also some schools reaching to maturer work and to trade education, in part of which, at least, it is required that candidates for their privileges shall have been in regular attendance at ordinary day schools. The Jew therefore does not have parochial schools in the United States.

Christians.—Those who accept the Christian Scriptures in this country are in the first analysis, by order of number, Protestants, Roman Catholics, and Latter-Day Saints, or Mormons. The latter people add another revelation to that of the Old and New Testament. They are principally found in Utah and adjacent regions. As a church they take a positive charge of the education of their children, and some of their elementary schools might not be easily distinguished from parochial schools, yet the term denominational schools seems more fitting under the circumstances. The secretary of the board of education of the Latter-Day Saints or Mormons reported at the Eleventh Census (1890) 5,092 pupils in schools ranging from elementary to superior, of whom 113 were in Arizona, 696 in Idaho, and 4,283 in Utah. Owing to their location their schools have attracted little national interest. In 1893 there were reported 637 Mormon teachers and 46,099 children of Mormon parents in the public schools of Utah.

The following statement of the Mormon position in education is from the circular of the Juab Stake Academy for 1894-95:

“The growth of infidelity among the young establishes the fact that without the introduction of religious principles the final object of all education, ‘Be ye therefore perfect, even as your Father in heaven is perfect,’ as expressed by Christ, the greatest of all educators, can not be accomplished. It is also a fact equally demonstrated that the church school system of which this institution forms a part, remedies the growing tendency toward an unbelief in a divine creator.

“The following extract from a letter of President Woodruff of the general board, in which he urges the appointment of stake boards of education, voices the conclusion of every true Latter-Day Saint:

“We feel that the time has arrived when the proper education of our children should be taken in hand by us as a people. Religious training is practically excluded from the district schools. The perusal of books that we value as divine record is forbidden. Our children, if left to the training they receive in these schools, will grow up entirely ignorant of those principles of salvation for which the Latter-Day Saints have made so many sacrifices. To permit this condition of things to exist among us would be criminal. The desire is universally expressed by all thinking people in the Church that we should have schools wherein the Bible, the Book of

Mormon, and the Book of Doctrine and Covenants can be used as text-books, and where the principles of our religion may form a part of the teachings of the schools.'

"The past years have proven that an academy based upon the principles of the everlasting gospel can be successfully run in this Stake¹ of Zion."

Early conditions in the United States.—The Protestant settlers of New England had broken with a state church, yet had retained so much of the impressions of unity of church and state that at first citizenship and church membership, when not identical, were closely related, and religion was a dominant subject in founding schools of every degree from the humblest to Harvard College. The adherents of the state church who settled Virginia kept religion prominent in such educational work as they did.

For two centuries New England and the Virginias and States of like settlement were under the control of the descendants of the original settlers and those in sympathy with them. All the institutions in each group were in harmony with the leading religious sentiment. Religious instruction was dominant in some schools, prominent in many, and, generally speaking, tolerated in all. Louisiana and such portions of Spanish America as have been absorbed into the United States were strongly Roman Catholic, the States from Spanish America having been under Catholicism as a state religion till near 1825, and such schools as existed were strongly marked by a religious character. Maryland was settled by liberal English Catholics, but their controlling influence was soon disputed by adherents of the Protestant Episcopal, Established Church of England. As long as any portion of the country remained under the control of the views of the original settlers the religion of their preference was expected to be in their schools, though by lack of interest it often occurred that Protestant communities allowed the disuse of the Bible and religious exercises.

In early settlement Pennsylvania probably covered the greatest number of religious bodies that could not accept the tenets nor understand the language of one another. There were Swedish and German Lutherans, English Friends or Quakers, Dutch Mennonites, German Moravians, and Scotch-Irish Presbyterians.

From the organization of the Federal Government into the second quarter of this century the influence of foreign immigration was slow in its effects, and each State, or even a group of States, tended toward something of a homogenous religious sentiment, in accordance with which its schools were molded.

Public schools maintained by local taxation, as now existing in part of the nation, were almost unknown. Even near the end of the second quarter of the century Horace Mann said in his report upon the schools of Massachusetts for 1846: "There is not at the present time, with the exception of the States of New England and a few small communities elsewhere, a country or a State in Christendom which maintains a system of free schools for the education of its children. Even in the State of New York, with all its noble endowments, the schools are not free."

Effect of quickened immigration on school systems.—In this second quarter of the century an active immigration began to pour into the Northern States that has only varied and not ceased to this date. The digging of canals and a little later the construction of railroads induced Catholic laborers from Ireland to come by thousands and scatter among Protestant communities. The failure of their potato crop gave tremendous enlargement to the Irish emigration just before 1850. The revolutionary conditions of the continent greatly stimulated German emigration about the same time. The Germans were partly Catholic and partly Protestant Evangelical or Lutheran profession, each form recognized in the provisions for religion by the State in their native regions. Later came Scandinavian Lutherans, bred in a State church, often in numbers sufficient to form colonies and organize and maintain local institutions, as was true in a degree of Germans. Such German or Scandinavian colonies

¹ Stake is the term used for a settlement by the Mormons.

became especially numerous in Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and the States immediately west of them. Wisconsin gave the privilege of suffrage to immigrants of one year's residence, a welcome which had a desired influence in determining migration thither.

In the two decades, 1850-1870, the free public school maintained mainly by local taxation came to be the educational watchword and almost uniform practice north of the Ohio River, and it has continued to extend with the westward expansion of settlement and the development of the South.

In the South, below the border States, public schools, outside of some considerable cities, are of recent growth, and such schools often have some tuition fees, as they did in Northern States generally almost to 1850 and irregularly to the time of the civil war. The Southern States are not yet much affected by foreign immigration, and they conserve the views of a white ancestry chiefly English in origin in a degree not elsewhere equaled.

It is to be noted that the growth of our public free-school systems has been largely coincident with the great foreign immigration, and its development has been promoted and modified by the views of adopted citizens, especially from countries possessing efficient systems of popular education. Foremost of these was the combination of States which we know as Germany. The schools of Germany had not generally been free, but in the revolutions of 1848 free schools was one of the popular demands generally attained for a time, though tuition fees again became common,¹ and now again fees have been abolished in elementary schools of Prussia.²

EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS IN COUNTRIES FURNISHING IMMIGRANTS.

To understand the views with which citizens of foreign nativity have aided to build up and maintain local public schools and especially to understand their attitude toward religious instruction in such schools, it will be appropriate to consider the conditions under which they or their parents were born.

The tables, derived from the Eleventh Census (1890), here used to show the ratio of persons of foreign parentage, point out only conspicuous countries of their origin and indicate the portions of this country most affected by each. The great masses of immigrants have come from Ireland, Germany, Great Britain, Canada, and Scandinavia, or Sweden, Norway and Denmark.

The first table shows the entire population separated as of native parentage and of foreign parentage. This table includes the colored population of which the foreign-born portion is so small as to require little notice here. The people of African descent are chiefly in the South, where, having learned English ways at second hand, they add something to the conservatism against customs brought in by recent immigration. Taking all Northern and Western States together the population of foreign parentage is but little less than half the whole; taking all Southern States together the population of foreign parentage is close to one-tenth.

¹Laishley, R.

²Statesman's Year-Book, 1896.

TABLE I.—Population distributed according to native or foreign parentage, by States and Territories: 1890.

States and Territories.	Population.		
	Total.	Of native parentage.	Of foreign parentage.
The United States.....	62,622,250	41,946,204	20,676,046
North Atlantic Division.....	17,401,545	9,185,707	8,215,838
South Atlantic Division.....	8,857,920	8,324,540	533,380
North Central Division.....	22,362,279	12,741,925	9,620,354
South Central Division.....	10,972,893	10,139,855	833,038
Western Division.....	3,027,613	1,554,177	1,473,436
North Atlantic Division:			
Maine.....	661,086	509,928	151,158
New Hampshire.....	376,590	255,237	121,293
Vermont.....	332,422	227,945	104,477
Massachusetts.....	2,238,943	979,822	1,259,121
Rhode Island.....	345,506	145,054	200,452
Connecticut.....	746,258	370,770	375,488
New York.....	5,997,853	2,599,887	3,397,966
New Jersey.....	1,444,933	746,751	698,182
Pennsylvania.....	5,258,014	3,350,313	1,907,701
South Atlantic Division:			
Delaware.....	168,493	137,790	30,703
Maryland.....	1,042,390	792,011	250,379
District of Columbia.....	230,392	183,462	46,930
Virginia.....	1,655,980	1,612,415	43,565
West Virginia.....	762,794	703,144	59,650
North Carolina.....	1,617,947	1,606,691	11,256
South Carolina.....	1,151,149	1,133,546	17,603
Georgia.....	1,837,353	1,804,669	32,684
Florida.....	391,422	350,812	40,610
North Central Division:			
Ohio.....	3,672,316	2,425,143	1,247,173
Indiana.....	2,192,404	1,745,183	447,221
Illinois.....	3,826,351	1,949,125	1,877,226
Michigan.....	2,093,889	948,062	1,145,827
Wisconsin.....	1,686,880	443,871	1,243,009
Minnesota.....	1,301,826	320,043	981,783
Iowa.....	1,911,896	1,078,708	833,188
Missouri.....	2,679,184	2,009,873	669,311
North Dakota.....	182,719	38,414	144,305
South Dakota.....	328,808	129,521	199,287
Nebraska.....	1,058,910	609,050	449,860
Kansas.....	1,427,096	1,044,932	382,164
South Central Division:			
Kentucky.....	1,858,635	1,675,255	183,380
Tennessee.....	1,767,518	1,714,160	53,358
Alabama.....	1,513,017	1,475,133	37,884
Mississippi.....	1,289,600	1,263,871	25,729
Louisiana.....	1,118,587	969,372	149,215
Texas.....	2,235,523	1,897,350	338,173
Oklahoma.....	61,834	54,607	7,227
Arkansas.....	1,128,179	1,090,107	38,072
Western Division:			
Montana.....	132,159	58,498	73,661
Wyoming.....	60,705	31,388	29,317
Colorado.....	412,198	249,285	162,913
New Mexico.....	153,593	129,873	23,720
Arizona.....	59,620	26,799	32,821
Utah.....	207,905	70,107	137,798
Nevada.....	45,761	18,750	27,011
Idaho.....	84,385	45,897	38,488
Washington.....	349,390	193,264	156,126
Oregon.....	313,767	207,492	106,275
California.....	1,208,130	522,824	685,306

The following table will enable anyone to see what numbers and what per cent those of foreign parentage, white or colored, reach in any State or Territory. The per cent of colored foreign parentage is exceedingly small, and the per cent of whites of foreign parentage is usually low in the South.

TABLE II.—Number and percentage of white and colored population of foreign parentage, 1890.

States and Territories.	White population.			Colored population. <i>a</i>		
	Total.	Persons of foreign parentage.		Total.	Persons of foreign parentage.	
		Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.
The United States.....	54,983,890	20,519,643	37.32	7,638,360	156,403	2.05
North Atlantic Division.....	17,121,981	8,196,677	47.87	279,564	19,161	6.85
South Atlantic Division.....	5,592,149	521,650	9.33	3,263,771	11,730	.36
North Central Division.....	21,911,927	9,609,841	43.86	450,352	10,513	2.33
South Central Division.....	7,487,576	820,779	10.96	3,485,317	12,259	.35
Western Division.....	2,870,257	1,370,696	47.76	157,356	102,740	65.29
North Atlantic Division:						
Maine.....	659,263	150,713	22.86	1,823	445	24.41
New Hampshire.....	375,840	121,101	32.22	690	192	27.83
Vermont.....	331,418	104,337	31.48	1,094	140	13.94
Massachusetts.....	2,215,373	1,253,926	56.60	23,570	5,195	22.04
Rhode Island.....	337,859	199,969	59.19	7,647	433	6.32
Connecticut.....	733,438	374,714	51.09	12,820	774	6.04
New York.....	5,923,952	3,390,550	27.23	73,901	7,416	10.04
New Jersey.....	1,396,581	696,746	49.89	48,752	1,436	2.97
Pennsylvania.....	5,148,257	1,904,621	37	109,357	3,080	2.81
South Atlantic Division:						
Delaware.....	140,066	30,606	21.85	28,427	97	.34
Maryland.....	826,493	249,470	30.18	215,897	909	.42
District of Columbia.....	154,695	46,433	30.02	75,697	497	.66
Virginia.....	1,020,122	43,053	4.22	635,858	512	.08
West Virginia.....	730,077	59,571	8.16	32,717	79	.24
North Carolina.....	1,055,382	10,805	1.02	562,565	451	.03
South Carolina.....	462,008	16,694	3.61	689,141	909	.13
Georgia.....	978,357	31,320	3.20	858,996	1,364	.16
Florida.....	224,949	33,698	14.98	166,473	6,912	4.15
North Central Division:						
Ohio.....	3,584,805	1,245,942	34.76	87,511	1,231	1.41
Indiana.....	2,146,736	446,893	20.82	45,668	328	.72
Illinois.....	3,768,472	1,875,327	49.76	57,879	1,899	3.28
Michigan.....	2,072,884	1,142,753	55.13	21,005	3,074	14.63
Wisconsin.....	1,680,473	1,242,399	73.93	6,407	610	9.52
Minnesota.....	1,296,159	981,130	75.70	5,667	653	11.52
Iowa.....	1,901,086	832,927	43.81	10,810	291	2.41
Missouri.....	2,528,458	668,226	26.43	150,726	1,085	.72
North Dakota.....	182,123	144,115	79.13	596	190	31.88
South Dakota.....	327,290	198,953	60.79	1,518	334	22
Nebraska.....	1,046,888	449,485	42.94	12,022	375	3.12
Kansas.....	1,376,553	381,691	27.73	59,543	473	.94
South Central Division:						
Kentucky.....	1,590,462	183,045	11.51	268,173	335	.12
Tennessee.....	1,336,637	52,621	3.94	430,881	737	.17
Alabama.....	833,718	26,917	4.43	679,299	967	.14
Mississippi.....	544,851	24,320	4.46	744,749	1,409	.19
Louisiana.....	558,395	144,726	25.92	560,192	4,489	.80
Texas.....	1,745,935	334,545	19.16	489,588	3,628	.74
Oklahoma.....	58,826	7,179	12.20	3,008	48	1.60
Arkansas.....	818,752	37,426	4.57	309,427	646	.21
Western Division:						
Montana.....	127,271	70,693	55.55	4,838	2,968	60.72
Wyoming.....	59,275	28,806	48.60	1,430	511	35.73
Colorado.....	404,468	161,302	39.88	7,730	1,611	20.84
New Mexico.....	142,719	23,232	16.28	10,874	488	4.49
Arizona.....	55,580	31,344	56.39	4,040	1,477	36.56
Utah.....	205,899	136,811	66.45	2,066	987	49.20
Nevada.....	39,084	24,126	61.73	6,677	2,885	43.21
Idaho.....	82,018	36,452	44.44	2,367	2,036	86.02
Washington.....	340,513	151,990	44.64	8,877	4,136	46.59
Oregon.....	301,758	96,429	31.96	12,009	9,846	81.99
California.....	1,111,672	609,511	54.83	96,458	75,795	78.58

a Persons of negro descent, Chinese, Japanese, and civilized Indians.

The next table, dealing only with whites, will enable one to see the lines of heredity for the large bodies of immigrants as indicated by the countries of their origin and to judge in what States and Territories any form of foreign ancestral habit or opinion is likely to be influential. The minor bodies of foreign parentage have been omitted, as their influence is too small for consideration in a statement that aims only to be suggestive.

TABLE III.—Number and percentage of white persons of foreign parentage having either one or both parents born in specified countries, 1890.

States and Territories.	Total white persons of foreign parentage.	White persons having either both parents born as specified or one parent born as specified and one parent native.									
		Ireland.		Germany.		Great Britain.		Canada.		Scandinavia.	
		Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
The United States.....	20,519,643	4,913,238	23.94	6,851,564	33.39	2,683,957	13.08	1,453,174	7.08	1,535,597	7.49
North Atlantic Division.....	8,196,677	3,040,275	37.09	2,036,161	24.84	1,149,056	14.02	734,797	8.96	158,395	1.93
South Atlantic Division.....	521,650	139,469	26.74	223,926	42.93	73,235	14.04	6,945	1.33	4,876	.93
North Central Division.....	9,609,841	1,339,190	13.94	4,011,217	41.74	1,070,441	11.14	606,267	6.30	1,216,474	12.66
South Central Division.....	820,779	134,872	16.43	325,162	39.62	81,552	9.93	12,608	1.53	14,139	1.78
Western Division.....	1,370,696	259,432	18.93	253,098	18.61	309,673	22.59	92,557	6.75	141,713	10.34
North Atlantic Division:											
Maine.....	150,713	31,310	20.77	2,206	1.46	19,538	12.97	82,854	54.97	4,078	2.71
New Hampshire.....	121,101	33,232	27.44	2,800	2.31	12,287	10.15	64,932	53.61	1,855	1.53
Vermont.....	104,337	29,271	28.05	1,658	1.59	13,286	12.73	52,514	50.33	1,064	1.03
Massachusetts.....	1,253,926	599,323	47.79	56,126	4.48	161,446	12.87	287,625	22.94	29,803	2.37
Rhode Island.....	199,969	89,744	44.88	6,403	3.20	40,263	20.13	41,298	20.66	4,679	2.34
Connecticut.....	374,714	183,812	49.85	54,329	14.50	50,169	13.39	32,891	8.78	15,939	4.26
New York.....	3,300,550	1,178,364	34.75	1,102,266	32.51	381,616	11.26	149,515	4.41	57,394	1.69
New Jersey.....	696,746	242,148	34.75	229,307	32.91	107,074	15.37	6,156	.89	11,668	1.66
Pennsylvania.....	1,904,621	650,071	34.13	581,066	30.51	363,377	19.08	17,012	.89	31,975	1.68
South Atlantic Division:											
Delaware.....	30,606	15,950	52.11	5,591	18.27	5,041	16.47	329	1.08	462	1.51
Maryland.....	249,470	54,186	21.72	143,914	57.69	22,947	9.20	1,400	.56	979	.39
District of Columbia.....	46,433	18,326	39.47	14,884	32.05	6,535	14.08	818	1.77	434	.93
Virginia.....	43,053	12,557	29.17	11,928	27.71	9,997	23.23	935	2.17	567	1.31
West Virginia.....	59,571	17,991	30.20	24,477	41.09	10,409	17.47	641	1.07	196	.33
North Carolina.....	10,805	2,020	18.70	3,139	29.05	3,758	34.78	431	3.99	148	1.37
South Carolina.....	16,694	5,169	30.96	6,380	38.22	2,463	14.76	200	1.20	243	1.46
Georgia.....	31,320	10,304	32.90	9,134	29.16	5,755	18.38	850	2.71	563	1.79
Florida.....	33,698	2,966	8.80	4,479	13.29	6,330	18.78	1,341	3.98	1,284	3.81
North Central Division:											
Ohio.....	1,245,942	215,595	17.30	672,444	53.97	173,863	13.96	23,641	1.90	7,021	.56
Indiana.....	446,897	66,817	14.95	268,185	60.01	44,031	9.85	9,983	2.24	9,588	2.15
Illinois.....	1,875,323	339,810	18.12	801,574	42.74	210,512	11.22	59,642	3.18	197,147	10.51
Michigan.....	1,142,753	125,494	10.98	316,757	27.72	170,249	14.90	249,051	21.80	59,572	5.21
Wisconsin.....	1,242,399	113,349	9.12	626,030	50.39	92,478	7.48	60,929	4.91	184,612	14.85
Minnesota.....	981,130	91,557	9.33	278,063	28.34	51,428	5.24	68,279	6.86	373,035	38.02
Iowa.....	832,927	130,838	15.71	320,963	38.53	105,310	12.65	36,797	4.42	137,233	16.47
Missouri.....	668,226	121,459	18.18	373,896	55.95	66,454	9.94	15,030	2.26	12,955	1.94
North Dakota.....	144,115	10,028	6.96	19,829	13.76	11,863	8.23	21,769	15.11	59,883	41.55
South Dakota.....	198,953	17,858	8.98	45,173	22.70	19,724	9.92	15,469	7.77	58,329	29.32
Nebraska.....	449,485	52,017	11.57	163,675	36.42	53,822	11.97	21,092	4.69	76,582	17.04
Kansas.....	381,091	54,328	14.23	124,658	32.66	70,309	18.43	24,533	6.43	40,517	10.61
South Central Division:											
Kentucky.....	183,045	44,537	24.33	103,222	56.39	15,641	8.54	1,764	.97	682	.37
Tennessee.....	52,621	15,674	29.79	14,677	27.89	9,921	18.86	1,506	2.86	826	1.56
Alabama.....	36,917	8,590	23.27	10,416	28.21	9,444	25.58	750	2.03	642	1.75
Mississippi.....	24,320	6,695	27.53	6,822	28.05	3,782	15.54	558	2.30	823	3.38
Louisiana.....	144,726	28,254	19.52	48,247	33.34	9,115	6.30	1,509	1.05	1,474	1.02
Texas.....	334,545	23,338	6.98	124,375	37.18	25,844	7.72	4,363	1.31	8,397	2.50
Oklahoma.....	7,179	1,159	16.14	2,004	27.92	1,399	19.49	691	9.62	378	5.26
Arkansas.....	37,426	6,625	17.70	15,399	41.14	6,406	17.12	1,467	3.92	917	2.45
Western Division:											
Montana.....	70,693	15,874	22.45	11,391	16.11	15,771	22.32	9,702	13.73	8,141	11.52
Wyoming.....	28,805	5,173	17.96	4,311	14.97	9,805	34.04	1,847	6.41	3,533	12.26
Colorado.....	161,302	31,592	19.59	33,711	20.90	39,840	24.70	11,456	7.10	16,789	10.41
New Mexico.....	23,232	2,613	11.25	3,195	13.75	3,345	14.40	939	4.04	379	1.63
Arizona.....	31,344	2,658	8.48	2,209	7.05	3,596	11.47	823	2.62	777	2.48
Utah.....	136,811	5,122	3.74	4,215	3.08	73,279	53.56	2,510	1.83	33,304	24.35
Nevada.....	24,126	6,465	26.89	3,344	13.86	5,706	23.64	2,192	9.09	1,071	4.44
Idaho.....	36,452	4,703	12.90	4,368	11.98	13,156	36.09	2,387	6.55	6,310	17.31
Washington.....	151,990	20,043	13.19	31,110	20.47	30,061	19.78	18,833	12.39	28,408	18.69
Oregon.....	96,429	12,143	12.59	27,266	28.28	19,015	19.72	8,330	8.64	10,469	10.86
California.....	609,514	153,046	25.11	129,978	21.32	96,101	15.77	33,588	5.50	32,532	5.34

It is to be observed that all the immigrants from the European countries named, except those coming from Ireland since 1870, were born under the influence of a state church. This fact has an important bearing on their views of the proper attitude of civil government toward religious and educational institutions.

Ireland.—The Irish were mostly Catholics, bred in an antagonism to the Established Church, not so much because it was supported by the State, as because it required taxes from those who did not accept its doctrines and spent relatively little for the popular church of the island. Disestablishment was brought about in 1870.

In his report to the board of education of Massachusetts for 1843 Horace Mann explains the conditions of Irish public schools as he found them:

“In Ireland a national board of education was constituted in 1831. It is founded on the principle of religious toleration and conciliation, as between the two great sects into which that country is divided. * * * All religious instruction is expressly prohibited in the schools; and this prohibition includes ‘the reading of the Scriptures,’ ‘the teaching of catechisms,’ ‘public prayer,’ and ‘all other religious exercises;’ but separate hours are set apart in which all the children receive religious instruction from the clergymen of their respective denominations, the principle being to give combined literary and moral with separate religious instruction.”

The Irish national schools continue largely to follow the principle noted by Mr. Mann over half a century ago. In the report for 1891, “Rules and regulations,” the commissioners of national education in Ireland state that:

“1. The object of the system of national education is to afford combined literary and moral and separate religious instruction to children of all persuasions, as far as possible in the same school, upon the fundamental principle that no attempt shall be made to interfere with the peculiar religious tenets of any description of Christian pupils. * * *

“6. The schools to which the commissioners grant aid are divided into two classes, viz: (1) Vested schools, of which there are two sorts, namely, (a) those vested in the commissioners, and (b) those vested in the trustees for the purpose of being maintained as national schools; (2) nonvested schools, the property of private individuals. * * *

“75. Opportunities are to be afforded (as hereinafter provided) to the children of all national schools for receiving such religious instruction as their parents or guardians approve of.

“76. Religious instruction must be so arranged (a) that each school shall be open to children of all communities for combined literary and moral instruction; (b) that, in respect of religious instruction, due regard be had to parental right and authority; and accordingly, that no child shall receive, or be present at, any religious instruction of which his parents or guardians disapprove; and (c) that the time for giving religious instruction be so fixed that no child shall be thereby in effect excluded directly or indirectly from the other advantages which the school affords. * * *

“83. In vested schools such pastors or other persons as shall be approved of by the parents or guardians of the children, respectively, shall have access to them in the schoolroom, for the purpose of giving them religious instruction there, at times convenient for that purpose—that is, at times so appointed as not to interfere unduly with the other arrangements of the school.

“84. In nonvested schools it is for the patrons or local managers to determine whether any, and, if any, what religious instruction shall be given in the schoolroom; but if they do not permit it to be given in the schoolroom, the children whose parents or guardians so desire must be allowed to absent themselves from the school at reasonable times for the purpose of receiving such instruction elsewhere. * * *

“86. The reading of the Scriptures, either in the Protestant authorized or in the Douay version, the teaching of catechisms, public prayer, and all other religious exercises, come within the rules as to religious instruction.”

Scotland.—In Scotland the Reformed Church laid great stress upon general education. Without taking space to quote John Knox (1505-1572) or Thomas Chalmers

(1780-1847), reference may be made to a work by David Stow, a prominent Scotch Presbyterian educator before and through the second quarter of this century. This author states that the Scottish Church, in its polity, originally provided a minister and a schoolmaster and a staff of elders for every small rural parish of perhaps 1,000 souls. A grammar school was provided in each of the burgh towns, at that time small.¹ In this duodecimo of 474 pages, training is emphasized as distinguished from teaching, and Bible lessons are everywhere made fundamental.

The Scotch were thus trained in sympathy with the idea of religious instruction in elementary parish schools, though the system of parochial schools had been limited to the rural communities. Scotland has had a state church, Presbyterian in form. In 1843 a strong element withdrew and became the Free Church of Scotland, without modification of creed, on account of what were deemed encroachments of the crown in ecclesiastical matters. This Free Church has been supported by voluntary effort corresponding to conditions of church support in the United States.

In the words of Right Hon. Herbert Henry Asquith, in the debate on the second reading of the school bill pending for England and Wales (1896):

"In the ordinary schools of Scotland the elements of the Presbyterian doctrine are taught, Presbyterianism being the religion of the vast majority of the population of the country, and special provision being made for giving facilities for separate schools for the minorities."

Scandinavia.—The Scandinavian countries are almost completely Lutheran. Everyone is required to attend school at a stated age, and religious instruction is a prominent feature of the work.

Europe as seen by Horace Mann.—The reports of certain men who have studied the schools of various countries give us comparative views of value in this connection. Horace Mann visited Europe (1843) before the establishment of a public-school system in England and before the revolutions that made the present Germany. He says:

"Nothing receives more attention in the Prussian schools than the Bible. It is taken up early and studied systematically. * * * In all the Protestant schools the Lutheran catechism is zealously taught, and in all the Roman Catholic schools the catechism of that communion. * * * If the parents are all of one religious denomination, the teacher generally gives the religious instruction. Where a diversity of creeds exists the teacher usually instructs those of his own faith, and the Lutheran or the Catholic clergyman, as the case may be, attends at certain hours to give instruction in a separate apartment to those of his faith.

"In Holland all doctrinal religious instruction is excluded from the schools. The Bible is not read in them. Children are permitted to withdraw at a certain hour to receive a lesson in religion from their pastors; but this is not required. It is optional to go or remain. * * *

"In England, as there is neither law nor system on the subject of education, each teacher * * * does as he pleases. In the schools sustained by the church the views of the church, both as to religious doctrine and church government, are taught, and sometimes, though not always, in the schools of the Dissenters their distinctive doctrines are taught. There are, however, a few other schools which are established on a neutral basis as between opposing sects. In these the common principles and requirements of morality and all the preceptive parts of the gospel, as contradistinguished from its doctrinal, are carefully inculcated."

The leading German State was Prussia, and Prussian schools are those which have been most cited by travelers.

Great Britain is by law Protestant Episcopal in England and Wales, and Presbyterian in Scotland. In both ends of the island the forces of Dissenters, or Nonconformists, as all Protestants not of the Established Church are called, are strong. Catholics have a powerful organization in England. The effectiveness of schools in Scotland is closely connected with the churches.

¹ The Training System, the Moral Training School, and the Normal Seminary. By David Stow, eighth edition, 1850, p. 72.

England makes no claim to anything like a general public common school system prior to 1870, though public funds have been expended for education in some form for centuries.

Continental Europe as seen by Matthew Arnold, 1865.—Matthew Arnold in 1865 reported:

“The two legally established forms of religion in Prussia are the Protestant (evangelisch) and the Catholic. All public schools must be either Protestant, Catholic, or mixed (Simultananstalten). * * * In general, the deed of foundation or established custom determines to what confession a school shall belong. The religious instruction and the services follow the confession of the school. The ecclesiastical authorities—the consistories for Protestant schools, the bishops for Catholic schools—must concur with the school authorities in the appointment of those who give the religious instruction in the schools. * * * Where the scholars of that confession which is not the established confession of the school are in considerable numbers, a special religious instructor is paid out of the school funds to come and give them this religious instruction at the school. * * * When the scholars whose confession is in the minority are very few in number, their parents have to provide by private arrangement of their own for their children’s religious instruction. * * *

“The wide acceptance which the denomination Evangelical takes in the official language of Prussia prevents a host of difficulties which occur with us in England. * * * In all schools of the Evangelical confession Luther’s catechism is used, and all Protestant boys of whatever denomination learn it. Not the slightest objection is made by their parents to this. It is true that Luther’s catechism is perhaps the very happiest part of Lutheranism, and therefore recommends itself for the common adoption, while our catechism can hardly be said to be the happiest part of Anglicanism.”¹

The reports of Matthew Arnold here cited were made at long intervals after that of Horace Mann. Meantime, Germany had been consolidated (1871). Prior to Mr. Arnold’s last report (1886) France had secularized her schools (1882, 1886) and England had adopted something like a national school system (1870).

Matthew Arnold, special report, 1886.—The following is from Special Report on Certain Points Connected with Elementary Education in Germany, Switzerland, and France, by Matthew Arnold, presented to both Houses of Parliament in 1886, twenty-one years after his report just cited:

“The article of the Swiss constitution which establishes the obligatoriness and gratuitousness of the popular school goes on to say next: ‘The public schools shall be capable of being attended by adherents of all confessions without injury to their freedom of faith and conscience.’ Whoever has seen the divisions caused in a so-called logical nation, like the French, by this principle of the neutrality of the popular school in matter of religion might expect difficulty here. None whatever has arisen. The Swiss communities, applying the principle for themselves, and not leaving theorists and politicians to apply it for them, have done in the matter what they find suitable to their wants, and have in every popular school religious instruction in the religion of the majority, a Catholic instruction in Catholic cantons like Lucerne, a Protestant in Protestant cantons like Zurich. There is no unfair dealing, no proselyting, no complaint. In the German countries generally I have been struck with the same thing. In Germany the schools are confessional, or, as we say, denominational; that is—for the sect ramifications of Protestantism are not regarded—they are Evangelical, Catholic, or Jewish. When there are enough children of the confession of the minority a separate school is established for them, but where there are not enough, and they are taught with the children of the confession of the majority, there is, so far as I could learn, no unfair dealing and no complaint. In Saxony, where the Catholics are a small minority—in round numbers, 73,000 to

¹ Schools and Universities on the Continent, p. 199.

nearly 3,000,000 of Protestants—there are confessional schools for Catholics, but of course many scattered Catholic children are attending the Protestant schools. Of these children the elder ones must stay away from the religious instruction; the younger ones may follow it if their parents please, and often do follow it. In the great town school of Lucerne I found about 400 Protestant children in class with 2,900 Catholics; the Catholic children receive their religious instruction at the school, the boys from the director of the institution, the girls from a priest; the Protestant children receive theirs out of school and out of school hours. But at the large country school of Krientz, near Lucerne, I found that even in the head classes the few Protestant children were receiving religious instruction along with their Catholic schoolmates, the parents approving. The only case of religious difficulty which came to my notice was at Zurich, where some excellent people, Evangelical Protestants, considering the Protestantism of the public training college and schools too broad and too lax, had founded by private subscription a more strictly Evangelical college and school, which have been very successful."

Reports of R. Laishley.—Mr. R. Laishley spent 1883–1886 in an investigation of popular education in Europe and the United States in behalf of the Government of New Zealand. His observations upon the United States show a keener perception of the situation than is obtained by ordinary visitors who land at New York, glance at the schools of Massachusetts, visit the national capital, and write their impressions of the "American system." Mr. Laishley sees what many born in the country have yet to learn, that every State and Territory has an educational character of its own and that there is no comprehensive national system.

Mr. Laishley says: "The countries written of are Great Britain, France, Switzerland, Italy, Germany, Belgium, and the United States. * * * The religious and financial aspect of national education have especially engaged my attention. * * *

"It is most seriously questioned whether the British, a de facto religious, system tends to diminish crime, and whether a secular one is not distinctly dangerous.

"It is not for me to enter here, however, into the questions as to (1) whether religion is the foundation of morality or conducive to it, or whether morality can be taught without it, or (2) whether by teaching no religion a creed is not as arbitrarily taught as if Calvinism, or any other form of ism, were inculcated?

"It suffices for my purpose to believe (1) that there should be on the part of a State great care that the utmost consideration be shown toward the religious feelings of all; (2) that no form whatever of merely secular instruction will satisfy the great majority who believe that education without religion is impossible; (3) that there will be, if there be not already, 'a strong reaction against allowing sectarian jealousy to cause numbers of the population to grow up without the simplest elementary knowledge,' and (4) that friction as between the State and religionists retards, if it does not prevent, the perfect working of any State educational system.

"And, if any proof were needed, surely the anticlerical agitations in Belgium in 1884 show the seriousness of the questions involved in the arbitrary exclusion of religious teaching from public schools. * * *

Great Britain.—The ordinary elementary day schools receiving State aid are of two classes:

"(1) Voluntary, controlled by religious denominations, or other managers, but which receive an annual grant from the Government; and

"(2) Board, managed by the boards, which receive an annual grant, and also the amount derived from local rates claimed or levied by the boards in their respective districts.

"The former class comprises nearly 76 per cent of all state-aided elementary day schools in England and Wales; but in order to obtain grants the schools must be conducted in accordance with the conditions required to be fulfilled by all elementary schools in Great Britain receiving state aid. * * *

"It therefore rests entirely with the boards and managers to order and regulate, or prohibit, religious teaching.

"The restraining sections are (a) 'the conscience clause,' applicable to all elementary schools receiving state aid; (b) the section prohibiting 'any religious catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination,' which affects board schools only, and (c) the proviso that no by-law can be made preventing the withdrawal of any child from any religious observance, or instruction in religious subjects, or requiring any child to attend school on any day exclusively set apart for religious observance by the religious body to which his parent belongs, which, of course, affects board schools only. * * *

"By a return made to the House of Lords, 1884, it appears that (a) in an overwhelming majority of board schools in England and Wales religious exercises take place, in most instances daily; * * * (b) the services generally consist of reading the Bible, with or without comments, prayers, and hymns; * * * but in some cases the Bible is not read.

"*France*.—Education in all the national educational establishments is exclusively secular. And by the law passed in 1886 'in public schools of every description all instruction is to be given exclusively by laymen.' * * *

"Religious instruction must not now be given in schoolhouses; * * * optional in private schools. * * *

"Private schools * * * are subject to state supervision in respect of (a) morality, (b) sanitary arrangements, (c) the keeping a register of, and reporting, absences, and (d) so that the books used be not such as are contrary to the actual constitution or principles of government.

"*Switzerland*.—Switzerland is a republic where there are no universal sympathies of race, language, or religion. The Swiss apparently have concluded (1) that the existence of such a republic, unless all its citizens are sufficiently educated, is an impossibility; and (2) that to secure such universal and sufficient education (a) compulsory-attendance laws and gratuitous instruction are necessary; (b) religion must be admitted as the basis of education, but consideration must be shown for the religious feelings of all; (c) there must be local government in all matters primarily affecting localities. * * *

"*Italy*.—Italy is progressing rapidly in state education. * * * But state education in Italy is not, as yet, in that matured condition which warrants looking to it for profitable example. * * *

"Its religious feature consists in the lay head masters conducting once a week, on Saturdays, a religious exercise in the great majority of schools, although there are some exceptions where this is entirely left out of the programme. But even religious instruction is only given to those children whose parents express a wish for it; and all the children may be exempt from it by going to school one hour later than ordinarily.¹ * * *

"In each province there is a school board under the presidency of the prefect, which board has the supervision of private as well as public primary and secondary schools in respect of sanitary and moral matters. * * *

"*Roman Catholic schools*.—In addition to state-aided and private schools there exist numerous primary and secondary schools established by the Roman Catholic Church which are gratuitous, well-attended, well-conducted, and carried on under the presidency of the clergy. There, of course, religious instruction is a main feature. * * *

"I ascertained (1) that the Roman Catholic authorities are not at all satisfied with the system of state education in Italy, hence they have felt compelled to carry on their own free schools; and (2) that the principal grounds of their dissatisfaction are (a) that religious instruction is not, in state schools, the basis of education; (b) and when given, is not conducted as they approve, which defects are considered to have a most depraving effect upon the morale of the school."

¹ It is said, however, to be very rare that families refuse religious instruction. Nearly everywhere Jews, with a few Protestants, are the only ones to absent themselves.

Mr. Laishley also quotes a high authority on education at Rome, who thinks (*a*) far too many subjects are taught in the state schools, (*b*) that it would be infinitely preferable to have a few subjects taught thoroughly, and (*c*) that education should not be compulsory, but left to parental discretion.

Germany.—Mr. Laishley finds in Germany “(*a*) consideration for the feelings of virtually all in religious matters;¹ (*b*) local government, including regulation of religious instruction (subject to the protection of minorities), of direct taxation, of expenditure, and of administrative details; (*c*) religion (subject to certain conscience clause provisions) considered as the basis of instruction, and therefore placed as the primary subject on elementary school programmes; (*d*) compulsory attendance laws; (*e*) thorough qualification of all teachers for private as well as for public schools, (*f*) and recognition of the great unportance of gymnastic exercises.

“So that in Germany, as in Switzerland, we find friction between the State and the citizens in religious matters provided against.

“*Belgium.*—From recent changes in the Belgian educational system, and from the circumstances surrounding them, valuable lessons can be derived. It is, therefore, an opportune time for comment. It is requisite to remember that Belgium is a country where, at least nominal, Roman Catholics very largely predominate, and where the Roman Catholic clergy have great influence; that the state system in force under the law of 1st of July, 1879, was a secular one; and that the sole provision for religious instruction was that if parents wished their children to be benefited by the ministrations of the clergy, such ministrations could only be given (upon the application of the parents) before or after school hours—the principle adopted being that religious instruction should be left to the care of families and ministers. The result was that religious training in schoolhouses virtually amounted to nothing; and that the Roman Catholic authorities established primary schools, and added to the number of their secondary schools (*écoles moyennes et colleges*), all which were, and are still, largely attended. But there grew up in consequence a very bitter and deep feeling of hostility, created or fostered by the clergy, against the state system; and when the clerical party latterly obtained political ascendancy, educational reform was carried out.

“It is unnecessary to detail the violent agitation, almost amounting to revolution, caused by the enacting of the new law; affording, it would seem, clear proof of the impolicy (to say nothing of the injustice, which, of course, is always impolitic) of a state identifying itself with a nonreligious or religious educational scheme, without providing that every consideration be shown toward the religious or non-religious convictions of all its subjects.

“The recent act is strongly condemned by the Liberals, but it will certainly be maintained so long as the Conservative party are in power.

“The reform is an advance upon that of 1st of July, 1879, as more favorable to local government, especially in religious matters.

“The communes have now more power; for instance, when the inhabitants in a commune are unanimous respecting religious teaching, it is open to them to subsidize, as primary schools, clerical ones, and to thereby virtually abolish undenominational schools. Even when ratepayers are not unanimous, a minority of 20 fathers of families is entitled to claim that a school shall be established for the use of their children, where religious teaching according to the views of the parents may be conducted as a main feature in education, and under certain circumstances they can indicate one or more schools that they wish adopted; the sole conditions imposed by the state being that (*a*) the school must be established in a suitable place; (*b*) half at least of the teachers must have obtained diplomas, or have successfully passed an examination for teachers before a board organized by the Government; (*c*) the

¹ At Berlin even the comparatively small number of Jewish pupils in primary schools are to be supplied with Jewish teachers for religion.

instruction given must come up to the proper standard; (d) the children of the poor are to be received gratuitously; and (e) the school is subject to Government inspection. The defect, however, seems to be the nonprovision for a minority of less than twenty fathers.

"The effect will probably be that there will be in towns as many undenominational schools as ever, but that in the rural districts, where the Roman Catholic clergy have greater influence than in many of the towns, there will be great changes and the peasantry will be relieved from the serious hardship of paying for schools which they do not use. The law, as regards State schools, still remains intact in respect of its secular character and in respect of the provisions for religious teaching, but the main amendment promotes the support of schools where such religious doctrines and formularies, be they Roman Catholic or otherwise, as the managers of the school think proper, form a portion of the ordinary plan of study.

"However, until such measures be introduced as provide that consideration be shown toward all, one can scarcely expect to find that the Belgian educational system will be devoid of that friction which would alone prevent the perfecting of details apart from those relating to religious teaching.

"*The United States of America.*—The range of country is so immense and the social conditions so diverse that it is difficult to make general statements applicable to the States as a whole. The condition of education in each State or Territory must be judged on its merits.

"Very great allowance must be made in view of (a) the colored race element, a result of the abolition of slavery, whereby some additional millions became entitled to claim State rights, and (b) of the vast number of immigrants of various nationalities continually pouring in, to whom the system of the majority has to be adapted. * * *

"Sectarian instruction is not given in the public schools. It is quite a common practice to open or close the public schools with Bible reading and prayer. Singing of religious hymns by the entire school is still more common.

"The influence of the schools is wholly on the side of morality and religion. Religious teaching, however, is entirely intrusted to church and family agencies. * * *

"In truth, arrangements for religious teachings are a source of discontent in the United States, especially to the Roman Catholics. They are not upon a basis which satisfies all, or virtually all, and can not be deemed permanent."

Mr. Laisley presents a tabular contrast of all the countries under discussion, from which the following is a condensation, to show the extent of religious instruction in public schools and supervision of private schools. He has rated the prevalence of religious instruction in public schools of the United States too high.

Name of country.	Religious instruction in public schools.	State supervision of private schools.
Great Britain.....	As directed by boards and voluntary school managers.	None, except that the board must be satisfied "a child is under efficient instruction."
France	None	Yes; teachers must have certificates.
Switzerland	Yes.....	Yes.
Italy	Yes.....	Yes.
Germany	Yes.....	Yes; teachers must have diplomas.
Belgium	Optional with communes	No, if wholly private; yes, if receiving State aid.
United States of America...	No universal rule; in most places a certain amount; the system must be deemed secular; there is dissatisfaction, and therefore friction.	No.

In Belgium to 1879 religious instruction was regularly given in public schools. In that year the schools were completely secularized. The reaction of 1884 restored religious instruction, with some modification, as before the act of 1879.

The law of September 20, 1884, however, left religious instruction optional with the communes. In 1895 only 153 out of 5,778 schools did not have daily religious instruction on their programmes. By a law of that year (1895) religious instruction one-half hour daily was made obligatory, except for children whose parents ask that they be excused. The instruction is to be given by the ministers of the several denominations, or, under their supervision, either by the teacher, if he consents, or by another person approved by the communal council. The inspection of the religious instruction is by the "chief of the confessions" through their delegates, and not as part of the State inspection.

Teachers must abstain from any attack on the religious belief of the families whose children are intrusted to them.

In brief, the pupils are to have religious instruction in the schools, under the faith of their parents, or to be excused from religious exercises so far as parents ask it.

France is the only European country at this time whose schools are rigidly secularized, and there Thursday is kept as a holiday to give opportunity for religious instruction elsewhere.

These glimpses at conditions in the countries where parents were born will be suggestive as to the views of public education, especially as related to religion, to which a large part of our people are accustomed. This statement is only suggestive, and therefore only the States are named in the following paragraphs in which the descendants of any nationality specified form a prominent fraction. It will be evident that the influences of a given nationality are quite local, and that their diversity tends to maintain the specialization of our State systems.

HIGH RATIOS OF FOREIGN PARENTAGE.

In North Dakota and Minnesota more than three-fourths of the population is of foreign parentage; in Wisconsin almost three-fourths; in Utah close to two-thirds; in South Dakota near three-fifths; in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Michigan, Montana, Arizona, Nevada, and California just over one-half; in New Jersey, Illinois, and Wyoming just below one-half; in Iowa, Nebraska, Colorado, Idaho, and Washington over two-fifths; in Pennsylvania and Ohio just above one-third; and in Oregon not quite one-third; in Kansas and Missouri just over one-fourth, and in Maryland just below one-fourth.

The localization of the principal elements of foreign parentage—from Ireland, Germany, Great Britain, Canada, and Scandinavia—appears in the following paragraphs.

Ireland.—Persons of Irish parentage form just above one-fourth of the whole population in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; barely under one-fifth in New York; just below one-sixth in New Jersey; barely over one-seventh in Nevada; close to one-eighth in California, Pennsylvania, and Montana.

Germany.—Persons of German parentage are much above a third of the whole population in Wisconsin; above one-fifth in Illinois and Minnesota; a little below one-fifth in New York; close to one-sixth in Ohio; more than one-seventh in New Jersey, Nebraska, Iowa, and Michigan; just below one-seventh in Missouri, South Dakota, Maryland, and Indiana; barely short of one-ninth in Pennsylvania; and a little more than one-tenth in North Dakota and California.

Great Britain.—Persons whose parents were born in Great Britain form more than one-third of the population in Utah; more than one-seventh in Idaho; close to one-sixth in Wyoming; one-eighth in Nevada, and nearly one-eighth in Montana and Rhode Island. The United States is so closely allied to Great Britain by early settlement, colonial government, habits of thought, community of language, and ready intercourse that the figures which show persons not more than one generation removed from foreign birth do not adequately represent the ratio of British influence on our social condition. As illustrating indirect ways by which British methods touch public sentiment with us, attention may be directed to the assistance missionaries from this country receive from British colonial governments for their schools.

When a Congregational missionary from Bombay, India, for example, reports to his friends in this country, his balance sheets are likely to show a Government grant of one-half the cost of his manual training school shop, one-fourth the cost of the teacher's residence, and an allowance, according to results shown upon examination by the Government inspector, not exceeding one-third the current expenses. This same missionary will state that the Government pays no attention to the religious teaching and stands ready to make kindred grants to schools of any religion, or of no religion, that put themselves under its inspection and produce like results in so-called secular education. This is in sharp contrast with recent denominational action in this country where several religious bodies relinquished government contracts for Indian schools in the movement to separate Government action from any relation to sectarianism. One can hardly help inquiring whether the present current of sentiment in the United States will lead to instructions from mission boards here to their missionaries in the British dominions to refuse Government aid, or whether the experience of the missionaries will tend to modify the current feeling at home.

Canada.—Persons of Canadian parentage are more than one-sixth the entire population of New Hampshire and Vermont; just over one-eighth of the population of Massachusetts and Maine, and just below one-eighth in Michigan and Rhode Island.

Scandinavia.—Persons of Scandinavian parentage form close to one-third the whole population of North Dakota; over one-fourth in Minnesota; just above one-sixth in South Dakota; just below one-sixth in Utah, and almost one-ninth in Wisconsin.

European conditions summarized.—The people of Continental Europe, the Germans and the Scandinavians, have been accustomed to a state church, to compulsory education, to religious teaching based upon the Bible, but accommodated in a catechetical form to certain faiths, in the state schools, and to tuition fees above the elementary schools. The exceptional conditions of France, are recent (schools secularized by laws of 1882 and 1886), and affect us little, except through their example in the great movement of cosmopolitan public opinion, that country furnishing as yet few immigrants, and those hardly grown used to the new conditions of their own country.

CURRENT DISCUSSION IN ENGLAND.

The English, although having a state church, are like ourselves in some aspects of their experience with religious teaching. They have a recent public-school system, but questions of religious instruction are subject to local views of policy. Protestant dissenters or nonconformists appear among the active opponents of religious instruction in the public schools. The English have not even now a school system for general education, like that of Massachusetts, for example. They have been accustomed since 1839 to a "grant in aid" system, by which the Government has aided schools of any or no faith, according to results in secular education and the conditions of the schools. Not half the pupils are in schools under charge of public-school boards.

The English people have now two prominent types of procedure as to religion in public schools. One is illustrated in schools of the London school board, where religious instruction, called unsectarian, is made prominent. The Bible is studied, not merely read. The other type is known to some under the name of the Birmingham method, because adopted by the Birmingham school board, in whose schools only secular instruction is given. Permission is given for the children whose parents so desire to attend religious instruction under forms which they select during certain school hours. The London type reaches all pupils except those specifically excused on their parents' request. The Birmingham method leaves all who do not distinctly select religious instruction wholly without it.

The public schools of England are in a transition state, with legislation pending of sufficient importance to affect party issues and the stability of the ministry. The public interest hinges mainly upon the proposed treatment of religious instruction, which the opposition interpret as too favorable to the Catholic and the Anglican (Episcopal) churches.

The following paragraph is in the pending educational bill for England and Wales: "27. (1) One of the regulations in accordance with which a public elementary school is required to be conducted shall be that if the parents of a reasonable number of the scholars attending the school require that separate religious instruction be given to their children, the managers shall, so far as practicable, whether the religious instruction in the school is regulated by any trust deed, scheme, or other instrument or not, permit reasonable arrangements to be made for allowing such religious instruction to be given, and shall not be precluded from doing so by the provisions of any such deed, scheme, or instrument.

"(2) Any question which may arise under this section as to what is reasonable or practicable shall be determined by the education department, whose decision shall be final."

Sir John Gorst, in asking leave to introduce the bill, said: "Last year the voluntary schools educated 2,445,812 children, as against 1,879,218 educated in the board schools; or, to put the matter in a more popular form, of every seven children educated by the State, three were educated in board schools and four in the voluntary schools. * * *

"The Roman Catholics and a very large part of the members of the Church of England make it a point of conscience that their children should be educated by teachers of their own denominations, and it would be impossible to force those children out of their own schools into the board schools without being guilty of a piece of religious intolerance which the people of England in these enlightened days would never consent to."

On the second reading of the bill Mr. Gorst said:

"In our country, where we quarrel so much about religious matters, there is only one principle by which we can obtain peace in our schools, and that is by the recognition of the right of the parent to have his child brought up in the religion which he selects. * * *

"In the east end of London the London school board has most properly established Jewish schools, where the Jewish religion is taught by persons approved by the rabbi."

The bill represents the views of the party in power, but it is strongly opposed. In debate Mr. Asquith said of section 27, quoted above:

"I do not hesitate to describe that scheme as an endowment on a vast and unprecedented scale, out of public money, of a system of denominational teaching. * * * The principle which has governed us hitherto in this matter has been this: We have two sets of schools. First, the board schools, entirely supported out of public resources, imperial and local. In those schools the teaching of any religious formula or catechism is absolutely prohibited. We have another class of schools—denominational schools—which are largely supported out of the public funds. Yet, as in the view of the framers of the act of 1870, they were to continue to make substantial contributions of their own, they have given to them the power, while subject to a conscience clause, to teach any religious formula they please. That is the compromise that was worked for twenty-five years. What occasion is there to disturb it?"

The education grants were introduced in England in 1839. The following table shows, by denominations, the entire amounts granted to schools and the amount for 1895, as given in *The School Master* (England), April 18, 1896, in pounds,¹ disregarding shillings and pence for the last column:

Education grant.

Denomination.	In 1895.	Since 1839.
Church of England.....	£2, 785, 522	£43, 372, 290
British undenominational.....	419, 472	} 10, 806, 172
Wesleyan.....	193, 185	
Roman Catholic.....	340, 968	4, 331, 773
Board schools.....	2, 889, 744	225, 164, 866
Total.....	6, 628, 891	83, 673, 101

¹ The pound is nearly equivalent to \$5 of our money.

² Since 1870.

CURRENT DISCUSSION IN CANADA.

In Canada school questions are deeply stirring the people. It has long been the practice in Lower Canada, or Quebec, strongly Catholic, and furnishing most of the French-Canadian immigrants for New England, to have separate public schools for Protestants. In Upper Canada, or Ontario, Protestants are in the majority, and separate schools for Catholics or for Protestants have been allowed since 1863. In Manitoba the act of 1871 established separate schools. In 1890 the provincial legislature of Manitoba abolished separate schools, and there has been an active contest between the provincial and the Dominion authorities regarding their restoration. The Canadians expect some religious exercise in school, and "in part of Canada there is a State concession that any person liable to be taxed may, if he please, have the right to elect to support a denominational school, and be thereupon to a certain extent exempt from public rates."¹

The details of administration differ greatly in Great Britain, Canada, and the United States, but there is a coincidence of present agitation in all upon the relation of the state to religious instruction in general education.

CURRENT CONDITIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Matthew Arnold suggests an explanation why popular education in England was not equal to that of Germany and Holland:

"Perhaps one reason why in England our schools have not had the life and growth of the schools of Germany and Holland is to be found in the separation with us of the power of the Reformation and the power of the Renaissance. With us, too, the Reformation triumphed and got possession of our schools, but our leading reformers were not at the same time like those of Germany; the nation's leading spirits were there—the reformers; in England our best spirits—Shakespeare, Bacon, Spenser—were men of the Renaissance, not men of the Reformation, and our reformers were men of the second order. The reformation, therefore, getting hold of the schools in England was a very different force, a force far inferior in light, resources, and prospects to the reformation getting hold of the schools in Germany."²

Would Matthew Arnold look upon the conditions in the United States as a natural perpetuation of English conditions? Horace Mann's comment on teachers in English schools of 1843, as to each following his own course, applies, more than most persons are aware, to our States and communities.

It must be observed that the United States as such has no general school system. There are certain features of public-school administration in which different States or different cities resemble one another, but one can not be too careful in stating the geographical limitations of his facts. Foreign and native educators have fallen into the way of taking the schools of Massachusetts as the type of schools in the United States without recognizing the differences that begin as soon as one crosses the State line.

The Government of the United States maintains special isolated schools, as the Military Academy, the Naval Academy, and the schools on Indian reservations, but the only geographical areas on which the nation takes charge of education are, directly, Alaska, where some 2,000 pupils are in schools administered, according to their varying conditions, by the Bureau of Education, and, indirectly, the District of Columbia, whose municipal laws are made by Congress. It is noteworthy that while many are denouncing as impracticable any plan for public schools of different sects or classes the District of Columbia, in common with all the States where the African race is prominent, has separate schools for whites and blacks, and even has a separate superintendent for the schools of each race, although all the schools are under the charge of one board and are supported without discrimination of funds.

¹ Laishley, note.

²Schools and Universities on the Continent, p. 153.

This, therefore, in a peculiar though limited sense, is the national system of education in the United States.

Massachusetts.—Horace Mann was in a sense the apostle of the enlarged public school systems of the day, and the historian of the schools of Massachusetts as they were when he was connected with them. In his lecture 5, Historical View of Education, 1840, he says: "As educators, as friends and sustainers of the common school system, our great duty is to prepare these living and intelligent souls; to awaken the faculty of thought in all the children of the Commonwealth; to give them an inquiring, outlooking, forthgoing mind; to impart to them the greatest practicable amount of useful knowledge; to cultivate in them a sacred regard to truth; to keep them unspotted from the world—that is, uncontaminated by its vices; to train them up to the love of God and the love of man; to make the perfect example of Jesus Christ lovely in their eyes, and to give to all so much religious instruction as is compatible with the rights of others and with the genius of our Government, leaving to parents and guardians the direction, during their school-going days, of all special and peculiar instruction respecting politics and theology; and at last, when the children arrive at years of maturity, to commend them to that inviolable prerogative of private judgment and of self-direction, which in a Protestant and a republican country is the acknowledged birthright of every human being."

In his first annual report, dated January 1, 1838, Mr. Mann says:

"In regard to moral instruction, the condition of our public schools presents a singular and, to some extent at least, an alarming phenomenon. To prevent the school from being converted into an engine of religious proselytism, to debar successive teachers in the same school from successively inculcating hostile religious creeds, until the children should be alienated, not only from creeds but from religion itself, the statute of 1826 specially provided that no schoolbooks should be used in any of the public schools 'calculated to favor any particular religious sect or tenet.' The language of the Revised Statutes is slightly altered, but the sense remains the same. Probably no one would desire a repeal of this law while the danger impends which it was designed to repel."

He regrets that in all the libraries of books none have been found without a sectarian bias in favor of tenets or sects that puts them under the prohibition, so that there is an entire exclusion of religious teaching.

In his second annual report, dated December 26, 1838, Mr. Mann says:

"In my report of last year I exposed the alarming deficiency of moral and religious instruction then found to exist in our schools. That deficiency, in regard to religious instruction, could only be explained by supposing that school committees, whose duty it is to prescribe schoolbooks, had not found any books at once expository of the doctrines of revealed religion and also free from such advocacy of the 'tenets' of particular sects of Christians as brought them, in their opinion, within the scope of the legal prohibition. * * * Of course, I shall not be here understood as referring to the Scriptures, as it is well known that they are used in almost all the schools, either as a devotional or as a reading book."

In his report for 1848 (twelfth annual) he uses 49 pages in the defense of unsectarian religious teaching in the schools and cities. He cites the eighth report (1844) of the State board of education as "a document said to be the ablest argument in favor of the use of the Bible in schools anywhere to be found." That document (p. 16) says: "The Bible has nothing in it of a sectarian character. All Christian sects regard it as the text-book of their faith."

In the report for 1848 he repels earnestly all representations that he has ever opposed its use. He points out how recent is the unsectarian freedom which he claims is represented by the use of the Bible without note or comment.

"It was not, indeed, until a very recent period that all vestige of legal penalty or coercion was obliterated from our statute book, and all sects and denominations were placed upon a footing of absolute equality in the eye of the law. Until the 9th day

of April, 1821, no person in Massachusetts was eligible to the office of governor, lieutenant-governor, or councilor, or to that of senator or representative in the general court, unless he would make oath to a belief in the particular form of religion adopted and sanctioned by the State. And until the 11th day of November, 1833, every citizen was taxable by the constitution and laws of the State for the support of the Protestant religion, whether he were a Protestant, a Catholic, or a believer in any other faith. Nor was it till the 10th day of March, 1827, that it was made unlawful to use the common schools of the State as the means of proselyting children to a belief in the doctrines of particular sects, whether their parents believed in those doctrines or not. * * *

“The Bible is the acknowledged expositor of Christianity. In strictness, Christianity has no other authoritative expounder. This Bible is in our schools by common consent. Twelve years ago it was not in all the schools. Contrary to the genius of our Government, if not contrary to the express letter of the law, it had been used for sectarian purposes, to prove one sect to be right and others to be wrong. Hence it had been excluded from the schools of some towns by an express vote. But since the law and the reasons on which it is founded have been more fully explained and better understood, and since sectarian instruction has, to a great extent, ceased to be given, the Bible has been restored. I am not aware of the existence of a single town in the State in whose schools it is not now introduced, either by a direct vote of the school committee or by such general desire and acquiescence as supersede the necessity of a vote.”

After saying that the State of Massachusetts as an alternative for the course pursued “might establish schools, but expressly exclude all religious instruction from them, making them merely schools for secular instruction,” he says: “I do not suppose a man can be found in Massachusetts who would declare such a system to be his first choice.”

Conditions in Massachusetts have changed but gradually in the last sixty years, though even there the views which Horace Mann held as the broadest, unsectarian liberality are not uniformly accepted as liberal enough for present conditions.

American Association for the Advancement of Education.—At the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Education in 1855 the retiring president, Prof. A. D. Bache, made some remarks upon a national university in which he referred to moral and religious education as the better part of the work. Thereupon the following resolution was offered:

“Resolved, That the sentiments expressed by our late president, Professor Bache, in his recent address, that moral and religious instruction should form a prominent part in all our systems of education, is in accordance with the firm belief and earnest convictions of this association.”

This gave rise to a discussion as to the Bible and religion in public schools which occupied parts of three sessions and in which substitutes of similar purport were offered in the effort for a harmonious expression of opinion, all ended by laying the subject on the table. Prof. Charles Daviess, S. S. Randall, superintendent of public schools in the city of New York, Rev. Gorham D. Abbott, Prof. Alfred Greenleaf, Amos Perry, Caleb Mills, superintendent of public schools of Indiana, Gideon F. Thayer, Prof. E. A. Andrews, President Henry P. Tappan, of Michigan University, Prof. James N. McElligott, and others spoke with earnestness favoring such a resolution. Bishop Alonzo Potter, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, stood nearly alone in opposing it, Erastus C. Benedict supporting him in a degree. The Bishop spoke at great length, including the following sentences:

“The fact is that in this country the subject is surrounded by the greatest practical difficulties. Yet I think these difficulties are destined to be overcome, and we are in the way of overcoming them. * * * If the question was distinctly at issue whether we should have schools with no Bible, no religious instruction in them, or no public schools at all, I would say that I would surrender the Bible. There are

other places where the Bible can be taught. Give me a place where the children shall be taught to be able to read the Bible, and I will take care that they shall read the Bible out of school, if they do not in school. * * *

"It is the proposition that in all schools the Bible should be daily read. I have no doubt that it ought to be read in all schools where it can be read without the sacrifice of an interest greater than that which you can gain from it. Suppose that the only teacher you have to fill the place is one who demonstrates by his daily life that he is godless, without the fear of God before his eyes, who can not help, by the process of unconscious tuition, proclaiming the fact in his school that he does not fear God, that he does not in his heart regard the Bible. Now, will that man perform the duty you would impose upon him by law in such a way as to promote reverence for the Scriptures, in such a way as to deepen in the hearts of those little ones the fear of God and the love of Christ? I say no. The whole process will be regarded by them not as a solemn mockery but as a farce. A worse impression upon the religious character and associations could not well be produced."

The incident is noteworthy for the date, 1855, over forty years ago; for the educational position of the speakers; for their representative position as Protestant citizens, and for accepting by the leading speaker one as a teacher who "does not fear God" or "in his heart regard the Bible."

New York.—The first general act for the establishment of common schools in the State of New York was passed in the year 1812. In 1813 a supplementary act relating to the schools of the city of New York directed the payment of school moneys to such incorporated religious societies in said city as maintain charity schools. An act of 1822 gave funds for building schoolhouses to the Bethel Baptist Church, under which act gross abuses occurred, so that in 1824 an act was passed placing the selection of schools and institutions to receive public money in the common council of the city. This was held to exclude churches as such. In 1840, eight Catholic churches, a Jewish congregation, and a Scotch Presbyterian church petitioned the council for a share of the public money for schools under their care—the latter two basing their action on the report that a Catholic petition was to be presented. Remonstrances came in from the Public School Society, one from the Methodist Episcopal Church, with a contingent request that, if the moneys asked for were granted, a grant should also be made to restore a school formerly maintained by the Methodists.

In the remonstrances of the trustees of the Public School Society the distribution to churches for their schools is called:

"Unconstitutional * * * that the community should be taxed to support an establishment in which sectarian dogmas are inculcated. * * *

"Inexpedient, because the question was fully examined by the common council in 1822, and all the church schools, including the Catholics, which had previously drawn from the school fund were cut off, and the great principle of nonsectarianism adopted as the basis for subsequent appropriations from this fund."

Remonstrances from Reformed and Baptist churches and from citizens discussed various phases of the question. The petition for division was not granted.

The University of the State of New York has granted allowances from public funds to academies attaining its standards. In 1893 there were 69 undenominational, 22 Protestant, and 35 Catholic academies and academic departments that received such allowance. The constitution of 1894 prohibits the appropriation of public money to any institution under sectarian control. The regents of the university,¹ citing the Wisconsin decision that King James's version of the Bible is a sectarian book, state that they do not so consider it under conditions in New York. The parallels between practice in New York and English practice are evident, as well as the recent departure from English practice by cutting off from "Grants-in-aid" all schools that have a denominational character. A peculiar discrimination is likely

¹ Report for 1893.

to develop in present conditions in New York. A devout Christian teacher may conduct his school to all outward appearance just like that of his fellow-churchman across the way, but if one is formally indorsed by his denomination he can not receive the allotments of public funds still available for one not so indorsed.

Cities.—Not to follow the question of custom in the use of the Bible in the common schools State by State, it will be sufficient to cite conditions in some of the great cities of 1856—Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and New Orleans. In the schools of Boston the Bible was in use. In some schools of New York and Philadelphia it would have been found, but not uniformly. In Cincinnati it was in use, though one might have detected the indications of the contest in which its use was discontinued a few years later (1869). In the public schools of St. Louis the Bible was not used, notwithstanding something like a wholesale importation of New England teachers in 1853, notably from the Bridgewater Normal School, for superintendent, principals, and high-school teachers, to give character to the city system. The Bible had been in use in the schools of New Orleans, but was not in use there in 1856.

WANT OF UNIFORMITY IN USE OF TERMS.

Persons who have carried in their impressions the ideal of the Massachusetts common school have very generally regarded the question of the Bible in the schools as a question of defense, as though it were in general use, and not as an aggressive question that it might be adopted. In point of fact, it has not been in any such general use as assumed by a multitude of writers and speakers. When Calvin E. Stowe addressed an Indiana audience in 1840 it was clearly the New England custom of using the Bible that he was defending. The common schools of Indiana at that date were very primitive, and could hardly be said to have a prevailing custom in any detail. Professor Stowe uttered similar views before the American Institute of Instruction, Portland, Me., 1844, in a region where his statements fitted the conditions. He was willing to have Protestants and Catholics each use their own Bible. In the Indiana address he said: "Every attempt to pervert the common-school funds so as to accommodate children of different languages or different religions with a separate education should be steadily resisted by every true friend of his country."¹

The lack of definition of terms, or of the sense in which they are used, has led to much confusion in the discussion of the proper functions of the public school, and the variable meanings authors attach to "sectarian," "public school system," and other expressions give a character of unstable equilibrium, as it might be called, to many of the arguments regarding the functions of the schools. As an example, the royal commission of 1888 to examine the condition of elementary schools in England and Wales sent circulars to various foreign countries, and to each of the States and Territories of this country. The replies were condensed into tabular form in the report of the commission. In the column for religious instruction the word "None" appears against every State reporting except Florida, "Devotional exercises, non-sectarian;" Maine, "General, not sectarian, optional;" Michigan, "Nonsectarian;" New Jersey, "Bible read without note or comment, not obligatory;" Oregon, "Given by teacher, not compulsory, no special provision;" Vermont, "Bible read in most schools, not compulsory;" Virginia, "Not required by State, teachers usually give unsectarian religious instruction." The facts are not clearly shown, by reason of the varying significance attached to the term "religious instruction" by the officials who filled out replies. Massachusetts has a formal requirement that the Bible shall be read daily in all public schools, yet in the table cited eight States less stringent on the point have some entry indicating attention to religious instruction, while against Massachusetts is entered "None," as well as against other States in which the use of the Bible is favored.

¹ Wisdom and Knowledge the Nation's Stability. An address before the Euphonian Society, Wabash College, July 7, 1840.

Some allowance is to be made for the changes in the use of terms as the years go by. When all accept a dogma it is hardly sectarian, but when a community is divided in the acceptance of the same article of belief those who accept it or its opposite form a sect as related to their neighbors.

The Douay (Catholic) version of the Bible was judicially called sectarian in Nevada some years ago (State of Nevada v. Hallock, 16 Nevada, 373) and more recently came the Wisconsin decision that the King James version of the Bible was sectarian.

The discussions cited convey widely different impressions of the writers' views according to the sense in which they appear to have used terms that have come into the variable use indicated.

In the New Englander (Congregationalist), April, 1848, was an article contending for the common schools as against parochial schools advocated by Old-School Presbyterians. The author assumes that the common school is in accordance "with the comprehensive character of Christianity," but after a number of pages he says:

"IV. The preceding course of argument fully evinces the duty of good citizens to sustain the common schools rather than introduce the church schools, provided the varieties of religious belief in our communities do not render any safe and valuable system of instruction in the former impracticable.

"This brings us to the great, and, so far as appears, the only objection to the common-school system—the religious objection. * * *

"If the several religious denominations will act with an enlightened public spirit, * * * the practical difficulties will be found very few and small. * * * In common schools, schools under State and civil patronage, all religious denominations should stand on the same footing. * * * The opposite principle which has been so extensively adopted in the discussion of this subject, that in this country the State or civil power is Christian and Protestant, and therefore that schools sustained and directed in part thereby are Christian and Protestant, and that whoever attends them has no right to object to a rule requiring all to study Christian and Protestant books and doctrines, we wholly disbelieve and deny. The State, the civil power in whatever form in this country, is no more Protestant, or Christian, than it is Jewish or Mohammedan. It is of no religion whatever. * * *

"We fully admit, and, if necessary, would strenuously contend, that of a complete education the religious instruction and influence is an essential part, and far the most important part, and that it should be given in all the periods of a child's life. Any educational institution, therefore, which assumes for any considerable period the whole education and training of a child or youth * * * and yet gives no religious instruction and training, is justly said to give an irreligious and godless education. But to say the same of a day school which gives only secular instruction—instruction that does not discredit or interfere with, but prepares the way for, and indirectly aids, religion—during only four or six hours in the day, avowedly leaving religious instruction to other and better teachers, is palpably illogical and unfair.

"* * * There may be a division of labor, and secular teaching may be the exclusive department of the day school, while religious teaching is provided in other and better ways. * * *

"Very little jealousy has been encountered with regard to religious influence in the common schools of New England."

After stating that ministers are often on school boards, and usually find no difficulty on their visits to the schools in giving religious instruction approved by their judgment, the writer goes on to say: "If there should be districts, as probably there would be a few, in which the members of different religious denominations, not satisfied with the teaching of the common Christianity, should insist on the teaching of their distinctive doctrines, even so let it be. Let each scholar read or study his own Bible and his own catechism. The pupils might, if it should be thought most convenient and wise, when the time for religious instruction arrived,

be classified for this purpose." And, naming six denominations for possible separate classes, he adds: "And if there should be other varieties let them be classed accordingly."

This article was reprinted in the *Common School Journal* of Massachusetts and issued in pamphlet form for gratuitous distribution at the expense of a friend of New England common free schools.

NOTED PERIODS OF DISCUSSION OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION.

In 1840 the effort of the Catholics to secure appropriations of public school money in the city of New York attracted some attention elsewhere, and there has been some continuous interest on the subjects of parochial schools and appropriations of public money for denominational schools. Two periods, however, are especially noticeable for general attention to these subjects. The first was that known for the so-called "Know-Nothing" movement, which had a distinctive existence long enough to elect some mayors of cities and some governors of States in the early fifties. The second period may be said to have begun about 1889, and it has not yet ended.

In 1854, M. J. Spalding, D. D. (Catholic), bishop of Louisville, discussing the subject of education, directed attention to the arrangement for separate schools existing in other countries:¹

"In countries much less free than ours the common school system is so organized that Catholics and Protestants have separate schools. Austria, with all her alleged tyranny and with her triumphant Catholic majority of population, freely grants separate schools, supported out of the common fund, to the Protestant minority. England, with all her hereditary hatred of Catholicity, permits the Catholics to have their own separate schools; and this is not found to conflict in practice with her common-school system. Lower Canada, with its immense Catholic majority, freely concedes the privilege of separate schools to the small Protestant minority; and everyone who reads the public prints must be familiar with the controversy which is now carried on in Canada, and even in the Canadian Parliament, on the same equitable provision, extended, in all its privileges, to the Catholic minority of Upper Canada.² Strange that Catholics, when in power, should be so liberal in granting a privilege which a Protestant majority is so slow to concede!"

Under the title, "Shall our common schools be destroyed," Joseph P. Thompson, D. D., pastor of Broadway Tabernacle, New York City, delivered an argument against perverting the school fund to sectarian uses (1870). Dr. Thompson was one of the original editors of the (*New York*) *Independent*, established as an organ of Congressional polity. He cites Judge Cooley:

"Mr. Cooley (*Constitutional Limitations*, p. 469) enumerates the following things concerning religion as not lawful under any of our State constitutions:

- "1. Any law respecting an establishment of religion. * * *
- "2. Compulsory support by taxation, or otherwise, of religious instruction.
- "3. Compulsory attendance upon religious worship.
- "4. Restraints upon the free exercise of religion according to the dictates of conscience.
- "5. Restraints upon the expression of religious belief."

He embodies in his address a letter which he had written at the request of Richard Cobden in 1853, and which had been published by order of the British House of Commons. It is a token of the reciprocal action of English thought, as represented in the home country and in other English-speaking nations.

Dr. Thompson severely condemned the attempt "to secure the aid of the State directly to the support of a particular sect," and to divide the school fund among sects.

¹ An address to the impartial public on the intolerant spirit of the times, p. 34.

² A law allowing separate schools was passed in 1863.—J. H. B.

“We have no right to force any to receive their religious teaching from the State, nor does the State become atheistic by refusing to teach religion. Religion must be taught in the family. It will be taught in the Church. It will be taught in the Sunday school. Christians for whom I speak are content with these modes of teaching religion. Shall they who are not content with such modes, or do not feel that these will satisfy them, compel us to pay for teaching their religion in some other way? That is the question! Let the Roman Catholic Church teach her tenets in these and other lawful ways, but not tax you to pay for it.”

In January, 1887, an article in the *New Princeton Review*, “Religion in the public schools,” by A. A. Hodge, D. D., insisted on religious instruction, advocating an agreement between Catholics and Protestants “with respect to a common basis of what is received as general Christianity * * * especially in the literature and teaching of our public schools. The difficulties lie in the mutual ignorance and prejudice of both parties, and fully as much on the side of Protestants as of the Catholics. Then let the system of public schools be confined to the branches of simply common-school education. Let these common schools be kept under the local control of the inhabitants of each district, so that the religious character of each school may conform in all variable accidents to the character of the majority of the inhabitants of each district. Let all centralizing tendencies be watchfully guarded against.”

RECENT DISCUSSIONS.

National Educational Association.—There have been recent notable debates upon the subject of moral and religious teaching in the public schools. At the meeting of the National Educational Association, July, 1889, Cardinal Gibbons and Bishop Keane presented the Catholic view, Edwin D. Mead and John Jay, other views.

Cardinal Gibbons said: “It is not sufficient, therefore, to know how to read and write, to understand the rudiments of grammar and arithmetic. * * * We want our children to receive an education that will make them not only learned, but pious men. * * * We wish them to be not only men of the world, but, above all, men of God. * * * The religious and secular education of our children can not be divorced from each other without inflicting a fatal wound upon the soul. * * * The only efficient way to preserve the blessings of civil freedom within legitimate bounds is to inculcate on the mind of youth whilst at school the virtues of truth, justice, honesty, temperance, self-denial, and those other fundamental duties comprised in the Christian code of morals.

“The catechetical instructions given once a week in our Sunday schools, though productive of very beneficial results, are insufficient to supply the religious wants of our children. They should as far as possible breathe every day a healthy religious atmosphere in those schools in which not only is their mind enlightened, but the seeds of faith, piety, and sound morality are nourished and invigorated. This would be effected if the denominational system, such as obtains in Canada, were applied in our public schools.

“The combination of religious and secular education is easily accomplished in denominational schools. To what extent religion may be taught in the public schools without infringing the rights and wounding the conscience of some of the pupils is a grave problem, beset with difficulties and very hard to be solved, inasmuch as those schools are usually attended by children belonging to the various Christian denominations, by Jews also, and even by those who profess no religion whatever.”

Bishop Keane said: “A distinguished orator of our day has truly declared that the civilization and prosperity of our country depend on its Christianity, and that its Christianity depends on education. But, alas, how illogically he concluded from these premises that therefore the welfare of our country was to be safeguarded by a system of education in which it is not permissible to teach Christianity. * * * Look now at the people of our country and we see them divided into two classes.

On the one side the Catholic church emphatically declares for Christian education, and with us side all those non-Catholics, whatever may be their denomination, who believe in Christian schools, and in them are giving their children an education, leavened and animated by Christianity as they understand it. Can anyone in his senses hesitate which of these two sides is for the real welfare of our country?"

Mr. Edwin D. Mead said: "Whenever, therefore, the parochial school or any school accompanies its demand for place in America by a petition for public money or remission of taxes, by any claim that is opposed to the integrity of the public school system, we may say very plainly that it has not proper place in America. * * *

"The Roman Catholic school, parochial or other, does properly have the same place in America (and this right must be firmly secured it) which the Episcopal school has, the Unitarian school, the Lutheran school, or any private school whatever—the right to open its doors, to make itself as attractive as it can, and to invite anybody it will. Like every other private school it must satisfy the standards of the State, but it has the same right as every other to resent all officious meddling. * * *

"I have confined myself to the Catholic parochial school because no other raises any serious problem in our society. * * *

"The public schools are the great moralizing institution in America to-day. This is shown by the simplest analysis of the discipline and essential methods of the schools—the training which they give in habits of punctuality, order, obedience, industry, courtesy, and respect for simple merit."

Mr. Jay deals with two points: (1) The exclusion of the Bible from the public schools; (2) the claim for public money for denominational schools. He speaks as if the Bible were generally used in the public schools, and quotes Judge Bennett, of Wisconsin, in the case of *Weiss v. School Board of Edgerton*, approvingly:¹ "But the Bible remains, and it would seem like turning a good, true, and ever faithful friend and counselor out of doors to exclude it from the public schools of the State. And I have been unable to find any authority in the decisions of the courts for so doing."

Mr. Jay sees the present public schools as Christian schools:

"The Puritans of New England appreciated the necessity of public schools, and that feeling was shared by the Huguenots and the Hollanders, by the Walloons from Flanders, the Vaudois and Waldensers from the Italian Alps, Protestants from Germany and Scandinavia, by the followers of Huss from Bohemia and Zwinglius from Switzerland, by the United Brethren, the Moravian Brothers, the Salzburg exiles, with Christian reformers of every race and tongue who had contended at home, even to the death, for the open Bible as the true standard of Christianity, and the only sure foundation of civil and religious freedom. Touching the instruction given in our American schools during the colonial period, the teaching of Christian ethics was from the first an essential feature. * * *

"The movement for religious liberty by separating church and state began, nearly simultaneously, in New York, Virginia, and Pennsylvania soon after the Declaration of Independence; but in separating church and state they were careful not to separate Christianity from the common law. * * *

"The public school, if faithfully maintained, as established by our fathers, teaches not only the elements of education, but teaches personal responsibility, freedom of conscience and of thought, loyalty to American principles and constitutions, love of country, and duty to our fellow-men. * * *

"The aim of the parochial school is to form a subject of the Pope and not an independent citizen of the American Republic, and the character of the education is admirably fitted for this purpose. * * *

"As an American author who has studied the question well remarks: 'Roman

¹The Supreme Court of Wisconsin in the appeal from the circuit court, where Judge Bennett presided, reversed his decision and granted a mandamus to exclude the Bible. This is more fully noticed elsewhere, p. 1647. — J. H. B.

Catholicism and modern civilization stand apart as the representatives of two distinct epochs in the world's history; not only are they unlike, they are absolutely antagonistic and irreconcilable; * * * what is life to one is death to the other.' * * *

"To allow each denomination to teach its own peculiar doctrines, and to receive its share of the public money * * * is converted into an act of inequality and unfairness to all other Christian denominations * * * by the fact that the Roman Pontiff claims as belonging to the Church of Rome, and subject to its teaching and discipline, all persons whomsoever who have been baptized no matter by whom the ceremony was performed. * * *

"Then comes the serious objection that the eminent cardinals and prelates of the Roman Catholic Church, who make this proposition to tax the people for the support of the parochial schools, * * * do not represent the great body of Roman Catholic laymen in this country."

Symposium in Public Opinion.—In a symposium, Public Opinion, July 13, 1889, Cardinal Gibbons furnishes his address delivered before the National Educational Association, already cited. Thomas Hill, D. D., LL. D., ex-president of Harvard University, insists that "religious instruction is, as the State of Massachusetts declares it to be, the first and most important end to be aimed at by all teachers of youth, whether in public or private schools. * * * Some men seem to have been dazed by claims of the Catholic Church upon the one side and of agnosticism on the other. * * * It is not required by justice to yield to these claims."

Minot J. Savage, D. D., says: "The public may be divided into two classes. First, there are those who sincerely believe that the eternal welfare of their children's souls depends on the teaching and acceptance of their particular kind of religion. Secondly, there are those who do not believe this. Now, in the case of those who do believe that the salvation of their children is at stake, there can not possibly be a more odious tyranny than that of compelling them to submit to a teaching that to their minds entails such unspeakably horrible consequences. 'Taxation without representation' is a trivial grievance compared with it. So far as this goes, therefore, my sympathies are entirely with the Romanist as against the teaching of any form of Protestantism in the schools. * * * If a Calvinistic father wants to teach his boy Calvinism, nobody questions his right to do it. But most certainly he has no right to take money out of my pocket (by a tax or in any other way) to do it with. And the same holds true of the Romanist, or the Jew, or the agnostic."

William T. Harris, LL. D., says: "It seems to me that religious instruction in the public schools is inexpedient on the ground that these schools are for all citizens, whatever their religious belief, or no belief, just as the public market, the public library, the municipal government, and the States are for all alike, whatever their creeds. The question is not in regard to boarding schools or asylums or reformatories. In those institutions the school takes up the functions of the family and should provide religious instruction, in my opinion. But in the case of the public school, which receives a child for only a few hours daily, the family and the church are left sufficient time for religion."

Illinois State Teachers' Association.—In December, 1890, a joint discussion occurred between Right Rev. J. L. Spalding (Catholic), bishop of Peoria, and George P. Brown, editor of the Public School Journal, before the Illinois State Teachers' Association. Bishop Spalding's address is not at hand, but his views can be seen in his books, especially in Means and Ends of Education, containing a chapter on the Scope of Public School Education, where he says:

"All true belief, when we come to the last analysis, is belief in God, and the teacher of religion must keep this fact always in view. * * * Public school education, to be education at all in any true sense, must be a training, discipline, development, and instruction of man's whole being, physical, intellectual, and moral.

"All these thinkers [Herbert Spencer, Montayne, Comenius, Milton, Locke, Herbart, Kant, Fichte] agree that the supreme end of education is spiritual or ethical. * * *

"The scope of public school education is to cooperate with the physical, social, and religious environment to form good and wise men and women. Unless we bear in mind that the school is but one of several educational agencies, we shall not form a right estimate of its office. It depends almost wholly for its success upon the kind of material furnished it by the home, the state, and the church; * * * hence the teacher's attitude toward the child should be that of sympathy with him in his love for his parents, his country, and his religion. * * * The fountain heads of his purest and noblest feelings are precisely his parents, his country, and his religion, and to tamper with them is to poison the wells whence he draws the water of life. * * *

"What the teacher is, not what he utters and inculcates, is the important thing. The life he lives, and whatever reveals that life to his pupils, his unconscious behavior, even, above all what in his inmost soul he hopes, believes, and loves, have far deeper and more potent influence than mere lessons can ever have. * * *

"The purpose of the public school is, or should be, not to form a mechanic or a specialist of any kind, but to form a true man or woman. Hence the number of things we teach the child is of small moment. Those schools, in fact, in which the greatest number of things are taught give, as a rule, the least education. * * *

"I am willing to assume and accept as a fact that our theological differences make it impossible to introduce the teaching of any religious creed into the public school. * * *

"The fact that religious instruction is excluded makes it all the more necessary that harmonizing and ethical aims should be kept constantly in view. * * *

"The Catholic view of the school question is as clearly defined as it is well known. It rests upon the general ground that man is created for a supernatural end and that the church is the divinely-appointed agency to help him attain his supreme destiny. If education is a training for completeness of life, its primary element is the religious, for complete life is life in God. * * *

"The atmosphere of religion is the natural medium for the development of character. * * * If the thinkers, from Plato and Aristotle to Kant and Pestalozzi, who have dealt with the problems of education, have held that virtue is its chief aim and end, shall we thrust from the school the one ideal character who, for nearly nineteen hundred years, has been the chief inspiration to righteousness and heroism? * * * Current American opinion assigns to them [the family and the church] the business of moral and religious education. But this implies that conduct and character are of secondary importance; it supposes that the child may be subject to opposite influences at home and in the school, and not thereby have his finer sense of truth and goodness deadened. * * *

"If the chief end of education is virtue; if conduct is three-fourths of life; if character is indispensable, while knowledge is only useful, then it follows that religion, which more than any other vital influence has power to create virtue, to inspire conduct, and to mold character, should enter into all the processes of education. We have done what it was easiest to do, not what it was best to do; and in this, as in other instances, churchmen have been willing to sacrifice the interest of the nation to the whims of a narrow and jealous temper. The denominational system of popular education is the right system. The secular system is a wrong system. The practical difficulties to be overcome that religious instruction may be given in the schools are relatively unimportant, and would be set aside if the people were thoroughly persuaded of its necessity."

The following is Mr. Brown's summary of his position:

"The doctrine of this paper is:

"(1) That the separation of the church from the state in the fundamental law of the land forbids the teaching of any theory and practice of religion in the State schools by order of the State.

"(2) That the teaching of religion in State schools will tend to work an injustice to individuals, for the reason that the church is divided into numerous churches because of differences among the people in respect to the theory of religion.

"(3) That it is better for both science and religion that they be taught by different teachers and in different places. The church furnishes the best environment for the teaching of religion. The theory of religion can not be understood by children, and the atmosphere of scientific teaching is unfavorable to the successful teaching of religious dogma.

"(4) The school is made no more godless by this exclusion of religious instruction than are nature and the secular institutions of man. And these are held to be not godless but god-full by any rational interpretation of Christianity.

"(5) The ultimate solution of this and all other school problems will be found in a more permanent, more devoted, more scholarly, and freer body of teachers, and in a more Catholic clergy, who shall join hands in working for both the temporal and the eternal welfare of the children, and shall see that nothing can be helpful to the one that is harmful to the other."

Minnesota.—In the closing months of 1889 a dispassionate correspondence occurred between Hon. D. L. Kiehle, LL. D., then superintendent of public instruction for the State of Minnesota, and Right Rev. James McGolrick (Catholic), bishop of Duluth. There were two letters by each, forming a pamphlet—The Public Schools and the Catholic Clergy.

The essential points of the correspondence were the following:

Hon. D. L. Kiehle wrote November 27:

"MY DEAR SIR: I feel bound to avail myself of your late patriotic utterance and expression of good will toward the public schools of Minnesota, and to ask that you express yourself with definiteness respecting the attitude of the priests of the Catholic Church toward the common schools of the State. * * * In discharging the duties of my office, devising ways and means for the improvement of common school education among the people, I have met obstacles of ignorance and prejudice in extended neighborhoods of our foreign population, which to this time show few or no signs of yielding. In these neighborhoods prevails not only a foreign language, but often an illiteracy, habits of intemperance, and lack of culture that disgrace our civilization. In our efforts to penetrate this obscurity, and to encourage good schools, we have frequently been opposed by the authority of priests, who, by reason of the circumstance that these people were in some cases Catholics, have seriously retarded their progress toward intelligence, and what else belongs to American citizenship. It is, therefore, with a view to a better information, and to secure all reasonable cooperation from yourself and those over whom you have authority, that I respectfully ask the following:

"First. Do you recognize it as the duty of American citizens of the Catholic faith to support the public school system in that spirit of loyalty with which they support other departments and institutions of the Government?

"Second. Have American citizens of the Catholic faith the right to exercise their independent judgment, and to send their children to the public school, when they are satisfied that it is in the best interest of their children?

"Third. Is it the position of the priests of the Catholic Church that American citizens of the Catholic faith sending their children to the public school without permission of the priests commit sin and forfeit their right to the sacraments of the church?"

Bishop McGolrick wrote November 30:

"MY DEAR SIR: * * * I am well aware that in dealing with our foreign-born population you have met with many disagreeable and foolish objections; but it is well to remember that they often come from countries where, both openly and under disguise, education was made the means of proselytism and an engine for the destruction of the faith. A great and powerful state church built up an edifice into

which they hoped to drive an unwilling people, and actually used the whole force of the state by fines, imprisonment, banishment, and even death, in the effort to turn poor, uneducated Catholics into enlightened Protestants. These faithful people were made to support a religion in which they did not believe, and every power in schools and colleges was directed to the undermining of their faith. * * *

"If you ask me, 'Ought Catholics to support a system of common free schools?' I would say without hesitation they ought to support and should be in favor of such free schools; but when you ask, 'Ought they support the present public school system?' I answer that there are certain obstacles in the way of conscientious Catholics availing themselves of these schools as at present constituted, and I trust you will give them kindly consideration.

"It is the duty of the state to foster and encourage education; but the parent is by divine right the natural educator. To the family belongs this highest mission, and the parent must not be ousted from this right, but assisted in his efforts to educate, that Government being best which interferes least. * * * Of course, the state could take due action in case of the criminal neglect of parents in the education of their children; it is the right and duty of the state to see that such education is given, but to form the good citizen this is the work of parent, religion, and school. * * *

"Then, the public school system under its present rules can not teach Christianity, for the Jewish children would be offended, and could justly protest. Neither can it teach morality, for morality must be founded on religion, and the state can not teach religion. There are those interested in the workings of the schools who propose a hybrid system of morals. * * * Such slipshod methods will not teach the child the controlling of strong passions. * * *

"To this [second] I answer, certainly; they can do so when they are satisfied it is for the best interest of their children. But 'interest' is a doubtful term. There are worldly interests and 'interests' of an eternal importance. With the explanation given above, as faithful children of the Catholic Church, they would not sacrifice the eternal interests of their children for any worldly interest, and so would not endanger willingly the faith of those so dear to them. * * *

"Answer [third]. 'The lips of the priest shall keep knowledge and they shall seek the law at his mouth.' The priest is the guardian of the sacraments, and if there be for his flock any proximate danger of sin they are bound to warn them and prevent, if possible, the danger. But it must be remembered that the priest is a member of a living church and that he can not, according to his whims and fancies, make laws; his business is to act according to the laws made by the church, and interpret and condemn as she interprets and condemns.

"From all this you can readily understand that while we rejoice at the spread of education, Catholics maintain that an additional element is wanting to complete the great work of forming good and true citizens, and this must somehow be supplied. In Canada, perhaps soon to be an integral portion of our great Republic, the difficulty is admirably solved.

"Notwithstanding the bitter opposition to the position of the Catholics, I have entire trust that this will pass away, and so fair-minded a people as the Americans in our liberty-loving Republic will find some way by which all can share in the common benefits of a thorough education under the fostering care of the state."

The establishment of parochial schools by Catholics engrossed attention so fully that it sometimes seemed as if they alone had an interest in controlling the religious training of their children. The occasional expression of Presbyterian authorities of the desirability of such schools passed unheeded, the rare establishment of parochial schools by a Protestant Episcopal Church was hardly recognized, and the people of the country at large scarcely knew that other bodies of Christian people not less in earnest than the Catholics were maintaining schools for the especial purpose of impressing their religious faith upon their children.

THE SO-CALLED BENNETT LAW.

The most striking incidents connected with recent popular attention to parochial schools occurred in Wisconsin. They were closely parallel in Illinois, and there was an eagerly expectant attitude in adjacent States.

The Catholics had strong parochial schools, and whatever the framers of new legislation might have intended, the popular support which their effort received was largely the continuation of the current feeling against a possible Catholic domination. To many people it came in the nature of a surprise that the law which they had indorsed bore heavily upon large bodies of most earnest Protestants.

It occurred in 1889 that a suit was instituted against a school board (City of Edgerton, No. 8) of Wisconsin to cause the discontinuance of Bible reading in its schools. The lower court refused the mandamus asked for, and the case at this stage was cited in national discussions¹ as establishing the use of the Bible in the public schools of the country. When the case reached the supreme court the decision of the lower court was reversed, and the reading of the Bible was decided to be unlawful on the ground that it was a sectarian book. The Catholics, part of them using the German language, and the Lutherans and Evangelicals, partly German in tongue, partly Norwegian and Swedish in speech, were busily teaching their religious convictions in schools of their own. At the time of the decision that King James's version of the Bible was a sectarian book, a zealous campaign was in progress to bring all children under English instruction in the common schools. A law was enacted known as the Bennett law, the essential provisions of which were as follows:

"The people of the State of Wisconsin, represented in senate and assembly, do enact as follows:

"SECTION 1. Every parent or other person having under his control a child between the ages of seven and fourteen years shall annually cause such child to attend some public or private day school in the city, town, or district in which he resides, for a period not less than twelve weeks in each year, which number of weeks shall be fixed prior to the first day of September in each year by the board of education or board of directors of the city, town, or district, and for a portion or portions thereof, to be so fixed by such boards, the attendance shall be consecutive, and such boards shall, at least ten days prior to the beginning of such period, publish the time or times of attendance in such manner as such boards shall direct; provided, that such boards shall not fix such compulsory period at more than twenty-four weeks in each year.

"SEC. 2. For every neglect of such duty the person having such control and so offending shall forfeit to the use of the public schools of such city, town, or district a sum not less three dollars nor more than twenty dollars, and failure for each week or portion of a week on the part of any such person to comply with the provisions of this act shall constitute a distinct offense; provided, that any such child shall be excused from attendance at school required by this act, by the board of education or school directors of the city, town, or district in which such child resides, upon its being shown to their satisfaction that the person so neglecting is not able to send such child to school, or that instruction has otherwise been given for a like period of time to such child in the elementary branches commonly taught in the public schools, or that such child has already acquired such elementary branches of learning, or that his physical or mental condition is such as to render attendance inexpedient or impracticable, and in all cases where such child shall be so excused the penalty herein provided shall not be incurred.

"SEC. 3. Any person having control of a child, who, with intent to evade the provisions of this act, shall make a wilful false statement concerning the age of such child or the time such child has attended school, shall for such offense forfeit a sum of not less than three dollars nor more than twenty dollars for the use of the public schools of such city, town, or district."

¹ For instance, John Jay before National Educational Association, elsewhere herein cited.

SEC. 4 provides that five days prior to prosecution under the act the board shall cause written notices to be served; and if on hearing of the prosecution the court is satisfied that the party has caused the child to attend as provided, in good faith and with intent to continue, the penalty shall not be incurred.

"SEC. 5. No school shall be regarded as a school under this act unless there shall be taught therein, as part of the elementary education of children, reading, writing, arithmetic, and United States history in the English language."

SEC. 6. Prosecution by the authority of and in the name of the school board, and all fines and penalties for the benefit of school moneys.

"SEC. 7. Jurisdiction to enforce the penalties herein described in this act is hereby conferred on justices of the peace and police magistrates within their respective counties."

SEC. 8 pertains to truancy.

SECS. 9-13 relate to employment of children under thirteen years of age, prohibiting it except under a permit from judge of county court.

"SEC. 14. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and publication.

"Approved April 18, 1889."

A law in Illinois of a similar character was nearly coincident with the above law. It will be convenient to treat the laws as essentially the same, without separate detail of minor circumstances, in the two States, but it will be well to point out the differences that existed in the laws themselves.

Section 1 of the Illinois law required attendance for at least sixteen weeks, eight of which were to be consecutive, at some public day school in the city, town, or district where the child resides, the time to begin with the opening of the first term of the school year or as soon as notice is served. Fine \$1 to \$20 and stand committed till costs are paid. The words of section 5, Wisconsin, are included in section 1, Illinois.

Sections 2, 3, Illinois, pertain to truancy.

Section 4, Illinois, resembles section 6, Wisconsin, but requires prosecution to be in the name of the State.

Section 5, Illinois, corresponds to section 7, Wisconsin, but adds "judges of the county court."

The Illinois law had no provisions regarding employment of young children; a subject treated in another law. It was approved May 24, 1889.

The opposition that at once made itself manifest was centered upon the Bennett law as it was called, of which the Illinois law was treated as a duplication. It was plain that there was an intention to secure similar legislation in adjacent States. The Lutherans were thoroughly roused. Various synods took action, and a mass of literature from a Protestant source was added to that which had been accumulating for over half a century almost wholly in discussion of the Roman Catholic view.

In June, 1889, the Lutheran Synod of Wisconsin adopted this declaration:

"We are not enemies of the public schools; we consider them and declare them to be a necessary institution. We are ever willing to pay our taxes for the support of the public schools. We are opposed to any and every grant of public school funds to private schools. But we insist upon enjoying the privilege of founding private schools with our own means, of regulating them and governing them, without external interference, according to our conviction and according to sound principles of pedagogy, for the sake of making our children loyal and good citizens. We therefore protest against the assertion which has been made by so many, and even by officers of the State, that our Lutheran Church is hostile to the public schools, and that our parochial schools are a standing menace to the public schools."

In a pamphlet entitled *The Bennett Law and the German Protestant Parochial Schools of Wisconsin*, Christ. Koerner cites cases of arbitrary ruling in Illinois where the power of approving a school was abused. In one case directors of three

districts are said to have approved a German Lutheran school which the directors of a fourth district refused to approve, and the father of a child attending from this last district was therefore fined.

As the law has ceased to have any interest except as a matter of history, with its lessons for the future, some of the objections that died with it may be passed over. There are some points that will have value till some kind of settlement is reached and accepted as to religious instruction or the use of the Bible in public schools.

Mr. Koerner quotes this provision of the constitution of Wisconsin: "The right of every man to worship Almighty God according to the dictates of his own conscience shall never be infringed, * * * nor shall any control of or interference with the rights of conscience be permitted, or any preference be given by law to any religious establishments or modes of worship."

He goes on to say: "With this constitutional provision the Bennett law, if enforced, will come into conflict. * * * Our children we hold, should, if possible, constantly be surrounded by a religious, a Christian atmosphere. Now in our public schools knowledge of God and Christ and love and fear of God are not taught, and can not be taught, for they are established for all children whose parents wish to make use of them. * * * In order, therefore, to give their children Christian instruction and training, very many German congregations in this State have established parochial day schools, which, as a rule, are well attended; we support these schools at a great expense because our conscience demands that we bring up our children in such manner, in a Christian school."

German Protestants of the city of Milwaukee, after affirming their loyalty to the public schools—

Resolved, That as the Bennett law is in direct opposition to the personal liberty of conscience guaranteed us in the constitutions of the United States and of this State, we will oppose the same with all lawful means in our power and endeavor to have the same repealed.

"And as execution of this law, so far as we are concerned, is intrusted to our city officials, be it

Further resolved, That we will use our influence at the coming city election and will vote for such candidates only as are opposed to the Bennett law."

The following platform was adopted by the anti-Bennett law State convention, held at Milwaukee June 4, 1890:

"I. We, citizens of Wisconsin, in convention assembled, in order to protest against the so-called Bennett law, in the first place consider it necessary to defend ourselves against false representations calculated to prejudice our cause, and do therefore declare:

"1. We are not enemies of the English language; on the contrary, we endeavor to furnish our children the very best instruction therein.

"2. We consider public schools necessary, but maintain that parents have the right to establish and select for themselves schools for their children.

"3. We claim no part of the public school fund for the use of parochial or other private schools.

"4. We are not opposed to a law prohibiting the employment of children in factories, nor to an enactment providing for reasonable compulsory attendance at school, nor do we object to an interference by the State with schools conducted contrary to the public order and morality.

"II. But we protest against the so-called Bennett law, because it unnecessarily and unjustly curtails our civil and religious liberty; for it—

"1. Offers the school boards an opportunity of determining arbitrarily that a child, during the period of enforced attendance, must attend a school in the city, town, or district to which it resides, thus depriving parents of the right to send their children to a better or more suitable school outside the district.

"2. It compels parochial and other private schools to observe the time or times

of attendance fixed by school boards, without regard to the rights and customs of churches or their schools.

"3. It prescribes certain studies as also the medium of instruction therein; furthermore, its wording is such as to afford school boards ample opportunity to usurp powers not given them, although the State and its officers have no right to interfere with the management of parochial and other private schools.

"III. We therefore declare that, regardless of former party affiliations, we shall vote for such candidates only as pledge themselves to work for the repeal of the Bennett law.

"IV. As patriotic citizens, maintaining human rights, both civil and religious, advocating sound principles of education, and with no enmity toward the English language, opposed, however, to all measures tending to oppress the immigrated citizens or to suppress their native tongue, we call upon all those who cherish liberty, regardless of party and nationality, to join us in the effort to have this unnecessary, unjust, and discord-breeding measure repealed."

A committee of the Illinois district of the Missouri Synod put forth a pamphlet of objections, among which were:

"The law is an infringement of the liberty of conscience guaranteed by the constitution of Illinois.

"The law interferes with the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship.

"The law denies to the defendant in suits under the law the right of a fair trial and defense against injustice and malice.

"The law establishes a dangerous precedent for future encroachments upon religious parental educational privileges.

"The law is responsible for a dangerous element introduced into politics; members of Christian churches are compelled to enter the arena of politics in the defense of their religious rights.

"The law * * * manifests an inimical spirit toward private and parochial schools."

The pamphlet incorporates an extract of a discourse delivered in Ohio in 1889 defining the Lutheran position upon parochial schools:

"Why is it that we Lutherans go to the trouble of erecting and maintaining parochial schools? * * *

"Let me say right here that we Lutherans are not bent upon opposing our public schools. We are aware that for many reasons our civil authorities are obliged to erect and maintain schools, and we are glad to see them take an interest in the education of our country's children so as to make them intelligent citizens. We know that a large number of our country's children would be left without any instruction whatever by their parents if our State authorities did not look to their education. For this reason we cheerfully and willingly pay our taxes for public institutions of learning. It is our desire that not a cent of these taxes be expended for sectarian purposes, but that every cent be used in the interest of the public and community at large. We seek to discourage all attempts that are being made to appropriate money from the public school fund for private and denominational schools. * * *

"Our parochial schools are institutions of learning, where the attending pupils receive an education in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, and grammar, but in connection with these secular branches of knowledge they are daily instructed in the histories and doctrines of the Bible, so that on their dismissal from school they are thoroughly acquainted with the law and commandments of their God and the way unto salvation. And if I were asked to give a brief reply to the question why we Lutherans erect and maintain such schools, I should answer, Because we know it to be our sacred duty to give our children a thorough Christian education, and we are convinced that under present circumstances this duty may best be performed by means of congregational schools. * * *

“ You will allow me to say a few words in regard to the prevailing Sunday-school system. * * * Common sense and experience tell that the Christian education which children derive by means of our Sunday schools must needs be very superficial. * * * We can not be satisfied with having our children instructed an hour a week in matters that pertain to the eternal salvation of their immortal souls. We are convinced, and this conviction of ours is based on experience, that if our children are to receive a thorough knowledge and lasting impression of the Bible, its divine truths and commandments, they are in need of daily religious instruction. The law of God will have to be called to their minds, explained to them, and brought home to their hearts by competent teachers day after day. And that is what we are aiming at in our parochial schools. In all discipline exercised in our schools we strive to make the word of God the governing element. And even the secular sciences taught in our schools are pervaded by a Christian spirit. That is what we, under present circumstances, deem the best if not the only correct method of bringing up our children in the nurture and admonition of the Lord; and that is the reason why we Lutherans make it a practice to establish, build, and maintain parochial schools.”

The (Lutheran) Synod of Missouri, Ohio, and other States, in June, 1889, adopted the following statement:

“1. By the law of nature, as well as by Divine command, parents are entitled and in duty bound to provide for the education of their children.

“2. It is therefore the right and duty of all parents to select such schools for the education of their children as they are convinced will best promote the welfare of their children.

“3. In case parents neglect their duty the State is justified in compelling them, by appropriate legislation, to the discharge of their duty.

“4. If, however, the State assumes the right to educate, unless for such cause, it is an infringement of the natural right of parents.

“5. The conduct of the State in such case is, furthermore, unconstitutional, as the constitutions both of the United States and the State of Wisconsin proclaim liberty of conscience and religion, which liberty is set aside, not only by forcing upon anyone that which opposes his religion or is in conflict with his conscience, but also when a person is hampered in any manner in ‘the free exercise of religion’ and ‘rights of conscience,’ provided he does not act in open violation of law and morality.

“6. In view of the foregoing declarations we are compelled to combat with all lawful means in the courts such encroachments, and at the polls to withhold our vote from every candidate and party not publicly pledging themselves to do all in their power to bring about a repeal of the obnoxious sections of said [Bennett] law.

“7. To avoid all misunderstanding, we declare that we consider our public-school system a political necessity, and that we are willing to support it in the future as we have in the past. We are also convinced that by opposing said school laws we do not only contend for our inherent rights, but also best promote the true welfare of our free country. We finally declare most emphatically that it has always been and ever shall be our aim to provide in our parochial schools for the best instruction in the English language.”

The outcome was that the Lutherans as well as the Catholics defended their position so earnestly that the party in power in each State was displaced and the obnoxious laws were quickly repealed.

The intense feeling prevalent during the existence of the Bennett law has in large measure passed away, but the secularization of public institutions has gone on at a rapid rate, so that many institutions, including State universities, that lately had devotional exercises, no longer have them as part of their programmes.

INCIDENTAL INFLUENCES.

Rulison v. Post.—In this contest of the middle northwest incidental occurrences have had a great weight. For example, a decision is quoted in the anti-Bennett law pamphlet to establish the freedom of parents and guardians to determine the extent to which they will render the provisions of a common-school education available to the children of their charge. The same case has been cited to show that parents may properly object to participation in devotional exercises in school. The case did not directly involve the Bible or religion. It is in 79 Illinois and is known as *Rulison v. Post*. A school board laid out a compulsory course of study. A young lady under directions from home declined to study bookkeeping, and was therefore expelled by the principal under instructions of the school board. Thereupon suit for damages was brought against the teacher in the name of the young lady. The decision in the lower court was in her favor, and on appeal to the supreme court damages were allowed under such instructions that any other subject—the Bible, for example—might be inserted for bookkeeping in the assertion of the parental right to select or reject studies from those provided.

The Illinois flag law.—A law known as the “flag law” became operative in Illinois without the governor's signature, June 26, 1895. This law prescribed that a national flag not less than 4 feet by 8 feet should be kept floating from 9 a. m. to 4 p. m. every day when the institution was in session over every building used for educational purposes in the State, public, sectarian, or private, under penalty of misdemeanor, finable from \$3 to \$10 and costs for every day of neglect. Some friends of parochial schools interpreted it as a new effort to worry them. By a singular course of circumstances the suit under which the law has just been declared unconstitutional was against the State University, which had a flag on its principal building, but did not have a flag on every building.

The stress of this law may be clearer by contrast with the Massachusetts flag law of March 27, 1895, which requires school committees “to provide for each schoolhouse in which public schools are maintained * * * a United States flag of silk or bunting not less than 4 feet in length * * * displayed on the schoolhouse grounds or schoolhouse buildings every school day, when the weather will permit, and on the inside of the schoolhouse on other school days.” The Massachusetts law deals only with public schools, the minimum size of flag is but half as large as under the Illinois law, and the Massachusetts law allows some discretion as to hours and weather.

NATIONAL LEGISLATION.

The movement for the insertion of an explicit recognition of the Deity in the Constitution of the United States has been latterly obscured by efforts to remove all religious expression from official action. In 1876, Samuel T. Spear, D. D. (Presbyterian), gathered a series of his contributions to the (New York) Independent into a volume—*Religion and the State, or the Bible and the Public Schools*. In this volume he advocates the exclusion of the Bible from the common schools, and cites approvingly the amendment to the Constitution proposed by Hon. James G. Blaine in the House of Representatives that “No State shall make any law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; and no money raised by taxation in any State for the support of public schools, or derived from any public fund therefor, shall ever be under the control of any religious sect. Nor shall any money so raised ever be divided between religious sects or denominations.”

President Grant in his message of December 7, 1875, had urged an amendment of similar tenor, as still earlier (1875) in a speech at Des Moines, Iowa, he said: “Keep the church and the state forever separate.”

There are some who, like Horace Mann, consider church and state separated in the schools when the English Bible was read without note or comment. There are some who, like Samuel T. Spear, consider “the Protestant public school, in which King

James's version of the sacred Scriptures and religious exercises, Protestant in their type and tendency, are incorporated into its educational system 'unjust toward the Catholic, the Jew, the infidel, and indeed all who dissent from Protestantism.'"

Mr. Spear said: "The same method of reasoning is equally applicable to a Catholic public school, a Jewish public school, or any public school which is made the organ of religious instruction or worship in any form."

Horace Mann, as already stated, protested against being cited as opposed to the Bible in school, but both he and Dr. Spear, as well as Mr. Blaine and President Grant, are cited by those who would go to the length of abolishing all religious tests, oaths, Sunday laws, chaplaincies, and proclamations.

Mr. Blaine's proposition passed the House of Representatives August 14, 1876, by a vote of 180 to 7. In the Senate a clause was added stating that "This article shall not be construed to prohibit the reading of the Bible in any school or institution." On the article thus amended the vote was 28 to 16, showing that the majority of the Senate did not consider the Bible sectarian. This proposition failed for lack of a two-thirds vote.

In 1889 an effort was made to secure a similar amendment. The first section was almost identical with the first clause of the Blaine amendment, and yet the second section prescribed that "each State * * * shall establish * * * a system of free public schools for the education of all the children * * * in the common branches of knowledge, * * * and the principles of the Christian religion. But no money raised by taxation * * * shall ever be * * * given to the use or purposes of any school * * * whereby instruction * * * shall be given in the doctrines * * * peculiar to any sect, * * * religious in its character, nor shall such peculiar doctrines * * * be taught * * * in the public schools."

This proposed amendment was supported in hearings before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, February 15 and February 22, 1889, by representatives of the National Reform Association, the Evangelical Alliance, and the Boston Committee of One Hundred.

It was opposed in the same hearings by mammoth petitions and by clergymen of the Seventh Day Baptists, one of whom cited the argument of Stanley Matthews, at the time (1889) a member of the Supreme Court of the United States, as attorney in the case of *Minor et al. v. Cincinnati School Board et al.* The Cincinnati school board resolved that the reading of the Bible at the opening of the schools should cease. As cited, Mr. Matthews said: "I do say that the reading of the Holy Bible in the manner repealed by this resolution is the teaching of a dogma in religion, held by only a portion of the religious community, objected to by a large part of the others. * * *

"Protestants have no rights, as such, which do not at the same time and to the same extent belong to Catholics, as such, to Jews and infidels too. * * * It is not a question of majorities against minorities, for if the conscience of the majority is to be the standard, then there is no such thing as right of conscience at all. It is against the predominance and power of majorities that the rights of conscience are protected and have need to be.

"If it be said that the Protestant conscience requires that the Bible be read by and to Protestant children, and that it is a denial of the right of conscience to forbid it, waiving at the present time the obvious and conclusive answer that no such right of conscience can require that the State shall provide out of the common taxes for its gratification, it is enough to say that Catholics then, too, have the same right to have their children taught religion according to their views, not out of the Douay Bible if they do not consider that sufficient, but by catechism and by celebration of the mass, if they choose to insist; that Jews have the same right to have their religion taught in the common schools, not from the English version of the Old Testament, but according to the practice of their synagogues, and infidels have the same right to have their children taught deism, or pantheism, or positivism."

The discussions in Congress and the action upon appropriations for Indian and negro schools maintained wholly or in part by national funds have latterly indicated a determination on the part of some to allow no appropriations which might aid an institution maintaining religious exercises, thus pushing the interpretation of sectarian to the utmost extreme reached in any local decision.

RECENT STATE CONSTITUTIONS.

The State constitutions recently formed or revised, as well as some older ones, have generally clauses forbidding sectarian instruction in public schools and any use of public school funds to aid institutions under sectarian control.

It will be observed that some forbid the use of any public funds for sectarian schools, as South Dakota, Idaho, Utah, New York, South Carolina; some require that any aided educational or charitable institution shall be wholly under the control of the State, as Montana and Wyoming; some shut out religious benevolent institutions from public funds, as South Carolina; some limit the prohibition to public school funds, as North Dakota, Kentucky, and Texas; Mississippi specifies that the limitations shall not be interpreted to exclude the Holy Bible; South Carolina expressly recognizes the Deity in the preamble; some forbid any religious tests or requirements to attend religious exercises, as Montana and Wyoming.

North Dakota.—The constitution of North Dakota, November 2, 1889, Article VIII, section 147, provides: "A high degree of intelligence, patriotism, integrity, and morality on the part of every voter in a government by the people being necessary in order to insure the continuance of that government and the prosperity and happiness of the people, the legislative assembly shall make provision for a system of public schools * * * free from sectarian control." Section 149 says: "In all schools instruction shall be given, as far as practicable, in those branches of knowledge that tend to impress upon the mind the vital importance of truthfulness, temperance, purity, public spirit, and respect for honest labor of every kind." In section 152 occurs the prohibition: "No money raised for the support of the public schools of the State shall be appropriated or used for the support of any sectarian school."

South Dakota.—The constitution of South Dakota, November 2, 1889, provides in Article VIII, section 1: "The stability of a republican government depending on the morality and intelligence of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislature to establish * * * a * * * system of public schools." Section 16 provides that: "No appropriation of lands, money, or other property or credits to aid any sectarian school shall ever be made by the State, or any county or municipality within the State, * * * and no sectarian instruction shall be allowed in any school or institution aided or supported by the State."

Montana.—The constitution of Montana, November 8, 1889, provides in Article V, section 35: "No appropriation shall be made for charitable, industrial, or benevolent purposes to any person, corporation, or community not under the absolute control of the State, nor to any denomination or sectarian institution or association." Article XI, section 8, reiterates the same idea in more definite terms. Section 9 provides that: "No religious or partisan qualifications shall ever be required of any person as a condition of admission into any public educational institution of the State, either as teacher or student, nor shall attendance be required at any religious service whatever, nor shall any sectarian tenets be taught in any public educational institution of the State."

Washington.—The constitution of Washington, November 11, 1889, provides, Article IX, section 4: "All schools maintained or supported wholly or in part by the public funds shall be forever free from sectarian control or influence."

Idaho.—The constitution of Idaho, July 3, 1890, provides, Article IX, for public free schools: "The stability of a republican form of government depending mainly upon the intelligence of the people;" and provides, section 5, that: "Neither the legislature nor any county, city, town, township, school district, or other public

corporation shall ever make any appropriation, or pay from any public fund or money whatever, anything in aid of any church or sectarian or religious society, or for any sectarian or religious purpose, or to help support or sustain any school, academy, seminary, college, university, or other literary or scientific institution controlled by any church or sectarian or religious denomination whatsoever; nor shall any grant or donation of land, money, or other personal property ever be made by the State, or any such public corporation, to any church or for any sectarian or religious purpose."

Wyoming.—The constitution of Wyoming, July 10, 1890, provides, Article I, section 19: "No money of the State shall ever be given or appropriated to any sectarian or religious society or institution." Article III, section 36, says: "No appropriation shall be made for charitable, industrial, educational, or benevolent purposes to any person, corporation, or community not under the absolute control of the State, nor to any denominational or sectarian institution or association." Article VII, section 12, prescribes that: "No sectarian instruction, qualification, or tests shall be imparted, exacted, applied, or in any way tolerated in the schools of any grade or character controlled by the State, nor shall attendance be required at any religious service therein, nor shall any sectarian tenets or doctrines be taught or favored in any public school or institution that may be established under this constitution."

Mississippi.—The constitution of Mississippi, November 1, 1890, provides, Article III, section 18, that: "No religious test as a qualification for office shall be required, and no preference shall be given by law to any religious sect or mode of worship; but the free enjoyment of all religious sentiments and the different modes of worship shall be held sacred. The rights hereby secured shall not be construed * * * to exclude the Holy Bible from use in any public school of this State." Article VIII, section 208, provides that: "No religious or other sect or sects shall ever control any part of the school or other educational funds of this State, nor shall any funds be appropriated toward the support of any sectarian school, or to any school that at the time of receiving such appropriations is not conducted as a free school."

Kentucky.—The constitution of Kentucky, April 11, 1891, provides in section 197: "No portion of any fund or tax now existing, or that may hereafter be raised or levied for educational purposes, shall be appropriated to, or used by, or in aid of, any church, sectarian or denominational school."

Texas.—The constitution of Texas as amended September 22, 1891, Article VII, section 5, provides that: "No law shall ever be enacted appropriating any part of the permanent or available school fund to any other purpose whatever, nor shall the same or any part thereof ever be appropriated to or used for the support of any sectarian schools."

New York.—The constitution of New York, September 28, 1894, Article IX, section 4, provides: "Neither the State nor any subdivision thereof shall use its property or credit, or any public money, or authorize or permit either to be used, directly or indirectly, in aid or maintenance, other than for examination or inspection, of any school or institution of learning, wholly or in part under the control or direction of any religious denomination, or in which any denominational tenet or doctrine is taught."

Utah.—The constitution of Utah, November 5, 1895, provides: "Article X, section 12: Neither religious nor partisan test or qualification shall be required of any person as a condition of admission as teacher or student into any public educational institution of the State. Section 13: Neither the legislature nor the county, city, town, school district, or other public corporation shall make any appropriation to aid in the support of any school, seminary, academy, college, university, or other institution controlled in whole or in part by any church, sect, or denomination whatever."

South Carolina.—The present constitution of the State of South Carolina, ratified December 4, 1895, has the following preamble:

"We, the people of the State of South Carolina in convention assembled, grateful to God for our liberties, do ordain and establish this constitution for the preservation and perpetuation of the same."

Article I, section 4, provides, "The general assembly shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof."

Article XI, section 9, provides, "The property or credit of the State of South Carolina or of any county, city, town, township, school district, or other subdivision of the said State, or any public money, from whatever source derived, shall not by gift, donation, loan, contract, appropriation, or otherwise, be used directly or indirectly, in aid or maintenance of any college, school, hospital, orphan house, or other institution, society, or organization of whatever kind which is wholly or in part under the direction or control of any church or of any religious or sectarian denomination, society, or organization."

TENDENCY TOWARD SECULARIZATION.

Reading the Bible daily without note or comment is required by State law in Massachusetts for the public schools. It is practiced to a greater or less extent throughout New England. The Bible has no standing in the schools of the State of New York except by common consent in each locality. It is used in a multitude of schools like dots over the country, but after leaving New England there is no considerable area where its use can be said to be uniform. This condition has come about as much by indifference as by opposition. The Bible was displaced from the public schools of Cincinnati through a contest that attracted national attention. In that contest many people expressed themselves warmly against its rejection at Cincinnati who had not observed its disuse at the schools attended by their own children.

There has been a change in public sentiment gradually growing toward complete secularization of the Government and its institutions. In the original predominance of Protestant views based on King James's version of the Bible and the inbred idea of a state church, the religious expression was expected in public affairs, but in the growth of population of miscellaneous views it dawns upon men's minds that a majority vote may oppress a respectable minority of which they find themselves a part. Secularization of the schools is accepted or urged by many devout people who deem that safer than to trust others with the interpretation of the laws of conscience.

Early immigrants coming for religious motives established schools with a religious character, and recent devout immigrants, finding no religious instruction in the public schools corresponding to that in their native lands, have been zealous for their own elementary schools to make good what they regard essential. Native and foreign born citizens desiring religious instruction for their children claim to be more and more compelled, in the secularization of public institutions, to build up institutions of their own for conscience' sake.

In 1891 Rev. W. B. Williams thus summed up the legal relations of religious teaching in public schools:¹

"We may then regard these points as settled:

"1. The State has no legal right to erect a chapel for the religious exercises of the students in State institutions.

"2. Regents and school boards have no legal right to appropriate rooms in public school buildings for the use of students' Christian associations.

"3. No State, except South Carolina, can ever employ any teacher to give religious instruction.²

"4. No teacher can be discharged on account of atheistical or skeptical views.

¹ The duty of the State to meet every educational want of its citizens. Rev. W. B. Williams, of Charlotte, Mich., pp. 18-20.

² This exception was made before the last revision of the constitution of South Carolina.—J. H. B.

"5. Hence Jews, Catholics, atheists, and agnostics can be employed as teachers in all our public schools and State institutions.

"6. The supreme court of Ohio decided that school boards are not transcending their authority in prohibiting the reading of the Bible and holding religious exercises in the public schools.

"7. Courts are unanimously of the opinion that children can not be compelled to attend religious exercises contrary to the written request of their parents or guardians.

"8. Courts decide that pupils can be compelled to bring a written request to this effect from parents or guardians as a condition of being excused.

"9. If they do attend they can be compelled to lay aside their books and maintain decorum.

"10. Courts are divided in opinion as to whether school boards can authorize Bible reading and prayer in the schools during school hours. In New York no portion of school hours can be so used if objection is made to it. In Massachusetts, Iowa, Maine, and Illinois their supreme courts hold that school boards may require the school to be opened with religious exercises. The courts in Kent County, Mich., and Mercer County, Pa., refused an injunction to restrain the teachers from reading the Scriptures and having religious exercises in school hours. According to New York decisions, teachers may be allowed to have religious exercises in schoolrooms before and after school hours in the presence of such pupils as may attend in accordance with their own wishes or the wishes of their parents.

"The supreme court of Illinois allows these exercises to be held out of school hours in accordance with the Catholic ritual. The supreme court of Maine justifies the board in excluding a pupil from the schools for refusing to use King James's translation of the Bible as a reading book.

"11. In Wisconsin the supreme court orders the reading of the Bible in the public schools to cease, on the ground that it is a sectarian book.

"12. The laws of Iowa and Illinois prohibit the exclusion of the Bible from the public schools, and the constitution of Mississippi is not to be construed as excluding it."

"The law of New Jersey permits the reading of the Bible and repeating the Lord's Prayer, but at the same time forbids any other religious service, ceremony, or forms whatsoever.

"While the law of Massachusetts requires that some portion of the Bible shall be read daily in every school, it distinctly specifies that it shall be 'without written note or oral comment.' The teacher may not add a word to explain a word or enforce a moral. It is clear that even in those States where the reading of the Bible is permitted and required it is hedged in by so many limitations and restrictions imposed by the laws, decisions of courts, and action of school boards, that we must despair of ever using our public schools as the agents for the diffusion of Christianity and conclude that whatever religious exercises are tolerated in the schools are there in most of the States merely by sufferance and liable at any time to be driven out.

"When we see that the secularization of our public schools is steadily going on and can not be prevented, then we must shape all our educational interests with reference to that."

In 1894 the same writer notes the rapid secularization of the public educational institutions to be accepted as a fitting thing:¹

"The Prussian system as Americanized was adapted to a republican government without a state church, hence no provision was made in it for any religious instruction. * * *

"The normal and high schools, the agricultural colleges and State universities, as well as the common schools, started out with all the religious momentum that had

¹ Christian and Secular Education. Presbyterian Board of Aid for Colleges and Academies.

been accumulated in the Christian colleges and academies by the usages of two hundred years. * * *

"In 1890, an article published in the *Andover Review* indicated that the religious influence of State institutions was hardly second to that of the colleges founded for religious motives.

"By the decisions of courts, the action of school boards, the pressure of circumstances and the indifference of teachers, little by little, year after year, step by step, with never a backward step, Bible reading, prayer, and religious instruction are disappearing from our public schools and State institutions of every grade. Thus our system of State education is being crowded into the place assigned to it by the Constitution and the laws. * * * The State has made ample provision for secular instruction, none for religious."

LOCAL ADJUSTMENT OF THE RELIGIOUS QUESTION.

It can not be too strongly stated: (1) That public schools in the United States are not a national system, but a group of systems so far as the word system is fitly used; (2) that each State has its own peculiarities of social life, constitutional organization, legal enactment, and local administration; (3) that in the ultimate decision of the conduct of a public school the wishes of the people of the local unit of territory which maintains it will determine what shall be allowed or forbidden, especially as a complainant strange to the spot would have small interest and less power to interfere even if something not rigidly legal were introduced into the exercises by common consent. One community will have no dealings with the sects, another will welcome their aid in public education. Especially when a whole district, town, or county is populated by people of kindred opinions their schools will take on such form of religious or social opinion as suits the taxpayers, with no closely drawn line between legal and desirable. So it occurs that even in States where it is of doubtful legality there are districts with sectarian exercises, and there are many others where open contracts are made with religious persons or bodies for their work in education.

Savannah, Ga.—The people of Savannah, Ga., have incorporated the Catholic schools into the city system, satisfactorily to that community, as shown below.

PETITION OF THE CATHOLICS.¹

To the Mayor and City Council of Savannah:

"We, the undersigned Catholics, residing in the city of Savannah, lay before your honorable body an humble and respectful petition, which we trust will not be set aside. Forming a large portion of the population of the city, as appears from the report of interments in Laurel Grove and Cathedral Cemetery, we have organized schools, which are in the highest sense poor schools and free schools, and the scholars are so numerous that the public schools supported by the city could not physically accommodate them. We have done so because we believe it is far the better plan to teach children the elements of literature and science under the influence and shelter of the religion which they profess, as has always been done in time past, and we would consider it an infringement of the true liberty of conscience if we were obliged to subject our children to the influence of a religion which they do not profess, or of no religion at all. We therefore submit to your honorable body to consider whether it is proper to make us pay taxes for schools which we do not patronize, and whether it would not be better, in accordance with equity and genuine liberality, to divide the fund allotted for free schools, in the proportion of the free scholars found in each school."

(Signed by Bishop Verot, Rev. C. C. Prendergast, and also by a large number of others of the clergy and laity of the Roman Catholic Church in Savannah.)

¹Report of the board of public education for the city of Savannah, Ga., and the county of Chatham to the mayor and aldermen of the city of Savannah, upon the petition of the Roman Catholics of Savannah for a division of the public school fund; submitted December 9, 1868.

The following is from the Thirtieth Annual Report of the Public Schools of the city of Savannah, Ga., and county of Chatham, for the year ending June 30, 1895:

"In 1869 the trustees of Chatham Academy granted to the board, free of rent, two rooms in the eastern part of the building. In 1870 it further gave the use of the entire eastern and central part of the building at the nominal rental of \$1 a year. In 1886 the trustees, having purchased from the Union Society its property, then known as the Pavilion Hotel, for \$50,000, offered to put the entire structure in perfect condition and give the use of it to the board of education for ten years at a rent of \$1 per year, provided the board would pay over to the trustees \$10,000 to aid the latter in the improvements of the building. The board assented to these terms and the lease will expire in October, 1896.

"Previous to the year 1870 two large parochial schools were maintained in the city by the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church. The support of these schools became a burden upon the Catholic population and induced Bishop Verot to apply to the city council, by which the public schools were at that time maintained, for a division of the school fund. This communication elicited much discussion in the council and was subsequently referred to the board of education.

"After many conferences between the board and the authorities of the Catholic schools a 'plan of union' was agreed upon, by and under which the two systems would be operated by the board of public education. This plan is fully set forth in the Sixth Annual Report of the Superintendent. As a part of the plan the two buildings known as the Cathedral and St. Patrick's schools passed under the control of the board of education free of rent. If, at any time, either party to the compact becomes dissatisfied it can withdraw by giving notice of three months. The board has had the free use of these two buildings for twenty-five years."

The plan referred to is as follows:

"PLAN.

"1. The Catholic schools shall be received under the control of the board of education.

"2. Catholic teachers shall be preferred for these schools when such as are qualified can be obtained.

"3. The text-books used in these schools shall be the same as are used in the other public schools, except books on history, which may be such as are commonly used in Catholic schools.

"4. These schools shall be opened with reading the Scriptures and the Lord's Prayer. Such versions of Scripture may be used as the teacher may prefer.

"5. The school building shall be under the control of the board of education.

"6. The trustees of the Catholic school buildings shall have power to withdraw them from the board of education at the end of any school year, whenever they are dissatisfied with the arrangement, provided that they shall give three months' notice of such withdrawal.

"7. In case of such withdrawal the board of education may remove all apparatus, books, movable fixtures, and furniture which they may have furnished for these schools.

"8. The board of education shall have full control of the discipline, instruction, and general management of these schools, the same as of the other schools under their care, including also the length of sessions, the arrangement of school, courses of study, work, and duties, and all the interests of the schools.

"9. The teachers of these schools will be expected to attend the meetings of the normal class the same as teachers of other public schools. They will give respectful attention to the suggestions and instructions of the superintendent, and are expected to exert themselves to carry out his views in the management and instruction of their schools.

"10. The holidays shall be such as are usually given in Catholic schools."¹

¹Sixth Annual Report of the Public Schools for the city of Savannah, Ga., and county of Chatham, for the year 1870-71.

New Haven, Conn.—In New Haven, Conn., there are Catholic schools within the public-school system.

By a vote of the board of education pupils detained from school on account of the Catholic holy days Feast of All Saints and Feast of Ascension, and the Jewish holy days New Year, Day of Atonement, Day of Tabernacle, Feast of Passover, and Feast of Weeks, are to be regarded as excusable for their absences, and are not required to make up lessons lost because of such absence. The committee on schools instruct teachers that children detained from school on account of the above-named holy days shall be reported as perfect in attendance during the year, if not absent or tardy at any other time; that a credit of recitations shall be given to each child so absent equal to the average credit of each study during the week. Pupils may be admitted on each of the days named above before 10 o'clock a. m. without being marked as tardy; provided they bring satisfactory notice from their parents that they have been detained by religious services.¹

New Decatur, Ala.—Absence for religious exercises is freely granted in a city of Alabama:

“When the pupil is absent on account of church requirements * * * such absence shall not count against the pupil in perfect attendance; provided such pupil brings from the parent or guardian a written request to the teacher on the day preceding such church service.”²

It is probable that almost any practice known in the schools of foreign countries can be found in limited use somewhere in the United States, notwithstanding the frequent statement regarding the impracticability of measures proposed for adoption.

CATECHETICAL CLASSES.

There are some religious bodies that gather the children at stated times for religious instruction, preparatory to confirmation, without organizing schools for the purpose. For instance, the Evangelical Association reports 556 catechetical classes and 6,270 catechumens,³ but the association has no parochial schools. The classes reported are distributed approximately as follows:

Evangelical Association.

State.	Catechetical classes.	Catechumens.	State.	Catechetical classes.	Catechumens.
United States	556	6,270	Iowa	35	368
New York	13	606	Minnesota	97	1,184
New Jersey	4	50	North Dakota	} 27	220
Pennsylvania	21	580	South Dakota		
Maryland	10	112	Nebraska	34	333
Indiana	17	274	Kansas	30	462
Michigan	16	240	Texas	5	41
Illinois	54	738	Oregon	7	92
Wisconsin	150	1,087	California	3	45

The Reformed Church in America (Dutch in origin) has a small number of parochial schools, as indicated by the returns of the Eleventh Census (1890), used in the table for parochial schools (page 1664). The church deems catechetical instruction highly important, but finds a decadence of such instruction in the English-speaking churches.⁴

¹ Report, New Haven, 1894.

² Third Annual Report, Public Schools, New Decatur, Ala., 1892.

³ Christian Family Almanac, Cleveland, Ohio, 1896.

⁴ Acts and proceedings of the Eighty-ninth Regular Session of the General Synod of the Reformed Church in America, June, 1895.

There are 346 churches reported by names of church and pastor that have catechetical classes, with 35,734 catechumens, distributed as follows:

Reformed Church in America.

State.	Classes.	Catechumens.	State.	Classes.	Catechumens.
United States	346	35,734	South Dakota.....	12	434
New York	125	12,654	Nebraska	3	237
New Jersey	84	10,886	Pennsylvania	2	139
Michigan	50	5,293	Minnesota	3	126
Iowa	32	2,554	Kansas	2	92
Illinois.....	17	1,964	Indiana	2	58
Wisconsin	13	1,207	Ohio	1	40

A glance at the list will show the strength of the denominational catechetical classes geographically. It reaches over New York and Kansas as extreme eastern and western limits, with the greatest force in New York and New Jersey, but adding considerable figures to those otherwise reported as under formal religious instruction in the central Northwest.

In response to inquiry regarding parochial schools and catechetical instruction in the denomination, the stated clerk of the General Synod of the Reformed Church in the United States, writes:

"During the triennial term embracing the statistics of 1893, 1894, and 1895, no less than 33,646 were received into communion with the church by the rite of confirmation. The increase above the previous term embracing the years 1890, 1891, 1892, was 1,254.

"Those received by confirmation usually receive catechetical instruction once and twice a week for a period of five to six months, during the fall and winter season. In many of the congregations of the Reformed Church there are junior and senior classes. Those in the junior classes frequently attend instruction during two and three terms. Among many of our churches parochial schools are maintained, but none of the reports coming from the various synods give any data by which the number of pupils in attendance might be obtained."

The Evangelical Association has in late years become two denominations. One retains the old name and claims about 110,000 members, with catechetical classes as shown above. The second has taken the name of the United Evangelical Church and claims about 55,000 communicants. The discipline of the United Evangelical Church provides that wherever practicable the preachers in charge of congregations are to organize catechetical classes. The authorized statistical blanks contain the items, "How many catechetical classes?" and "How many catechumens?" The catechetical classes are strictly and solely for religious instruction in which the catechism of Biblical and doctrinal instruction is designed to be the text-book. Closely related as the two churches are by recent identity and long history, the United Evangelical Church reports no catechetical classes, which is thus explained by a prominent officer of the church:

"I suppose that the omission of catechetical classes from the statistics is occasioned by the fact that there are no classes to report, or that there are so few that the showing would be insignificant."

STATISTICS OF PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS.

The Roman Catholics, the Evangelical Lutherans, the German Evangelical Synod of North America, the Protestant Episcopalians, and the Holland Christian Reformed Church in North America report in their yearbooks the number of pupils in their parochial schools.

Roman Catholic.—The Roman Catholics report (Sadler, New York; Hoffmans, Milwaukee) 3,361 parishes with schools. Most dioceses give parochial pupils distinctly, but certain dioceses, especially those in Texas, combine parochial pupils with those in academies. As most of the academies are reported individually, it is possible to separate the two classes of pupils to a considerable extent. The totals here given will be found to vary from the totals that included both academies and parochial pupils, for the cause just cited, but the present figures are believed to have a less error than would result from retaining academic pupils where reported in an item combined with parochial pupils. In round numbers, the parochial pupils approach 800,000.

Evangelical Lutheran.—The Evangelical Lutherans report 3,079 parochial schools, 2,926 teachers, and a little more than 200,000 pupils. The number in Hauge's Norwegian Synod was not reported. The Lutherans publish their returns by synods, which do not have geographical limits. The Lutheran churches in a given State, county, or city may belong to several synods. The column for Evangelical Lutheran pupils in the principal table is only a general approximation to the relation of numbers in each State, distributed in the proportions indicated by returns of the Eleventh Census (1890). The largest proportion of error is likely to be made in the States of smallest numbers, where the establishment or discontinuance of a single school would have a great proportionate effect. The authoritative returns by synods given in the following table¹ can be scanned by anyone who feels competent to derive better State totals from them:

Evangelical Lutheran parochial schools reported.

Synod.	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
The United States.....	3, 079	2, 926	204, 810
General Council.....	439	574	24, 188
Ministerium of Pennsylvania.....	16	20	911
Ministerium of New York.....	61	79	3, 695
(Swedish) Augustana Synod.....	337	459	18, 747
Canada Synod.....	25	16	805
Synodical Conference.....	1, 722	905	97, 948
Missouri, Ohio, and other States.....	1, 455	745	85, 730
United German Synod:			
Wisconsin.....	171	139	8, 621
Minnesota.....	54	12	1, 918
Michigan.....	36	6	1, 329
English Synod of Missouri.....	6	3	350
United Synod South:			
Synod of North Carolina.....			150
General Synod:			
Wartburg (German).....	25	25	800
Independent synods.....	893	1, 422	81, 724
Joint Synod of Ohio.....	110	101	10, 821
Buffalo Synod.....	24	7	778
Hauge's Norwegian Synod.....	120		
Texas Synod.....	9		244
Norwegian Synod.....		183	21, 000
German Iowa.....	528	329	9, 645
German Nebraska.....			310
Danish Lutheran Church in America.....	20	20	250
German Augsburg of Ohio and adjacent States.....	11	11	332
Danish Lutheran Church Association.....	37	19	1, 993
Icelandic Synod.....			800
Immanuel German.....	4	4	
Finnish Suomi Synod.....	30		700
United Norwegian Church.....		748	34, 851

¹ The table is mainly from the Church Almanac, 1896, Lutheran Bookstore, Philadelphia; for certain synods, from Evangelical Lutheran Almanac, Joint Synod of Ohio and other States, 1896, Columbus, Ohio. Some synods did not fully report through either.

German Evangelical.—The German Evangelical Synod of North America reports (*Evangelischer Kalender*, 1896, St. Louis, Mo.) 410 schools, 115 teachers, 385 pastors who conduct schools, and 17,911 pupils. These, like the Lutheran pupils, have been distributed for the State table by comparison with the Eleventh Census (1890), and are liable to the same error of distribution as the Lutheran figures, but they are not likely to mislead one who aims to get a clear outline of their principal locations.

Protestant Episcopal.—The Protestant Episcopal Church (*American Church Almanac and Yearbook*, 1896) reports 336 teachers and 6,860 pupils with their geographical distribution.

Holland Christian Reformed.—The Holland Christian Reformed Church in North America (*Jaarboekje ten dienste der Holl. Christelijke Gereformeerde Kerk in Noord Amerika*, 1896) reports by name each congregation with a school, the teachers in charge, and the number of pupils. There are 17 schools and 2,229 pupils.

Moravian.—The Moravians, as indicated near the beginning of this statement, have a very old parochial school at Bethlehem, Pa., now grown to cover all primary and secondary departments. The pupils are reported in the table of academic and secondary schools in the reports of the Bureau of Education. Bishop J. M. Levering, under date of July 21, 1896, says: "The school at Bethlehem is the only parochial school maintained by the Moravian Church in the United States except a boys' school at Salem, N. C. * * * In making this statement I leave out of account a few little schools maintained during part of each winter in certain German country parishes in the West, the attendance at which all figures in the public school enrollment."

Mennonites.—A letter from Kansas dated August 31, 1896, says:

"The Mennonites of Kansas have no schools that are intended to supplant the public schools. In every Mennonite congregation, however, there is one or more summer schools for children. In these schools German is the language taught. In these schools, too, religious training is made prominent. The German Mennonite teachers of Kansas have formed an association which makes it a point to secure statistics of all the German schools among the Mennonites of Kansas."

Reformed Church in America.—The board of education of the Reformed Church in America has a small fund which it uses for the aid of parochial schools, but it has no report from unaided schools. During the past year the board has aided 6 schools, of which 2 have become self-supporting. There are 4 of the 6 in New York, with about 128 scholars, and 2 in New Jersey, with about 150 scholars, as stated by the secretary of the board.

For the German Presbyterians, the Reformed Church in America, of Dutch antecedents, the Reformed Church in the United States, of German antecedents, the Mennonites, the Reformed Episcopal, and the United German Evangelical, the latest full returns at hand are those of the Eleventh Census, which are here utilized.

There are a few scattered parochial schools among other denominations, especially those having a German membership, but they are for the most part small and temporary in their character.

The following table represents very closely the number of children in parochial schools in the United States:

Pupils in parochial schools.

States and Territories.	Total reported.	Roman Catholic. (a)	Evangelical Lutheran. a	German Evangelical Synod of North America. b	Protestant Episcopal.	Holland Christian Reformed.	Reformed Church in the United States. c	All others.
United States.....	1,028,843	791,548	204,810	17,911	6,860	2,229	2,190	3,295
North Atlantic Division.....	390,499	365,636	18,050	1,800	2,517	250	484	1,762
South Atlantic Division.....	36,387	30,928	1,750	3,296	413
South Central Division.....	50,766	44,369	5,000	480	824	26	67
North Central Division.....	523,267	323,698	179,100	15,631	177	1,979	1,629	1,053
Western Division.....	27,924	26,917	910	46	51
North Atlantic Division:								
Maine.....	6,912	6,912
New Hampshire.....	9,515	9,415	100
Vermont.....	4,312	4,312
Massachusetts.....	57,656	57,430	150
Rhode Island.....	10,728	10,628	100	76
Connecticut.....	20,700	20,000	700
New York.....	139,809	128,123	10,000	1,100	309	148	129
New Jersey.....	39,625	37,446	1,000	813	250	30	586
Pennsylvania.....	101,242	91,370	6,000	700	1,895	306	971
South Atlantic Division:								
Delaware.....	2,060	2,060
Maryland.....	18,199	16,485	1,000	714
District of Columbia.....	3,945	3,845	100
Virginia.....	2,919	2,061	150	708
West Virginia.....	2,247	1,791	200	256
North Carolina.....	1,794	505	250	954	85
South Carolina.....	877	697	180
Georgia.....	2,406	1,679	664	63
Florida.....	1,940	1,805	50	85
South Central Division:								
Kentucky.....	14,704	14,134	250	50	270
Tennessee.....	2,611	2,635	150	26
Alabama.....	1,695	1,410	200	85
Mississippi.....	1,639	1,291	100	248
Louisiana.....	16,028	13,908	1,700	250	103	67
Texas.....	10,213	8,015	1,900	180	118
Arkansas.....	2,936	2,236	700
Oklahoma.....
Indian Territory.....	940	940
North Central Division:								
Ohio.....	76,614	63,887	12,000	700	27
Indiana.....	35,272	24,016	10,100	900	256
Illinois.....	111,026	70,637	35,000	4,800	251	229	109
Michigan.....	51,884	33,445	16,000	720	1,646	73
Wisconsin.....	87,759	46,693	39,000	1,300	177	565	24
Minnesota.....	49,676	21,671	27,000	850	109	46
Iowa.....	31,202	18,167	11,500	1,161	55	116	203
Missouri.....	44,182	29,446	10,000	4,650	68	18
North Dakota.....	4,750	1,200	3,500	50
South Dakota.....	4,761	1,200	3,500	61
Nebraska.....	14,116	5,980	7,500	300	213	123
Kansas.....	12,025	7,356	4,000	200	469
Western Division:								
Montana.....	820	820
Wyoming.....	136	90	46
Colorado.....	3,608	3,468	140
New Mexico.....	1,840	1,840
Arizona.....	250	250
Utah.....	554	534	20
Nevada.....	100
Idaho.....	100	100
Washington.....	1,329	1,129	200
Oregon.....	2,151	2,000	100	51
California.....	17,136	16,686	450

a See p. 1662.

b See p. 1663.

c Eleventh Census, 1890.

The following are the denominations in the column "all others" of the preceding table, with the distribution of pupils:

States.	Total.	German Presby- terian. <i>a</i>	Mora- vian. <i>b</i>	Meanon- ite. <i>a</i>	Reformed Church in Amer- ica. <i>a</i>	Reformed Episco- pal. <i>a</i>	United German Evangel- ical Prot- estant.
Total.....	3, 295	1, 160	340	610	341	241	605
Massachusetts	76	76					
New York	129	79			50		
New Jersey	586	333			253		
Pennsylvania	971	98	209			61	603
North Carolina	85		85				
South Carolina	180					180	
Georgia	63	63					
Florida	85	85					
Louisiana	67	67					
Illinois	109	71			38		
Wisconsin	24	24					
Minnesota	46		46				
Iowa	203	168		35			
Missouri	18	18					
South Dakota	61			61			
Nebraska	123	78		45			
Kansas	469			469			

a Eleventh Census, 1890.

b See p. 1663.

A glance at the tables will show the general location of any group of parochial schools. Northern New England and, generally, the South have few parochial schools. The Roman Catholics have some parochial schools in nearly every State, are strong in southern New England, relatively strong in Maryland, Kentucky, and Louisiana, of the South, and California, of the West, and from Kansas eastward to the Atlantic Ocean.

Lutherans and other German and Scandinavian organizations are weak in New England and in the South, but are relatively strong in the States between New England and the Rocky Mountains.

The Holland Christian Reformed Church has considerable local strength in south-western Michigan.

In the country as a whole the parochial schools report an enrollment about 7 per cent as great as the public common schools; in the North Atlantic Division, about 11 per cent; in the North Central, just below 10 per cent; below 2 per cent in either South Division; about 4 per cent in the Western Division. The Lutherans and kindred denominations have a multitude of small rural schools often in the vacations of public schools which the children also attend. The Catholics have many large schools of a permanent character in cities.

It is not easy to determine how many of the children counted as parochial pupils are also returned in the enrollment for public schools. In the North Central Division, especially, there are many parochial schools that last but a few weeks in a year. A careful canvass was made of German Protestant parochial schools in Wisconsin in 1890 by Mr. Christ. Koerner. He endeavored to determine how many of the pupils were also enrolled in the public schools. The returns were in general terms, and could not be reduced to numerical accuracy. Some schools reported that all the pupils attended public schools, others that half or more did so, a few that none attended, and a few that all attended before or after confirmation. The number of pupils distinctly reported as not attending public schools was very small.

There are a few cities where schools still reported as parochial in the Catholic yearbooks are also reported as public schools. The situation at Savannah, Ga., has been herein explained. The conditions are similar at Augusta, giving in this State a duplication of at least 1,324 counted in both public schools and parochial schools. A kindred case occurs in New Haven, Conn., producing a duplication of some

905. Public schools under Catholic control, enrolling small numbers, have existed within recent years in several States, but the conditions are often transient, constantly liable to change, so that a report of such union true in a given year has ceased to be true when investigated at a later date.

It appears that a majority of the pupils in the German Protestant parochial schools are at some time in the year enrolled in public schools. There is a known duplication of Catholic children as parochial pupils and public-school pupils at points named above (Savannah and Augusta, Ga., and New Haven, Conn.). It seems reasonable to suppose that about 500,000 are in parochial schools who are not enrolled during the year in public schools.

There are about 350,000 enrolled in denominational schools of higher forms, but those in academies, colleges, and seminaries are generally reached in the reports for private schools.

PURPOSES OF PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS.

There is a general accord among all denominations and sects as to the necessity of religious instruction, but there is not such general accord as to elementary religious instruction by each parish or church. Each of the great denominations has its board of education or some corresponding organization to impress the needs of its schools, especially secondary and higher, upon the people, but the specific attachment of an elementary school of an emphatically religious type to each congregation is a policy almost limited in practice to Roman Catholics and to Lutheran and other reformed groups derived from central and northern Europe, but theoretically valued by Episcopal, Presbyterian, and other bodies. Even the small denominations consider it urgent to maintain schools of their own wherever they can.

Moravians.—The Moravians are of relatively small numbers, not much known by the nation at large, but they have a remarkable record for devotion and for earnestness regarding education.

“The Moravian Church has always insisted upon special attention to the Christian education of the young, and therefore not only provides many religious services particularly for the children, but also regards its school work as second to no other branch of activity in its claim upon intelligent, prayerful interest, faithful consecrated effort, and cheerful, adequate support.”¹

“The Moravian parochial school of Bethlehem, Pa., owes its origin to the principle that education, whether under church, state, or private control, should be conducted in subordination to religion. Its management subscribes the proposition that Christian education consists not so much in imparting knowledge as in drawing out the grace of God for the work of life. Church members recognize the fact that knowledge is power, but a power for good only when pursued in the fear of God.”²

Friends.—The following utterance of Friends, with variations of detail, would be indorsed in almost any denomination:

“We believe the duty to be incumbent upon Friends, as a religious body, to provide means for the liberal education of all their children, under circumstances favorable to the maintenance of our religious principles and testimonies. By our discipline, children whose parents are members are themselves members by birthright. The discipline also recognizes the care and concern for them by propounding these two familiar queries: ‘Are Friends careful to educate their children in plainness of speech, deportment, and apparel; to guard them against reading pernicious books and from corrupt conversation?’ And ‘Do they place their children for tuition under the care of suitable teachers in membership with us?’ * * * Does not the implied obligation of parents to place their children at the kind of school indicated by the query demand of us to have such schools, as far as practicable, within the reach of all our members?”³

¹ Report of the Moravian Congregation of Bethlehem, Pa., 1895.

² Catalogue, 1895.

³ Address of some members of the Society of Friends, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York Yearly Meetings, 1861.

Presbyterians.—The Presbyterians maintain many academies, colleges, and theological seminaries, and there are Presbyterians who desire parochial schools, but, as expressed in a pamphlet, *Denominational Education*, in 1854, in language still applicable, “the sentiment of the church is very far from being united in favor of those measures.”

Protestant Episcopal.—The following is the utterance of a national Protestant Episcopal convention (1871):

“The first educator is the parent, the mother, the father, to whom this duty is assigned by divine appointment. * * * A Christian education must begin at home. * * *

“Parochial schools are an important agency in the work of Christian education. And where they are practicable and can be rendered efficient, especially in those parts of the country where the common schools are deficient in number or in thoroughness of training, they should be heartily sustained. But they can only in a very limited degree supply the place of the public schools of the country. * * *

“The attitude which we should maintain toward the common schools of the country has engaged the attention of your committee. We feel that we ought to give to those schools our cordial support. * * *

“But while churchmen lend a firm support to the common schools from the dictates at once of patriotism and religion, they should unite their influence to secure in them as large a measure of religious instruction as may be expedient and attainable.”¹

The following Protestant Episcopal utterance comes close to a Catholic view as to distribution of public money:

“Protestants, according to their fundamental principle, are pledged to show the utmost liberty to all in the exercise of their religious tendencies, and we therefore conclude that the allowing any communion of Christians to educate their own children in their own schools, supported by an equitable proportion of their school tax, is no compromise of the boasted principle of American Protestantism.

“Your committee think that ultimately this plan may be adopted, not in opposition to, or in substitution for our free school system, but as supplemental to it, and so allaying irritation, securing religious education, and doing no violence to the freedom of conscience guaranteed by the Constitution.

“But such an arrangement is impracticable, and perhaps impossible, at this time. The convictions of the great majority are opposed, for the great majority have not yet learned to concede that minorities have rights even in matters of conscience.”²

Roman Catholics.—The latest comprehensive authoritative statement of the position of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States upon the subject of education makes no explicit reference to a division of funds, but deals almost entirely with the duty of the church or its members toward the schools. It is as follows:

FOR THE SETTLEMENT OF THE SCHOOL QUESTION AND THE GIVING OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION.

The Most Rev. Francis Satolli, Archbishop of Lepanto, Delegate of the Apostolic See to the United States of America, to the archbishops assembled in New York:

I. All care must be taken to erect Catholic schools, to enlarge and improve those already established, and to make them equal to the public schools in teaching and in discipline. (Conc. Plen. Balt. III, No. 197, p. 101.)

II. When there is no Catholic school at all, or when the one that is available is little fitted for giving the children an education in keeping with their condition, then the public schools may be attended with a safe conscience, the danger of perversion being rendered remote by opportune remedial and precautionary measures,

¹ Committee on Education, General Convention, Protestant Episcopal, 1871.

² *Christian Education*, a report to the Ninetieth Annual Convention of the Diocese of New Jersey, 1873.

a matter that is to be left to the conscience and judgment of the ordinaries. (*Ibid.*, No. 198, p. 103.)

III. We enact and command that no one shall be allowed to teach in a parochial school who has not proven his fitness for the position by previous examination. No priest shall have the right to employ any teacher, male or female, in his school without a certificate of ability or diploma from the diocesan board of examiners. (*Ibid.*, No. 203, p. 108.)

IV. Normal schools, as they are called, are to be established where they are wanting and are evidently necessary. (*Ibid.*, No. 205, p. 110.)

V. We strictly forbid anyone, whether bishop or priest,—and this is the express prohibition of the Sovereign Pontiff through the Sacred Congregation,—either by act or by threat, to exclude from the sacraments as unworthy, parents [who choose to send their children to the public schools]. As regards the children themselves, this enactment applies with still greater force. (*Ibid.*, No. 198, p. 104; Conf., Tit. VI, Cap. I, II; Tit. VII.)

VI. To the Catholic Church belongs the duty and the divine right of teaching all nations to believe the truth of the Gospel, and to observe whatsoever Christ commanded (Matth., xxviii, 19); in her likewise is vested the divine right of instructing the young in so far as theirs is the Kingdom of Heaven (Mark, x, 14) (Conf. Conc. Balt. Pl. III., No. 194); that is to say, she holds for herself the right of teaching the truths of faith and the law of morals in order to bring up youth in the habits of a Christian life. Hence, absolutely and universally speaking, there is no repugnance in their learning the first elements and the higher branches of the arts and the natural sciences in public schools controlled by the state, whose office it is to provide, maintain, and protect everything by which its citizens are formed to moral goodness, while they live peaceably together, with a sufficiency of temporal goods, under laws promulgated by civil authority.

For the rest, the provisions of the council of Baltimore are yet in force, and, in a general way, will remain so; to wit: "Not only out of our paternal love do we exhort Catholic parents, but we command them, by all the authority we possess, to procure a truly Christian and Catholic education for the beloved offspring given them of God, born again in baptism unto Christ and destined for Heaven, to shield and secure them throughout childhood and youth from the dangers of a merely worldly education, and therefore to send them to parochial or other truly Catholic schools." United with this duty are the rights of parents, which no civil law or authority can violate or weaken.

VII. The Catholic Church in general, and especially the Holy See, far from condemning or treating with indifference the public schools, desires rather that, by the joint action of civil and ecclesiastical authorities, there should be public schools in every State, according as the circumstances of the people require, for the cultivation of the useful arts and natural sciences; but the Catholic Church shrinks from those features of public schools which are opposed to the truths of Christianity and to morality; and since, in the interest of society itself, these objectionable features are removable, therefore, not only the bishops, but the citizens at large should labor to remove them, in virtue of their own right and in the cause of morality.

VIII. It is long since the Holy See, after consultation with the bishops of the United States of America, decreed that parish schools and other institutions under the direction of the bishops, each according to the conditions of its own diocese, were opportune and necessary for Catholic youth, from the fact that it was held for certain that the public schools bore within themselves a proximate danger to faith and morals for various reasons (Conc. Pl. Balt. III., No. 194, seq.; App., p. 279); viz, because in the public schools a purely secular education is given—inasmuch as it excludes all teaching of religion—because teachers are chosen indiscriminately from every sect, and no law prevents them from working the ruin of youth—so that they are at liberty to instill errors and the germs of vice in tender minds. Likewise,

certain corruption seemed to impend from the fact that in these schools, or at least in many of them, children of both sexes are brought together for their lessons in the same room.

Wherefore, if it be clear that in a given locality, owing to the wiser dispositions of public authorities, or the watchful prudence of school board, teachers, and parents, the above-named dangers to faith and morals disappear, then it is lawful for Catholic parents to send their children to these schools, to acquire the elements of letters and arts, provided the parents themselves do not neglect their most serious duty, and the pastors of souls put forth every effort to instruct the children and train them in all that pertains to Catholic worship and life.

IX. It is left to the judgment and the wisdom of the ordinaries to decide whether, in a certain part of their respective dioceses, a parochial school can be built and kept up in a fitting condition, not inferior to the public schools, taking into consideration the temporal condition of the parents, while graver needs for procuring their spiritual welfare and the decent support of the Church are pressing. It will be well, therefore, as was the wont of our forefathers, and as was done in the early days of the Church, to establish weekly classes of catechism, which all the children of the parish should attend; for the better success of this measure let the zeal of pastors in fulfilling their duty and the love of Catholic parents leave no effort unspared. (Cf. Conc. Pl. Balt. III., No. 198.)

X. No reproach, either in public or in private, shall be cast upon Catholic parents who send their children to private schools or to academies where a better education is given under the direction of religious or of approved and Catholic persons. If they make sufficient provision for the religious training of their children, let them be free to secure in other ways that education which the position of their family requires.

XI. It is greatly to be desired, and will be a most happy arrangement, if the bishop agree with the civil authorities or with the members of the school board, to conduct the school with mutual attention and due consideration for their respective rights.

While there are teachers of any description for the secular branches, who are legally inhibited from offending Catholic religion and morality, let the right and duty of the Church obtain of teaching the children catechism, in order to remove danger to their faith and morals from any quarter whatsoever.

It seems well to quote here the words of our Holy Father, Leo XIII (see the Pope's letter to the archbishop of New York and to the bishops of the province): "We further desire you to strive earnestly that the various local authorities, firmly convinced that nothing is more conducive to the welfare of the commonwealth than religion, should by wise legislation provide that the system of education which is maintained at the public expense, and to which, therefore, Catholics also contribute their share, be in no way prejudicial to their conscience or religion. For we are persuaded that even your fellow-citizens who differ from us in belief, with their characteristic intelligence and prudence, will readily set aside all suspicions and all views unfavorable to the Catholic Church, and willingly acknowledge her merit, as the one that dispelled the darkness of paganism by the light of the Gospel and created a new society distinguished by the luster of Christian virtues and by the cultivation of all that refines. We do not think that anyone there, after looking into these things clearly, will let Catholic parents be forced to erect and support schools which they can not use for the instruction of their children."

XII. As for those Catholic children that in great numbers are educated in the public schools, where now, not without danger, they receive no religious instruction at all, strenuous efforts should be made not to leave them without sufficient and seasonable instruction in Catholic faith and practice. We know by experience that not all our Catholic children are found in our Catholic schools. Statistics show that hundreds of thousands of Catholic children in the United States of America attend schools which are under the control of State boards, and in which, for that

reason, teachers of every denomination are engaged. Beyond all doubt the one thing necessary, i. e., religious and moral education according to Catholic principles, is not to be treated either lightly or with delay, but on the contrary with all earnestness and energy.

The adoption of one of three plans is recommended, the choice to be made according to local circumstances in the different States and various personal relations.

The first consists in an agreement between the bishop and the members of the school board, whereby they, in a spirit of fairness and good will, allow the Catholic children to be assembled during free time and taught the catechism; it would also be of the greatest advantage if this plan were not confined to the primary schools, but were extended likewise to the high schools and colleges, in the form of a free lecture.

The second: To have a catechism class outside the public-school building, and also classes of higher Christian doctrine, where, at fixed times, the Catholic children would assemble with diligence and pleasure, induced thereto by the authority of their parents, the persuasion of their pastors, and the hope of praise and rewards.

The third plan does not seem at first sight so suitable, but is bound up more intimately with the duty of both parents and pastors. Pastors should unceasingly urge upon parents that most important duty, imposed both by natural and by divine law, of bringing up their children in sound morality and Catholic faith. Besides, the instruction of children appertains to the very essence of the pastoral charge; let the pastor of souls say to them with the Apostle: "My little children, of whom I am in labor again until Christ be formed in you." (Gal., iv., 19.) Let him have classes of children in the parish such as have been established in Rome and many other places, and even in churches in this country, with very happy results.

Nor let him, with little prudence, show less love for the children that attend the public schools than for those that attend the parochial; on the contrary, stronger marks of loving solicitude are to be shown them; the Sunday school and the hour for catechism should be devoted to them in a special manner. And to cultivate this field, let the pastor call to his aid other priests, religious, and even suitable members of the laity, in order that what is supremely necessary be wanting to no child.

XIII. For the standing and growth of Catholic schools, it seems that care should be taken that the teachers prove themselves qualified, not only by previous examination before the diocesan board and by certificate or diploma received from it, but also by having a teacher's diploma from the school board of the State, awarded after successful examination. This is urged, first, so as not to appear regardless, without reason, of what public authority requires for teaching. Secondly, a better opinion of Catholic schools will be created. Thirdly, greater assurance will be given to parents that in Catholic schools there is no deficiency to render them inferior to public schools; that, on the contrary, everything is done to make Catholic schools equal to public schools, or even superior. Fourthly, and lastly, we think that this plan would prepare the way for the State to see, along with the recognized and tested fitness of the teachers, that the laws are observed in all matters pertaining to the arts and sciences, to method and pedagogies, and to whatever is ordinarily required to promote the stability and usefulness of the schools.

XIV. It is necessary that what are called normal schools should reach such efficiency in preparing teachers of letters, arts, and sciences, that their graduates shall not fail to obtain the diploma of the State. For the sake of the Catholic cause, let there be among laymen a growing rivalry to take the diploma and doctorate, so that, possessed of the knowledge and qualifications requisite for teaching, they may compete for and honorably obtain positions in the public gymnasia, lyceums, and scientific institutions.

The knowledge of truth of every kind, straightforward justice united with charity, the effulgence and appreciation of the liberal arts—these are the bulwarks of the church.

All the above was read and considered in the meeting of the archbishops, the difficulties answered, and the requisite alterations made, November 17, 1892.

STANDARDS OF TEACHING.

The people of the United States have sought models for teaching in Germany and Scandinavia. Lutheran and Evangelical Germans and Scandinavians, interested in religious instruction, which we have dropped from public institutions, have established here a number of teachers' seminaries, besides nearly 30 theological seminaries, and about 45 colleges. This indicates their purpose to maintain a high standard of teaching.

The Roman Catholics have a great range of institutions from university to primary school, including teachers' seminaries. There are several brotherhoods and sisterhoods devoted to teaching, best known of which is probably the Brothers of the Christian Schools, with a long established professional reputation. As indicated in the document just cited, those in control expect the teachers to be capable of passing the examinations required of teachers in the public schools, that no comparisons of scholarly and professional equipment may be to the disadvantage of schools established with the religious motive.

CHAPTER XLI.

EIGHTY YEARS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF WASHINGTON—1805 TO 1885.¹

By J. ORMOND WILSON, —

Formerly Superintendent of Public Schools, District of Columbia.

The limits of a paper to be read before this society will allow me to present to you only an outline sketch of the origin and development of the public school system of this city, including some important references and statements that may be of use to the future historian. As a matter of convenience, I have to some extent used the term "Washington" as synonymous with "District of Columbia," and in doing so have only anticipated the near future when they will become identical. Of the four independent systems of public schools originally established in the District of Columbia, that for the white schools of the city of Washington was the oldest and always the leading one; the others starting later copied it as closely as circumstances permitted, and therefore had so many points of resemblance that for the purposes of this paper it has not been deemed necessary to trace each from its origin down to the time when all were merged in one common system. The first eighty years of the public schools may be divided into three distinctive periods, which I have designated by the characterizing terms "initial," "transitional," and "developmental."

SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

1. The original record of the proceedings of the board of trustees of public schools from 1805 to 1818, now in the Force Collection, Library of Congress. Through the courtesy of Librarian Spofford I had a copy of this record made and placed on file in the office of the superintendent of schools.

2. No official record of the proceedings of the board of trustees from 1819 to 1844 has been found. The files of the National Intelligencer, accessible in the Library of Congress, and the acts of the city council and of the Congress during that period, are the chief sources of information.

3. The published annual reports of the board of trustees of public schools from 1845 to 1885. The series for each year is not complete. The reports from 1880 to 1884 were prepared with the usual care and labor, but the District authorities failed to provide for their publication. The twenty-second annual report for the school year 1865-66, prepared by Mr. William J. Rhee, is of special interest, containing "A compendium of the laws and resolutions of the city council of Washington relative to public schools from 1804 to 1867, chronologically arranged," "List of trustees from 1845 to 1866," and much other interesting historical material. The report for 1874-75 is also exceptionally valuable, as it was prepared with reference to the public school exhibit made at the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876, and contains brief histories of the public schools of the city of Washington, organized in 1805; the city of Georgetown, organized in 1810; the county, as the part of the District of Columbia outside of Washington and Georgetown was designated, organized in

¹ Read before the Columbia Historical Society of Washington, D. C., May 4 1896.

1864; and the colored schools of Washington and Georgetown, organized in 1864—the four independent systems of schools as originally established in the District of Columbia. These monographs were all written with intelligence and fidelity and as a labor of love by persons well qualified for their respective tasks; the first two by Mr. Samuel Yorke At Lee, the third by the Rev. Claudius B. Smith, and the fourth by the Superintendent of colored schools, Mr. George F. T. Cook.

4. Special Report of the United States Commissioner of Education on the Condition and Improvement of Public Schools in the District of Columbia, 1868.

5. The minutes of the board of trustees which have been published in recent years, to be found sometimes in connection with the annual reports and sometimes as separate documents.

6. The acts of the city council, the District legislature, and the Congress, and the orders of the District Commissioners relating to the schools.

7. The files of the Evening Star and other city newspapers published from time to time.

THE INITIAL PERIOD—1805 TO 1845.

Neither the framers of the Constitution nor the earlier Congresses contemplated the exercise of exclusive municipal legislation for the District of Columbia directly by the Congress, and hence as early as practicable after the removal of the seat of Government here the Congress ordained a municipal government for the city of Washington, and in 1804 by an amendment to its charter provided “for the establishment and superintendence of schools.” On the 5th of December of the same year the city council passed an act “to establish and endow a permanent institution for the education of youth in the city of Washington,” which provided for a board of 13 trustees, 7 to be elected by the joint ballots of the two chambers of the council and 6 to be chosen by individuals contributing to the promotion of the schools as provided for in said act. For the support of the schools the act appropriated so much of the net proceeds of the taxes on slaves and dogs and licenses for carriages and hacks, ordinaries and taverns, retailing wines and spirituous liquors, billiard tables, theatrical and other amusements, hawkers and peddlers, as the trustees might decide to be necessary for the education of the poor of the city, not to exceed the sum of \$1,500 per annum. The act also provided for the appointment of a select committee of 3 councilmen, whose duty it should be to solicit or provide for soliciting, both at home and abroad, contributions in money or lots for the benefit of the schools. One of the largest contributions was that of \$200, made by Thomas Jefferson.

It may be stated at the outset that the colored children of the District of Columbia were not included among the beneficiaries of the public schools in any legislation, either by the Congress or the city council, prior to the abolition of slavery in 1862.

The first board of trustees consisted of Thomas Jefferson, Thomas Monroe, Gabriel Duvall, Thomas Tingey, Joseph Brombey, John Tayloe, Robert Brent, William Brent, Samuel H. Smith, William Cranch, George Blagden, John Dempsie, and Nicholas King.

They met in the Supreme Court room, United States Capitol, August 5, 1805, and were called to order by Robert Brent. Thomas Jefferson, then President of the United States, was elected president of the board, and accepted the office in a letter dated Monticello, August 14, 1805, but was prevented from ever discharging its duties by “others of paramount obligation.”

At a little later date the Rev. William Matthews, better known as Father Matthews, became a member of the board, and was most zealous and active in the cause of public schools for many years.

A very comprehensive report, setting forth in detail the plan of the entire educational system from an academy to a university, was prepared by a select committee and adopted September 19, 1805.

Mr. Jefferson's early and liberal contribution in money and his accepting and holding the offices of trustee and president of the board of trustees of public schools so

long as he resided here show his personal interest in their establishment, and the fact that he had several years earlier proposed a quite similar plan of education for the State of Virginia, and a few years later, in 1817, vigorously renewed his proposal, makes a strong probability that he himself was the chief author of the first plan of public education adopted for the city of Washington.

In their plan the board of trustees said:

"The academy shall consist of as many schools as circumstances may require, to be limited at present to two, one of which shall be situated east of the Capitol and within half a mile of it, and the other within half a mile of the President's house, it being understood that these positions are considered by the board as temporary, and consequently subject at any future time to alteration.

"In these schools poor children shall be taught reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, and such branches of the mathematics as may qualify them for the professions they are intended to follow; and they shall receive such other instruction as is given to pay pupils, as the board may from time to time direct; and pay pupils shall, besides, be instructed in geography and in the Latin language. The schools shall be open each day, Sundays excepted, eight hours in summer and six hours in winter, to be distributed throughout the day as shall be fixed by the board, except during vacation, which shall not commence prior to the 1st of August nor continue after the 10th of September, and whose duration shall be fixed by the board."

A circular letter issued with the view of obtaining contributions for the erection of the college said:

"He who with the promise of success aspires to that eminence which shall qualify him for rendering service to his fellow men, must, in his early years, receive an education exempt from local prejudice and narrow views; and without derogating from the respect deservedly cherished for State institutions, it may be confidently affirmed that no place in the Union is so well fitted for this purpose as the city of Washington. The reluctance naturally felt by a parent to send a son from his own to a remote State whose institutions, manners, and habits perhaps widely differ will in a great degree, if not altogether, be inapplicable to a seminary not established in subservience to State views, and the professors in which will, as it is probable, be drawn from various States of the Union.

"There is another consideration which can not fail to entitle such an institution to the decided preference of a large portion of citizens. The parent who sends his son to Washington will find for him, in his Representative to Congress, a guardian and a friend who, during a large part of the year, will be his associate, will observe his progress in his studies, superintend his morals, and perceive the real condition and character of the seminary, and thus be able from time to time to satisfy parental inquiry and solicitude."

In this old record we catch a most refreshing glimpse of the typical Congressman at the dawn of this century.

There were two prominent features of this school system as originally devised for the city of Washington:

First. It was in some points of view very ambitious. There was to be a so-called academy, under which term was included what are now generally designated primary, grammar, and high schools, or elementary and secondary schools, a college and a university, each with functions similar to those of like institutions at the present day, and a public city library. Only the most elementary part of the academy was established at first; the college and the university have come into existence with but little governmental aid, and the public library is still on the list of things prayed for. The children of the poor alone were to receive tuition free of expense even in the lowest grade of schools, and their period of attendance at times was limited to a term of two years. The price of tuition to other pupils was fixed at \$5 a quarter.

Second. The founders of this school system appear to have thought it neither right nor expedient directly to tax the general property of the municipality for the education

of even poor children, and they made their scant appropriations for this object out of the revenues derived from taxes on specialties and licenses, most of which were in the nature of a specific tariff on social evils. They probably considered themselves warranted at least in applying the homeopathic principle of *similia similibus curantur*, curing a social evil with a social evil.

Between 1812 and 1828 fourteen joint resolutions authorizing and regulating lotteries for the benefit of the public schools were passed by the Congress. A portion of the revenues derived from this source was invested in corporation or other safe stocks and designated the "school fund." The interest on these stocks was for many years applied to the support of the schools.

This school fund, created for the most elementary education of "pauper pupils," existed intact when in 1874 a government of the District by the Congress superseded all local autonomy, and when in 1878 that body began to make specific appropriations for the schools without reference to the school fund. In 1880 it amounted to about \$80,000. The Congress at that time was averse to making any direct appropriation for a much-needed high-school building, but when attention was called to the existence of such a fund it was induced to authorize its application to this object by an act approved March 3, 1881; and so the first high-school building came into being. The public-school forefathers would probably be somewhat surprised if they should return to the city and behold their long-cherished fund for the education of "pauper children" transmuted into the concrete form of the imposing edifice now known as the Central High School Building, located on O street between Sixth and Seventh streets NW.

There's a divinity that shapes our ends,
Rough-hew them how we will.

The board adopted an elaborate code of rules for the government of the academy, among which was the following:

"Every scholar on entering the school shall take off his hat and bow to the preceptor."

Girls do not appear to have been in the minds of these rule makers, and, in fact, the education of girls, especially of the humbler classes, was then considered of small account.

A western school and an eastern school were established, and the first teacher to commence work, January, 1806, was Richard White, principal teacher of the western school, whose salary was to be \$500 per annum. It will be noticed that at even that early day the west end was taking the lead. Poor Richard White! Prototype of many a successor! We find him, October 1, 1807, tendering his resignation, accompanied by a prayer in vain for pecuniary assistance to enable him to remove himself and family from Washington.

On October 27, 1806, the board authorized the erection of the first two schoolhouses, to be located on lots owned by the United States, the use of which for this purpose had been granted by President Jefferson. These schoolhouses might have been modeled after Noah's Ark, for we are told that they were built of wood, 1 story high, 50 feet long, 20 feet wide, and cost together \$1,589.41.

The western schoolhouse appears to have been located on lot 27, square 127, now occupied by the sumptuous residence of Mr. Anthony Pollock, No. 1700 I street NW. This lot, containing about 2,600 square feet, was purchased by the corporation from the United States Government—Sam Lane, commissioner of public buildings—in 1821 for \$100; the money was applied to the building of an iron fence to inclose the park around the Capitol. The corporation, John P. Van Ness, mayor, sold the lot with the improvements, in 1832, for \$309.

In 1811 Mr. Robert Ould was sent out from England by Mr. Lancaster to take charge of a Lancasterian school established in Georgetown. He was the father of Robert Ould, esq., who, graduating from the Columbian College, became a prominent lawyer, United States attorney for the District of Columbia under President

Buchanan; then, going South at the beginning of the civil war, the Confederate assistant secretary of war and agent for the exchange of prisoners. The fame of this school reached the ears of the Washington school authorities, who in 1812 established a similar school in this city and, on the recommendation of Mr. Lancaster, brought over from England Mr. Henry Ould, a brother of the Georgetown teacher, and placed him in charge of the Washington school.

In 1813 Mr. Henry Ould made the first report of a Washington public school of which we have any record. It read as follows:

“FEBRUARY 10, 1813.

“This day twelve months ago I had the pleasure of opening under your auspices the second genuine Lancasterian school in America. The system was set in operation (as far as the nature of the room would admit) in this city on the 10th of February, 1812, in an inconvenient house opposite the general post-office; but notwithstanding the smallness of the schoolroom, there were 120 scholars entered on the list during the first three months. I was then under the necessity of delaying the admission of scholars, as the room would not accommodate more than 80 to 100 scholars. It now becomes my duty to lay before you an account of the improvement of the scholars placed under my direction in your institution, which I shall do in the following order:

“*Of numbers.*—One hundred and thirty scholars have been admitted into your institution since the 10th of February, 1812—viz, 82 males and 48 females—out of which number 2 have died and 37 left the school for various employments, after passing through several grades of the school, which therefore leaves 91 on the list.

“*Progress in reading and spelling.*—Fifty-five have learned to read in the Old and New Testaments, and are all able to spell words of three, four, and five syllables; 26 are now learning to read Dr. Watts's hymns and spell words of two syllables; 10 are learning words of four and five letters. Of 59 out of the whole number admitted that did not know a single letter, 20 can now read the Bible and spell words of three, four, and five syllables; 29 read Dr. Watts's hymns and spell words of two syllables; and 10, words of four and five letters.

“*Progress in writing.*—Fifty-five scholars are able to write on paper, and many of this number can write a good German-text hand, who never attempted a single letter of the kind before they came to your institution. Twenty-six are writing words of two and three syllables on slates; 10, words from two to five letters on slates. All those scholars that have left the school could write a tolerable and many a capital hand when they left the institution.

“*Progress in arithmetic.*—Twenty-six scholars are in reduction, single and double rule of three direct, and practice; 23 are rapidly progressing through the first four rules of arithmetic, both simple and compound.”

This pioneer public school report was a concise, business-like statement of the work of the school, unincumbered by any modern psychological discussions. The law of apperception had not been discovered, the idea of culture epochs had not come, and the principles of correlation, coordination, concentration, and interest were away in the dim future.

In 1815, on the recommendation of the trustees, the city council established two boards in place of the one previously existing; one for the first school district, comprising the First and Second wards of the city, and the other for the second school district, comprising the Third and Fourth wards. This movement was apparently a step backward.

On the 30th of July, 1821, the Lancasterian school took possession of the small brick building on the southeast corner of Fourteenth and G streets NW., formerly occupied as a stable for President Jefferson's horses, the use of the building having been granted to the public schools. On that spot now stands the attractive floral establishment of John H. Small & Sons.

The formal taking possession was a noted event. “At 10 o'clock a procession of girls and boys, between 130 and 140 in number, preceded by their teachers and followed

by the trustees, moved from the old and incommo-
dious building on F street to that prepared for them opposite to the Foundry Chapel. An address was delivered by the president of the board, who congratulated the assembly on the improvements in the system of learning and on the immense benefits promised, 'particularly to the poorer classes of society.' He hoped that this institution, supported as it was by the corporation and by the General Government, which had generously allowed the use of the building, would be the means of rescuing their fellow-creatures 'from the doom of ignorance and obscurity.'

Mr. Joseph Lancaster, the founder of the system of schools bearing his name, was an enthusiastic but somewhat visionary schoolmaster, who adopted an inexpensive method of educating especially the masses of poor children. The curriculum of his schools included reading, writing, arithmetic, and the Bible. In his original school in London he enrolled 1,000 pupils to be taught by himself assisted by designated pupils, called monitors, the more competent assisting in managing and instructing the less competent. He had inscribed over his schoolhouse door:

"All that will may send their children and have them educated freely, and those that do not wish to have education for nothing may pay for it if they please."

One of his mottoes was: "Let every child have at all times something to do and a motive for doing it."

The motives which he incited were not altogether the highest, but more readily accessible in large numbers of his pupils, who under the circumstances could not be moved by an appeal to more transcendental ones. He relied chiefly upon a lavish system of rewards. He said: "It is no unusual thing for me to deliver one or two hundred prizes at the same time; and at such times the countenances of the whole school exhibit a most pleasing scene of delight, as the boys who obtain prizes commonly walk round the room in procession, holding the prizes in their hands, and preceded by a herald proclaiming the fact before them."

His punishments were "devices for bringing the public opinion of the orderly portion of the school to bear upon the offender by means of ridicule."

He came to the United States in 1818 and visited other countries. His system had great popularity in its day, was adopted in most of the civilized countries of the world, and did much good. Some features of it apparently found their way at an early date into the public schools of this city, notably the making use of selected pupils to assist in teaching, who were designated in the Washington schools "sub-assistants" instead of "monitors," and the elaborate system of prizes, which were continued for many years, but were gradually eliminated as the condition of the schools improved and they could be dropped without detriment.

In 1836 Mr. Joshua L. Henshaw was appointed teacher of the Western School, and at the end of his first year, in concluding his annual report, expresses his opinion of the character and value of the system on which the school is conducted, and his pleasure in doing so, as the result of his experience has been to satisfy his mind that it was admirably adapted for effecting the purposes intended; and he commends an economy that, at a yearly cost of \$875, confers the benefit of education, in a single year, on 303 children.

Mrs. Emma D. E. N. Southworth, an American novelist, who still survives and is a resident of this city, was a stepdaughter of Mr. Henshaw, and was for some years also a teacher in the public schools of Washington.

The two original schools, supplemented for several years by the Lancasterian school, and for a short period by two subsidized Presbyterian schools, ran an intermittent course, without any considerable growth or improvement. The public-school system was handicapped at the start by class distinctions introduced in the provision for poor and pay pupils, by being established in slave territory, and by a lack of funds. Slavery and free schools can not flourish side by side, and for forty years the system struggled against a hostile environment without any substantial progress.

The epithets in such phrases as "charity schools," "poor children," "pauper pupils" are found freely scattered through the early records, until at last the school

system became so odious that it was of little value to any class of children, and a more enlightened and liberal public sentiment successfully protested against its longer continuance on its original basis.

TRANSITIONAL PERIOD—1845 TO 1860.

At the beginning of this period three men appeared upon the stage who had advanced ideas of a public school system—Mayor Seaton, the junior editor of the *National Intelligencer*; Councilman James F. Halliday, afterwards city collector of taxes, and School Trustee George J. Abbot, afterwards confidential secretary to Daniel Webster and United States consul at Sheffield, England.

As early as 1840 Mayor Seaton in his annual message had called attention to the census of that year, which showed that the whole number of children in the city between the ages of 4 and 16, inclusive, was 5,390; number in the public schools, 213; number in private schools, 776; whole number in school, 989; number not attending any school, 4,401.

He recommended the adoption of the New England plan, involving taxation of assessable property and universal eligibility, applicable, of course, only to white children.

Councilman Halliday heartily supported Mayor Seaton's more liberal policy, and in 1845, under his leadership, four school districts had been established, one board of trustees, consisting of three members from each district, had been substituted for the two boards previously existing, the fee for tuition of pay scholars had been reduced to the small sum of 50 cents a month and was shortly abolished entirely, and much larger appropriations were made, which enabled the board to establish several additional schools.

The members of the new board of trustees were: First district, Robert Farnham, George J. Abbot, and John F. Hartley; second district, Peter Force, Thomas Donoho, and John C. McKelden; third district, Noble Young, William M. Ellis, and Joseph P. Engle; fourth district, Thomas Blagden, Ignatius Mudd, and Aaron Miller.

They framed a code of rules so excellent that many of them, with little or no material change, have been in force ever since, and are to be found in the code of to-day.

Trustee Abbot, a graduate of Harvard College, thoroughly familiar with the New England public-school system, and then the principal of a private school of high repute in this city, was the intelligent, active, and persistent leader in the school board. Among the advocates of the reform who rendered substantial service by voice and pen were the Hon. John Quincy Adams, Mr. Justice Woodbury, the Hon. Caleb Cushing, the Hon. Charles Hudson, the Rev. Edward Everett Hale, and other prominent citizens and residents.

There was some doubt as to the authority in the municipal charter to appropriate the revenue derived from taxes on assessable property for the support of public schools, but a tax of \$1 on every free white male citizen was levied for this purpose. During the first forty years the appropriations for the schools had shown an annual average of only \$1,511.92, while the annual average for the first four years succeeding the reorganization was \$5,345.90.

The board of trustees divided the schools into two grades, designated primary and district.

In 1845 the principal teachers in charge of the four district male schools were: First district, Mr. Joshua L. Henshaw; second district, Dr. Tobias Watkins; third district, Mr. Hugh McCormick; fourth district, Mr. Henry Hardy. The first special teacher of vocal music, Prof. J. H. Hewitt, was appointed the same year.

Mr. John E. Thompson succeeded Mr. Hardy as principal teacher of the fourth district male school in 1848, and there are hundreds of his pupils now living who hold his name in grateful remembrance and will testify to his zealous and thorough instruction.

Mr. Samuel Kelly, who was appointed to succeed Mr. Henshaw as the principal teacher of the first district male school in 1849, then occupying the Jefferson stable building, used to wind up his school and set it agoing like a clock, and then go out to call on his friends in the neighborhood and invite them to visit the school in his absence and see if it was not running all right. They would accept his invitation, go to the school, find every scholar sitting bolt upright at his desk with his eyes set on his book, and report to Master Kelly accordingly; and woe to the boys had it been otherwise.

Mr. Strong John Thomson, who commenced his service as a teacher in the public schools in 1852 and was promoted to be Mr. Kelly's successor in 1854, is now actively and efficiently performing his duties as the principal of the Abbot School, the senior of the corps, and without a rival in the number of Washington boys who have acquired under his tuition a sound and thorough education in the elementary studies.

Prof. Joseph H. Daniel was appointed teacher of vocal music in 1856, and I am happy to say has most acceptably filled that office down to the present time. The number of school children in this city whom he has gently and skillfully taught to sing during his long career would well-nigh equal the present population.

In 1858 the charter of the city was amended so as to authorize the levying of a tax on all assessable property for the support of public schools, and it provided that the revenue derived therefrom should be expended for no other purpose.

In the same year an act was passed by the city council which redefined the school districts, provided for the appointment of a board of trustees by the mayor, prescribed and enlarged their powers and duties, and generally outlined a more comprehensive and liberal school system. This organic act placed the schools under the independent administration of the board of trustees within prescribed limits, and, under this law, as their legal charter, they developed the system into its present form and, as a body, intelligently, faithfully, and zealously performed their official duties, down to 1885, when, contrary to all American precedents, and unfortunately for the schools, the District Commissioners assumed for themselves all the powers and duties pertaining to the management of the schools, and reduced the legal functions of a school trustee to those of a subordinate whose sole business it is to execute the orders of his superior.

The fifth section of this organic act contained the very proper and safe provision that no text-book should be changed unless by vote of two-thirds of the whole board of trustees, and it is still in force, although of late apparently ignored and possibly forgotten.

Notwithstanding the commendable progress I have indicated, there was ample room for greater improvement. An address published by the board of trustees in 1858 said "there is not at present, either rented from individuals or owned by the city, a single schoolroom entirely suited for school purposes."

During the years 1855-1860 the leading private and public school teachers and other citizens interested in education organized the Columbian Teachers' Association, of which some of the leading members were Secretary Joseph Henry, of the Smithsonian Institution; President Binney, of the Columbian College; Principals Zalmon Richards, of the Union Academy; Otis C. Wight, of the Rittenhouse Academy; Charles B. Young, of the Emerson Institute; John E. Thompson and Strong John Thomson, of the public schools, and Dr. S. L. Loomis. They met regularly, discussed practical educational questions, brought here prominent educators from abroad to deliver public lectures, and did much to improve the schools of the city, private and public, and to inform and interest the public mind on educational subjects. Under their auspices a school census of the city was taken and published December 10, 1857, which gave the following results:

Whole number of children in the city between the ages of 5 and 18, 10,697; number in public schools, 2,400—22.4 per cent; number in private schools, 3,228—30.1 per cent; number not in any school, 5,069—47.5.

Gradually an inexpensive two-room building had been erected in each of the four

school districts by the corporation, additional rooms, notably in basements of churches, had been rented, the walls and ceilings of which were punctiliously white-washed just before the annual examination of the schools; somewhat improved school furniture, appliances, and text-books had been introduced; night schools had been organized which flourished for a time, and at the end of the school year, in the latter part of July, long processions of all the school children in each district, marshaled by their respective teachers and trustees, with the flag of their country and school banners emblazoned with appropriate devices and legends, were seen marching along the streets and avenues on their way to the Capitol Grounds at an earlier date, and at a later one to the hall of the Smithsonian Institution, there to receive, in the presence of a large concourse of gratified relatives and friends at the hand of his honor the mayor, the prizes—honorable mention, certificates, diplomas, books, silver and gold medals—awarded for merit in attendance, punctuality, and scholarship. President Fillmore conferred these honors at the Capitol Grounds in 1850.

During the latter part of this period and the first part of the following one each school—that is, the teacher and pupils in a single room, usually isolated—had its distinctive banner, legend, colors, character, reputation, and pride, which it was bound to defend and maintain against all rivals with a spirit worthy of a highland clan of Scotland in the first half of the seventeenth century. This stage of the school system had its peculiar merits and attractions, and produced scholarship of the very highest order of excellence in certain lines, varying in different schools. The best teachers of that day who continued their work later sometimes looked back and sighed for a return of the golden age; but the rapid increase in the number of schools made its continuance an impossibility had it been desirable. It became necessary to subordinate something of individual freedom to the general good.

The following statement shows the growth of the school system during this period:

	1845.	1860.
Whole number of teachers.....	4	54
Whole number of pupils.....	500	4,500
Value of school property.....	\$1,500	\$30,000

The cloud of negro slavery still overshadowed the schools, and this small and poor municipality, with very little assistance from the National Government, struggling to make the city a fit home for the nation's capital, found itself without the means to establish and support a public school system adequate to supply even the still quite limited demands of public sentiment.

THE DEVELOPMENTAL PERIOD—1860 TO 1885.

Of the third period I can speak more from personal knowledge and may be allowed to say *pars fui*, having been first appointed a member of the board of trustees in 1861 and the superintendent of public schools in 1870.

Early in this period the board of trustees was constituted as follows:

Mayor Richard Wallach, president *ex officio*; first district, J. Ormond Wilson, Richard T. Morsell, Robert Ricketts; second district, William J. Rhees, Mitchell H. Miller, Charles H. Utermehle; third district, Otis C. Wight, Dr. Francis S. Walsh, Frederick D. Stuart; fourth district, James E. Holmead, Jonas B. Ellis, John T. Cassell.

This board took as its motto: "Schools for all; good enough for the richest, cheap enough for the poorest."

Mayor Wallach was a most loyal and active supporter of the Union cause, and in his heart and administrative policy the advancement of the public schools of the capital city was second only to the preservation of the Union of the States. He regularly occupied the chair as the presiding officer at the meetings of the board of

trustees, was ever ready to give timely encouragement and counsel and to second the most advanced propositions, although often not knowing how he was to get the necessary funds to carry out the measures brought forward.

An application to the National Government for aid in establishing a public school system for the city of Washington was made as early as 1805, when the city authorities petitioned for a grant of some of the lots received by the Government from the original proprietors on the laying out of the city. In 1856, under the lead of Senator Brown, of Mississippi, a bill passed the Senate to appropriate from the Treasury of the United States for the support of the public schools in this city, for a term of years, a sum of money equal to that raised by the corporation for the same purpose. In 1858 another similar bill passed the Senate.

In 1874 a vigorous effort again was made to obtain aid for the schools from the National Government. It was based largely upon carefully prepared statistics showing: (1) What the National Government had done in the States and Territories from time to time in aid of education; (2) the large number of the "wards of the nation" to be educated, who had been thrown into this city by the exigencies of the civil war; (3) that about one-third of the regular attendance in the white schools was made up of children of nontaxpaying parents, who were engaged in Government service and held their citizenship elsewhere, (4) and that the National Government was the owner of one-half of all the property in the District of Columbia. This appeal was unanimously and strongly indorsed by the department of superintendence of the National Educational Association, then holding its annual session in this city. None of these efforts availed to secure the passage of a bill for the benefit of the schools through both Houses of Congress.

Liberal donations of city lots were made to Georgetown and Columbian colleges, but the only assistance ever received from the Congress by the public schools was the permission to occupy temporarily three or four vacant public lots or parts of public reservations, the gift in fee of the old Jefferson stable, the use of the old Union and Anacostia engine houses, and the site of the Force School, so long as they should be occupied for school purposes, the gift of an old frame building, a relic of the war, located on leased ground at the corner of Twenty-second and I streets NW., and on one or two occasions the advance of a sum from the United States Treasury to pay salaries of teachers in arrears, with a proviso for its repayment—a beggarly list of old clothes and small loans for short periods—until we come down to 1878, when the Congress assumed the payment of one-half of all the expenses of the District of Columbia, including those of the public schools. The District was then so heavily involved in debt that the public schools did not receive the full benefit of this national aid until after the close of the period of which I am writing.

By an act of the Congress approved April 16, 1862, slavery in the District of Columbia was abolished, and by a proclamation of President Lincoln dated January 1, 1863, slavery throughout the rest of the United States received its deathblow. The greatest obstacle to a proper development of the public school system was at last removed, leaving only the financial inability of the municipality to delay its progress; but this was greatly increased by the additional burdens imposed by the civil war.

In 1860 a tax of 10 cents on every \$100 of assessable property was levied specially for the support of schools, and in 1862 an additional tax of 5 cents on every \$100 of assessable property was levied specially for the purchase of sites and the erection of schoolhouses. The grading and designation of the schools was changed from primary and district to primary, secondary, intermediate, and grammar, a nomenclature better suited to the improved classification of pupils already effected. Each of these terms included a two years course of study.

The trustees had at last discovered the reason for the schoolboy's general want of respect for his desk and schoolroom—the desk and room were not respectable; and so they began to expel the desk and room instead of the boy. This change of policy proved very satisfactory. In the primary schools the little, loose, noisy, four-legged

chair without desk, and in the higher grades the old soft-pine double desk of rudest make and finish, usually with a board seat supported on the back of the rear desk, carved with a jackknife after the most fantastic designs and decorated free-hand with ink, were replaced by the Boston cherry single desk, mounted on iron standards of graceful pattern, and a comfortable chair supported by a single iron pedestal—all the product of the most skilled workmanship in wood and iron. The available portions of the walls of the schoolroom were converted into blackboards, and more abundant globes, maps, charts, reference books, and other useful appliances followed in the train.

The number of schools had been increased, the pupils had been better classified, better furniture and more appliances had been furnished, and the text-books, courses of study, and methods of teaching were in the line of progress; but the schoolhouses and rooms, largely rented to the corporation because their owners could find no other tenants, were totally unfit habitations for the schools. They were isolated, not in convenient locations, not of proper size or shape, generally without playgrounds, without cloakrooms, and the lighting, heating, ventilation, and all other sanitary arrangements were of the most primitive and defective character.

The board of trustees resolved to first provide a schoolhouse in a central position in each of the four school districts, large enough to hold all the schools of higher grade, and then to distribute around it at convenient points smaller schoolhouses enough to accommodate all the primary scholars. As the citizens of East Washington, then as now, were noted for an intelligent recognition of their interests and a vigorous assertion of their rights, it was believed that the surest and shortest route to the accomplishment of the whole plan must have its starting point in that section of the city, and although all sections were so needy that comparisons would have been odious, it was decided to locate the first schoolhouse of the series in the third district.

By an act of the city council passed at the instance of the board of trustees and approved October 18, 1862, the mayor as chairman, 2 aldermen, 2 councilmen, and 4 school trustees were created a joint committee with full authority to purchase a site and erect thereon a school building, and the same act appropriated the schoolhouse fund, amounting to about \$15,000 a year, to that purpose.

The respective boards appointed their representatives authorized by the act, and the joint committee was constituted as follows: Mayor Richard Wallach, chairman ex officio; Aldermen A. C. Richards and George H. Plant; Councilmen Charles H. Utermehle and William M. Ellis; School Trustees J. Ormond Wilson, Mitchell H. Miller, Dr. Francis S. Walsh, and Jonas B. Ellis.

This method of purchasing sites, providing plans, and building schoolhouses through the agency of a joint committee appointed specially for the purpose was pursued for several years, and under it the Wallach, Franklin, Jefferson, Seaton, and other schoolhouses were erected.

A subcommittee was designated to select a site, and after a protracted and thorough canvass they recommended a portion of square 901, fronting on Pennsylvania avenue, between Seventh and Eighth streets SE., belonging to Georgetown College. As the result of an interview with the college authorities, they reported to Mayor Wallach that the price of the whole square was \$7,000, and that the corporation could buy such portion of it as might be wanted for a schoolhouse at the same rate. He very promptly responded, "We will take the whole square," and ordered the purchase to be concluded without delay. Thus, a large square, containing 107,834 square feet of ground, on which are now located the Wallach, the Towers, and the Eastern High School, with ample playgrounds, was bought for \$7,000, being at the rate of about 6½ cents a square foot.

The wisdom and foresight of Mayor Wallach in taking the whole square is now readily apparent, but at that time the committee had altogether only about \$15,000 at its disposal, and some of the members were unable to see how a modern schoolhouse architecturally attractive, containing 10 schoolrooms, each with seats for from

50 to 60 pupils, and a large hall in which all the pupils could be assembled for general purposes, could be paid for out of the balance of \$8,000 left after paying for the site.

The architects of the city were invited to submit plans for the building, and those prepared by Mr. Adolph Cluss, who had made an extensive study of the best school architecture in both this country and Europe, were accepted. Mr. Cluss subsequently prepared the plans and superintended the construction of the Franklin, Sumner, Seaton, Curtis, and Cranch school buildings. In hygienic, pedagogic, and architectural arrangements, the Wallach was in advance of its time, and the promise of better things to come. In April, 1866, a commission of the Boston school board and city council with Superintendent Philbrick visited the principal cities of the country to inspect schools and schoolhouses, and on their return home reported that the "Wallach School was in external architecture the most attractive school visited, while the Franklin School (not then finished) in its size, plans, etc., promised to be unsurpassed in the country.

The Wallach School building, in the presence of a large assemblage of interested citizens, was dedicated on the Fourth of July, 1864, with formal ceremonies, the most notable part of which was the scholarly, eloquent, and inspiring address of the Hon. James W. Patterson, then a Representative in Congress from New Hampshire.

In their annual report at the close of this school year the trustees said:

"It may be of interest to those who are to come after us to find it here recorded, that in this city, burdened with extraordinary expenses, distracted by the convulsions of a civil war, thronged with passing troops, in close proximity to great armies, at times within the sound of hostile cannon and almost in a state of siege, the public schools in the midst of all these adverse circumstances have not only steadily continued to dispense their benefits to the community, but have so advanced in usefulness as to mark the three years just ended as the beginning of a new and proud era in their history."

The term school had heretofore been applied to the pupils in a single room, in charge of one teacher; and some schools deservedly had acquired a wide local reputation for their excellence; notably among the girls' schools were the fourth district grammar school, taught for many years by Mrs. Margaret Milburn Amidon, whose name after her death was most appropriately given to one of the school buildings, and the first district grammar school, taught by Miss Annie E. Evans.

The best schools here and there were most useful object lessons and were held up as standards to be reached by all. Occasionally a bright, accomplished teacher, who had received a professional education at some one of the best normal schools of the country, was appointed to a position in this city and brought new and better methods, which were gradually absorbed by other teachers and so came into general use. In the absence of a normal school and supervision other than that of the trustees, no one means was found so effective in improving the schools as that of having in operation for observation and study schools of high standard producing actual results. Such schools could be visited by other teachers, their results could not be gainsaid, and their methods in producing them could be studied, while pedagogical theories, however ably presented in books or lectures, left room for doubts, discussions, and delays.

The advent of the Wallach School ushered in a new era not only in school architecture, but also in school discipline, and the coordination of the work of teachers in different grades. For the first time ten schools of several grades were brought together in one building, the teachers of which were in daily intercourse and became better acquainted with each other's work. Mr. William W. McCathrau, a highly accomplished teacher and most estimable gentleman, was appointed the first principal of the school and worked out the new and vexatious problem assigned to him with admirable tact and patience. This change broadened the horizon of the

corps of teachers affected by the new organization; their professional outlook in their isolated situation theretofore had been limited to the narrow section of the course of study assigned to the grade in which they taught.

The other central district school buildings included in the plan stated above were the Franklin in the first district, finished in 1869, the Seaton in the second district, in 1871, and the Jefferson in the fourth district, in 1872.

It was Mayor Wallach's great ambition to signalize his administration by giving to the capital city the best public schoolhouse in America.

In getting possession of the most central and eligible site for the Franklin School many obstacles were encountered. The property belonged to minor heirs whose guardian must give consent, an order from the court must be obtained, the sale must be made by auction, and the strenuous opposition of influential neighbors must be outflanked; but, nevertheless, the ground, containing 14,945½ square feet, was purchased by the corporation at the rate of \$1.26 a square foot, and cost \$20,474.01.

The contracts for the building were given out by piecemeal, and with numerous delays, so that four years following the close of the civil war were consumed in its erection, and the currency had become so depreciated that in 1864 \$1 in gold sold for \$2.85 in currency, and the expense of building, under the circumstances, was more than twice as great as it would be to-day. The cost of the building was \$187,229.71.

It, however, richly repaid its cost in lifting the public school system to its proper place in the estimation of the public. The pernicious idea of charity schools for poor children, on which the system was founded, and which had hitherto clung to it with seemingly insuperable tenacity, disappeared at once and forever. Applications for admission to the Franklin School, including those from the wealthiest and most aristocratic classes, from the day of opening, were received far beyond its capacity; distance of residence was considered no obstacle to attendance, and the schools themselves so fortunate as to be located there were impelled to make an advance that they might maintain the reputation that the building had suddenly given them.

The Franklin School, in its elevated and prominent location, grand proportions, and architectural characteristics, became at once one of the sights of the capital city. Gen. Francis A. Walker said that whenever he passed that noble American public schoolhouse he turned to look, and felt like lifting his hat in token of respect; and even to-day, more than a quarter of a century after its dedication, the intelligent guide, in making the rounds of the capital city to show to tourists its chief attractions, as he drives along Franklin Park halts and points with pride to the Franklin School.

The dedication of those earlier schoolhouses with formal ceremonies attracted wide attention. They were noted events in the history of the schools and contributed to their progress. The houses were crowded with interested citizens who came to hear addresses by eminent men; at the Seaton, Gen. Francis A. Walker and Gen. William T. Sherman, and at the Jefferson, Governor Cook, Prof. Joseph Henry, Professor Tyndall, the English scientist, the Hon. John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, and others. In time the advent of a new schoolhouse became so frequent and common an occurrence that formal dedications were abandoned.

In 1865 occurred a memorable incident in the history of the schools. The veteran armies of the Union, returning to their homes in the North, were to march past the Capitol on their route up Pennsylvania avenue to be reviewed from a stand in front of the Executive Mansion by the President of the United States, their commander in chief, the Secretary of War, the generals who had led them to victory, and other distinguished citizens. Every available spot along the entire route from which a glimpse of a procession, the like of which in interest and grandeur never had been witnessed before and may never be again in our country, was crowded with a most eager, grateful, and enthusiastic throng of citizens and visitors who had come from far and wide.

The public schools of the city were to participate in the ovation, and promptly at the hour named thousands were in the place assigned to them on the north portico of the Capitol and all down the grassy slope of the park in front extending to the line of march.

In the early morning of that bright and lovely 23d day of May, there they stood, all expectancy, in their spring attire, decorated with rosettes of "the red, white, and blue," laden with bouquets of fragrant flowers and floral wreaths, waving thousands of miniature flags, and bearing aloft a multitude of banners of their respective schools, while high over all was displayed the great standard of that young army, inscribed: "The public schools of Washington welcome the heroes of the Republic. Honor to the brave."

As the famous General Custer approached the boys stepped forward and presented to him a large wreath of the choicest flowers, which he most gallantly and gracefully received and threw over his shoulder; when instantly his fiery charger, apparently frightened, stretched forward his neck and seeming to take the bit of the bridle in his teeth, furiously dashed down the hill and round into the avenue out of sight, carrying his rider, sitting firmly in the saddle, but bent forward, with his long and profuse Saxon locks streaming back in the wind, while the school children looked on in amazement and deep concern; their anxiety was soon relieved, however, by the welcome news that the horse did not get away from his rider, and then came the pleasant surmise that the "runaway" was only a ruse to compliment the school children with a little exhibition of his horsemanship.

For six hours during the march, without sign of weariness, the boys and girls presented their floral offerings, waved their flags, rent the air with cheers, and at intervals a grand chorus of 2,500 voices, under the lead of Director Daniel, sang *The Star Spangled Banner*, *Battle Cry of Freedom*, *When Johnny Comes Marching Home*, *Victory at Last*, and other patriotic songs and hymns, all of which were most gratefully received and heartily acknowledged by officers and soldiers. From all sides the highest praises were showered upon that great chorus of school children; and the sight of those grand armies with their bronzed faces, soiled uniforms, and tattered flags was to them an object lesson in patriotism never to be forgotten.

In this connection I am reminded that during the period of which I am writing the singing of the school children was so highly appreciated by the public that concerts with programmes made up for the most part of selections from their course of study in music so as not to interfere with their regular school work were given always to crowded houses. The proceeds of these concerts in the days of limited school appropriations were indispensable in supplying many things not otherwise provided for. All the pianos and other musical instruments, most of the important reference books, all the expenses incident to the various school exhibits made from time to time at home and abroad, and other things greatly needed were paid for in this way. A safe estimate of the total amount received from concerts and applied to the purposes mentioned would be at least \$50,000.

In 1871, when the American and British Joint High Commission to arbitrate the Alabama Claims and other questions in dispute between the two countries met in this city, Sir Stafford Henry Northcote took up his residence near by the Franklin School, which he passed daily, and as he was about to leave the city, in June, he addressed a note to the superintendent, saying he had so highly enjoyed the singing of the children in that school, as their sweet young voices had reached him through the open windows, that he desired to visit the school, hear them sing again before his departure, and personally thank them for the greatest pleasure he had experienced during his stay in Washington, and accordingly he spent a morning in visiting those schools.

As the main source of supply of teachers was the young graduates of the public schools without any special training or even a high-school education, the most difficult problem of all to be solved was how to provide a corps of teachers not only

competent to do the work as it then was done, but also to keep step with the progress marked out for the future.

As I have said, the only supervision provided up to this time was that of the board of trustees, and although in its membership there were always to be found men of liberal education and usually some with more or less experience in teaching, yet as their services to the schools were gratuitous they could not afford to allow them to interfere seriously with their regular business.

Various means were employed to supply, as far as practicable then, the inadequacy of professional supervision and leadership. An institute, embracing the whole corps of teachers, was organized in 1863, under the conduct of Mr. Zalmon Richards, which held its meetings every Saturday for several months of the year and was well attended. Classes of school pupils were frequently present; the programme included both the theory and practice of teaching, and all the branches of study taught in the schools received attention. Lectures or talks were given by the conductor, trustees, and eminent educators, such as Prof. Joseph Henry, Henry Barnard, the editor of the *American Journal of Education* and afterwards United States Commissioner of Education, Mr. B. G. Northrop, agent of the Massachusetts State board of education, and the Hon. George S. Boutwell, then a member of Congress, but previously the secretary of the Massachusetts State board of education.

Great educators and teachers who represented the soundest educational psychology and pedagogy were brought here time and again for service in the line of teaching, to which they had specially devoted their lives. In mathematics, Professor Davies, of the Military Academy at West Point; in reading, Prof. Mark Bailey, of Yale College; in vocal music, Prof. L. W. Mason, a supervisor of vocal music in the Boston public schools and the author of a series of music charts and text-books still more widely used than any other in the public schools of this country; in geography, Professor Apgar, of the State normal school of New Jersey; in penmanship, Professor Spencer, well known in connection with the excellent system of penmanship bearing his name; in drawing, Prof. Walter Smith, of whom I shall have more to say.

All these men were not merely great teachers of their specialties, but more, great educators in a broader sense, and they gave an impulse to the schools that had not expended its force at the close of the period of which I am writing.

Their lessons were practical, accompanied by illustrations, and full of instruction and encouragement. They not only taught the teachers specifically how to do their work more intelligently and thus save time for new work, how to do new work, and, what is better, inspired them with the zeal and self-confidence essential to success, but they also enriched them with a knowledge and understanding of those fundamental principles of all pedagogy which would enable them to devise good methods of their own. These men rendered most valuable services in giving a solid character to the system as it was developed.

"As is the teacher so is the school" is an old and true adage, and the schools will advance only as does the corps of teachers. At first the course of study in the elementary schools included but little more than reading, writing, and arithmetic, and as each new study knocked at the door for admission an early objection to be met was the fact that the teachers were not qualified to give instruction in the proposed new subject; and many times, as notably in the case of vocal music and drawing, it was quite confidently believed even by the teachers themselves that some subjects never could be taught by other than special teachers. That meant an additional expense which was often an insuperable obstacle. In developing a public school system, therefore, the most important work of all is that of inspiring the teachers with a love of their work and an earnest desire to improve and multiply their qualifications and then furnishing them with the best facilities for so doing.

In 1869 the city council provided for a superintendent of public schools and thus supplied a most important factor in the further development of the system. Soon after the passage of the act, Mr. Zalmon Richards, heretofore spoken of, was appointed

the first superintendent. An office of this kind is never a sinecure. Its occupant does not embark for a pleasure voyage on a summer sea. Many times he must be chart, compass, captain, pilot, and man of all work, and will find himself in stormy weather sailing between Scylla and Charybdis. He must not go too fast or too slow, too far to the right or too far to the left, lest he may fail to gain and hold the confidence and loyalty of the corps of teachers whom he is to lead or the general approbation and support of the school board and the public, all of which are essential to his highest success.

The highest prize awarded in the public schools is a scholarship in the Columbian College. It was first given in 1855 by the medical department of that institution, largely through the instrumentality of its dean, Dr. Thomas Miller. This was followed by an interval of three years, when Mr. George Riggs gave a scholarship in 1859, and Dr. William Gunton gave one in 1860. The college itself then gave one annually for eight successive years.

The authorities of the college not feeling able to continue their annual gifts longer, in 1869 President George W. Samson and the writer called upon the Hon. Amos Kendall, then residing at what is now No. 708 Eleventh street NW., and at a ripe old age in person administering upon that portion of his estate intended for benevolences. We represented to him the good which had already been done by these scholarships, both to their recipients and to the schools in general, and the desirability of a foundation that would make them regular and perpetual.

As a result of this interview, shortly after he tendered to the board of trustees of the Columbian College \$6,000, the amount that had been suggested to him as sufficient to found a perpetual annual scholarship, upon condition "that the trustees of the public schools in the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, and their successors, by whatever names they may be called, shall have the perpetual privilege of selecting from said schools one pupil annually to fill said scholarship, and the pupils so selected shall each be entitled to instruction in said college for the term of six years, free of charge for tuition, use of library and apparatus, and for any other privileges allowed to paying students of the same grade." The gift was accepted by both the college and the school authorities, and it was declared that thereafter the first prize in the public schools annually should be the "Kendall scholarship."

The award of this scholarship in the Columbian College has been an event of public interest and notice annually since that date, and this beneficent gift to the schools has an unlimited future of usefulness which each year will recall with honor the name of its donor.

A glance at this scholarship roll, already quite long, sustains its claim to the highest honor conferred by the public schools. One finds there such names as Fabian Franklin, 1864, a distinguished mathematician and late Professor in Johns Hopkins University; Theodore W. Noyes, 1870, now assistant editor of the Evening Star of this city; Howard L. Hodgkins, 1878, now a professor in the Columbian University, and many others widely and favorably known in their respective callings.

In 1870 Mr. Matthew G. Emery was elected mayor of the city, and among his appointments was that of the writer to the office of superintendent of schools. Although Mayor Emery's administration was abruptly cut short at the end of the first year of his term of office by a change of the form of government of the District of Columbia, he made manifest his deep interest in the public schools by giving to them the Seaton and commencing the Jefferson and the Cranch buildings.

By an act of Congress, approved February 21, 1871, a Territorial government for the District of Columbia was established to supersede the several local municipal governments theretofore existing and to go into effect on the 1st day of the following June. It provided for a governor and a legislative assembly composed of an upper and a lower house.

The colored schools of Washington as originally established by the Congress in their management were entirely independent of the local municipal governments,

and no change was made in this respect by the act creating the new form of government.

The legislative assembly of the new District government by acts approved August 21 and 23, 1871, created the offices of superintendent of the Georgetown schools and superintendent of the county schools.

The governor reappointed the superintendent of the Washington schools and extended his jurisdiction to the Georgetown schools. He appointed Mr. Benjamin P. Davis superintendent of the county schools, who revised the course of study, improved the method of examining and certificating teachers, was instrumental in securing three larger and more commodious new schoolhouses, and generally discharged the duties of his office with intelligence and efficiency, but he retired at the end of a year, and the superintendence of these schools was then assigned to the superintendent of the Washington and Georgetown schools; and thus were the first steps taken toward a consolidation of the four school systems.

The legislative assembly also increased the tax levied for the support of schools, at one time in Washington to 60 cents on each \$100 of the assessment, in Georgetown to 40 cents, and in the county to 50 cents.

The first governor of the District of Columbia, the Hon. Henry D. Cooke, had a high appreciation of the importance of education and an earnest desire to further the progress of the public schools, whose general interests were committed to his executive care, but the condition of the district treasury, as usual, prevented the full realization of the most liberal intentions. He, however, erected the Curtis School building in Georgetown, under circumstances that would have been a bar to any attempt on the part of most men. He commenced without any funds whatever in his treasury available for building schoolhouses, and borrowed the money from the trustees of two hitherto unapplied funds, which had been given to Georgetown some years before; one by Mr. Edward Magruder Linthicum, who had left a legacy of \$50,000 to found a school for "indigent white boys and youths," and the other by Mr. George Peabody, who had given \$15,000 to found a public library. Agreements were made under which these funds were borrowed for the purpose of erecting a large central schoolhouse for Georgetown, in which two suitable rooms were to be provided and set apart for the use of the trustees of said funds; one for a library to which the public schools were to have free access, the room to be fitted up, the books furnished, and the library managed by the Peabody trustees; and the other for a night school of a practical and industrial character, the room to be fitted up with laboratories, apparatus, and other appliances, and the school to be managed by the Linthicum trustees. Both of these institutions were to work in direct lines of projected improvements in the public schools, and so these funds became of twofold use in their time. The Curtis building was erected, and the two institutions occupied the rooms assigned to them and did a most important educational work that otherwise would have been postponed for several years. Eventually these loans were repaid, and the Linthicum trustees withdrew from the Curtis building and provided elsewhere a flourishing independent establishment for their institution; but the Peabody Library still continues its connection with the public schools, and is now especially valuable to the Western High School.

By an act of Congress, approved March 3, 1873, the governmental control of the colored schools of Washington and Georgetown was transferred from the United States Department of the Interior to the government of the District of Columbia, and it was made the duty of the governor to appoint a board of trustees, a secretary, a treasurer, and a superintendent for the practical management of these schools. They had been provided with a superintendent from the start, and Governor Cooke, in the performance of the duties imposed upon him by the act referred to, reappointed the incumbent of the office, Mr. George F. T. Cook. Thus another step was taken in the direction of consolidation.

By an act of the legislative assembly, approved June 23, 1873, the board of trustees

of public schools of the city of Washington was authorized to establish a normal school for the professional training of teachers.

A school of this kind would not only gradually supply the elementary schools with teachers specially educated and trained in both the theory and practice of their profession, but its work could always be made a practical illustration of the most advanced and best educational thought. The school would send its graduates into the corps of teachers, and be visited, observed, and consulted with profit by other teachers, especially those employed in the lower grades. A good city normal school is a central fountain in which all that is best in education may find place and be made to flow out to every part of the system; and for this reason it was given precedence of a high school.

A large majority of the teachers in the public schools were necessarily women, and hitherto the chief source of supply had been the bright, young graduates from the grammar schools, without any special professional training or experience. The qualifications that ought to have been possessed before assuming the duties of a teacher had to be acquired afterwards, if at all, and at the expense of the pupils committed to her charge, during a longer or shorter period, according to the natural aptness of the young grammar-school graduate. Sometimes for sweet charity's sake there was a long probationary period, one, two, or more years, ending at last in failure.

And yet it required careful and protracted effort to get legislative authority for a normal school. The bill was drawn so as to appear to conservative legislators as harmless as possible. It provided only for "the special education of advanced pupils who were to become teachers in the public schools of this city;" it was to be located in the Franklin School building, so that no expense for renting or erecting a building on its own account should be incurred; it authorized the appointment of only one teacher, the principal, at a very fair salary, \$1,500 per annum, with a proviso "that no further expense should be incurred by this act than is now required for teachers in the public schools for the year ending June 30, 1874;" which, being interpreted, meant that the first class of pupils in the normal school, during the one year in which they were to get their professional training, must do enough teaching in the other schools to pay the expenses of their professional course. On this limited legal basis was the normal school commenced, built up, and rests to-day.

The school was very fortunate in its first principal, Miss Lucilla E. Smith, who, with superior natural aptitudes for her profession, was a graduate of one of the best normal schools of the country, subsequently a member of its faculty, and then a most successful teacher in several grades of city schools. Under her charge it soon won appreciation and favor, and its graduates well sustained all that had been claimed for the school. Great public interest was manifested in its annual commencements, and the large auditoriums used for those occasions were always crowded to overflowing, and often hundreds could not gain admission. At the commencement in 1875, Professor Henry delivered a short address, full of the soundest educational philosophy, in which he said:

"Another principle of human nature, very important in the art of the teacher, is that the several faculties of the human mind are not simultaneously developed, and the true system of education is that which meets these faculties in the order of their development. The earliest developed faculties are those of imitation; and in regard to education, we may divide them into two classes—the doing faculties, and the thinking faculties. By the doing faculties, I mean those mechanical habits which are essential to the acquisition of knowledge, and are pure arts, such as the art of reading, that of performing arithmetical operations with rapidity and correctness, that of expressing thoughts in legible characters and in words of grammatical arrangement. These arts can only be acquired by laborious drilling on the part of the teacher, and labor on the part of the pupil. They require little instruction but repetition, until they are performed with ease and almost pleasure. To neglect to impart these

habits is to do a great injury to the child; nothing should be substituted for them, though instruction in other branches which require more art and less thought may be mingled as recreations with them."

The paramount importance of a thorough knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and of laborious drill and repetition in teaching them to young pupils in common schools, is forcibly stated in the part of his address quoted. No amount of "ologies" and "osophies" can compensate for the want of thoroughness here, any more than additional branches can compensate for unsoundness in the trunk of a tree.

The graduating class of 1881 received their diplomas from President Garfield just a few days before his assassination, and the class of 1883 received theirs from President Arthur, who said that he himself commenced work in life as the teacher of a little country common school in Vermont, on a salary of \$14 per month and "board around."

Industrial and manual training was included in the general plan for developing and improving the system of public schools, and this year, 1873, a beginning was made. As a knowledge of drawing underlies all other industrial and technical education and all manual training, it must be made the basis of the industrial education projected for the schools.

The first step taken was the appointment of Mrs. Susan E. Fuller as director of drawing, who was specially qualified for such a position, and has successfully filled the office since that date. The next step was to adopt a system of industrial drawing that would lead to practical results. A worthless so-called system of drawing had been introduced in 1868, but the only parties who had received any benefit from it were the author and publisher of the books used by the pupils.

It so happened that in 1870 the city of Boston and the State of Massachusetts had become so impressed with the necessity of improving the designs and workmanship of their manufactures that in order to hold their own against foreign competition they had brought over from England Prof. Walter Smith, an art master, trained in the famous South Kensington Art School, and for some time himself the head of a leading art school in England, to inaugurate a comprehensive system of teaching industrial drawing in the public schools of that city and State. His system was constructed upon the theory that all intelligent school-teachers could qualify themselves for teaching drawing as well as any other branch of the curriculum, and in order to introduce this subject into the public schools it was only necessary to employ a general director competent to lay out a course of study suited to the circumstances, to instruct the regular teachers so far as might be needed, and to supervise their work in the schools. He soon designed a series of text-books and manuals embodying his system, and they were at once adopted for use in the public schools of this city.

Prof. Walter Smith was one of the few men whose rare genius creates new epochs in their sphere of activity. The great forward movement in industrial and technical art education in this country during the past quarter century, received its right direction and greatest impulse from him, and the beneficent results of his labors are now to be seen throughout the length and breadth of the land. He assisted by his counsel in introducing into the schools of Washington the system that has produced the most satisfactory results here, and twice visited the city personally for this purpose. His numerous lectures here and elsewhere were masterpieces in their line. No teacher has ever appeared in this country to whom a more honest and larger debt of gratitude is due; and yet his fate, like many another, was a sad one. He became a naturalized citizen and hoped to end his days in his adopted country; but at the end of twelve years incompatibility of temper and mercantile greed stopped his great work here, and in bitter disappointment and poverty sent him back to England, where he was most heartily welcomed and immediately placed at the head of a prominent art school. Shortly after, when not yet past the meridian of a most useful and promising life, he died of a broken heart. On his tomb

might well be inscribed, as a legend, the lines which Virgil posted over the palace gate of Augustus :

Sic vos non vobis nificatis aves;
 Sic vos non vobis vellera fertis oves;
 Sic vos non vobis mellificatis apes;
 Sic vos non vobis fertis aratra boves.

Very few if any of the teachers were then qualified to give the required instructions in drawing. They however undertook the task of preparing themselves for their new duty with the most commendable good will and earnestness. A regular course of study for teachers, extending through several years, was mapped out by Mrs. Fuller, and the whole corps of teachers cheerfully became students under her instruction every Saturday morning during a considerable portion of each year. As they progressed, examinations were held and graduated certificates were given, until they were all duly qualified for their new work. Meanwhile the normal school included this subject in its curriculum and sent forth all its graduates admirably equipped to teach drawing.

It required some time to bring public opinion to a correct appreciation of the nature and value of the new study; to make it understood that its main object was not to make artists, but artisans. For this purpose an annual exhibition of drawing was held to which the public were invited, and as a part of the exercises addresses were delivered by men familiar with the general educational value of the new study as well as its practical relation to all industries. At the annual exhibition in 1877 Professor Henry made one of his felicitous and philosophical addresses. He was at the time physically so weak with his last illness as to require assistance in ascending the stairs to the hall of the Franklin building, and this effort was the last attestation of his deep interest in the public schools.

On these occasions only the actual results of the training received in the schools were allowed to be put on exhibition. The more artistic and to many eyes attractive work of extraordinary genius, and of those who had been trained by specialists outside of the schools, though offered in abundance at first, was rejected as not fairly representing the teaching of the schools.

Other work of the schools was also represented at these annual exhibitions; penmanship, map drawing and molding, compositions, examination papers, and a variety of subjects including manual training in its beginnings. No money had yet been appropriated specifically for instruction or materials in teaching the last named subject, but tentative experiments were being made as best they could be without money. There were two schools in the county, a white one at Benning and a colored one at Hillsdale, where excellent teaching in sewing and cooking was done; in the higher grades of the elementary schools and in the high school most creditable work was done in the way of making the apparatus to practically illustrate the principles of physics and other natural sciences taught in the schools. At the two public schools located at the Industrial Home above Georgetown, horticulture, floriculture, wood-work, sewing, cooking, and shoemaking were successfully taught. A room in the Franklin building was set apart at each annual exhibition for the products of this manual training, which attracted more and more attention. There one could see the practical results of manual training in all the lines indicated above. The teaching of shoemaking was notably successful for a time, and all the materials, tools, parts of the work as it progressed, the finished shoe, and the mended shoe, were fully represented in the exhibit.

The selection of a teacher of shoemaking was a very fortunate one. The teacher was an intelligent, apt, and enthusiastic young man, who very early in life had thoroughly learned both the theory and the practice of his art, and afterwards had studied theology. While employed in teaching shoemaking he wrote in poetry a treatise on the art of shoemaking and published an illustrated edition of his work. The treatise and illustrations were highly commendable, but the didactic part gained

nothing by the poetic form in which it was embodied. The fault may possibly have been in the subject. He left the school, and I know not whether shoemaking, theology, or the Muse has since claimed him as her own. I am confident, however, that the world has lost nothing by it, if the good shoemaker has stuck to his last.

As a further step in the introduction of industrial education into the schools, upon my recommendation, a standing committee of the board of trustees was given special charge of this subject, and it was made their duty to make a full examination into the subject and to report from time to time measures for its judicious and practical extension.

In 1873, also, the first exhibit of the public schools at an international exposition was made at Vienna. It included a model of the Franklin School building made on an exact scale, and in sections of a story each, so that they could be taken apart and studied in detail. It cost \$1,000, and was a center of attraction in the educational department of that exposition. In 1876 another exhibit of the schools was made at Philadelphia, in 1878 another at Paris, and in 1884 another at New Orleans. On each of these occasions the schools received the highest award of medals and diplomas made in the educational department of the expositions.

The exhibit at Paris was unique in its arrangement, and Dr. Philbrick, the superintendent in charge of the educational part of the United States section, gave it the post of honor in his court. It was made up of thousands of specimens of all kinds of scholars' work, from the lowest primary to the normal school, neatly bound in volumes, a complete set of text and reference books used in the schools, a set of the annual reports of the public schools, copies of all record books and blank forms used, a chart giving all the educational institutions of the city of Washington with full statistics of the same, a map of Washington showing the location of all its school-houses, large photographs and plans of the more important ones, and a model of the Henry School building. A very large Danner's revolving bookcase, some 6 feet or more square at the top, was made by the manufacturer expressly for this purpose and presented to the school authorities. Just below the top of the case drawers were placed to hold the charts, maps, large photographs, etc., and were so arranged that they could be drawn entirely out and made to rest at an angle convenient for handling and inspecting their contents. On the shelves below were arranged in a classified order the bound volumes of the exhibit. The case was surmounted by a very fine model of the Henry School building, made on an exact scale and in sections of a story each. The whole was accompanied by a full printed catalogue arranged in the order in which the articles were to be found, and giving all necessary explanations. At the request of the French Government the exhibit was left in Paris to be placed in the pedagogical museum in the Palais Bourbon.

By an act of Congress approved June 20, 1874, the Territorial form of government of the District of Columbia was abolished, and a government by three Commissioners was set up in its place, the Congress reserving to itself the legislative functions of government.

The Hon. William Dennison, of Ohio, the president of the first Board of Commissioners, was fully alive to the importance of the public schools among the many interests committed to his charge. He was in office at a time when the comprehensive system of improvements projected, carried out, and under way by the heroic treatment of Governor Shepherd left him a narrow financial margin for building up a school system, yet it is due to him to say that he gave the schools the full benefit of all that the law allowed, and always used his somewhat indefinite prerogatives and his influence to the fullest extent in their behalf. The public schools at no time have had a more sincere and intelligent friend in the executive chair, and most worthily has his name been given to one of the prominent schoolhouses of the city. Soon after he came into office, by orders of the Commissioners dated August 8 and September 9, 1874, the four boards of trustees of public schools were consolidated into one, consisting of 19 members, thus taking another step necessary to a union in one system.

In appointing the new board of trustees Commissioner Dennison, who had special charge of the schools, had taken care to appoint some men who had large and successful experience in teaching, conducting, and organizing schools here and elsewhere, and also to select the members so that they should fairly represent all the local and separate interests then existing. The following is the list of members:

Col. George W. Dyer, A. Hart, Dr. R. B. Detrick, William R. Woodward, Gen. Charles E. Hovey, Edmund F. French, Elward Champlin, Benjamin F. Lloyd, W. W. Curtis, F. W. Moffat, John H. Brooks, Henry Johnson, William Perry Ryder, J. H. Ferguson, John Sullivan Brown, Rev. Claudius B. Smith, Solomon G. Brown, Philip L. Brooke, and Benjamin F. Packard.

In distributing the membership of the board the Commissioner recognized the school districts as they then existed and left any rearrangement that might be deemed desirable and all other details of the management of the schools as one system to the discretion of the new board of trustees. The task set before them was no light one. The schedules of salaries, the organization of the schools, the rules, the courses of study, the text-books used, and the state of advancement in the several systems varied more or less at that time; and there were the usual local preferences and jealousies to be subordinated and interests to be subserved. Commissioner Dennison, as governor of Ohio and otherwise, had had much to do with the excellent common schools of his own State, and his knowledge and experience made his counsel and influence valuable.

This board of trustees commenced by administering each of the former systems on its own basis, but gradually brought them all under a common educational régime with uniform courses of study and one code of rules. The rules which were then framed for a thorough and impartial examination of candidates for teachers' positions and promotions and granting graded certificates of qualifications were so excellent that they have been in force ever since without any material amendment.

As practically the schools now had yearly courses of study, the board abolished the nomenclature of primary, secondary, intermediate, and grammar grades, divided the schools into eight distinct grades, making the average work of a year constitute the course for each grade, and beginning with the lowest class designated it the first grade, and so on to the highest or eighth grade, with special provision for pupils to continue in the eighth grade two years, if this was found necessary in order to thoroughly complete the elementary course of study, which would give to a majority of pupils all the scholastic education needed for good citizenship and useful lives.

The white and the colored schools were separate, but were managed by a common board composed of a white and colored membership and had a common course of study and in all respects the same facilities. The unification of the school system had thus step by step reached its utmost practicable limit.

The schools increased so rapidly that the need of more professional supervision than could be given by the two superintendents was recognized, and in 1873 the first step toward supplying this want was taken by assigning an assistant teacher to a boys' eighth grade school in each district so that the principal might have some time for supervision of the other schools of his district. A little later the amount of time to be given to supervision by the principals was increased, although still teaching in and held responsible for their respective eighth-grade schools. Finally, in 1880, they were relieved of all teaching and responsibility in any special school, and became a corps of assistant superintendents, or supervising principals, as they were designated.

The colored schools of Washington and Georgetown, which had retained their separate superintendency under the consolidated arrangement of the schools, fell into line in the matter of additional supervision.

The old Territorial name of school district was done away with to avoid the confusion arising from the use of the same term as applied to all the territory of the

seat of Government, and the schools of the District of Columbia were divided into eight groups, designated divisions, and a supervising principal was assigned to take charge of each division. The following is the list of names of the first corps of supervising principals:

Henry N. Copp, Nathaniel P. Gage, Alexander T. Stuart, John E. Thompson, Bernard T. Janney, Joseph R. Keene, Henry P. Montgomery, and Winfield Scott Montgomery; all but two of these, Mr. Copp and Mr. Thompson, are now in the service.

By an act of the city council approved as far back as November 1, 1858, the establishment of a high school was ordered to go into effect September 1, 1861, or as soon thereafter as the corporation should provide accommodation for the same. That accommodation was never provided by the corporation, and, consequently, as the schools increased and were improved, one after another high-school study was added to the grammar-school curriculum until it became overcrowded and burdensome. Meanwhile public sentiment had veered around and was quite strong against spending public moneys on high-school education, for the present at any rate. On the other hand the advent of the normal school had emphasized the necessity of furnishing candidates of higher qualifications for that school, whose course of study, limited to one year, was designed to be entirely professional; in fact there was no time for academic studies.

In 1876, therefore, all the pupils in the girls' eighth-grade schools sufficiently advanced to take up high-school studies were placed under a competent teacher in one school, designated as advanced grammar school, with a one year's course of study. This first modest step toward a high school fortunately alarmed no one, and at the end of the year the experiment had been so successful that there was a general and urgent demand for a similar school for the boys; it was accordingly established in 1877. In 1879 the course of study in both schools was lengthened to two years; in 1880 they had become so popular that it was safe to name them high schools; and this was formally done. As I have already stated the Congress had provided for a high-school building in 1881, and it was ready for occupancy in 1882.

It was located on a portion of the western half of the square bounded by O, P, Sixth, and Seventh streets NW., which had been purchased at an earlier date by the corporation as a site for a market, but the Congress having been convinced that the city needed schools more than markets, appropriated it to the use of the former. The Henry and Polk schools also are located on the same half square. The fact that the corporation already owned ground that could be utilized for a site greatly facilitated the passage of the appropriation for a building. A like circumstance favored the appropriation for the Jefferson School at an earlier date. A part of the site already belonged to the corporation, having likewise been purchased a few years before for a market.

In 1882 the two high schools were united and installed in their new building, with three courses of study, business, English, and classical, the latter lengthened to three years. As the cost of education in a high school is more than twice as great per pupil as it is in elementary schools, it was deemed best to have a high standard of qualifications for entering the high school and a shorter course of study after admission rather than a low standard for entering followed by a long and more expensive high-school course.

This arrangement was based upon the theory advanced by Professor Henry, quoted above, that the simple but most important arts of reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic should be thoroughly taught in the lower grades of the schools and not be postponed to the high-school course, where, to say nothing of other disadvantages, the expense of acquiring these arts would be doubled.

Having a high standard for admission, the high school, with its three years course, had no difficulty whatever in preparing its pupils to enter any college in the country. The school was thoroughly equipped with physical, chemical, and other laboratories and all necessary appliances, and, as the nucleus of a reference and general library,

more than 5,000 valuable books of the old Washington Library Association, which had suspended operations a few years before, were turned over to the high school.

Mr. Edward A. Paul, an excellent organizer and executive officer, was appointed the first principal of the new high school, and he had to assist him a faculty of the brightest young men and women that could be found in the country. They were all full college graduates, and some of them had pursued post-graduate studies and taken the degree of doctor of philosophy. They were selected with reference to teaching special subjects, but at the same time were all-round teachers, as it was important they should be at that early stage of the school, when there was no money available for the employment of exclusive specialists. There was Mr. F. R. Lane, the present efficient and accomplished principal of the high school, who organized the course in English literature; Mr. George R. Israel, who organized the course in chemistry and the military training which has become so prominent and popular a feature of the school; Mr. Frank Angell, who organized the athletics, football, baseball, Indian clubs, etc.; Mr. C. Herschel Koyl, who organized the course in physics and the manual training; Mr. Elgin R. L. Gould, who organized the course in history and economics; Mr. Edward L. Burgess, who organized the courses in Greek and botany; Mr. William Bernhardt, who organized the course in German, and Mr. Camille Fontaine, who organized the course in French; and the eminent success which the high school at once achieved in all these and other lines of its undertakings was due to the intelligence, enthusiasm, and energy of its corps of bright young teachers.

But few of these first teachers are now in the school; some have died and others are filling high positions elsewhere. Mr. Angell is a professor in Leland Stanford Junior University, California; Mr. Gould, a lecturer in Johns Hopkins University, Maryland, and a well-known writer on economics; and Mr. Burgess, a professor in the New York Normal College.

The colored schools of Washington and Georgetown, while an independent organization, had established a high school at an early date, and a normal school for them followed close in the wake of that for the white schools.

The schools were growing so rapidly and making constant demands for new schoolhouses at a heavy expense that in the winter of 1883 the writer devoted much time to the study of plans of schoolhouses, both in this country and abroad, with the view of combining the best pedagogical and hygienic arrangements in a safe, plain, substantial schoolhouse at the least possible expense consistent with those essential requirements. The best authorities on shape and size of schoolrooms, arrangement of cloakrooms, space required for pupils, size and location of windows, ease and safety of stairways, location and size of ventilating shafts, placing of registers for heat and ventilation, location and construction of closets, and, in short, all the details of a good schoolhouse, were carefully studied.

After each detail had been decided upon and represented by floor plans, statements, figures, etc., this material was placed in the hands of an architect in this city, Mr. John B. Brady, now inspector of buildings, to be put in architectural form, with instructions that no architecture was to be indulged in that would in the least increase the expense of construction. There were two designs, one for a schoolhouse three stories high with 12 schoolrooms, and one two stories high with 8 schoolrooms. He very kindly undertook the work without any assurance of compensation for his services, and devoted a great deal of time and labor to tentative efforts before reaching results entirely satisfactory to us both.

It happened, fortunately, soon after, that he was appointed to a position, requiring a competent architect, in the office of the inspector of buildings, upon whom was devolved the duty of preparing the plans of new schoolhouses. These plans already prepared by him and approved by the school board were at once adopted by the Commissioners and the two buildings were shortly after erected—the Analostan with 12 rooms and the Amidon with 8 rooms. The Analostan, in the vicinity of the island bearing

that name, was so named after unusual consultation with citizens especially qualified to give advice in such a matter. The name was euphonious and derived from a race who were supposed to have held their great councils near by for generations before the white man came here. For some unaccountable reason the Commissioners subsequently changed the name to Grant. Opportunities in abundance to honor the great Union general in this way are afforded in the several new schoolhouses built each year, and it is to be hoped that the original name of this building will yet be restored.

When the large school building on Capitol Hill fronting Stanton Park was erected it was named L'Enfant School, and the name was carved on the bluestone panel, corresponding with the other stone trimmings, especially designed for this purpose. The citizens of that section of the city, as soon as the name appeared, vigorously protested against it, on the ground that it would always be mispronounced, and called "The Infant School." In deference to their wishes a change was made, and so a gray marble slab, inscribed "Peabody School," was placed over the original name. In a distant future some explorer may lift that marble slab and find buried beneath it the honors intended to be paid to Charle Pierre L'Enfant, the great engineer, who in planning this city left that reservation, which has now become a most beautiful park for the benefit of the hundreds of children attending the Peabody School.

The plan of the Analostan, the 12-room building, was in some respects the better one, but it was proportionately more expensive. An open court from the center of the building to the rear gave great advantages in keeping the central corridors supplied with pure air. The difficulties and expense of keeping an assembly room at all times supplied with pure air without the aid of window ventilation has been abundantly demonstrated in the two Halls of Congress, and everyone familiar with school-room ventilation fully understands this. In these two buildings, in order to have the assistance of window ventilation without harmful drafts upon the children, the upper part, about one-fourth of each window, was hinged at the bottom on a transom so that it could be opened from the top inward at any required angle by means of a fixture easily accessible, and thus any amount of fresh air desired could be admitted at the top of the room in a way that avoided all injurious drafts on the pupils. This arrangement gave the highest satisfaction to the schools, but the fixtures sometimes got out of order and became troublesome to the inspector of buildings, who had charge of such matters, and so, I regret to say, he ordered them to be taken off and the transoms to be permanently closed. In my judgment the fixtures should be restored, or some better means be found for making the intended use of these transom windows. A second building on the plan of the Analostan was erected, but the two-story plan has been the most popular for the time being, and all the buildings for elementary schools since constructed in the city have taken the Amidon as a type. The Amidon cost only about \$20,000, and some incidental conveniences and architectural embellishments have been added to its successors from time to time as larger amounts of money have been available for construction.

In 1884 a voluntary effort was made to obtain a small library of reference and suitable reading books for each school of the higher grades. The books were to be obtained by loan, gift, and purchase, so far as funds were contributed for this purpose. In three months 212 schools had each succeeded in getting a very useful library of its own, making an aggregate of 10,176 volumes.

The schools became deeply interested in establishing and managing their little libraries, as well as in reading and consulting the books obtained through their own efforts.

The development of the school system during this period in respect to courses of study, methods of teaching, and improvements in supervision and discipline, does not admit of presentation in tabular form and must be gathered from what has been

said already, but the material growth of the schools is shown in the following statement:

	1860.	1885.
Whole number of teachers	54	565
Whole number of pupils	4,500	31,362
Value of school property	\$30,000	\$1,500,000

I have aimed to sketch only a correct outline of the origin and growth of the school system of this city for eighty years, commencing with two little schools in rented rooms, free only to poor children, progressing at first "with wandering steps and slow," and at last reaching the high American ideal of the public education required to make citizens useful and intelligent enough to maintain our form of government. A subbase of kindergartens for children between the ages of 4 and 6 years, especially for those who unfortunately have little or none of the parental care and training that belongs to a well-ordered home, was the only part of the plan not carried out as designed, and that is still in abeyance.

This sketch would not be complete without some note of the most valuable services rendered to the schools from 1870 to 1885 by the Hon. John Eaton, then the United States Commissioner of Education. His personal interest could hardly have been deeper and more practically effective had the schools by law been placed under his official charge.

In conclusion, if you ask what was the most important factor of all in this work, I answer, unhesitatingly, the corps of teachers; intelligent, progressive, faithful to duty, and loyal to their leaders as ever were the famous "six hundred."

CHAPTER XLII.

EARLY EDUCATIONAL LIFE IN MIDDLE GEORGIA.¹

EARLY SOCIETY CONDITIONS.

The influences upon the being of mankind—intellectual, physical, and social—that are exerted by geographical, political, and other accidents are interesting to study. It seemed curious how unlike were the Greeks of Attica to those of Laconia, and how unlike were both these to the Bœotians, all dwelling not remotely apart. Not less unlike were the settlers of the middle to those of the southeastern regions of the State of Georgia. The latter consisted of English, Salzburgers, Vandois, Piedmontese, Portuguese-Hebrews, and considerable numbers from the Hebrides Islands. Among the communities neighboring to Savannah, the mother city, particularly in the county of Liberty, which was settled by the most cultivated among the immigrants, a few reasonably good schools were commenced under the lead of educated masters.

Very different from these were the earliest settlers of the region now being considered. Before the war of independence considerable numbers had migrated to this region, beginning their settlements on Broad River, in the southeastern portion of what is now Elbert County, and extending southward between the Savannah River on the east and the Oconee on the west, through (now) Hancock, where the primary geological formation in the State ends. It had a salubrious climate, and a deep-red, exceedingly fertile soil. Undulating with small hills, extensive tablelands, and narrow valleys, well watered with rapid creeks and rivulets, despite its nearness to the Indians it became as choice an abode as any in the whole South. A region thus early occupied on the border of savage existence must have been unusually attractive. Not unfrequently a forage was made upon the two counties most exposed—Greene and Hancock. These and other dangers were such as only an adventurous, even rather audacious, people had hardihood to encounter.

Those settlers had come, many from North Carolina, but mostly from Virginia. Some were from Maryland, and a few from the Middle States and New England. Among them were almost none very prominent in property holding or mental culture. At the breaking out of the rebellion a few here and there sided with Great Britain, but most of these, called Tories, a name still odious, found it not safe to remain in a community wherein open manifestation of their sentiments was not seldom followed by an improvised hangman's rope and gallows in the open day or a rifle shot through the window under cover of night. Several individuals became noted for specially daring important services during the campaigns in the State, for which they were richly rewarded afterwards.

When the war was over great numbers of new settlers came in, many with considerable and a few with extraordinary gifts of understanding. Then began an astonishingly rapid development of the State's abundant resources. Probably at no period since has that region, less than 100 miles square in extent, had a larger number of men of distinguished ability. It is noteworthy that during a very brief period came the Crawfords, Gilmers, Cobbs, Lumpkins, Campbell's, Doolys, Waltons, Watkins, Nisbets, Lamars, who soon became illustrious in Federal and State politics, and the Mercers, Marshalls, Andrews, and Pierces in the pulpit.

Evolutions in social living were such as must always spring from admixture of classes in such conditions. None were very rich, and none very poor. Fortunately for the peculiar social development so beneficial to the whole State, there were no cities nor large towns, as in the adjoining State of South Carolina. Augusta (itself more convenient of approach to Carolinians than to the inhabitants of this region), on the Savannah River, with its population of four or five thousand, could be reached only after a journey of three or four days over roads the reddest, worse worked, and in winter the muddiest and toughest perhaps in the whole country, South or North.

¹ By Richard Malcolm Johnston

Among those dwelling nearest the western boundary, not one in ten ever saw this town, and interesting were the ideas among simplest country youth of its vastness and importance. Lads whose parents came from Old Virginia were free to admit that Richmond was a greater, but not another, and this was one item of their rivalries with North Carolinians who could tell of nothing to compare with the city on the James.

As in every new community, particularly when thus exposed to dangers from without, patrician rule obtained without question from lower ranks. Instinctive with all was conviction that in a society without ascertained principles of government, the ablest, most thoughtful, and prudent must be leaders. Inferior persons, with few exceptions, not only did not aspire to important offices, but they suppressed aspirations among those of their likes who were tempted to indulge them. Candidates for Congress, even those for the general assembly of the State, were not nominated by conventions. Leading citizens counseled and decided among themselves whom to put forth, and the multitude acquiesced in the selection; not that parties did not exist and contend with each other, often in acrimonious strife, as in after times. From the beginning opinions were variant upon questions regarding what were then named State sovereignties and States' rights, as opposed to encroachments of the Federal Government, and the lower classes, in full confidence in their leaders, held themselves bound not only to vote but, if necessary, to fight for them on election days. Superadded to variances in political sentiments were rivalries more or less avowed between Virginians and North Carolinians; but those, after lapse of not long time, and mainly through frequent timely intermarriages, subsided. Certain it is that, in the legislature of Georgia from the year 1780 to 1830, the average of talent was notably above what it was afterwards when changed conditions seemed to make the best leadership less exigent.

ADMIXTURE OF CLASSES.

In such circumstances coalescence of the two classes of settlers was indispensable to individual and civil security. Man can not live alone. Even Timon of Athens must occasionally go away from home in order to find an audience to make known the contempt he claimed to feel for mankind. Whatever the degrees of an individual's understanding and culture, if he can not find his equals to associate withal, he will be drawn to his neighbors, however far his inferiors in these gifts. And so from the beginning the two ranks of this rural region coalesced, a fact which, more than any other, contributed to make the State what it became by the period of 1861. In a community so constituted, whatever was marked in individualities must be brought forth in neighborhood intercourse that was untrammelled except by unwritten laws instinctive in all minds. No man ever felt his freedom more heartily than the rustic of middle Georgia a century ago. His cultivated neighbor, away from convenient proximity to his own peers, sought his society, made him his friend, often his confidant and adviser. He learned his speech, and in time loved to speak it. Each imparted and received. Associations of this sort are regulated by influences which it is not well to resist. Among these influences negro slavery exerted its own peculiar. The humblest white man could have no apprehension of falling upon any lower scale, therefore his ambitions, whatever they might be, were unfettered. It was during that early period of fifty years that were developed those numerous striking individualities which afterwards became themes for the character sketching done in that region more than in any other of like extent in the whole South. A section so found in elements contributing to prosperous, happy existence, was populated with much rapidity. Seventy years ago the voting population of some of those counties was far above what it is now, counting only the whites. Quick, reckless felling of forests, rushing, appallingly unskillful cultivation of rolling lands led to their speedy exhaustion. Those of the inhabitants most eager for the accumulation of riches, and most adventurous of spirit, disposing of their homesteads for small prices to those content to remain, followed not far behind the Indian, whom they drove farther and farther west.

To one who remembers the conditions and accidents of that former society, it is pleasant to recall the neighborliness, the oft warm affectionateness which, except among mean people (and these are in every community), generally obtained. Men of both ranks, none of whom were very rich, and none abjectly poor, intermingled with little reserve. Not seldom they sat at one another's boards, watched at one another's suffering bed-sides, helped to bury one another's dead, when tears and strengthening words were alike grateful and consolatory.

SOCIETY AMONG WOMEN.

It was interesting to remark the relations between women in the two classes. The gentlewoman recognized the approach she might make when in company with the wives and daughters of her husband's humble neighbors, albeit his intimate friends

and advisers; and in general these wives and daughters, with instinctive feminine delicacy, understood the bounds to which they might easily advance, but not seek to overpass. Pleased at the hearty recognition of their husbands and fathers by leading citizens, they knew as well as any that the society of men among themselves was one thing and that of women among themselves was another. Thus the upper women guarded with prudence, yet with kindness, the gates which their husbands, brothers, and sons, in their exuberance of generosity might sometimes leave too widely open; and the lower recognized and were content with these differing conditions. These two influences, the ardent, impulsive of men, and the conservative of women, made society such as it was, securest and happiest for all. These same women were always first to note among inferiors promise of fitness for higher social position, and, unlike some parvenus and *nouveaux riches*, were not afraid to admit and encourage it; and thus followed those frequent intermarriages from which have sprung a large majority of the leading minds in the State. As for the dialect, men of all degrees, except in the large towns, were addicted to it with fondness and habitually spoke it, except when in serious public discussion.

EARLY EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS.

It is probable that not one of these settlers had received education beyond what could be gotten at the country and village schools in the States from which they had emigrated. They were less informed in text-books and other reading than were their parents before the war of independence. These parents of the upper class—at least many of them—had been to universities in the mother country, the colleges of William and Mary and of New Jersey and New England; but their sons, grown up in time of revolution and war, and that of recovery from the losses incurred by them, must be content with what amount was to be had in neighborhood schools. Differences in book knowledge, therefore, among those Georgians were less marked than those in any other particular, and these depended on the habit of vigorous, thoughtful minds, of endeavoring to supplement trifling school acquirements with study of the few standard books within their reach. It was notable what some of these accomplished in law, politics, and the pulpit. Many have not been surpassed, some not equaled by their successors. William Harris Crawford, whose family removed when he was a lad from Amherst, Va., is well known for his career in politics. He was minister to France, and would have succeeded Monroe in the Presidency but for the fact that, just as his nomination was agreed upon, he was stricken with paralysis. Upon John Forsyth President Jackson relied with entire and justified confidence in defending his administration against the assaults of Webster, Clay, and Calhoun. John Dooley, despite his eccentricities, was never surpassed, at least in mental ability, by any judge, although his court, as others in the State at that period, was only of *nisi prius*. Robert Watkins, so tradition has it, besides being a great lawyer, was a high resistless orator. In the case of Col. Benjamin Talliaferro, there is this interesting to say about his efficient administration as judge of the northern circuit in the early part of this century. Several leading lawyers of the circuit had been concerned in the famous Yazoo speculations.¹ The people, who were intensely hostile to a measure believed to be an outrage upon their rights, became prejudiced against the legal profession generally. Crawford, who, with James Jackson,¹ of Savannah, had been mainly instrumental in the repeal of the Yazoo act, not able to name a lawyer for the bench with whom the people would be content, resorted to Talliaferro, who was a planter, and after considerable difficulty in overcoming his scruples, at length succeeded in obtaining his consent. It was said that he became in time an excellent judge. He imparted his name to the county formed in 1825 from the older counties of Wilkes, Greene, Oglethorpe, Hancock, and Warren.

If school keeping in rural districts during colonial and Revolutionary periods was conducted within narrow circumstances, it must be more so in new remote settlements. If there had been entirely competent teachers, boys, even girls, could not be spared from domestic work long enough to give—and that in intervals—more than two or three years' attendance at school, for gentlemen and their daughters, like the rest, cut and sewed upon garments made of flax, wool, and cotton, produced, spun, and woven at home, while their husbands and sons felled the woods, tended the fields, and harvested the crops. In the most genteel families, along with proper morals, children learned good manners and were encouraged to read in the few choice books brought with them from the old homes. Some could recite from ancient English and Scotch ballads learned by their parents in peaceful and less exigent conditions. But education in schoolbooks was made, using a homely phrase, to

¹ This man resigned his seat in the United States Senate, and had himself elected to the general assembly of Georgia for this purpose. It was said that the argument that prevailed with Talliaferro was Crawford's suggestion to listen carefully to lawyers' arguments, then decide according to his own judgment, and give no reason for his decision. This was before the period of a supreme court for correction of errors in *nisi prius* courts.

"shift for itself." The ways in which this was done, if described with much circumstantiality, would make a long and somewhat unique record in the annals of Georgia's foretime.

SCHOOLMASTERS.

To an aged middle Georgian the old-field schoolmaster of his childhood, as he now recalls him, seems to have been somewhat of a myth, or at least a relic of a long-past decedent race, never existing except in a few individuals unlike any others of human mold, appearing during periods in rural communities, bringing in a red-spotted bandanna handkerchief his household goods, and in his tall, whitish-furred, long-experienced hat a sheet of foolscap, on which was set down what he called his "school articles." A rather reticent man was he to begin with, generally serious, sometimes even sad looking, as if he had been a seeker of things occult and was not content with the results of his quest. Within some months, seldom completing the year, with the same bandanna and hat, noiseless as he had come, he went his way. Generally he was unmarried, or, what was not so very far different, followed by a wife unique looking as himself, if possible some nearer a blank, who had never had the heart to increase the family any further. After his departure came on another, who might be larger and might be smaller, who might be fairer and might be browner, who might be more pronounced in manner and speech and might be less, but who had the distinctive marks that were worn by no other people under the sun.

Now the idea that a native-born citizen competent to instruct children would have been content to undertake such a work was not entertained. Somehow, keeping a school was regarded as at the bottom on the list of vocations, fit only for those who were not qualified for any other; who, if thus qualified, would never think of thus degrading themselves, and who, in view of the poverty of repute attending this last resort for the exercise of manly endeavor, deemed it well to go away from the places that knew them, and set up among strangers. As soon as he became well known, it seemed expedient for him, like Joe of "Tom All-Alones" in Dickens's Bleak House, to "move on." Recalling his uncongeniality with the rest of mankind, the writer is reminded somehow of a scene from the Pickwick Papers occurring on the journey from Whitechapel to Ipswich. Mr. Pickwick, Mr. Peter Magnus, Mr. Tony Weller, and his son Sam were together on the old man's coach. Mr. Pickwick had just announced his intention to make note of some highly interesting remarks of Sam and his father touching the intimate connection of poverty with oysters and pickled salmon.

"By this time they had reached the turnpike at Mile End; a profound silence prevailed until they had gotten two or three miles farther on, when Mr. Weller, senior, turning suddenly to Mr. Pickwick, said:

"'Wery queer life is a pike keeper, sir.'

"'A what?' said Mr. Pickwick.

"'A pike keeper.'

"'What do you mean by a pike keeper?'" said Mr. Peter Magnus.

"'The old'un means a turnpike keeper, gen'men,' observed Sam, in explanation.

"'Oh,' said Mr. Pickwick, 'I see; yes; very curious, very uncomfortable.'

"'They're all of 'em, men as have met with some disappointment in life,' said Mr. Weller, senior.

"'Aye! aye!' said Mr. Pickwick.

"'Yes; consequence of which they retires from the world and shuts themselves up on pikes, partly with the view of bein' solitary and partly to revenge themselves on mankind by takin' tolls.'

"'Dear me! I never knew that before.'

"'Fact, sir,' said Mr. Weller; 'if they was gen'l'men you'd call 'em misanthropes, but as it is they only takes to pike keepin'.'"

If Mr. Weller had known the old-field schoolmaster, his reflections probably would have been on a line with the foregoing. His very name was strange; not exactly foreign, but rather outlandish, suggesting that if the place where he was born could be ascertained it would prove to be far away.

Everybody recognized the necessity of children receiving at least rudimentary instruction. In some sections, as will appear from this extract from White's Historical Collections (p. 591), demands on that score were far from being very exacting.

"There was no school in the Goosepond neighborhood on Broad River from its first settlement, in 1784, until 1796. The first teacher was a deserter from the British navy whose only qualification was that he could write. He whipped according to navy practice. On cold mornings, when fire could not be conveniently had, he made the children join hands and run round and round, while he hastened their speed by the free application of the switch."¹

¹ Teachers in elementary schools in ancient Athens seemed to have been not only poorly paid, but to have been liable to contemptuous, even violent, treatment. In Plutarch's Lives the following about Alcibiades occurs:

"When he was past his childhood he went once to a grammar school and asked the master for one of Homer's books; and he making answer that he had nothing of Homer's, Alcibiades gave him a blow

This rudimentary instruction, as has been seen, was not practicable at home. The parents of few had means sufficient to board them at the better class of schools in the large towns. Some, indeed, did make the strain to send their daughters, when arrived at 15 or 16 years, to such schools in Augusta, Charleston, Salem in North Carolina, and even as far as Mrs. Willard's Seminary at Troy in the State of New York; but the majority acquired only what was to be gotten in the old field.

It was of a part with the constitution of that rural society, in the case of boys particularly, that they should be in frequent contact with their fellows in age for other purposes besides educational. By the hearty coalescence of men of all degrees in the community, the son of a man of property was taught to regard himself by birth alone not above any honorable poor man's son. Therefore, in the lack of a teacher native born, when the stranger made application, after "sizing him up" to the very moderate demands made upon him and not finding where they could do any better, citizens of all ranks signed his articles that in all conscience ought, in a matter of business, to have been satisfactory and let him make his start.

SCHOOLHOUSES.

A place was selected on the edge of a wood and a field turned out to fallow, sufficiently central, hard by a spring of purest fresh water, a loghouse was put up, say 30 by 25 feet, with one door and a couple of windows and shelves, with benches along the unceiled walls, and the session began. Most families breakfasted about sunrise, and a brisk walk of three-quarters of an hour brought even remotest dwellers to the early opening. The one who happened to reach the schoolhouse first on winter mornings kindled a fire. This was before the date of lucifer matches.¹ In winter half-burned logs were so disposed beneath ashes on the huge fireplaces as to preserve fire through the night, which was quickly rekindled by the aid of pine knots always on hand. To provide against failure, the master and some of the larger boys carried a small piece of rotten wood—punk—obtained from a decayed oak, which, being held under a flintstone and struck with a steel blade of a pocket knife, produced sparks, igniting the wood. There was seldom any suffering from cold.

At noon a recess of two hours was allowed for dinner and sports. On days when the sun shone, the hour was made known by its reaching a mark on the floor by the door or one of the window-sills. In cloudy weather it was guessed at. The idea of a schoolmaster owning a watch did not enter anybody's mind. When the day was done, dismissal was out and out. There were no keepings-in at noon or evening tide. Each day had its own history and no more; whatever was done was done for all henceforth—recitings, good or bad, punishments big or little, became things of the past, though their likes were sure to be enacted on every day thereafter. The meaning is that nothing was put off, no more than a breakfast, for the morrow. The master went silently to the house where he boarded, and the pupils, boys and girls, whipped and unwhipped, turning their backs upon everything, journeyed leisurely along, boys anon rallying one another on the day's misadventures, personal and vicarious, and the girls behind laughing at them, occasionally lingering to gather and weave into nosegays wild flowers, that in all seasons, except the depth of winter, bordered their way along roads and lanes.

with his fist and went away. Another schoolmaster, telling him that he had Homer corrected by himself; "How?" said Alcibiades, "and do you employ your time in teaching children to read? You, who are able to amend Homer, may well undertake to instruct men."

Lucian laughed much at the beggarly straits in the lower regions of bad kings, and satraps, and hucksters of dead fish, and rudimentary schoolmasters. (Chariæes, by Rev. Frederick Metcalfe, M. A., p. 229.)

¹It seems curious to look back to times so far agone and recall the shifts to which people sometimes resorted and the inconvenience to which they were subjected through lack of foresight in this behalf. On plantations where there were negroes to whom they had such matter in charge, for the race loves the fire and dreads being ever without it; but improvident poor whites the morning sometimes found without even a piece of punk to supplement their lack of foresight touching this essential item of materials for getting breakfast, and one of the household must travel often a mile and more to obtain it from a neighbor. Besides the inconvenience to one fallen into this predicament, he had to endure some ridicule for his negligence when met on the road swinging the brand. This custom gave rise to a saying which to some extent obtains in the State to this day and with many who know not its origin. When one, after a call at a neighbor's and after a stay regarded too brief by the host, rose to go, the latter might say, "Why, it looks like you came for a chunk of fire."

The introduction of lucifer matches created much sensation, leading some simple rural minds to speculate as to whether there was any limit to the mind of man. The first of the kind were square blocks of wood, two-thirds of which had been cut with a small saw in both directions across the end surface and slightly covered with sulphur. When one was wanted it was carefully detached with the finger nail. A stick of these, containing about a couple of dozen, lasted quite a time, never being used except when necessary by the going out of fire on the premises. Compared with present prices, the first was enormous. Some old persons yet living are, from long habit, extremely economical in the use of them, sometimes slightly burning their fingers in trying to make one render as much service as possible.

IN THE SCHOOLROOM.

The fashion of studying aloud in schools, now so curious to recall, did not produce the confusion which those not accustomed to it would suppose. Besides the natural desire to avoid punishment, rivalries were often very active, particularly among girls, and during the time devoted wholly to study, there were few who did not make reasonable effort to prepare for recitation. Spellers, readers, geographers, grammarians, getters-by-heart, all except cipherers, each in his or her own tongue and tone, raised to height sufficient to be clearly distinguished from others by individual cars, filled the room and several square rods of circumambient space outside. In this while the master, deaf to the various multitudinous sounds, sat in his chair, sometimes watching for a silent tongue, at others, with lack-luster eyes gazing through the door into the world beyond, perhaps musing when and where, if ever in this life, this toiling, fighting, migratory, isolated, and about friendless career would find respite.

Pupils stood while reciting. In spelling and reading, except with beginners, the classes were few, seldom more than two or three in a study, arranged according to age and degree of advancement, boys and girls mingling together. Dread of the ridicule attached to the foot of the class prompted nearly everyone to strive to avoid it. Many a blush painted the cheek and many a tear dimmed the eye of a girl while descending to this position of dishonor. The effect was benign. Good spelling, particularly among the girls, was the rule in nearly every school. Seldom did any among half a dozen in the lead make changes of place. These were mainly below, increasing in frequency toward the end. The head was lost generally by accident or momentary negligence of keeping on the alert, and it required like default to make another change in that quarter.

In reading, excellence was on a scale very far lower. It was taught after a fashion solemn and formal, sometimes ludicrously so. With the master the sentiment seemed that after one rose from spelling to reading one must be taught to feel that what was printed in books had acquired beyond spoken words dignity to which readers must pay worshipful respect, pronouncing in measured, solemn flow. Many an older man in after years would rehearse in lengthened, sepulchral monotone his school rendering of those deeply affecting fables in Webster's Elementary Spelling Book, "The partial judge," the "Boy that stole apples," "The country maid and her milk pail," with illustrations taught to be the last, highest, and forever hereafter unsurpassable pinnacle of pictorial art. Indeed, regarding the last-mentioned story particularly, the artist ought to have done his best in representing a scene the preface to the recital of which is replete with such solemn admonition. How awfully, mysteriously severe the following words of warning sounded in the ears of children who had never made acquaintance with the meaning of one single big word:

"When men suffer their imaginations to mislead them with the prospect of distant and uncertain improvements of their condition, they frequently sustain real losses by their inattention to those affairs in which they are presently concerned."

Perhaps the solemn measured mode of reading then taught, together with the sort of school readers, gave rise to the idea among small children and even some uneducated grown persons, that all printed matter must necessarily be serious. The stately maxims of Webster's Spelling Book, although wholly unintelligible, yet, and for that reason, were believed to have in their profoundest depth words of vast meaning. The two reading books were Popular Lessons and Murray's English Reader. Than the former none could be better. It was made up of extracts from Mrs. Barbauld, Miss Edgeworth, and others. One chapter in particular had great fame among rural school children. It was "The story of little Jack." The hero, after the death of his mother when he was an infant, was nourished by the milk of a she-goat. For the good beast he grew to have fondest attachment. Her maltreatment on one occasion by a rash unfeeling youth provoked her youngling to such a pitch of filial indignation, that, although not at all passionate by nature and too little to make much headway in fight, he uttered some such words as the following: "She has been like a mother to me, and I will not hear her abused as long as breath is in my body." Then straightway he rushed to her defense. Than these words none uttered in the heroic age, than this act of courage none performed in that same, whether slaughter of lion, bull, serpent, or other ravaging beast, whether taking mighty cities or leading conquering armies, were regarded more pathetic, more glorious, more sublime.

One day the late Linton Stephens, who as a lawyer was superior to his brother Alexander, becoming one of the judges upon the supreme bench of the State, received a copy of this old book, sent by a friend who had lately purchased it among a lot of others of the sort at an administrator's sale. Message came along with it that the purchaser, although much inclined thereto, had not read the story of Little Jack, fearing that its perusal at that late day might subtract from the fondness with which, since the time of childhood, the two together had been wont to recall it. At the next meeting of these friends Judge Stephens said:

"You need not be afraid you won't cry in reading Little Jack. I read it aloud the other day to the children. They cried as if their little hearts would break, and I shed about as many tears as they did."

Remembered well are also some of Mrs. Barbauld's Hymns in Prose, whose teachings of duty, devoid of threatening, replete with tenderest persuasion, were a pleasing set-off to the hard, senseless despotism all around. Helped by the teachings of this precious little volume, school children could sometimes lift up their minds and get much of the blessing that comes from the contemplation of better things.

Older pupils used Murray's English Reader. Its title was extremely promising, running thus:

"Murray's English Reader, or pieces in prose and poetry, selected from the best writers, designed to assist young persons to read with propriety and effect; to improve their language and sentiments, and to inculcate some of the most important principles of piety and virtue, with a few preliminary observations on the principles of good reading, improved by the addition of a concordant and synonymizing vocabulary, consisting of about fifteen hundred of the most important words contained in this work. The words are arranged in columns and placed in columns over the sections, respectively, from which they are selected, and are divided, defined, and pronounced according to the principles of John Walker. The words in the vocabulary and their correspondent words in the sections are numbered with figures of reference. Walker's pronouncing key, which governs this vocabulary, is prefixed to this work."

To all which is appended the following from Dr. Johnson:

"Words can have no definitive idea attached to them when by themselves. It is the situation and tract in a sentence which determine their precise meaning."

In one of the prefaces to the improved edition, the author's disclaimer of any other than generous, most unselfish purposes in offering his work to the pupils is interesting in this generation, when few in the profession, if any, are so easily made content with such reward as he allows himself to hope for. The concluding paragraph reads thus:

"To improve the young mind and afford some assistance to tutors in the arduous and important work of education were the motives which led to the production. If the author should be so successful as to accomplish these ends, even in a small degree, he will think that his time and pains have been well employed and will deem himself amply rewarded."

This work enlarged upon the solemnly monitory readings that were interjected into the Spelling Book. The very first one of "Select sentences and paragraphs" seemed to intimate that these same virtues, however neglected by adults, were especially obligatory upon the young: "Diligence, industry, and proper improvement of time are material duties of the young." Yet a little afterwards they are encouraged by another containing the promise, "Virtuous youth gradually brings forward accomplished and flourishing manhood."

Notwithstanding too much preponderance of the serious and the monitory, many of the selections are of great excellence, being taken from such writers as Johnson, Addison, Blair, Thomson, Cowper, Merrick, and others. But to a schoolboy, healthy, at home happy, with no special aspirations or apprehensions about his own future, many of the titles could not be notably attractive. Witness the following: "The trials of virtue;" "The vanity of wealth;" "Reflections on a future state from a view of winter;" "Change of external condition often adverse to virtue;" "On the importance of order in the distribution of our time;" "The misfortune of men chargeable to themselves;" "On the immortality of the soul;" "The good man's comfort in affliction," and many other such subjects.

A book with such selections could not be expected to be read except in class, as was the case with Popular Lessons. When boys and girls became old enough to take serious interest in the meaning of what they read, they went to the few romances to be found here and there in the neighborhood, such as Children of the Abbey, Mysteries of Udolpho, Thaddeus of Warsaw, and Scottish Chiefs. It was always pleasant to feel and afterwards to remember the impressions made upon young simple minds by these books, then more than half believed to contain veritable chronicles of bravest men and loveliest women. They served purposes most benign. They largely contributed to the production of pure and generous aspirations, to the development of good manhood and good womanhood, each sex endeavoring and hoping, if not to equal, at least to approximate exalted ideals as near as was possible in existing limitations. In after years elderly ladies who had long ceased to read novels of any sort, when hearing young people praise later works of the kind, would never be made believe that they could be compared favorably with those which in their own young day drew so many tears from their eyes, and prompted so fondly to duty. These benign influences did not cease with experience of labor and cares and vicissitudes; they assisted throughout life in imparting strength steadfast in continuance in their work, and to fortitude in the enduring of misfortune.

A-BISSEL-FA.

Curious and interesting are some of the researches made by philologists into the earliest languages of several people, among them those relating to the names of the letters of the alphabet. Prof. E. S. Sheldon, of Harvard University, has written a very interesting monograph on the letter a. In it is some information on the subject gotten from Dr. Garland, late president of Vanderbilt University, through Prof. Charles Forster Smith, now professor of Greek in the University of Wisconsin. It was thus:

"When I was a boy at a country school in Nelson County, Va., about 1820, we used the word a-bis-sil-fa with accents on the second and last syllables, and were taught that it came from abbreviating the sentence 'A by itself A.' I also heard, but rarely, the vowel e used in a similar way."

This practice, including the other three vowels, obtained in middle Georgia, in the early part of the present century, but they were pronounced A-bissel-fa, e-bissel-fe, etc.

The system of teaching geography was as empty as possible of results beyond assisting the memory. The book used was Woodbridge's Universal Geography. The master was satisfied with answers in the words of the book which he held in his hands. No pupil ever undertook to draw a map, or imagined that such a thing was possible except to the printer of the book. Indeed such a thing as a blackboard may have been heard of, but never seen by any. Knowledge of a globe was as far away. Children learned that there were two continents, several oceans, quite a number of gulfs, rivers, and bays, a yet larger number of cities and towns somewhere, and were able, during a brief season, to be forgotten as soon as it was passed, to bound each of the States of the Union, and that was about all.

The chief among studies was arithmetic, generally called by the master and pupils "rethmetic," and its students "cipherers." A cipherer, if advanced beyond rudiments, had the respect of all, master, as well as pupils. He was allowed to go out of the house when it seemed necessary to carry his ears out of the reach of voices sounding topics of low degree. The master was bound to be familiar with every problem, disgraced, as he knew he must be, if found unable to pull any boy through the most abstruse. The "great, the eventful day" with a boy was when he could say without a hitch the multiplication table. If the blows and imprecations gotten while tackling this sphinx in earliest school times could be known, they could not be counted by one man in a life of three-score and ten. But after victory came and he was called a cipherer, it was a triumph as sweet as that felt by the most eager office seeker to whom, after long waiting and sighing, and plying his wiles and fingering his wires, the place sought opens to receive him.

The text-books used were, by most, The Federal Calculator, by others, one whose title ran thus: "A new and complete system of arithmetic, composed for the use of the citizens of the United States, by Wilder Pike, A. M., A. A. S." It was always rather imposing when a big boy came in from his outdoor elaborations of great problems, sometimes with a smile on his face, oftener with mild solemnity, each indicating victory, and held up to the master his slate covered with details of the hard battle he had been fighting. The respect expressed in the faces of little children and the envy noted on those of some as big as he was he felt to be no greater reward than he deserved for such warfare as he had fought to the destroying of his enemies. There was one sum (as they called them) in particular which, as it had a trifle of humor, and produced a result not only wonderful but incredible also, always attracted attention. Sixty years afterwards old men could recite the story of it word for word. "An ignorant fop wanting to purchase an elegant house, a facetious gentleman told him that he had one which he would sell him on these moderate terms, viz, that he should give him a cent for the first door, 2 cents for the second, 4 cents for the third, and so on, doubling at every door, which were 36 in all. 'It is a bargain,' cried the simpleton, 'and here is a guinea to bind it.' Pray what did the house cost him?" Blackboards being none, results after achieved were announced aloud, when the finder looked around with triumph subdued by compassion at the awe and incredibility visible upon the faces of the young beings, as in sonorous, measured tones, he declaimed, "Six hundred and thirty-seven millions, one hundred and ninety-four thousand, seven hundred and sixty-seven dollars, and thirty-five cents!" Some grown-up men, calling back to mind whippings they had received times gone by while vainly pondering this vast problem, used resolutely to declare their belief that such a trade never did happen, and never could have happened; for that no fool, however big, was big enough to ask for one single, lone house by itself more money than every house in the State of Georgia, and the land belonging to it flung in, would fetch, if put up on the block; and that they hadn't a doubt it was put down in a book, like a many another, mostly to make some sort of excuse for beating boys' backs for not being quicker to find out what figures can

be made to mount up to when you fix them in a certain way and keep piling them up on top of one another.

The average schoolmaster had a reasonably good head for arithmetic, and by long practice became familiar with all the problems of the Federal Calculator. What he dreaded in this study was a sending to him by one of his patrons, or another citizen, of a problem not contained in the book. An occasion of this sort was long remembered. His failure to render satisfactory solution, and the mortification incurred from it, was avenged, after waiting for a convenient opportunity, by whipping the boy by whom the problem was carried for a dereliction so trifling that all know the motive for the infliction.

But Murray's English Grammar was his favorite. He thought he knew all about it and a great deal more; he knew also that people not well schooled in it themselves were not very much concerned as to whether he did or not. As with geography, so here, the open book in his hand was an advantage used for all it was worth. Parsing was employed only on simplest sentences, over which ado was made often to most laughable degrees. English grammar was his pride, in which most of his harmless little productions were displayed. Upon the sweatband of his hat were inscribed grammar rules and maxims from Webster's Spelling Book, which when away from the schoolroom he fondly quoted in season and out. If a stranger, on meeting one for the first time, hesitated where to locate him, doubt instantly vanished when he took off his hat and opened his mouth.

Occasionally one of our masters when rather young essayed poetry, which, in the lack of magazine, he exhibited or let lie about for inspection. A lawyer, friend of the writer, once told him of having stopped for the night at a country house while on his way to attend court in the county adjoining. The neighborhood schoolmaster was a temporary boarder there, it being the custom among the patrons to give boarding and lodging by turns. Noting from his speech and the peculiar wearing of his hair that he had uncommon ambition, the lawyer was not surprised to find on a table in the room where he slept, which the poet had vacated for his accommodation, freshly written in copy-book hand, these verses:

We part, we part: but oh, I hope
We'll meet again before we lope
Into the dark and silent grave
Where there is nothing else to crave.

Next morning his evident gratification, when made aware that the effusion had been noticed, drew from this guest, a wag and a wit, some words of commendation which he had not the heart to withhold.

"Fact was," he pleaded, "I owed him something for the inconvenience to which he had been subjected on my account, and his manifest pleasure from the lie I uttered made me feel that it was venial. Besides, though that is saying a good deal, I have seen some that was as bad."¹

His essays of lofty phrase, of course, were not criticised when put forth before his pupils; but experience had taught that he must use some guard when addressing himself to others, cultured or not. Indeed, the latter often were his most critical auditors. The former only smiled inwardly, while the latter, when detecting the flaw, sometimes indulged a broad grin, and, if of waggish turn, humbly asked that he "explain himself," if he pleased, or that he would "call that word over again and call it slow and distinct." It was, therefore, that such a man led a sort of double existence; bold, commanding in the school, and hesitating, often to timidity, elsewhere. Yet this skittishness could not altogether hinder his continuance among

¹The rustic schoolmaster of olden times seemed, like him of the new, to have been of a type different from the rest of mankind. One was made immortal in Goldsmith's *Deserted Village*. This, as has always been understood, was Thomas Byrne, a veteran soldier, who had served many years in the Spanish wars. He was called by the name of Quartermaster Thomas Byrne. At Goldsmith's first school, kept by Mistress Elizabeth Delap at the village of Lissoy, whither the family had removed during his infancy, he was considered a dunce. What his dormant understanding needed, perhaps, was a stronger arm for wielding the rod, and so afterwards he was sent to this learned quartermaster, who was noted mostly for his love of lengthened, sonorous words.

"Well had the boding tremblers learned to trace
The day's disasters in his morning face;
Full well they laughed, with counterfeited glee,
At all his jokes, for many a joke had he;
Full well the busy whisper, circling round,
Conveyed the dismal tidings when he frowned;
Yet he was kind, or, if severe in aught,
The love he bore to learning was in fault.
The village all declared how much he knew;
'Twas certain he could write and cipher, too.
Lands he could measure, terms and tides presage;
And e'en the story ran that he could gauge;
In arguing, too, the parson owned his skill,
For e'en though vanquished he could argue still."

outsiders of the work within his own small circle, the only thing he knew anything about, namely, to teach, or try to teach, or look and talk as if he would very much like to teach everybody with whom he came in contact.¹ As to his fitness for imparting salutary counsel during periods of political campaigns, the following sketching serves to found an estimate:

In a community bordering upon the Oconee used to be a schoolmaster whose fame for several years survived his emigration for the sake of some special points of discipline that were rather interesting. He was an Irishman, rather a better scholar than native professors of the art of pedagogy, and although, like most of his neighbors, fond of good whisky, addicted to praying, when in public, in unambiguous pronouncement of what he desired from these petitions to Almighty power. He was as ardent a partisan in the politics of his temporarily adopted country as he had been and continued to be in those of his native country. In his time questions as to the relative powers of Federal and State governments were no less animating than they have ever been at any period since. The exponents of the two parties in the State were George M. Troup and Gen. John Clark, the latter of a family distinguished for services rendered in the war of independence, a favorite friend of Andrew Jackson, and ardent even to audacity in support of Federal claims. Troup, less impassioned and much more cultured, led the cause of States' rights and State sovereignty. Each in turn became governor of the State. The county in which this Irishman's school was situated was largely for Troup. The master eagerly attached himself to it, perhaps not less because of such preponderance than of its supposed likeness to that of Irish independence. As vigorous and as cheerful a whipper as ever reigned in a schoolhouse, yet the heartiness of his nature, joined with his passionate devotion to the Troup party, together with some peculiar manifestations of that devotion, made him much of a favorite. He felt in his soul that every means plainly or remotely possible for the overthrow of adversaries should be resorted to, from beseeching cries for Divine assistance down to the extending of all sorts of support to party leaders, as well in their personal as their public endeavors and aspirations. Called upon one Sunday to pray before a large congregation at the country meetinghouse, among other interesting things in his loud, passionate petition was that the good Lord would save His chosen people, not only from the world, the flesh, and the devil, but especially from the Clark party.

At the county seat was then a race course to which, during one week in the spring and another in the fall of the year, breeders of fine stock, not only in that county but in many others, resorted habitually. Active among these was the leader of the Troup party, a man who, although only a planter and without liberal education, had uncommon ability and several times was made speaker of the house in the general assembly.

The schoolmaster was deeply interested in some races that were to come off on a certain Saturday, particularly in the ventures of his political chief. So, one Friday afternoon, before dismissing the school, in which were a number of well-grown boys, he decided that it was a fit occasion to make some timely admonitions and suggestions touching the exciting scenes of the morrow. His harangue was about as follows:

"Byes, I suppose ye know that the races is to be in town to-morrow. Now, I advise that ye don't go to town at all, at all, and so keep yeselves out o' temptation. But if your parents let ye go, keep away from the race track. That's no place for byes. Yit if ye *will* go to the races, don't ye bet. Bettin' is a bad thing for grown people, say nothin' for byes. But yit, byes, if ye will go to town, and ye will go to the races, and ye will bet, be sure to put your money on Abercrombie's mare."

¹This habitude of schoolmasters was not peculiar to our set. Charles Lamb, speaking of his embarrassment in the presence of one of this class who was his only companion in the coach while on one of his jaunts between Bishopsgate and Shacklewell, and who propounded questions upon several subjects that Lamb knew nothing about, said:

"Why are we not at ease in the presence of a schoolmaster? because we are conscious that he is not quite at his ease in ours. He is ashamed and out of place in the society of his equals. He comes like Gulliver from his little people, and he can not fit the stature of his understanding to yours; he can not meet you on the square. He wants a point given him like an indifferent whist player. He is so used to teaching that he wants to be teaching *you*. One of these professors, upon my complaining that these little sketches of mine were anything but methodical, and that I was unable to make them otherwise, kindly offered to instruct me in the method by which young gentlemen in *his* seminary were taught to compose English themes. The jest of a schoolmaster is coarse or thin. They do not tell out of school. He is under the restraint of a formal or didactic hypocrisy in company, as a clergyman is under a moral one. He can not more let his intellect loose in society than the other can his inclinations. He is forlorn among his servants; his juniors can not be his friends."

This account of the meeting is prefaced by this confession, which does not seem entirely inopportune: "The fact is, a man may do very well with a very little knowledge and scarce be found out in mixed company; everybody is so much more ready to produce his own than to call for a display of your acquisitions. But in a tête-à-tête there is no shuffling. The truth will out. There is nothing which I dread so much as the being left alone for a quarter of an hour with a sensible, well-informed man who does not know me."

MEMORIZING.

One practice in these schools was so useful that to this writer it seems a misfortune that it did not obtain in academies afterwards established and that it was ever dropped from those of any grade. This was "getting by heart" and reciting a number of printed lines every day with, more often without, reference to their meaning. Omission of this exercise is the more strange since persons familiar with the history of the Greeks and Romans know that among them it was regarded of first importance in the education of boys. The poet Horace, in his ode Ad Augustum, tells how he was beaten when a little child by his master Orbilius Pupillus for unsatisfactory rehearsal of a crude translation of the *Odyssey* by Livius Andronicus. It appears afterwards that he was required to do the same with the *Iliad*. In his epistle Ad Florum are these lines:

Romæ nutriti mihi contigit atque doceri
 Iratus Graiis quantum nocuisset Achilles.
 Adjeere bonæ paulo plus artis Athenæ
 Scilicet ut possem curvo dinoscere rectum
 Atque inter silvas Academî querere verum,

which are thus translated by Sir Theodore Martin, K. C. B.:

I was brought up at Rome, and there was taught
 What ill to Greece Achilles' anger brought.
 Then Athens bettered that dear love of song;
 She taught me to distinguish between right and wrong,
 And in the groves of Academe to sound
 The way of truth, if so she may be found.

The author of Gallus, referring to the schools of the grammarians and rhetoricians, to which boys after learning the rudiments were sent, says:

"Dictation exercises were also frequently learnt by heart. Cicero (Ad Qu. Fr. iii, 1, 4) says, Meam (orationem) in illum pueri omnes tanquam dictata perdiscant. As with us the Ten Commandments are learnt by heart the Leges duodecim Tabularum were by the Roman boys." But afterwards Cicero complained that the habit at schools had begun to have less attention than when he was a boy. Discebamus enim pueri duodecim, ut carmen necessarium, quas jam nemo discit.

Quintilian, in "Institutes of oratory," discourses at much length upon the importance, to an orator, particularly of the cultivation of the memory, which as an art was first taught by Simonides. Some curious things are said to have been in this tuition, one of which was that the memory is assisted through localities impressed on the mind. The following are some of the suggestions as to application. After suggestion of taking certain places, for example, in which things that are to be specially remembered occurred, he proceeds:

"They then distinguish what they have written or treasured in their mind by some symbol by which they may be reminded of it, a symbol which may either have reference to the subject in general, as navigation or warfare, or to some particular word;² for if they forget they may, by hint from a single word, find their recollection revived. It may be a symbol, however, of navigation, as an anchor, or of war, as some particular weapon. These symbols they then dispose in the following manner: They place, as it were, their first thought under its symbol, in the vestibule, and the second in the hall, and then proceed round the courts, locating thoughts in due order, not only in chambers and porticoes, but on statues and other like objects. This being done, when the memory is to be tried, they begin to pass in review all these places from the commencement, demanding from each what they have confided to it, according as they are reminded by the symbols; and thus, however numerous be the particulars which they have to remember, they can, as they are connected, each to each like a company of dancers hand to hand, make no mistake in joining the following to the preceding, if they only take due trouble to fix the whole in their minds."

¹In this the older Romans followed the example of the Greeks, who regarded such exercises indispensable to the education of even young children. The author of Charicles writes upon the subject thus:

"When the children could read, and understand what they read, the words of the poets were put in requisition, to exercise their minds and awaken their hearts to great and noble deeds. Plato (Leg. VII, p. 810) approves of this, and also recommends committing whole poems or select passages to memory, and this method of instruction seems to have been universal (see Strabo, 1, 2, 3): Λεγουσὶ πρώτῃν τὴν ποιητικὴν * * * καὶ τοὺς παῖδας ἐν τῶν Ἑλλήνων πόλεσι πρωτοῖστα διὰ τῆς ποιητικῆς παιδεύουσι."

The following from Σμυρναίων of Xenophon gives a remarkable instance of the results of these exercises. Niceratus says of himself:

Ὁ πατὴρ ἐπιμνησκόμενος ὅπως ἀνὴρ ἀγαθὸς γενοίμην ἠνάγκασέ με πάντα τὰ Ὀμήρου ἐπη μαθεῖν-καὶ νῦν δοκίμην ἂν ἱλιάδα ἅλην καὶ Ὀδυσσειαν ἀπὸ στόματος εἰπεῖν.

Doubtless many another could recite both these great poems from beginning to end. It is plain that mere cultivating of verbal memory was entirely independent of instruction in the poet's ideas.

²Thus, if a period begins with the word *solei*, *so!* may be the symbol for recollecting it.

From this most probably was derived the habit of speakers in the frequent use of the word "place." The author suggests another mode.

"Whatever will be of service, however, to everyone, is to learn by heart from the same tablets on which he has written; for he will pursue the remembrance of what he has composed by certain traces, and will look, as it were, with the eyes of his mind, not only on the pages, but on almost every individual line, resembling, while he speaks, a person reading. If, moreover, any erasion, or addition, or alteration has been made, they will be as so many marks, and while we attend to them we shall not go astray. This method, though not wholly unlike the system of which I spoke at first [that in foregoing paragraph] is yet, if experience has taught me anything, more expeditious and efficacious." (Institution Lib., 11, sec. 32.)

Further on, section 40, he says: "If anyone ask me, however, what is the only and great art of memory, I shall say that it is *exercise and labor*. To learn much by heart, to undertake much, and, if possible, daily, are the most efficacious of all methods. Nothing is so much strengthened by practice or weakened by neglect as memory."

In other passages he speaks of the importance of cultivating this faculty and its indispensable need to the orator, even in extempore speaking. He says, section 3:

"The ability of speaking extempore seems to me to depend on no other faculty of the mind than this; for, while we are uttering one thought, we have to consider what we are to say next, and thus, while the mind is constantly looking forward beyond its immediate object, whatever it finds in the meantime it deposits in the keeping, as it were, of the memory, which, receiving it from the conception, transmits it, as an instrument of intercommunication, to the delivery."

In the Old Field schools, not a pupil who could read at all (except a cipherer advanced high enough to be regarded above it) was excluded from this daily exercise. Perhaps nonunderstanding of the words had its own special advantage in quickening verbal memory and making it retentive. This was evinced in the Friday evening declamations, which it was understood that parents and other friends might attend when they chose. It was noteworthy how many boys learned to declaim well. Fortunate it was, perhaps, that the teacher was never a speaker himself, did not know the meaning of the word elocution, and had never heard of the methods since become common of imparting special instruction in it. Boys had this advantage, that there were no models below which imitators are always apt to fall by losing their own individuality and finding it impossible to acquire another's.¹ Stimulus to success was imparted by desire of praise and apprehension of ridicule from parents, friends, schoolmates, and most particularly sweethearts. Youthful orators declaimed in couples or singly, in adjoining woods, selections from masterpieces found in speech-books, notably one entitled the Columbian Orator. Practice upon practice enabled some lads of unusually good understanding, sons of the better class, to render these pieces with a grace and spirit intensely interesting, and were not unfrequently the beginning of a career that made the young orators famous in after years. The idea of prompting a speaker never occurred to teacher or pupil. The habit of daily memorizing made such help needless. The dull tongue of a dull mind might draw words of passionate, fiery speech in such funereal style as to suggest the words of Theseus at the grief of poor Pyramus in Midsummer Night's Dream, "This passion and the death of a dear friend would go near to make a man look sad." As it was, it became sometimes needful in the audience to suppress loud laughter with coughings and stuffings of mouths with handkerchiefs; but the words, whether accurately enounced or not, were there with every syllable which when once learned

¹The paucity of great orators within this generation has given frequent occasion for discussion of the causes. Among these one, in the opinion of some, has not received the consideration it deserves. This is the habit of many young men with aspirations prompting in that direction submitting themselves to be trained by what are now known as elocutionists, and thus, as it has been argued, parting or striving to part from portions of their own individualities and acquiring those of their professors. Now, this is what no man can do, and he is hurt by endeavoring to do it. At least, if he loses or seems to have lost his own, he can not acquire the individuality of another. A skillful actor does indeed personate another, many another, helping himself anon with disguisings and temporarily ignoring of what manner of being is his own. By his portrayings he may excite tears of sympathy for imaginary tragical events, as he excites those of laughter for the ludicrous. But these are known and felt to be not genuine. They impart to the hearer pleasure in contemplating himself thus softened at the sight of even imaginary suffering and amused at others' oddities and absurdities. But an orator is one fashioned after an entirely different mold. Personation of others, whether in the earnest or the sportive, comes not within the scope of his vocation, which is to convince, to warn, to persuade, to praise, to accuse, and these themes, never imaginary, but always real, never trifling, but always important. With one or another of these objects in hand, it is impossible to the handling of it efficiently that he have in view any but the theme itself and himself, its advocate. Herein sincerity must rise to its utmost. No great achievement in eloquence can be compassed without it. For this reason Quintilian argued that no man can become a great orator unless he be a good man. Truth, justice, mercy, whatever be his aim, he must love it with all his heart, as a mother loves her child, as the new bridegroom his bride; he must feel the eagerness of Peter when in anguish, for the apparent doubt of his master, he cried: "Lord, thou knowest that I love thee." This is a single combat, others' help only serves to confuse and to trammel. It is as if a combatant were holding in his hand two swords; his own and another's. It is a notable fact that when, after the death of Pericles and Demosthenes, who taught each himself, rhetoricians began to teach the art of oratory, it began and continued to decline.

no more than his A B C's could he forget. Stocks of words thus acquired, whose meaning was not understood, nor often inquired into, served as one of the elements in those numerous striking individualities in weak minds which rendered their ludicrous essayings to rise above their capacities themes for the character sketcher. A feeble understanding, so unconscious of its feebleness as to imagine itself particularly vigorous, attempting to make its sallies and displays notably interesting, is of the kind most common for the use of the humorist. In such minds memory of great numbers of words lengthened and sonorous had been lodged and begotten much fondness, occasionally harmless pride which must be gratified by their at least occasional display. What was the use of learning them and of being whipped over and over again for not learning them faster, if they were never to be put forth in after life? As for their meaning and special fitness in Friday evening declamations and class readings, they were never thought of by such as these. Why should it be critically considered when the user, no longer a schoolboy, was a man grown, a freeman, a voter, a married man, or a candidate for matrimony, sometimes for justiceship of the peace, for captaincy in his militia district, not seldom for the pulpit. The more one reflects upon what is known as the humorous in character sketching, the more one is apt to refer it in large measure to the innocent, often pathetic errorings of narrow understandings to exhibit themselves beyond their limitations. The eager sense of freedom, of individual freedom, settled in the being of the white men in this region was naturally more pronounced among weak than among strong minds. Never dreaming of the danger of misapplication, they could abandon themselves to full enjoyment of such rich possessions. Treated as equals by their superiors, the latter adopting their own language, often taking counsel, even in matters of grave import, with others in their rank, nothing seemed to them to be a hindrance to their use when occasions were presented of the higher language of those superiors as they often had heard it on the stump and in the court-house. The words learned at school from the spelling book and the English Reader were in their memories still, never to be forgotten. These the freeborn Georgian felt himself at liberty to employ whenever they seemed to him to fit in with his other attempts in exalting himself to a level to which, the weaker his abilities, the more ardent and hopeful his aspirations. Many, many scenes there were in that primitive simple society wherein sallies were put forth that must have drawn smiles from the weeping philosopher, and compel the laughing to exhaustion from the merriment. These scenes were in social parties, court-yards, in the jury box, on the benches of justices of the peace, at regimental and battalion musters, piazzas of village and country stores, election precincts, in love letters and love tales, containing quotations from great orators and great poets who in their day did not dream of such marvelous application of their mighty phrase. Even in the pulpit on monthly Sunday meeting days, were occasional expoundings of St. Paul's Epistles to the Romans and the Hebrews, which Dr. John Gill, Dr. Adam Clarke, Suarez, and Thomas of Aquinas would have been forced to acknowledge were far beyond their ken or comprehension.

In this region not very long back, numbers of persons, men and women, when far advanced in age could recite many of the pieces memorized in childhood. As for the Bible, but for this early habit, unaccountably strange would have been the familiarity they had with the books both of the Old Testament and the New. It was not very uncommon with college students half a century ago who, after writing a piece requiring half an hour for delivery, rendered it with entire accuracy after one reading. Yet, in the next generation, after memorizing had ceased to be a daily exercise in schools, speakers on college commencement occasions had to be supported by promptings, than whose low, sneakingly sounding coadjument few things fall more odiously upon the ears of audiences. Some relief to this odium was had occasionally when the prompter's voice, too slow and small to be heard by his principal, after a backward glance of angry disgust, ridiculous to all others, put itself forth again in braver, honester key.

Illustrating this practice so favored by Quintilian, a speech of those previous times was seen by the eyes of the speaker as plainly as if he were reading it on printed pages. He saw when to turn over from one page to another. In cases where a speech had to be revised and rewritten, he learned, after feeling the inconvenience of not doing so, to postpone study of the pages themselves until making the last copy from which he was to declaim. Fifty to sixty years after the passing of their school experiences, many could remember with undiminished clearness positions of rules and single words on the pages of text-books long become obsolete.

DISCIPLINE.

The young of that generation had been assiduously trained in one special virtue, deviation from whose observance had never a hope of toleration. That was absolute, unquestioning obedience to authority. Youth—youth advanced to nineteen and twenty—childhood, even infancy learned from the beginning that disobedience had

and that it could have but one end—punishment, prompt, and, according to circumstances, more or less condign. Delinquents knew that as sure as the morrow's sunrise would follow the sunset of to-day, punishment would succeed upon wanton disobedience. This punishment was corporal. It was not very often preceded nor accompanied by remonstrance. It did its work without hesitation, and usually without anger; and the culprit after infliction easily resumed the position he held before in parental affection. Parents, with few exceptions, seemed to regard corporal punishment the only really effectual discipline for children, particularly for boys, and they did not hesitate to employ it when believed necessary, even up to incipient manhood. The idea, as all students in the history of mankind know, was not new. When and where it began in schools has not come down. Credited tradition gives account of Toilos, Homer's schoolmaster, whose flagellations of his pupil got for him the name of *Ἐπιτρούαστιξ*. We know that it was in at least one of the schools of Falerii in the time of Camillus, centuries before Christ, when the boys, sons of the principal citizens, were led by their master to the besieging general, who, in horror of the treachery, had him stripped, bound, and driven back by his pupils with rods such as withal he was accustomed to belabor their backs. Centuries afterwards, Horace, disgusted with hearing Ennius called the Latin Homer, and his nephew, Pacuvius, praised above his betters in Greece, and recalling how he had been beaten by his master, Orbilius Pupillus, when a little child while learning to recite the clumsy translation of the Odyssey made by Livius Andronicus, complained of—

Old Livius' poems which with ruthless cane
Orbilius whipped into my boyish brain.¹

This is one of the choicest among the numerous excellent writings of Horace. It was done after an intimation from the Emperor that it would please him if the poet would address one of his epistles to him. After the usual compliments he discourses among other themes upon the overvaluation of the older Roman poets merely because they were Roman, so of the numberless contemporary scribblers for the same reason. In this connection he made a noble appeal in behalf of genuine poets, who are the chiefest promoters of piety, patriotism, and all other virtues. The bard never had higher praise than these lines:

Os tenerum pueri balbumque poeta figurat,
Torquet ab obscenis jam nunc sermonibus aurem,
Mox etiam pectus preceptis format amicis,
Asperitatis et invidiæ corrector et iræ;
Recta facta refert, orientia tempora notis
Instruit exemplis, inopem solatur et agrum,
Castis cum pueris ignara puella mariti
Disceret unde preces, vatem ni musa dedisset?
Pocit opem chorus et præsentia numina sentit,
Cælestes implorat aquas docta prece blandus,
Avertit morbos, metuenda pericula pellit,
Impetrat et pacem et locupletem frugibus annum,
Carmine di superi placantur carmine manes.

Some years later Martial was much more censorious, not, as would appear from personal experience, other than frequent annoyance from the noise and tumult coming to his ears from a schoolhouse in that quarter of Rome where now stands the Piazza Barberina, not far from which he had the misfortune to live, but from sympathy with the urehins who, in his judgment, were treated with needless harshness. Clamosus and Sceleratus, as well as Plagosus, were titles applied by him to the schoolmaster.²

The custom was for a schoolmaster to call for his pupils at their homes very early in the morning.

The usage came down unchanged to the time of our English forefathers. Dr. Richard Busby solemnly believed, doubtless to his dying day, that the great numbers of illustrious men who had been trained in Westminster School, of which he was head master for near sixty years, were owing mainly to the floggings that he inflicted habitually and remorselessly. It was said that he was particularly proud

¹ Non Equidem insector delendave Carmina Livi
Esse reor memini quæ plagosum mihi parvo
Orbilium dictare; sed emendata videri
Pulchraque, et exactis minimum miror.

(Epistola ad Augustum, Lib. II, I and XIX.)

² Quid Tibi nobiscum est? ludi scelerate magister,
Iavisum pueris, virginibusque caput?
Nondum cristati rupero silentis galli,
Murmure jam sævo verberibus que tonas.

(Ep. XII, lvii.)

Further he says:

Jam tristis nucibus puer relictis
Clamoso revocatur a magistro

of what these had done for Robert, afterwards Bishop South, whose uncommon dullness in boyhood made indispensable their daily application for a long time, and who lived to be the most eager and able advocate among all his contemporaries of "divine right" and "passive obedience." In the History of the Rod, by Rev. William M. Cooper, A. B., occurs a very interesting paragraph, the first sentence of which might suggest some guessing as to the comparative number of like achievements of Dr. Busby.

"It is recorded of a Swabian schoolmaster that during his fifty years' superintendence of a large school he had given 911,500 canings, 121,000 floggings, 209,000 custodes, 136,000 tips with the ruler, 10,200 boxes on the ear, and 22,700 tasks by heart. It was further calculated that he had made 700 boys stand on peas, 6,000 kneel on a sharp edge of wood, 5,000 wear the fool's cap, and 700 hold the rod" (p. 42). In all probability the head master of Westminster beat this record, as he was six years longer at the business. In the item of canings he may be safely set down for at least an even million; possibly in that of custodes (whatever they might have been) he may have fallen a trifle below.

Dr. Samuel Johnson, despite other faults in the master of Lichfield School, respected the rod although there were some irregularities in its infliction. Of him he said, "He was very severe—wrongheadedly severe. He used to beat us unmercifully, and he did not distinguish between ignorance and negligence, for he would beat a boy equally for not knowing a thing as for neglecting to know it. He would ask a boy a question, and if he did not answer it he would beat him without considering whether he had had an opportunity of knowing how to answer it. Often while flogging he would use these words: 'And this I do to keep you from the gallows.'" Yet, later in life he referred to the same person thus: "Mr. Langton, one day asking him how he had acquired such a knowledge of Latin, in which I believe he was exceeded by no man of his time, he said, 'My master whipped me very well. Without that, sir, I would have known nothing;' and then he added, 'I would rather have the rod to be the general terror to all to make them learn than to tell a child, if you do this and thus, you will be more esteemed than your brothers and sisters. The rod produces an effect which terminates in itself. A child is afraid of being whipped and gets his task, and there's an end on't. Whereas by exciting emulation and comparisons of superiority, you lay the foundation of lasting mischief; you make brothers and sisters hate each other.'" ¹

In our community rewards for well-doing other than the pleasure derived from giving satisfaction to superiors were not received nor expected. To be rewarded, even to be much praised for obedience to orders, did not seem to be a becoming item in domestic discipline. It was enough to escape punishment for its neglect. Yet nowhere were domestic affections and confidences more prevalent or more outspoken.

Such rule in families made that of the schoolmaster entirely secure. It was understood that to him in his official person full parental authority had been delegated. Now this functionary did not have, apparently did not desire to have, and it was not possible for him to have, acquaintance or approximation to acquaintance with genuine parental discipline. The *injusta noverca* complained of by the Shepherd in Virgil was not one with whom it was more hazardous to trifle. Continual manifestation of authority was necessary both for his own personal security and compass of the purposes for which he had been employed. The ideas of his predecessors in Magna Grecia, in Egypt, Phœnicia, and India, doubtless even in him who taught letters to Enoch, ancientest of authors, had descended to him without an item lost. Those ideas were that children, especially boys, came to him, as was done by their precursors throughout the period of letters, predisposed to shun, in every way possible, the doing of things which they were sent there to do; that they regarded him as their natural foe; that therefore they felt themselves at liberty to elude and deceive him, even in trifling particulars. And so, it was his province to suspect, watch, detect, and chastise without attempt or hope to mend their morals; added to this, to get into their heads as much as he could of the knowledge of books within his own, by meeting all resistances with flagellations. He believed through and through his small volume of understanding, that never had been, was not now, and never would be a schoolboy hesitating to utter falsehood at school whenever it seemed to be needful to screen him from punishment. If the truth were answered in entirety, he distrusted, and avowed his distrust because the truth was never expected. And so the schoolmaster, seldom cruel by nature, too slenderly and by too many odds and ends made up in his being to take actual delight in sight of pain,

¹ Boswell's Life of Johnson, I, 161.

Appropos are these verses from Crabbe's Schoolmaster:

"Students," he said, "like horses in the road,
Must be well whipped before they take the load."

Plutarch in his Life of Lycurgus has the following about schoolboys in Lacedæmon: "They were to give a good reason for what they said, and in as few words and as comprehensive as might be; he that failed in this, or answered not to the purpose, had his thumb bit by his master."

finding himself absolute monarch over a collection of unloving and unloyal subjects during eight and ten hours a day, assured in his mind that the average boy would not perform his tasks without compulsion, kept himself supplied with seasoned hickory switches and plied them with more or less rigor, according to circumstances. These circumstances were the varying conditions of his own temper, and what was expected of him by parents and others in the world outside. Not one of these but counted upon whipping of some sort with sufficient frequency and proper severity. The preacher's admonition about sparing the rod was accepted unanimsly. Even a good boy, unless his body and legs were too little or too frail to endure it, must be whipped occasionally by way of prevention. Whipping was so good and precious a thing in itself that it would seem a hardship for even a good boy to be allowed to grow up without personal experience of its benign efficiency.¹

Expected to whip, to the Georgia schoolmaster it did not seem necessary, or, if it was, he did not know how to gauge his flagellations by any defined scale. Some children he whipped oftener and harder than others, according to his knowledge of the expectations and claims of parents who insisted upon getting the worth of their money. Children, except in cases particularly hard and unmerited (which seldom occurred), did not usually report these things at home, foreseeing no sympathy, at least from their fathers, and it might be, apprehensive of ratification in the form of repetition. Besides, it was held dishonorable to "tell tales out of school." One of the very few incidents which the writer can recall of his first year at school, when he was 5 years old, was a remark made one evening by one of the neighbors to him and his own son of the same age. The question as to how many whippings each had gotten that day receiving answer of one apiece, he said, "Teacher's no account! Thought so when he first started. Looked too good-natured. There isn't a boy in this whole neighborhood that oughtn't to get at least two whippings every day at school and three at home every night. No account, no account!" He was doubtless partly in jest, yet most probably he was not very grossly exaggerating his real sentiments.

As for disgrace in such punishments, in the case of boys, nobody dreamed that any sort attached to it, although girls felt it keenly. So, resentment in after years

¹The extent to which this idea used to be forced in English schools was so brutal that it is not easy to believe that such things ever were. In the History of the Rod is the following: "Erasmus was a favorite with his master, who had good hopes of his disposition and abilities, but flogged him to see how he could bear the pain, the result being that the rod nearly spoiled the child; his health and spirits were broken by it, and he began to dislike his studies. He described, without naming, another schoolmaster who was of a similar disposition. This is thought to be Colet, dean of St. Paul's, who, although he delighted in children and was a good man, thought no discipline could be too severe in his school, and whenever he dined there one or two boys were served up to be flogged by way of dessert. On one of these flogging occasions, when Erasmus was present, he called up a meek, gentle boy of 10 years old, who had lately been commended to his care by a tender mother, ordered him to be flogged for some pretended fault, and saw him flogged till the victim was fainting under the scourge; 'not that he deserved this,' said the dean to Erasmus while it was going on, 'but it was fit to humble him.'

Indeed, so indispensable was this instrument regarded in schools that princes had to undergo its infliction, but through a substitute, who was called "a whipping boy." There is an old play, published in 1632, in which a prince (supposed to be Edward VI) holds a dialogue with his "whipping boy."

"Prince. Why, how now, Browne, what's the matter?"

"Browne. Your grace loyers, and will not ply your books."

"Prince. Alas, poor Ned! I am sorry for it; I'll take the more pains and entreat my tutors for thee." (His. of the Rod, p. 428.)

Eton College was not to be beaten by any in loyalty to the rod. Nicholas Udall, author of *Ralph Royster Doyster*, the first English comedy, who, besides being head master, was canon of Windsor, was celebrated by an old pupil, Thomas (usually called Thommy) Tusser, who became author of a famous old Georgic entitled *A Hundreth Good Pointes in Husbandrie*, thus wrote:

From Paules I went, to Eton sent
To learn straight waies the Latin phrases;
Where fifty-three stripes given to me
At ones I had.

The fault but small, or none at all,
It came to pass thus beat I was:
Sec, Udall, see, the mercie of thee
To me, poore lad.

Yet Udall was surprised by one who flourished as late as the year 1830, Dr. Keate, whom Kinglake, author of *Eothen* thus describes: "He was little more, if more at all, than 5 feet in height, and was not very great in girth; but within this space was concentrated the pluck of ten battalions. He had a really noble voice, and this he could modulate with great skill, but he had also the power of quacking like an angry duck, and he almost always adopted this mode of communication in order to inspire respect. He was a capital scholar, but his 'ingenuous learning' had not 'softened his manners,' and had 'permitted them to be fierce'—tremendously fierce. He had such a complete command over his temper—I mean of his good temper—that he scarcely ever allowed it to appear; you could not put him out of humor; that is, out of the *ill* humors which he thought to be befitting for a head master. His red, shaggy eyebrows were so prominent that he habitually used them as arms and hands for the purpose of pointing out any object toward which he wanted to direct attention; the rest of his features were equally striking in their way, and were all and all his own. He wore a fancy dress, partly resembling the costume of Napoleon, and partly that of a widow woman." The author of *History of the Rod* tells many other things of this satyr, some of which though atrocious are intensely ludicrous.

seldom had place in men's recollection of schoolboy scenes. One case only used to be told: One day in the town of Milledgeville, a young man upwards of 30, while sitting on the sidewalk before a tavern, observed a strange looking, rather elderly gentleman passing by. Attracted by his looks and gait, after some moments he rose and followed him. Overtaking him he asked if his name was Nahum G—, and if he ever kept a school in the county of Hancock. Answer being in the affirmative—"In that case," said the youth, "I owe you a debt that has been standing ever since. My name is Seymour B—. Fifteen years ago you whipped me for nothing, and I then took an oath that if I should live to be big enough and meet with you I'd pay you back."

Then he knocked him down. The gentleman, rising, said:

"Well, young man, you bear malice right long; are you satisfied?"

"Entirely. You'll discharge me of the interest, I doubt not. We are even; good day."¹

This case was an exceptional one, for this school discipline, however absurd and needlessly rigorous, was not often marked by cruelty or very much asperity of temper. Habit certainly obtunded the sympathy with which such men might have been born, and so habit served to subdue much of the wrath liable to be indulged against daily delinquents, real and imaginary.

There was one exception, and that in the case of one native born. Oldest of a family of seven boys, with several girls coming on later, son of an upright but stern, saturnine, generally eccentric father, he opened a school, where it was soon made manifest that even above the glory he took in his knowledge of ciphering and possession of an excellent handwriting, and next to the pay he got, was that of wielding the rod and the ferule. It was interesting to note the cheery smiles bespreading his face and the glistening of his white teeth as he looked into the weeping eyes and heard the beseeching cries of his victims. Hardest of all he was upon his younger brothers, perhaps because in his view they were far too supernumerary. One of these particularly, the fifth on the family list, he seemed to hate because he could never make him afraid of him. Occasionally the lad, then about 10 or 11, caught the switch in his hand, remonstrated against his brother's unfeelingness, and declared that he would inform his father. Jerking the weapon away, he laid on with fresh vigor, saying about thus:

"Tell him and welcome, you scoundrel, and get two more whippings in the bargain, one from him and another from me." The boy well understood the efficacy of this threat; but it was interesting and it was pathetic to note the resoluteness with which he continued to resist the audacious despotism and hold out against being subdued in spirit. It got for him many an additional stripe; but this did its own work in developing the manhood that was in him.

Yet such extremes happened not often, and except with his own and some of the lowliest in social standing, this man kept within limits that he knew he could not overpass in safety. He often chose to diffuse his inflictions in ways more funny than harsh. Sometimes placing his chair in the middle of the room, he caused urchins, after forming a ring, to trot around him while he tapped their legs with one of his switches. A favorite exercise was one that he called "horsing." A boy, taking upon his back one of his fellows and coevals, curveted about the room, while the master, pursuing, switched the rider on the part of his body that was most fleshy and exposed. After satisfactory chase, the equestrian entertainment was reversed, rider and horse changing places.

The original of this exhilarating, but rather one-sided sportive exercise, dates farther back than it may be generally supposed. In a letter received by the author of a printed collection of stories of southern life from Dr. Charles Forster Smith,

¹ There is an account of a like intent, but with different results, with a Scotch schoolmaster, one Hacket, and Anderson, an old pupil. "His punishments were so many and unjust that Anderson, who had many a bitter taste of the birch, conceived the most deadly sentiments of revenge against his master. He left the school, went to India, acquired a competency, and returned to spend his days in Scotland. During his long residence in India he never forgot his floggings at school, or his determination to be revenged on Hacket. On his arrival in Scotland he purchased a whip, traveled to the town where he had been educated, and having ordered a dinner for two at an inn, sent a message to Hacket (who had retired from his profession) inviting him to dine with an old pupil. Old Hacket accepted the invitation, dressed himself in his best, and went to the inn. He was ushered into the room where he saw a gentleman who, as soon as he entered, locked the door; then, taking down the whip, introduced himself, and informed the astonished Hacket that he was now about to punish him for the many flagellations he had inflicted upon him at school. So saying he ordered him to strip and receive the punishment. Hacket's presence of mind did not desert him in such untoward circumstances. He acknowledged that perhaps he was a little severe with his boys in old times, but if he had to be punished, he would prefer having dinner first and the flogging afterwards. Anderson could not but assent to such a reasonable proposal, although inwardly resolving that the flogging should be none the lighter for the waiting. So they sat down to the dinner, which proved excellent; and old Hacket's conversation was so fascinating and agreeable that gradually Anderson found his purpose of revenge growing weaker. At last he gave up all thoughts of his whip and the intended flagellation. Hacket got home in perfect safety, for his host insisted upon escorting him to his own door." (His. of the Rod, p. 447.)

professor of Greek in the University of Wisconsin, occurs the following passage: "I have had occasion to refer several times recently in lectures on old Greek schooling to the account of the method of punishment called, I believe, "horsing" or "playing horse," as an interesting survival, practically, of old Greek and Roman ways of punishing. An elderly lady told me the other day that she had known this method applied in a single case in England, but there the teacher may have been consciously imitating Roman customs."

Parker, in the work before quoted, says (p. 449): "In some of the schools in Edinburgh 'horsing' was practiced—one boy being flogged on the back of another boy. In English schools 'horsing' was also prevalent."

Nigh as formidable as the rod was the ferule.¹ But this was used mainly on the girls.

Here one is again reminded of Charles Lamb. Referring to a school kept by one Bird, which in their youth was attended by his sister Mary and himself, he said:

"Whippings were not frequent, but when they took place the correction was performed in a private room where we could only hear the complaints, but saw nothing. This heightened the decorum and the solemnity. But the ordinary punishment was the bastinado, a stroke or two on the palms with that almost obsolete weapon now, the ferule. A ferule was a sort of flat ruler, widened at the inflicting end into a shape resembling a pear—but nothing like so sweet—with a delectable hole in the middle to raise blisters, like a cupping glass. I have an intense recollection of that dismal instrument of torture, and the malignity, in proportion to the apparent mildness, with which its strokes were applied. The idea of a rod is accompanied with something ludicrous; but by no process can I look upon this blister raiser with anything but unmingled horror. To make him look more formidable—if a pedagogue had need of these heightenings—Bird wore one of those flowered Indian gowns formerly in use with schoolmasters, the strange figures upon which we used to interpret into hieroglyphics of pain and suffering.

"I have been called out of my bed, and waked for the purpose, in the coldest winter nights—and this not once, but night after night in my shirt, to receive the discipline of a leathern thong² with eleven other sufferers, because it pleased my callow overseer, when there had been talking heard after we had gone to bed, to make the six last beds in the dormitory, where the youngest children slept, answerable for an offense they neither dared to commit nor had any power to hinder."

This instrument, the ferule, in the hands of the master who is now being considered, was occasionally diverted from use among the girls, partly for the sake of variety, more often for inflictions undertaken vicariously.

A year or so back a friend of this writer sent to him a copy of a volume lately published in Paris, a production of M. Varigny, entitled *Les Femmes des États-Unis*. The opening sentence, "*L'Europe s'américanise*," attracted to its perusal at once. It contains quite a number of commentaries, some quite amusing, and some as thoughtful upon society in the United States, particularly as it is affected by the chivalric sentiment felt by men for women. One occasion when this sentiment was displayed seemed to him peculiar, and he devoted considerable space to its consideration, giving an extract of several pages taken from a character sketch entitled "How Mr. Bill Williams took the responsibility." The story was founded upon a custom obtaining in old-field schools in middle Georgia, in which when a girl was judged to come under need of punishment, she might escape by substitution of one of the boys.³ When and where the custom originated could not, it is most probable,

¹ A name well derived from "ferire," to strike.

² Possibly the only instance of this diversion from the instruments aforementioned occurred in a school situate on the western section of our region. The master used a leather strap which, among others, served the purpose of rod and ferule. On one occasion, in the hurry of castigation, he grasped it by the tail instead of the head, and had proceeded but a little way when the boy, writhing with the uncommon pain, shrieked: "The buckle 'end, Mr. Dobbins! You're givin' me the buckle 'end!" The fun was so exquisite that infliction was suspended sooner than usual that the master might laugh his laugh.

³ In this very interesting book are reflections upon the relations between President Jackson and Mrs. Eaton, between Jerome Bonaparte and his first wife, Elizabeth Patterson, of Baltimore, and between Jay Gould and his wife. The following is a portion of the concluding page:

"Si l'Union américaine est aujourd'hui l'un des premiers pays du monde, elle le doit, en grande partie, à la femme américaine qui fut et qui est encore un important facteur de son étonnante prospérité. Les États-Unis lui doivent d'avoir conservé la foi religieuse, ce principe de vitalité, importé par les Pilgrin Fathers sur les côtes de l'Amérique. Elle a été l'efficace artisan de l'œuvre première; elle l'a maintenue, étendue, élargie par le temple et l'école. Aux heures difficiles, lors de la guerre de l'indépendance et, plus tard, lors de la guerre de sécession, le patriotisme de la femme a soutenu le courage de l'homme. En toutes circonstances, elle fut sa compagne et son égale. Comme telle, il l'a respectée, et ce respect qu'elle lui a inspiré, par son abnégation et sa vaillance au début, par son intelligence et sa culture, ensuite, par ses charmes et sa confiance en sa protection, a façonné les mœurs américaines, les a fortement imprégnées de l'idée que de sa compagne était pour l'homme l'une des premières conditions de la vie morale. Cette vie morale est son œuvre à elle; elle l'a créée et elle l'entretient. Dans le culte dont elle-même est l'objet, dans l'hommage que l'homme lui rend, il y a plus et mieux que l'attrait que son sexe inspire, il y a l'instinctive reconnaissance d'une grande et solitaire influence noblement exercée."

be told, but certain it is that seventy-five years ago it was universal in these schools in the case of girls of considerable growth, often with the smallest. Indeed, one of the coquetries of girls was made specially manifest in those frequent essays of enforced gallantry. Many a girl did a punishable thing simply in order to make trial of chivalrousness among her boy schoolmates. That she would suffer remorse for such experimenting, or be sensible of acute sympathy for the pain of sacrifice made in her behalf, was not to be expected. She might express some little concern, along with thanks, but the smile on her face and the twinkle in her eyes showed that in her judgment he had only rendered a service that it would have been shameful to neglect. Scenes of this sort not unfrequently later on led to consequences happy to both, unions of hearts and hands in preparation for joint performance of the work and joint experience of the fortunes of life. They had their relative importance among other indications of what might not improperly be called the reverence that was paid by the men in that community to its women. A custom time-honored as this, even a master like the one last mentioned could not wholly ignore. There were some girls, daughters of the humbler sort, plain, uncommonly indocile, whom he would have liked to treat as boys. But these, like their brighter and more respectable companions, went not without substitutes; yet he occasionally railed at them in terms and tones that no brave sane man is ever tempted to employ toward the female sex.¹

In this same school was a pupil, the recollection of whom, now so far away in the past, suggests thoughts of comparison between him and that character in the courts of absolute monarchs in the Middle Ages known as the fool. Regarding this latter personage, it used to seem strange that he could ever have imparted as much interest. Reflection, aided by considerable reading upon the speculations of critics upon the subject, has served to convince that he was a necessary constituent in the suite of a despotic autocrat. A king whose will is absolute and his authority claiming and receiving unquestioning submission, needs to have about him one whose careerings in apparently independent speech and other deportment serve as a foil against the surfeit that sometimes must come from continuous abjection of servility in the rest of his attendants. The mimicry of freedom and courage, the vauntings, the ludicrous givings and takings of pointless gibes, not only make pleasant diversion, but they contribute to his sense of security when the flatterers around him, even the most aspiring, see in such essays that all thoughts of gainsaying his domination are possible to none but fools. And so this semblance of rivalry is put in fanciful garments, with cap and sword, having access to all knots and companies with a liberty to say and do as may please his little soul.

The person herein alluded to was a young man near full grown, who, not being passionately fond of the work on his father's farm, and persuading the old gentleman that it might be well to have somewhat more added to the little stock of knowledge he already had, came to this school really for the purpose of getting amusement for himself and adding to the entertainment of the teacher, who was his friend. It is not remembered whether he ever recited a lesson. He may have done a little ciphering, advising with the master from time to time touching obstinate problems in arithmetic, all to put some little of cover over his idleness and general good-for-nothingness. But his main service as he is now remembered, as he sat near the master, was to make funny remarks on the exercises, recitations, conning of tasks, Friday evening speakings, and whippings. In all probability he had been beaten habitually and

¹ It seems too monstrous to be credited, but in English female schools as recent as the time of the country schools herein described, discipline was more shockingly atrocious than in male. In a letter by an aged English gentlewoman to her granddaughter she tells of some of her experiences in the early part of this present century at Regent House, near Bath, a select school to which none were admitted except young ladies of the "first fashion." One of the instruments of punishment was made of five pieces of whalebone wound around with waxed thread to keep them together, giving what was called by the pupils "Soko," and its fangs were like a cat o' nine tails, spreading over the quivering flesh. The following account is interesting:

"There were two or three degrees of severe whipping. One was in private, with only the Misses Pomeroy and a servant present; another was being publicly prepared for the punishment before the whole school, and then being forgiven, and lastly, there was the public whipping fully carried out." Of her only one private whipping she says: "I was formally bidden by the teacher in charge of the schoolroom at the time to fetch the rod and carry it into a room which the principals called their study. There I found the two ladies, before whom I knelt and presented the rod, which the elder took and drew through her fingers caressingly, as it seemed to me. Then she rang a hand bell which stood upon the table beside her, and one of the maids entered and was bidden to prepare me. This was done by simply turning my clothes up and holding my hands." Further on she adds: "Alas! I got used both to feeling and seeing such floggings before I left Regent House. I have seen marriageable girls flogged for breaches of discipline before all their schoolfellows, the necessary portion of their dress being removed. There was a dress put on for a public flogging, something like a nightgown, and in this the culprit was exhibited before all her schoolmates to receive her punishment. She was made to stoop forward over one of the desks, her hands being firmly held by an attendant, and her feet secured in the stocks on the floor. I remember well a young lady being chastised in this way only a few weeks before she left school to be married." (History of the Rod, p. 456.)

An added zest to these ladies' enjoyment of such inflictions consisted in this: Culprits humbly petitioned for them, and after they were over expressed grateful thanks.

sorely during his own early school days, and so was taking this post-graduate course in order to realize fully the reminder that his time for such as that was over, and to enjoy the sight that others' was still on hand. Answers in recitation pronounced unsatisfactory by the master seemed to please him well, and provoked mildly facetious comments. But the highest height of his wit and of its enjoyment was reached when derelictions of any sort were rectified by the switch or the ferule, varied now and then with slaps with the hand upon the cheek, or by blows upon the head with the fist. How long he continued there can not now be remembered, but these exploitings of his could not be forgotten. Not long afterwards the master migrated, and during many years we heard of his doings, his beginnings and endings, his ups and downs, his growth in vagaries and eccentricities, and finally his lapse into insanity. His treatment, so brutal in rigor, was no longer recalled with anger, his pupils grown to maturity reflecting that this infirmity, then unnoticed, may have already begun in the period of inflection. He is dismissed with the following anecdote and one of his rules in spelling:

A plain girl, nearly grown, who had come in but lately, was called upon to read the Partial Judge in Webster's spelling book. Persons familiar with that ancient and intensely revered text-book, recall this impressive story of the farmer and the lawyer, touching the unequal encounter between the bull of the latter and the farmer's ox, in which was made immortal the maxim, "The business could have been concluded without an *if*." This girl had not been made acquainted with the master's rule that one of the words in the spirited account must be omitted and a couple of others substituted in its stead. Having read as well as she could and with becoming solemnity these words, "One of your oxen has been gored by an unfortunate bull——" she was suddenly stopped, looked at with severe displeasure, and thus accosted:

"I'm astonished at you, Betsey——! But I suppose, as you're a new 'un, you didn't know any better, and that the rules of this school is, that when scholars come across that awful last word, they've got to drop it, and say man-cow, which it is decenter and shows more manners."

In spelling the name "Aaron" his pupils were required to say, "Big A, knock down little a, r-o-n—ron, Aaron."

Indeed, very few resentments were afterwards indulged toward these petty despots. On the contrary, this writer, hundreds and hundreds of times, in conversations with persons of all classes, particularly with men eminent at the bar, in the forum and the pulpit, has heard recitals of numberless absurdest oddities, wherein their own, as well as others', school floggings were told amid shouts of heartiest laughter. The idea with all was that in the old times such flagellations were as much an indispensable part in the make-up of a schoolmaster as his head and the thimbleful of brains it contained; that this item had to be held in practical application by habitual exercise just as his physical existence was sustained by daily food; that whipping, the only thing he knew to perfection, must be kept handy, with never a thought of relaxation.

GAMES.

Games in these schools were as hearty as simple. Girls, who always played apart, were fond of "jumping the rope," two holding the ends at distance of about half its length, twirling it on high and beneath rapidly, while, as it struck the ground, one or more standing in the middle of the space between leaped or hopped over. Victory was adjudged to her who did so oftenmost without impeding the revolution.

Checks.—Perhaps the favorite sport was "checks." Providing themselves with pebbles of quartz gathered among the shallows of the spring branch, of satisfactory shape and size (about two-thirds of an inch in diameter), these, five in number, they put through various evolutions, some quite intricate. Kneeling upon the grass or the floor, the player with her right hand kept continually casting in the air one of the pebbles, employing the intervals of ascent and descent in various maneuvering of the others with the left, taking care to catch the fugitive on its return. Beginning with picking up first one and then another, arranged at corners of a square, this performance ended with gathering all at one sweep, the while her quick eyes alternated between these and the traveler in its ascending and descending, 6, 8, 10, and sometimes 12 feet. Then came on other exploits, resting tips of thumb and fingers of the left hand upon the floor, or the ground, when without doors, at proper intervals, various evolutions were done with the right during the unresting movements of the leading pebble; as "cooping the chicken," "putting calves in the cuppin" (cow pen), "carrying the horses to water," "leaping the bars," etc. Any miscarriage during these exercises "put out" the actor, and another took the checks. Interesting was the delight taken by girls in this sport and the adroitness acquired by many.

Another exercise in this game consisted in casting up all the five checks and catching them on the back of the hand. To one fond of tracing things back to their original, this is interesting because of being played by children among the ancient

Greeks, by whom, according to the author of Charicles, it was called *ἀστράγαλίσκος*, from *ἀστράγαλος*, a joint bone, from which dice were made.¹

This account was gathered from Julius Pollux (whose name properly was Polydeuces), a distinguished Greek grammarian, although an Egyptian by birth, who taught in Athens about the middle of the second century A. D., and was much favored by the Emperors Marcus Aurelius and Commodus. He adds that it was more of a woman's game, and this, as well as his whole account, is corroborated by a monochromatic painting of Niobe's visit to Latona, where the girls are represented playing at this game.

In Georgia it was exclusively a girl's play, just as marbles belonged to boys. One of the latter might occasionally be provoked by his sister or other female friend to try his hand, in order to enjoy his awkward displays, just as he did with their essays at his own peculiar games.

Hopscotch.—Another of their games was "hopscotch." A figure of parallelogram shape about 10 by 6 feet was divided into four spaces, the third from the bottom subdivided into four smaller by lines marked and crossing each other diagonally from its corners. A flattened stone being pitched to the fourth, the upper space, a girl hopped into the first, second, and third spaces, alighted with both feet, the right upon one and the left upon the other of the triangular spaces whose bases were on the long sides of the parallelogram, and then hopped into the upper space. Using only her right foot, she sought to pass with it the stone over the lower spaces, the four triangles, and the two parallelograms. This had to be done in due sequence. If a forceful thrust carried the stone over the next space into the one beyond, she must thrust it back and repeat the exercise. In all this while if the stone should rest on any one of the lines, she was thrown out. If at any time during the performance she was disposed to rest her right foot, she was at liberty to substitute the left.

Chickamy, chickamy, crany, crow.—To this game small boys were occasionally admitted, provided among the girls there were any large and discreet enough to repress their proneness to become rude or boisterous. It was played not often, particularly in the sight or hearing of superiors, who objected on account of the liability of clothes to be torn in some of its rather violent evolutions. It went about thus:

Two among the largest were chosen, one to represent a hen and the other a witch, who was of a mind to get chickens for her meal. The rest (who were the brood), each grasping the skirt or jacket of the one in front, beginning with the biggest, ranged themselves in a line behind their parent. This movement was made at the moment when the hen came upon the witch laying down some sticks with which to build a fire. The following colloquy then took place:

Hen. I went to the well to wash my toe
When I came back, one of my chickens was gone;
What o'clock, old witch?

This was repeated as many times as there were chicks. After naming some hour, the colloquy continued:

Hen. What are you doing, old witch?
Witch. Making a fire.
Hen. What for?
Witch. To heat some water.
Hen. What's the water for?
Witch. To scald a chicken.
Hen. Where'll you get it?
Witch. Out of your flock.

At this the witch rose and ran to the right and left alternately, seeking an opportunity to get behind the hen, who spiritedly watched and tried to hinder, the while the line swinging hither and thither like the movements of a snake. It was not very long before one by one they were slung apart from the line, and, falling in the grasp of the witch, were carried off. The colloquy was repeated after each capture. The play ended with the last. Not seldom the captive carried with her a piece of the forerunner's vesture, or left it in need of prompt readjustment.²

Grind the bottle, or puss in the corner.—Like chickamy, chickamy, crany, crow, the chief merit of this game with girls was the jostling it contained. Indeed, this

¹There was another game of skill, not chance, which was played with these astragals, or knuckle bones, and which is still a favorite amusement of schoolboys in our day. Five astragals or pebbles were laid on the palm of the hand; the player then threw them up and tried to catch them on the back of the hand.

²In *The Girls' Own Book*, by Mrs. Valentine, the first word in the name of this play is "Chickany," instead of "Chickamy," and for the "witch" a "fox" is substituted. Another change is described thus: "At these words, the fox starts up and the hen and the chickens disperse and run away in all directions; the fox pursues them, and when she succeeds in catching a chicken that chicken becomes fox, and seats herself in the middle of the room, while the former fox takes the place of the hen at the head of the procession of chickens."

was so pronounced that it was not seldom that during its most exhilarating midst the mother of the family wherein it was held, or her handmaid, appeared at the door with the announcement that no more of it must be had on that occasion, and so they had to stop, blow, and fan themselves for a space, and go into another that was less tumultuous.

Seats, one less the number of the players, were placed around the room or a space outside beneath the trees. The one not provided with a seat, kneeling in the midst and holding a bottle, began grinding it on the floor. Suddenly she let it rest, instantly rose, and made for one of the chairs which the others at the same moment had vacated. Everyone had to change her seat and seek a new one other than either of those next to hers on the right or left. It was against the rule, and if it had not been was not often practicable, for any two by preconcerted movement to exchange seats with each other. In the rush many a couple aiming for the same were jostled in a way that provoked much fun and laughter.

In time the bottle was excluded as a thing inconvenient and not entirely safe to handle, when the name also was changed to that of puss in the corner.

Blindfold.—This game, formerly called blind man's buff, is known to all, having been played, it is probable, from the beginning of settlements wherein families were numerous and contiguous enough to allow children to meet in habitual congregation and acquaintance. It was played by both girls and small boys, separate or together. The only trick to be guarded against was the one with bandage over the eyes, either by his own adroitness or connivance of her who tied it, getting a vacant or thinly covered space through which she could descry and distinguish her captive, and by naming her get released, substituting the latter in her place. Detection led to the guilty one's exclusion by unanimous acclamation. No boy was allowed to tie for another who was known to be one of his particular pals.

Prisoners' base.—Two rival companies were formed, each with its own base. Any one who, while coursing about the field, was caught by another of the opposite party who had left her base after the former, was carried and held captive within a ring behind the captor's base, with chance of rescue when one of her own, seizing an unguarded moment, rushed to the edge of the ring and succeeded in touching her eagerly extended hand. The game was ended on capture of the last of one party.

Hide and seek.—This game, always played out of doors, went thus: One who was to be the hunter, having a bandage over the eyes, was placed, for further protection to the hiders, with her face leaned against a tree in the arc of the space in which they were to hide themselves. Then the others ran off in various directions to seek their separate coverts. They were supposed all to have found these during the time occupied by the hunter in counting a hundred. When the count was finished, she removed the bandage, turned, and for a moment surveyed the field. Then she moved in her search. When she found one, she gave a shout of triumph, at sound of which the one found and the other hiders all made haste for the starting point, the one reaching there last, as a forfeit, taking the place of the hunter. As all sports must have some of the spirit of disputation, even when without any degree of asperity, not seldom the hunter had to defend herself as well as she could against the charge of one, who, suspecting or pretending to suspect herself to have been too soon and easily found, accused her of peeping from behind the bandage or of making her count with unfair rapidity.

Hide the switch.—This was a more exciting game than the foregoing. All the players except one turned their backs upon her while, a switch being provided, she moved away to seek for a suitable place wherein to hide it. Danger of espionage was well enough prevented by the watch put upon the lookers by one another. Not wholly relying upon that, however, the hider, even when having already in her mind the place of deposit, approached several others as if debating in her mind which was the best to select. When the switch was deposited, the hider, after repeating her rounds, emerged and gave a shout. In order to hinder the play from being conducted with too long and tiresome search, the hider had to expedite to some degree by giving intimations of the uselessness of looking closely at recesses very remote from the one sought. In such cases she uttered the cry "cold," at which the hunters immediately turned away and made for others. As they began to approximate the true one, the cry "warm" stirred to eagerness, and those of "hot" and "red hot" to intense excitement; that of "a blaze of fire" to fury. When in their haste they passed over the spot, the hunter, with tone implying disgust, cried "cooling off." After that the finding was quick and violent. Discovery by more than one was inevitable, and the discoverers each did the best she knew how to grab the switch. During this last struggle the others on either side rose in order to prepare for the retreat home, for the finder had the right to give as many cuts as she could put upon her rivals on the way there. If two or more hands grasped at the same instant, the advantage was with the one who held the larger end. This generally enabled her to jerk it from the others, who were then sure of getting one or more stripes before attaining the place of security.

This game was not very often indulged in because of the anger apt to be excited by a cut which inflicted more pain than the sufferer in her own mind decided to be fair.

Old Sister Phæbe.—This game, despite its simplicity, was a favorite, particularly with young girls, on account, perhaps, of the quaint language and the music in the couplet repeatedly sung during its performance. One, personating the dame, sat in a chair; the others, joining hands, forming a ring and moving around her, slowly chanted:

Old Sister Phæbe, how happy was she,
When she sat under the juniper tree.

At the end of every chant a momentary pause was made to allow one from those behind the sitter to withdraw quietly and hide herself. This was repeated until the last had withdrawn. Sister Phæbe, whose sleeping had been soothed by the music, awakened by the silence, rising and looking anxiously around, called loudly for her charge. At the call all came running back with the joyous cry, "Heigh-ho! says Rolla." Generally girls preferred to play this alone because of the discord occasioned by boys' careless and otherwise unharmonious chanting. It used to be very pleasant to grown persons, heads of families, when, on moon-lit summer nights, children of both races were allowed to play it together in the yard.

Miley Bright.—This play, yet more simple than the other, went thus: The children ranged themselves in line facing the larger space, slightly semicircular. Between the girls at the foot and the one at the head, beginning with the former, was this colloquy:

How many miles to Miley Bright?
Three score and ten.
Can I get there by candlelight?
Yes, if your legs are long as light.

The answer awoke the admonition, "Mind the old witch don't catch you on the way." At that all would run away except those at the extremes, who pursued until all were caught.

Williamson Trimbletoe.—In this game the children each placed the middle finger of one hand in a circle upon some object, a block if out of doors, or someone's knee if within, and one with her forefinger, beginning with her own middle finger, made the circle of touching all alternately in sequence, word by word, of the following verses:

Williamson Trimbletoe,
He's a good fisherman;
Catches his hens
And puts them in pens;
Some lay eggs and some lay none,
Wire, brier, lumber lock,
Sits and sings till 12 o'clock;
The clock run down,
The mouse run round
O-u-t spells out—
And Be-gone!

At that instant all except the one upon whose finger the last word fell flew away, while she, personating Williamson Trimbletoe, pursued the chickens, and, catching one by one, conveyed her to the pen. There was neither advantage nor disadvantage to the one counting, as her own finger was in equal chance with the others in escaping the final word.

BOYS' GAMES.

Ball.—Of this favorite sport there were several sorts, all of which of late years have given way to the modern baseball.

Town ball.—Baseball certainly has carried batting, particularly catching, to a degree beyond any attained in old-time town ball; but for heartiness in enjoyment of sport, and sport only, for healthfulness of activities, eager but never overstrained, for harmlessness of accidents impossible to become dangerous or seriously painful, for innocence in triumphs in victories, and moderation of discomfitures in defeats, the younger is far behind the one it supplanted. Parties were never continuous in constituent elements. Two lads of equal or approximate fame, after casting at "cross and pile" (throwing three times on high a paddle with a cross on one side and guessing at the fall) for first choice, selection of followers was made alternately from oldest to the very youngest, so that those who were rivals to-day might be comrades to-morrow. Each party had its ins directly following the other. Losses were incurred by catching from behind the ball missed by the striker, or in its flight upon the field from stroke of the paddle, or hitting the runner between bases. An hour or so was generally sufficient for each party to enjoy its ins. The most exciting period in this game was when the ins were reduced to one. In that emergency, if he could make as many as three rounds, he had liberty to call in one of his party.

At such time he called upon one to run in his place, while he stood and rested between the strokes. If the ball was caught in the air or after the first rebound, or if the runner was hit with it on the circuit, or it was thrown and reached home before the circuit was completed, the striker went out. These contingencies had to be faced three runs consecutively. It not unfrequently occurred that a vigorous boy who used a round, heavy bat instead of the paddle cast the ball with such momentum and in such unexpected direction as to achieve success.

The only serious accident at this game that the writer recalls occurred at the hands of the master, the one with the clubbed hand hereinafter described. This man occasionally took part in the game, though he had little alertness. It was done possibly partly for the sake of other society besides his own and of seeming to take some interest in the enjoyments of his pupils, a thing not very easy to make believe. On this occasion, being the last survivor on his side, indulging hope of calling back to life one of his dead comrades, he was not very far from sending another to his grave. His strokes were, of course, with the left hand. After taking his position at the home base, out of a half dozen of little boys proposing to be his runner he selected one about ten years old, and charging him against betrayal of the trust that was placed on him by running and dodging to compass the desired feat, he called for a ball. The runner, one foot in advance of its mate, watched eagerly for the stroke. With all his might the striker struck at the coming ball. Unfortunately he missed it, and the bat, slipping from his grasp, struck his runner upon the cheek, felling him to the ground. The shriek that came from the prostrate boy relieved apprehension that he was killed, yet he bore the scar during the more than fifty years of his after life.

Cat.—In this game two boys who were ins were opposed by all the others. Two bases were taken some 20 yards apart. Immediately behind each of those who occupied them stood two others, whose office was to give the ball to the occupant of the further base and catch it whenever missed by the one behind whom he stood. At every stroke of the ball the ins exchanged places. During this exchange, catching the ball, hitting one of the ins, or casting the ball across the space between him and the base to which he was hastening, threw him out. Also, as was the rule in town ball, a miss of the ball three times, whether caught or not by the one in rear of the hitter, put him out.

Bull pen.—In this game a space about 20 yards square was chosen into which one of the parties entered while four of the other occupied the corners. The ball was thrown from one to another along the sides, and after the round was made and then passed from the first diagonally across to the third, it was said to be "hot." These four, without any fixed order of sequence, but according to probable chances of success, cast the ball at those in the pen. If it missed it counted for naught; if it hit, he and his comrades took to flight, when an insider threw the ball at one of them; if he hit, the latter was out and the one stricken restored. The art of throwing and dodging, rendered keen by much practice, made this game often intensely interesting both to parties and beholders, particularly so when the actors were reduced to two, one running from base to base seeking opportunities and the other keeping at as great distance as possible, the two procrastinating the result sometimes for half an hour.

Socket.—This game was resorted to only occasionally and when time was too short for the others. The ball was cast aloft, and on return whoever got it threw it at his next neighbor, and this was repeated without count of any sort until all were weary. It was a sort of what was called a free fight without rule or reckoning.

The balls used in these games were of domestic make with woolen thread, and tightly covered with buckskin. Lucky and envid was the boy who from a worn rubber shoe, a thing seldom used, got cuttings to be substituted for thread. This writer easily recalls the first introduction of those of solid rubber gotten at the stores, but this was at the village academy to be referred to hereafter.

Jumping.—Of this there were several named sorts—quarter hammond, half hammond, whole hammond, etc. In the first, a boy, standing on both feet, sprang forward, alighting on his right; then hopping, he thrust the right leg forward, at the same time twisting in his left and alighting with its foot on the right side, then jumped with both feet. Little space could be traveled because of the awkwardness in putting the left leg and foot to unnatural use. Half hammond was a hop, a skip, and a jump. Rising from both feet he hopped, alighting upon his right foot, stepped as far as he could with the left, and ended with a jump. In whole hammond there were two hops, two skips, and two jumps. Sometimes the jumper was helped as far as the first hop with weights. These were always used in single jumps, and throughout three jumps, casting them behind in the last. Three jumps backward in some places were called crack backs. All these, except the last, were made both with and without taking a "running start."

Knucks.—The game of knucks was played by rolling marbles forth and back into four small holes, three in a line, a yard or so apart and another equidistant and at right angles from the third. The one coming out last underwent the penalty of holding his fist over the first hole, while the rest, standing as the third, took three

shots apiece at his knuckles. When a shooter's marble, in his too great eagerness to hit plump and hard, struck the victim's sleeve, the latter had a shot at him.

Ring marbles.—This was the favorite. At it, two or three or four played. Sometimes there were six, but not frequently because of inconvenience and liability to confusion. In case of three, each was opposed to the others. In case of four, two were partners against the other two. A ring from 10 to 18 inches in diameter was described upon the ground. In it were put 5 marbles, 4 on the ring equidistant from each other and 1 in the middle. Each player had his own marble (called his "taw") which he shot with his thumb and third finger. The lead was obtained by the one (or his partner) who from the starting point (also called "taw") made the nearest shot at the middle man. This was done by plumping, as it was called to distinguish from rolling. When the sport began, a successful hit at this middle man won that game, the score of which was always an odd number, seldom below 5 or over 11. There were quite a number of rules to be observed. Three out of the 5 marbles struck from the ring, with every subsequent contingency avoided, won the count. Yet, in this while, if his taw was struck by his adversary's, he was said to be killed. If only two were playing, that ended the contest. If more, the dead man's winnings were taken by the slayer. Then he must avoid letting his taw stop in the ring unless it did so after striking out the last. If so, he was made "fat," which was equivalent to being dead, perishing without violence. There was little comfort, however, in this mode of death, for, besides the jeers of adversaries, were self-reproaches for carelessness and complainings against ill luck. If the taw was stopped on the ring itself it was ring bound and became subjected to a shot apiece from adversaries.

After a majority of those in the ring was gotten the others kept themselves as near as possible to the ring so that the holder was forced to shoot at a distance at the others or at his adversaries, and with force enough to keep out of the way of the latter. When the holder had gotten the fourth man, and probability of getting the last became urgent, his adversary in the last resort might call him to track. This was done by placing the last marble at a fit place on the ring, and his taw behind and adjoining. Then at a distance of 3 feet the other, holding his hand on the ground, took a shot at him. If he missed, noting the position, the other struck the marble in the ring on the top, with such force, and no more, as would pass it out of the ring, and thus, as it were, rode on toward his adversary, at whom he could shoot once. If he missed he was vanquished and that count ended. The word most often spoken during a game of marbles was "vence," intended as a premonition to a player against a suspected movement which, without such remonstrance, he had the right to make, as to change his position without diminution of distance from the point he was aiming at. This was called "roundance; lose no groundance." Or a player might "lay up," as it was called, placing his taw near the ring. The monitory word spoken in time hindered. Then if a marble met an unexpected obstruction it was liable to be kicked on the way it was going. "Vence" or "kicks" would decide according to quickness in the call.

This game was practiced much, even by grown men before village and country stores. Some had such fondness for it as to acquire a facility so near perfection that many refused to play against them except upon being given some advantage that might lessen the disparity.

Occasionally girls undertook it, but their crudeness (shooting with thumb and forefinger only) provoked laughter, to which they not often exposed themselves.

In all these exercises was never a piece tending to meanness or serious immorality. The nearest approach was in the game called "sweepstakes," in which players, placing an equal number of marbles in the ring, by common understanding kept each for himself all that he knocked out. It certainly was not as innocent as the others, particularly with very young lads and with uncommonly poor boys with whom it was far less easy and less convenient than now to obtain such playthings as had to be purchased from the stores in town. It tended to acrimonious disputings and unfair playings for prizes of universal desire. For this reason most children were forbidden by their parents to practice it.

Leapfrog.—This game, familiar to all rural people, has been played, it is probable, all over the world from the beginning. This writer lately found a brief account of it in a work, elaborately gotten up in a small edition de luxe by Stewart Culin, entitled *Korean Games*, with Notes on the Corresponding Games of China and Japan. The account runs thus:

"This game" (*toui-ye-nem-ki*, meaning jumping over), "is played by several persons, one of whom leans over, putting his hands on the ground, and the others who stand behind him vault over his back by putting their hands upon his shoulders.

"Leapfrog is a very common game in Japan, under the name of 'tobi-koshi,' jumping over."

This description needed the illustration by a Japanese artist to be made to compare at all with the genuine game of the South. Satisfactorily convenient is the attitude

of the boy resting on his all fours, and decent the leisure of him who is taking his time in the leap over. True, the leaper seems inclined to straighten his legs and rest awhile as he is about to pass over the recumbent's neck, but the latter's patient fat jaws show moderate willingness to wait till the trip is made.

In old times in Georgia the game, during the brief space through which it lasted, was quite spirited. It was generally played while on the way to or from school or other place of meeting. Large boys did not care to include those of small size, although, yielding to their eager petitions, sometimes they let them in, and sported with their vain essays at impossible leaps. Passing over them without more than touching shoulders with the tips of their fingers, they put themselves prostrate before their approaches, or rose when they were over their necks and rushing along tumbled them over the next one ahead. In this sport with boys of like size, the one stooping slightly bowed his head, and the following, resting hands heavily upon his shoulders, passed over. A score or more of boys of good size, through half a dozen rounds or more made with rapidity and activity, was an interesting sight.

Clapping hands.—In the same book, account is given of a game in China named "p'ah cheung," which is even less simple than in our region. Two children, sitting face to face, clap first their knees, then their hands, then the right hand of each other, then their own hands and knees and their own hands, then the left hand of each other, and after repeated similar performances upon themselves all four hands are clapped. The process is repeated with continually increasing spirit until one makes a miss and is laughed at for his defeat. While the clapping was going on in our region these verses were rehearsed in time with the consecutive operations:

Peach pie hot,
Peach pie cold,
Peach pie in the pot,
Nine days old.

The last clapping of one's own hands and knees was doubled, so as not to "get ahead of the music."

Tag.—This simple game is found also among the Koreans, Japanese, and Chinese, though on a scale more simple than in the United States. From its name, *syoun-ra-tjap-ki*, kindly interpreted by the author of Korean Games, etc., to mean "watchman catching," the *syoun-ra* (Chinese, *ts-sun-lo*), who is watchman, chases the others, endeavoring to catch them. The one who is caught becomes the *syoun-ra*. When a boy sits down and says "taik kok" he may not be caught. The one who is to be *syoun-ra* at first is decided by drawing straws.

In the South there was mutuality between two or more, no one being assigned to a peculiar part. The contest was to get the last "tag," then turn and flee while the other pursued. Each had his own base to which he might repair, either when too hotly pursued or for getting a breathing spell. If while far from his base he found himself likely to be caught before reaching it, he might turn upon his pursuer and crossing his middle finger over his forefinger hold them thus in view. If time were sufficient for the action, he was free.

In studying these games of children among the Koreans one is impressed by the fact that in those in which one participant is placed in undesirable or embarrassing positions, or in one in which he is at comparative disadvantage, his gender for the time-being is ignored, and he instead of "he" is called "it." This is the case in tag, and particularly so in games when one has to submit to have his eyes bandaged, as in "blindfold" and "hide and seek." Yet in Japan the one styled "it" among the Koreans becomes Oni, "Devil," and the play Oni Gokko, "Devil Catching." There, also, the players have bases to which they may run for refuge.

This ignoring of sex may be accounted for thus. Curious as it is, with simple people in the rural districts of middle Georgia, most probably in such communities everywhere, one who is afflicted with a serious infirmity, mental or physical, especially if born so, is called "It," whatever be the sex. Somehow, one born blind, or a deaf-mute, or an idiot, is regarded by humble folk as outside the circle of normal existence, and being doomed to perpetual absence of ordinary individuality, regarded as indistinguishable by sex. The custom has for its foundation the compassion we feel in contemplating a case of ever-during defenseless isolation from mankind. For such solitary lives we are easily led to indulge some affection outside of what may spring from kinship. The same feeling prompts to giving endearing sexless names to those whom we love most tenderly, as "Darling," which is abbreviated from "Dear little thing." Country people call a babe "it"; even mothers so address their own sucklings, and the name is often repeated beyond infancy while extending comforting words in cases of suffering, either in body or in heart. The helplessness, the unconsciousness of sex, the absence of any responsibility, the entire innocence of infancy, all serve to keep out of mind consideration of sex, and the babe is regarded as if it had it not. This is doubtless the reason why the Greeks, whose language was the richest of all, had two words for "child," one of doubtful,

the other of neuter gender; thus *παῖς* is "a child"; it may be a boy and it may be a girl, but *παῖδιον*, which is neuter, signifies "a little child."

How "it" in tag among Korean children should be transformed by Japanese into "devil" is a question too subtle for this writer to investigate with the hope of getting to a satisfactory solution.

Mumble peg.—This game was sometimes resorted to by two boys when become rather surfeited by marbles and other like games. Its enjoyment to the victor grew out of witnessing the discomfiture of the vanquished at the nature of the penalty to be paid.

It consisted in a trial of skill in throwing an open pocketknife into the air through various evolutions and making it fall with point of the blade foremost and stick in the ground. When it was finished, the victor, placing the sharpened end of a short peg on the ground, drove it down as far as possible by holding in his hand the blade of the knife and hammering with the handle, giving the number of strokes (usually three) agreed upon. Then the other with his teeth drew out the peg. An adroit holder of the hammer could force the peg sometimes to a depth beyond its head, in which case the other was driven to clear away with his teeth the surrounding earth before he could get a bite sufficiently firm to extract. Occasionally, but seldom, a couple of little girls might be detected at this game while supposing that they could keep themselves unseen.

Shinney.—This game in the States farther north is called "hockey," sometimes "bandy." It was never known in Georgia by other name than "shinney." Two parties, providing themselves each individually with a stick, one of whose ends was crooked, contended across a long space, at each end of which was a narrow opening, to drive a ball of usually two or three inches thickness through these openings. It often became intensely exciting, sometimes an ardent player getting a knock on the lower part of the leg, a contingency which doubtless imparted to the sport its name. Contending parties by the rules were not allowed to place themselves otherwise than face to face in their attitudes to each other. Sometimes it might happen to be of advantage to reverse one's stroke in order to get the ball in position to be worked with more ease upon the desired directions, and the temptation was to get upon the opposite side and strike with the enemy's. But the cry of "Shinney on your own side" stopped such movement, or, if it succeeded, the result was declared to be won foully. In such cases, therefore, that sort of work was done by shifting the stick to the left hand.

The sport was so violent and often productive of physical hurt that it was discouraged, sometimes forbidden by parents.

In throwing for the start each party preferred to lose. The party winning had to cast the ball, and so give to his opponent the first stroke. Of this casting there were two sorts. The leader holding the ball asked of the other how he would have it, "high buck, or low doe." If he answered the latter, it was dropped upon the ground; if the former, it was cast up. Occasionally it happened that in the latter throw a skillful player, carrying a stout stick, struck with such aim and vigor as to propel the ball to the goal.

Lap jacket.—In this play, by some called "rap jacket," two boys, providing themselves with a switch apiece, agreed to lay on each the other until one cried "enough" and ceased to strike. They began with gently tapping the shoulders. By and by, when lookers-on jeered at their child's playing and want of pluck, or one made a cut that gave a sting, from which the shrinking sufferer was laughed at by the same lookers-on, he returned it with interest. Then it was interesting to see the amount of utterly useless endurance a boy could exhibit rather than acknowledge himself overcome. Too often the sport ended in closing for a fight, from which they had to be separated by friends.

In one of the counties of this region resided a man, two of whose sons, 10 and 11 years of age, of about the same size, brave, ardent, generous, rather combative lads, although devotedly fond of each other, occasionally fell into disputings which were apt to end in fights, in which sometimes one and sometimes the other got the best of it. Afterwards they soon became reconciled and went about coupled as before. One day the father, while seated in his piazza, saw them engaged in a fight in the front grove. Sending a man servant with orders to separate and bring the combatants to him, he added to those to cut two keen, wiry, hickory switches of not too small length and thickness. When all were at hand he playfully remarked that after such a hard-fought battle, in which neither had shown the white feather and it had to become a drawn battle, he thought it only fair, just, and right that the warriors should be allowed to indulge in a nice, good play, and then make a lasting peace. "Here, now," he said, "is a hickory apiece; fall to lap jacketing and let me see who'll outlast."

They fell in at the word, and from time to time got stimulating words from their father, such as, "You, Jeff, can't you give back as good as he sent in that last lick?" "You Bol, you going to let him lay off corn rows on you that way and not leave a piece of your hide as big as a seven pence?"

When the sport had proceeded as far as he deemed to be about enough, he bade them stop, and taking chairs at the opposite sides of the room face each other. After a few moments they were brought together, made to hug and kiss, and declare that they loved each other better than anybody in the world except their parents.

"Now go to your ma," he said in dismissal, "maybe she'll think up something to do for your backs."

The mother with tearful eyes salved their striped shoulders and gave tenderest admonitions.

The affair effected what was intended. Indeed they needed no special reconciliation, as there was never prolonged hostility between them. Henceforth their fraternal affection went on without interruption.

DRESS.

Dress of school children was almost wholly of home produce and make. Even daughters of people of the better sort, if occasionally they wore gowns of calico or gingham, usually went to school in those of domestic fabric so manufactured and made as to be hardly, if at all, less sightly. The arts of spinning, weaving, and dyeing were carried to a high degree of culture. People of humble means did this sort themselves, but those above them, while all the spinning, reeling, and warping were done at home, had most of their weaving and dyeing done by professionals, some of whose work, yet preserved in old family chests, are surprisingly handsome. These professionals, styled weavers, were usually women, who, failing to marry while in their teens, devoted themselves to these arts and indulged high pride in the number and urgency of demands made upon them throughout a large circle of acquaintances to repair to their houses for jobs that impatiently awaited them. For these ladies lived not at home, except during brief intervals while working for themselves and other members of their own families; but in all seasons, spring, summer, fall, winter, sojourned at the houses of one and another of their neighbors. At the end of their promised days they went on to other engagements. At these houses they were as welcome and as well treated as the governor's wife would have been. Generally they had given up all thoughts of marriage; but having survived the pain of whatever disappointment may have befallen them, seemed to be about the most contented persons in the community, and carried about with them as large a supply of romantic sentiments as the girls—the youngest, prettiest, and most dreamful. Of all readers of lovers' tales they were the most constant, and most familiar with their pathetic, lovelorn histories. Many scenes they could rehearse word for word, shedding as many tears as they felt like and taking as many liberties as they pleased with long, soul-stirring, heart-rending words. As gossips they were not to be outdone, either in tongues at their command, in the amount and variety of interesting news, or the kindly sympathy with which in general they served it out. Friends of nearly everybody, they loved nearly everybody; becoming acquainted with everybody's affairs, everybody was entertained by their narrations and kind-hearted commentations.

Preliminaries to entry into the outhouse where the loom was kept were precise and elaborate—selections of purest, best thread from hanks, mixings of indigo, walnut, madder, and other dyestuffs, superintending dyeing pots, examinations of looms, sleighs, shuttles, spindles, and reed spools, and readjusting of every blessed thing to absolute satisfaction. When the long warp was carefully wrapped around the beam, the sleighs and treadles properly adjusted, the conscious weaver mounted upon the stool as proudly as Queen Elizabeth bestrode her war steed on Tewksbury Plain. Many of the stripes woven by these experts were notably handsome and held their brightness through long periods of laundering. In gowns made by these, girls attended school; underwear of material, raised at home, were, when well laundered, as nice as that woven in Northern looms. Boys' wear was of stouter materials, those for winter entirely of wool. The summer wear received a bright-yellow color from a dye made from coppers; the winter as fine a brown from the bark of the walnut or woven with mixed threads of white and dark wool. Little girls wore short frocks, with pantalets. Boys wore jackets and trousers reaching to the feet. The present fashion of short trousers and stockings was not then known. Shoes in almost all instances, except those for Sunday's use, were made by the neighboring cobbler of leather tanned at the village tanyard from hides of beasts slain on the several plantations; but during six months, from April to November, all boys, without exception, went barefooted. A boy was eager to doff his shoes in the spring and reluctant to resume them in the fall. This feeling prevailed notwithstanding the "stumped toes," toe itchings, and stone bruises to which they were constantly liable and from which they frequently suffered. One element in their hostility to their use when not needed for protection against inclement weather was that their shoes were made, each pair, on the same last. This was done for the sake of economy, as daily changing from right to left and from left to right secured longer duration and postponed the pleasure derived from possession of a new pair. It was a

proud day for a boy when for the first time he was allowed to be measured for a pair of rights and lefts. His twins, in no wise distinguishable, could be tolerated at home and school, but on Sunday meeting days came the pinch which brought shame and the sense of unworthy treatment that it was funny to grown people to witness.

Seldom a sock was worn that was not knit at home from cotton or wool. The same was the case with most of the stockings. The better sort of women on dress occasions wore those of finest material, not seldom of silk.

In the matter of head covering, girls wore what afterwards were called sunbonnets, a thick pasteboard arched over the head and extending far in front, covered with calico, which behind hung 8 or 10 inches in folds down the shoulders. Boys' hats, when there was no hatter in the neighborhood, were of woolen stuff and purchased from the store. When there was a hatter near by they were manufactured by him from the fur of rabbits.

Yet another sort of work done by these women might be called artistic. This was carpeting and counterpanes both for winter and summer. In the work of weaving such as these several shuttles and several treadles were required. From the kind of figures inwrought names of various sound and import were given; but they were all of historic fame, as Jackson's Victory at New Orleans, Cornwallis's Surrender, Bonaparte a-Crossing of the Rhine, etc. Laid away in chests in some houses may yet be seen counterpanes woven sixty and seventy-five years ago that would grace the finest bedsteads of the most opulent.

SCHOOL BUTTER.

No satisfactory account that this writer has heard has ever been given of the origin of this notable phrase in country schools. Its utterance by a passer-by in tones loud enough to be heard was regarded as the grossest insult that could be perpetrated. The utterer, on making the cry, immediately fled again, and every boy rushed from the house in pursuit of him. If overtaken, he was either ducked in the spring branch, or, his hands and feet being seized by four of the stoutest boys, he was bumped against a tree until the insult was avenged. Seldom a traveler on foot dared to take the risk. Even a horseman was sometimes overtaken after a chase of several miles by two or more who came to school on horseback mainly for the purpose.

Some persons have speculated upon the phrase having originated from that of "I am your school's better." Whatever its origin, it was the universal custom in old-field schools to regard it an insult, and attempt was made, with the master's full assent, to punish it.¹

EXHIBITIONS.

Whenever a master remained until the end of the spring term, it closed with an examination of the pupils on the last day and what was called an "exhibition" at night. A rude platform was built in front of the door, and an arbor covered with branches of trees extended far out. Many hundreds attended the examination and many more the exhibition. To the latter people came from all distances up to 10 and 15 miles, often to the number of two and three thousand, and it was curious to see the interest taken in these exercises by persons by whom these were the only histrionic performances ever witnessed. A farce, say Box and Cox, and one or two others of like character, were brought out in a style that certainly was unique in the history of the stage. Women's parts, as in the old English drama, were taken by boys. The idea seemed to be that dresses, talk, and movements should be as unnatural, as eccentric, and as extravagant as possible. It was high fun to those of the audience not in the secret of the various disguises to guess at the names of the players, arrayed as they were beyond all recognition. The females especially, with their rude, gossling voices and unfeminine deportment, often raised roars of laughter that in the still summer night could be heard more than half a mile away. At last,

¹ An amusing instance of boys administering to an outsider of the discipline of the school is mentioned in the History of the Rod, as told by Alexander Pope on Curll, the printer, who, before that time, had printed surreptitiously some of the poet's letters:

"Pope mentions in one of his letters that Mr. Edmund Curll was exercised in a blanket and whipped at Westminster School by the boys. In 1716 Robert Smith, prebendary of Westminster School, died. At his funeral a Latin oration was pronounced over the body by Mr. John Barber, then captain of the King's scholars, Westminster. Curll by some means obtained and printed a copy of the oration without the author's consent, and the boys determined to take vengeance. Under pretense of giving him a correct copy, they decoyed him into the dean's yard, and what followed is stated in the St. James Post: 'Being on Thursday last fortunately nabbed within the limits of the dean's yard by the King's scholars, there he met with a college salutation, for he was first presented with the ceremony of the blanket, in which, when the skeleton was well shook, he was carried in triumph to the school, and after receiving a grammatical construction for his false concords he was reconducted to the dean's yard, and, on his knees asking pardon of the aforesaid Mr. Barber for his offense, he was kicked out of the yard and left to the huzzas of the rabble.'" (Hist. of the Rod, p. 432.)

the principal item of humor was the evident absence of all genuine art. The good common sense of most of the unlettered audience did not fail to detect the flaw so patent. No occasion in that rural region brought more hearty enjoyment to the vast crowds assembled to honor it.

HOLIDAYS.

Holidays, not frequent in the beginning, became less so with lapse of time. In the early settlement of the country the religious sentiment, as always the case in periods after a long war, except among women, was not high. Religious meeting-houses were few, and such as were had not many professing male members. Leading families, for the most part, particularly those from Virginia, had been members of the Episcopal Church, but these, for lack of bishop and clergymen, gradually fell away. Besides, this organization, being of British origin, suffered prejudice for that reason. Dancing and playing cards were not regarded immoral, and at evening parties of pleasure the former was freely practiced. These were frequent, because the settlers, despite their intense energy, were fully sensible of the value and importance of leisure and reunions. Presbyterians were almost none; but Baptist and Methodist clergymen in time appeared, many of whom, although not liberally educated, were of much ability, and labored with zeal and success in the cause of Christian revival. For a considerable time respite, both for school children and negroes, was had on occasions of most noted church festivals. But now, out of the joint hostility, feasts, as Easter, Whitsuntide, Ascension, Epiphany, began to be omitted, and after some years were dropped from the mind as they had ceased to be mentioned by the tongue, and, except by a few, their recurrence became unnoticed.

Yet boys were unanimous against curtailment of what long prescription seemed to them ought to have rendered inviolate. Indulgence, gradually fallen into disuse outside, a master granted or not according to his notions of the will of parents in that behalf. He was suspected of having no special aversion to it, but it was important to the security of his position to appear otherwise, profess reluctance, but at the same time intimate that he would be guided by circumstances. A few who, like Peggoty's husband, were "very near," grudged a day off from a service for which they were paying a whole dollar a month, but the majority were indifferent, and so the schoolmaster gave it sometimes, and sometimes did not. Another ground for hesitation, with a leaning to the side of mercy, was revolving in his mind the degree of eagerness on the part of his boy scholars in any special case, and their strength and resolution to have it gratified, for there was one last resort for the brave and the desperate of which he well knew that, however resolute in spirit and able of body, it behooved to beware. Some account of this ought not be omitted from these sketches.

TURN-OUTS.

It would not be easy to find the original of what in our day was admitted to be fully excusable in school boys in pressing emergencies, to fall back upon an inalienable reserved right of revolution, which, although brief, was decisive. People, old people, even "near" people, did not gainsay exercise of this right, provided it was availed of according to established usages and within set limitations. If the sentiment for a holiday was unanimous, or sufficiently approximate to unanimity to discourage anything like torism on the part of the minority, the insurgents, by appointment meeting at the schoolhouse earlier than usual in the morning, barred the building against the master's entrance. While no violence to his person was allowed, yet neither was he expected to be too damaging in his siege of property belonging to other people who might not feel like putting in expensive repairs. Forcing a door lock or a window hook would be tolerated, but not breaking of things generally. Nor was unreasonably long time allowed the besieger to be wasted in endeavor. If he could overcome obstruction and effect entrance, the insurrection dissolved instantly and all went to the day's work with no other feeling than disappointment at failure to compass an end entirely legitimate. In case he could not, holiday was granted with cheerful acquiescence. The most acceptable, indeed the most common, way of celebrating the occasion was with a treat by the master. A messenger was dispatched to the nearest place where could be gotten a jug of honest whisky, which the master and the large boys discussed. Afterwards all went their several ways satisfied, the chief sometimes to exuberance with the last result of the day's doings. If after several vain attempts at entrance he persisted in refusing to yield to terms, there remained a further ordeal to which, as it was not pleasant to pass through, he not often forced his subjects to resort. An instance of this kind the writer of this paper recalls with distinctness, although it is long, long ago.

It was on what proved to be the last day in the term of one who was singularly constructed, even for one of his class. Of rather less than medium height, square set from the summit of his rather flat head to his wide feet with little or no instep,

he often dispensed with both rod and ferule, substituting his right hand, whose fingers from his birth were clubbed. He was a rather kind-hearted person, who whipped heartily, but never angrily or cruelly. He whipped because there was no other known mode of punishment for delinquency. He knew that it was expected of him, but he did so without malevolence, being to the very young always particularly kind. Often, instead of troubling himself to reach for the rod or ferule, putting the culprit in an attitude fit for its reception, with his clubbed hand he gave him a cuff under the burr of the ear with a vigor not unreasonably proportioned, yet sometimes lifting him to a height for which he had no sort of ambition.

The incident alluded to occurred in the early fall of the year and only a fortnight or so before his term (being about as much as people cared to have) was to expire, and he was to travel to another community to take the place of one who had been notified that it would content his employers if he would move farther on. Of late he was rather suspected of diminished interest in persons and scenes from whose presence he was about to depart and among whom his face was to be seen no more. One day he was asked respectfully, even humbly, for a holiday, and he gave refusal decidedly and needlessly flat. The school in the item of boys was far undergrown, with the exception of one, tall and athletic, who was more than a match for the master. He was about to leave, having gotten about all that was to be had from that fountain of instruction, but he yielded to the others' entreaties to remain and see that his fellows had fair play in the coming struggle. On the morning set the master was barred out effectually, yet he avowed over and over again that he would stay there the whole blessed day without yielding. After a brief conference the door was thrown wide open, he was seized, pulled to the floor, and covered over and over; persistent still, he was lifted, laid on a bench, and carried, the same as if he were a dead man, to the spring branch, in which was a hole of some depth made by damming the stream for the purpose of bathing. Continuing obdurate, four of the stoutest, grasping his feet and hands, let him slowly into the water. Just as his nostrils were about to be submerged for an entire dip he gave his word and was lifted out. No sooner had he got footing on the bank than he shouted "Books!" and rushed up the hill. At that our big boy sprang forward in pursuit. Overtaking him and seizing his arm, he said:

"Such as that won't do, Mr. Yallerlee; it won't begin to do. The boys have got your word and you've got it to keep. Now, there ain't neither long nor short in the business."

This was enough—just what, as was believed, he desired for precipitating the end. Announcing that the school was dismissed for good, he went his way, and his face was never seen afterwards. Being rather cold and extremely wet, he halted at the nearest neighbor's, where, after wetting himself within as he was without from the sideboard decanter, he was helped to reach the house where he then boarded. In time we heard of him some 20 miles south, on the edge of the region of pine and blackjack, where he had started on another enactment of his brief little drama. Where it ended at last neither annals nor tradition handed down.

Another "turn-out" of some interest was described to the writer by the late Alexander H. Stephens, vice-president of the Confederate States. During the years 1863 and 1864 he spent much of his time at his home in Crawfordville. Disagreeing with the administration on several matters regarded by him of vital importance, and averse to putting embarrassment upon it by his presence, he remained withdrawn from Richmond whenever it was not urgently necessary to his official duties to be there. In these whiles, in order to divert his mind as much as possible from gloomy apprehensions regarding the cause for which the South was making its last struggles and which he believed to foresee would end in disaster, he superintended the work upon his plantation, and when resting from that and from entertainment of the numerous visitors who came from all parts to visit and take counsel with him he amused himself with readings of various sorts on other themes than politics. In the latter part of 1862 a correspondence (outside of what had long been and was yet continued) grew up between him and this writer that was conducted over assumed names. He took that of "Peter Finkle," a supposed constant attendant, alluding to his patron as "Bos," and this writer that of "Giles," similarly related to a person whom he styled "The Colonel." Besides many themes—political, literary, and other—in this correspondence, were habits and customs during the time of his childhood and incidents in his own life of which this friend was intending to write a biography. Among these letters, some of which were of much length, is one that was printed in Johnston & Browne's *Life of Alexander H. Stephens*, from which extracts are taken for use in this paper.

In the year 1818, when 6 years old, he went to a school kept by an elderly gentleman not far from his father's house. Being uncommonly small and frail of health, he was carried almost daily forth and back upon the shoulders of a stout, kind young man named Bryant, the way from whose home passed by his own. The first is from a letter written about the close of the year 1862. The extract is as follows:

"Bos went to school about three months in 1818 to a Mr. Nathaniel Day. He was

what was called a good English teacher in his day and section of country. His greatest failure was his fondness for a dram. He was not by any means a drunkard, but the temptation to indulge in drinking was great, and he often got 'disguised,' as it was termed. Bos learned to spell in two syllables at 'baker,' in Webster's old spelling book; and, by the by, he says that this is the best spelling book for children and beginners that was ever published in the English language. All the pretended improvements upon it are deteriorations. One incident happened in this school where he was going then that made a deep impression on his mind. It was the 'turning out' of the teacher, as it was called. The boys wanted a holiday at Whitesuntide, and as Mr. Day had told them that he would not give it they entered into a regular conspiracy to go through the forms of turning him out. They—that is, the big boys—were to meet on Monday morning and bar up the schoolhouse door and not let the teacher in, and compel him to make terms. But a little incident interfered with this arrangement and brought events to an earlier dénouement than they expected.

"Henry Perkins, one of the biggest and stoutest boys in school and the ringleader in the plan, on Friday before did something that caused Mr. D. to scold him. Perkins seemed to act insolently in return. D. called him up, switch in hand, and the appearance of being ready to administer it. Indeed, all the school thought that he was about to get a whipping, and this produced no small sensation in that little assembly, for he was full grown. He had not been whipped since the school commenced; he had great abilities; he was a 'cipherer,' and all cipherers in those days had the privilege of going out and staying out when they pleased, and other liberties. The idea of a cipherer being whipped did not enter into the minds of any. So you may imagine expectation was on tiptoe when Perkins walked sullenly up. But what was the consternation when, instead of standing out to receive his whipping, he walked straight to the man with the rod, whose authority was never before known to be questioned, and seized the switch with one hand and D's collar with the other! A short scuffle ensued. D. was thrown upon the floor (a dirt floor it was). All the other boys who were in the conspiracy, upon a signal from Perkins, joined. Many of the little children screamed, thinking their teacher was about to be killed. Bos says he looked on with interest, but without fear or apprehension. He had no idea that the boys intended to hurt the master, although he knew nothing of the object of the revolt. He heard their proposing of terms. It was finally agreed that if they would let him up he would dismiss the school until the following morning and send one of them to Little's store, where this town¹ is now situated, for a gallon of spirits to treat with. They let him up. One boy was sent for the liquor. Ben Bryant, who did not stay for the frolic, took charge of his little crowd and left for home before the return of the messenger. It was about 11 a. m. Bos and his company ate their dinner out of their baskets on the way home. When they went back Wednesday, they heard how the whole matter ended. Most of the big boys stayed until the liquor came; then they and the old man Day heartily enjoyed his treat. They all broke up in good spirits and in good humor. The master, they said, did get a 'little in for it.' He took home the jug and what was left in it after the carousal."

The other extract is from a very long letter giving incidents in the life of his father, for whom, although of very limited education, he had reverence great as affection. The things recorded in the following are in considerable contrast with those common in old field schools:

"He commenced life as a school-teacher when he was a little more than 14 years old, and taught several years before he was married, but never, as I have often heard him say, liked that occupation. He taught, as I remember, more in compliance with the urgent entreaties of his neighbors than in obedience to his own inclination.

"My father's habits as a teacher and his manner of teaching I well recollect. He never scolded, never reprimanded a scholar in a loud voice, never thumped the head, pulled the ears, or used a ferule, as I have often seen other teachers do. He took great pleasure in the act of teaching, and was unwearied in explaining every thing to his scholars, the youngest as well as the oldest. He had no classes, except in spelling and reading, in which exercises he insisted on a clear, full enunciation. He was himself one of the best readers I have ever heard, and he was very particular in making his scholars attend to the pauses and deliver the passages with the proper emphasis and intonation, and to instruct them in this he would take the book and show the school how it ought to be read. In this way even the dullest scholar understood what was required of him and what good reading was. His cipherers, as those used to be called who studied arithmetic, and such as were in higher branches, such as surveying, etc., were allowed to study outside the school-house.

"His scholars generally were much attached to him. He was on easy and familiar

¹ Crawfordville.

terms with them without losing their respect; and the smallest boys would approach him with confidence, but never with familiarity. He had one custom I never saw or heard of in any other school. About once a month, on a Friday evening, after the spelling classes had got through their tasks, he had an exercise on ceremony, which the scholars called 'learning manners,' though what he called it—if I ever heard him call it anything—I can not remember. The exercise consisted in going through the usual form of salutation on meeting an acquaintance, and introducing persons to each other, with other variations occasionally introduced. These forms were taught during the week, and the pupils' proficiency was tested on the occasions I am speaking of. At the appointed hour on the Friday evening at a given signal books were laid aside and a recess of a few minutes given. Then all would reassemble and take seats in rows on opposite benches, the boys on one side and the girls—for he taught both sexes—on the other. The boy at the head of the row would rise and walk toward the center of the room, and the girl at the head of her row would rise and proceed toward the same spot. As they approached the boy would bow and the girl drop a curtsy—the established female salutation of those days—and they would then pass on. At other times they were taught to stop and exchange verbal salutations and the usual formulas of polite inquiry, after which they retired and were followed by the next pair. His leading object was to teach ease and becoming confidence of manner and gracefulness of movement and gesture. He was very particular about a bow, and when a boy was awkward in it he would go through the motion himself and show how it ought to be done. These exercises were varied by meetings in an imaginary parlor, the entrance, introduction, and reception of visitors, with practice in 'commonplace chat,' to use his own phrase, suited to the supposed occasion. Then came the ceremony of introductions. The parties in this case would walk from opposite sides of the room in pairs, and upon meeting, after the salutations of the two agreed upon, would commence making known to each other the friends accompanying them, the boy saying, 'Allow me, Miss Mary, to present to you my friend Mr. Smith. Mr. Smith, Miss Jones.' Whereupon, after Miss Mary had spoken to Mr. Smith, she would in turn introduce her friends.

"These exercises, trivial as the description may seem, were of great use to raw country boys and girls, removing their awkwardness and consequent shyness and the painful sense of being at a disadvantage or the dread of appearing ridiculous; and I have no doubt many or all of them, in after life, had frequent occasion to be grateful for my father's lessons in 'manners.' They were delighted in by the scholars, especially the large boys and girls, and in the old field schools some of these were nearly or quite grown. Frequently, when the weather was fine, parents and neighbors would come to the schoolhouse on these Friday evenings to witness the ceremonies. When such visits were expected, the girls would dress a little smarter than usual, and the boys would fix themselves up at the spring, washing, combing, and giving an ornamental adjustment, popularly called a 'roach,' to their hair; and the conversation, of surpassing politeness and elegance, was extremely amusing.

"My father was very fond of dramatic exercises in school, and while, as I said before, he was never much given to mirth, meaning by that excessive laughter or joke telling, yet he was very fond of the humorous in dramatic form. He seldom had public examinations, but almost always had what he called an 'exhibition' some time during the year. At these exhibitions speeches were delivered by the boys, pieces of poetry or prose recited, and dialogues or dramatic scenes acted. The speeches of the small boys he wrote himself. They were short, and usually took a humorous turn. The larger boys recited pieces of his selection, among which there was sure to be Pope's Universal Prayer, which was a great favorite with him. My brother Aaron had this assigned to him on one occasion, when a short piece of poetry, called The Cuckoo—I forget the author—fell to my lot. I also recited a piece on Charity, by Blair, and took parts in several plays.

"These exhibitions were numerous attended—surprisingly so under the circumstances. At one I think there were at least 3,000 persons, and the crowd was like that of a camp meeting, the spectators having assembled from a circuit of many miles. Indeed, the exhibition was a great gala day, not only for the school, but for all the surrounding country. A stage was constructed at the end of the schoolhouse, and dressing rooms, as I may call them, partitioned off by curtains. The greenroom was in the schoolroom, and was entered through a window behind the curtain. The scenes for action were selected with a good deal of taste. None were chosen from tragedy proper, or from farce, but chosen with an eye to improve manners and morals. Some of the dialogues of this kind he wrote himself. He devoted great care to the rehearsals, showing each performer how his part should be recited and acted. His versatility of talent in this line was surprising, and the scholars used to enjoy the rehearsals quite as heartily as the spectators did the performance. In this, as in everything else, he carried out his principle that whatever was to be done ought to be well done. Halfway modes of doing things, makeshifts, and failures were an abomination in his sight."

"His scholars had a strong attachment for him, and those who had once been his pupils seemed to feel as deep regard and respect for him as for their own parents. This feeling, I have found, adhered to them through life. Whenever in my travels I have fallen in with any of my father's old scholars their hearts seemed to warm into a glow toward me. He talked to them, counseled them, instilled into them principles of sobriety, morality, industry, energy, and honor. Cheating, lying, and everything mean or dishonest he held up to scorn and abhorrence. He was, so far as I know, the only old-field teacher of those days on whom the boys never played the prank of 'turning out.' They had probably too much respect and regard for him."

THE PASSING.

The period during which these primitive schoolmasters had sway has been referred to always with peculiar interest, not only with those to whom it has come down by tradition, but especially among those who had experience of their doings of many kinds. There was something pathetic in the silence with which they disappeared. Precisely whence they came in the beginning was not generally known, because seldom inquired about. The same with their going, in which was some shade of melancholy as men thought of the slender chances before such wanderers of betterment in their conditions. Instances were almost none when their punishments, slight or rigorous, were remembered with resentment, and nobody, parent or pupil, but wished to them as much prosperity as might come within their reach, hardly hoping that it could be otherwise than extremely moderate. They seemed to illustrate Darwin's maxim of the survival of the fittest, and, like the weakest in lower animal existences, gradually subsided into extinction or undiscoverable and never-investigated retirement.

Yet a friend of this writer happened only a few years back to meet with one who reminded him, he said, of the old harper gazing wishful

Where Newark's stately tower
Looked out from Yarrow's birchen bower,

once famous for deeds of the house of Buecleugh. Likeness was not. Reminder came from contrast, than which none could be more pronounced than that between the one who was the last to sing of Border Chivalry and him who yet obscurely lingered behind the passing of actions perhaps of all in the past as remote as any from the heroic. The gentleman referred to had occasion to visit a well-nigh deserted village situate in the pine woods some miles distant from a railroad station, whence he was conveyed to the place of his destination. Some days afterwards, when he was ready to depart, he found that the only available means of conveyance to be had was a buggy and horse belonging to a man who occupied a small house behind a dense little grove of black-jack quite a distance from the one street, that, perhaps owing to its obscure retirement, had partially survived the general decay. Repairing thither, a small, elderly, white-haired man came to the door, followed by a tall, elderly, very slim, white-haired woman. Both were surprised and seemed rather apprehensive. The woman spoke never a word. Her husband (there were no children nor servant), in answer to inquiry, said in low, timid tones that he could grant the accommodation asked. It appeared that they maintained themselves with what they could produce on their very thin bit of ground and with their one nag carrying and fetching between the village and the railroad. The nag, like her owners, was small, elderly, slim, and white. The same might be said of the buggy and harness, portions of which had been repaired with cotton bands, ropes, and strings, all kept in their complexion by the white sand.

It was a hot July day. The three travelers began the toiling along through deep sands whose silence was only a trifle below that of the air above. The coachman gave to his beast several low, indecisive clues, intimating that if she was, the rest were prepared to move. After some hesitation she proceeded. When the village was cleared and they had advanced a hundred yards or so farther, the traveler suggested that it might be well to take a somewhat better step. Answer was that the mare by nature was extremely wild, so much so that on more than one occasion in former time she had run away to the much damage of the vehicle and endangerment of its occupants. Although chances of repeating such reckless escapade seemed remote, yet as further interference evidently would be useless it was not attempted. As they crept along the lines of cultivated fields and others worn out and left fenceless the traveler's umbrella afforded some shelter from the sun, whose blazing heat seemed more intensely oppressive from the intense silence. For quite a time not a word could be gotten out of the old gentleman except low, evasive answers in monosyllables to such questioning as occurred to the passenger to put in order to obtain somewhat of relief, if only delusive, from the ennui of the dense solitude. He appeared not to know or had forgotten whatever he had known outside of himself, even about the former dwellers in the village behind, where he had been living for

several years, and of himself he was evidently averse to speaking. Desire to open this oyster (a comparison admitted by the reporter of this sketch to be remote both in season and place) was rather ludicrously sharpened by the man's persistent reticence as without ever turning his eyes he looked at the wild, dangerous little creature below. At last, when they were about three-quarters of their two hours' travel, after several questions directly but not disrespectfully put, and the passenger's saying that himself had once kept a school, admission was drawn out that in a region and a period indefinite, but very remote, he was an old fielder. Then it was interesting how, with a brother in trade, he replied to interrogations about how he used to catch schoolboys in their pranks and flog them afterwards. He seemed to be oblivious of the names of text-books and was guardedly noncommittal touching his method of teaching, answering mainly yes or no to leading questions. The following is about a specimen of the dialogue between them. T indicates the passenger and D the coachman:

T. "In teaching grammar, can you remember which were your favorite parts of speech? Or did you have any special preference, say as among nouns and pronouns, or as between adjectives, verbs, and adverbs?"

D. "No sir, not as I remember of; I made my scholars get 'em all."

T. "Of course, that was your plain duty. I didn't know but some of those things might have been more troublesome than others. For instance: Demonstrative and distributive adjective pronouns. I well remember what a bother they were to me, and indeed to many others that were very sensible persons, and that not only when at school, but when grown to be men, even schoolmasters."

D. "I s'pose so. Some o' them might be rather troublesome occasional, but they knewed they had 'em to putt through, and they putt 'em through."

T. "I think articles were nice little things, nicer even than conjunctions and even prepositions. Don't you?"

D. "I don't know if they weren't, some."

T. "Had you any special preference or dislikes among arithmetic rules?"

D. "Not as I remember of now."

T. "I suppose, in your day they were about the same as now; Interest, simple and compound, discount, fractions of all sorts."

D. "Jest about, I suppose."

T. "Can you recall to your mind how they turned an improper fraction into a mixed number, and how they got it back to its original position and condition?"

D. "Well, you see it's been so long that—but one thing I can tell you. Them boys—and them girls too—they knewed one thing from the off-start, ef no more, when I told 'em to do anything and that accordin' to the rule, they weren't no two ways about it, and so they done it."

Shortly afterwards the station was reached, and the aged veterans, after a bite of bisent and a handful of oats, turned back to their humble home.

This period in the pedagogy of that region passed not without leaving some salutary results. Any system, however crude, is better than no system. On the confines of existences so far different from each other, it was as indispensable as elsewhere to get some instruction, at least in elementary education. This was all that at first was sought. Neglect of it had been too long already amid the hardships of one long war and threatenings of another. To read, write, become familiar with elementary rules in numbers, and get some acquaintance with forms of polite speech, these must be gotten after a fashion of some sort from the only persons who came forward to undertake the task of imparting. Weaklings as these generally were, need of subsistence which they were incompetent to obtain out of other vocations, continuance of endeavors to enhance their fitness for this their only, with pressure from outside, begot in time a familiarity with its duties which, if not satisfactory, was tolerable. The very crudeness habitually breaking out in those old schoolhouses contrasted with those in which good sense, manners, and tastes were hereditary, served as a foil to make the latter more clearly recognized and more easily practiced. Super-added to this the habit of entire obedience to authority of however trifling dignity, but taught to be of equal force with that by which it was delegated, tended strongly to the development of generous manhood, of neighborly kindness, of lifelong friendships, of good citizenship. In a community situate far from cultured circles, activities sometimes too ardent, even degrees of lawlessness, must exist. Among these systems tending to repress them among the young, old-field schools, despite their eccentricities, made their own contribution, and it was respectable. Then their glaring imperfections intensified the sense of need of better, and expedited their introduction.



CHAPTER XLIII.

THE COTTON STATES AND INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION, HELD IN ATLANTA, GA., SEPTEMBER 18 TO DECEMBER 31, 1895.¹

BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., February 1, 1896.

SIR: A marked difference between the Cotton States and International Exposition and the Centennial and the World's Fair may be found in the fact that the last two were held to commemorate great historical events, while the first was strictly commercial in its conception and aims. Its origin was due to the then unsatisfactory business situation in the South, and it represented an effort to restore the trade of Atlanta to its normal activity. To attract visitors, to increase the amount of money in circulation, to advertise the city, and to extend the market for its wares—these were the means by which it was expected that the efforts in behalf of the Exposition would redound to the commercial benefit of Atlanta.

As originally projected an international affair was not contemplated, but the idea, once started, grew. It was observed that it might be possible not only to add to the trade in the Southern States of the Union, but that the countries still farther south might be brought into such relations with Atlanta merchants as to open profitable intercourse between them by which Atlanta, though far from the seaboard, might even attain international importance. Government aid was early sought and an appropriation was secured of \$200,000 for an exhibit of the resources and functions of the United States Government. Commissioners were sent to the countries of South America and of Central America to arouse interest in the objects of the Exposition, to obtain exhibits, and to secure the cooperation of those Governments. Agents were employed to solicit exhibits from Europe also.

Judged by the visible results, these efforts to give the Exposition an international character and significance were comparative failures. Venezuela, Mexico, Argentina, and Costa Rica were represented by commissioners bearing governmental appointments, but their exhibits were meager and unpretentious, since the amount of money at their disposal was insignificant. It is not probable that any one of them had as much as \$10,000 for all purposes. None of the European nations were officially represented. The foreign section of the Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building was composed of a number of booths, apparently for no other purpose than the immediate sale of wares.

This paucity of foreign recognition of the Exposition was due, of course, to its provincial and purely commercial character and to the fact that our own Government had no further connection with it than the preparation and display of its own exhibit. Under the circumstances it is only surprising that the managers of the enterprise succeeded in giving it as much of an international character as they did.

GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS.

The site for the Exposition was well chosen. It was about 2 miles from the center of the city and had been previously used for a number of fairs of local character. That, however, was of little significance when the more pretentious Exposition was arranged, for the entire face of the earth was altered by new grades, terraces, and artificial lakes, so that the old Piedmont grounds were absolutely unrecognizable in the new grounds as prepared for the Exposition. Only two of the old buildings were retained. The Main Building was remodeled and became the Transportation Building, while the grand stand overlooking the old race track was transformed into a very acceptable "Auditorium" for the various conventions and congresses held in connection with the Exposition.

¹ Report of James C. Boykin, agent of the Bureau of Education.

The principal buildings were devoted, respectively, to agriculture, forestry and mining, machinery, Georgia manufactures, the negro, transportation, electricity, woman, liberal arts, the United States Government, fine arts, the auditorium, and the administrative offices.

Nearly all of them were substantial appearing frame structures, uniformly gray in color, with white trimmings, and shingle roofs stained with an unobtrusive green. The most conspicuous exceptions to this rule among the Exposition buildings proper were the Forestry Building, which was constructed of unhewn logs, the Woman's Building, and the Fine Arts Building, which were plastered with material similar to that used so freely at the Columbian Exposition. Several States, including Georgia, Pennsylvania, New York, Alabama, Illinois, and Massachusetts, erected buildings on the grounds at State expense. The Georgia and Alabama buildings were filled with exhibits setting forth State resources, mainly agricultural in the former case and mineral in the latter. The Massachusetts Building contained exhibits of schools, of the State board of health, and of some State institutions. The other State buildings were merely meeting places for their citizens and contained no exhibits. The building called the California Building was a private enterprise.

The general arrangement of the buildings was around an elliptical plaza a half mile in circumference, on one side of which were two small artificial lakes. The grounds were tastefully laid out and ornamented with shrubs, fountains, and sheet-metal statuary. A decided novelty was introduced by mounting some of the metal figures upon tall Corinthian and Ionic columns.

The walks were of crushed limestone and in general color harmonized well with the color of the buildings, but the stone was crushed just fine enough to present innumerable sharp points and edges to the feet of pedestrians, and it was not laid sufficiently thick to prevent the heavy Georgia mud from oozing through when the winter rains fell. So the walks were not altogether sources of pride to the management.

The general appearance of the grounds and buildings was decidedly pleasing, and during the night illuminations, which were frequent during the first few weeks, the scene from any one of several favorable locations was one of extraordinary beauty.

"THE MIDWAY."

The ethnological appendage to the World's Fair on the Midway Plaisance has had its imitators at every fair that has followed; but at Chicago one of the main objects was instruction of an intensely practical and valuable kind. Amusement and profit were secondary considerations. The experiment was successful there, for the Midway was very popular and profitable, both to the Fair and to the managers of the various "villages." But at the later fairs, including that in Atlanta, the original object of bringing together representatives of widely scattered races for educational purposes seems to have disappeared, and instead there have been presented numerous shows, many of them of rather a low order, for no other purpose than sordid gain.

THE EXHIBITS.

Agricultural Building.—The most conspicuous of the exhibits in the Agricultural Building was the Arkansas State exhibit, which filled the entire building with the perfume of apples. There were also miscellaneous exhibits from South Carolina and Louisiana, two extensive railroad exhibits, several from beer and whisky making concerns, and a great variety of minor exhibits of food products, etc.

The *Forestry and Mining Building* was under the charge of two officials of the United States Government, Dr. David T. Day, of the Geological Survey, and Dr. B. E. Fernow, of the Agricultural Department, who were acting as officers of the Exposition as well as employees of the Government. The building was filled principally with the class of exhibits indicated by its name. An exception was the Venezuelan exhibit, which consisted largely of wools, skins, etc. An effort was evidently made to set forth with a great deal of particularity the resources of the South in the way of forests and mines, for the most striking features of the display were the Southern woods, the illustrations of the turpentine industry, "statistical columns" representing graphically the extent of the production of Southern mines, and a fine collection of Southern gems.

In the *Machinery Building* the most extensive exhibits were those of cotton manufacturing machinery and pumping engines; and the fact that cards indicating that these had been sold appeared early may be taken as an evidence of enterprise in Southern manufacturers, for the mere fact that these machines were exhibited in such a place proves them to be of late design, even if not necessarily of the best. In this connection it may be well to mention as a matter of especial economic interest that there were also exhibited on the grounds a machine for picking cotton, and a new cotton press, which, if they come into general use, will greatly change the methods of handling cotton.

Cotton can not be cut and the fiber separated from the stalk as wheat is thrashed, for all the cotton on a stalk does not ripen simultaneously. The same plant may have upon it at the same time "squares," blooms, unopened bolls, and ripe cotton ready for picking. The last should be picked as soon as practicable to prevent it from being damaged by rain and dirt and from falling to the ground and being lost; but the rest of the plant must not be injured, and the remaining bolls must be allowed to come to maturity in order to realize the full value of the crop. Several pickings are therefore necessary. Heretofore nothing but the human hand has been able to do this, and cotton picking has been necessarily slow, laborious, and expensive. It usually costs a half cent a pound and sometimes as much as three-quarters of a cent. And the cotton as it is picked is worth not over 3 cents, for there are about 2½ pounds of seed to every pound of fiber, and the latter brings only about 7½ cents; the seed is of but little cash value to the farmer, even in this day of cotton-seed oil mills.

Several attempts have been made to devise a machine to do the work of picking, but heretofore none of them has had even reasonable success. The new machine exhibited in Atlanta is an ingenious and intricate piece of mechanism and a description of its details would be out of place here. But it did pick cotton and it did not appear to damage the blooms or to knock off the unopened bolls. Its operation was far from being a complete success, but it demonstrated that the thing could be done, and if finally successful it will result in important economic changes in the cotton belt, and play its part in the upbuilding of towns by lessening the number of laborers required in farm work.

According to the present method each picker carries a bag slung over his shoulders and puts into it the cotton as he picks it. At the end of the row, or when the bag becomes uncomfortably heavy, he empties it into a large "split" basket, which in turn is hauled to a shed or barn to await the convenience of the farmer. When picked the fiber is full of seed, to which it is attached. This seed cotton must be hauled to a gin—which is usually conducted after the manner of the old-time grist-mills—and there the seed is separated from the lint or fiber by a series of fine saws. The lint emerges from the condenser attached to the gin in a broad, fleecy roll. This condenser, by the way, is a modern improvement, for within a comparatively few years the lint was thrown from the gin like a snowstorm into a "lint room," against an opening in the wall of which the gin was placed. At the same time the "feeding" of the seed cotton into the gin was done by hand and was exceedingly dangerous because of the probability of the feeder's hand getting caught in the saws. The automatic feeder and the condenser came into use about the same time.

After coming from the condenser, according to present methods, the cotton is taken by hand to a press, usually operated now by steam but formerly by horse power, by which it is formed into a bale containing from 400 to 550 pounds, the average being somewhat less than 500 pounds. The bale is partly covered with jute bagging and is held in shape by iron ties or straps. If the bale is to be shipped North or to Europe it is usually compressed to about half its former size by means of powerful hydraulic compresses at some central point. This is done to facilitate shipping and to reduce the danger of fire, for in the loosely packed bale a spark may smolder for days, burn the bale to a shell, and be communicated to surrounding bales before it is discovered.

Before reaching its final destination, where it is made into cloth, the bale of cotton passes through the hands of never less than three parties, namely, those of the local merchant, the warehouseman and cotton factor, and the final purchaser. Every one of these takes a sample from the bale in order to judge of its quality and determine the price to be paid. To get a fair sample a generous handful is taken, and to guard against fraud in packing, the sample is taken from as near the center of the bale as possible. To do this the bagging is cut, and the loss to the bale is not only what is taken for the sample, but also that damaged as the result of the exposure of fresh surface to the dust and mud encountered on its travels. The bagging only partially covers the bale at best and the damage from this source is considerable. The loss to the producer from the system of sampling alone may be judged by the fact that cotton factors consider the samples as perquisites of the business and the receipts from their sale usually amount to enough to pay all expense for clerk hire.

The new system of baling, exhibited at Atlanta, is intended to obviate all these difficulties. The cotton as it comes from the condenser is automatically carried to a new type of press where it is rolled under heavy pressure into the form of a cylindrical bale of great density. It is then completely covered with heavy cotton canvas. Samples are taken out during the baling process and accompany the bale with the guaranty of the ginner of its correctness. The density of the new bale is greater than that of even a compressed bale, and it is claimed that it is practically impossible for it to burn, since all the air is pressed out in the baling.

There are three, and probably more, varieties of presses on the new rolling principle, there being differences in the size and weight of the bale produced. But all

of them press the cotton as it comes from the condenser, avoid the necessity of compressing, save the loss from wasteful sampling, lessen the danger of fire, and make a bale that can be handled and shipped more conveniently and economically than the old style, and be used more expeditiously by the manufacturer.

This digression for the description of the two new machines, the cotton picker and cylindrical press, is justified because they seem to be the most important of all the inventions brought into public notice by the Exposition and the most likely to have far-reaching effects.

The Georgia Manufacturers' Building was erected by the manufacturers of the State and was filled with Georgia goods. The impression made upon the thoughtful observer by this building and its contents was more profound than that made by any other building on the ground, for here were found the most striking evidences of "the new South." Georgia is not only manufacturing cotton goods, but she is making, and making extensively and profitably, furniture, coffins, pianos, bicycles, woodenware, plows, machinery, pumps, shoes, clothing, wagons—in fact, nearly every article in the range of human needs. And practically all these industries are the growth of the last twenty-five years.

The Negro Building attracted wide attention and comment. It was the first exhibit ever presented on a similar occasion of the progress and condition of the negro in America. On the whole, the showing was very favorable for a race which was in the darkness of absolute savagery within a few generations and in abject servitude within a single generation. Most of the exhibits, however, were exhibits of institutions, not of individuals or firms. A mantel maker, a shoemaker, and probably one or two other artisans made exhibits, and so did certain social or benevolent societies, but as a whole the exhibit did not show so much what the negro is doing as what is being done for the negro. The building was filled almost wholly with work done in educational institutions and presumably under the eyes of instructors.

The Transportation Building was evidently named before the exhibits were placed, otherwise it would probably have been called the "Miscellaneous Building" or something else indicative of variety. It contained farm machinery, trucks, optical goods, wagons, whetstones, bicycles, sporting goods, water filters, electric welding, boats, carriages, pottery, Chilean nitrates, the miscellaneous exhibits from Mexico, Venezuela, and Chatham County, Ga., and a great variety of other exhibits. Not even the Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building could boast of a more variegated assortment.

The Electricity Building, like most of the others, contained many exhibits not justified by the designation of the building, but the number of articles improperly classified was not so painfully apparent as in the Transportation Building. The striking display seen at Chicago was missing here, for there were none of the magnificent light effects that were such an attractive feature of the World's Fair; but there were several very creditable and rather extensive exhibits.

The Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building was the largest on the grounds, and from the variety of its exhibits was, next to the Government Building, the most attractive to the general public. The foreign section was located here, and from the novelty of the articles displayed attracted a large share of attention. The goods, almost without exception, were for immediate sale and were therefore of a class most likely to be desired as souvenirs. There were enameled jewelry in great profusion, Venetian glassware, porcelains, pottery, embroidery, amber goods, marble statuettes, French furniture, fans, and tortoise-shell combs, Russian enamel ware, etc. All the foreign exhibits in this building were without official status and could not be said to be representative of the countries from which they ostensibly came. Many of the exhibitors were, in fact, regular dealers in such wares in larger cities of this country, or were migratory merchants who go from exposition to exposition for the sale of their goods. This, by the way, is a new and peculiar phase of the exposition business that has developed since expositions have become so common. Even the elaborate and beautiful model of the World's Fair, said to have been designed by the builder of the famous Ferris wheel, was constructed with a view to exhibition for profit at one fair after another. This is but the best of scores of schemes with the same purpose in view.

The American exhibits in the Manufactures Building naturally included a curious mixture of articles. Pianos, cod-liver oil, tombstones, sewing machines, ice-cream freezers, rapid-fire guns, eyeglasses, paints and varnishes, artificial legs, office fixtures, bicycle tires, books, shaving stones, drugs, duplicating apparatus, baby food, Pennsylvania natural history, perfumery, magic lanterns, water filters, stoves, writing paper, candy, etc., were to be found under the same roof.

On the second floor of this building were the displays of photographers and the educational exhibits, which will receive separate treatment.

The Government Building was generally considered the best part of the Exposition, and it might have been expected that it should be. The funds for the preparation of the exhibit were ample, and all the magnificent collections of the Government in Washington were at the disposal of the board of management; but more than all

else the officials in charge were men experienced in that line of work. Nearly all had been concerned in the preparation of exhibits at previous expositions, and one, Mr. Earle, of the Smithsonian Institution, had been identified with no less than eleven. The tremendous advantage of this experience was apparent on the opening day, when the Government Building was swept and garnished, its exhibits complete in every detail, while the other buildings were all disorder and chaos, with scarcely anything ready for inspection.

The display of the Fish Commission, with its beautifully arranged tanks of live fish, its hatcheries, nets, sounding and dredging apparatus, etc., was almost constantly crowded with visitors. The Smithsonian Institution and National Museum exhibit was nearly as popular; it contained a great variety of material and was skillfully and attractively arranged.

In the space allotted to the Interior Department were exhibits of mechanical models by the Patent Office; charts, fossils, minerals, casts, etc., by the Geological Survey; books, statistics, charts, and photographs by the Bureau of Education; and Indian school work by the Indian Office.

The Department of Agriculture exhibited a collection of fibers, models of fruit and fungi, specimens of grasses and soils, some injurious birds and insects; the work and methods of the Bureau of Animal Industry of the Weather Bureau and of the laboratory for testing seeds were also shown.

The Treasury Department had a tastefully arranged display of models of light-houses and light-house equipments, coins and medals, bills, bonds, revenue stamps, weights and measures, and pictures of public buildings.

The Department of Justice had a small collection of legal works, photographs of prisons, and objects showing the work of prisoners.

The Department of State showed a set of official blanks, a number of original Presidential proclamations, some exceedingly interesting letters from foreign potentates to Presidents of the United States, several historic swords, and a few massive medals presented by foreign countries to the United States to commemorate important events.

The Post-Office Department exhibit included models of mail ships and of a postal car, a very complete collection of stamps, curios taken from "dead" letters, articles showing the operation of foreign postal services, etc.

The Navy Department showed models of the vessels of the new navy, a torpedo boat, rapid-fire and machine guns, small arms and instruments used on shipboard.

The War Department had a number of groups of figures showing the uniforms of the army at various periods, siege and field guns, apparatus for signaling, arctic relics, muskets and small arms, flags, war-time wagons, torpedoes, and models of engineering works on the Mississippi and other rivers.

Though all the Departments were entirely separate, the same general scheme of decoration prevailed all through the building, and there was constant interchange of views among the managers, so that there was a certain unity apparent in the building that was not to be seen in any of the others.

The Woman's Building was cut up into rooms of varying sizes, and each room was assigned to some locality or some organization which took charge of the exhibit in it. Needlework and china painting were naturally most conspicuous in a collection of woman's work, but there were also wood carvings, statuary, portraits, and a thousand other things which only a woman could enumerate or fully appreciate. Of course the arrangement was tasteful and the effect was pleasing. In the basement a kindergarten was conducted for a part of the time, and in the "model school building" near by a school was taught. Throughout the ladies exhibited a commendable degree of enthusiasm, energy, and enterprise, and contributed no little to the success of the Exposition.

The Fine Arts Building contained a collection of pictures gathered principally from Northern cities, though many of them were from the easels of European painters. Some of the pictures were undoubtedly meritorious, and though the collection as a whole could not be said to be of the highest character, it was by no means discredit-able. But here, too, the commercial spirit of the whole Exposition cropped out; a large sign, conspicuously posted, stated that most of the pictures were for sale, and solicited inquiries as to prices, etc., to be made at the office of the superintendent of the building.

THE GENERAL EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT.

The educational department of the exhibit was not organized until the spring of 1895, and labored under a great disadvantage because of the limited time that remained in which to work. The department was in the charge of Hon. William J. Northen, who had been a prominent teacher for years, had been governor of the State for two terms, and was and is a man of marked executive ability and high standing. Realizing the difficulties of organizing a satisfactory exhibit so late in

the school year, he worked with greater energy on that account, and when the exhibits were finally installed the educational department made an unexpectedly good showing.

Why it should be so is a mystery, but it has almost invariably been the fate of school exhibits to be put out of the way of the great mass of visitors and in some second story, where they are reached only after an arduous climb of a long stairway. Sight-seeing is hard work, and people who visit expositions are disposed to husband their strength as much as possible. There is always a great deal to be seen on the ground floor, and few care to expend their efforts in stair climbing; consequently the educational exhibits have not many visitors, no matter how attractive they are.

This was the case in Atlanta, and even on the big days, when the lower floor of the Liberal Arts Building was crowded with a bustling crowd of eager sight-seers, one could find quiet and peace upstairs in the school exhibits. Once or twice I was in the gallery on the more quiet days, when the only signs of life to be seen on that floor were in the restaurant and bar at the end of the building.

So much for the un wisdom of "skying" exhibits of this character. It is to be hoped that the managers of educational departments of future expositions will not submit to such undesirable quarters, but will insist upon a location easily accessible without the unnecessary expenditure of muscular force.

I have appended a list of the educational exhibits as it appeared in the official catalogue, but the catalogue was compiled early in the history of the Exposition and the list is far from complete, but it is the best that is available. The number of business colleges represented was unusually large, and their exhibits comprised as a rule specimens of penmanship, sets of books kept by students, and the like.

The Alabama Polytechnic Institute had a modest exhibit of work done by students in the line of machine and wood work, and the University of Tennessee had a similar but somewhat more extensive exhibit.

Harvard University exhibited an exceedingly interesting chart showing the historical development of its course of study, photographs of the World's Fair statues of the average Harvard student, publications of the university, etc.

Johns Hopkins University showed a set of books published by the university and by students and graduates.

The university at Princeton, N. J., among other things, exhibited a model of the grounds and buildings of the institution.

The State of Arkansas made a collective exhibit of school work, comprising examination papers, drawings by pupils, maps, etc., and the city of Cincinnati, Ohio, was represented by specimens of drawing, penmanship, and the like.

The Pennsylvania section was more satisfactory as an exhibit than any other, though it was largely confined to work in the line of industrial training. The Pennsylvania Training School at Elwyn and several Philadelphia institutions were represented.

Besides the exhibits of the educational department proper in the Liberal Arts Building there were others in the Woman's Building and the Model School Building, which was built and conducted by the ladies, in the Negro Building, and in the Georgia and Massachusetts State buildings. The work of the ladies in the educational line is discussed in the article in this report by Miss Nettie C. Sergeant, who was chairman of the committee having that branch of work in charge.

In the Negro Building the general character of the exhibits was educational, and the general character of the education exhibited was industrial. Most of the work exhibited was creditable and much of it was excellent. Among the most conspicuous exhibits were those of Clark University, Atlanta, Ga., Hampton (Va.) Normal and Industrial Institute, Howard University, Tuskegee (Ala.) Normal and Industrial Institute, Spelman Seminary, and Claflin University.

In the Massachusetts Building there were a number of bound volumes of examination papers and drawings, bound photographs, etc., that had formed a part of the exhibit at the World's Fair.

The most prominent of the educational exhibits in the Georgia Building was that of the Normal and Industrial School at Milledgeville.

In connection with the Exposition there were held a number of congresses and conventions, and among them was the Educational Congress, held October 25 to 31. This was organized by Governor Northen as the chief of the department of education, but the meetings of the first two days nominally comprised an adjourned session of the National Educational Association. The programme officially promulgated and some of the papers read are appended to this report. The attendance was not as full as might have been desired. The meetings were held inside the grounds, and though the speakers received free passes, in effect others were charged 50 cents to attend, for they were required to pay admission at the gates. Those who had paid to enter preferred to visit the exhibits rather than to attend the sessions of the congress.

THE EXHIBIT OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION, GOVERNMENT BUILDING.

As a preliminary step in the preparation of the exhibit of this Bureau, a committee was appointed to draft plans for the same. The Commissioner, Dr. W. T. Harris, directed the labors of this committee, which was composed of the chief clerk, Mr. Lovick Pierce, Dr. L. R. Klemm, Mr. Henderson Preshnell, and myself. Tentative schemes were presented by Dr. Klemm and by myself, and general discussions were had as to the proper material to be exhibited, the methods of displaying the same, and such kindred subjects as were suggested by the necessities of the case.

The actual preparation of the exhibit fell to my lot, though I was aided by the other gentlemen of the committee whenever their assistance was necessary, and the cooperation of the chief clerk was always heartily given.

As much of the work as it was possible to do in Washington was done before the shipment of the material to Atlanta. Comparatively little remained to be done there, and there was little difficulty in completing the work of installation before the opening of the Exposition.

The primary function of the office is to collect statistics and facts showing the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and "to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." Its only executive duties consist in the management of the schools of Alaska and in the supervision of the expenditure of the money appropriated to agricultural and mechanical colleges under the act of August 30, 1890.

An exhibit, therefore, which displays the operations of representative educational institutions is not only an illustration, but is also an exercise of the main function of the Bureau. This idea prevailed in the preparation of the exhibit of the Bureau at the Exposition at New Orleans in 1885, and the educational department of that Exposition was managed by the agents of this office.

The propriety and practicability of doing this for the Atlanta Exposition was suggested and advocated, both in the committee and by Hon. William J. Northen, the head of the department of education of the Exposition. But in view of the fact that the school year was then drawing to a close, making it doubtful whether the time remaining was sufficient to prepare a satisfactory exhibit of this character, it was decided to show only the Bureau's own characteristic work, methods, and publications, with such additional material of a general character as was then in hand or readily accessible. The limited amount of money available was also a consideration in reaching this conclusion.

In gathering the material it was fully realized that the things most important from the standpoint of educational values are not necessarily most attractive as exhibition material, but it was the aim to make the exhibit sufficiently dignified and substantial to be worthy of the attention of students, and at the same time to make it of such character as to attract the general public.

The work of the Bureau in diffusing information was made the central feature of the exhibit on its substantial side. This consisted of (1) its publications, which were shown in bound volumes; (2) a collection of statistical charts setting forth the condition of education in its various phases in the United States; (3) charts showing the state of education of various foreign countries; (4) maps showing the distribution of educational institutions in the United States; (5) a map showing the percentage of illiteracy in the several States; (6) a large wall chart showing statistically the progress of education in the South during the last twenty years.

The anomalous condition of the Bureau as a Government office charged with the collection of statistics and similar information, but without the power to require reports or funds with which to pay for them, demanded that some means be employed to show how the required data are obtained. Accordingly the exhibit included a collection of manuscript returns which were voluntarily forwarded by the correspondents of the office. These were bound in 24 thick volumes, which contained about 13,000 returns received in a single year from an equally great number of correspondents. When it is remembered that this tremendous mass of statistical information is obtained without cost, this portion of the exhibit becomes an excellent object lesson of the recognition by school men of the usefulness of the Bureau and of the value of its work in relation to their own.

As examples of other sources from which data are obtained there were shown (1) a collection of foreign school reports, embracing all civilized countries; (2) a number of American educational periodicals, nearly all the States of the Union being represented; (3) an extensive collection of reports of State and city school officers, and of catalogues of all classes of institutions represented in the reports of the office. Documents of the last class are characteristic of American education. They

form one of the most valuable means of disseminating educational intelligence and of making the ideas and achievements of one institution the common property of all. They are freely and constantly used in the work of the Bureau of Education, and it was fitting that they should occupy an important place in the exhibit.

Education in Alaska presented the opportunity of making one of the most attractive features of the Bureau's display. The conditions of life in that Territory are so entirely different from the conditions that prevail in this part of the country that it was thought proper to make a display of characteristic Alaskan articles, in order to show under what disadvantages educational work in that Territory is maintained. This portion of the exhibit was very largely the work of Dr. Sheldon Jackson, the general agent of education in Alaska.

A few articles were shown which were intended to give an idea of the habits and customs of the natives. These included totem poles, articles of apparel, instruments for preparing skins for use, dishes and utensils, masks used in their dances, models of canoes, carvings from ivory and horn, and baskets, hats, etc., made from grass and bark. These were supplemented by a number of photographs showing groups of natives in their characteristic costumes, snow houses, dog sleds, the manner of disposition of their dead—it could scarcely be called "burial"—and of typical Alaskan scenery. There were also a number of drawings by natives representing various scenes common in their experience, such as games, dances, fishing, walrus hunting, and seal clubbing.

The flora of Alaska was shown in a number of water-color paintings, which were kindly loaned by Miss E. Leslie Jackson, the artist. Miss Jackson was at one time connected with one of the schools at Sitka, and it was during her residence there that the paintings were made. The schools themselves and their work were represented by statistics, specimens of school work, photographs of buildings, of pupils before and after attendance, of typical civilized and uncivilized families, etc.

The current agitation in favor of improved school desks and the widespread demand for complete adjustability led to the exhibition of a series of models of desks that were in the possession of the Bureau, supplemented by a number of similar kind exhibited in the Bureau's space at our instance by the United States Patent Office.

These were selected with a view to show typical specimens of desks at different periods of progress, beginning with the primitive puncheon bench and ending with the latest patent adjustable desks. Labels were carefully prepared showing the peculiarity of each desk, with mention of those features in which progress was indicated over desks previously made.

In the bay window at one end of the space allotted to this office was displayed a large collection of photographs, illustrating typical educational institutions of the United States. There were represented public schools, academies for boys, seminaries for girls, normal schools, schools for the deaf, schools for the colored race, medical schools, schools of technology, agricultural and mechanical colleges, colleges for women, and colleges and universities.

The photographs were selected to show as far as possible for each institution (1) material equipment, including buildings and grounds, laboratories, apparatus, etc.; (2) professors and teachers; (3) groups of students or pupils; (4) work of pupils; (5) social life and games. These photographs were arranged in wall cabinets by classes of institutions; under each class the arrangement was alphabetical.

As a means of adding to the attractiveness of the exhibit, as well as for its historical and pedagogical value, a series of pictures were prepared and exhibited illustrating various forms of school punishment.

This idea originated with the Commissioner. In its execution Mr. Felix E. Mahony was detailed from the Pension Office and a room was furnished as a studio for him in the building of the Geological Survey. Twenty water-color drawings were made, illustrating nearly all the varieties of punishment capable of illustration which were found in the course of an extensive investigation.

Mr. Mahony did his work well; the pictures were neatly framed and attracted wide attention.

In regard to methods of display a few words may be said. Some of the furniture used had previously seen service at the World's Fair in 1893, but it was all renovated, and much of it was remodeled to suit the special need of this case.

One tall exhibition case, largely of glass, was fitted with shelves and used as a bookcase; another of similar style was utilized to exhibit the models of school desks, and answered the purpose admirably.

Three small bookcases of ordinary library style were purchased ready-made for bound volumes; they were set against the wall and were as neat as any that would have been specially designed. Statistical charts and many of the photographs were displayed in "wing frames," some of which were hung about circular pillars and some on an upright frame above a heavy table that differed but little from ordinary patterns. The frames themselves were of the "single frame" variety. In each

there were two sheets of glass, between which charts were placed, one facing each way; all were held in the frames by means of beads. They are more troublesome to mount than the double frames formerly used, but they are lighter, neater, and cheaper.

There was not sufficient wall space to display the framed pictures, and the need was supplied with two screens 10 feet long by $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet high. The frames were neatly made of polished oak, the body of the screens being of matched pine covered with dark-red felt. One end was fastened to the wall, while the other was securely braced with heavy irons. The upright portions of the braces were made to fit exactly the inside of the posts and the horizontal portions were mortised into the floor, so that the means of support were not visible. All the punishment pictures and the water colors of Alaskan flowers were thus hung, and what threatened to be a troublesome problem was satisfactorily solved.

A case designed for the maps was fitted with large spring rollers, on which the maps were rolled singly when not in use. There were two such cases, each holding four maps.

A large number of photographs were exhibited in wall cases similar to those first used in the New Jersey school exhibit at the World's Fair. They consisted of a series of 15 light frames, each holding a heavy sheet of cardboard, swung in a compact cabinet with a glass door. The photographs were mounted on the cardboard with ordinary paper fasteners. Cabinets of this kind are by far the best means with which I am familiar for displaying such material, and they were admirably suited to our purposes.

For the small curios from Alaska a show case of the so-called "monitor" pattern was built, the taller central portion being used for small totem poles and the lower portion at the ends being filled with smaller articles.

The ornamental effects were secured by the use of (1) portraits of former Commissioners on the walls, (2) small groups of statuary representing school scenes on the low bookcases, (3) peculiar baskets of Alaskan fashion on the higher cases, and (4) globes and telescopes on the pillars of the wing frames.

The colored transparencies of Southern scenery in the windows formed a part of the exhibit of the Geological Survey, but added greatly to the attractiveness of our own.

The exhibit was inspected by a number of prominent educators and other persons of distinction and by several thousand teachers, in addition to the hosts of general visitors who passed through the building during the course of the Exposition.

I was almost constantly in our space to answer any questions that might be asked, and made it a point to engage in conversation anyone who seemed to be especially interested in the exhibit, whether that interest had been shown by questions or not. In this way I learned a great deal of the people who visited us and of their preferences, and the experience thus gained will be useful in the preparation of future exhibits of similar character.

I was especially struck by the fact that teachers visiting an exposition do not as a rule care to spend their time, or at least not much of it, in an educational exhibit. After they have been confined in the schoolroom for months, probably, they enjoy a season of freedom from their labors, and when they visit a place full of strange sights and sounds they avoid reminders of their work at home and give themselves up to the enjoyment of novelties. They not only do not want to "talk shop," but they do not want to "think shop." This is only natural, and is by no means reprehensible. Such an exposition is not like a meeting of the National Educational Association, for example, where professional study is the direct and primary object. The benefit that teachers derive from an occasion of this kind is much broader, for it is in the line of general culture, and its effects upon their efficiency must be at least as great as the same time spent in narrower professional investigation.

I would not be understood as saying that teachers were unmindful of the value of the educational exhibits. Far from it. But I would emphasize the fact that the occasion is not favorable to the serious study of pedagogical questions. This was strikingly shown in the meager attendance on the Congress of Education, for though the speakers were of the highest class and the programme excellent, there were not over fifty persons present at any session.

On the contrary, I was surprised and gratified at the interest shown in educational matters and in our exhibit by the general public and by many persons in whom one would scarcely expect to find such interest. I remember especially two men who were in the exhibit for an unusually long time, and who examined everything in it with interest that almost amounted to eagerness. One of them was an actor at the head of a farce-comedy company then playing in Atlanta, and the other was a young lieutenant in the Fifth United States Infantry, who was locally famous as a football player.

I am convinced, therefore, that the material for an exhibit by this Bureau on an

occasion like that in Atlanta should be selected and arranged with a view to attracting the attention of the public at large and to interesting them in educational work, rather than with special reference to teachers.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

JAMES C. BOYKIN,
Agent, Bureau of Education.

Hon. W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner of Education.

EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.

The following table was prepared in the Bureau of Education and was shown in its exhibit in Atlanta as a large wall chart, 3 by 10 feet in its dimensions:

Progress in twenty years of education in the South.

[Comprising the States of Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri.]

	1874.	1884.	1894.
Total population.....	15,687,900	20,087,300	24,135,900
School population (5 to 18).....	5,204,100	6,675,940	8,221,330
THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.			
Pupils registered in the schools.....	2,279,614	3,773,477	5,260,588
Per cent of the population.....	14.53	18.78	21.80
Average daily attendance.....	1,407,830	2,445,959	3,384,050
Per cent of the registration.....	61.75	64.57	64.33
Male teachers.....	35,395	51,571	55,600
Female teachers.....	18,322	36,029	59,056
Whole number of teachers.....	53,717	87,600	114,656
Schoolhouses.....	44,095	73,561	86,880
Value of school property.....	\$10,685,950	\$26,009,295	\$55,894,549
Average value of schoolhouses.....	\$373	\$353	\$643
Average number of school days in the year.....	94	94	106
Expenditures for teachers' salaries.....	\$9,200,909	\$14,188,657	\$22,714,010
Total expenditures.....	\$11,823,775	\$17,884,558	\$29,170,351
Expended per capita of population.....	\$0.75	\$0.89	\$1.21
Expended per pupil in attendance.....	\$8.40	\$7.34	\$8.62
UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.			
Number of institutions.....	174	210	299
Professors and instructors.....	1,399	1,880	3,062
Students.....	10,103	16,304	25,304

The population was about one-half greater in 1894 than in 1874.

In the public schools the number of children and of the teachers was about 2½ times as great; three were nearly twice as many schoolhouses, and school property was over 3½ times as valuable; the average school term was twelve days longer; the expenditures were over 2½ times as much.

One hundred and twenty-five new colleges were established between 1874 and 1894; there were 1,663 more professors and 2½ times as many students at the later date than at the former.

LIST OF EDUCATIONAL EXHIBITS AT THE COTTON STATES AND INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION.¹

IN MANUFACTURES AND LIBERAL ARTS BUILDING.

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Ala. Collective exhibit.
 Arkansas public schools, Little Rock, Ark. Educational exhibit, books, charts, maps, pictures, and catalogues.
 Board of education, Chicago. Drawings from public schools.
 Connecticut Commission, Hartford, Conn. Educational exhibit.
 Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. Educational exhibit.
 Hasbrouck Institute, Jersey City, N. J. Educational exhibit.
 Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md. Educational exhibit.
 Massey College, Columbus, Ga. School exhibit.
 Mercer University, Macon, Ga. Educational exhibit.
 Pennsylvania Training School, Elwyn, Pa. Collective exhibit.

¹ From the official catalogue.

St. Mary's College, Belmont, N. C. Illustrations of college work.
 State of South Carolina, Columbia, S. C. Educational exhibit.
 Staunton school exhibit, Staunton, Va. Collective school exhibit.
 Tennessee Industrial School, Nashville, Tenn. Collective exhibit.
 University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn. Collective exhibit.
 Wesleyan College, Macon, Ga. School exhibit.
 Woman's College of Baltimore, Md. School exhibit.

WOMAN'S BUILDING.—KINDERGARTEN WORK.

Atlanta. Miss Allen's kindergarten.
 Atlanta. Mrs. Muse, from West End.
 Government schools. Indian kindergarten.
 Knoxville, Tenn. Free kindergarten, under auspices of the King's Daughters.
 Lexington, Ky. Public schools.
 Louisville, Ky. Kindergarten exhibit.
 Memphis, Tenn. Free kindergarten.
 Memphis, Tenn. Miss Wheatley's kindergarten.
 Washington, D. C. Mrs. Hailmann's kindergarten.
 Washington, D. C. Mrs. Louise Pollock.
 Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, Mass. Kindergarten apparatus.

MODEL SCHOOL BUILDING—PUBLIC SCHOOL EXHIBITS.

Athens, Ga. Collective exhibit from public schools.
 Atlanta public schools. Collective exhibit.
 Birmingham, Ala. Collective exhibit from public schools.
 Charlotte, N. C. Collective exhibit from public schools.
 Cincinnati. Art exhibit from public schools.
 Cincinnati public schools. Penmanship.
 Dalton, Ga. Collective exhibit from public schools.
 Harlem, Ga. Collective exhibit from public schools.
 Hawkinsville, Ga. Collective exhibit from public schools.
 Minneapolis, Minn. Collective exhibit from public schools.
 Newnan, Ga. Collective exhibit from public schools.

NEGRO BUILDING.

Atlanta Baptist Seminary, Atlanta. School exhibits.
 Atlanta University, Atlanta. School work, etc.
 Central Tennessee College, Nashville Tenn. Educational exhibit.
 Christiansburg Institute, Christiansburg, Va. Industrial exhibit.
 Claflin University, Orangeburg, S. C. School exhibit.
 Clark University, Atlanta. Sundry articles, school exhibits.
 Cook, George F., Washington, D. C. School exhibit.
 Cotton, T. L., Darlington, S. C. School work, etc.
 Dent, T. M., Rome, Ga. School exhibit.
 Emery, W. O., Little Rock, Ark. Farm products; school exhibit.
 Florida State Normal and Industrial College, Tallahassee, Fla. School exhibit.
 Gammon Theological Seminary, Atlanta. Educational exhibit.
 Georgia State Industrial College, College, Ga. Industrial exhibit.
 Greenleaf College, Orangeburg, S. C. School exhibit.
 Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, Hampton, Va. School exhibit.
 Howard University, Washington, D. C. School exhibit.
 Lincoln School, Meridian, Miss. School exhibit.
 Mitchell, Frankie, Atlanta. Penmanship.
 Montgomery Industrial School, Montgomery, Ala. Educational exhibit.
 Morgan College, Baltimore, Md. School exhibit.
 Morris Brown College, Atlanta. School exhibit.
 Smith, Philander, College, Little Rock, Ark. School exhibit.
 Spelman Seminary, Atlanta. School exhibit.
 St. Paul Normal and Industrial School, Lawrenceville, Va. School exhibit.
 State Normal and Industrial School. School exhibit.
 Steele, Carrie L., Atlanta. School children's fancy work.
 Talladega College, Talladega, Ala. Educational display.
 Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, Tuskegee, Ala. School exhibit.

PROGRAMME OF THE EDUCATIONAL CONGRESS, COTTON STATES AND INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION, OCTOBER 25 TO 31, 1895.

[Exposition Auditorium.]

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 25.

10 a. m.—Addresses: President of the Georgia State Teachers' Association; superintendent of education of Georgia; chancellor of the University of Georgia; Prof. Newton C. Dougherty, president National Education Association. The Training of Teachers, Principal F. W. Parker, Cook County Normal, Illinois. Relation of the Normal School to the Public School, E. Oram Lyte, Pennsylvania State Normal. College Degrees, President George A. Ramsey, Louisiana.

2 p. m.—Higher Education in the South, Prof. Edwin A. Alderman, University of North Carolina. System of Education, President William R. Harper, University of Chicago.

8 p. m.—Addresses: Commissioner W. T. Harris, Washington; Hon. A. E. Winship, Boston.

SATURDAY, OCTOBER 26.

10 a. m.—Secondary Education, President Ellen C. Sabin, Milwaukee. Progress in Primary Education, Mrs. Eva D. Kellogg, Boston. Rural Schools, Hon. Charles A. Skinner, Albany.

2 p. m.—Aim of the Elementary Schools, F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis. Aim of the Elementary Schools, Oscar Cooper, Galveston. University Education, President Francis A. Patten, University of New Jersey. Trend of Higher Education in the South, Dr. Charles W. Dabney, president University of Tennessee and Assistant Secretary of Agriculture.

MONDAY, OCTOBER 28.

COMMON SCHOOLS.

10 a. m.—Presiding officer, Dr. D. C. Gilman, president Johns Hopkins University. Introductory address by the president. The Public School System as an Instrumentality of Social Advance, Hon. E. B. Andrews, president Brown University. Discussion: Hon. J. R. Preston, State superintendent of education, Mississippi; Hon. J. O. Turner, State superintendent of education, Alabama. The Proper Scope of Public Education, Hon. James R. Waterworth, St. Louis, Mo.

8 p. m.—Old and New Ways of Treating History, Hon. John Fiske, Cambridge, Mass. General discussion, public school system.

TUESDAY, OCTOBER 29.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

10 a. m.—Presiding officer, Col. William Preston Johnson, president Tulane University. Introductory address by the president. The Place and Work of Secondary Schools, Prof. Lawrence C. Hull, Lawrenceville, N. J. The Place of Literature in Secondary Education, Dr. J. H. Abernethy, principal Berkley Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y. Discussion: Prof. Lawton B. Evans, superintendent city schools, Augusta, Ga.; Maj. W. F. Garrett, Peabody Normal School, Nashville, Tenn.

PEABODY MEMORIAL.

3 p. m.—Addresses: Dr. W. H. Payne, president Peabody Normal School, Nashville, Tenn.; Dr. J. L. M. Curry, agent Peabody fund, Washington, D. C.

8 p. m.—Methods of Botany Teaching for the Young, Prof. D. P. Penhallon, professor of botany, McGill University, Montreal, Canada. The Educational Use of Mythology and Folklore, Hon. W. W. Newell, secretary American Folklore Society, Boston, Mass. General discussion, secondary schools.

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 30.

HIGHER AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

10 a. m.—Presiding officer, Dr. Charles K. Adams, president University of Wisconsin. The Spread of Knowledge Regarding the Mineral Products of the Country, Prof. J. A. Kemp, professor of geology in School of Mines, Columbia College, N. Y.

Colleges for Women, Hon. John F. Goucher, president of Woman's College, Baltimore. Certain Phases of Pedagogics, Prof. A. P. Montague, dean of Columbian University. The Relation of Schools and Museums of Art to the People, Hon. Halsey C. Ives, director of Museum of Fine Arts, St. Louis, Mo.

2 p. m.—The Material Development of the South as Related to the Progress of Scientific and Technical Education, Hon. William M. Thornton, chairman of the faculty, University of Virginia. A Modern Opportunity, Dr. B. L. Whitman, president Columbian University.

EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.

8 p. m.—Presiding officer, Wesley O'Connor; The Education of the Deaf, Hon. Edward M. Gallaudet, president of Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C. Dr. Philip G. Gilbert, president of the American Association for Teaching Speech to the Deaf. General discussion.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.¹

[By Edwin A. Alderman, professor of pedagogy, University of North Carolina.]

Out of the overthrow of a unique and forceful civilization in the Southern States there is slowly emerging a new society. Under the stern pressure of necessity this silent revolution has proceeded so quietly, and has been masked so skillfully by the marvelous material resurrection of a ruined and conquered people, that men have not marked the clashing of old ideas and aspirations and modes of thought with the new strenuous influences of modernism and innovation. All the well-known phenomena of transition are in full play in Southern life—the people as a whole, incited by lack of training and consequent poverty, pressing steadily toward a wider life, but unable to distinguish, in the general clamor, the guidance of true wisdom from the voice of the slave to his prejudice or his sect casting in stumbling blocks, or the raw enthusiast shouting panaceas and prophesying millenniums.

The direction and elevation of this social new birth are the surpassing duty and function of all educational forces, and more especially of the higher education in Southern life. Whether there shall issue from the conflict an enlightened civilization, blending the loveliness and charm of the old with the vigor and freedom of the new, or some unhappy system made up of crudities and ancient prejudices, is the task set for this generation of educated Southern manhood.

Isolated, individual, conservative, the South of the past held itself proudly aloof from the ferments of modern society, went its own way, and created its own dominant dramatic order. This order was a system of contrasts and lights and shadows. It produced neither wealth nor letters. It dishonored labor, arrested immigration, minimized invention, unified industry, and exalted caste. The academies and private schools of the time, administered by scholarly and devoted men, were numerous and effective, indeed, almost perfect instruments for the purposes of the time; but the common schools, branded with the burning badge of pauperism, could not thrive. Yet there issued from this order the smallest, the alertest, the most powerful political force in Christendom. The American Union had sprung from their brains, had been maintained by the valor of their arms, and had extended its territory under their guiding hands. By a strange historic paradox the causes of their weakness became as well the causes of their strength. The dangers and antagonisms of a militant labor system made them masterful in action and persuasive in speech. Baronial life, with its leisure and inherited overlordship, made them as simple as shepherds and as proud as kings. In the placid air of their enlightened mediævalism lingered the brave old ideals of courage and beauty and gracious dignity. There was but one overshadowing Southern question then, and this for its treatment did not so much need universal intelligence and thrift and the spirit of gain and growth, as it did character, principle, oneness of purpose, and chivalric codes of conduct. Hence all the forces of the time concentrated on these lines, and there arose an assertive, sensitive, sincere, dauntless race of men esteeming life less than honor and loyalty more than gold, who wrought with a sad titanic sincerity for their doomed cause; withholding nothing, compromising nothing until the mighty struggle wore to its sublime and pathetic close at Appomattox.

The great war, in the mystery of historic forces, freed the white man, rolled away his burden, and enrolled the South in competition with the great industrial democracies of the world. Its problems, no longer direct and primitive, are their problems intensified by the painful processes of social transformation. The old individualism has given place to combination and capitalism, servile labor to the labor of the free black; and with this the best products are to be raised, the best goods manufactured, and the best routes to market devised. Our first work is to possess the land and

¹ Read at the National Congress of Education October 25, 1895.

subdue it. The care of the body, if not so important as other higher things, must at least take precedence in the evolution of a higher civilization. The law of the passage of society from the patriarchal to the economic stage necessitates the higher organism, the subtler brain, the more cunning hand. Hence, like a belated army, the South is seeking to conquer a place in material civilization; its dreamers become captains of industry, and its doctrinaires lords of trade. We shall lose an element of charm and picturesqueness, but we shall gain in wealth and productive energy, and the change is inevitable.

Our largest work is the wise and just guidance of the irrepressible instinct of democracy, restrained for generations, now asserting itself in the upheaval of the plain people—the third estate—who are everywhere coming to the front, demanding their share in government and challenging the authority of the ruling class. Our untrained men are learning to govern by governing, pedagogically and historically a wise process, for that surely is better than to be governed and remain ignorant. The situation is not without great hopefulness. The rank and file of this popular uprising are the best material in the world for the making of educated citizenship. The civil war revealed their value to the world and constituted their university. Its marches and dangers opened their eyes and gave them their outlook on life. They and their sons, the younger element in the movement, are men of unmixed English and Scotch-Irish blood, inheritors of the Anglo-Saxon consciousness, descendants of men who sacrificed peace and life for principle in three wars, keen-witted, if untrained, their very excesses the result of boundless faith in the majesty of their government. The tasks awaiting adjustment by these men, sure to attain and hold power in the end, are enough to appall the wisest statesmen and the profoundest social scientists—the remodeling of constitutions, the settlement of grave questions of suffrage and property, the reconciliation of classes, and, greatest of all, the problem of the two races.

The sentimentalists and partisans of the reconstruction period fancied that they had settled the question which had disturbed the dreams of Jefferson, which had perplexed and affrighted the national conscience through all its history, and which had just evoked the mightiest moral energies of the century. But their solution was no solution. It was solemn opera bouffe. The problem had just begun, and remains the transcendent sociological problem of the age. Rant will not dispose of it, or ignorant gush, or race prejudice, or the philosophy of the sentimental and the remote; but it must work itself out on Southern soil by the wisdom of Southern men of both races. It must pass into the region of scientific study and investigation. The Southern scholar must make it his province in the still air of the university; the statesman and publicist must ponder it, and the capitalist may well reckon with it amid his gold. What manner of men, then, does the South need in its coming life?

Perhaps in the past we set too much store by wise leaders and neglected to provide for wise followers. If so, the irony of fate is sporting with us, for now, in the threatening danger of these great questions, we are practically leaderless. The old type of leader, softened by fortitude and idealized by woe, has passed away, canonized by love and letters. The voluntary and occult forces of the time are seeking diligently to fashion the new. Now and then we seem to get a glimpse of our leader, as when Henry Grady, with his golden tongue and free, spacious spirit, arose upon the South, a radiant prophecy of its future manhood, but it is only a glimpse. The mere industrial man will not answer our need, though there are lands to be tilled and factories to be built, and the madness of exalting empty political preeminence and fair-spoken words above the sciences that will dignify labor and procure food can never again curse our life. The mere orator or politician or scholar will not do. There must be a complex of all these—the man of free spirit and constructive habit, the man of insight and effectiveness, of utility and beauty, of action and contemplation. He shall above all have faith and sympathy with the blundering masses, and shall be endowed with that patient wisdom which can await the unflinching rectitude of public impulse and can keep its faith through unpromising days. Like Fichte around the King's council board or Luther to the burgomasters of Germany, he shall plead unceasingly for education in the colleges and schools, in the press, and in the public library. If our laws and institutions are not to become the crude experiments of the ignorant or the bold devices of the corrupt; if the South is to outgrow years of economic misconception; if the teachers in our schools are to be true teachers, educated men, rather than party chieftains or untrained place seekers, must lead our civilization. The potential of trained mind must constitute the test of true leadership in the South hereafter. The popular contempt for higher education and the popular pride in the self-made man is always widespread and strong in democratic communities. The feeling is a sort of retribution upon scholarship and educated power for their cowardice and selfishness, but it is none the less defiance of common sense. The educated man may not always be in place, but he is sooner or later in power. The higher education is the dynamic element in the life of the community, invigorating the schools of the people, bravely struggling to elevate the common

standard of living, supplying the State with its teachers in the schoolroom, the press, the pulpit, the family.

Out of the universities of the world have come its creative movements and men—religious freedom in the Old World and civil liberty in the New. Modern Germany is the child of her universities, and relies more firmly for her permanent power upon them and their 28,000 students than upon her invincible soldiery. Blot out the influences of Harvard and Yale and the colleges of the Atlantic seaboard, and what art can estimate the loss in moral elevation, practical power, or national character? The great Columbian Exposition, with its splendor and beauty, will fade away—aye, has faded away as a dream—but its neighbor, the university, will shape Western life for unnumbered generations. Wherever tyranny has sought to oppress the weak or ignorance to rule the wise, wherever the borders of light have needed to be enlarged, or ancient and prosperous shapes of wrong to be cleansed from the land, the gray walls of the university have yielded up its spiritual battalions—strong in steadfast purpose and cultivated brain, discoverers of thought, conservators of truth, stimulators of mind, sowers of seed that will bear fruit in a fairer time. The feeling is instinctive that men of this stamp and quality must serve a State in epochs of downfall and trial. The South has not failed in this feeling, as its brave efforts to establish and maintain schools and colleges for both races quite eloquently show; but the needs of Southern society are so great, her young men seeking training are so countless, the work of all the colleges is such a fraction of what is left to be done, the disheartening rivalries and bickering among the colleges themselves are such distressing proofs of the need of higher education that it has seemed best for me to leave the questions of technique and administration to wiser men, and to plead for the thing itself.

We are not all of one mind as to how the great need shall be supplied. There are those who insist that this vital thing is not a concern of the State, whose highest functions they declare are symbolized by the policeman's club or the law's penalty. And then there are the prosperous communities with amassed wealth and settled material skill, who say to us that we must wait upon the impulses of philanthropy or the activities of the church for our educational foundations. But the nature of the State is at variance with the limitation of its powers to police regulation, and the instinct of civic self-preservation decides against trusting wholly to individual generosity or ecclesiastical agencies for a universal social necessity. The State is not the government alone, it is the will of the people expressing itself in beneficent institutions as well as in penal or protective codes. The protective function of a State, indeed, may disappear as reason advances, but the loftier educational function will increase as social relations grow in complexity.

From the standpoint of right, there is no power to which the State can delegate its duty and power to educate, for there is no higher power than the State. If there be a higher power in the State than the State, then that power is the State. From the standpoint of political common sense, the agent of social salvation should be at least as potent as the extent of social peril. Our social peril is superlative, involving education or migration or revolution. The most potent conceivable agent is the State, which is concerned about and surely is responsible for its own life. Therefore it is the all-powerful State that must maintain itself against vital danger. If it be conceded that the youth of a Commonwealth have the same right to be educated that they have to be free, then it must also be conceded that the State is responsible for and alone has the power to guarantee the granting of this sacred right. To those who concede the State's right and duty to educate in the primary education and deny it in the higher, it may be answered that an argument for any education is an argument for all education. If the State has a right to educate at all, it likewise has the right to determine the extent and character of that education. All knowledge is comparative, the higher education of one age becoming the lower of the next, and there can be no dead line in learning at which knowledge ceases to be good and becomes useless. The three "R's" are indispensable. But mere reading is not reading with profit, and the one is as indispensable as the other. Higher education simply means more education, better education, completer education for a completer life. It is not a cult for the few or a caste for the wealthy or a college for the exclusive. It is the training ground for the people, and is the essence of democracy in its purposes and results.

In my own State of North Carolina, up to the civil war, there was a widespread feeling that the ruling class was confined to a few families of ability and wealth. In the early days of the century it was true, and necessarily true, for the influential and wealthy classes alone could command the advantages of education, and education finally rules. The enlightened policy of the modern State knowing no class, and knowing that those who most need help are least able to help themselves, cheapens the cost of this priceless thing and offers it to the aspiring of all ranks who feel within them the promptings of power and yearn for the higher life of useful action. As a result of this leveling process, introducing the higher test of fitness

and ability, side by side in the various fields of endeavor and in the high places sit men of all ranks and all degrees of wealth, advancing the life of the State.

Let me not be understood, in pleading for the higher education, as underrating the lower, for there is no essential distinction between the two. The State can not be interested in one and not in the other, for they are one and indivisible. A system of education all universities and no primary schools would be a crime, as a system all primary schools and no universities would be a farce. It is simply a question of sequence. The educative impulse is from above downward and not from below upward, and the two impulses reenforce and enrich each other.

In the old Southern life in every hamlet and community were to be found men and women of the rarest culture; but all around, giving color and tone to the whole, moved the untaught throng. The supremest need of the new life is the lessening of this inequality by the presence in large numbers in all elements of the population of men and women of thoughtful, independent mind, of trained consciences and habits and hands, who can bring things to pass. This can only issue out of the higher education reacting upon the lower, lifting the whole to a higher common level.

The permanent forces in this process are, first and foremost, the State universities and colleges supported by taxation and expressing the Christian tendency of the brotherhood of men, and secondly, the endowed institutions supported by enlightened philanthropy.

There is no call among us for a multitude of new foundations, unless it be for institutions for the training of teachers. We need, rather, to expand and enrich and liberalize the old foundations. There are two obstacles in the way of this result: The popular, abstract hatred of taxation, which enables the enemies of the State schools to confuse the thought of the people and to make them regard all taxation as a curse rather than as organized corporate wisdom, hallowed by Christianity, struggling to secure for the children a needful thing beyond individual power; secondly, the failure thus far in our development to find the golden mean between the individualism which preserves liberty and the individualism which paralyzes concerted action. Still, partially rooted in our life is the fatal thought that every man should educate his own child or leave him uneducated, if it be his will or misfortune.

Emphasized by poverty, this conviction still stays the hand of giving and belittles the glory and gladness of helping others to help themselves. We will do well to labor and pray for the death of this sentiment. We would be mad to cease State effort and demand endowment at the point of a subscription list.

Bishop Potter in a recent utterance has declared that the darkest day for any people would be the day when they did not possess an ideal university, and by an ideal university he meant any group of free, simple, unhampered men seeking truth for truth's sake, "waiting patiently on their bended knees before the shut doors of the kingdom of knowledge," getting their only reward in the thrill of the human soul in its contact with eternal verity, ignorant and careless of the moment when their theoretic truth emerges into fact, and in the form of mighty engines or stately ships or roaring looms blesses the world. There can be no fairer picture on earth than this, and such men are indeed the aristoi of the world. But there is one thing greater than truth, and that is humanity. The Southern university may well cherish this serene ideal and incorporate in its organization the creative impulse and the spirit of inquiry and investigation, but its first thought must be about its environment, out of which it must grow and by which it must do its duty before it can erect a beautiful aristocracy of scholarship. Once we were aristocratic in government and education, but now we are democratic in both. At this stage of our culture, when millions are to be impressed with the importance of knowledge, the Southern scholar must forego his office of prophet and seer and become ruler and reformer, and Southern universities and colleges must do the work of social regenerative forces, reaching out directly into the life of the people, making known how much better light is than darkness, and how sweet it is for the eyes to behold the sun, ennobling the poor man's poverty and spiritualizing the rich man's gold.

I sometimes think that our brethren of the North and West do not fully comprehend how ripe the time is and how hard the struggle for the fruitful doing of such work. Individuals and communities can not be forced into power or culture or effectiveness or skill. The desire for these good things must go before their realization. For a glimpse of the self-reliance, the eagerness, the bravery of the South, one has only to visit a Southern college and see the earnest, thrilling desire for the opportunities which the people believe to be concealed in education. The influences that hinder and obstruct can not wholly restrain or dull this desire, and it grows by what it feeds on. It is something of the spirit, I fancy, that lives for us in the glad, grateful words of young Ulrich Von Hutten, spoken to the bright face of Freedom in the morning of the modern world, "Studies are blooming, minds are awakening; it is a joy to be alive." It is the spirit which will cause history to place our epic period

not in the heroic days of '61 to '65, when our soldiers performed prodigious feats of arms, but in the grinding days from '65 to '95, when they and their sons rose above the stupendous difficulties that followed in the wake of war.

The going of a Southern boy to college is no conventional, quite ordinary stage in the life of a youth. It is always an event, and sometimes a tragedy. It most frequently means that far away in the home the father and mother work harder and rest less, and scrimp here and save there, eating skim milk and oatmeal, and taking counsel in the still hours of the night how they may give their child the privileges they did not know and the entrance into the clearer, fresher, sweeter life denied to them. I have seen a feeble woman's face set with stern resolve and glow with ineffable love at the very thought of her boy putting on his armor at the price of her own life. The dignity and power and political value of childhood and youth as the fittest and ultimate concern of the legislator, the preacher, the political economist, the true statesman, has entered our life as one hundred years ago it entered the life of the French, aroused by the mad earnestness of Rousseau, and aghast at the havoc of revolution, or as it entered into the thought of the English a generation later, to the music of Wordsworth's immortal ode.

Higher education in the South does not exist for its own glory, for the fame of its teachers, for the pride of sect, or for any subjective or selfish reason. Its aims must be pure public aims and its service public service.

In a portentous era, and with inadequate means, it stands for the beneficent force that must transmute the tumultuous, untrained life about it into self-government perfected by education—its material the youth of a new life and a new century, and its strong fortress the self-conscious state, no longer a synonym for rude force, but an expression of Christian sympathy and unity and conscience seeking to realize and show forth the dignity of democracy, the beauty of popular concord and justice, and the majesty of republican citizenship.

WHY THE COLLEGE FOR WOMEN?¹

[By John F. Goucher, president of the Woman's College of Baltimore.]

Sir Humphry Davy was once asked which was the greatest discovery he had ever made, to which he replied, "Michael Faraday." Greater than the safety lamp with its great economic value, greater than the principles set forth in his treatise on "Some chemical agencies of electricity," with its great scientific import, greater than his decomposition of alkalis and earths with its far-reaching results, was the discovery of Michael Faraday, whose researches, observations, and discoveries as chemist, electrician, and philosopher, broadened the horizon of the knowable and enriched humanity.

So the nineteenth century, with its long record of important discoveries, applications, and achievements, with its unprecedented progress in the mastery of nature and the facilities of communication, in the development of personal influence and the sentiment of humanity, most deserves to be known as foremost among the great centuries of human history for the discovery of woman. Greater than its development of material resources, greater than its multiplication of mechanical agencies, greater than its scientific, economic, and social progress, far greater and more determinative in the development of the race is its discovery of woman, its recognition of her rights and provision for her best culture. Here and there through all the centuries women have shown large capacity and great efficiency, but these, if considered at all, were regarded as exceptional. Appreciation of womanliness, its importance to the race, its determining relation to the development of humanity, the necessity that woman shall have the most thorough and comprehensive culture is the culminating distinction of the nineteenth century.

This discovery was opportune. Man's conquests had so enlarged his opportunities that he needed personal enlargement to occupy them. No nation or people has ever outranked its representative women. Woman gauges civilization. It never outgrows her influence. Let a student of social science know the women of a community, their attitude to moral questions, their standard of excellence, and their motives of action, and he has data sufficient from which to diagnose the present status and prognose the future prospects of that community.

If woman admires cunning and approves cruelty, if she judges of bravery and bestows her favors according to the number of scalps brutal men dangle at their belts, the ambition and occupation of that people will be to capture scalps by cunning and cruelty that their belts may be ornamented in correct style, even though it requires the enslaving of women with debasing drudgery. So pervasive will be the ideal that their children's play will reveal it, the youth will dream of it, the young men will strive to attain it, and the old men and maidens will never weary of

¹ Read at the National Congress of Education, October 30, 1895.

recounting legends of the prowess and success of those who have excelled in realizing it. Let the representative women be foolish, inconsistent, given to dress, fond of show, and self-indulgent, and the men will be foppish, of smooth speech, hollow-hearted, avaricious, and sensuous; but let the representative women of the community be thoughtful, purposeful to help humanity, and given to unselfish living, let them maintain high ideals of personal purity for themselves, and require the same standards of the men whom they receive to their friendship, and the men of that community will be manly, pure, and public-spirited, whose ambition is helpfulness, and whose passion is justice.

That woman has higher ideals than man is generally assumed, and, I think, correctly. This is not due to a nature inherently different so much as to the training which she receives and the standard she tries to realize. Let our daughters live on the street, frequent the saloon or loafing place, associate with the unrestrained, and be under the influence of the impure, and their intenser natures would exceed in evil, as too many sad examples illustrate. Let the women give themselves to the competition of business and politics, as now conducted; let the home be impoverished by the absorption of the mother in other demands and the children be deprived of the high ideal and unselfish example of the patient woman and devoted mother, and the race would suffer irreparable injury, for the home, and not the individual, is the unit factor of Christian civilization.

The home duties of the wife and mother require as much intelligence and ability as the more public occupation of the husband and father. They are more varied, more exacting in detail, and more wearing in routine. Ofttimes the mother, in caring for the children and managing the household, evidences industry and endurance, intelligence and wisdom, financial ability and administrative skill which far exceed the demands upon the husband, who pursues his daily routine and receives his stipulated wage. There are certain duties which she must perform unless the race is to become extinct. These are determined by the laws written in her members. Other duties naturally relate themselves to these. There are well-meaning would-be reformers, nonadjusted females, and others who have not thought on the various phases of this problem to a comprehensive and legitimate conclusion who would indefinitely extend these duties. They say that man has certain elective, legislative, and administrative functions which he ought to use for the best interests of society, but as this is difficult for him to do he has not always been faithful to his responsibilities. Therefore they propose to reorganize the relations between man and woman without changing their natures, and ask woman to jeopardize the highest functions which she and she only can perform to attempt what man has the power and is under obligation to do. Mark you, rarely do you hear mothers talk thus. Maternity makes less conspicuous but higher and more distinctive demands of them, which they loyally accept and are honored in performing.

To multiply functions and confuse relations is contrary to the scientific and historic trend of development. Scientifically, development always emphasizes peculiarities and registers itself in individualization. In the lower orders of life exchange of functions is not impossible. As they advance we find distinctions which were rudimentary and scarcely discernible become pronounced. They determine appearance, character, and adaptations. Historically, in the earlier stages and lower grades of civilization, woman has to do almost everything. She is mother, teacher, agriculturist, purveyor, manufacturer, merchant, banker, and general drudge. Civilization develops increased efficiency and realizes excellence by specialization. Civilization and interdependence develop side by side. As we rise in the scale we find woman's work decreasing in variety and increasing in importance. It becomes more difficult and more potential as it becomes more closely related to those subtle forces which determine destiny. The hope of the race is in the success with which she does this work.

Humanity's greatest need is not for a decrease of man's responsibility and an increase of the responsibility of woman. Neither is it to radically change woman's work by giving her a part of the work now assigned to man unless the change is to be an exchange, man assuming a part of the work now done by woman, from which she is to be released when she assumes the work man is doing. Except within comparatively narrow limits this would be impossible. Humanity's great need is not for more destructive competition, but for more helpful cooperation, not for the evolution of two distinct spheres, a man's sphere and a woman's sphere, moving in separate and independent orbits, but for the development of a single sphere with its hemispheres properly adjusted and revolving in the full enjoyment of perfectness. There must be specialization in order to have excellence, limitation to reduce wasteful competition, and adjustment in order to secure cooperation. The goal will be hastened if woman ceases to tolerate shirks, maintains clearly defined and high ideals, and holds man strictly to the fulfillment of his obligations. If the present race of men is incapable of this, the homes and mothers and representative women have failed and the evil must be corrected by providing for wiser mothers, more

attractive homes, and stronger, nobler representative women. Here we find a foundation demand for the thorough college education of women. So imperative is this demand that if it were impossible for both the sons and the daughters to have the opportunity, and it could be given only to one, the best interests of humanity require, except in rare cases, that the daughters shall have the preference in this matter and be given thorough college education. So largely are business and politics absorbing the men that women must become the protectors of the higher intellectual interests in domestic life or the race will deteriorate.

Confusion of thought is the inevitable result of inaccuracy in the use of terms, so let us define what we mean by college education. With a reasonable degree of accuracy all educational work may be classified under four heads: Primary, secondary, collegiate and graduate, university or technical. The primary is addressed to the observational faculties, seeking to develop in them promptness and accuracy; the secondary leads up to and deals with the reflective faculties and causal relations. College education is not secondary education plus something. Its purpose, methods, and appliances are different and more comprehensive. It addresses itself to the discipline and development of every faculty of the intellectual, physical, and spiritual nature in their functional relations. Its object is a well-poised, resourceful, symmetrical personality. Graduate or university education is to train investigators and specialists along given lines.

There are radical differences between man and woman, their adaptations and the demands upon them—differences which contradict the suggestion of oneness and make them necessary to each other and their unity possible. Man's success in life, as it is now adjusted, is through persistence, by concentration and cumulative results. He must of necessity be a specialist, knowing all possible about something. Utility has no more withering characterization of a diffused man than "jack-of-all-trades, master of none." Woman's strength is in her versatility. Her occupation changes with every hour of the day. As wife, which is more than companion; as mother, which is more than teacher; as the spirit and inspiration of the home, determining its atmosphere; as furnishing new revelations of the meaning, beauty, and power of the gospel, enriching the church by her life and ministries; as the embodiment of the highest ideals, giving tone and strength to society, the demands upon her are varied, involved, and numberless. In all these and the various other places she is called to fill she needs to be resourceful and cultured and to have the mastery of herself at a moment's notice. She needs judgment, skill, taste, and tact, a nature enriched with varied and exact knowledge, beautified with culture, chaste and strong through discipline, lofty in ideal, and possessing the incomparable grace of unselfish ministry. Thus and thus only is she qualified for the throne and citadel of her queenly prerogative. All this is included in a symmetrical personality. To aid in the realization of this is the aim of a college education.

The higher education of woman has not yet passed out of its experimental stage. Her ability to receive the broadest, the most varied, and the most exact culture, the importance of thorough and advanced culture to her own best enjoyment, its influence upon the present and future of our civilization, and the necessity that hers especially shall be Christian culture are no longer questioned by intelligent Anglo-Saxons, but its scope and the methods by which and the conditions within which such training will realize the most practical results are still matters of controversy and experiment. The so-called "female college" was tried, but it is fast giving way to the larger requirements of the problem. It was a concession to the times, served a purpose, and marked an important advance. Coeducation was another experiment in this line. It seemed economical, for one institution would require less capital than two. An increase of students without a corresponding increase in the expense account promised well, and the girls were permitted, even invited, to go to the boys' school. But the problem demanded special and more serious consideration. "The question of education has always pointed back to that of vocation and destiny, for education is a process of preparation for an end." There is a deep-rooted feeling, opinion, or judgment—designate it as you please—that young women are not likely to realize the most desirable results in a college planned, organized, and administered for young men any more than one or a dozen young men turned into a woman's college among 300 or 400 young women could reasonably be expected to come out manly men, thoroughly equipped to meet the business demands of life.

That coeducation has not furnished a satisfactory solution to the problem is evidenced by the strong, high-grade, thoroughly equipped colleges for women which have been established at large expense within the past two or three decades, every one of which has had more applicants knocking at its doors than it could accommodate. This demand for the separate college education of women is assuming the characteristics of a movement among two classes in particular:

(1) The thoughtful young women of serious purpose who covet thorough preparation to meet the larger demands of life, recognizing the necessity of leisure and concentration to thorough culture, say that during those months of the few years

which should be devoted to acquiring an education they covet exemption from obtrusive opportunities for social life and full command of their time for study.

(2) The cultured well-to-do, who have social standing and know their daughters need and must have careful preparation to grace the positions awaiting them, are unwilling to place their daughters where they will be required to associate every day of the most impressive years of their lives with young men of whom they know nothing beyond the fact that they have about the same degree of immaturity. They expect their daughters to choose their companions, but protest that they should not be tempted to choose before their ideals are formed and their judgments somewhat matured.

The extent of this movement for the separate college education of women indicates that the colleges for women offer valuable facilities for meeting a felt and rapidly growing demand. According to the last report of the Commissioner of Education there are 36 young women seeking college education in the United States for every 100,000 of the population. Of these, 16.7 are in coeducational institutions and 19.3 in colleges for women. This is the more suggestive when we consider that a few years ago coeducation had the field almost exclusively to itself; that 284, or 90 per cent, of the colleges and universities for men now admit young women; that these institutions are widely scattered throughout the country and have a large local patronage of young women, who are among their students because their proximity secures a saving in cash outlay, home residence, and parental supervision, but who would not go away from home to a coeducational college; while the colleges for women are of comparatively recent origin and remote from a large part of their constituency; yet, according to the latest statistics, of all young women seeking college education, 53.5 per cent are in colleges for women, with only 46.5 per cent in coeducational institutions.

In the colleges for women the young woman is not placed in competition with young men during that stage of her development when, for physical reasons, she is likely to be at a disadvantage.

Great is Love, and propinquity is her high priest. In the colleges for women, during that sentimental age when young people are likely to be hero worshipers, young women are exempt from the undesirable excitements incident to daily competition with young men and from the temptation to attachments such as they would not form when they are more matured and have higher ideals.

With health conserved and the distractions of society and the abstractions of love removed, students in the colleges for women have most favorable conditions for study and the development of cultured womanliness.

If the relations of men and women are to be competitive, increasing "the restlessness, haste, and intense strain in all relations of life," and the outcome is to be the survival of the fittest, woman needs college training as well as man, and their training should be identical, though not necessarily together. If the relations between men and women are to be complementary and cooperative, if her highest function is not to be a weak imitation nor a brilliant substitute, but a helpmeet for man at his best, the college for women has an important and indisputable mission.

Some are anxiously inquiring what results are realized by the colleges for women. Are their alumnae healthy and capable? Does a fair percentage of them grace domestic life? Are they realizing the ideal? What are the facts and figures? These are legitimate questions, and satisfactory answers are at hand.

The higher education of woman is in its experimental stage. As in almost every advance movement, the vanguard who did the pioneer work were exceptional people, not to be gauged by the normal standards. Not so large a percentage of the earlier alumnae have married as could be desired, but a larger percentage have done so than could have been reasonably expected.

In the colleges for women there has been an unjustifiable servility to the methods and requirements set in the colleges for men, and there has not been sufficient time for the development of a consistent individuality; but the evolution is progressing and evidences a strong formative principle. Woman is self-determining and she is leisurely solving the problem. The apologetic female college demonstrated the privilege and benefit to young women of being associated with themselves during their advanced student life, while the inexpensive coeducational experiment revealed that nothing short of the highest and most thorough standards can satisfy the demand. The end sought is determining the scope and the means best adapted to its realization. These later years are showing in the most advanced colleges for women an improvement of health during the student life, a conserving of that indescribable, charming, maidenly reserve, together with the development of the strength and grace of womanliness, which is full of promise.

It may be confidently asserted that he who is to inherit all that is worth possessing of the past and give luster to the future, the coming man whom all await, will not be a woman; but the man of the future, like the man of the present and the man

of the past, will be largely determined by the quality of womanliness characterizing the age which environs him.

The colleges for women, though only in their formative stage, offer exceptional advantages for the culture and development of womanly women, who, when they are united to manly men in wedded oneness, shall be the complement of their husbands, the joy of their children, the inspiration of society, the crown of their age, and the honored coadjutors of everything which makes for the glory of human progress.

ADDRESS OF BOOKER T. WASHINGTON.¹

[Principal of the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, Tuskegee, Ala.]

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS AND CITIZENS: One-third of the population of the South is of the negro race. No enterprise seeking the material, civil, or moral welfare of this section can disregard this element of our population and reach the highest success. I but convey to you, Mr. President and Directors, the sentiment of the masses of my race when I say that in no way have the value and manhood of the American negro been more fittingly and generously recognized than by the managers of this magnificent Exposition at every stage of its progress. It is a recognition that will do more to cement the friendship of the two races than any occurrence since the dawn of our freedom.

Not only this, but the opportunity here afforded will awaken among us a new era of industrial progress. Ignorant and inexperienced, it is not strange that in the first years of our new life we began at the top instead of at the bottom, that a seat in Congress and the State legislature was more sought than real estate or industrial skill, that the political convention or stump speaking had more attractions than starting a dairy farm or truck garden.

A ship lost at sea for many days suddenly sighted a friendly vessel. From the mast of the unfortunate vessel was seen the signal: "Water, water; we die of thirst!" The answer from the friendly vessel at once came back: "Cast down your bucket where you are." A second time the signal, "Water, water; send us water!" ran up from the distressed vessel, and was answered: "Cast down your bucket where you are." And a third and fourth signal for water was answered: "Cast down your bucket where you are." The captain of the distressed vessel, at last heeding the injunction, cast down his bucket, and it came up full of fresh, sparkling water from the mouth of the Amazon River.

To those of my race who depend on bettering their condition in a foreign land, or who underestimate the importance of cultivating friendly relations with the Southern white man, who is their next-door neighbor, I would say, "Cast down your bucket where you are"—cast it down in making friends in every manly way of the people of all races by whom we are surrounded. Cast it down in agriculture, mechanics, in commerce, in domestic service, and in the professions. And in this connection it is well to bear in mind that whatever other sins the South may be called to bear, when it comes to business, pure and simple, it is in the South that the negro is given a man's chance in the commercial world, and in nothing is this Exposition more eloquent than in emphasizing this chance. Our greatest danger is that in the great leap from slavery to freedom we may overlook the fact that the masses of us are to live by the productions of our hands, and fail to keep in mind that we shall prosper in proportion as we learn to dignify and glorify common labor and put brains and skill into the common occupations of life; shall prosper in proportion as we learn to draw the line between the superficial and the substantial, the ornamental gewgaws of life and the useful. No race can prosper till it learns that there is as much dignity in tilling a field as in writing a poem. It is at the bottom of life we must begin and not at the top. Nor should we permit our grievances to overshadow our opportunities.

To those of the white race who look to the incoming of those of foreign birth and strange tongue and habits for the prosperity of the South, were I permitted, I would repeat what I say to my own race—"Cast down your bucket where you are." Cast it down among the 8,000,000 negroes whose habits you know, whose fidelity and love you have tested in days when to have proved treacherous meant the ruin of your firesides. Cast down your bucket among these people who have, without strikes and labor wars, tilled your fields, cleared your forests, builded your railroads and cities, and brought forth treasures from the bowels of the earth and helped make possible this magnificent representation of the progress of the South. Casting down your bucket among my people, helping and encouraging them as you are doing on these grounds, and to education of head, hand, and heart, you will find that they will buy your surplus land, make blossom the waste places in your fields, and run

¹ Delivered at the opening of the Atlanta Cotton States and International Exposition, September 18, 1885.

your factories. While doing this, you can be sure in the future, as in the past, that you and your families will be surrounded by the most patient, faithful, law-abiding, and unresentful people that the world has seen. As we have proved our loyalty to you in the past, in nursing your children, watching by the sick bed of your mothers and fathers, and often following them with tear-dimmed eyes to their graves, so in the future in our humble way we shall stand by you with a devotion that no foreigner can approach, ready to lay down our lives, if need be, in defense of yours, interlacing our industrial, commercial, civil, and religious life with yours in a way that shall make the interests of both races one. In all things that are purely social we can be as separate as the fingers, yet one as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress.

There is no defense or security for any of us except in the highest intelligence and development of all. If anywhere there are efforts tending to curtail the fullest growth of the negro, let these efforts be turned into stimulating, encouraging, and making him the most useful and intelligent citizen. Effort or means so invested will pay a thousand per cent interest. These efforts will be twice blessed—"blessing him that gives and him that takes."

There is no escape through law of man or God from the inevitable:

The laws of changeless justice bind,
Oppressor with oppressed;
And close as sin and suffering joined,
We march to fate abreast.

Nearly sixteen millions of hands will aid you in pulling the load upward, or they will pull against you the load downward. We shall constitute one-third and more of the ignorance and crime of the South, or one-third of its intelligence and progress; we shall contribute one-third to the business and industrial prosperity of the South, or we shall prove a veritable body of death, stagnating, depressing, retarding every effort to advance the body politic.

Gentlemen of the Exposition, as we present to you our humble effort at an exhibition of our progress, you must not expect overmuch. Starting thirty years ago with ownership here and there in a few quilts, and pumpkins, and chickens (gathered from miscellaneous sources), remember the path that has led from these to the inventions and production of agricultural implements, buggies, steam engines, newspapers, books, statuary, carving, paintings, the management of drug stores and banks, has not been trodden without contact with thorns and thistles. While we take pride in what we exhibit as a result of our independent efforts, we do not for a moment forget that our part in this exhibition would fall far short of your expectations but for the constant help that has come to our educational life, not only from the Southern States, but especially from Northern philanthropists, who have made their gifts a constant stream of blessing and encouragement.

The wisest among my race understand that the agitation of questions of social equality is the extremest folly, and that progress in the enjoyment of all the privileges that will come to us must be the result of severe and constant struggle rather than of artificial forcing. No race that has anything to contribute to the markets of the world is long in any degree ostracized. It is important and right that all privileges of the law be ours, but it is vastly more important that we be prepared for the exercise of these privileges. The opportunity to earn a dollar in a factory just now is worth infinitely more than the opportunity to spend a dollar in an opera house.

In conclusion, may I repeat that nothing in thirty years has given us more hope and encouragement and drawn us so near to you of the white race as this opportunity offered by the Exposition? And here bending, as it were, over the altar that represents the results of the struggles of your race and mine, both starting practically empty handed three decades ago, I pledge that in your effort to work out the great and intricate problem which God has laid at the doors of the South, you shall have at all times the patient, sympathetic help of my race; only let this be constantly in mind, that while from representations in these buildings of the product of field, of forest, of mine, of factory, letters, and art much good will come, yet far above and beyond material benefits will be that higher good that, let us pray God, will come in a blotting out of sectional differences and racial animosities and suspicions, in a determination to administer absolute justice, in a willing obedience among all classes to the mandates of the law. This, this coupled with our material prosperity, will bring into our beloved South a new heaven and a new earth.

CHAPTER XLIV.

ENGLISH METHODS OF TEACHING AMERICAN HISTORY.

It is of interest for us to know how the history of the American Revolution is taught among other English-speaking peoples, especially in Great Britain. Extracts are presented herewith from twenty-four books of English history used in the schools of the lower grades, usually from the second to the seventh standard. These histories were collected by Mr. Samuel Plimsoll, late M. P. for Derby, and well known for his philanthropic efforts in behalf of sailors. He was instrumental in securing the passage of laws (1871, 1873, 1875, and 1876) regulating the loading of vessels, and in recognition of these services, the point beyond which certain boats can not be legally loaded is known in all British ports as "Plimsoll's line."

Mr. Plimsoll has recently entered upon a serious effort to promote good feeling between the United States and England, and in pursuance of this purpose has begun an inquiry into the method and spirit of history teaching in the elementary schools of the two countries. The English school histories here considered were collected without any discrimination as to those that were favorable or unfavorable, and no effort to sift them has been made in this compilation.

The frequent repetition in almost the same words will be found to be due to the fact that extracts are sometimes made from the successive volumes of the same series.

[From *Our Kings and Queens: A reading book in history. Book IV.* London. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 1893. 16°. pp. 239. The Royal England Readers Series.]

A quarrel now began between our colonies in America and the Government at home. An attempt was made to force the Americans to pay taxes on tea and other articles carried into the country. This they refused to do. When several ships, containing taxed tea sent from England, arrived in Boston Harbor, some of the people, dressed as red Indians, went on board and threw it into the water. The Government sent out soldiers to force the Americans to pay taxes, and war began which went on for nearly eight years. The Americans raised an army to defend themselves. Their leader was George Washington. Then they declared themselves independent of Great Britain, and formed a union of thirteen States under the name of the United States of America. In 1783 the war ended and a treaty was made, in which Great Britain had to agree that the United States should be a separate country. Since then the colonists, or Americans, have governed themselves. They have no king or queen at their head. Instead of a monarch they choose one of their chief men, who is called the President, to be at the head of the Government. The first President was George Washington.

[From *the United Kingdom. James I to date. Book VI.* London. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 1892. 16°. pp. 268. The Royal England Readers Series.]

The seven years' war left North America in British hands. Now began a quarrel with our American colonies which caused most of them to separate from the mother country. The Government at home claimed the right of taxing them without their

permission. The late war had cost a great deal of money, and as much of it had been spent on behalf of the colonies, Grenville thought that they ought to help to pay it. A stamp act was passed, by means of which he hoped to raise what he wanted in America. The Americans answered that they were willing to give money of their own free will, but that they would not be forced to pay taxes which they had no share in levying, as they had no members in the British Parliament. Grenville resigned and the stamp act was repealed. Pitt, who was now Earl of Chatham, had warned the Government against the stamp act, and told them what would happen. He was strongly against taxing the colonists at all; but the ministers, who had not yet learned wisdom, placed new taxes on tea, lead, glass, and other things which were sent to America. This soon made matters much worse. Chatham left the ministry, and two years after the Duke of Grafton gave way to Lord North. It was not because the tax was large that the Americans were unwilling to pay it, for it was very small, but because they considered that the home Government had no right to tax them at all. The King was more to blame than any of his ministers. He would not give way in what he thought was his right as Sovereign of the colonies. * * * Chatham said to the Lords that it was folly to force taxes in the face of a continent in arms. Burke bade the Commons take care lest they broke that tie of kindred blood which, light as air, though strong as iron, bound the colonies to the mother land.

It was now ten years since the passing and withdrawing of the stamp act. Everything had been tried to bring about a settlement, but the foolishness of the King made all efforts vain. War began and went on for nearly eight years. The King found that he could get Lord North to do much as he wished, and so he kept him in power during the whole American war. The first fighting took place at Lexington, near Boston, between a few British soldiers and some American riflemen. The colonists, who were used to shooting deer in the forests, soon proved their skill, and they now shot down men with deadly aim. The British lost more than twice as many men as the Americans. The Americans next besieged the British under General Gage in Boston, and a battle took place on Bunker Hill near the town, where the Americans had thrown up earthworks. They were forced to retreat, but they did not lose heart. They now saw that they could hold their own when they met the best British troops on equal terms. The famous George Washington now took command of the American Army. He had done good service for the British in their struggle with the French in the seven years' war. Now he had but one thought, one desire, and that was to secure the freedom of his country. "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen" was said of him. He was in favor of union with Great Britain till he saw that it was no longer possible. * * *

For the third campaign help in men and money was sent by France to the Americans. A victory at the Brandywine River and the capture of Philadelphia, raised hopes in Britain that the Americans would be forced to yield. A great disaster changed these hopes into fears. General Burgoyne, who was marching from Canada to join Howe at New York, was surrounded at Saratoga, on the Hudson River, and forced to surrender. This was the turning point of the war in favor of the Americans. Howe was now succeeded by Sir Henry Clinton, who abandoned the city of Philadelphia, in which the British army had passed the winter. It was during this year that Chatham, while speaking in spite of age and illness against a proposal to grant independence to the colonies, fell in a fit on the floor of the House of Lords, and was carried to bed, from which he never rose. During the fifth campaign no event of importance took place. In this year [1780] Sir Henry Clinton took Charleston. Arnold, who commanded a fort on the Hudson River, deserted, and became a general in the British service. Major André, who had arranged the affair, being taken by the Americans, was hanged as a spy by the orders of Washington, although many tried to turn the American leader from his stern purpose. During the seventh campaign Lord Cornwallis was shut up in Yorktown, and forced to surrender with

7,000 men. This was the decisive blow; for although the war went on for another campaign, the American colonies were now really severed from the British Empire. By the treaty of Versailles the thirteen United States of America were declared to be free. They became a republic, and chose George Washington as their first President.

[From *The Hanoverian Period*. Book VII. T. Nelson & Sons. London. 1895. 12°. pp. 288. The Royal English History Readers Series.]

The stamp act, passed in 1765, caused a quarrel with our American colonies, which ended in their separation from the mother country. The Government at home claimed the right of taxing them without their permission. The late war had cost a large sum of money, and as much of it had been spent on behalf of the colonies, Grenville thought that they ought to help to pay the bill. A stamp act was therefore passed, by means of which he hoped to raise the amount he wanted from America. This act required that all legal documents, such as deeds, wills, notes, and receipts, should be written on paper bearing Government stamps, for which a payment was required. The Americans answered that they were willing to give money of their own free will, but that they would not be forced to pay taxes which they had no share in levying, as they sent no members to the British Parliament. Grenville resigned, and his successor, the Marquis of Rockingham, repealed the stamp act. New taxes were imposed on the American colonists in 1767. Pitt, who was now Earl of Chatham, had warned the Government against the stamp act, and told them what would happen. He was strongly against taxing the colonists at all; but the ministers, led by the Duke of Grafton, prime minister, and Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer, had not yet learned wisdom. They therefore imposed new taxes on tea, lead, glass, and other things which were sent to America. Chatham left the ministry, and two years later the Duke of Grafton gave way to Lord North. It was not because the taxes were large that the Americans refused to pay them, for they were very small, but because the colonists considered that the home Government had no right to tax them at all. The King was more to blame than any of his ministers. He would not give way in what he thought was his right as Sovereign of the colonies. The "Boston Tea Party," as it is called, brought matters to a crisis. In December, 1773, ships arrived in Boston harbor with cargoes of taxed tea, upon which a number of men dressed like Indians went on board and emptied 342 chests of tea into the water. As a punishment, the Government ordered the port of Boston to be closed. The object of this was to ruin the Boston merchants by preventing the landing of goods there. In the following year twelve men, chosen from each of twelve States (to which a thirteenth was afterwards added), met in congress at Philadelphia, and sent an address to the King, asking him to withdraw the taxes; but the King refused. Chatham (Pitt) said to the lords that it was folly to force taxes in the face of a continent in arms. Edmund Burke bade the Commons take care lest they broke that tie of kindred blood which, light as air, though strong as iron, bound the colonies to the motherland. The American war of Independence was now fought out to the bitter end. It was ten years since the passing and withdrawing of the stamp act. Everything had been tried to bring about a settlement, but the foolishness of the King had made all efforts vain. War began, and went on for nearly eight years. The King found that he could get Lord North to do much as he wished, and so he kept him in power during the whole American war. The first campaign began in 1775 at Lexington, near Boston, between a few British soldiers and some American riflemen. The colonists, who were used to shooting deer in the forests, soon proved their skill, and they now shot down men with deadly aim. The British lost more than twice as many men as the Americans. The Americans next besieged the British under General Gage in Boston, and a battle took place on Bunker Hill, near the town, where the Americans had thrown up earthworks. They were forced to retreat, but they did not lose heart. They now saw that they could hold their own when they met the best British troops on equal terms. George Washington was made commander

in chief of the American army. He had done good service for the British in Canada in their struggle with the French in the seven years' war. Now he had but one thought, one desire, and that was to secure the freedom of his country. "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," was said of him. He was in favor of union with Great Britain till he saw that it was no longer possible. * * *

The Declaration of American Independence was made in 1776. Up to this time the Americans had been fighting for their liberties as British subjects, but the war had weaned them from the mother country. On the 4th of July, the Congress of Americans met at Philadelphia and drew up the "Declaration of Independence," in which they declared themselves no longer subjects of King George. In August of the same year General Howe, reenforced by his brother, drove Washington from New York, and planted the British flag on its batteries. The third campaign opened in June, 1777. A victory at Brandywine River, and the capture of Philadelphia, raised hopes in Britain that the Americans would be forced to yield. But a great disaster changed these hopes into fears. General Burgoyne, who was marching from Canada to join Howe at New York, was surrounded at Saratoga, on the Hudson River, and forced to surrender. This was the turning point of the war in favor of the Americans. * * *

The sixth campaign, in 1780, resulted in the capture of Charleston, the capital of South Carolina, by the British. In that year Arnold, an American officer, deserted and became a general in the British service. Major André, a British officer who had arranged the affair, being taken by the Americans, was hanged as a spy by the orders of Washington, though many tried to turn the American leader from his stern purpose. During the seventh campaign, in 1781, Lord Cornwallis was shut up in Yorktown, and forced to surrender with 7,000 men. This was the decisive blow; for although the war went on for another campaign, the American colonies were now really severed from the British Empire. The treaty of Versailles was signed in 1783. In November of that year George III entered the House of Lords, and with a faltering voice read a paper in which he acknowledged the independence of the United States of America. He closed his reading with the prayer that neither Great Britain nor America might suffer from the separation. By the treaty of Versailles the thirteen United States of America were declared to be a free nation. They became a Republic and chose George Washington as their first President.

[From *Modern England, 1603 to the present*. Historical Reader No. IV. London. George Philip & Son. 16°. pp. 271. Phillips' School Series.]

The chief causes of this long and disastrous conflict are to be sought in the high notions of prerogative held by George III, his infatuated and stubborn self-will, and in the equally absurd self-conceit of his English subjects. In her colonies England then acted on what was called the colonial system. According to it they existed for the benefit of the mother country, could export their chief products only to the British Dominions, and could import nothing from Europe which had not passed through England. A great deal of smuggling went on; but there had as yet been no serious quarrel, because the Imperial Government had for the most part hitherto left the colonies to themselves. Grenville, the English prime minister, now determined not only to put down the smuggling of the American colonists, but to tax them for the benefit of the Empire—the mode proposed for raising the revenue being to require that certain documents should be on stamped paper. The colonists at once took alarm, and the colonial assemblies declared against the measure. The descendants of the old soldiers of the Parliament began to repeat the grand lesson of the long struggle of their English forefathers against the crown, and "Taxation without representation is tyranny" became the watchword of the brave patriots who were to fight in America for the selfsame rights that the Englishmen of old had wrung from the tyrant John, the haughty Edward, and the reluctant Charles I. So strong was the feeling, that riots took place at Boston and elsewhere; and the colonists

determined to do without English goods, so as to escape the hated imposition. All was in vain, for the King and people at home were deaf to their remonstrances; and in 1766, although the stamp act was repealed, the English Parliament passed a bill declaring the legislative supremacy of England over her colonies. Shortly afterwards a new scheme of taxation was introduced, by which the revenue was to be raised by port duties, not by internal excise. The feeling on both sides now became more and more bitter; and when the other duties were removed, that on tea was retained, more to mark the superiority of the English Parliament than as a matter of finance. A circumstance in itself trifling brought matters to a crisis. The East India Company had a great stock of tea in its warehouses, and it was allowed to export this to America free of English duties, so that in the colonies it could be sold at a very low rate, but the hated colonial duty had still to be paid. Three ships laden with tea arrived in Boston. A band of men dressed as Mohawk Indians boarded them and flung the chests into the sea.

When the news reached England the commercial classes were eager for a reconciliation, and Chatham wished to withdraw all the recent measures and restore things to their old condition. But the King, the governing classes, and the great body of the people maintained that the time for conciliation was past and that America must be subdued. Accordingly, measures for this purpose were carried without difficulty through Parliament.

On the other side of the Atlantic there was as yet no regular outbreak, but the people were arming everywhere. A congress assembled at Philadelphia, and to this the colonists looked as the real governing power. They still professed loyalty to the King and mother country, but refused to pay taxes imposed by imperial authority, and entered into a rigid agreement neither to consume British goods nor to export a single product of their own. At home one last effort for conciliation was made; Lord North proposed that, as long as a colonial legislature paid a reasonable sum toward imperial expenses, it should be exempted from all imperial legislation. Had this wise concession come earlier all would have been well, but it now came too late. In America the proposal was simply disregarded. Two months later General Gage sent a party to destroy a quantity of stores collected at Concord, but it was attacked and badly treated on its return. The whole population at once rose in arms, and Gage was shut up in Boston. He then fought and gained the battle of Bunker Hill; but his troops reached the height only after being twice repulsed. Congress met on May 10, agreed on various measures for resistance, and made a last effort for peace in a petition to the King which was never even considered. They then ordered an attack on Canada, which failed, and their next important step was the appointment of George Washington as commander in chief. The war was now fairly begun, though it was not till 4th of July, 1776, that the States declared their independence; and even then their action was hurried by England's employment of German mercenaries and their desire to obtain French assistance. To Washington was mainly due the success of the colonists, and he has ever since been hailed by his grateful fellow-citizens as "The Father of his Country." This noble patriot might be described as the type of an English gentleman; a man without eloquence and of great modesty; but having great administrative powers, moderation, and self-control. Further, a certain nobleness of thought and lofty elevation of character distinguished him from his fellows. His character, great in itself, seems greater when placed in contrast with the men that surrounded and the opponents that confronted him. Many of them were barely honest; nearly all were selfish and greedy; even the better class of them were commonplace. Thus George Washington stands preeminent as the one great figure of the American war of independence. The chief events of that war may be briefly told. * * *

France now joined in the war, and was soon followed by Spain and Holland; Lord North wished to resign, but the King was as firm as ever, and he was supported by

popular feeling in England. There were still many variations in the fortunes of war before the end came. The closing event of the conflict was a movement by Lord Cornwallis into Virginia. He expected to be supported from the sea, but in this he was disappointed and was forced to surrender at Yorktown with an effective force of 4,600 men. This really terminated the war as far as America was concerned, although it was not till January, 1783, that the independence of the United States was finally acknowledged.

[From English History Reading Books. Henry VII to date. By Charlotte M. Yonge. London. National Society's Depository. 16^s. pp. 252.]

The war in North America had been very expensive, and it was thought just that the colonists should help to pay for it, so they were taxed for this purpose. But the colonists contended that no place ought to be called upon to pay taxes unless it had sent a member to the House of Commons to give his consent to them. Pitt, who had been made Earl of Chatham, thought there was reason in this and tried to hinder the taxing, but he was overruled by the Earl of Bute, who had much influence with the King. The Americans were very angry. They resolved to do without the articles that were taxed, and as tea was among these a number of young men, dressed as red Indians, boarded the tea ships in Boston Harbor and threw all the tea into the sea. Soldiers were sent from England to put down the disturbances, but this only angered the colonists still more. They took up arms in 1775 and besieged the garrison in Boston. The troops tried to break their lines and fought the battle of Bunker Hill just outside the city. The Americans were beaten, but the English suffered heavily, and the siege still continued. On the 4th of July, 1776, representatives from thirteen American settlements met and drew up a Declaration of Independence, by which they cast themselves loose from the mother country and declared that England had no control over them. George Washington, a Virginia gentleman, became the American commander in chief and soon showed himself a great general, as spirited as he was patient. He did not always gain the victory in his battles, but he was never disheartened, and in the year 1777 the English General Burgoyne and 10,000 men were taken prisoners. Such a success as this made the French think it worth while to own the United States of America to be a separate power, and to send out troops to help them. This made the war much more serious, and it was thought that it must be given up, and that the King must renounce his rights to the thirteen States. Lord Chatham was old and in bad health. He would have prevented the war by making terms with the colonists; but he could not endure that England should yield her rights to revolted subjects in alliance with her old enemy, France. So, feeble as he was, he came down to the House of Lords to speak. He made one speech with great force. It was answered and he rose to reply, but at that moment he was seized with a fit. He was carried out of the House insensible and died a few days later in his seventieth year. The war went on, sometimes with victory on one side, sometimes on the other; but the Spaniards and the Dutch both joined the Americans and the French, and England stood alone. The French tried to take Jersey, but were beaten off by a brave young officer, Major Peirson, who was killed in the fight; and the Spaniards for three whole years besieged Gibraltar, which held out gallantly under General Elliot, till they were forced to give up the siege. Moreover, Admiral Rodney defeated the whole French fleet in the West Indies, and brought its commander to England as a prisoner. However, in 1781, the English army, under Lord Cornwallis, was obliged to surrender itself to the allied French and American armies, and it was decided that no more blood should be shed, but that George III should resign the colonies, thenceforth known as the United States. He said to their deputies, "I was the last man to acknowledge your independence, I will be the last man to do anything to violate it."

[From the Royal Story Book of English History. London. T. Nelson & Sons. 16^o. pp. 191. Royal School Series.]

Great was the stir in Boston when it became known that three ships laden with tea had arrived from England. The news spread quickly through the town, and the people gathered in crowds around the harbor to gaze on the hated ships. Tea was one of the things on which the English Government had laid a tax; so the people of Boston resolved that not a pound of it should be landed. At first steps were taken in order to have the tea returned to England. The merchant to whom it had been sent went to the governor of Boston and asked him to allow the ships to leave the harbor. This the governor refused to do, saying that it would be to dishonor the laws and the King. Next day the people were gathered in public meeting and were told of the governor's refusal. They were already much excited; but when they heard what the governor had said they became furious. A man in the gallery, who was dressed and painted like a red Indian, gave a loud war whoop. In an instant the people rose to their feet in a mass, and cheered and shouted and yelled. The meeting ended in uproar. The people rushed in a body to the wharf near which the tea ships were moored. Twenty men in the dress of red Indians boarded them. They were really carpenters and sailors in disguise. Armed with hammers and chisels, they broke open the tea chests and emptied them into the sea. While this work was going on, a vast crowd stood on the wharf, watching the harbor growing blacker and blacker with the scattered leaves. The people made little noise. When the last chest was emptied the Indians went on shore, and the crowd separated with a ringing cheer. The quarrel thus begun between England and her colonies in North America by and by grew into a bloody war, which lasted for seven years. In the end the colonies were separated from the mother country, and became the United States of America. It is well to bear in mind that at that time the people of England had not themselves the rights claimed by their brethren in America. Had we then had a House of Commons elected by the people, as we have now, most likely the war with America would never have taken place, and the United States would still have been part of the British Empire. For many years after the war there was ill feeling between the two countries, and quarrels frequently arose; but in our day the feeling is warm and friendly. The British Islands are looked to as the central home of the widespread Anglo-Saxon race, and even Americans own our Queen as the head of the English-speaking peoples of the world.

[Substantially the same account is given in Pictures of English History, another volume of the same series intended for pupils a little more advanced.]

[From The Advanced History of England. London. T. Nelson & Sons. 1894. 16^o. pp. 320. Royal School Series.]

Then occurred the events that led to the great American war. Grenville, desirous to meet the cost of the late war, proposed to tax certain documents used in America, such as wills and contracts; and the stamp act was therefore passed. The colonists replied that, since they had no representatives in the British Parliament, they would pay no taxes to Great Britain. At the same time they offered to vote voluntary contributions to the imperial treasury. Grenville at once resigned, and, under the brief ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham, the stamp act was repealed. The Duke of Grafton, and Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, were next called to office, with Charles Townshend as chancellor of the exchequer. Chatham soon fell into bad health, and Townshend recklessly imposed new taxes—in the shape of impost duties on tea, lead, glass, paper, and painters' colors—on the colonists, whose discontent grew hourly greater. * * *

The taxed tea was still sent to America. Some twenty daring spirits, dressed and painted like Indians, boarded the tea ships that lay in Boston Harbor, and emptied the cargoes into the sea (December). The British Government retaliated by shutting up the port of Boston and removing the custom-house to Salem. Then the

States met in Congress at Philadelphia, and sent an address to the King, in which they asked that the offensive taxes should be removed. The petition was slighted. To the eloquent warnings of such men as Lord Chatham and Edmund Burke the ministers closed their ears. After ten years of wordy strife, actual war began. It continued with varying success during eight campaigns. The first outbreak was at Lexington, between Boston and Concord, where a few American riflemen attacked a detachment of English soldiers that was marching to seize some warlike stores. More importance attaches to the attempt of the Americans to seize and fortify Bunker Hill, overlooking Boston. The attempt failed; but it proved to the colonists that it was possible for undisciplined patriots to meet on equal terms the best troops England could send against them. Thenceforth the success of the Revolution was assured. Two days before Bunker Hill Congress had unanimously appointed George Washington commander in chief. He immediately joined the army at Boston. Early in the second campaign General Howe was compelled to evacuate Boston and to sail for Halifax; and then was issued, by the Congress at Philadelphia, the famous document called "The Declaration of Independence." In August General Howe seized Long Island, drove Washington from New York, and planted the English flag on its batteries. At the opening of the third campaign the Americans obtained aid in men and money from France. A victory at the Brandywine River, and the capture of Philadelphia, raised hopes in England that the subjugation of the colonists was not far distant. But a great humiliation changed all these hopes into fears. General Burgoyne, marching from Canada, was so hemmed in by the American troops at Saratoga that he was forced to capitulate (October 16). During the winter that followed the soldiers of Washington were shoeless and starving in Valley Forge, near Philadelphia; but, inspired by the noble patience of their leader, they bore their sufferings bravely; and thenceforward America had decidedly the best of the war.

In the fourth year of the war the venerable Chatham, while thundering, in spite of age and illness, against a proposal to grant the colonies independence, fell in a fit on the floor of the House of Lords, and was carried to a bed, whence he never rose. He died in five weeks afterwards. No event of note occurred after this till the seventh campaign, when a second great disaster befell the British arms. Lord Cornwallis was, by the skillful movements of Washington, shut up in Yorktown, and compelled to surrender with 7,000 men. This was the decisive blow; for, although the war lingered through another campaign, the American colonies were now virtually severed from England. The independence of thirteen United States was after some time formally acknowledged by the treaty at Versailles; and they became a Republic, governed by an elected President, Washington being the first to hold the office.

[The accounts given in the Primary History and the Intermediate History of the same series are substantially the same.]

[From The House of Hanover, 1714-1893. London. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 16°. pp. 271. Macmillan's History Readers.]

The seven years' war had been brought to an end, as we have seen, by the Peace of Paris; but Lord Bute, the minister who was compelled to have this peace signed, soon became very unpopular, and though the King was on his side he was obliged to resign. Bute was not, in fact, at all fitted for a statesman. He had been the King's tutor in days gone by, and in consequence of this people always felt that he exercised a greater influence over George than was desirable. Such an influence might not have mattered so much had it been for good; but Bute was a weak and incapable man, and the nation did not like to see so much power falling into his hands. The next ministry, however, was no more successful than Bute's had been; for in 1763 it got intensely disliked in England on account of prosecuting a certain man named Wilkes, who had been writing articles in a newspaper which were obnoxious to the King; and then in 1765 it passed an act called the stamp act, which was

so important in the results it brought about that we must do our best to understand it. In America there were as yet only the thirteen colonies, which still formed a part of the British Empire. It was necessary to keep a certain number of soldiers there in order to protect them from the possible rising of any of the French people who lived in Canada. Although Canada had been won, and made entirely English, the inhabitants were by no means all in favor of British rule, and it was felt that the presence of a considerable army was necessary in order to prevent the development of any new danger. The question, then, was whether, as the soldiers were kept there for the advantage of the American colonies, the colonists ought not to defray some portion of the expense themselves. This was the view entertained by the Government, and the stamp act was in consequence passed, by which a certain duty was levied in stamps upon all legal documents and writings. But the act met with a considerable amount of opposition in England, Pitt, for one, declaring that the American colonists ought not to be taxed, because they were not directly represented in Parliament, and that representation and taxation went hand in hand. Pitt also drew a distinction between taxation and the levying of customs, a distinction which was refuted by Grenville, the prime minister. The opposition to the act, strong though it might be in England, was nothing as compared to the opposition in the colonies themselves. They had been informed a year before it was actually passed that it was the intention of the Government to carry it, and this interval they had spent in discussing the matter and in petitioning against it. It could not be denied that the Government were acting within their rights in passing such a bill; the question, rather, was whether it was expedient that they should do so. The stamp act was repealed in the following year (1776) by another ministry; but certain customs duties were retained and still fresh ones imposed. These duties revived the agitation in America, which had been lulled by the repeal of the act, until, in 1773, they were all done away with except the duty upon tea. During these eight years, however, the American colonists had been feeling their strength. Although legally England was quite within her right, they had seen that a strong and determined opposition made the Government waver. They were, moreover, beginning to develop a feeling of nationality—an idea, that is, that they could get along as an independent body, and could break off all ties with England. When, therefore, the duty on tea was continued they proceeded to extreme measures. Certain ships, laden with tea, arrived at Boston in December, 1773. This tea, if it were landed, would be subject to the duties to which the colonists had so great an aversion. A number of men, disguised as red Indians, boarded the vessels as they lay in Boston Harbor, and, seizing the chests of tea, threw all the contents overboard. This open act of insurrection led the Government to deprive Boston of its charter, a step which the colonists retaliated upon by raising a volunteer army throughout the colonies. Affairs had now gone so far that any retreat was impossible. The matter had passed away from the region of parliamentary discussion and become one which could only be settled by force of arms.

The throwing of the tea into Boston Harbor, and the arming and drilling of the volunteer army, showed the English Government that the American colonists were determined to proceed to extremes. Parliament therefore passed laws to put down all resistance, and sent troops over to America, thinking at first that the conflict would be a short one. The actual war began at a place called Lexington, not far from Boston, where a certain Colonel Smith had been sent to destroy a magazine, but was met by unexpected opposition. After a long skirmish, he retreated with considerable loss; but on the 17th of June the English dislodged the colonists from their position on Bunker Hill, and it looked for a time as if the Americans would suffer defeat on all sides. Two things, however, assisted them greatly—one being the extraordinary powers as a general developed by a man among them, George Washington; the other being the assistance that was sent over to them from France. England's success in India and Canada had been neither forgiven nor forgotten by

the French, and they were only too glad of an opportunity to inflict some harm upon their ancient enemy. Soon after the war began, the colonists had issued a Declaration of Independence, in which they renounced all allegiance to England and set themselves up as an independent nation. This declaration was warmly debated upon in Parliament; Lord Chatham coming down, ill though he was, to protest against it in the House of Lords. Chatham had held that it was not right to attempt to force taxes upon the American colonies; but it seemed to him far more wrong for a great nation like England to allow her own authority to be wrested from her without offering any resistance. The declaration was issued on July 4, 1776, and by it the colonies became the United States. The chief remaining events of the war may be briefly told. England conquered New York, and had some other successes in 1777; but the following year the tide of fortune turned, and one general surrendered at Saratoga, followed in 1781 by another surrender at Yorktown. It was after the American success at Saratoga that a treaty was made between America and France, which virtually changed the war into one between France and England. During the hundred years that have elapsed since they broke away from England, the United States have extended in a most marvelous and unparalleled way. Their territory now reaches across the whole of the continent of North America, a distance of some 3,000 miles; and while the Dominion of Canada forms their northern boundary, they extend as far south as the tropical district of Mexico. They possess a teeming population of some 50,000,000, composed not only of those who have been born there, but of persons from every country in Europe. Their government is republican, and their chief magistrate is a President, who is elected once in every four years. Since their formation they have been convulsed with many local and internal quarrels, the most desperate being a war which raged about thirty years ago, when a certain number of the States wished to break away from the Union, and did for a time succeed in setting up a confederation of their own. The inhabitants are fond of business, and clever at making money; wealth, perhaps, occupying too high a place in the thoughts of many. The story of the separation of the American colonies from England may well be ended with the account of the interview between George III and the first minister sent over by the United States. This minister was a Mr. John Adams, who attended the King's levee at St. James's on June 1, 1785. The secretary of state presented him to the King. "I think myself more fortunate than all my fellow-citizens," said Mr. Adams to the King, "in having the distinguished honor to stand in Your Majesty's royal presence in a diplomatic character; and I shall esteem myself the happiest of men if I can be instrumental in recommending my country more and more to Your Majesty's royal benevolence." "Sir," said George III, in answer, "I wish you to believe, and that it may be understood in America, that I have done nothing in the late contest but what I thought myself indispensably bound to do by the duty which I owed to my people. I will be very frank with you. I was the last to consent to the separation; but, the separation having been made, and having become inevitable, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent power." Mr. Adams, in writing his account of this memorable interview, adds: "The King was indeed much affected and I confess I was not less so."

[To this account is added Paul Revere's Ride.]

[From *The Story of England: A Reading Book for Schools*. By Rev. Edgar Sanderson, M. A. London. Blackie & Son. 16°. pp. 256. Blackie's Narrative Histories, for standards iv to vii.]

In 1765, trouble began with our colonies in North America. The prime minister, Mr. Grenville, had the stamp act passed, in order to raise money there on stamps which had to be bought from the government, and put on to deeds and other documents. The thirteen colonies, as they then were, containing about 2,000,000 people, spoke out strongly against this. They said they had no members to represent them in Parliament, and that, as British subjects may not be taxed without their own consent in Parliament, they ought not to pay taxes to the British Government at

home. In 1766 the stamp act was repealed, but another was passed declaring that Parliament had the right, if it chose, to tax the colonists. An act was passed in 1767, putting duties on tea, glass, paper, and other articles of use, and riots then took place in the colonies. In 1769 the Virginian house of assembly declared that the colony could be legally taxed only by its own house. Still George and his ministers would take no warning. Lord North became prime minister in 1770, and Lord Chatham in the House of Lords, and the great Irishman, Edmund Burke, in the Commons, spoke strongly in favor of the colonists. Lord North then took off all taxes except that on tea, but this he kept to show the right he claimed for the home country. In all these doings George backed his ministers with his usual dull obstinacy, which he took to be the firmness of a great ruler. In 1773, a party of men at Boston, in America, went on board some ships in the harbor and threw the cargoes of tea overboard. Another great speaker in the Commons, Charles James Fox, joined Burke and Chatham in supporting the cause of freedom; but North and the King could not be moved. Then in 1774 twelve of the thirteen colonies sent men to a meeting at Philadelphia, and they drew up a declaration of rights, which was another strong warning of what was to come. At last, in April, 1775, the war of American Independence broke out. At Lexington, near Boston, a force of colonial riflemen attacked a body of British troops and gave them a severe defeat. Col. George Washington was put at the head of the rebel forces, and, sometimes winning, sometimes losing, he gained undying fame by his cool courage, firmness, and skill throughout the war. On July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was signed by a meeting at Philadelphia of men representing all the thirteen colonies, and the great Republic called the United States began to exist. In 1777, a British force of 6,000 men, under General Burgoyne, was surrounded at Saratoga by a great American army, and forced to lay down its arms. This was the turning point of the struggle. Early the next year our Parliament gave up the right to tax the colonies and wished to make peace. But it was now too late. The French Government of Louis XVI had already made an alliance with the new State, and sent out ships and troops. At last, in 1781, another large British force, under Lord Cornwallis, was forced to surrender at Yorktown, in Virginia, and by the peace of Paris, in 1783, England recognized the United States of America as an independent power.

[From the Third Historical Reader. Standard VI and VII. 1693 to date. London and Edinburgh. William Blackwood & Sons. [circa 1883.] 16^o. pp. 256. Blackwood's Educational Series.]

George III and his ministers claimed the right to impose taxes upon the American colonies, and they accordingly induced the House of Commons to pass the stamp act. This was an act to compel all Americans to put English stamps on all their law papers—such as wills, contracts, and other deeds. But the Americans said: "If we are not represented, we will not be taxed! No taxation without representation!" * * * The King and his ministers were obstinate; and, in spite of the warnings of Pitt, Fox, and Burke, passed the stamp act, and also imposed taxes upon tea and other minor articles of commerce. At length Parliament was induced to yield; and it removed all taxes upon the American colonies, except a very small tax upon tea. This tax was retained as a "matter of principle" and to please the King, who still held fast to his right of taxing his own colonies. The colonists, however, were strong, because they were united; they emptied the cargo of one of the ships sent out with tea into Boston Harbor. And, after this act of defiance, war broke out between them and the mother country. On the news that a British force had been dispatched to America, the colonists ran to arms; from all parts of the country thousands of volunteers came in, who, from their readiness to take the field at the shortest notice, were called "Minute men;" and a long and determined struggle began. The famous battle of Bunker Hill was fought; but the battle was not of much consequence, and neither party gained or lost by it. Our generals were not very able; while the colonists selected as their commander in chief George Washington,

"a man, first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow countrymen." This unhappy war lasted seven years. On the famous 4th of July, 1776, the colonists drew up a Declaration of Independence, in which they declared themselves free from Great Britain, and assumed the title of the United States of America. There were at that time 13 States with a population of less than 3,000,000; there are now 38 States, with an active, enterprising, and ever-growing population of more than 50,000,000. The French joined the American colonists, assisted them with men and money; and from that time our efforts to subdue the young States became almost hopeless. In 1781, Lord Cornwallis, the commander in the British army, was obliged to surrender to the Americans at Yorktown, in Virginia; and the year after, we formally recognized the independence of the United States of America.

[From Simple Stories Relating to English History. Book 2. Henry VII to the present time. London. George Gill & Sons. 1891. 12°. pp. 128. The "Regina" Historical Readers.]

But though he [George III] was a good man, he was not a very wise one. Before he died he quite lost his reason, and became blind as well. At the time he ruled, Britain became the leading nation in the world. All the north of America, of which Canada was a part, was under British rule. France wished to have some of it, and England spent large sums in trying to keep it. The English statesmen thought that the people of America ought to help to pay the cost of the war. They would not do this, and a tax was put on the tea which was sent out in ships. When the ships came into Boston Harbor, some young men, dressed as red Indians, went on board and, threw the tea into the sea. Soldiers were then sent to America to force the people to pay the tax; and a war, which lasted for eight years, began in real earnest. At first the English won, but a great man took charge of the American Army. His name was George Washington, and he made his soldiers as brave and clever as Cromwell did those of England in the time of King Charles. He beat the British in many fights, and the end of it was that in the year 1776 England lost America, which ever since has been called the United States. Still, we must not forget that most of the people in these States are of English flesh and blood. They speak the English tongue, and have grown to be very rich and powerful.

[From Outlines of the History of England. Part II. James I to the present time. Standard VI. By George Girling. London. Blackie & Son. 16°. pp. 242-454. Blackie's Comprehensive School Series, Historical Reader, No. IV.]

The American war of Independence, 1775-1783.—In order to meet the expenses of the late war (seven years' war), which had been mainly incurred by England in defense of her colonies, it was determined to impose taxes upon the American States, and in 1765 the prime minister, Grenville, imposed a stamp duty. This was badly received by the colonists, who urged "that as they had no share in the representation of the British Parliament the latter had no right to tax them." In 1766 the stamp act was repealed and Grenville resigned. He was succeeded by the Duke of Grafton, while Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, had a seat in the cabinet. In spite of the protests of Pitt other taxes were imposed on tea, glass, paper, and painters' colors. These taxes led to great riots in America, and the discontent was universal. In 1768 Chatham retired from office, and in 1770 Lord North became prime minister. The obnoxious taxes had been previously repealed except that on tea, and it was determined as a matter of right to impose a duty of threepence a pound on all tea imported into America. In 1773 a party of Americans disguised as Mohawk Indians boarded some tea ships in Boston Harbor and threw the cargoes overboard. The Home Government took severe measures to punish this outrage, and thus widened the breach which was rapidly growing up between the colonies and England. In 1774 a congress of the States was called at Philadelphia, and a declaration of rights was drawn up demanding that the taxes should be abolished. The Home Government treated this petition with indifference, and an appeal to arms became imminent. Hostilities commenced in 1775 at Lexington through an attempt of General Gage to

seize some military stores collected by the colonists. George Washington was then appointed commander in chief by the colonists. A second engagement took place in the same year at Bunker Hill, near Boston, ending in the retreat of the Americans. In 1776, on July 4, the colonists issued a formal Declaration of Independence under the name of the United States of America. In 1777 Washington was defeated at Brandywine and Philadelphia was captured, but these reverses were counterbalanced by the complete capture of an English force under General Burgoyne at Saratoga. From this period the success of the colonists was assured. In 1778 France, deeming the time favorable for a war with England, acknowledged the independence of the States. It was now proposed in the Parliament that England should acknowledge the independence of the colonies; to oppose this measure Chatham, who was exceedingly ill, came down to the House of Lords, and while speaking fell upon the floor of the House, and a month later the great statesman was dead. In 1779 the Spaniards, deeming the opportunity favorable, attempted in vain to recover Gibraltar, which was gallantly held by General Elliott. The war in America languished till 1781, when the English commander, Lord Cornwallis, was compelled to surrender with all his troops to General Washington. This secured the independence of the States. In 1783 the war ended with the treaty of Versailles, which formally acknowledged the independence of the 13 States of America, which became a republic with George Washington as its first President.

[The account given in Number II of this series is substantially the same as the above.]

[From *The Hanoverian Period*. Book VII. London. W. & R. Chambers, 1894. 12°. pp. 208. Chambers's New Historical Readers.]

During the last ten years of Chatham's life the most important question was the quarrel with our American colonies. In the early years of the dispute the aged statesman's voice was often heard in the House of Lords pleading for a fair and peaceful arrangement with the colonists. But in spite of his efforts we gradually "drifted into war" with them. As campaign after campaign passed over, and the Americans showed no signs of yielding, a party grew up which held that we should take no further interest in our colonies, and in the session of 1778 a proposal to this effect was made. This was the occasion of Chatham's last appearance in the House of Lords. He was suffering from illness and had to be assisted to his place by his friends. Touching it must have been to see the great statesman, old and worn with disease, rise to address his brother peers. His concluding words were that he "rejoiced he was still alive to lift up his voice against the dismemberment of this ancient and most noble monarchy." Shortly after uttering these words he fell in a fit on the floor of the House. He was conveyed to his residence at Hayes, but the hand of death was upon him and he expired a few weeks afterwards.

The colonies which, since the beginning of the seventeenth century, had been planted in North America by the British had gradually taken root and grown into flourishing States. Their people were distinguished for their sturdy, enterprising character and their love of freedom. But even in their new home, and with the broad Atlantic rolling between, the colonists still retained feelings of good will and affection for the mother country. It was in the year 1765, when George Grenville was prime minister, that the unhappy measures began which were to end in the revolt of our American colonies. For the purpose of making the colonists contribute to the revenue of England a stamp act was imposed upon them by our Parliament. The Americans opposed this measure, holding that as they did not send representatives to the British Parliament, that body had no right to tax them, and asserting that "taxation without representation was tyranny." The best British statesmen took the same view, and the act was repealed. Unfortunately, the British Parliament some time afterwards made a new attempt to enforce a tax upon tea. The colonists were now thoroughly roused, and rather than submit to be taxed declared

that they would do without tea altogether. Several British merchant vessels, which had entered the harbor of Boston with cargoes of tea, were boarded by parties of men disguised as red Indians and the tea chests were thrown into the sea. Notwithstanding the hostile spirit thus shown, prudent and reasonable measures on the part of the British might still have averted a contest. But the helm of the state was in the hands of Lord North, a man whose chief claim to office was his ready obedience to the King. From the beginning George was most resolute in his determination to crush the colonists. His personal power was now firmly established, and in Lord North he found a willing servant, who for twelve years seconded his efforts to destroy American freedom. The first blood shed in this unhappy conflict was in a skirmish at Lexington, near Boston. Our soldiers attempted to seize some military stores which the Americans had collected at the town of Concord. They succeeded in their aim, but on the march back they received severe loss from the colonists. This affair was followed shortly afterwards by the bloody battle of Bunker Hill, in which the British, though victorious, suffered greatly (1775). Indeed, throughout the war, which lasted during eight campaigns, the colonists in every action proved themselves to be sturdy foes, whom every defeat seemed only to brace up to a firmer resistance. The commander in chief of the Americans was the great George Washington, who possessed all the high qualities needed for carrying to a successful close the struggle upon which they had entered. In their civil affairs they were assisted by Benjamin Franklin, who afterwards became their ambassador at the Court of France. Before much progress had been made in warlike operations the Americans issued their famous Declaration of Independence, which declared the colonies to be free and independent States (1776). For a time the American arms were not successful. An invasion of Canada, which had not joined the other colonies in their revolt, was repulsed, and Washington was defeated in several battles near New York. The tide of success at length began to turn in their favor. A British force under General Burgoyne attempted to make its way from Canada into the heart of the States. It had some successes at first, but as it marched farther and farther into the enemy's country it was gradually hemmed in and compelled to surrender, with all its stores, at Saratoga. As the war went on, all the efforts of our generals failed to win any real success against the skill and perseverance of Washington. In their struggle for freedom the Americans were assisted by many Frenchmen of rank, the chief of whom was the Marquis de Lafayette. These men afterwards carried the new ideas of liberty to France, and thus hastened the revolution in that country. In the year 1778 both France and Spain recognized the independence of the United States, and war was declared against England. There was now a growing feeling in this country that it would be better to close the war and grant the Americans all their demands. But the conflict lingered on until Lord Cornwallis was shut up in Yorktown with an army of 6,000 men, and compelled to surrender to a combined American and French force. This was really the closing event of the war, although peace was not concluded till some time after by the treaty of Versailles in 1783.

[From the Newberry Historical Readers, No. 7. London. Griffith, Farran & Co. [1892]. 16°. pp. 191. The Hanoverian Period.]

The wars waged under the influence of Pitt, however glorious, had cost a great deal of money, and there was some difficulty in meeting the expense. One of the means suggested was to raise some revenue from the British colonies in North America, at that time called the Plantations. The idea then prevalent was that colonies existed solely for the benefit of the mother country, and arrangements were made which seemed likely to give us as much money as possible from them. The stamp act, proposed by George Grenville, passed without difficulty, but was resisted by the Americans, on the ground that stamps were a matter of inland revenue. Grenville had unfortunately said in the debate that this measure was only an experiment toward future taxation. On the arrival of the act in America, riots took

place at Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, and the act was publicly burned, and the houses of Government officials attacked. A solemn protest was presented to the English Government against the legislature, and the trade between England and America was interrupted. The question of repealing the stamp act was necessarily brought before the House of Commons. Before this Mr. Grenville's ministry had come to an end, and he had been succeeded by Lord Rockingham. The most distinguished member of this ministry was the great orator and writer, Edmund Burke, who, although he only held a subordinate place, still had great influence with the prime minister. Pitt came up from Bath, where he was taking the water, to attend this debate. He said that England had no right to tax America, and he rejoiced that the colonies had resisted; had they not done so, they would have been fit instruments to enslave the rest. Grenville maintained the absolute right of England to tax the colonies, and he was supported by the King, who contrived, by means of his private friends, to exercise great influence in Parliament. The repeal of the stamp act was carried after much discussion, and accompanied by another act, which declared that the British Parliament had supreme authority over the British Empire in all cases.

The quarrel between England and America was for a time appeased, but it broke out at a later period in a worse form. Lord Rockingham was dismissed from office, which he had held for just a year, and a new ministry was appointed, of which Pitt, now created Earl of Chatham, was the real head, although the Duke of Grafton held the nominal post of prime minister. Chatham, almost immediately after his appointment, was seized with a mysterious illness which entirely incapacitated him from work. Charles Townshend, who was chancellor of the exchequer, took the rash course of imposing a tax in the colonies on glass, paper, paint, and tea. The relations between America and the mother country had never become completely smooth, and it was thought advisable to take precautions against a riot. Ships of war, arriving from Halifax, cast anchor in the port of Boston, and 700 troops, under the command of General Gage, marched into the town with loaded muskets and fixed bayonets.

In 1770 the Duke of Grafton resigned his post as prime minister and was succeeded by Lord North, who was an intimate friend and favorite of the King. Soon after his accession to power the American import duties were repealed, excepting the tax on tea. This produced important results. In 1773 the English East Indian Company sent a quantity of tea to America, which they were permitted to do on favorable terms. Although this would be subject to the new tax, yet the Americans would obtain it at a cheaper rate than they had been accustomed to pay. Notwithstanding this, they received the ships with carefully prepared hostility. A number of men disguised as Mohawk Indians boarded the vessels on their arrival in the harbor, broke the tea chests open, and threw the tea into the sea. The English Government, on hearing of these disorders, took stern measures of reprisal. The port of Boston was shut up, and the customs transferred to Salem, and the charter of Massachusetts was recalled. General Gage, the commander of the garrison, was appointed governor of the town of Boston. These measures, so unwise and imprudent, were opposed by Chatham, Burke, and Charles Fox, but were imposed upon the country by the united efforts of the King and Lord North. The colonies felt the revocation of the charter of Massachusetts as a great attack upon their liberties. A general congress of all the colonies was summoned to meet at Philadelphia. They adopted two measures—a declaration of rights, in which they claimed the liberties of Englishmen, the right to representative institutions, free discussion, and trial by jury; and they drew up addresses to the people of Great Britain and Canada and a petition to the King.

Lord Chatham, seeing the danger which was approaching, used all his efforts for conciliation. He urged the removal of the royal troops from Boston, which was in a state of ferment. In conjunction with Benjamin Franklin, who was much trusted

by the Americans, he drew up a bill which, while it declared the dependence of the colonies on the British Crown and their subordination to Parliament, proposed that no tax should be levied from any body of British freemen without the consent of its own representative assembly. This scheme, which might have prevented the conflict, was rejected in a manner which only served to embitter it. Burke also proposed some resolutions to the House of Commons, which followed much the same lines as those of Lord Chatham; and Lord North was willing to declare that Parliament should not tax America so long as she made provision for the common defense and the cost of government. This proposal was adopted by the House, but it was not likely to be accepted by the colonies. In the meantime the war had begun. * * * In a second congress, held at Philadelphia in 1775, George Washington had been appointed commander in chief. His name has always remained as an example of disinterested patriotism and noble self-denial. * * *

The struggle between the two countries now began to attract the attention of Europe, and many French officers attached themselves to the American cause, the most notable of whom was the Marquis Lafayette. Washington and Howe contended for the possession of Philadelphia. Howe embarked a large force at New York, sailed up Chesapeake Bay, and disembarked his men 70 miles from the city. Washington intercepted him at the river Brandywine, but was defeated with heavy loss, and the English were able to attain the object of their march. This success was more than compensated for by the surrender of General Burgoyne at Saratoga. As he was marching south from Canada, through a difficult country, he was surrounded, by the skill of the American commander, and compelled to surrender. Three thousand five hundred British troops laid down their arms. The convention of Saratoga really decided the fate of the war. France openly joined the American cause, and was shortly afterwards followed by Spain. The opposition to the war in Parliament continued till, in October, 1781, the entire British army, under Lord Cornwallis, amounting to 7,000 men, surrendered themselves prisoners of war, with all their arms, artillery, and stores. Resistance after this was useless. Lord North resigned, and peace was made.

[From Arnold's History Readers. By M. T. Yates, LL. D., Book VII. The House of Hanover. London. Edward Arnold. 12°. pp. 254. Arnold's school series.]

Now let us turn to North America, which was regarded as a province of Great Britain. The New World had been settled by different nations—one part by the British, another by the French, another by the Dutch, another by Swedes, and so on, but in 1765 Great Britain owned almost the whole of it, and the English language was spoken and English law obeyed from Maine to Florida. The river St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes formed a boundary between Canada and the thirteen American colonies, which had from time to time been formed on the Atlantic Coast. The colonists called themselves English and were very proud of this name, for then, as now, England was one of the greatest countries in the world. This extensive region might still have been a part of the British Empire if George III had not been so determined to have his own way, and to insist on being, as his mother had taught him, "King." Each of the thirteen colonies had a legislative body, divided into two houses—a lower house or assembly elected by the people, and an upper house or council appointed by the King or other authority. These two bodies answered to our House of Commons and our House of Lords. The governors of the colonies were appointed by the British Government. All laws regulating the trade between the colonies and other countries were made by the British Parliament. The colonists were obliged to send nearly all their leading products to England for sale. They were not allowed to buy any European goods except in England, and no foreign ships were allowed to enter an American port. Custom-houses were established at all the principal ports of the colonies, and the duties were collected for the King. Duties were levied on foreign goods to exclude them from the colonies, and

compel the Americans to buy English goods. Much smuggling took place both in importing and exporting goods. In their attempts to evade restrictive laws the people learned to disregard the laws of the mother country, and unwise acts of Parliament prepared the minds of the colonists for resistance to British authority. We must remember that many of the colonists had been driven to America by acts of tyranny, and had carried with them the English love of liberty. They were, therefore, always ready to assert their right to "the liberties of Englishmen." Then, too, the hardy, independent life of pioneer settlers tended to cherish the passion for freedom. The governors appointed by the home Government made continued efforts to encroach on the freedom of the people, and as they were the direct representatives of the Sovereign, their action fostered a feeling of antagonism, which at length broke out in open rebellion. The navigation laws were exceedingly unpopular, and were enforced by custom-house officers, who did not scruple to resort to the most objectionable means. The collectors of customs in Boston, in 1761, even asked for "the right to search any house, at any time, for the purpose of finding smuggled goods." This act only served to make the customs more unpopular and increase the anger of the people against them. In 1765 the British Government needed money to pay for the war which had just ended, and to support the army which was required to defend the colonies from foreign foes. It was therefore decided to tax the American colonies by means of a stamp act. This new law required that all legal documents, such as wills, deeds, notes, receipts, and even newspapers, should be written or printed on paper bearing a Government stamp. The stamped paper was sold at high prices by Government officers. The colonists strongly objected to this tax. They saw that if the British Parliament could enforce such an act, they could tax America in any other way they thought proper. At once they raised the cry, "No taxation without representation." This meant that, as the colonists sent no members or representatives to the British Parliament, that body had no right to tax them. They therefore refused to use the stamped paper, and in their excitement they attacked the officers whose duty it was to distribute it. The authority of the King and Parliament was defied, and American merchants pledged themselves not to import any English goods until the stamp act was repealed. Pitt urged the immediate repeal of the act. He had warned the Government against passing it, and when the colonists would have none of it, he said, "I rejoice that America has resisted." English merchants also joined in the cry for its repeal, for while it remained in force trade with America was at a standstill. It was therefore repealed in 1766. Pitt, who had been so successful both in America and India against the French, and had resigned office in 1761, became prime minister in 1766, and was created Earl of Chatham. Shortly afterwards, however, his health broke down, and he resigned in 1768. Though he did not again hold office he continued to interest himself in public affairs.

As the stamp act had proved a failure the British Government tried another plan for getting money from the colonies. Determined to assert its right to tax the colonies, Parliament passed an act which imposed duties on glass, paper, tea, and other articles. The money obtained in this way was intended to pay the governors and the judges in the colonies, the object being to make these officers independent of the people. These new duties aroused the indignation of the Americans, who declared that it was an attempt on the part of Parliament to govern America from England. They therefore formed leagues against the use of taxed articles, and attacked the officers appointed to collect the money. They also encouraged smugglers to secretly land cargoes of the prohibited articles. There seemed to be only two ways of treating the Americans open to Parliament. Either the colonists must be allowed to govern themselves and levy their own taxes, or they must be compelled by military force to obey the Home Government. Soldiers were employed to assist in the collection of the taxes, and a collision between the troops and the inhabitants of Boston ensued. Yielding in part to the storm which had been aroused, Parliament repealed all the

duties except that of 3 pence a pound on tea, but at the same time declared that this tax was retained simply to assert the right of Parliament to tax the colonies. The Americans were just as determined to assert their right to pay no taxes except those they had a voice in levying. In 1773 a number of ships arrived in America containing a large quantity of tea. At Boston a company of men disguised as Indians boarded the ships and emptied the chests of tea into the sea. This is known as "The Boston Tea Party." In New York the tea was destroyed in the same manner. At other ports the ships were sent home again, and in one instance burned in the harbor. * * *

The Congress met in 1774 and agreed that all trade with Great Britain should cease until Parliament redressed the grievances of the colonies. They also sent a petition to the King and Parliament, in which they stated their side of the question. So far the idea of separating themselves from the mother country does not seem to have taken form. Yet the determined spirit in which the opposition was conducted shows that the majority of the people had made up their minds to resist to the utmost the encroachments on their liberty, whatever the consequences might be. They prepared to meet force with force by organizing the militia and collecting military stores. The men who were enrolled were called "Minute men," because they declared themselves ready to take up arms at a minute's notice if required. Up to this point both the Americans and Parliament had believed that a compromise would be effected and peace maintained. If the counsel of some of the wisest statesmen in England had been followed there is no doubt that this desirable result would have been attained. But the King would not hear of making any concession. He regarded the colonists as rebels who must be forced into obedience. In 1775 General Gage, who had been appointed governor of Massachusetts after the Boston Tea Party, received information that a quantity of military stores had been collected at Concord, a town about 18 miles from Boston. He determined to make a sudden raid on the place and destroy the stores. The Americans heard of the intended expedition and prepared to defend their property at all hazards. The British troops were at Charlestown, and a special watch was kept to give warning of their departure. Paul Revere was chosen to ride through the country and alarm the inhabitants. When he received the signal that a movement was taking place, he mounted his horse and rode through the night toward Concord, rousing the people with the stirring cry, "The regulars are coming!" * * *

After the fighting at Lexington and Bunker Hill an attempt was made to bring about a reconciliation, but the colonists refused the offers made by the British Parliament, and the terms of the American Congress were not acceptable in England. While offering terms of peace an army was being raised by Congress, and as soon as it was ready George Washington was appointed commander in chief. Col. George Washington, of Virginia, was an able soldier, who had gained distinction for zeal, courage, and prudence in the French and Indian wars. While a British subject he had bravely defended the British colonies against foreign enemies. Now he was as zealous in defending what he thought to be the rights of his country against encroachment by Great Britain. Washington was noted for his patriotic spirit, his infinite patience, and his absolute unselfishness. When he accepted the post of commander in chief he refused to receive any salary in payment for his services. There can be no doubt that the high character and sterling qualities of such a leader inspired the men under his command, and helped in no small degree to bring the struggle to a successful issue. He at once began to train his army that it might be prepared to meet the British forces on equal terms. In 1776 he besieged the British in Boston and forced them to give up the town and retire to Halifax, in Nova Scotia. He then made his way to New York, that he might be ready for an attack on that city. The struggle which had ended in war had continued for so long a time that the colonists were now quite ready for separation, and on the 4th of July, 1776, the American Congress met at Philadelphia and adopted the Declaration of Independence. This act was a formal separation of the colonies from Great Britain. The

United States, as they now called themselves, were declared to be an independent country, and no longer subject to the British Crown. The Declaration of Independence was received by the colonists with demonstrations of joy, but the leaders were filled with anxiety, for they knew that Great Britain would not give up such wide dominions without straining the might of the Empire to retain them. British troops were being landed in the country, and a large body of German soldiers was hired to assist in putting down the rebellion. The battle of Long Island, fought in 1776, ended in the defeat of the Americans, and they were compelled to leave New York in the hands of the British. Fort Washington was captured, and the Americans were obliged to retreat into Pennsylvania with the British following close on their heels. At this time Washington's army was suffering much from sickness and want of stores. The war continued with varying success for several years, until, with the aid of the French, the Americans defeated Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown in 1781. This surrender took away the last hope of subduing America, and terms of peace were agreed on at Paris in 1782, and a treaty was signed in the following year. The treaty of Versailles recognized the independence of the United States. Washington now felt that his work was done. He therefore resigned the command of the army, and bidding farewell to his troops, returned to private life. His patience, wisdom, coolness, and unselfish patriotism were recognized by his country when he was declared to be "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." When the war was over the thirteen States, which before that time had been independent of one another, adopted a form of government which made them into a nation. They still retained their State governments. The only difference between the new plan and the old was that they were no longer subject to the King. The next step was to form a central government, and George Washington was chosen as the first President of the United States.

On a foggy November morning in 1783 George III entered the House of Lords and with a faltering voice read a paper in which he acknowledged the independence of the United States of America. He closed his reading with the prayer that neither Great Britain nor America might suffer from the separation; and he expressed the hope that religion, language, interest, and affection might prove an effectual bond of union between the two countries. It has been well said that "time has long ago healed the wound caused by the original quarrel of the mother country and the daughter colonies; and if there have sometimes been misunderstandings and suspicions engendered between England and the great Republic, by unwise utterances or by unjust dealings of individuals, or of sections on both sides, the sound sense the cordial feeling, the spirit of kinship, and the community of speech, of interests and of sympathies entertained by the great mass of both peoples have prevented threatened collision and strife. For England and America to go to war would be a calamity to the entire race. It would put back the hand of progress and would arrest the course of civilization, commerce, philanthropy, and religion throughout the world."

[The Standard Author History of England (London. George Gill & Sons. 12^o. pp. 407), being one of Gill's School Series, is made up of extracts from various authors arranged in the form of a continuous narrative. The section devoted to the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown is copied from Bancroft's American Revolution.]

[From the Senior Standard History Readers. Book III. 1660-1871. By Rev. David Morris. London. Longmans, Green & Co. 1883. 16^o. pp. 317-531.]

The seven years' war had been chiefly carried on by England for the protection of the American colonies and had left a heavy burden of debt upon the country. The settlements in North America then consisted of thirteen States, having a population of 2,000,000 whites and 500,000 colored people. Grenville, the English prime minister, proposed to increase the revenue by imposing the stamp act upon the American colonists, by which he expected to receive £10,000 annually. This measure created the greatest opposition in America. The colonists adopted the principle of "no

taxation without representation," and as they were not represented in the British Parliament, they denied the right of the home Government to tax them. A change of ministry brought about a repeal of the obnoxious stamp act in the following year. This administration soon gave way to one under the leadership of Pitt, who was raised to the peerage with the title of Earl of Chatham. The new ministry, in 1767, passed a bill for levying in America import duties upon glass, paper, painters' colors, and tea. The colonists opposed these with the same determination as before and resolved not to pay. In 1770 Lord North became prime minister and repealed all the offensive duties except that on tea, but these concessions did not allay the spirit of opposition in America. Rather than pay the tax of 3 pence per pound upon tea the colonists abstained altogether from the use of the beverage, except when they could get a supply from the numerous smugglers, who drove a good trade on the coast during this wordy strife. In 1773 three ships laden with tea, having entered the port of Boston, were boarded by 20 daring men disguised as Mohawk Indians. They knocked out the heads of 343 chests of tea and flung into the sea their contents, valued at £18,000. The home Government, enraged at this outrage, proceeded to punish the people of Boston by passing a bill to remove the custom-house of the port to the more loyal town of Salem (1774). This measure was followed by the Massachusetts government bill, dissolving the house of assembly in that State and enacting that its members should henceforth be appointed by the Crown. These acts of vengeance were strongly opposed by the Earl of Chatham and Charles James Fox. At the same time Benjamin Franklin, residing in London as the agent of the Massachusetts house of assembly, did his best to effect a reconciliation and avert the dreadful contest which seemed imminent. While troops were pouring into Boston to enforce the laws, all the States except Georgia met in a general Congress at Philadelphia, from which they issued the celebrated declaration of rights, claiming their privileges as British subjects and resolved not to hold any commercial intercourse with the mother country until their grievances were redressed. An address, forwarded to the King from the Congress and supported by the eloquence of Chatham, Burke, and Fox, received no consideration. Neither the Government nor the colonies were disposed to give way, and nothing remained but an appeal to arms. The first outbreak of hostilities was occasioned by an attack of the British troops under General Gage upon the town of Concord, where the defiant colonists were holding a house of assembly and concentrating military stores and raising militia. * * *

A month afterwards a second Congress assembled at Philadelphia and appointed as their commander in chief George Washington, a Virginia gentleman, then about 43 years of age. Meanwhile Gage had allowed himself to be shut up in Boston by 20,000 raw colonial troops, who intrenched themselves on Breed's Hill, an eminence commanding the town. General Howe, arriving from England with reinforcements, took the chief command and proceeded to assault the Americans behind their intrenchments. The battle, called Bunker Hill, from a neighboring height, ended in the defeat of the colonists, but the victory cost the British 1,000 men and taught them to respect the valor of their opponents. About the same time the Americans, under Montgomery and Arnold, invaded Canada, in the hope of persuading its people to join them. Montreal fell into their hands, but an attack upon Quebec failed; Montgomery was slain in the assault, and the invaders, after continuing the siege through the winter, were driven out of the province. Meanwhile in the summer of 1775 Congress made one last effort to conciliate the home Government by sending a petition known as "the Olive Branch." To this appeal the only answer given was a large increase of land and sea forces and a declaration in Parliament to take resolute measures against the conspirators and insurgents in America.

Early in the following year the British troops, compelled to evacuate Boston, sailed to Halifax, and thus enabled Washington to take New York. Then the Congress at Philadelphia, consisting of delegates from all the thirteen States, issued their famous Declaration of Independence. In August Howe left Halifax and effected

a landing on Long Island, where he was joined by the fleet of his brother, Admiral Lord Howe. The united forces defeated Washington at Brooklyn with great loss and recaptured New York. Matters were going on badly with the Americans, when their leader revived their sinking courage by a sudden attack upon the garrison of Trenton and capturing nearly 1,000 Hessian troops. This affair closed the campaign.

The year 1777 opened with another surprise of the Americans upon the garrison of Princeton; but Washington's success was cut short by a defeat at Brandywine, which enabled the British to occupy Philadelphia. This victory raised hopes in England that the subjection of the colonies was not far distant, but a serious disaster befell the English arms, and changed hopes to fears. General Burgoyne, marching from Canada with 10,000 men to cooperate with a force from New York, was so beset in the woods by the Americans that he could not get farther than Albany. Disappointed in not meeting with the expedition from New York, and harassed by the enemy, he retreated to Saratoga, where he was soon surrounded. For five days the gallant General resisted the pangs of hunger and the overwhelming masses of his foes, in the hope that relief would come. At length he was compelled to surrender, with all his brass cannon, muskets, and stores. His force, numbering then about 6,000 men, received a free passage to England, on condition of never again bearing arms against the colonists.

The surrender of Burgoyne led France to join the Americans. From the beginning of the conflict the French sent men, money, and munitions of war to the insurgent States, and among the volunteers the name of the young and brave Marquis de Lafayette was the most distinguished. The entrance of France into the quarrel filled the British ministry with anxiety. Lord North saw that Chatham was the only man able to guide the country through the perils which threatened it, and he strongly urged the King to place the veteran statesman at the head of the Government; but George disliked the Earl for his independence, and turned a deaf ear to the advice of his minister. In Parliament many members, alarmed at the serious turn of affairs, implored the Government to acknowledge the independence of the colonies rather than engage in a war with France. To oppose a motion in favor of such a peace, the venerable Chatham left a sick bed to appear in Parliament. Though old, frail, and sick, he spoke with all his wonted fire and eloquence against the dismemberment of the Empire; and when he arose again to renew his attack upon the proposal, he fell in a fit upon the floor of the House of Lords. A month later the veteran statesman and foremost Englishman of the day expired, in his seventieth year. Meanwhile, Lord North had repealed the duty on tea, and had sent commissioners to America to treat with the colonists, but the concession came too late—independence only would satisfy them now. The campaign this year was not distinguished by any great operations. Howe was succeeded in the chief command by Sir Henry Clinton, who evacuated Philadelphia to fall back upon New York. In the latter part of the year, troops sent to Georgia quickly reduced that province. Nearer home, an engagement took place between the English and French fleets off Ushant, but from some misunderstanding between the English commanders, the battle was indecisive, and caused a great outcry in the country.

Our difficulties were increased in the next year by the entrance of Spain into the quarrel. Her part in the war chiefly consisted of an unsuccessful attempt to recover Gibraltar, which, under the able defense of General Elliot, endured a siege of three years (1779-1782). In America there were marches, skirmishes, sieges, and burnings; but no event of importance occurred. The sixth campaign was marked in America by the capture of Charleston by Clinton, and the desertion of the American general, Arnold, who betrayed to the British the fortress of West Point on the river Hudson. Major André, an English officer, who arranged the affair, was seized by some American militiamen and hanged as a spy. In Europe many troubles threatened England. At home, the Gordon riots distracted the Government, and abroad the northern powers took up a menacing attitude. Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland

endeavored to make a profitable trade between the belligerents, and formed an armed neutrality to maintain by force of arms, if necessary, the principle that "free ships make free goods." Toward the close of the year Holland became so hostile that England declared war against her. The following year witnessed a disaster to our arms in America, which virtually terminated the war. Lord Cornwallis, who had almost reduced the Carolinas, was compelled to withdraw his forces to Yorktown, in Virginia. While waiting there for reinforcements from New York, a French fleet entered the Chesapeake, and Cornwallis, finding himself surrounded and in danger of starvation, surrendered his force of 7,000 men to Washington and Lafayette. This misfortune to the British arms decided the war; and, though the Government continued the struggle for another year, scarcely any military operations took place in America. On sea, indeed, the English fleets maintained their supremacy. * * *

Toward the close of the year, negotiations for peace were entered upon with the Americans, and in the following January the treaty of Versailles was concluded by the contending countries, excepting Holland, which made its own terms a few months later. By this treaty England acknowledged the independence of the United States, with the right of fishing on the coast of Newfoundland. To France we restored St. Lucia and Tobago, in the West Indies, and Chandanagore and Pondicherry in the East, and received in return Dominica, Grenada, and four other islands; at the same time, we were to give up our claim for the dismantling of Dunkirk. To Spain we ceded Minorca and the Floridas, and in return, our right to cut logwood in Honduras was guaranteed. To Holland we returned all our conquests excepting Negapatam. The expense of this war added £100,000,000 to the national debt.

[From England during the American and European Wars, 1765-1820. By O. W. Tancock, M. A. London. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894. 16°. pp. 102. Epochs of English History Series, edited by Rev. M. Creighton, M. A.]

England had much fighting to do in America, where she was beaten. She was fighting for a bad cause, and freedom and good government came from her defeat. While America gained very much, England lost little more than the lives and the money spent in the war. * * *

The plan of the ministry proposed to "grant duties in the colonies and plantations of America," stating "that it was just and necessary that a revenue should be raised there." In 1765 the stamp act was passed, requiring law papers in America to bear stamps, much as they do now in this country. This put forward the claim of Parliament to tax a country which sent no representatives to Parliament. Little attention was paid to the remonstrances of the colonies, and few thought that they would resist. * * *

Toward the end of 1774 it was plain that war was at hand. In England the King and his minister, Lord North, who did whatever the King wished, and had a large majority in the House of Commons, were set on harsh measures. A small body of the men who thought for themselves, and thought wisely, such as Chatham and Burke, were in favor of giving way to the colonists. The great trading towns were on the same side. But the Whigs, as these men were called, were not popular; Englishmen in general neither knew nor cared much about the feelings of the colonists. Public opinion on the whole was on the side of the King and the Government. * * *

From this time there was war between England and her American colonies. Ill feeling and even hatred soon grew up between the two peoples. The King was firm in the resolve to reduce "the rebels," and the mass of the English people agreed with him, though they did not care much. In America, while many colonists remained loyal, the help they gave was not great compared with the fierce resistance of the majority in almost every part. * * *

Congress met for its second session at Philadelphia in May, 1775, and the moderate party in it was weaker than before. Measures were taken for raising money, and a commander in chief was elected, George Washington, of Virginia. He had earned

some reputation in the former war, and had a well-deserved character for moderation, public spirit, and honor. It was very needful that the command in war should be given to one great soldier, for a danger which threatened the colonies was that local interests and jealousies should prevent them from holding together as one country, since each colony had been used to manage itself and had been quite independent of the rest. Congress as yet had no real power, and could not do much more than advise what was best. * * *

The colonies now began to listen more and more to the counsels of the extreme men; this was natural when war had once begun. So long as it was only talked about, however bitter the talk might be, there was hope that things might be quietly settled. But when once war had broken out, and Americans were glorying in feats of arms done against the English, the desire of settling matters grew faint and died away. The need of some form of independent government became pressing, and in June, 1776, on the motion of Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, Congress agreed that "these united colonies are and ought to be free and independent States." * * *

In England the news of the surrender at Saratoga made even the ministers wish for peace. Unfortunately the same news made the French Government ready to enter into treaties of alliance and commerce with the United States (February, 1778). Lord North then passed a bill giving up altogether the claim of Parliament to tax the colonies, and was ready to do anything short of granting them independence. This was a time when the war might have ceased without dishonor to England. England was ready to own that she had been in the wrong. She was willing to grant all that Americans had claimed; freedom, with some slight tie to the mother country, or even independence, as Lord Rockingham thought, might have been conceded. But when France began to interfere in the war its meaning was changed. The honor of England seemed at stake; even those who had been against the war before, now thought that it must be carried on boldly. Thus Chatham, in the House of Lords, declared he would never consent to "an ignominious surrender of the rights of the Empire." "Shall we now," he said, "fall prostrate before the House of Bourbon?" And his death in May, 1778, put an end to the last hope of reconciliation with America. * * *

In 1780 men were made more bitter by a very unfortunate event. General Arnold, a man of mark, who had held important commands at Saratoga and at Philadelphia, was now at West Point, a fort dominating the upper part of the State of New York. This he treacherously offered to hand over to Sir Henry Clinton; the terms were to be arranged with Major André, aid-de-camp to the English general. He visited Arnold, and was taken prisoner on his way back in disguise, and with a pass given by Arnold. Arnold had time to escape to the English lines; André was treated as a spy. His plea of a safe-conduct from Arnold was not unfairly met by the reply that Arnold was a traitor, and a safe-conduct granted for a treacherous purpose was not valid. Washington was unyielding, and André was hanged. It was natural enough that the Americans should insist on making an example of him, but when they hanged him on the charge that he was a spy they were really revenging themselves on him for the treachery of Arnold, whom they could not reach. By the English, André was honored as a martyr to his zeal for king and country. * * *

The treaties were all signed at Versailles in September, 1783. Some men were loud in calling them disgraceful, but those who knew how hardly pressed England was, and how the increase of debt and waste of men were crushing her, saw that peace must be had, and that the terms were fair. England came with honor out of the war against these powerful European foes. She had met with disasters in a bad cause in America, but still her soldiers and sailors had done their duty well.

[From Longmans' 'Ship' Historical Readers. No. II. From the Discovery of America to date. London. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895. 12^o. pp. 128.]

We have read about the Pilgrim Fathers and how they sailed away to America and founded a colony there. In the course of time the colonists grew rich and strong.

Their land was ruled over by the King of England. At last quarrels arose because King George III wanted to make them pay him money that they thought they ought not to pay. The King said they must pay him so much money as a tax upon all tea they used. The colonists thought he had no right to make them pay it. So they said that, rather than pay the tax, they would do without tea. Soon after this a ship laden with tea came into the harbor of Boston. The people said, "The tea shall be sent back to the place from which it came. We will pay no tax upon it." One man said, "The only way to get rid of the tea is to throw it overboard." So a number of men dressed themselves like Indians and rushing on board the ship they threw the tea into the sea. After this it was seen that, as neither side would give in, nothing but a war could end the quarrel. Then both sides got ready to fight. It was a sad sight to see men of the same race fighting against each other. The colonists chose a brave and good man named George Washington to be their leader. He did not want to fight against the King, but he loved freedom, and he thought that the King was treating the colonists unjustly. So he was willing to spend his money and his life in the good cause. The war lasted for about seven years. The French helped the colonists, and in the end the colonists won, and so they were free. Since that time they have had no king over them and they have become one of the greatest nations upon earth; for in the land that is now called the United States there are over 60,000,000 people, and the vast country that was at one time the home of bands of roving Indians is now peopled by English-speaking folks.

[From Jarrold's Empire Readers. Stories from English History for Standard III. By Mary Jacomb Wilkin. London. Jarrold & Sons. 16°. pp. 178. The Empire Educational Series.]

The United States of America were at that time English colonies. George III wanted the people there to pay very heavy taxes, but they refused. One was a tax or "duty" on tea. The Americans said they would rather go without tea than pay it. So when ships came bringing tea they threw it all overboard. For ten years the colonists and the Government quarreled about it, and then they went to war. George Washington was the American patriot who led their armies, and the English were defeated. On the 4th of July, 1776, the United States of America became an independent nation. William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, had done all he could to make George III and his Parliament see that it was not fair to tax the American colonists in order to pay for England's European wars. These wars had been of no use to them, and they wanted their money to defend themselves at home. If the King had been wise enough to follow Pitt's advice he would not have lost these colonies.

[From Jarrold's Empire Readers. English History. Book III. William III to the present. London.] Jarrold & Sons. The Empire Educational Series.]

While these internal commotions were going on, our quarrels with the colonies in America began. They originated in a great measure with the King himself. With the patriotic intention of reducing the burdens of the people, he insisted on a portion of the taxes being thrown on the colonists. The ministry saw the danger of such a proceeding, but Mr. Grenville, who in 1764 was at the head of affairs, was intimidated into agreement by a threat of the loss of his office, and consented to carry measures of which he disapproved. He first interfered with the paper currency of the colonies by an act preventing colonial bills from being considered a legal tender, and finally attempted to raise a revenue from stamps. This created a ferment in the free legislatures of the different colonies, whose members saw that if the principle were admitted England might impoverish them by taxes to any amount without sharing the burden herself. The attempt was temporarily withdrawn when the results were seen; but in this, as in other instances,

The attempt and not the deed confounds us.

All the ill feeling remained, though the cause was apparently removed. The stubbornness of the King acted, however, on the pliancy of his ministers; the national

spirit became high on our side as well as on the colonists', and it was resolved to carry the supremacy of Parliament with a high hand.

In spite of the energy of Pitt in resisting the measure, and the warnings of other statesmen who foresaw the lamentable consequences of perseverance, the act for imposing stamp duties in the American provinces was carried on March 22, 1765, and opposition at once began. The colonists passed resolutions to abstain from all articles on which a tax was levied, and commerce rapidly felt the effects of a diminished consumption. Scarcity also existed at this time at home, and frequent riots took place in consequence of the decline of manufactures. The King vented his dissatisfaction on his ministers and dismissed them; but who would consent to be their successors under circumstances of such public suffering and court intrigue? Pitt and others declined the task, unless under such conditions as the King and his secret advisers could not agree to. He was therefore forced to throw himself back on the old Whig party under the leadership of the Marquis of Rockingham. The principal service rendered to his country by this nobleman was that of introducing into public life, as his secretary, the celebrated Edmund Burke, a man whose political wisdom and literary powers receive a high appreciation from each new generation, which benefits by the study of his works. But eloquence as great and more effective than Burke's was at work on the other side of the Atlantic, and roused a spirit of resistance which no efforts at conciliation could have allayed. Patrick Henry, an orator of the loftiest order, brought forward resolutions against the stamp act in the assembly of Virginia, which were instantly adopted by all the legislatures in America. Rival manufactures to those of England were established in the towns, and propositions even entertained against the exportation of tobacco, from which so much British revenue was derived. A pause in these proceedings was expected in the following year, when the stamp act, amidst the fiery denunciations of Pitt against its injustice, was finally repealed, and other measures taken for the restoration of harmony between the countries.

The harmony was short-lived. The repeal of the stamp act offended the King, and gave a handle to the demagogues of America to rail against the weakness of the Parliament which had yielded to fear what it denied to justice. The calm wisdom of the great Washington was disregarded or unknown, and his satisfaction with the settlement of the quarrel was of no avail. Open enmity was merely exchanged for secret grudging, and both sides were ready for a renewal of the dispute. The Court considered the victory gained when it obtained the services of Pitt; but the arrogance of the great statesman neutralized the noble qualities he possessed. He offended the members of his party even in the act of calling them into power; he forfeited the confidence of the people by wearing the state livery of an earldom, and soon showed how powerless Lord Chatham was to control the rebellious spirits which had yielded to Mr. Pitt. Disgusted, after a time, with the disobedience of his subordinates, the envy of his rivals, the coolness of his friends, and the loss of his property, the haughty minister kept aloof from public business altogether, and gave way to fits of temper, which he dignified with the name of bad health. He retained his office of privy seal, though the principal place in the administration was filled by the Duke of Grafton. The object of the King was gained—the opposition of the great orator was no longer to be feared, and vigorous measures were resolved on to reduce the Americans to submission. Chatham, foreseeing the increased unpopularity of the ministry, seized a favorable moment for resigning the privy seal, and tried to recover the favor of the public by destroying an administration which he had not been able to support. Freed from the trammels of office, he waited in grim repose for an opportunity of once more showing his transcendent power and trampling on his enemies. Strong opposition was made in Parliament to the attempt at coercing the colonies and extending taxation where representation did not exist; but all opposition was disregarded. Boston, which had been most active in resisting the excise, was garrisoned by troops and blockaded by ships.

Associations were instantly entered into by the other colonies for the defense of their liberties, and the citizens, as early as 1769, were recommended to provide themselves with arms on the transparent pretense of a probable rupture with France—while meetings of infuriated colonists were held at Boston, dinners of no less furious enemies of the ministry took place in London. There was a sympathy between the supporters of Wilkes in his prosecution for a libel, and the defenders of the Americans in their resistance to arbitrary power. The cry of “Wilkes and liberty” comprehended the “patriots” on both sides of the Atlantic. Riots broke out in the capital; Ireland became disturbed; the King unbendingly pursued the path he had once taken; Chatham gloomed in ominous silence from his retreat in Hayes; and the anonymous slanderer and experienced politician, who is still known to us only as Junius, attacked the ministry and the King himself with great bitterness and force. These concurrent causes and the renewal in 1770 of Chatham’s attendance in Parliament as leader of the hostile phalanx, drove the Duke of Grafton from power, and his place was supplied by Lord North. But the half measures of this minister did not satisfy the wishes of the King. His temper was roused by the struggle, and the battle became fiercer than ever. Chatham directly accused him of personal duplicity and a design to destroy the liberties of the people and the independence of Parliament by bribes. His words were taken down but no proceedings followed. Public meetings were called; the Lord Mayor of London lectured the King when admitted to deliver an address, and the ministry relied all this time on their Parliamentary majority and the orderly habits of the English people. The orderly habits, however, of the American colonists broke down under fresh provocation; lives were lost at Boston in a struggle with the soldiers, and the incident was represented in the newspapers as a deliberate massacre. Passions were roused to such an extent on both sides that it was impossible to prevent an appeal to arms, but when the King’s forces were attacked, and the colonists stood in open array against the mother country, the feeling in England began to change. The sympathy which had been so powerful in favor of an oppressed people was turned into animosity against impracticable rebels. Chatham himself defended them no more. Yet there still remained thousands, perhaps millions, in this country who viewed with greater apprehension the success of the King than those of the colonists. Lord Chatham’s words were not forgotten, “that three millions of men, unable to defend their freedom, were the fittest instruments to destroy the liberties of the rest” After the display of great bravery on both sides, and consummate skill on the part of the Americans—after alternations of conquest and defeat—the ever advancing tide of resistance to British rule spread over the whole country; the genius of Washington and the wisdom of Franklin guided the strong wills of the resisting millions, and France, in an evil hour for her reigning dynasty, having joined in the fray, even the obstinacy of George was overcome, and the independence of the United States was formally acknowledged, 1783.

[From *An Easy History of England*. Standards VI and VII. By S. R. Gardiner. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1891. 12°. pp. 259. Deals more especially with political history.]

Grenville was not a wise man, and he thought that he could make the Americans bear part of the expenses of the last war. He accordingly persuaded the British Parliament to pass a stamp act ordering the Americans to pay money for stamps to be placed on their law papers. The Americans were angry, and said that the British Parliament had no right to tax them. Before it was known in England how angry they were, George III had succeeded in turning Grenville out of office, but he had been obliged to replace him by another Whig, Lord Rockingham. The Whigs, led by Rockingham, were never popular. They would not bribe, and all who wanted to receive bribes took part against him. They offended others, because most of them were wealthy noblemen and gentlemen who did not mix with the people. Rockingham himself was a well-meaning, timid man. The best thing we know of him was that he listened respectfully to Edmund Burke, who was neither

rich himself nor related to rich men, but who was the wisest man in England. By the advice of Burke, Rockingham asked Parliament to repeal the stamp act. As soon as the British Parliament left off taxing the Americans the Americans became once more quiet and loyal.

Before long the King turned out Rockingham. He created Pitt Earl of Chatham and made him prime minister. Chatham might have done great things if he had retained his health, but he became so ill that he was unable to attend to business, and the other ministers were foolish enough to try and get money from the Americans again. This time they imposed duties on the import of tea and other articles at the American ports.

The fact was that the House of Commons only thought of making people do as it pleased, just as Charles I had done more than a hundred years before. At home the Middlesex electors chose a man named Wilkes as their member of Parliament. His character was very bad, and on the ground that he had misbehaved himself the House of Commons not only expelled him, but when the electors again and again persisted in choosing him declared that another candidate who had received only a few votes was to sit in the House as member for Middlesex. Soon afterwards Chatham recovered his health, and declared in the House of Lords that the House of Commons had no right to set aside the votes of the electors of Middlesex, and that Parliament had no right to tax America.

The King would not listen to Chatham's advice. He made Lord North prime minister. Lord North was a Tory. The Tories thought that the King and not the Whig noblemen ought to choose the ministers. Lord North was a sensible man, but he allowed himself to be persuaded to do whatever George III told him to do. He was very fat, and used to go to sleep in the House of Commons whilst the members were abusing him. The House supported him, partly because many of its members were bribed in various ways, but still more because the Whigs were disliked and because most Englishmen thought it quite right that the Americans should pay their share of the expenses of a war which had been fought to save them from being injured by the French in Canada.

The Americans made up their minds to pay no taxes to the British Government. Rather than pay duty on tea a troop of 40 or 50 men disguised as red Indians rushed on board a ship laden with tea, which had arrived at Boston, and threw the whole cargo into the sea. The British Parliament passed laws to put down all resistance, and sent soldiers to America to enforce them. The Americans prepared to resist. In 1775 fighting began. The English people thought it would soon be over, as they were many and the Americans were few. Their soldiers were well disciplined, and the Americans had no regular soldiers at all. The Americans, however, were fighting for their own land, whilst every British soldier had to be conveyed across the sea. The Americans, too, found George Washington not only a splendid general, but, what was better, a man who set an example of patience and self-denial, and who was entirely without ambition.

The Americans had not been fighting long when they issued a Declaration of Independence, asserting their right to be a free nation, no longer in subjection to British rule. At first it seemed doubtful whether they would be able to make good their words. Their army was almost starved to death. The horses died for want of forage, and for six days the men had no meat. There was scarcely a pair of shoes in the whole camp.

When people show that they can defend themselves they often get help from others. This time it was France which came forward to assist the Americans. Lord North was frightened, but Chatham, old and ill as he was, came to the House of Lords to protest against acknowledging the independence of America. He had been wise enough to oppose the folly of those who had attempted to make the Americans pay taxes, but he was too proud of the greatness of England to consent to the separation of America from the mother country. "As long," he said, "as I

can crawl down to this House and have strength to raise myself on my crutches or lift my hand, I will vote against giving up the dependency of America or the sovereignty of Great Britain." Chatham tried to speak again, but he staggered and fell, struck down by apoplexy. After a few days he died.

If Chatham had lived he could not have brought America back into subjection. Fighting went on, and Spain joined the enemies of England. At last an English army under Lord Cornwallis was shut up in Yorktown. The Americans hemmed it in on the land side, and a French fleet blocked it up by sea. Cornwallis was forced to surrender. Lord North knew that it was impossible to struggle longer, and though George III wished to continue the war, Lord North resigned office, and Rockingham became prime minister a second time.

Lord Rockingham at once opened negotiations with France and America. Before they were completed he died, and the King named Lord Shelburne as his successor. Shelburne went on with the arrangements for peace, though the treaty was not signed till after he had left office. In 1783 peace was made with France, and the independence of America was acknowledged by Great Britain. Both then and since many have looked back with regret to the day which put an end to the hope that all English-speaking peoples might continue united under the same government. Yet there can be no doubt that England had received a lesson which she well deserved. The members of the House of Commons had got into a habit of thinking that they could do whatever suited them, without taking into account the wishes of others. The resistance of America had taught them the lesson that, powerful as the English Government was, it could not do as it pleased. From that time there was more consideration for the wishes of the governed in England itself than there had been before.

[The account given of these events in Gardiner's *Illustrated English History*, Part III, 1689-1886 (London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1896, English History Reading Books series), is practically the same as the above.]

[From Longmans' 'Ship' Historical Readers. No. VII. London. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894. 12°. pp. 240. Devoted to the Hanoverian period.]

The British colonies were divided into two classes, one in which the bulk of the population was not of British race, and the other in which it was. The first of these classes comprised the Indian possessions, where the native population far outnumbered the British; the West Indies, in which the negroes were most numerous; Canada, where the French vastly predominated, and such outlying posts as Gibraltar. In the second class were the old American colonies, where there were only a few persons not descended from British ancestors. Those of the first class were more properly called possessions, those of the second, colonies. For the present, at least, it was easy to govern the possessions. It would be more difficult to govern the colonies, because the men of British race who lived in them had been in the habit of managing their own affairs, and would resent any interference with them. In England, on the other hand, people discovered that the war had cost much money and that taxes had to be raised to pay the interest of the money which had been borrowed to carry it on. In 1765 George Grenville, who was then prime minister, thought that the American colonists ought to pay part of the expenses caused by the late war, because they had been benefited by the removal of all danger of French attacks from Canada. He easily persuaded Parliament to pass a stamp act ordering the Americans to pay money for stamps on their law papers. The Americans were very angry, and declared that an English Parliament had no right to tax them. Before their complaints reached England there was a new prime minister, Lord Rockingham, and at his proposal the stamp act was repealed in 1766. As soon as Parliament gave up its attempt to tax America, the colonists became quiet and loyal.

George III did not like the Rockingham ministry because he wanted to choose his own ministers, and Rockingham, who was the leader of the Whigs, wanted ministers to be chosen who suited the great landowners. George therefore turned out Rockingham and made Pitt prime minister, having created him Earl of Chatham. Chatham did all he could to conciliate the Americans, but he fell ill, and in 1767 the other ministers persuaded Parliament to tax the Americans again by placing duties on tea and other articles imported into their country. George III was in favor of this, and as in 1770 he succeeded in appointing a prime minister of his own choosing—Lord North—there was no longer any chance that the British Parliament would abandon its claim to tax Americans. In 1773 a shipload of tea which had paid duty to the King was sent to Boston. The inhabitants, rather than pay the duty, split open the tea chests and poured their contents into the harbor. When this was known in England the King and his ministers were angry. In Parliament the majority, now composed of Tories or supporters of the King, was also angry, and a law was passed forbidding ships to take or unload cargo at Boston, and another law providing that the colony of Massachusetts, the colony in which Boston was, should be governed, not by its own people, but by persons nominated by the King. Soldiers were sent out to enforce the orders of the British Parliament.

The Americans prepared to resist. They elected a Congress in which men chosen by the different colonies might meet to decide what should be done. In 1775 fighting began. The first serious conflict was that which is usually known as the battle of Bunker Hill. The Americans were posted on the top. Twice the British forces, attempting to ascend, were driven back. The third time the Americans, having fired away all their shot, retreated. In spite of the bravery shown by the Americans the British felt sure of overpowering them. In 1776 the Americans issued a Declaration of Independence, asserting themselves to be a free nation. As the war went on each side gained advantages in turn. The Americans were led by a great man, George Washington. Not only was he a good general, but he was patient and modest, regardless of himself, and ready to endure anything rather than injure his country. Yet, after two years of war, the American army was almost starved to death. The horses died for want of forage, and for six days the men had no meat.

In 1778 the Americans were saved by an alliance with France. France was now far stronger than she had been in the seven years' war, because she had now no quarrel with any of the nations on the Continent and could therefore devote her whole strength to her navy. The French fleet was superior to the British, and in 1781 was able to blockade the British army under Cornwallis at Yorktown on the side of the sea, while the American army blockaded it by land. Cornwallis surrendered. When the news reached England in 1782, Lord North resigned and Rockingham again became prime minister and prepared to make peace. Spain had now joined France, but before peace was made the British Admiral Rodney gained a victory over the French fleet, and a large French and Spanish fleet which was trying to take Gibraltar had to give up its task in despair. In 1783 peace was signed and the independence of America acknowledged.

[From the History of England from the Accession of George III to the Present Time, adapted to Standards VI and VII, by the Rev. D. Morris, B. A. London. Wm. Isbister. 1883. 16°. Pages 298.]

During the above war the English prime minister, George Grenville, announced his intention of raising a revenue in America for the partial support of the intended army by enacting a stamp act, by which all bonds, leases, newspapers, legal documents, etc., should be issued on stamped paper, varying in value from a half-penny to £10. He delayed the bill for a year, in order to give the colonists time to express their opinions upon the subject. The latter discussed the project in their provincial assemblies, and denied the right of Parliament to tax them, inasmuch as they were not represented in the House of Commons. They did not want a standing army, they said, and they would not contribute to its maintenance in any form. In New

England the right of Parliament to make laws for America was loudly denied, and active resistance was openly advocated. The stamp act became a law in 1765. The news was received everywhere in America with an outburst of indignation, and, in Boston particularly, with much rioting. The merchants of the chief towns combined to purchase no more English goods until the obnoxious act was repealed. No stamp distributor dared exercise his office, or say that he had stamps in his possession, for the mob seized all that they could find and burnt them. It was found impossible to put the act in force, and while resistance lasted trade was at a standstill.

In the meantime a change of ministry occurred in England. The stamp act was reconsidered and repealed a year after its enactment, but at the same time a declaratory act was passed asserting the right of Parliament to tax the colonies. The news of the repeal of the former measure was received in America with much rejoicing, but the triumph of the colonies had the effect of encouraging the more violent of the agitators in America to further resistance against the supremacy of Parliament. French agents soon appeared on the scene to fan by intrigues the spirit of opposition. Boston and New York refused to supply the British troops with provisions and barracks in accordance with the act of Parliament. Conduct of this kind produced much irritation in England, and led the ministry to take steps to strengthen its authority in America by making the governors and judges in the various States less dependent upon the people. To accomplish this it was decided in 1767 to raise a revenue in America to pay the salaries of the governors and judges. The annual sum required scarcely amounted to £40,000. In order to obtain this amount, a duty was laid upon glass, red and white lead, painters' colors, paper, and tea imported into the colonies. Such imposts were in accordance with the acknowledged rights of Parliament to regulate trade but the colonists now resented this measure as bitterly as they did the stamp act. They strongly objected to have their governors and judges made independent of the assemblies by receiving salaries from a fund over which they could have no control. Under the belief that their liberties were at stake, the various assemblies agreed to abstain from the use of English manufactures, and especially from the articles upon which duties were levied. Opposition was most fierce in New England, especially in Massachusetts. So riotous were the mobs in the seaport towns, and so openly defiant of the trade laws, that troops and warships were sent to overawe Boston, which was the center of resistance. The arrival of a military and naval force supplied another cause of grievance and increased the spirit of opposition. A collision took place one night between a mob of boys and men and a small military patrol. The latter discharged their firearms into the crowd, killing three men and wounding several others. This "massacre," as it was called, created the utmost excitement throughout the colonies and furnished skillful agitators with a powerful weapon against England. Indeed this affray had much to do in bringing about the American Revolution. * * *

Meetings were held in every important place to protest against the action of the British Government, and it was decided to hold a congress of delegates from all the States at Philadelphia to discuss their relations with the mother country. This important meeting, or "Continental Congress" as it was called, took place in September, 1774. All the States, excepting Georgia, were represented. Among the delegates were George Washington, Patrick Henry, and Samuel Adams—all famous names in the story of American Independence. The Congress approved the conduct of the people of Boston, drew up a declaration of rights, moved addresses to the King and people of Great Britain, and finally resolved to hold no commercial intercourse with the mother country until their grievances were removed. No mention was made of separation, or any desire expressed for independence. The King and his advisers, with the support of a large majority in Parliament, refused to make any concession to the colonists. In vain the great Earl of Chatham in the House of Lords, and other statesmen in the Commons, pleaded for conciliation. The Government

was determined to enforce obedience. * * * The Congress appointed George Washington, a Virginia gentleman, as the commander in chief of the American army. Washington had commanded the Virginia militia with great success in the wars against the French, and had attained to the rank of colonel. The success of the American Revolution was mainly due to his appointment to the chief command. Only a man of his skill, firmness, patience, and judgment could overcome the jealousies of the various States, the want of discipline of the soldiers, the lack of money and stores, all of which, on several occasions, threatened the collapse of the revolt. He was always hopeful in the greatest difficulties, and cautious in every undertaking. He was known, besides, as a man of the highest integrity, whose truth and honor were never called in question. * * *

The year 1780 was marked by greater military activity in America. In the spring months General Clinton landed in the neighborhood of Charleston with an army from New York, of which a great number were American loyalists. His object was the subjugation of the Southern States. Charleston was obliged to capitulate. The surrender of its garrison, ships, cannon, and well-stored magazines was a deadly blow to the Revolution in that quarter. Clinton then returned to New York with a large part of his army, leaving Lord Cornwallis to continue the war in the South. The American forces, attempting to check the progress of Cornwallis, were almost annihilated in two engagements, but by a system of guerrilla warfare they prevented the British from conquering North Carolina. The subjugation of South Carolina and Georgia was, however, complete. The Americans, at this time, were in a deplorable state. Money and stores were sadly wanting, and the troops were discontented and rebellious. The desire for peace was general. The continuance of the war entirely depended upon foreign aid, and the most ardent in the Revolutionary cause knew that they would never achieve success unless the supremacy of England at sea could be overcome. The latter country had this year reasserted its claim to be mistress of the seas, for both in America and in Europe she kept the fleets of France under blockade. The gloomy prospects of the Revolution, together with personal grievances, determined the American general, Benedict Arnold, to betray his countrymen. He was in command of the fortress of West Point, on the river Hudson, which was considered to be the key of the American position. This, as well as the army of occupation, he resolved to place in the hands of General Clinton. Negotiations for this purpose were carried on through Major André, a young British officer high in command and of great promise. Having completed all arrangements, André set out on foot from West Point to return to New York, and fell into the hands of some American militia. The treasonable papers were found upon him, and he was arrested, condemned, and hanged as a spy. Arnold fled as soon as he heard of the arrest. He afterwards served in the war as a general in the British army. * * * Loud complaints were made by the opponents of peace about the treatment of the American loyalists, or Tories, as they were called, who had taken service under the Crown, or aided its cause in any way. So bitter was the feeling against them, that 100,000 found it necessary to seek new homes in British territory, chiefly in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. England allowed half-pay to those who had served as officers in the army, and also pensioned many others in compensation for their losses. The results of the war, after all, were less injurious to England than to her European adversaries. Though her national debt was largely increased, and her Empire shorn of the American colonies, she made rapid progress in trade, manufactures, and general improvement. Very different was the fortune of France.



CHAPTER XLV.

THE PROTECTION OF ITALIAN EMIGRANTS IN AMERICA.

By LUIGI BODIO.

One of the most important questions treated at the Geographic Congress in Rome, in September last, was that of the care and protection of emigrants. The resolutions adopted at the Geneva Congress of 1892 were (in substance) that colonization laws should include a small plot of land for the emigrant so that he might, as cultivator, be assigned to proprietorship. The Italian Government should have an office of information so as to keep in touch with the colonization going on in foreign countries, as well as with the actual conditions of the colonists; that, in addition to private associations interested in emigration, a public association should act in concurrence with emigration agents, so as to give aid to the emigrant and help him to acquire land; that the emigration laws of 1888 should be modified as regards agents, subagents, guaranties, etc.

The Congress (of Rome?) recommended that the military laws be made less stringent for Italians living in foreign countries, without, however, interfering with the principle of obligatory military service.

Now, it may be stated that, in the last few years, emigration has been diminishing in intensity, not alone from Italy but from all Europe. The Italian emigrants to the United States numbered about 70,000 in 1893 and only 39,000 in 1894. Emigration to Brazil oscillates, too, from year to year, namely, 40,000 Italians in 1887, 104,000 in 1888; 36,000 in the succeeding years; in 1891, 183,000; with a drop to 43,000 in 1894. In the Argentine Republic the Italian immigration was 75,000 in 1888, and 88,000 in 1889; then in successive years 39,000 and 15,511 in 1891, with a later increase to 37,000.

As the social and economic conditions of the countries furnishing the emigrants can not suffer such mutations from year to year, it is evident that these variations depend upon the prosperity and crises in the countries where colonies are established, hence efforts should be made to protect the emigrants from the obstacles which they encounter. Emigration is a necessity for our country [Italy], and we ought to wish that in the present agricultural and industrial conditions, with so little capital to dispose of, thousands more may go forth where they may find work.

The density of population is 107 to the square kilometer in Italy, the average in Germany is 97, in Austria 80, in France 72. France has abundance of capital, land cultivated to the highest degree, conditions of ease and competency in rural districts, and a third less population than in Italy, where the conditions are so different, the poor peasantry and workmen having become a peril to the social equilibrium. So that emigration becomes an aid to those who are left, as, with the capital in hand, they can more advantageously carry on manufactures and develop agriculture.

Discussions of the colonization of Eritrea (Italian possession in Africa) are very earnest, and the Hon. Franchetti, who has studied the subject on the spot, states that at least 4,000 lire (\$772) capital, to be provided by the Government, is requisite

for a family of seven persons, in order to construct cabins, to obtain proper implements, to develop their lands, to survey the land, to prepare waterworks, etc.

There is also discussion in regard to colonizing Sardinia and of populating the Campagna (di popolare l'Agro romano), but this, too, requires capital, and there are various obstacles, which, especially on the island of Sardinia, complicate matters. [Here follow laws governing taxation, etc., in Sardinia; objections to home colonization, want of capital for waterworks, and proper sanitation.] But in America our emigrants do not require subsidies from the mother country; they are, to be sure, at a disadvantage the first year, owing in part, to want of organization; but they carry with them a little money, a few tools of trade, and do not leave debts behind.

Our duty is to protect and patronize voluntary emigration—the only form of it which bears with it latent energy, the force of initiative, and the resistance to whatever bars the emigrant's road to success in a new country, or in his native country. Our duty is to aid the masses in procuring employment suited to their condition, to prevent interested agents taking advantage of their good faith, to overcome the obstacles, to seek openings for them, to bring the emigrants into the neighborhood of agricultural and mining sections, dockyards, etc., as may be suited to their previous training or condition in life.

The agents for emigration number 34 in Italy; warranty, 2,690,000 lire (\$519,170); subagents, 5,172 in 1892, increased to 7,169 to date. They have more than doubled in some provinces within a few years.

In Switzerland the laws restrict the number of subagents; once there were about 400, paid according to the number of emigrants received, so that there developed a kind of propaganda. A law of 1888, modifying that of 1880, imposed a bond of 3,000 lire (\$660) and a tax of 30 lire (\$5.79). As a result, the subagents decreased to 170. Swiss laws now prevent propaganda, or enforced emigration, as the consent of the federal council is required before closing a contract with any person having to do with the emigrant, to which person money may be paid for the journey by societies, foreign governments, or private corporations of other countries. Our [Italian] laws do not forbid the emigrants going away if the money has been paid down by government or a colonization society, but if the amount has been exacted from the emigrant the agent is to see that the emigrant receives double that amount. In any case, the regulations are nil which require the emigrant to work his passage either on ship or other means of transport. Some of our emigrants are given free passage by the authorities of Brazil, who desire peasants with families in good, healthy condition and capable of taking hold of some class of work. The governmental arrangements are made with banking firms, who take the responsibility of forwarding the emigrant from a European port to a Brazilian port.

[Signor Bodio then goes on to state the methods employed in Switzerland and in Italy to prevent the taking advantage of emigrants, and the punishment awarded to agents, subagents, etc.]

New laws are being made restricting subagents, getting a better class of educated persons in such positions; forbidding innkeepers, liquor dealers, railroad agents, etc., to be subagents. Experience has taught that interested persons are not proper subagents, if the emigrant is to be dealt justly with. In place of closing the contract just as the emigrant embarks, this is to be done (when the laws go into force) at the point of starting out, so that there may be time to see that all regulations are adhered to. No minors are to be allowed to go as emigrants unless an older person is responsible for them at the beginning and close of the journey. If the committee stationed at a place of embarkation refuse to take the emigrant, the agent is to see that he be returned to his home and his goods with him, and that he receive whatever sum he [the emigrant] may have paid out. To date, the public charities have taken such matter in hand. If the emigrant has reached the foreign land, the agent is responsible for his return, if refused admittance by the authorities, because the laws governing emigration are known to him. If the emigrant finds that he is

not being properly treated, he may reclaim his rights from the consul, or from the director of the Italian Aid Society, who is to present such claim to the nearest consular agent. Verbal statements are permissible to consuls, immigrant agents, etc., in the foreign countries, and as a last resort, in case of punishment, the minister of the interior may be appealed to. [These and other regulations are described to prevent the agent tyrannizing over the emigrant.]

As for military regulations: The recruit living in a foreign country submits to the physical examination by a physician before the Italian consul. If received he is sent to Italy, free of expense, on a ship of the Italian Navigation Company. If, for family reasons, health, or study, he desires to go to his country for a three months' period, he can do it with the permission of the consul and of his commandant. The old controversy relative to double nationality should be eliminated in future. The best solution seems to be that which holds between Spain and Argentina. When the person claims to be of one or the other nationality, the matter is to be decided in accordance with the laws where resident. If this seems hardly to agree with the principle *jure sanguinis*, established by the Italian and other European codes based on Roman law, it is the principle of the nationality *jure loci*, which—we can not fail to recognize it—is an outcome of the political conditions in the young American States. Thus, if he be born in Argentina of an Italian father, he would be considered an Argentinian as long as he remains in America; should he come to live in Italy he would be considered an Italian.

Now let us see what protection is given to our emigrants arriving in American ports. The minister of foreign affairs, Baron Blanc, has succeeded in obtaining an important concession from the Government of the United States, and has created an office of inspection and protection of Italians at Ellis Island, where emigrants disembark for New York. It is a noticeable fact that even prior to the industrial and commercial crises, a feeling prejudicial to immigration was found among the people, on account of cheap labor, for European workmen were willing to receive salaries inferior to those of American laborers. Hence American legislation endeavored to limit immigration. The limitation included sick people, paupers, those engaged for contract labor. The majority of those sent back by the Federal immigration agents at Ellis Island are Italians who, poorer than other nationalities, have made contracts to go to work, and state that at once, as they suppose they will be quickly received in America if they are not liable to become objects of charity. Yet they are inexorably repulsed because of the very laws of limitation (contract laws). The American officials frequently turn back our emigrants who have left wife and family in Italy, under the clause of "undesirable immigration," because they [the Italians] make declaration that they have been in America before without naturalizing themselves, and that they do not intend to become citizens; or else it resolves itself into the fact that they have made their money in America and returned to their home, then they come back to the United States again to repeat their former success. The United States welcomes emigrants who may become a permanency and assimilate themselves with the American people, who desire to take part in its political life, learn the language of the country, settle down and have families, the children of which (by aspiration and character) become Americans. But "birds of passage" they do not welcome. It is not so much the quantity as the quality of the immigrant which the United States authorities desire to control, for the nonassimilating elements among emigrants are not in harmony with the social and political conditions of the Republic. In 1894-95 there were 731 Italian emigrants sent back out of 33,902 who reached Ellis Island. The economic condition of our emigrants to the United States is demonstrated by the inquiries made by the American authorities, for the newly arrived individual is asked to show how much money he has. The 33,902 who disembarked at Ellis Island had \$362,000, or \$10.23 each; included among them were those sent back as paupers and undesirable immigrants. In 1893-94 similar statements hold good. Our minister of foreign affairs interested himself to

protect the emigrants in America and to disarm that prejudice toward our compatriots. And this is in fact the basis of the most loyal cooperation, the effort to suppress enforced emigration, either from within or without. In June, 1894, an American office was opened at Ellis Island in connection with the Federal office of immigration, in which office such information could be obtained as is furnished by State boards of immigration, by railroad lines, by corporations and individuals, inducements for work, etc. The Secretary of the Treasury permitted our ambassador to suggest one or more Italian agents for that office who could give the necessary information and make the needed suggestions to our emigrants. Prof. Alex. Oldrini, a young cultured Italian familiar with the United States from a residence there of ten years, was made the first agent, and Chevalier Egisto Rossi, who wrote a work on the United States of America, was made the second agent.

It is to be hoped that the Italian Government will now do its part by furnishing these agents with whatever is requisite, so that they may be able to aid the emigrants in finding occupations, obtaining lands, etc. The Italian Government has, to date, the expenditure of \$500 a month for the two commissioners and their office, but the work of these agents ought not to limit itself to assisting the Italian emigrants in connection with the American office, if that office believes it necessary to send them back on account of one or another law, but the Italian agents should be situated to aid the emigrant in obtaining another hearing so that he may disembark and continue his trip to some other State.

It is not enough that our agents aid the emigrants against unfair treatment, on shipboard or shore, but they should be able to give them information concerning the States where they are best able to obtain work, to settle as agriculturists or in mining districts rather than to remain in New York, where their condition is deplorable. Means are lacking so far to bring the Italian agency in New York to this point of efficiency. For it is necessary that the agents be so situated that they can travel to other parts of the States, so as to determine for themselves as regards climatic conditions, the agrarian conditions, violability of contracts, etc. Of the 34,000 Italian emigrants who arrived in the United States in 1894-95 about 20,000 passed the office of our commissioner (Oldrini) direct for New York and its environs, and about 14,000 were forwarded to other States, where they had families, or to mining districts, etc. It is deemed advisable to aid them to go to the Central States, to the mines of Colorado, to Michigan, Minnesota, to Texas ranches, or to the fruit-growing regions of California. A sum of \$10,000 is required to place the Italian emigration office in New York upon a suitable footing, to institute a labor bureau, such as is found at the barge office for Germans and Irish, so that the emigrants will not have to deal with the bosses (or padroni), as is now the case, but will find that they can obtain all information at this bureau, or colonization office. With such a sum at disposal, there might be a savings bank, or bank of deposit, arranged with such securities that the emigrants would not again see the bankers disappear with about \$150,000 of their savings, as was done one year. Where are we to find the \$10,000 requisite for such purpose? In the green book (*libro verde*) published by the minister of foreign affairs, in which are found the regulations which led to the establishment of the Italian emigration office at Ellis Island, there is a suggestion which seems opportune. It is suggested that 20 lire (\$3.86) be required by the Government, from the agency, for each emigrant. As there were in these last years between 33,000 and 65,000 such persons, this amount would be soon acquired. The minister who foresaw the need of protection for the Italian emigrants in the United States also saw the need of such protection in other countries. In Argentina the Italian is as in his own home. In Brazil there is need of such an office of control, for of the Italians going to Brazil it is necessary to distinguish between the State colonies and those of private enterprise. Many Italians are well placed in Brazil, others have to undergo many hardships ere they obtain tolerable positions. The organization of these colonization enterprises needs modifying, for oftentimes the promises held out are not lived up to.

Monopolies, depreciation of money, exorbitant prices, are among the obstacles to contend with. If a few commissioners, or regularly established governmental agents, were connected possibly with the legations in the different countries, they would be useful to the colonists in many cases, and would render abuses impossible, etc. It will be a fortunate day for Italians going to Brazil when authorized agents are there to aid them at embarkation and on their farther trips inland. It is to be hoped that public opinion in Italy will become more favorable to emigration. The outcome of this will be that the proprietor, in order to obtain help, will pay better wages, and emigration will not be synonymous with untold misery at home.

We may look upon emigration as a step in advance toward the bettering and equalizing of conditions. Rather than solicit the return of the emigrant to his native land, rather than regret that emigration transforms itself from temporary to permanent, we should rejoice that the quality of emigration is improved, the arrangements become more stable, the families are reunited, the mother country influence is strengthened.

Emigration is a good thing for the mother country—we utter this sentiment earnestly. It is the safety valve, or security, against envy and class odium, an efficacious instrument in the equalization of human forces. And for Italy, as for all peoples who are late in entering upon new conditions, emigration is a school for the civilizing processes along scientific lines and in adopting new methods. Thus it is the duty of those who have already entered upon the new phases of civilization to assure vigorous protection to the advance guard, composed in part of youthful blood. Protection, material aid, and guidance should be offered to the emigrant. And I salute with great pleasure that part of our emigration which is going to settle in the midst of a people, superior through their methods, perseverance, and economic power, in the very heart of the dominant people of to-day—the Anglo-Saxon race.

This race is the dominating one to-day, because it is educated to a spirit of reform, which opposes the resigning of one's rights, the frittering away of individual energy, opposes apathy toward work, etc.

It is necessary to take the world as it is, and it should be repeated in the chief towns of communes that the emigrant is the best exponent of his country's needs (the best drummer for his own country), and that after him come the experts sent out from the manufactory, the authors, the diplomatists, and lastly the defense by means of the army.



CHAPTER XLVI.

EDUCATION AND THE TALMUD.¹

By NAPHTALI HERZ IMBER.

CONTENTS.

Introduction.	The school of the prophets.
Primitive education among the various nations.	From the building of the Temple to the exile.
The Chaldeans.	In the school of the captors.
The Hebrews.	Educational reform by the Great Synod.
The Egyptians.	The Talmud.
The Greeks.	The two Talmuds.
The Romans.	Disfranchisement of the ignorant.
The Norsemen.	Rabbinical educational laws.
Mosaic educational laws.	The teacher.
Moses in the land of the Chaldeans.	The public schools.
Moses and the Bible.	Punishment.
Moses breaking patriarchal systems and traditions.	Vacations.
Moses hoisted the Chaldean emblem in place of that of Elohim.	Educational duties of parents.
Selecting teachers.	Religious education.
Laws to teach.	Babylonian education.
	Methods employed in the public schools.
	Titles and terms.
	From the Great Synod up to the time of Jehoshua ben Gamla.

INTRODUCTION.

When the battle of Koenigrätz was fought, ending with a decisive victory for the Prussians over the Austrians, Prince Bismarck spoke those winged words: "The schoolmaster has conquered." Indeed, that famous battle was an excellent illustration of the great power of education, and the Prussian schoolmaster has shown that his pen could penetrate deeper than the shot and shell of the Austrians. Even the ancients knew of the great influence of education, and Jewish history has recorded a fact which is equal to that of Koenigrätz. "Jerusalem," says the Talmud, "was besieged by the Romans, and the once powerful Hebrew nation was crushed to death by the legions of the pagans. While Vespasian besieged the City of the Lord, wherein civil war and starvation killed more people than the arrows of the Roman archers, an humble Rabbi, Johannes ben Saki by name, knelt before the great victorious Emperor, praying for mercy for his people. 'What shall I grant you?' asked the proud victor. 'Grant me,' replied the sage in a low voice, 'the school of Jabne and its schoolmasters.'" The victor granted the request. He probably never dreamed that from that little school the national spirit of the Hebrews would rise with more vigor. How could he, when it looked as though the whole nation were wiped from the face of the earth. Jerusalem was a pile of débris; her people had been slaughtered by thousands or made cripples. Those

¹An historical sketch of educational evolution among the ancient Hebrews and other primitive nations.

who escaped death were carried into captivity to be made a show of, serving as living trophies for the home-coming victor in his triumphal march. Under such circumstances and conditions the remnant of the Jewish race was found at the time of the destruction, so that even the best patriots could not dream of an attempt at restoration. Yet fifty-five years after the destruction the national spirit which was kept alive in the little school of Jabne arose with vigor, and the 25,000 pupils of Rabbi Akiba, those penmen drilled by the schoolmaster, restored the national pride to its olden glory. The heroic struggle of Bar Kochba (the Son of the Star), who was proclaimed king of the Hebrews, is known to fame, and the coin he used is still preserved in museums as a silent witness of the successful attempt and the vital power of the nation. Now, who performed this marvel, which seemed an impossibility? The schoolmaster from Jabne. The educator blew into the dry, dead bones of Judah the breath of life, and they were resurrected to activity.

Education is not only a power in a struggle, it is also a preserver of life, and the reason for the preservation of the Hebrew race is its wonderful, early developed education. Every Jew, no matter of what standing or reputation—even those from darkest Russia, where 99 per cent of the natives can scarcely sign their names, even those Jews—is able to read and write in his own language. In America we have a vivid picture of the great power of education, for what has made this country so great in every respect, if not the schoolmaster? Instead of being in the rear guard, it is marching onward—a pioneer of culture, leading the advancing march of progress. All this is due to education. The educational system of the United States is its best bond for its continued greatness. The American schoolmaster may reflect, while sitting at the foot of the Washington Monument, upon the educational system of the ancient Hebrews, two thousand years ago, and be interested in the discovery that there is a wonderful parallel between that and his own, of the nineteenth century. To those who observe the march of civilization it will be of great historical value to know the educational system of the Hebrews, whom Mohammed styled "Rigel el Kitab," i. e., "the people of writing."

PRIMITIVE EDUCATION AMONG VARIOUS NATIONS.

I.—THE CHALDEANS.

Among the cultured nations of the ancients the first in rank are the Chaldeans, whom we may style the educators of the world. There was hardly a branch of science wherein they did not prove themselves the masters. In the divine arts—music and painting—they were far ahead of the cultured sons of Hellas. The first symphony was sung by the Chaldeans. The Greeks learned from them when they invaded the country under Alexander the Great. The ancient Jewish notations of music, used by the singers of Zion in the Temple, are all called by their Chaldean names. As a proof of this, it may be stated that the Hebrews learned and adopted the Chaldean musical Alpha Beth, as they adopted from them other useful things pertaining to culture and civilization.

In making or in reproducing pictures they reached the highest standard of perfection at that time. Two prophets give evidence of their skill in that fine and divine art. One described their painted pictures on the walls, engraved with an oily color; the other calls their country "the land of sculptured images, of which they are proud."

In architecture and engineering they surpassed the Egyptians, and the fabulous Tower of Babel was built before the corner stone was laid for any of the pyramids. Jewish legends tell us that they built that tower in order to produce rain by beating the roof with hammers, thus causing the air to vibrate. That is another evidence of their far-advanced science and culture. Their canals and other artificial waterways have long been the admiration of historians.

In astronomy, their fame in that truthful science, which requires a knowledge of mathematics, is still renowned. They were the first to look on high and draw a map

of our solar system, dividing the planets in the zodiac. The art of calendaring, for which the ancient Hebrews were renowned—so that in a dispute with Roman astronomers the former claimed that the sun is stationary, while the planets revolve round the fireball (the sun), which argument the latter refused to accept—was learned and adopted from the Chaldeans, as the Jewish names for the months and planets are Chaldean terms, thus telling us plainly in what school the Hebrews had been taught.

In religion they showed themselves far superior to even the Hebrews, as their religion was pure and simple and could not conflict with common sense and feelings. They approached the altars in their houses of worship with silent salutation, and venerating bows, prayers, and music were the offerings, not animal or other kindred sacrifices, as is plainly indicated at the dedication of the great image made by King Nebuchadnezzar on the plain of Dura. Those who understand how to read the Bible between the lines will discover that Jehovah was known to the Chaldeans and worshiped before He revealed himself to Moses in the burning bush, and Ninrod was a mighty hunter before Jehovah; and Jehovah calls the King, Nebuchadnezzar, through the mouthpiece of His prophets, "my servant." It is probable that Abraham, who left Ur of the Chaldees for Palestine, was forced to flee, being persecuted by the Jehovahists. (The name Elohim, which means two in one, is mentioned by all the patriarchs until Moses, who restored the ancient Jehovahistic cult of the Chaldeans.) The name "Chaldean" means a wise man, and in the Scripture it has the same meaning, where the Chaldeans are termed "the wise men of the East."

Such achievements are impossible without the regular working system of education. Indeed, legend, which is the best informer where history is silent, points in that direction. There is a written Jewish folk story which says that Abraham was when a boy a pupil in the schools of Shem and Eber. Of course there is no historical proof to confirm that legendary statement; still there is a clear passage in the Scripture which indicates some educational progress, when King Nebuchadnezzar orders that children of Hebrews shall be selected, being without physical defect, good-looking, and bright, and taught to write (in the text-book) the language of the Chaldeans. Aside from that record, how is it that the Hebrews, who were in Egypt four hundred years, did not carry away with them a single thought of the land? Not even an Egyptian word, with one exception, is to be found in the whole Scripture, while whole sentences of Chaldean are found. During the stay of seventy years among the Chaldeans the Hebrews seem to have been perfectly nationalized, and the big volumes of the Talmud are treasuries of Chaldean science and literature under the guise of the Hebrew religion. To explain this phenomenon we must think one of two things, either there was a law compelling everybody to read and to write, or the government indirectly offered opportunities even to strangers to be educated, as the enlightened Government of the United States offers educational advantages to all. At all events, there was an educational suffrage, and to it is due the wonderful civilization of the Chaldeans.

The reasons for the early development of education can be given as follows:

1. The nation was not divided into classes and castes (except in the branches of science, as Chartumim, readers of hieroglyphs; Ashofim, secret readers; Measphim, magicians; Chasdim, astrologers). The absence of castes prevented education from being monopolized, as in other nations, by a certain class.

2. Their Jehovahistic cult with its fatalistic view that the fate of man is written in the stars; hence, if the horoscope told that the child of a beggar would be one day a prophet or a sage, he was brought up accordingly.

3. The simplicity of their quadrat letters with perfected punctuation and vowels enabled everyone to learn writing easily, and it became a common method of exchanging thought. The Hebrews, after their exile, adopted the Alpha Beth of the Chaldeans, with all its grammar and rules. It is a pity that we have no record; but underlying the whole Rabbinical religion the Chaldean cult exists. The only direct proof of the educational power of the Chaldeans is found in their offspring,

the Nestorians. Those Christians, the few living descendants of the Chaldeans, are superior even to the Armonians, not to speak of the wild Kurds among whom they live.

II.—THE HEBREWS.

By the Hebrews I do not mean those Jews who claim to be the children of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, for there were Hebrews in the land of Canaan long before Abraham was born. Joseph tells in prison his tale of woe that he was stolen from the land of the Hebrews. As Joseph was the third generation from the first patriarch, who, unlike his son, was not blessed with many offspring, he could not have alluded to the farm where Jacob lived with the few souls of his household, when he spoke of the land of the Hebrews. Even the prophet mentions twice to the Hebrews that their father was an Amorite and their mother a Hittite (while Abraham and Sarah were both Chaldeans). Those Hebrews had another language from Abraham and other customs and religious views from those prevailing in the motherland of the patriarch. When Abraham mingled with those Hebrews he was somewhat undecided, jumping, so to say, from the pure Chaldean monotheistic religion of Jehovah to the dual cult of Elohim which was the original religion of the Hebrews. The confusion of views became in time a matter of grave facts when Abraham became their leader and patriarch. That confusion of views runs like a thread through the whole of Jewish history. The Hebrews, like most of the Semites, had no classes or castes, which is very favorable to educational suffrage; but as they lacked the ability to centralize their national power, like the Chaldeans, they were divided and ruled over by family patriarchs or tribal sheiks. The father of the house was the ruler, endowed with the power of life and death in his home, as the patriarch over the family and as the sheik over the whole tribe. The father was the educator of his son; consequently when the father was an ignorant man the son was obliged to live according to his father's standard, there being no one to educate him. Another stumbling block to education was the birthright and the privilege enjoyed by the firstborn son among the Hebrews. Thus the able-minded children would be neglected for the sake of the weaker minded firstborn son, to whom education might be of no use. In the history of the patriarchs may be found such educational methods with their sad consequences. Often the mother, when she felt a love to one of her children who was of able mind, undertook to educate him, as we read in the history of the early patriarchs. In such a case moral and domestic education were better implanted in the heart of the child, as women are, as a rule, better educators than men. Poor as their methods were, still poorer were the subjects in which they were reared and educated. A fabulous, narrow view of the ruling forces, some duties toward parents, some folklore and tales, formed the whole programme of primitive Hebraic education. In addition, there were the new religious views and customs imported by Abraham from the Chaldeans. He also brought with him the letters of his native land, the plain quadrat Alpha Beth. The patriarch soon acquired the simple language of the Hebrews (the language of the Scripture), but he could not find their writings,¹ which are half hieroglyph and half a zigzag outline. So it came to pass that the minority, who were the offspring of the Chaldean patriarch, were brought up in the easygoing Chaldean writing, while the Hebrews were taught in their old imperfect native Alpha Beth. When the patriarchs migrated to Egypt, taking with them those Hebrews whom they governed, owing to their isolated position in the hermit kingdom the confusion still remained, and education was continued on the same lines until the time of Moses.

III.—THE EGYPTIANS.

The Egyptians had no inborn, natural culture. Hence education was monopolized by the priests, and its blessings, like all other importations, could not be enjoyed by the poorer class. In spite of the 10,000 mummified cats which are claimed by

¹ The ancient letters of the Hebrews are still used by the Samaritans and on old Jewish coins.

learned men as evidence of their high civilization, I declare that they were only amateurs in culture. There is a land bordering on Egypt known as Ethiopia, which includes also a part of the famous Soudan. In that land once waved the standard of civilization, and, according to the records preserved in the Talmud as well as from Biblical sources, we can see what a highly cultured people once lived in Darkest Africa. The art of hieroglyphs was imported into the land of the Nile from Chartum. Hence the hieroglyphs were called Chartumim. That sounds better than the mew of those 10,000 mummified cats and kings, which was a strange culture, not sprung from the people, but only enjoyed by the higher castes of the priests. The variety of classes and castes prevented the education from penetrating into the heart of the people, and prevented the nation at large from cultivating a national unity, which is the only security for a people's strength and prosperity. The son of a priest was destined to be a priest, no matter whether his mind could comprehend the mystery symbols of the hieroglyphs or not. The child of the soldier was forced to do the fighting all his life from generation to generation. The offspring of the workmen were by law required to live their time in the line of work, each according to his guild and union, following in the footsteps of their departed sires. Even the thieves formed a class, a registered caste, and their children had no choice but to live up to the profession of their fathers. Under such a caste system true education was unknown, and the few hieroglyphists had their little knowledge inherited with their cats and rites, it being a handing down from father to son. Again, geniuses, if they happened to be born of parents who were not priests, were condemned to live as ignorant and undeveloped beings. No wonder the Egyptians were in their time the target of jesters and mockers. No wonder that the Hebrews, in spite of their staying there for four centuries, could not absorb a single habit or thought from them. No wonder that there was not a national union, as each caste was a stranger to every other, as black is to white. No wonder that we dig out so many mummified cats, the only inheritance left to the world of an uneducated people.

IV.—THE GREEKS.

The Greeks possessed a national culture with an original civilization framed with the progressive thoughts of other nations. Their religion was that of a smiling, idealistic beauty, answering the sensual emotions, and rousing the sentimental feelings to the highest pitch of inspiration. But, with all the advantages of good government and an inspiring literature, they lacked the best medium which would have made them everlasting, and that was education.

They had an Aristotle, but not a schoolboy. They had philosophical schools, but not a system of education. Plato, in making the plan for his idealistic republic, had it in his mind to place the education in the hands of the government. He was the only philosopher who felt the real need of his people, and that was the want of an education.

Sparta tried to establish an educational system under the care of its republic, but it did not amount to anything, as the sole aim was to train and drill up a republic of soldiers. The consequences of the lack of education were fatal for Hellas. Besides the everlasting fighting among themselves, which has passed into a proverb, "When Greeks joined Greeks, then was the tug of war," they could not maintain their independence, and fell a prey to mighty Rome, then the mistress of the world. What has the Greek culture, so much talked of, left behind it? Nothing except a few busts of shapeless Venuses and the fame of only seven wise men, who bear witness that the whole nation, with its multitudes, remained in darkness so many centuries.

The speculative philosophy of Aristotle is not worth anything, compared to the scientific facts brought to light by the Chaldeans. The sons of Hellas, whose religion, for the sake of its charm, was adopted by other nations, exchanged the gaiety of that old religion for the more meditative one of Christianity, whose worship consists in

prayer and fasting, not in the enjoyment of the wine cup and sensual satisfaction—a religion which even the reasoning Romans resisted so long. How can we explain these phenomena? Paul took them by surprise. They were taken in, not by the grand Apostle, the miracle worker, but by the Jewish boy who, as a child, was compelled to visit the public school, then as a youth sat in the college at the feet of the Rabbi Gamaliel, and the Olympian gods and goddesses fell before Paul, the educated.

V.—THE ROMANS.

The reasoning Romans had no talent whatever for producing anything original. Their religion, cult, customs, and manners were all borrowed, adopted, or absorbed from other nations. They were born prize fighters, yet they had one good quality, a love of system and order, a quality which makes the educator. Indeed, there were more Greek mentors in Rome than teachers in Athens. There were fewer ignorant soldiers in Cæsar's legion than in Alexander's famous phalanx. To be a Roman and free was sufficient to gain the privilege of expanding all one's aspirations and ambitions, no matter who he might be. But as Rome was always busy in maintaining her possessions in all the four corners of the world, she cared more about bringing up her children in the arena than in the school, and the educational department was a private undertaking. Still, there was some sort of an education, and under Christianity Rome became the real educator of the world. Italy's schools and colleges in the beginning of the Middle Ages were renowned all over the world.

VI.—THE NORSEMEN.

Along both sides of the straits of the Baltic there once lived a people known as the Norsemen. That great Teutonic race was the only one which became the tutor of Europe, demonstrating the power of education. In character they were knights of chivalry; in valor they had no equals; their tribes routed the Romans by land under the leadership of Hermann, while their kinsmen, the Danes, raided the isles of the Britons, the mighty fortress of the Romans. The Danes were a seafaring people and ruled the waves from ocean to ocean, and long before Columbus discovered this blessed country the Norsemen had been here to place their advance posts.

Their religion was in some respect the same as that of the Greeks, but had a more serious aspect. Their Odin (the same as in Hebrew and Chaldean Adon, which means the Lord) was not of the brutal character of a Jupiter, who killed his own children. Odin was, as Carlyle says, a man, a leader, a teacher, who invented the Runes, the Scandinavian Alpha Beth. Their Valkyrs were not demoralized demigoddesses, like Venus, but were brave maidens with a spear in one hand and the shield of morality in the other. Their Gambrinus was not a riotous character like the Bacchus of the Greek; he was a social and amiable person—a trait still visible in the offspring of the Norsemen when they gather round the cup. Runes were not, like the writings of other nations, imitations or a modified Alpha Beth, after the model of the Phœnicians, but were the letters of their Alpha Beth bearing the stamp of native self-culture. Odin, the teacher and inventor of those Runes appeared in his rôle among the Norsemen 70 B. C. The simplicity of the Runes, in form, and the ethics of the Norse lore as embodied in the Edda, the Scandinavian Scripture, leads one to suspect that the great Odin was a Chaldean, cast away on the shores of Scandinavia to become the educator of that noble race.

No written records have been preserved to tell of their educational work, but there are left living samples, and by the deeds of the offspring from the Norsemen we can see the consequences of their educative ability.

As Odin was the inventor of the Runes, which were the best medium of education, so, according to the Norse lore, he also invented poetry. Indeed the legend only foreshadows who were the people following in Odin's footsteps as educators. These were, among the Scandinavians, the Scalds; among the Germans, the Bards, the Minnesingers, whose sweet melodies reechoed throughout the great German Empire.

Those poet-singers have with their songs educated in a delightful manner the children of the mighty in their castles as well as those of the peasants. Through such mediums—poetry and those singers—the knowledge required was distributed to all alike. That was the way of education among the noble Norsemen whom some historians delight to style ignorant barbarians. Fortunately, divine Providence has preserved their deeds, through which we may come to know them better.

MOSAIC EDUCATIONAL LAWS.

I.—MOSES IN THE LAND OF THE CHALDEANS.

The Bible may describe the Hegira of Moses and make him shelter himself under the roof of a noble priest of Midian, a short distance from Egypt; a legend of the Jewish folklore may place him in the land of Cush, in Abyssinia, as a king ruling there forty years, marked by a peculiar love affair with a dark-brown princess; still, we, by virtue of his deeds, his knowledge, and assisted by some hints of Rabbinical tradition, are of the opinion that his forty years of exile were spent among the Chaldeans, and a man is better known by his deeds than by his fame or name. We will group and array our witnesses. They are:

1. His religious views.
2. His geographical knowledge.
3. His educational laws.
4. His peculiar laws concerning women.

First, then, in regard to his religious views: Mosaic Jehovah *v.* Hebraic Elohim.

When Moses appeared as a redeemer among the Hebrews, in Egypt, the Elohist party was mostly composed of those native Hebrews who followed the patriarch into bondage from their native land of Canaan. The other was the Jehovistic party, who clung to the Chaldean religious opinions, as imported by the Chaldean patriarch, Abraham. It was not exactly that the direct descendants of the patriarch were Jehovistic or the descendants of the others Elohistic, the confusion of their religious views made a party issue not dependent upon the lineage by genealogy. The Elohist were in the majority, hence the great opposition which Moses met with when he first made his appearance among them. When he first proclaimed the name of Jehovah they were so ignorant of it as to doubt his mission, for they had a tradition that Elohim would remember them.

Moses's geographical knowledge, which could accurately outline every hill, mountain, and stream extending from the border of that country where he intended to establish his great Hebrew Empire to the Euphrates, could not have been acquired by studying a map, which was not at that time in existence, but only by traveling through the places he described. His hostility to the patriarchal institutions, and breaking up of the family and tribal sovereignty, placing the power in a central concentrated force, goes to show that he must have known the Chaldeans' ways and their belief in a centralized government.

His disfranchising of women and excluding them from public as well as from domestic rights was another blow to the Elohist, who looked upon the weaker sex as superior beings, the patriarch having been told by Elohim himself to do anything which Sara should say.

The attitude of Moses toward women was the same as the attitude of the Chaldeans toward them. Moreover, the Rabbinical traditions hint plainly that Moses knew or was in the land of the Chaldeans. The book of Job is accredited to Moses as the author, and that he wrote it purposely in Egypt to show the great confidence of the afflicted man in God and how by faith he was rewarded. The simple, yet poetical style and expression of the book, the manifestation of foreign, scientific views, combined with a local knowledge of Egypt, reveal the author and show it to be one of the scriptures of Moses. Looking upon the book, we must say that it is only a propaganda, advocating the Jehovistic religion and praise of the

astronomical knowledge for which the Chaldeans were famous. His idea was to demonstrate and illustrate the faith in Jehovah, not in Elohim. For that reason the author created a dramatic person, Job by name, whose wealth was plundered by the Chaldeans (the mention of the Chaldeans is suspicious). The scene in heaven, where Elohim gives a reception to the sons of Elohim, and entertains with them Satan (a person never mentioned in Jehovistic prophets), looks somewhat like a satire on the Elohist cult. The chapters from the first to the thirty-eighth deal with Job's terrible affliction, and the more terrible consolations, by dispute and argument, of his friends, and during the whole controversy, of a speculative philosophical character, the names of Elohim or Shadai are not mentioned. Failing by their waste of words to help to console or to convince that poor afflicted Job, they seem to retire to where they came from, and from the thirty-eighth chapter to the end Jehovah has the floor and from the midst of a storm he argues with Job, not with poetical words and a speculative "perhaps," but with plain words and plainer facts, based on the phenomena of the solar system and its planetary wonders (such astronomy as was taught by the Chaldeans). Job was, through such facts and array of natural phenomena, converted, convinced of the power of Jehovah and he became a Jehovist, and, through his conversion Jehovah again restored to him his health and wealth. This is an outline of the drama of poor Job, and it seems to have been written in a missionary style for the purpose of converting the readers to the Jehovistic cult, and its author could not have been any other than Moses.

Having established in a general outline the relation of Moses to the Chaldeans, we shall give a detailed account of his educational works, which will make that relation more distinct.

II.—MOSES AND THE BIBLE.

Those who think of Moses as a founder of religion, and his Bible as a religious book, do not fully comprehend the matter. Moses is still called by the Jews "Moshe Rabbina," a term which means, Moses, our teacher. The Bible has no claim to being a religious book, so far as we understand religion to be that religious touch which links us to Infinity, as by prayer, and the belief in the immortality of the soul is not to be found in the whole Scriptures. Nay, more; among the 613 laws there is not one regarding prayer, that foundation of religion. On the contrary, Moses, differing from others, forbade them to build any place of worship except the one place which Jehovah should select. (As among the Chaldeans, whose policy of centralization led them to have only the temple at Babel.) The Bible is an educational code, and its history is the history of education. In order to understand the Scriptures better let the actions of Moses's educational work serve as a commentator.

III.—MOSES BREAKING PATRIARCHAL SYSTEMS AND TRADITIONS.

Moses found the patriarchal traditions relating to the creation and to the deluge in the Elohist style, ascribing all the events to Elohim. Not being able to root those legends out of the minds of the Hebrews, which seemed to be in their blood, he made additions of other versions with a Chaldean color.

To the first chapter of Genesis, where it mentions how Elohim created a couple, he added another chapter of creation how Jehovah created man from dust and his wife from his rib. In the patriarchal Elohist version woman's equality with man is plainly indicated, while in the monotheistic Jehovistic narrative the degradation of woman is shown.

In the first chapter of the deluge Elohim requests Noah to bring into the Ark of every creature a pair, without distinction of clean and unclean, while in the Mosaic version Jehovah tells him to bring in from the clean animals 7 pairs, and from the unclean 1 pair. In legislating that man shall forsake his father and mother to cling to his wife he broke and removed the power of parents and patriarchal government, by that law placing the sacred personal liberty above obedience. The only concession he made to the Hebrews was in respect to the firstborn, whom, however, he soon deprived of their rights.

IV.—MOSES HOISTED THE CHALDEAN EMBLEM INSTEAD OF THAT OF ELOHIM, AND REMOVED THE HEBREW ALPHA BETH, REPLACING IT BY THAT OF THE CHALDEANS.

When the prophet speaks of Elohim, mentioning his angels, he describes the latter with calf's legs (see Ezek., chap. 1). The Apocrypha tells of Bel in Babel, that he was a monster serpent. The calf was the emblem of Elohim, the serpent was the emblem of Jehovah. When the Hebrews made a golden calf, they simply hoisted the Elohistic emblem, their request to Aaron being, "Make us an Elohim." When Moses came down he destroyed the calf, killed the rebels, and hoisted Jehovah's emblem, the serpent, on high, requiring the Hebrews to look upon that. As the body of the firstborn ones played a great rôle in the Elohistic plot he broke their power entirely, placing it in the hands of a selected body of teachers, the priests and the Levites. Another step in educational reform was taken when he removed the old Hebraic Phœnician Alpha Beth, with its zigzag letters, and replaced it by the simple, readable Chaldean Alpha Beth, with its plain quadrat letters.

The Talmud says Moses gave the ten commandments with an Egyptian word (Anohi, I am) with Chaldean letters, and in the Hebrew tongue. That Chaldean style of writing was a great educational medium for diffusing the knowledge to all.

V.—SELECTING TEACHERS.

In appointing judges Moses did away with the patriarchal power, centralizing it in the hands of the law. He employed the same method in education, selecting a special body of teachers, the priests and the Levites, whose aim should be to teach. As he says, "They, those of the tribe of Levi, shall teach thy laws to Jacob and the knowledge to Israel." In order that they might be devoted to their profession, he did not allow them by the law to have any earthly possessions, such as houses and lands. As they were the teachers of the people their income was from the people in the shape of the tithe from the land and from the flocks. Moses, like the Chaldeans, thought that women were emotional and unfit for teaching serious subjects of a scientific character. They were good for telling tales and stories, but not for higher practical teachings, hence he prohibited a woman from even practicing witchcraft under penalty of death. (Such was also the Chaldean law.) As the primitive science was based upon observation and practice, and as there was a demand for teachers more than for pupils, he gave them such a law—to study science. He gave them laws concerning what to eat and what not, in order to have an opportunity to study natural history. The laws of clean and unclean leprosy and other diseases forced them to study medicine and anatomy. The laws concerning the mixed plantation brought them to learn botany. But the most practical subject of study was the laws governing the calendar and the regulation of the festivals, which were regulated on the astronomical plan of the Chaldeans, even to the division of the weeks, days, and months. By such laws the teachers were educated in the branches of science, and were bound to teach the knowledge thus obtained to their pupils at large. From this standpoint the Bible is the educational code of teachers, outlining the subjects to be taught.

VI.—LAWS TO TEACH.

One of the 613 laws is a special law to teach the children. The law in question is as follows:

"Ye shall teach these laws to your children, they shall speak of them always."

Mainonides declares that in that law is included the law to teach in the sacred tongue. Another law in that line says: "That once in seven years to gather all the people, even women and children, in order that they shall hear and learn." That law is rather to indicate the necessity for religious instruction. "Tell and teach your children," is an obligatory law. It was told to the individual, the father as well as to the nation at large, so that in case there were no parents, the nation took the parental responsibility of educating the children. Instead of the old patriarchal

folklore and tales, Moses legislated on subjects to be taught, one history, the other geography, as is to be seen plainly in his request to "Remember the days of yore, to mark the years of generation (history), to ask thy father to tell you; thy elders to explain how the Most High has settled the nations, dividing the sons of man in fixing the borders of nations (geography)." That was the corner stone which the great educator, Moses, laid to his educational structure. How it has grown by other educational architects we will see in the run of history.

THE SCHOOL OF THE PROPHETS.

As soon as the Hebrews invaded Canaan, after the death of Moses, the Elohist by virtue of their majority assimilated themselves with the native Hebrews, whose language they understood and spoke. The consequence of that assimilation was the establishment of the old patriarchal government and the rule of tribal sheiks, as in the days of yore. From an educational standpoint it was the worst period in Jewish history. The adoption of the native Phœnician Alpha Beth made it difficult to study, and the establishment of the Elohist cult brought in its train the old patriarchal system of government with its endless feuds and tribal wars. The women again came to the front and the educational office was again in their hands, rearing their children on the old system in the oral traditional songs and folklore. No wonder that during the time of the Judges women, as Deborah, Jael, and others, were better educated than the sons of Israel.

The history of education since the invasion of Canaan begins with the seer Samuel, who was the founder of the famous School of the Prophets and the restorer of the Mosaic Jehovistic religion. Samuel made a step of great reform in placing the education in the hands of good, trained teachers not belonging to the Elohist ignorant sect of priests, as the children of Eli were. The consequence of the restoration of the Jehovistic religion was the centralization in the hands of an absolute king. As the first king, Saul proved unsatisfactory, he was replaced by David. The School of the Prophets was in existence during the four hundred years till the first destruction. The pupils were called "Beni Hanbijm" (Children of the Prophets). The prominent masters of that school were: Samuel, Gad, Nathan, Edow, Achyohu from Shilo, Elijah, Elisha, Jehu ben Chanani, Ebadjah, Michah ben Jimla.

That class of prophets was not the same as the authors of Scripture. The former were prophets by virtue of their training and study, while the latter were geniuses inspired by those hidden forces of nature—the marks of the genius of every age. The former distinguished themselves by deeds, the latter by words and orations. The former were strict, stern Jehovists, while among the latter some had an Elohist leaning (as Ezekiel and others). The School of the Prophets was not stationary. It was always on the move from place to place as this was the only way of distributing knowledge among the classes. It reminds one of the methods of the Scalds, the disciples of Odin. It is curious to note that the first founder of that school, Samuel, was called "Roe," a term which means the seer in the clouds, while Gad and Edow were called "Chosim," which means stargazers. It seems that in progress of time some of the masters had established colleges, as the name of Edow's College, "Midrash Edow," in whose archives were chronicled the events and history of the reigning kings. The result of that educational department could best be seen in the fact that when King David reorganized the caste of the priests and Levites he appointed, under the direction of Heiman, 288 teachers of music. In spite of that, the gates of education were still blocked to the people by the hieroglyphic Phœnician Alpha Beth, which was without vowels and punctuation. The Talmud tells us that when Joab, the commander in chief to David, was ordered to make war on Amalek with the instruction to kill and to wipe out all the remembrance (Seicher) of Amalek as the law says, he went and killed only the males. When questioned about it he replied that his teacher taught him to wipe out the males (Sachor). Such a misreading and misunderstanding was due to the Phœnician Alpha Beth, which had

neither vowels nor punctuation. This shows what an important rôle the simple quadrat Alpha Beth of the Chaldeans played in the education of the Hebrews.

I.—FROM THE BUILDING OF THE TEMPLE TO THE EXILE.

The building of the Temple and the reorganization of the priesthood as teachers, which promised to develop education, was also only a promise and of short duration. For no sooner had King Solomon closed his eyes than the unruly party of the Elohistes rose as one man, and the ten tribes under the leadership of Jeroboam hoisted Elohim's emblem—that of the Golden Calf. That the separation was from a purely Elohist point of view we can see by the party issue of its platform, as proclaimed by Jeroboam: "To thy tents, O Israel," which means a restoration of home rule, placing the right over life and death in the hands of parents and tribal sheiks. In spite of the fact that the Elohist government tolerated to a certain extent the Jehovistic School of the Prophets, the outlook for education was a gloomy one, as it was tempered indirectly by the prophets and priests of Baal. The educational development among the other two tribes who still maintained a Jehovistic sham religion was at a standstill, and during the four hundred years of the Temple's existence the priests were renowned for their blessed ignorance. During that long, sad period of four dark centuries we find only one Jehovistic king, Jehosaphat, who tried to reorganize the priests and Levites, as teachers, as Moses founded them. He, that king, says the Chronicle, sent out the priests and Levites among the people, and with them the book of the written laws of Jehovah, to visit all the cities in Judah to teach among the people. A deplorable case of ignorance can be illustrated: When the High Priest Chilkijah found an old book of Moses in the Temple he could not read it, and gave it to Shapan, the scribe, who, by advice of the King Joshijahn, brought it to the Prophetess Childa for interpretation. It is probable that it was one of the ancient early books of the law, which was written in simple, plain letters with regular vowels and punctuation in the Chaldean Alpha Beth, hence neither the high priest nor the scribe could read it.

To sum up the history of the Jews during the first four hundred years from the building of the Temple to its destruction, we will find that education was better developed under the Jehovistic religion than under the patriarchal system of the Elohist cult. No wonder that the great Jehovistic prophet, Jeremiah, advocated the invasion of the Chaldeans, who were Jehovists, and he called their King Nebuchadnezzar the servant of Jehovah. The reason for this was that even the last two tribes had come to be worshipers of Elohim. (It is now understood why Nebuchadnezzar favored the author of the Lamentation.) Even the Talmud says "The Almighty did a charitable work in exiling the Hebrews into the land of the enlightened Chaldeans."

II.—IN THE SCHOOL OF THE CAPTORS.

Dr. Karples, the present famous Jewish historian, is surprised that the Jews, who were ignorant heathens when they were led into captivity, came out as learned sages after a short stay there. This need not be surprising, as it is probable that they were compelled to be educated by their captors, or were so impressed with the educational institutions of the country that they were indirectly forced to adopt them, as the square Aramic Chaldean Alpha Beth was the best medium for reaching them.

From tablets preserved at the British Museum, to which my attention was called by Dr. Cyrus Adler, of the Smithsonian Institution, we gather that the Chaldeans had, to a certain extent, a regular system of education, assuming the form of educational suffrage. There is a tablet which may be called the exercise or lesson of some Babylonian lad in the age of Nebuchadnezzar. It consists of a list of the kings belonging to the early dynasties, which he had to learn by heart. The fragment of an old primitive folkstory which once formed a part of the First Reader of a lesson book for the nursery shows that the teaching of the child began at the age of 6. The

story therein is this: A foundling was picked up in the streets and taken from the mouths of the dogs and ravens, to be adopted by the king as his own son.

The vast libraries for which Babylon was famous were open to the public, and were placed in the temples by order of the king, which shows that the Chaldeans were educated under the control of the government. As a proof of educational suffrage might be mentioned the fact that one of the librarians was the son of "an irrigator," a child of an unskilled laborer. This is a proof of how and to what extent education was spread among the Chaldeans. No wonder that the Hebrews became enlightened in the land of their captors, which was their school. The Talmud says that the Jews brought from Babylon the names of the angels, as well as the names of the months. By the former we understand the religious views, while by the latter they meant the astronomical science of the calendar. In addition, they adopted the Aramic Chaldean Alpha Beth, with its square letters, and probably had nationalized the educational system of the Chaldeans with many modifications according to the demands of the times and circumstances.

EDUCATIONAL REFORM BY THE GREAT SYNOD, UNDER EZRA THE SCRIBE.

Ezra the Scribe, or, as he is called by the Persian King Artaxerxes, "the Scribe of the Law," at the return from the exile, called a congress of restoration, known as "The Great Synod." This body was composed of 120 members, among them prominent prophets, such as Malachi, Chagi, and Zecharje. The object was to show to the people at large how the chain of tradition was unbroken from Moses to the elders, from the elders to the prophets, and from the prophets to the great synod. Ezra's aim in calling that famous congress was to promote a universal education, as the book says of him, "Ezra has prepared his heart to explain the law of Jehovah and to teach in Israel law and justice."

The first thing that body did was to revise the Bible in accordance with the Jehovistic tradition, and many a book has experienced alteration, while some were excluded from the canon entirely.

The next step was of great educational importance, namely, the adoption of the Chaldean Alpha Beth, and the addition of the five letters, m, n, z, p, ch, which were written at the end of words. The restoration of the Chaldeans' well-regulated and easily read Alpha Beth was of far-reaching benefit to educational development among the people, so that the Talmud glorifies Ezra, making him equal with Moses, being worthy that the law should have been given through him. The grateful Talmud also acknowledges the merit of the great synod, in saying that they restored the crown to its ancient glory. It weaves a sacred garland of tradition around the art of writing, declaring that the art of writing and that of engraving were created on the last day of creation, on the Friday at twilight, thus giving an air of divinity to these sciences, uplifting them to the highest standard of spirituality, and making them the distinguishing mark between the divine man and the lower human being.

By declaring human authority superior to the law they have removed the dead letter, which was a stumbling-block to progress, and enabled the living authorities to act according to the requirements of time and circumstances.

By revising the Bible, declaring only twenty-four books of early inspiration, and shutting out the rest from the canon as "outside books" (apocrypha), they opened the gates of knowledge to everyone, since only scientific skill was required, and not prophetic miracles.

By breaking the power of the priestly caste, in taking out of their hands the judicial as well as the educational offices, they gave an opportunity to every citizen to strive for these places.

The proclamation of the oral law as the real esoteric meaning of the written law—as they said that "eye for eye, tooth for tooth," of the Mosaic law means money fines—has made man more divine and God more humane.

The appointment of a supreme court of 71 members, qualified for that exalted

position only by knowledge, regardless of birth or family disgrace, did away with the patriarchal system of government and the right of might. Nay, more, the members of the supreme court, who had jurisdiction over the whole nation, who were known as the "Sanhedrim," were required to have as qualification the universal knowledge, not only of the Jewish jurisprudence, but also the most living languages and their literatures, so that the whole body, as one man, should know the seventy tongues spoken at that time by the human race. Even an understanding of the black art, or magic, was required of the member of the Sanhedrin. The declaration that a sage is mightier than a prophet, and that by the power of wisdom the Almighty created the world, gave a value to universal knowledge superior to that of the written law of Moses.

With the exception of the Samaritans, whom they fought to the knife, all nations, without distinction of creed or religion, were invited to eat from the tree of knowledge—to be as the gods.

They declared, in the Talmud, that even a heathen, if he studies the law, is higher than a high priest who goes into the Holy of Holies. In another place they say that a bastard a sage is superior to the high priest. Such declarations show that the charitable desire was to extend the blessings of knowledge and education even to non-Israelites. Indeed, the various disputes about religious and scientific topics recorded in the Talmud between learned Jews and Romans, Persians, Chaldeans, and Greeks, where the latter displayed a knowledge of Jewish literature equal to the rabbis, show that they must have accumulated that knowledge through the hospitality of the Jews, by whom it was regarded as a law that they should extend education to everyone. Through such a broad view of education an avenue was opened by which even the pagans could enter the sanctuary, regardless of lineage.

The following may be cited as an illustration, taken from the Talmud: "It was a custom, when the high priest on Atonement Day left the sanctuary unhurt, for the people to give him an ovation as a congratulation upon his coming out safely. Once, while the people were cheering the high priest, the two noted Shmaye and Abtalyon, who were in direct succession to the great synod in the eighth generation, happened to pass by. The former was the Nasi (spiritual prince), the latter Ab Beth Din (president of the Sanhedrim). The crowd, beholding them, left the high priest and followed the sages, cheering them, who were the children of converted heathens. The high priest felt humiliated, and when he met the sages he saluted them, saying, 'Let the sons of heathens come to peace,' alluding to their lineage. They replied satirically, 'Let the sons of heathens come to peace who do the work of Aaron, and let not the sons of Aaron come to peace who do not do his deeds.'" This is the best illustration of what an exalted position education had given them, regardless of their lineage.

The great reform work of that famous congress, which lasted in continuous session for many years, was solely devoted to education, and every work, no matter of what character, had an educational bearing.

The municipal government was taken from the hands of the Elders and placed in the hands of the "Seven Best Men of the Town," elected by the people. These men were under the control of the Ab Beth Din, the head of the city court, whose special duty, besides executing justice, was to care for the educational department of the town. (Such a court in an ordinary town consisted of three members, while in the capitals of the provinces the body consisted of twenty-three members with the power of passing the death sentence.)

The Temple, which, at the time of the exile, had had the appearance of a huge animal slaughterhouse, was rebuilt and made the center of the federal government with various departments, of which one was a department of education, caring for the maintenance of the higher colleges as well as the public schools for the children in Jerusalem. The Temple was placed under the control of a nonpriest, who had the title of "Ish Habaith" (the lord of the mansion—"major-domo"), who, in turn,

was under the control of the Sanhedrim. The high priest, seven days before the Atonement Day, was handed over to two sages, nonpriests, pupils of Moses (which means Jehovists), selected by the Sanhedrim to be trained and drilled for the religious performance. The priests who were instituted by Moses as healers, by the decree of the great synod, ceased to be such. The reason for this was that the priests were not allowed by the law to come into contact with a corpse, and as the science of healing is based upon the knowledge of anatomy, which the priest could not study, that science was cultivated in the colleges by nonpriests, and when graduated, they were recognized as *Rofim* (healers). From these *Rofim* one was selected as the "Healer of the Temple," whose duties were the same as those of the modern board of health. The lepers, or other people suffering from skin diseases, who, in former days were cast off from the camp, and were not allowed to join in the Easter feast, being declared by the priests unclean, after the progress of science, says the Talmud, went a day before Easter to the surgeon, who made an operation on them, removing certain worms from under the discoloration, and they were then declared clean and allowed to join in the Easter celebration. By ordering certain prayers and benedictions, the great synod denounced, indirectly, the mode of worship by sacrifice. The famous Lord's Prayer is to be found in the Talmud, with a slight alteration, bearing the air of antiquity. By means of prayers, the great synod gave the Jews that which Moses lacked—a religious education. The decree to build in every habitable place a *Beth Hadneseth* (a house of worship) and a *Beth Humidrash* (college and public library) was of great educational importance. The former gave an idea of Him who is everywhere present, and not only in the Temple; the latter increased the desire for reading. The Talmud says that the great synod fasted twenty-four days, praying that school-teachers and book writers and authors should never accumulate wealth from their profession so that they would be bound by circumstances to live up to a high standard. National congresses for educational purposes were convened ten times in ten different places after the great synod, adding reforms according to time and place. After the great synod there follows an unbroken line of couples or pairs, as registered in the book, *The Sayings of the Sires*. The bearer of the first name was always the *Nasi* (the Prince) while his companion was *Ab Beth Din* (president of the court or Sanhedrim). Rabbi Gamaliel, at whose feet the great Apostle Paul sat as a pupil, was one of the last couples.

The work of the great synod is preserved in the gnomic sayings which they left, in the "Sayings of the Sires," "Be patient in judgment," "Bring forth many pupils and make a fence to the law." Upon that saying, the grand, towering structure of the Talmud was built.

THE TALMUD.

The Talmud, that great written museum containing untold treasures of a civilized world of six bygone centuries, that wonderful and universal encyclopedia, which, with the *Mishna* and *Midrash*, which follow in its train, presents twice as many volumes as the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, that wonderful book, which Orthodox Judaism considers so sacred, written by the inspiration of the Holy Ghost, is not the work of a few individuals, but a work of great scientific importance. It is a work by the whole Jewish nation, as well as by others who indirectly contributed to that remarkable gazette of the world.

The great synod laid the first corner stone to that unparalleled structure, and it was finished a short time before the *Hegira* of Mohammed. Its various editors in chief, as Rabbi Johannes (who was the first editor of the Jerusalem Talmud), Rabbi Akiba, Rabbi Jehuda, Hanasi (the Prince), who was the editor of the *Mishna*, were great historians as well as famous scientists. Its contributors were recruited from all the rank and file of society. You will find a contribution from a plain, modest, unskilled laborer, who made his livelihood as a burden carrier, next to an essay of the great Rabon Gamaliel, a homiletic explanation from a rabbi next to a story of a mermaid by an old, experienced tar; a sketch of plant life by a simple farmer

arrayed in line with an essay about medicinal anatomy by a famous medical sage. Not only Jews and early Jewish Christians are among its numberless contributors, but even pagans have acquired some place in its vast volumes. There are contributions from Sadducees, Epicureans, Romans, Persians, and Chaldeans, whose opinions are published even though they are not in harmony with the Talmudical faith or creed. The Talmud is a free trader in thought, its motto being "To know." It wants to know what the Almighty has done since he created the world, and is also eager to know what Rabbi Akiba did when he shut himself up privately with a noble Roman matron. It displays a fair method of criticism, free from any prejudice or favoritism, and there is not a saint on earth or an angel in heaven who is not made the target of the sharp arrows of true criticism. Even Moses is arraigned before the Talmudical bar, which criticises his conduct. Honor is given to whom honor is due, even though he be an opponent. Balaam, who was hired to curse the Jews, is, according to the Talmud, greater in prophecy than Moses.

The Rabbis, in dispute with Gentile sages, frankly admit the truth of the statements of the latter, if their arguments on the subject discussed were logical.

In poetry, the Talmud surpasses the *Iliad* of Homer, its vast volumes being one grand, long epic song, describing the heroic struggle of the giants of brain who fought the mighty gods of the mountains, as well as the gods of the valleys; the dreadful Druids, as well as the fearful demons. It is a tale of the struggle between light and darkness; between education and ignorance, with the final victory of the schoolmaster.

From an historical point of view, the Talmud may be taken as the record of historical deeds. We can get more information about the Hermit Kingdom of the Nile from it than from 10,000 mummified cats recently dug out from its shores at an enormous expense.

It is a pity that the Talmud has never been made accessible to the scientific world

I.—THE TWO TALMUDS.

Like the Hebrew religion, which is divided into two parts, the Elohistic and the Jehovistic cults, so the Talmud is divided into two parts, the Jerusalem Talmud and the Babylonian Talmud. In spite of the distinctive names there were many Babylonian contributors to the Jerusalem Talmud and many Jerusalem contributors to the Babylonian Talmud. From an educational standpoint, the Jerusalem Talmud is superior to that of Babylon, not only in age, but also in educational principles. The Jerusalem writers endeavored to train the tongue, while the Babylonians aimed to exercise the brain and mental faculties. Both Talmuds are prototypes of the two kinds of Jews, corresponding to the two kinds of religion. The Talmud of Jerusalem has a Jehovistic caste, with liberal toleration toward the Elohist, especially toward the early Jewish Christians, of whom many were in the ranks of its contributors. It is liberal, yet its liberality does not extend over the national border. It reminds one of Peterism of the early Christian period. The Babylonian Talmud has a broader view and has a cosmopolitan tendency, more like St. Paul. Like Paul, the Babylonian Talmud proclaims a heavenly Jerusalem, and, curiously enough, we there find the "missing link" between their views about non-Israelites. To the Babylonian Talmudist, as mentioned in former chapters, the pagan sage who studies the law is superior to the high priest who does not. Paul uttered the words: "If God wants children from Abraham, he can bring them forth from stones." Those who are acquainted with the methods of argument used in the Babylonian Talmud will find a striking resemblance between it and the arguments of Paul. Since Paul came from Tarshish, he must have had a Babylonian education; and also in the school of Gamaliel the Babylonian system was adopted, he (Gamaliel) having been one of the disciples of the great Babylonian, Hillel, whose deeds and teachings resemble those of Christ, who lived one hundred years later.

The Epistles of Peter are written in the style of the Jerusalem Talmud; he was probably trained after the Jerusalem method.

The Talmud of Jerusalem is like the Oriental Jew, while the Babylonian Talmud is the model of a Russian Jew in all his ways and manners.

The Jerusalem Talmud is written in a very plain style, leaving the impression that it was written by people of a high education, people who laid stress upon system and order—the indications of education. Its laws are paragraphed like a modern law book and its sentences are brief and to the point. More care is given to the rhetoric and drilling of the tongue than to the exercise of the brain. It lacks any speculation, and a dim gloom is cast upon it. The same can be said of the Oriental Jew, who is the outcome of his native Palestinian Talmud. To him, "words, words, and words" are more important than reason, and, like his Talmud, he moves in a narrow traditional circle of nationality. Like his Talmud, which condemns every speculation in physical research, he lacks that vigor of brain which has made the Occidental Hebrew, especially the Russian and Polish Jews, famous.

The Babylonian Talmud is the Eidolon of the Russian and the Polish Jew, with whom it grew near the Euphrates and the Tigris. The Russian and Polish Jews are descendants of the Babylonian Jews who entered Europe through Persia and the Caspian Sea. The Russian Jew is of an erratic nature, always of speculative turn, whether in matters of religion or matters of business. He is broad minded and sharp, yet his life is generally in a chaotic state, without order or system. If a Russian Jew is asked a question, instead of replying he will ask you another question, and in conversation he will take a long journey of talk until he at last wanders to the point. He will eat pork, yet, in spite of the fact that he is a lawbreaker, he will fast on the Atonement Day. He is a materialist in the full sense of the word, yet he possesses the mystic inclinations of a Mahatma. His Talmud (the Babylonian) is of the same character. In appearance, the Russian Jew is chaos itself. For him, every subject, no matter of how small importance, must be reasoned about, argued, and analyzed down to the last atomic substance until it is acknowledged as a law. In that respect he differs from Herbert Spencer, who says there is no chemistry for thought. When the Talmud begins to treat of a law—for instance, whether a ship is liable to house leprosy—it never comes to the point, but will wander through the Seven Heavens on high and the Seven Chambers of the Inferno until it comes back again to the starting point, and will then decide, after having employed all the resources of knowledge, that a ship is not a house.

The Babylonian Talmud might be likened to Faust, who wanted to be a saint in the heavenly Jerusalem and at the same time an Epicurean on the earth. It calls the Nazir, who vows to abstain from wine, a "sinner." Life, according to it, is a nuptial celebration, and is looked at from its brightest side. Even Satan appears therein as a gentleman. It approves of slang, which is expressive, though it often rises to the highest point in poetry. A sublime thought will be immediately followed by a vulgar expression, which fact once caused a refined millionaire, Ben Elasha, to leave the house of Jehuda at a nuptial feast. The Babylonian Talmud regards the exercise of the brain as superior to anything else, and he who can produce 150 reasons for purifying the rat, which Moses declared "unclean," is called a sage. He who would be a rabbi had to pass through such a brain examination before receiving his diploma. To speak in the words of the Talmud, they studied 300 kinds of laws upon the subject of "flying lover in the air" (could they have known of balloons?).

No matter how much the two Talmuds disagree, upon one point they agree—that education is the highest attainment of man; and both have mercilessly disfranchised the ignorant from many social rights to which any human being would naturally be entitled.

II.—DISFRANCHISEMENT OF THE IGNORANT.

The ignorant were, by the laws of the Talmud, expelled from the earthly social sphere, as well as from the heavenly, where a merciful God grants a shelter to any erring soul. Not only was he considered ignorant who could not himself read and

write, but he who had children and brought them up without education was also called ignorant. They were deprived of the following privileges:

1. No witness should be delivered to them, nor
2. Should they be accepted as such.
3. No secret should be told them.
4. They could not be appointed as apotropies (guardians) for orphans or managers of the charitable institutions.
5. They could not be taken as traveling companions.
6. What they lost could not be advertised (it was the custom to advertise "lost and found" articles through a herald).

A man, says the Talmud, who gives his daughter to an ignorant person does the same as though he bound her and gave her to a lion. Every calamity which comes upon a country is due only to the ignorant, according to Rabbinical ideas. A good illustration is found in the records of the Talmud, which shows to what a degree hatred against ignorance was carried: "Once," so says the Rabbinical history, "there was a famine in the land, and the benevolent, spiritual prince, Rabbi Jehuda, called the Saint, the editor of the Mishna, opened his granaries with the notice that those who were versed either in the Scripture, or in the oral law, or in the folklore, or in any educational branch were invited to come and be fed. Rabbi Jonathan ben Amram forced his way in, and when he was asked by Rabbi Jehuda, 'Do you know the Scripture?' 'No,' was the reply. 'Do you know the oral law?' 'No,' he answered. He was given food, but when he went out the Rabbi groaned, saying, 'Woe to me, that I gave from my bread to one who was ignorant!'"

The ignorant person, says the Talmud, will not be resurrected. A man shall always sell all his belongings to marry the daughter of a sage. If not, let him marry the daughter of the president of a library or of a synagogue. If he can not find such, he shall try to marry the daughter of the president of the United Charity. If he can not find such, he shall marry the daughter of the schoolmaster, and not the daughter of an ignorant man. On the same page the Talmud declares that an ignorant person is not allowed by the law to eat any kind of meat. In another place it declares that the ignorant are out of place in society and unfit for witnesses.

One rabbi went so far as to proclaim that if it were not for the sake of commerce the ignorant people ought to be killed. (This reminds one of Plato, who wanted in his Ideal State to have only able-bodied and able-minded citizens, while the rest were to be mercilessly shut out.)

In the same degree as the ignorant are despised, the wise are exalted. A sage who falls, says the oral law, should not have his shame made public. He who teaches the son of his friend knowledge, says the Talmud, will sometime be seated in the heavenly college of wisdom, and he who teaches the son of an ignorant person will have power to nullify even the decrees of the Almighty. A sage is, according to the Talmud, superior to the King of Israel, for if the sage dies we can hardly find one like him, but if the King dies every Israelite is fit for the position. The Talmud called the Persian Empire an "unworthy" one, because they had no national Alpha Beth and no grammar. (They adopted both of these from the cultured Medes.)

Everyone is requested by the oral law to salute a sage, even from the heathens, when passing by, by standing up. Rab. Dimi, from Nahardai in Babylou, brought figs once in a boat to the market. The Exilearch (Reish Gola, the prince of the Exile) said to Raba, "Go and inquire if he is a learned man; then give the permit for the market." That illustrates what privileges the learned men enjoyed in the estimation of the editors of the Talmud. The Talmud even says that it would be better to neglect the service of the Lord than to give up the knowledge of the law.

RABBINICAL EDUCATIONAL LAWS.

In spite of the fact that the educational system of Palestine was different from that of Babylon, still, in the general outline of the laws concerning it, both had a uniform code, with slight alterations.

Every community was compelled by the law to maintain a kindergarten—"Makri Dardeki" (teacher of children). Besides these, the community was compelled by the law to maintain a penman, "Sofer" (scribe), whose duty it was to teach the children the art of writing.

A community was compelled to maintain:

1. A synagogue.
2. A beth hamidrash (a public library).
3. A bath house.
4. A kindergarten.
5. A public school.
6. A city penman.
7. A city physician.
8. A public toilet house.
9. A charitable institution.

In the community which had not the above institutions a learned man was not allowed to live.

The teachers of the kindergarten and of the public schools were paid by the city treasurer, who was under the control of the seven best men of the city (Shivat Tobei Hair), corresponding to our modern city fathers. The colleges were maintained by donations from rich private professors and by college fees.

I.—THE TEACHER.

The teacher must be of good, moral reputation, and married. Bachelors and women were disqualified by the law from being teachers in public schools or in kindergartens. In regard to his pedagogic knowledge, the Palestinians laid more stress upon educational ability and in possessing a good method of pronunciation, while the Babylonians cared more for their learning. A Galilean was not qualified for the position of teacher in a public school, nor as a reader in the synagogue by the Palestinians, while in Babylon he could get such a position, provided he possessed the quality of learned speculation. Women were excluded from the pupil's bench as well as from the schoolmaster's chair. They could neither teach nor be taught, according to the Talmudical law.

II.—THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

These were under the direct control of the city court in all matters pertaining to education, while the financial affairs were managed by the best seven elected men of the city. The schoolhouse, if it were not public property, was rented. The Rabbinical court never recognized the complaints of persons living near the school against the noise of the children which prevented them from sleeping. (It seems that they had night schools also.) The same complaint against the office of the city writer and the city physician was not recognized.

If a city was divided by a river or a stream, the parents were not compelled by the law to bring their children to the school "over the water," unless the bridge was broad and safe.

Makri Dardeki (The School of the Little Ones).—A general law of the Talmud says that when a child begins to talk its father is compelled to teach it. But there is a special Rabbinical educational standard which runs as follows: "At the age of 5, the child is to be taught reading; at the age of 10, Mishna (outlines of the oral law); at the age of 15, Talmud and universal knowledge. If the child was a healthy one, it was brought to the kindergarten at the age of 5. The class in that sort of school consisted of 25 pupils, and if there were 50 the city appointed another teacher, and if the class had only 40 pupils a helper was added. In that class the children were taught in a playing way to read the letters of the Alpha Beth in Babylonian on tablets of clay like those of the Chaldeans, and in Palestine even from rolls of parchment. The writing was required to be plain, simple, and readable, so that the

child should know how to distinguish a dâleth (ד) from a rêsch (ר) which have a resemblance in the Hebrew letters.

At the age of 6 the child was brought into the public school under the care of the "Melamed Tinoketh" (teacher of children). In the Babylonian Talmud we have a record that Raw said to Rabbi Samuel bar Shiloth, who was a teacher in the public school, "At less than 6 years of age do not receive pupils; from 6 and upward feed him with reading matter like an ox." This is the most characteristic educational system of the Babylonians, who cared more for the accumulation of learning, regardless of a systematic order of education, than the Palestinians. The school children were allowed to read the weekly portions of the Bible by the light of the lamp on Sabbath night (which was prohibited to older people).

III.—PUNISHMENT.

Bodily punishment was prohibited in Palestine by an act of the fourth synod assembled on Awsha, and neither the parents nor the teachers were allowed to punish a child until the age of 12. The Babylonians had a light bodily punishment with shoestrings. It is mentioned in the Babylonian Talmud that Raw said to Rabbi Shiloth, who was a teacher in a public school, "When thou shalt punish a child, punish him with shoestrings."

IV.—VACATIONS.

A regular vacation for children was unknown to the Talmud rabbis. For them to learn to study was above all else. "Even for the sake of building the Temple, we do not allow the children to have a vacation," says the Talmud; "and Jerusalem," claims the same book, "was destroyed because they often permitted the schoolmasters to be idle." "The world only exists for the sake of the little ones," says the Talmud. With the exception of the hours for prayer and the festivals, which required the presence of the children, their study went on without pause or rest. Often in times of calamity, as in times of pestilence and cholera, the schools were closed. It was a custom, when the country suffered from drought, to order a fast day, when the children were brought to the market place, where open prayer meetings were held, and the people implored the Most High in sackcloth and ashes, pointing to the little ones, praying, "O Lord, hear us and give us grace for the sake of these school children, who are pure from sin."

On Sabbaths and other feast days the subjects of study were of light matters—for little children, reading exercises; for college boys, homiletics.

EDUCATIONAL DUTIES OF PARENTS.

The educational duties of the parents were four in number:

- (a) The father's duty is, by the law, to bring up and rear his children (the male ones) on all the branches of knowledge, even in national folklore.
- (b) The father's duty is to teach his son a trade.
- (c) The father is even compelled to teach his son how to swim.
- (d) The father is to care for his son's religious training and education.

These are the duties of a grandfather to be fulfilled to his grandchild.

The mother's duty was only one, namely, to bring her children into the school-house and to the prayer meeting.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION.

"Religious training" is not to be found on the calendar of education, yet it is the most important item in it, and the Talmud has separated that part, placing it in the hands of the parents that they may educate that part of the child which is out of the reach of the schoolmaster, ennobling the inner feelings and the emotions of the soul. That portion of the education was in the hands of the parents, principally the father. The Talmud says that we shall accustom the child to the duties of

the laws, even to accustom it to fast. The religious training was conducted at home, not in the school. The child, by virtue of his childish notions, like all children, was eager to know about any strange ceremony which took place in the religious domestic life. For instance, the child asked the meaning of the "Mezuza" (a sort of talisman which Moses requested them to put on the doorposts). The father then explained to the child its meaning as well as its historical advent. Every feast day was an opportunity for the father to give a religious instruction to his son on that subject. For instance, at the Feast of the Tabernacles, when the family removed from the house to live for a week in a tent, the child, of course, was eager to know why, and so the father explained the reason from a religious point of view. On the night of the Passover, before the proceedings of the feast, the child asked four questions of his father in regard to the curious customs in that peculiar feast. That custom still prevails among the Polish and Orthodox Jews. The Talmud says that on the night of the Passover nuts and fruits were given to the children in order that they should be awake and listening to the history of the exodus from Egypt.

The child, according to the Jewish view, is not responsible for the religious law until the age of 13, when he is no longer a minor in religious matters. But there is one duty resting upon the shoulders of the child regardless of his age, to which he is subjected, and that is the kadish (sanctification). The kadish is a short prayer, like the Lord's Prayer, and is distinguished from other prayers, as it is said in the very ancient Aramaic language. Its antiquity is beyond any doubt. The kadish is to the Jews what the mass is to the Catholics. If one of the parents dies the child is brought morning and evening into the synagogue to recite the kadish during the first twelve months, in loving remembrance of his departed father or mother. After the elapse of the first year, the kadish is recited by the child or by the grown son each year on the day of the death of the father or the mother. The kadish can only be recited in the presence of 10 male worshipers. Even a female child is subjected to the duty of the kadish. The kadish is calculated to implant into the heart of the child the noblest seeds of gratitude, and it is a very old custom, a transfiguration of the primitive "ancestor worship." What an impression must the Rabbinical lore make upon the sensitive heart of the child, by declaring that when the child recites the kadish, and the worshipers say "Amen," the soul of the departed father or mother, to whose memory the kadish was said, is released from purgatory. The kadish is the only custom still common among all the Jews, no matter whether Reform or Orthodox. You can even find Jews who have thrown overboard the whole Mosaic religion, yet, on the day of death of their parents they will search for 10 male worshipers, and pay them for their time, in order to be able to recite in their presence the kadish. Here we see the powerful effect of that religious training. Why? Because the kadish touches the most delicate threads of the human heart, and it is not merely a religious, but a humane instinct of mankind.

On the same principle of gratitude, the child was compelled by the law, to be enforced by the father, to say the benediction after each meal and to invoke a blessing before tasting any kind of fruit.

BABYLONIAN EDUCATION.

The Babylonians, although in many respects superior to the Palestinians, as they lived in a country which had been a seat of culture from immemorial times, were inferior in regard to education in its full sense and meaning.

The Babylonians were great thinkers, but very poor philosophers. They had an education, but not a pedagogic one. They had a system, but no order. They knew all the languages spoken in the celestial realm, but were very poor linguists in the tongues spoken on the terrestrial sphere. They had school laws, but no regulations, and those which they had were methods and systems adopted from the Palestinians. The Babylonians adopted the kindergarten after the Palestinian model many centuries later than its use began in Palestine. Nevertheless, we will sketch their method,

although the execution of the regulations were different from those of Palestine. In Palestine, for instance, corporal punishment was prohibited, and even a parent could not make use of the strap until after the age of 12. Now, there is a peculiar case recorded in the Babylonian Talmud where a teacher violated that regulation and was left unpunished, as it seems that in Babylon the shoestring was the regulator. The case in question is as follows: The father of the later famous Samuel found him weeping. He asked him, "My child, why do you cry?" He replied, "My school-master kicked me." "For what?" asked his father. "Because I did not wash the hands of his son when I gave him something to eat." "Why did you not?" The child answered, "He eats and I shall wash my hands?" The father simply remarked that it was not enough that the teacher was ignorant of the law (which requires hand washing only if he eats), and he also slapped him. From that case it seems that the Babylonians tolerated the injustice of the teachers. In regard to the methods and application of teaching it was in the "Makri Dardeky" (the reading of the little ones) of the simplest manner.

ILLUSTRATION OF METHODS EMPLOYED.

The child at the age of 5 went to the "Makri Dardeky," which corresponds to our modern kindergarten. The term was one year and the class only 25 children. If more came, helpers were appointed. As in our modern kindergartens, where the children acquire the quantities of words in a playing manner without any mental strain, so in the Hebrew "Makri Dardeki" the child accumulated many words and ideas of domestic use in a pleasant way, without any mental effort. The character of the letters of the Hebrew Alpha Beth is that of an unpainted picture book, and the Alpha Beth was used for that purpose. The child was shown the two-horned letter Aleph א, which means "the Bull," the leader, the teacher. The next letter, Beth ב, means a house, as its figure resembles the primitive houses. The third letter, Gimel ג, means a camel, while the letter D or Dalit ד, means a door, because its shape resembles a door; and the letter S or Sain ס resembles a sword, with the collective meaning of "weapons," "arms," etc.

Besides words and their various meanings and applications acquired by the letters of the whole Alpha Beth during the period of one year, the child also learned to number, as the letters of the Alpha Beth, like those of the Latin, are also signs for numerals.

METHODS EMPLOYED BY THE MELAMED TINOKETH, OR IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

In the public school, under the direction of the "Melamed Tinoketh" (children's teacher), the Alpha Beth was also used in the first standard, its letters serving as poetical reading matter, the purpose being to awaken the desire of knowledge in the child, and to rouse his feelings for all that is good and noble.

The methods employed bear the stamp of simplicity, yet had great effective force. The child was taught that Aleph Beth means "Learn wisdom" (Aleph means learn; Beth is the first initial of Bina, wisdom). Gimel (g), Dalit (d), it was explained, as to help the poor. (Gimel means to reward, to extend grace and mercy; Dalit means those in poverty.) The teacher would explain that the reason the face of the Gimel was toward the back of the Dalith (in the Alpha Beth, reading from right to left, as ד (d) ג (g), was that the good man must always hunt up the poor in order to help them. Why is the face of the Dalith turned away from the Gimel? In order to receive the alms secretly, so as not to be ashamed. The next letters were explained as how God would reward the good, and is always willing to receive the wicked if he repents. The R (ר) is the initial of Racha (meaning the wicked). The K (כ) is the initial of Kadosh, the Holy One. Why is the face of the K toward the R? Because the Holy One looks after the wicked that he may repent. The Alpha Beth in the rank and file of its letters was explained to the child in its esoteric meaning.

The teacher also often combined them. For instance, the first letter, Aleph, with the last letter, Tav, and explained the combination.

The Alpha Beth served as a first reader, and the explanations were calculated to educate first the man in the child, and then the Jewish religious spirit. The Shin (ש) and the Tav (ט), for instance, were explained to the child thus: Why is the Shin, the initial of Sheka (falsehood), resting only on one stem, while the Tav rests on two? Because falsehood can not stand long, while truth stands forever.

Foreseeing the difficulties which grown students would have to encounter in later years, in facing the various contradictions, controversies, and explanations which are always the source of doubt, leading the student astray, the education was arranged to make such impressions upon the child as to form a guide in the religious labyrinth, by the aid of the Alpha Beth, which served as the first reader. The M, for instance, has a double letter, one called the "open" M (מ), and it is written at the beginning and in the middle of words. The other is termed the "closed" M (ם), and is written only at the end of words. Now, the teacher explained that the M which is the initial for Mamar (word, logos) that there is an open word and a hidden word, meaning that each sentence has an open meaning according to the plain words, and another hidden meaning, requiring a deeper study and understanding independent of the language and grammar. By such an educational method the child grew up with that impression, and, as a grown man was prevented from stumbling over the contradictions and unexplainable sentences.

In the public school the child spent from the age of 5 to the age of 10, during which time he acquired the perfect reading with the vowels and punctuations, composition, the art of writing (which was taught by the Lawler, or city penman), grammar, and homiletic explanations of the Scripture.

At the age of 10 the boy was well versed in the Bible from the first chapter of Genesis to the last of Malachi, until he knew the whole by heart and was able to construct sensible compositions without faults, when he was ripe to enter the first standard of the college where the Mishna, a brief outline of the oral law, was taught.

It was not customary to have a vacation in the public school, and the Talmud tells us that Rab Samuel bar Shiloth, who was a public school teacher, had not seen his own orchard for thirteen years, as he could not get leave of absence.

TITLES AND TERMS.

The word "teacher" has three terms in the Hebrew language, corresponding to the three different positions they occupied in the Hebrew world.

The first is Melamed, a term which means a goad, and is translated as the oxgoad. This was applied to the teacher of the public schools, Melamed Tinoketh, teacher of children, as they were goaded by the rigid will of discipline of the teacher.

The second term is More, which denotes the guide, the pointer, and the word often comes in connection with road, path. The same term was applied to the college professor and to the judge, who had only to point out the way or road which should be trod.

The third term was Aluf, a word meaning a bull, or steer, who goes before the flock. It means the leader, the prince, the king (in Arabic, the Chaliph). It means also the unit of thousand (elef), and in the Chaldean jargon, to learn. This term was applied to the director of a college or to a distinguished public man who led the people in any way. The penman who taught the art of writing, from the point of the pen, was called in the Talmudic, Chaldaic jargon, Lawler, meaning plain, penman, while the poet, or teacher of writing of a higher degree, was called Sofer, a term which means the teller, the counter, the scribe. Ezra had the title of Sofer.

Books were called the Megiloth, rolls, and Sefarim, the singular number being Sofer. It is curious that the term of Sofer, book, is mentioned in the five books of Moses, while in the prophets the term Megiloth, rolls, is to be found.

The pen was called "et," a term which means hidden, veiled. It has the same meaning as *cheret* (the instrument used by the hieroglyphists in Egypt for engraving their mysterious writings).

My friend, Judge Sulzberger, called my attention to the similarity in sound between the familiar English word, "etching," and "et," in Hebrew, and *cherat*, engraving, and the English "cut." The term "et" (pen) was used in the primitive times, when writing was not common, and the Levite poet who dedicated a psalm (Ps. 45) to King Solomon on his nuptial day prefaces his poem with the explanation that his tongue is of the et, or pen, is that of a diligent Sofer, writer-poet.

Later, about the time of the prophets, when the art of writing was more common and had spread among the people, they called the pen, in a poetical way, *koseth*, which means bow, like *kesheth*. They then began to understand the power of the pen, which was compared to the bow, and its letters to shooting arrows. The prophet Ezekiel describes the angel who was sent to mark the foreheads of the wicked dedicated to destruction as being armed with the bow of the writer on his loin (Ezekiel, ix, 4).

It was, and is still among the Orientals, the custom to wear the pen girdled on the loins like a weapon.

The pupil was called *Talmid*, or the disciplined one. The wandering scholars, who, according to the statements of the Talmud, wandered from place to place to teach, were called *Talmide chachamin* (disciples of sages). It reminds one of the wandering scalds and minnesingers of the Odin school, whom the poet Von Schöffel has immortalized as the "fahrende Schüler," wandering scholars.

A learned man who was not connected with any college had the title of *Chaber*, which means fellow, and the relation of fellowship to the college was of the same character as the English fellowship to Oxford and Cambridge.

The title of *Chaber* was also applied to the magician of the Persian type, or a snake tamer.

The graduate of a college received the title of *Rabbi*, a title which was applied to any leader of any union of workmen; even to the leader of the hangmen, who had a union among themselves. The title of *Rabbi* did not entitle its possessor to preach or teach.

The judge or the student who devoted his time to the study of law, civil or religious, was given the title of *Dajon*, judge.

An astronomer, or any learned man in a special branch of knowledge, was called a Chaldean sage, while the special medical man had the title of *Chakim* (the same as in Arabic to-day). The Talmud often calls him "Asje" (healer), probably after the name of the Essicians, that famous sect whose main object was to heal, and of whom Christ was a member (Essenes).

The title of *Rabon* (our master) was applied to the hereditary spiritual prince, who was elective also, and often the power was taken from him and placed in the hands of another.

The title of *Rabon* was also applied to various others beside the hereditary princes. *Gamaliel*, the teacher of St. Paul, had the title of *Rabon Gamliel*. The higher grade of *Rabon* was the mention of the simple name, as *Hillel*, who was the spiritual prince. *Nasi* is always mentioned by his simple name, *Hillel*, as the highest title; hence, *Moses* and the prophets are mentioned only by their proper simple names. The ranks of the doubles or pairs who succeeded the Great Synod are mentioned by their names as well as the names of their fathers, as *Simon ben Sotath* (the son of *Sotath*). The name of the father was added to that of any distinguished person who merited his fame by any great public reform, such as the great educator and high priest *Jehoshua ben Gamla*. If a sage was unmarried (which was an obstacle in the way of holding office) or some faults were found in him, he was mentioned simply as the son of this or that, as *ben Asi*, *ben Soma*—i. e., the son of *Asi*, the son of *Soma*. Both their names were *Simon*, but were omitted on account of their being bachelors and philosophers.

Synonyms are often used in the Talmud, as well as nicknames. The titles were bestowed by the professors of the colleges, and the document was written and testified to by the college seal.

The early authors of the Talmud are called Tanaim (legislators), the later contributors Amoraim (a term which means sea captains, who knew how to swim in the vast ocean of the Talmud). The term also means explainer, as they explained the laws of the Tanaim, or legislators. Those contributors who lived before the final close of the Talmud had the titles of Rabanon Saburai (rabbis of explanations). In Babylon the title of the spiritual prince was Reish Gola, the head of the exile, who got his title through hereditary election and indorsement by the Persian King. The Reish Golas, or the Exilearchs, were far inferior to the spiritual princes of Palestine, although the former executed a more forcible power. The professor of the college in Babylon had the title of Rosh Jeshiba, head of the sitting, as in previous times the students had listened standing to the lectures, and when this custom was abolished they called the college the "sitting."

When the Exilarchy was abolished, a new title was instituted, Gaon, or exalted, a title which was not appended to any office, except as the mark of great learning. One of the most noted of the exalted ones was Rabbi Saadje Gaon, the thousandth anniversary of whose death was celebrated recently in the Jewish world.

The title of Gaon was conferred upon every Jew on the Asiatic and African continents, and on a few of the Spanish Jews who were rabbis during the Moorish reign. Among the European rabbis, only one, Rabbi Elijah Gaon, from Vilna, in Russia, who lived in the eighteenth century, enjoyed the title, and is still mentioned as "the Gaon."

FROM THE GREAT SYNOD UP TO THE TIME OF JEHOShUA BEN GAMLA, THE HIGH PRIEST, OR EDUCATIONAL HISTORY OF PALESTINE.

When the Great Synod assembled at the call of Ezra the Scribe, the session lasted nearly a century, one of its members being the high priest, Simon the Righteous, who lived at the time when Alexander the Great invaded Palestine.

The work of reorganization was a tremendous one, and the synod had to battle with difficulties of numberless obstacles. The condition of Palestine after the return was not very favorable. Most of the villages were mere piles of ruins; the husbandry was in a state of perfect neglect; the country was overrun with tramps and robbers and other kindred vagabonds; the bulk of the 50,000 who returned from the exile were very poor and ignorant. But the most dangerous foe they had to battle with was the Samaritans, who showed an ugly attitude of hostility toward the Great Synod, and the delay of the building of the Temple was due only to the Samaritans who wrote slanderous letters to the kings of Persia, who had a protectorate over Palestine. In spite of all these difficulties the synod proceeded from the beginning to enact educational laws, as only through them did they hope to revive the ancient national spirit, and improve the material condition of the country. The first law on the educational code was to make the father responsible for the education of his male children; the second law was to establish schools in Jerusalem, maintained by the public treasury of the Temple. As the people for safety flocked to Jerusalem, and the building of the Temple drew a multitude of laborers, the city soon became very populous and strengthened. As soon as the building of the Temple was finished, people flocked to Palestine from the neighboring States and countries, from Egypt, Arabia, and Asia Minor. These people brought with them not only material wealth, but also the culture and civilization of the countries from which they came. Jerusalem was restored and made a national center, from which as a basis operations were extended throughout Palestine to root out those tramps and highwaymen. Order began to prevail, villages sprang up, and husbandry flourished again around the beautiful plains of En Gedi. Hand in hand with the national material progress went marching onward the educational spirit, and the educator

did the same pioneer work as the soldier. By breaking up the priestly hierarchy and by creating new offices, as the supreme court, the sanhedrim, consisting of 71 members, and the creation of the little sanhedrim for the provinces, consisting of 23 members, and the justice of the peace (beth din), of 3 members for every town, the Synod opened new avenues for the laity, spurred on by the educational spirit. (The Sanhedrim sat in the marble chamber in the Temple, having the jurisdiction over the whole nation and controlling all the educational departments and the public treasury of the Temple. No war could be declared without the sanction of that body. Trials of national importance, as that of a king or of the priest or the trial of an individual, which was of national importance, were held before the sanhedrim. The famous trial of Christ was before that body).

Outside of the Temple gate was the seat of the little sanhedrim, as in the capitals of each respective province that body was empowered to pass the death sentence in murder cases. The beth din, or the court of justice, in each town tried only civil cases.

The great knowledge, sacred as well as profane, required by the law of every office seeker, indirectly compelled them to visit schools and obtain the diploma of professor of well-reputed colleges. After the dissolution of the Great Synod, its legislative power was invested in the Sanhedrim, and from time to time synods were called to assemble when some great reform was in view.

At the time of Simon ben Sotach, who lived in the year 105 B. C., and was the president of the Great Sanhedrim and the brother-in-law of King Janai, was made the rigid law that every child must attend the school. The Babylonian Talmud gives the credit of that law to the high priest Jehoshua ben Gamla, who lived in the year 65 B. C., and was executed later by the Zealots. In history the Babylonian Talmud is unreliable, as the Babylonians had a prejudice against the Palestinians and the Alexandrians, so the attitude of the Babylonian Talmud toward Christ is different from that of the Jerusalem Talmud. No wonder that the name of Simon ben Sotach is not mentioned in the Babylonian Talmud, which has a great prejudice against his brother-in-law, the king, who, according to its narrative, was killing the sages, facts not mentioned in the Talmud of Jerusalem. The Babylonian Text concerning education runs as follows:

"For good shall be remembered the name of that man Jehoshua ben Gamla, for only for his sake the law has been preserved thus far; he who was able brought his child to Jerusalem to attend school, or he whose father was a learned man was taught the law too. So they legislated to establish schools in every capital of the respective provinces. But as this was still insufficient Jehoshua ben Gamla legislated that the children from 6 years of age must attend school in each city, town, or village."

The fact that Simon ben Sotach is not mentioned is rather surprising, and many have tried to make it appear that Simon ben Sotach legislated only for the provincial capitals while Jehoshua ben Gamla extended the law to all communities. From both Talmuds it would seem that they were not the lawmakers, but only enforced the laws already existing in regard to education in a rigid manner—as is often the case with many laws at various times in different ages and in almost every country. Why the Babylonian Talmud does not mention Simon ben Sotach and the Talmud of Jerusalem does not mention the martyr Jehoshua ben Gamla have both an inner historical reason.

At the near approach of the close of the Great Synod, Jerusalem was peopled by nearly a million inhabitants, more than the whole population of the rest of the country at that time, hence the first educational laws legislated by the synod were those relating to suffrage for the whole country, for at that time it could be said that all Palestine was in Jerusalem, as in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries it was said that all France was in Paris.

The historical evidences of the great educational power are: The six divisions of the Mishna, the two great encyclopedias of the two Talmuds, with the numberless

tractats of the Medrashim (college periodicals). Besides that vast literature, which deals with every imaginable branch of science, there were books and booklets, written at the time of the second Temple, of which all have been lost and only their authors are mentioned in the Talmuds, as "Megilath Chasidim" (book of the pious), probably the Talmud of the Essenes.

The book of Tiglath ben Lana, which the Talmud places among the Apocrypha (I believe the name of the author was only a pseudonym for one of the Apostles), "Megilath Setarim" (the Roll of the Mysteries), probably a cabalistic code, "Megiloth Jachsins" (the Roll of Genealogy), a book which was written in the style of the Biblical Chronicle, and from which the Palestinians refused to teach the Babylonians. The Apocrypha is another classical work of the time of the second Temple, whose authors tried to imitate the style and method of writing of the primitive authors of the Bible.

CHAPTER XLVII.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

[From 1867 to 1895.]

1. Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1867-68. Barnard. 8°. pp. xl+856.
2. Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on the condition and improvement of public schools in the District of Columbia. Barnard. 8°. pp. 912. Washington, 1871. (Reprinted as Barnard's Am. Jour. of Education, vol. 19.)
3. Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1870. Eaton. 8°. pp. 579. Washington, 1870.
4. ——— 1871. Eaton. 8°. pp. 715. Washington, 1872.
5. ——— 1872. Eaton. 8°. pp. lxxxviii+1018. Washington, 1873.
6. ——— 1873. Eaton. 8°. pp. clxxxviii+870. Washington, 1874.
7. ——— 1874. Eaton. 8°. pp. clii+935. Washington, 1875.
8. ——— 1875. Eaton. 8°. pp. clxxiii+1016. Washington, 1876.
9. ——— 1876. Eaton. 8°. pp. ccxiii+942. Washington, 1878.
10. ——— 1877. Eaton. 8°. pp. ccvi+641. Washington, 1879.
11. ——— 1878. Eaton. 8°. pp. cci+730. Washington, 1880.
12. ——— 1879. Eaton. 8°. pp. cexxx+757. Washington, 1881.
13. ——— 1880. Eaton. 8°. pp. cclxii+914. Washington, 1882.
14. ——— 1881. Eaton. 8°. pp. cclxxvii+840. Washington, 1883.
15. ——— 1882-83. Eaton. 8°. pp. ccxciii+872. Washington, 1884.
16. ——— 1883-84. Eaton. 8°. pp. ccclxxi+943. Washington, 1885.
17. ——— 1884-85. Eaton-Dawson. 8°. pp. ccexvii+848. Washington, 1886.
18. ——— 1885-86. Dawson. 8°. pp. xxi+792. Washington, 1887.
19. ——— 1886-87. Dawson. 8°. pp. 1170. Washington, 1888.
20. ——— 1887-88. Dawson. 8°. pp. 1209. Washington, 1888.
21. Illiteracy, derived from census tables of 1860; Educational statistics, translation of article by Dr. A. Fieker; Virchow on schoolroom diseases; Education of French and Prussian conscripts; School organization, etc. pp. 70. (Circ. inf. August, 1870.)
22. Public instruction in Sweden and Norway; The "folkehoiskoler" of Denmark. By C. C. Andrews. pp. 48. (Circ. inf. July, 1871.)
23. Methods of school discipline. By Hiram Orcutt. pp. 14. (Circ. inf. November, 1871.)
24. Compulsory education. By L. Van Bokkelen. pp. 17. (Circ. inf. December, 1871.)
25. German and other foreign universities. By Herman Jacobson. pp. 43. (Circ. inf. January, 1872.)
26. Public instruction in Greece, the Argentine Republic, Chile, and Ecuador; Statistics respecting Portugal and Japan; Technical education in Italy. By John M. Francis, George John Ryan, F. M. Tanaka. pp. 77. (Circ. inf. February, 1882.)
27. Vital statistics of college graduates; Distribution of college students in 1870-71; Vital statistics in the United States, with diagrams. By Charles Warren. pp. 93. (Circ. inf. March, 1872.)
28. Relation of education to labor. By Richard J. Hinton. pp. 125. (Circ. inf. April, 1872.)
29. Education in the British West Indies. By Thomas H. Pearne. pp. 22. (Circ. inf. June, 1872.)
30. The Kindergarten. By Baroness Marenholtz-Bülow, tr. by Elizabeth P. Peabody. pp. 62. (Circ. inf. July, 1872.)
31. American education at the Vienna Exposition of 1873. pp. 79. (Circ. inf. November, 1872.)
32. Historical summary and reports on the systems of public instruction in Spain, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Portugal. pp. 66. (Circ. inf. 1, 1873.)
33. Schools in British India. By Joseph Warren. pp. 30. (Circ. inf. 2, 1873.)
34. College commencements for the summer of 1873, in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. pp. 118. (Circ. inf. 3, 1873.)

35. List of publications by members of certain college faculties and learned societies in the United States, 1867-1872. pp. 72. (Circ. inf. 4, 1873.)
36. College commencements during 1873 in the Western and Southern States. pp. 155. (Circ. inf. 5, 1873.)
37. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C. (1874). pp. 77. (Circ. inf. 1, 1874.)
Partial contents: Uniform plan and form for publishing the principal statistical tables on education, by George J. Lucky; Scientific and industrial education and the true policy of the National and State Government in regard to it, by Hon. A. D. White; The International Centennial Exposition as a world-wide educator, by W. D. Kelley; Report by the committee on the relations of the General Government to education in the District of Columbia.
38. Drawing in public schools; present relation of art to education in the United States. By Isaac Edwards Clarke. pp. 56. (Circ. inf. 2, 1874.)
39. History of secondary instruction in Germany. By Herman Jacobson. pp. 87. (Circ. inf. 3, 1874.)
40. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C. (1875). pp. 114. (Circ. inf. 1, 1875.)
Partial contents: The legal prevention of illiteracy, by B. G. Northrop; Brain culture in relation to the schoolroom, by A. N. Bell; The origin of the alphabet, by Prof. J. Enthoffer; American education at the Centennial Exposition, by J. P. Wickersham; Can the elements of industrial education be introduced into our common schools? by John D. Philbrick; Industrial drawing in public schools, by Prof. Walter Smith.
41. Education in Japan. By William E. Griffiths. pp. 64. (Circ. inf. 2, 1875.)
42. Public instruction in Belgium, Russia, Turkey, Servia, and Egypt. By Emile de Laveleye, M. de Salve, V. E. Dor. pp. 108. (Circ. inf. 3, 1875.)
43. Waste of labor in the work of education. By Paul A. Chadburne. pp. 16. (Circ. inf. 4, 1875)
44. Educational exhibit at the International Centennial Exhibition, 1876. pp. 28. (Circ. inf. 5, 1875.)
45. Reformatory, charitable, and industrial schools for the young. By Julia A. Holmes and S. A. Martha Canfield. pp. 208. (Circ. inf. 6, 1875.)
46. Constitutional provisions in regard to education in the several States. By Franklin Hough. pp. 130. (Circ. inf. 7, 1875.)
47. Schedule for the preparation of students' work for the Centennial Exhibition. By A. J. Rickoff, J. L. Pickard, James H. Smart (committee). pp. 15. (Circ. inf. 8, 1875.)
48. Education in China. By William A. P. Martin. pp. 28. (Circ. inf. 1, 1877.)
49. Public instruction in Finland, the Netherlands, Denmark, Würtemberg, and Portugal; the University of Leipzig. By Felix Heikel, C. H. Pluggé, and J. L. Corning. pp. 77. (Circ. inf. 2, 1877.)
50. Training of teachers in Germany. pp. 36. (Circ. inf. 1, 1878.)
51. Elementary education in London, with address of Sir Charles Reed. pp. 24. (Circ. inf. 2, 1878.)
52. Training schools for nurses. By S. A. Martha Canfield. pp. 21. (Circ. inf. 1, 1879.)
53. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, 1877 and 1879, Washington, D. C.; Proceedings of the conference of college presidents and delegates, Columbus, Ohio, December, 1877. pp. 192. (Circ. inf. 2, 1879.)
Partial contents: Proceedings of 1877: The school organization of a State; National aid to education. What has been done by the General Government in aid of education, by John Eaton; General appropriation of public lands; Proceeds of sales of public lands; Disposition of surplus revenue by States; American education, by George B. Loving; The high school question, by James H. Smart.
Partial contents: Proceedings of 1879: Popular education in Switzerland, by John Hitz; Popular education in France, by E. C. Wines; Technical education, by E. A. Apgar; Kindergarten training, by Louise Pollock; Education in the South, by G. J. Orr; The needs of the United States Bureau of Education; Instruction in governmental ideas, by Wm. Strong; Technical education and industrial drawing, by Walter Smith; Education at the Paris Exposition, by John D. Philbrick; What has been done by the National Government in aid of education, by John Eaton; American education, by George B. Loving; The high school question, by James H. Smart; Collegiate degrees, by John M. Gregory.
Partial contents: Proceedings of the conference of the presidents and other delegates of the State universities and State colleges of Ohio for 1877: Collegiate degrees, by J. M. Gregory; Scientific studies and courses of study; Report on the military system in State colleges, by Edward Orton.
54. Value of common school education to common labor. (Reprinted from Annual Report, 1872.) pp. 37. (Circ. inf. 3, 1879.)
55. Training schools for cookery. By S. A. Martha Canfield. pp. 49. (Circ. inf. 4, 1879.)
56. American education as described by the French commission to the International Exhibition of 1876. By Ferdinand Buisson and others. pp. 37. (Circ. inf. 5, 1879.)

57. College libraries as aids to instruction. By Justin Winsor and Otis H. Robinson. pp.27. (Circ. inf. 1, 1880.)
58. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1880. pp. 112. (Circ. inf. 2, 1880.)
Partial contents: Bell's system of visible speech, by L. A. Butterfield; Education of dependent children, by C. D. Randall; Best system of schools for a State, by J. H. Smart; University education, by David C. Gilman; Technical education in its relations to elementary schools, by J. D. Philbrick; Technological museums, by J. D. Philbrick; The Tenth Census from an educational point of view, by W. T. Harris; Discussion of the high school question, by J. W. Dickinson, W. T. Harris, J. P. Wickersham; Congress and the education of the people, by W. H. Rufiner; Laws relating to the State public school for dependent children at Coldwater, Michigan. Outline of the school systems of the various States.
59. Legal rights of children. By S. M. Wilcox. pp. 96. (Circ. inf. 3, 1880.)
60. Rural school architecture. By T. M. Clark. pp. 106. (Circ. inf. 4, 1880.)
61. English rural schools. By Henry W. Hulbert. pp. 26. (Circ. inf. 5, 1880.)
62. Instruction in chemistry and physics in the United States. By F. W. Clarke. pp. 219. (Circ. inf. 6, 1880.)
63. The spelling reform. By Francis A. March. pp. 36. (Circ. inf. 7, 1880.)
64. Construction of library buildings. By William F. Poole. pp. 26. (Circ. inf. 1, 1881.)
65. Relation of education to industry and technical training in American schools. By E. E. White. pp. 22. (Circ. inf. 2, 1881.)
66. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, New York, 1881, pp. 79. (Circ. inf. 3, 1881.)
Partial contents: Uniformity of school statistics, by Andrew McMillan; The conservation of pedagogic energy, by C. O. Thompson; Our schools and our forests, by Franklin B. Hough; Museums illustrative of education, by John Eaton; Education and the State, by J. W. Patterson.
67. Education in France. pp. 144. (Circ. inf. 4, 1881.)
68. Causes of deafness among school children, and the instruction of children with impaired hearing. By Samuel Sexton. pp. 47. (Circ. inf. 5, 1881.)
69. Effects of student life on the eyesight. By A. W. Calhoun. pp. 29. (Circ. inf. 6, 1881.)
70. Inception, organization, and management of training schools for nurses. By S. A. Martha Canfield. pp. 28. (Circ. inf. 1, 1882.)
71. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, 1882. pp. 112. (Circ. inf. 2, 1882.)
Partial contents: Information necessary to determine the merits of the heating and ventilation of a school building, by John S. Billings, U. S. A.; The chemical examination of air as applied to questions of ventilation, by Dr. Charles Smart, U. S. A.; Obstacles in the way of better primary education, by H. Jones; Chairs of pedagogy in our higher institutions of learning, by G. Stanley Hall; National aid to education, from a Northern standpoint, by Dexter H. Hawkins; Education in Alaska, by Sheldon Jackson; Resolution respecting a national appropriation for education in Alaska; Some fundamental inquiries concerning the common-school studies, by John M. Gregory; How to improve the qualifications of teachers, by W. T. Harris.
72. University of Bonn. By Edmond Dreyfus-Brisac. pp. 67. (Circ. inf. 3, 1882.)
73. Industrial art in schools. By Charles G. Leland. pp. 37. (Circ. inf. 4, 1882.)
74. Maternal schools in France. pp. 14. (Circ. inf. 5, 1882.)
75. Technical instruction in France. pp. 63. (Circ. inf. 6, 1882.)
76. Legal provisions respecting the examination and licensing of teachers. pp. 46. (Circ. inf. 1, 1883.)
77. Coeducation of the sexes in the public schools of the United States. pp. 30. (Circ. inf. 2, 1883.)
78. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1883. pp. 81. (Circ. inf. 3, 1883.)
Partial contents: Natural history in public schools, its utility and practicability as illustrated by the methods adopted in New York City, by Albert S. Bickmore; Communication respecting industrial education, by Chas. G. Leland; The educational lessons of the census, by Wm. T. Harris; If universal suffrage, then universal education, by Atticus G. Haygood; Constitutionality of national aid to education, by Wm. Lawrence; Indian education, by B. G. Northrop, S. C. Armstrong, Alice C. Fletcher; School supervision: How and by whom the fitness of pupils for promotion is determined, by C. G. Edwards and others.
79. Recent school-law decisions. By Lyndon A. Smith. pp. 82. (Circ. inf. 4, 1883.)
80. Meeting of the International Prison Congress at Rome. pp. 11. (Circ. inf. 1, 1884.)
81. The teaching, practice, and literature of shorthand. (Second and enlarged edition.) By Julius E. Rockwell. pp. 184. (Circ. inf. 2, 1884.)
82. Illiteracy in the United States. With appendix on national aid to education. By Charles Warren and J. L. M. Curry. pp. 99. (Circ. inf. 3, 1884.)

83. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1884. pp. 176. (Circ. inf. 4, 1884.)
Partial contents: Supervision of public schools, by John W. Holcombe; Indian education, by J. M. Haworth; Indian education, by R. H. Pratt; Indian education, by S. C. Armstrong; Arbor day in the public schools, by J. B. Peaslee; Arbor day in the public schools, by B. G. Northrop; Recess, by W. T. Harris; No recess, by S. A. Ellis; How a State superintendent can best advance popular education, by E. E. Higbee; National aid for the support of public schools, by J. W. Dickinson; The educational status and needs of the South, by Robert Bingham; Legislation respecting national aid to education, proposed by the interstate educational convention, with remarks and tables; The new bill for national aid to public schools, by B. G. Northrop; Industrial education, by John M. Ordway; Public instruction in industrial pursuits, by A. P. Marble; Education at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition; The new order of Mercy, or Crime and its prevention, by George T. Angell; Education of the normal color sense, by B. Joy Jeffries; Supplementary reading, by George J. Luckey; Reading, by Chas. G. Edwards; Reading, by J. O. Wilson.
84. Suggestions respecting the educational exhibit at the New Orleans Exposition. 1884-85. pp. 28. (Circ. inf. 5, 1884.)
85. Rural schools. Progress in the past; means of improvement in the future. By Annie Tolman Smith. pp. 90. (Circ. inf. 6, 1884.)
86. Aims and methods of the teaching of physics. By Charles K. Wead. pp. 158. (Circ. inf. 7, 1884.)
87. City school systems in the United States. By John D. Philbrick. pp. 207. (Circ. inf. 1, 1885.)
88. Teachers' institutes. By James H. Smart. pp. 206. (Circ. inf. 2, 1885.)
89. Review of the reports of the British royal commissioner on technical instruction, with notes. By Chas. O. Thompson. pp. 55. (Circ. inf. 3, 1885.)
90. Education in Japan. pp. 56. (Circ. inf. 4, 1885.)
91. Physical training in American colleges and universities. By Edward Mussey Hartwell. pp. 183. (Circ. inf. 5, 1885.)
92. Study of music in public schools. By Charles Warren. pp. 78. (Circ. inf. 1, 1886.)
93. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1886. pp. 91. (Circ. inf. 2, 1886.)
Partial contents: School superintendence a profession, by M. A. Newell; Duties of county superintendents, by D. L. Kiehle; Reading circles for teachers, by Jerome Allen; The coeducation of the races, by Chas. S. Young; National aid to education, by J. A. Lovett; The education and religious interests of the colored people in the South, by S. M. Finger; Forestry in Education, by Warren Higley; Language work, by N. C. Dougherty; Growth and benefits of reading circles, by Herbert M. Skinner; City superintendence, by J. W. Akers; On the substitution of "Intermediate" for "Grammar" as a designation in the nomenclature of graded schools.
94. The college of William and Mary. By Herbert B. Adams. pp. 89. (Circ. inf. 1, 1887.)
95. Study of history in American colleges and universities. By Herbert B. Adams. pp. 299. (Circ. inf. 2, 1887.)
96. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1887. pp. 200. (Circ. inf. 3, 1887.)
Partial contents: Public education on the Pacific coast, by F. M. Campbell; The examination and certification of teachers, by Andrew J. Rickoff, and report of committee on; Civil service and public schools: I, by Le Roy D. Brown, II, by Thomas P. Ballard; Powers and duties of school officers and teachers: I, by A. P. Marble, II, by J. M. Green; The best system of county and city supervision, by E. E. Higbee; Industrial education in our public schools: I, by F. W. Parker, II, by W. B. Powell; The province of the public school, by J. W. Dickinson; What a small city is doing in industrial education, by H. W. Compton; A system of grading for country schools, by J. W. Holcombe; The best system of State school supervision, by Warren Easton; State text-books, by F. M. Campbell; The nation and the public schools, by H. W. Blair; Education in Alaska, by Sheldon Jackson.
97. Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia. By Herbert B. Adams. pp. 308. (Circ. inf. 1, 1888.)
98. History of education in North Carolina. By Charles Lee Smith. pp. 180. (Circ. inf. 2, 1888.)
99. History of higher education in South Carolina. By C. Meriwether. pp. 247. (Circ. inf. 3, 1888.)
100. Education in Georgia. By Chas. Edgeworth Jones. pp. 154. (Circ. inf. 4, 1888.)
101. Industrial education in the South. By A. D. Mayo. pp. 66. (Circ. inf. 5, 1888.)
102. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1888. pp. 165. (Circ. inf. 6, 1888.)
Partial contents: How and to what extent can manual training be ingrafted on our system of public schools? by Chas. H. Ham. Discussed by A. P. Marble, Nicholas Murray Butler, H. H. Belfield, M. A. Newell, Chas. H. Ham; What is the purpose of county institutes, and how is it best secured? by Jessie B. Thayer; Elocution: Its place in education, by Martha Fleming; How shall the qualifications of teachers be determined? by A. S. Draper; Are the

normal schools as they exist in our several States adequate to accomplish the work for which they were established? by J. P. Wickersham. Discussed by J. W. Dickinson, Jerome Allen, Edward Brooks, and A. G. Boyden; Moral education in the common schools, by William T. Harris; Can school programmes be shortened and enriched? by Charles W. Eliot; Alaska, by N. H. R. Dawson; The relation of the superintendent and the teacher to the school, by A. E. Winship; National aid to education.

103. History of education in Florida. By George Gary Bush. pp. 54. (Circ. inf. 7, 1888.)
104. Report on school architecture and plans for graded schools. pp. 136. (Reprinted from Annual Report, 1863.)
105. Suggestions for a free-school policy for United States land grantees. pp. 6. 1872.
106. Statement of the theory of education in the United States, approved by many leading educators. pp. 22. 1874.
107. National Bureau of Education; its history, work, and limitations. By Alexander Shiras. pp. 16. 1875.
108. Educational conventions and anniversaries, 1876. pp. 187.
109. International conference on education, held in Philadelphia in connection with the International Exhibition of 1876. pp. 92. 1879.
110. List of public-school officials in the States and Territories of the United States, 1875. pp. 62. 1875.
111. Manual of common native trees of the Northern United States. pp. 23. 1877.
112. Are the Indians dying out? By S. N. Clark. pp. 36. 1877.
113. International educational congress to be held at Brussels, Belgium, August, 1880. pp. 10. 1880.
114. Indian school at Carlisle barracks. pp. 5. 1880.
115. Industrial education in Europe. pp. 9. 1880.
116. Vacation colonies for sickly schoolchildren. pp. 4. 1880.
117. Progress of western education in China and Siam. pp. 13. 1880.
118. Educational tours in France. pp. 4. 1880.
119. Medical colleges in the United States. pp. 3. 1881.
120. Comparative statistics of elementary education in 50 principal countries. (Folding sheet.) 1881.
121. Fifty years of freedom in Belgium; Education in Malta; Third international geographical congress at Venice, 1881; Illiteracy and crime in France; School savings banks; Education in Sheffield. pp. 8. 1881.
122. Organization and management of public libraries. By William F. Poole. (Reprint from Pub. Librs. in the U. S. A., 1876.)
123. Library aids. By Samuel Green. pp. 10. 1881.
124. Recognized medical colleges in the United States. pp. 4. 1881.
125. Discipline of the school. By Hiram Orcutt. pp. 15. 1881. (Reprint of Circ. of information, November, 1871.)
126. Education and crime. By J. P. Wickersham. pp. 10. 1881.
127. Instruction in morals and civil government. By A. Vessiot. pp. 4. 1882.
128. Comparative statistics of elementary, secondary, and superior education in 60 principal countries. 1880. (Folding sheet.)
129. National pedagogic congress of Spain. pp. 4. 1882.
130. Natural science in secondary schools. By F. Mühlberg. pp. 9. 1882.
131. High schools for girls in Sweden. pp. 6. 1882.
132. Buffalini prize. pp. 5. 1883.
133. Education in Italy and Greece. pp. 8. 1883.
134. Answers to inquiries about the United States Bureau of Education. By Charles Warren. pp. 26. 1883.
135. Planting trees in school grounds. By Franklin B. Hough. pp. 8. 1883.
136. Southern Exposition of 1883-84, Louisville, Ky. (Two pamphlets relating to the exhibit of the United States Bureau of Education.) pp. 17. 1883. pp. 7. 1884.
137. Preliminary circular respecting the exhibition of education at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition. pp. 11. 1884.
138. Report of the director of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens for the year 1882-83. By Wm. W. Goodwin. pp. 13. 1884.
139. Building for the children of the South. By A. D. Mayo. pp. 16. 1884.
140. Statistics regarding the national aid to education. pp. 3. 1885.
141. Planting trees in school grounds, and celebration of Arbor Day. By Franklin B. Hough, and John B. Peaslee. pp. 8 + 64. 1885.
142. International educational congress at Havre. pp. 6. 1885.
143. Statistics of public libraries in the United States. pp. 98. 1886. (Reprinted from Annual Report 1884-85.)
144. Technical instruction. Special report, 1869. pp. 33 + 784. 8°. Washington (1870).

Note.—First edition incomplete, printed pursuant to a call of House of Representatives, January 19, 1870. Second edition published as Volume XXI, of Barnard's Journal of Education. pp. 807.

145. Contributions to the annals of medical progress and medical education in the United States before and during the War of Independence. By Joseph M. Toner. pp. 118. 8°. Washington, 1874.
146. Historical sketch of Mount Holyoke Seminary. By Mary O. Nutting. Edited by F. B. Hough. pp. 24. 12°. [Washington, 1876.]
147. Historical sketch of Union College. By F. B. Hough. pp. 81. 8°. Washington, 1876.
148. Public libraries in the United States of America, their history, condition, and management. Part I. Edited by S. R. Warren and S. N. Clark. pp. xxxv + 1187. Rules for a printed dictionary catalogue; Part II. By C. A. Cutter. pp. 83. 8°. Washington, 1876.
149. Contributions to the history of medical education and medical institutions in the United States of America, 1776-1876. By S. N. Davis. pp. 60. 8°. Washington, 1877.
150. Sketch of the Philadelphia Normal School for Girls. pp. 39. 8°. Washington, 1882.
151. Historical sketches of the universities and colleges of the United States. Edited by F. B. Hough. (History of the University of Missouri.) pp. 72. 8°. Washington, 1883.
152. Industrial education in the United States. pp. 319. 8°. Washington, 1883.
153. Art and industry.—Industrial and high art education in the United States. By I. Edwards Clarke. Part I. Drawing in the public schools. pp. cclix + 842. Washington, 1885.
Note.—There are two other editions, with slightly varying titles; one ordered by the Senate, the other by Congress.
154. Outlines for a museum of anatomy. By R. W. Shufeldt. pp. 65. 8°. Washington, 1885.
155. Educational exhibits and conventions at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition, New Orleans, 1884-85. pp. 962. Foot pagination. 8°. Washington, 1886.
Contents: Pt. I. Catalogue of exhibits. pp. 240. Pt. II. Proceedings of the International Congress of Educators. pp. 575. Pt. III. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, and addresses delivered on Education Days. pp. 148. New Orleans, 1885.
156. Indian education and civilization. Prepared in answer to Senate resolution of February 23, 1885. By Alice C. Fletcher, under direction of the Commissioner of Education. pp. 693. (Senate Ex. Doc. No. 95. Forty-eighth Congress, second session.)
157. Higher education in Wisconsin. By Wm. F. Allen and David E. Spencer. pp. 168. (Circ. inf. 1, 1889.)
158. Rules for a dictionary catalogue. By C. A. Cutter. pp. 33. 1st ed., Pt. II of public libraries in the United States, with corrections and additions. (Spec. rep., 1876.)
159. Indian education. By T. J. Morgan. pp. 28. (Bulletin 1, 1889.)
160. Proceedings of Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association. Washington, March, 1889. pp. 500. (Circ. inf. 2, 1883.)
Partial contents: Training of teachers; Psychology in its relation to pedagogy, by Nicholas Murray Butler; City training and practice schools, by W. S. Jackman; Purpose and means of city training schools, by S. S. Parr; County institutes, by Albert G. Lane; State teachers' institutes, by John W. Dickinson; Manual training, its relation to body and mind, by C. M. Woodward; The psychology of manual training, by W. T. Harris; Educational value of manual training, by Geo. P. Brown; The work of the city superintendent, by T. M. Balliet; The school principal, by George Holland; Teachers' examinations, by M. A. Newell; The State and higher education, by Fred. M. Campbell, Herbert B. Adams; Education in the South, by W. R. Garrett; National aid to education, by H. W. Blair.
161. History of Federal and State aid to higher education in the United States. By Frank W. Blackmar. pp. 343. (Circ. inf. 1, 1890.)
162. Rules for a dictionary catalog. By C. A. Cutter. 2d ed. of Pt. II of pub. libs. in the U. S., with corrections. pp. 133. 2d ed. (Spec. rep., 1889.)
163. History of education in Alabama, 1702-1889. By Willis G. Clark. pp. 281. (Circ. inf. 3, 1889.)
164. Honorary degrees as conferred in American colleges. By Charles Foster Smith. No. 1. 1890. pp. 12. (Misc. pub. or bulletin.)
165. English-Eskimo, and Eskimo-English vocabularies. Compiled by Roger Wells, jr., and John W. Kelly. pp. 72. (Circ. inf. 2, 1890.)
166. Rules and regulations for the conduct of schools and education in the Dist. of Alaska. pp. 7. (Misc. pub. 1890.)
167. Teaching and history of mathematics in the United States. By Florian Cajori. pp. 409. (Circ. inf. 3, 1890.)
168. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior. 1890. pp. 17. (Misc. pub. 1890.)
169. Preliminary report of the general agent of education for Alaska to the Commissioner of Education.—Introduction of Reindeer into Alaska. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 15. (Misc. pub. 1890.)
170. Higher education in Indiana. By James Albert Woodburn. pp. 209. (Circ. inf. 1, 1891.)
171. Fourth International Prison Congress, St. Petersburg, Russia. By C. D. Randall. pp. 253. (Circ. 2, 1891.)
172. Rules for a dictionary catalog. By C. A. Cutter. 3d ed., Pt. II of pub. libs. in the United States, with corrections and additions, and an alphabetical index. pp. 140. (Spec. rep., 1891.)
173. Sanitary conditions of schoolhouses. By Albert P. Marble. pp. 123. (Circ. 3, 1891.)

174. History of higher education in Michigan. By Andrew C. McLaughlin. pp. 179. (Circ. inf. 4, 1891.)
175. History of higher education in Ohio. By Geo. W. Knight and John R. Commons. pp. 258. (Circ. inf. 5, 1891.)
176. History of higher education in Massachusetts. By Geo. Gary Bush. pp. 445. (Circ. inf. 6, 1891.)
177. Promotions and examinations in graded schools. By Emerson E. White. pp. 64. (Circ. inf. 7, 1891.)
178. Rise and growth of the normal school idea in the United States. By J. P. Gordy. pp. 145. (Circ. inf. 8, 1891.)
179. Biological teaching in the colleges of the United States. By John P. Campbell. pp. 183. (Circ. inf. 9, 1891.)
180. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, 1891. pp. 21. (Misc. pub. 1891.)
181. Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1888-89. Vol. I. pp. lix+669.
182. *Same*. Vol. II. pp. vi+671-1669.
183. Part I of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1888-89, with the Commissioner's introduction, and the contents of Parts I, II, and III. Special editions. pp. 274. (Spec. rep. 1891.)
184. Report of the general agent of education in Alaska for the year 1888-89. (Reprinted from Report of Commr. of Ed. for 1888-89. pp. 1245-1300.) (Misc. pub. 1891.)
185. Publications of the U. S. Bureau of Education from 1867-1890, with subject index. (Reprinted from An. Rep. of Commr. of Ed. for 1888-89. pp. 1453-1551.) (Misc. pub. 1891.)
186. Southern women in the recent educational movement in the South. By A. D. Mayo. pp. 300. (Circ. inf. 1, 1892.)
187. Analytical index to Barnard's American Journal of Education. 31 vols. 1855-1881. (Spec. rep. 1892.)
188. Benjamin Franklin and the University of Pennsylvania. By Franklin Newton Thorpe. pp. 450. (Circ. inf. 2, 1892.)
189. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, 1892. pp. 21. (Misc. pub. 1892.)
190. Report on legal education. Prepared by committee of the American Bar Association, and the U. S. Bureau of Education. pp. 207. (Spec. rep. 1893.)
191. Education in Alaska, 1889-90. By Sheldon Jackson. (Reprint of chapter xvii of the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1889-90. pp. 45-1300.) (Misc. pub. 1893.)
192. Shorthand instruction and practice. By Julius E. Rockwell. pp. 206. (Circ. inf. 1, 1893.)
193. History of education in Connecticut. By Bernard C. Steiner. Contributions to American educational history, No. 14. pp. 300. (Circ. inf. 2, 1893.)
194. History of education in Delaware. By Lyman P. Powell. pp. 186. (Circ. inf. 3, 1893.)
195. Abnormal man; being essays on education and crime and related subjects, with digests of literature and a bibliography. By Arthur MacDonald. pp. 445. (Circ. inf. 4, 1893.)
196. Higher education in Tennessee. By Lucius Salisbury Merriam. Contributions to American educational history, No. 16. pp. 287. (Circ. inf. 5, 1893.)
197. Higher education in Iowa. By Leonard F. Parker. Contributions to American educational history, No. 17. pp. 190. (Circ. inf. 6, 1893.)
198. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1889-90. Vol. I. xxvii+601.
199. *Same*. Vol. II. pp. vii+603-1724.
200. Catalog of A. L. A. Library; 5,000 volumes for a popular library. pp. 592. (Spec. rep. 1893.)
201. Statistics of public libraries in the United States and Canada. By Weston Flint. pp. 213. (Circ. inf. 7, 1893.)
202. Spelling reform. By Francis A. March. A revision and enlargement of the author's pamphlet, published by the U. S. Bureau of Education, in 1881. pp. 86. (Circ. inf. 8, 1893.)
203. Education in Alaska, 1890-91. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 923-960. (From An. Rept. Commr. of Education, 1890-91.) (Misc. pub. 1893.)
204. Annual statement of Commissioner of Education to Secretary of the Interior, 1893. By W. T. Harris. pp. 25.
205. Report of the committee on secondary school studies, appointed at the meeting of Nat. Ed. Ass., July 9, 1892, with the reports of the conferences, arranged by this committee, and held Dec. 28-30, 1892. pp. 249. (Spec. rep. 1893.)
206. Education in southwestern Virginia. By A. D. Mayo. (Reprint of chapter xxiv An. Rept. of Commissioner, 1890-91. pp. 881-921.)
207. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1890-91. Vol. I. pp. xxx+654.
208. *Same*. Vol. II. pp. v+605-1549.
209. History of education in Rhode Island. By William Howe Tolman. pp. 210. Contributions Am. ed'l hist. No. 18. (Circ. inf. 1, 1894.)
210. History of higher education in Maryland. By Bernard C. Steiner. pp. 331. Contributions to Am. ed'l hist. No. 19. (Circ. of inf. 2, 1894.)
211. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1891-92. Vol. I. pp. xxviii+636.
212. *Same*. Vol. II. pp. v+637-1294.

213. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, 1894. By W. T. Harris. pp. 29. (Misc. pub. 1894.)
214. Education in Alaska. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 873-892. (Reprinted from An. Rept. of Commr. of Edu., 1891-92.) (Misc. pub. 1894.)
215. Introduction of domesticated reindeer into Alaska, with maps and illustrations. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 187. (Reprint of Senate Executive Document No. 70, 53d Congress, second session.) (Misc. pub. 1894.)
216. Art and industry. Education in the industrial and fine arts in the United States. By Isaac Edwards Clarke. Part II. Industrial and manual training in public schools. pp. cxlviii+1338. 8°. Washington, 1892.
217. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1892-93. Vol. I. pp. ix+1224.
218. *Same.* Vol. II. pp. v+1225-2153.
219. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, 1895. pp. 27.
220. Education in Alaska, 1892-93. By Sheldon Jackson. (From An. Rept. of Commissioner of Education, 1892-93. pp. 705-1795.)
221. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1893-94. Vol. I.
222. *Same.* Vol. II.
223. Education at the World's Columbian Exposition (1893), including reports and comments by American and foreign educators and delegates. (Reprinted from An. Rep. 1892-93. pp. 423-690.) 1896.
224. Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress held at the Columbian Exposition. Ed. by Melvil Dewey. pp. 691-1014. (Reprinted from An. Rep. 1892-93. Chap. IX.)
300. Our schools and our forests. By Franklin H. Hough. Address before Dept. of Superintendence Nat. Ed. Assoc., 1881. pp. 18. (Reprint from Circ. inf. 3, 1881.) (Misc. pub. 1881.)
301. Manual training. By C. M. Woodward. (Circ. inf. 2, 1889.)
302. Class intervals in city public schools. By James C. Boykin. pp. 3. (Misc. pub. 1893.)
303. What is education? Opinions of eminent men. pp. 16. (Misc. pub. 1870.)
304. Proceedings of the Dept. of Superintendence of the National Educational Association respecting State and city school reports. pp. 26. (Misc. pub. 1874.)
305. Industrial status and needs of the New South. By Robert Bingham. pp. 21. Delivered before the Dept. of Superintendence of the Nat. Ed. Assoc., February, 1884. (Misc. pub. 1884.)
306. Needs of education in the South. By Gustavus G. Orr. pp. 13. Delivered before the Dept. of Superintendence of the Nat'l Ed. Assoc., 1879. (Misc. pub. 1879.)
307. National aid to education. By John Eaton. Delivered before the Department of Superintendence of the Nat. Ed. Assoc., 1877. pp. 37. (Misc. pub. 1879.)
308. Needs of the Bureau of Education. By John Eaton. Delivered before Dept. of Superintendence of Nat'l Ed. Assoc., 1881. pp. 12. (Misc. pub. 1881.)
309. Museums illustrative of education. By John Eaton. Delivered before Dept. of Superintendence of Nat. Ed. Assoc., 1881. pp. 12. (Misc. pub. 1881.)
310. The World's Columbian Exposition, department of liberal arts. Circular No. 2. The educational exhibit at the World's Columbian Exposition. pp. 10. (Misc. pub. —.)
311. World's Columbian Exposition, department of liberal arts. Circ. No. 4. The educational exhibit No. 2. Statistics by graphic methods. Wing frames; State maps. Display of school statistics. pp. 17. (Misc. pub. —.)
312. United States Bureau of Education, an office in the Interior Department, 1867-1888. Commissioners: Henry Barnard, 1867-1870; John Eaton, 1870-1886; Nathaniel H. R. Dawson, 1886-1889. (Misc. pub. —.)
313. Technical education and industrial drawing. By Prof. Walter Smith. Delivered before the Dept. of Superintendence of Nat. Ed. Assoc., 1879. pp. 24. (Misc. pub. 1879.)
314. National schools of science, report on, by D. C. Gilman. pp. 20. (Reprinted from An. Rep. of U. S. Commissioner of Education for 1871. pp. 427-444.) (Misc. pub. 1872.)
315. Colleges and collegiate institutions in the United States. Statistics. pp. 11. (1871.)
316. International Exhibition, Philadelphia, 1876. Collections to illustrate the history of colleges, universities, professional schools, and schools of science. (1875.)
317. Prospectus of report of the Commissioner of Education for 1875. p. 1. 1875.
318. Chilean International Exposition of 1875, to be held at Santiago (educational programme). pp. 9. 1875.
319. Synopsis of proposed centennial; history of American education, 1776 to 1876. pp. 18. 1875.
320. Study of Anglo-Saxon. By F. A. March. pp. 10. (From An. Rep. 1876.)
321. Latin pronunciation. By W. G. Richardson. pp. 484-497. (From An. Rep. 1876.)
322. Pronunciation of Greek in this country. By James R. Boise. pp. 430-483. (From An. Rep. 1876.)
323. Education at the Paris Exposition, 1879. pp. 9. (From Circ. inf. 2, 1879.)
324. Sale of diplomas. pp. 4. 1880.
325. Report on education in Alaska, with maps and illustrations. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 89. 1886.
326. Bureau of Education. Ohio Valley and Central States Centennial Exposition, July 4 to October 28, 1888. Exhibit of the Bureau. Compiled by John W. Holcombe. (Folding sheet.) pp. 8. 16°.
327. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior; being introductory chapter of the An. Rep. 1888-89. By N. H. R. Dawson. pp. 28.
329. Report of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, 1887. pp. 26. 1887.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

SCIENTIFIC TEMPERANCE INSTRUCTION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

[Communicated by ALBERT H. PLUMB to the Boston Transcript, May 2, 1896.]

The spring meeting of the New England Conference of Educational Workers in Boston on the 25th instant drew together quite a number of prominent teachers and experts in the science of pedagogy. Superintendent Seaver gave fitting introduction to the speakers. His honor the mayor made an interesting and encouraging address on the way to secure improved sanitation in our schools. Much useful information was imparted by Dr. Durgin, of the board of health, and Dr. Hartwell, who has charge of physical culture in the city schools, and by other speakers. One of these, however, laid down a principle which is violently at war with the enlightened policy and efficient practice of our honored school authorities in this State and through the country. It was a principle which, if carried out according to the obvious intention of the speaker, would sweep away at once the greater part of the scientific temperance instruction now required by law in forty-one States, and in all schools under national control, as at Annapolis and at West Point. The falsity of this principle was at once exposed by a few words from Mrs. Mary H. Hunt, herself an educational authority, and, more than any other person living, personally in touch with educational and legislative authorities on this subject.

As there was no time, however, for any adequate discussion of the topic, it seems desirable that so vicious a principle be held up more definitely to the public view.

It was indeed well said, by the speaker referred to, that the moral attitude of the scholar in regard to conduct is the strong factor in securing right living; that the effort should be to raise the child to the plane where he chooses what is right; though it would have been more accurate to say, the moral attitude is the chief constituent of right living, for the moral attitude includes the choice of the right which is the effect, and not the cause concerning which we are inquiring. And to induce a pupil to take the right moral attitude, to choose the right, is a matter of exceeding difficulty and of indefinite progress—a progress which it is hard to mark. It depends largely on the personal character and influence of the teacher. It is not a matter which can be definitely ordered and supervised by the school authorities, and how far in each case the moral attitude of the pupil has yielded to the teacher's moral exhortation is uncertain. This is not the case in the work of imparting information. The school authorities can order that the teacher impart to the scholar certain definite scientific knowledge—truths and facts—and the teacher can so obey this order as to be sure that the pupil has a clear and thorough apprehension of them. They are his permanent possession thenceforth, and an active force necessarily and always in influencing his life. He may resist that influence. As the speaker intimated, information concerning the evil effects of intoxicants may lead boys to try the experiment of using liquor, to see the effects, and therefore he would draw the foolish inference that such information should be withheld. "Where ignorance is bliss it is folly to be wise" is a good motto indeed as to the experimental knowledge of vice, but not at all as to the scientific and theoretic knowledge of it.

So that when the speaker inquires: "Does information guard against wrong conduct?" and in reply lays down the proposition that information is not a strong factor in promoting right living, he plants himself squarely in opposition to the great principles on which the educators and moralists of the land have established what is known and lauded the world over as the "American educational system of prevention of intemperance," viz, the early instruction by law of all pupils in the public schools upon the nature and effects of alcoholic drinks.

There are three manifest reasons why his position is untenable:

(1) It is opposed to the eternal law that truth has an inherent, impelling force. The moral nature of man has been so constituted by the God of truth that it is impossible to lodge in the human apprehension any proposition, any truth or fact, having any bearing on conduct—and nearly all truth, even philosophical and mathematical truth, has such a bearing, direct or indirect, near or remote—without more or less awakening of the sensibilities in regard to that moral bearing, more or less impulse upon the will toward the choice of the right.

(2) Authority as well as reason is against the position that information is not a strong factor in promoting right conduct. Indeed, the Great Teacher himself is explicitly against this position. "Sanctify them through Thy truth; Thy word is truth." And this affirmation is not limited to religious truth. There are a thousand declarations in God's word which are of the nature of philosophical propositions, or statements of historic fact, or of prudential maxims for worldly success, yet they may have an elevating power, e. g.: "The entrance of Thy words giveth light." "My people are destroyed for lack of knowledge." "He that ruleth his spirit is better than he that taketh a city." "The truth shall make you free." And upon the specific matter under consideration multitudes of educational experts have united in securing the legally enforced instruction precisely because of its moral preventive force. Who is higher authority than Dr. William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education? And his opinion was not long ago given in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, London, in these words:

"Instruction in what is called scientific temperance, conducted as it is under the laws of nearly all the States in the public elementary schools, furnishes a permanent and active means for the dissemination of correct views regarding the effect of intoxicating drinks upon the human body. All pupils will have their attention called to the subject every year, and intelligent pupils will understand with some degree of clearness the results of scientific investigation in this matter. Even the dull pupils who fail to seize the scientific points will carry away an impression in their minds that intoxicating drinks are very dangerous and should not be used even in moderate quantities. * * * Such instruction, too, is sure to furnish the greater portion of the intelligent pupils in schools with a correct scientific notion with regard to the investigations which have furnished the evidence for these conclusions.

"The utter destruction to the body and mind which comes from habitual intemperance, and the danger of moderate drinking in arousing an abnormal appetite for intoxicating liquors, will certainly be seen and understood by the great mass of pupils that attend the public schools. For this reason I do not see how anyone can question the great general usefulness of this scientific temperance instruction, established by law in most of the States of this nation. It may be said that this movement is the most effective one ever devised by the friends of temperance to abate a great evil, perhaps the greatest evil abroad in the land."

(3) Experience joins with reason and authority in condemning this depreciation of the moral effect of early acquaintance with scientific truth. In a number of States the laws requiring this instruction have been in force ten or fifteen years, and there is already a marked superiority in the morality of pupils coming from such teaching to enter collegiate and professional schools, according to the testimony of the faculties of such institutions. Young men have learned why every indulgence in dissipation is calculated to block their path to success, and they are less convivial

in their habits than those coming in former years. Even children now know too much to be caught by the cheap fallacies of tipplers. Take one instance from many. A millionaire brewer, a senator in another State, said to Mrs. Hunt, "I shall vote for your bill. I have sold out my brewery and am clean from the whole business. Let me tell you what occurred at my table. A guest was taken dangerously ill at dinner—insensible—and there was a call for brandy to restore him. My little boy at once exclaimed, 'No, that is just what he don't need. It will paralyze the nerves and muscles of the blood vessels so they will not send back the blood to the heart.' When the liquor was poured out to give the man, the lad insisted on pushing it back. 'You will kill him; he has too much blood in his head already.'" "How did you know all that?" his father afterwards asked. "Why, it is in my physiology at school." It seems the text-books, prepared by such men as Prof. H. Newell Martin, F. R. S., of Johns Hopkins University, had succeeded in giving the lad some definite information which was proving useful. "Senator," said Mrs. Hunt, "are you sorry your boy learned that at school?" "Madam," the man replied, raising his hand, "I would not take \$5,000 for the assurance this gives me that my boy will never be a drunkard."

Information not a strong factor in controlling conduct? This kind of information is proving so strong a factor that the liquor dealers are alarmed and are combining in efforts to stop our schools from thus injuring their trade—an injury of which English owners of American brewery stock are complaining; and there are certain punctilious doctrinaires in science who appear more strenuous to preserve a certain theoretical precision in the order of succession of topics in the processes of instruction who seem more solicitous to spare the feelings and protect the self-indulgent tipping habits of the luxurious classes than to save the youth of the country from ruin by drink, who are combining with the brewers in endeavors, in different States just now, to repeal or embarrass and neutralize the enforcement of the temperance instruction laws.

The agents of the brewers in various States are repeating over and over these same hostile arguments which were heard here at the meeting on Saturday last, alleging the inefficacy of such instruction, as if they desired its efficacy, and claiming that it is impossible for the young before they reach college—or certainly previous to entering the high school—to attain any scientific knowledge on these subjects, a rule which would deny to 95 per cent of our school children, who never reach the high school, all definite scientific instruction on these topics, limiting them to occasional moral exhortations by their teachers.

It is contended that it is out of the due order to touch on these subjects until a pupil has thoroughly mastered the science of chemistry and the philosophy of nutrition. What if it is? What valuable interests will suffer if, on account of a great and appalling moral exigency, these all-important practical themes are taken up in advance, since they must be taken up then in 95 per cent of the cases, if attended to at all? At any rate, the people of this country, the parents of our school children, have decided that they shall be thus taken up, because they are determined to use every possible endeavor to protect their children from the awful dangers of intoxicating drinks. And how utterly wrongheaded, and cold-hearted, too, it is for teachers, who are the servants of the people, or for anyone else, to interfere with this great philanthropic movement, which has cost untold sacrifices of time and toil to establish, and on which the future welfare of the nation largely depends!

Doubtless the bulk of our school teachers are not yet equal to our most learned physicians in their physiological attainments, but to despise, therefore, and to deery as unsound, misleading, and morally worthless such instruction as they are able to give on these subjects, is to show recklessness in regard to facts, and indifference in regard to the evils which correct teaching is calculated to prevent, for those evils are so dire and threatening that all wise minds must resolve to use, instantly and incessantly, such preventive means as we have, rather than to postpone all effort to

that indefinite future when means sufficiently perfect to satisfy these extremists shall be provided. Meanwhile it is encouraging to know that the trustees of the new American University at Washington have already taken measures, in response to the request of friends of this instruction, to establish there a College of Scientific Temperance, not as a propaganda, but for original research, and for the training of the "teachers of teachers" on these themes, which the perils of national life in Europe and America are pressing to the front.

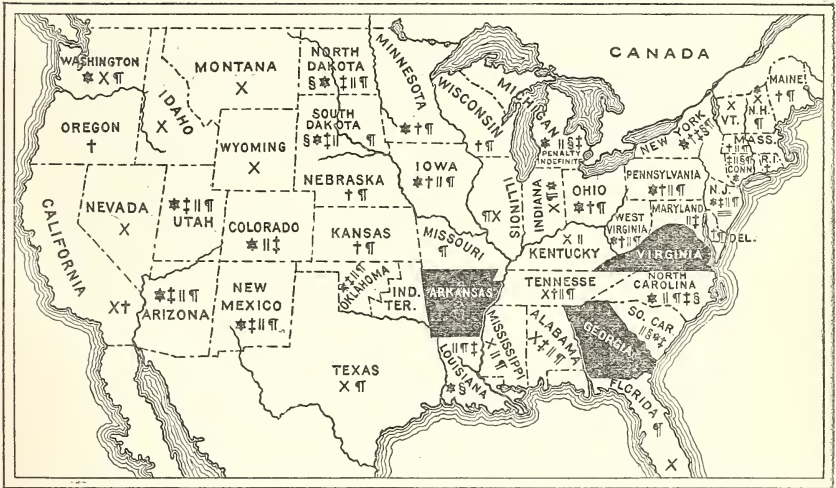
The unworthy methods which nearly everywhere mark the opposition to this temperance instruction deserve strong rebuke. Have the distinguished authors of the temperance text-books—some of them known and honored as scientific authorities on two hemispheres—told lies in their books? If so, why does not someone point out the lies? If not, then reputable men should have done with the continual and contemptible insinuation that our children are learning in school what they will have to unlearn in life.

The misrepresentations made in the progress of the recent great contest in New York have been shameful, but all in vain, for by overwhelming majorities last week the house and senate passed the improved law, demanded by the representatives of over 1,000,000 members of churches and other philanthropic bodies in the State. Certainly the victories which are continually attending this hard-pressed conflict are so remarkable as to warrant a reverent conviction that the especial favor of Providence is attending a movement which, in its inception and prosecution, has been largely imbued with a spirit of prayer, which is purely philanthropic, which is accordant with true wisdom and scientific truth, and which, in its wide extent and confessed potency for good, is by far the most promising of all present measures for the prevention of vice.

TEMPERANCE EDUCATION MAP OF THE UNITED STATES AND TERRITORIES.

[Furnished to the Bureau by the Department of Scientific Temperance Instruction of the W. C. T. U., Mrs. Mary H. Hunt, superintendent. Utah was under the national temperance law until it became a State; since then no advice has been received regarding the enactment of a temperance education law.]

States in white have a temperance education law. Those in black have none.



EXPLANATION OF MARKS.

- × The cross signifies that scientific temperance is a mandatory study in public schools.
- * The star signifies that this is a mandatory study, and that a penalty is attached to the enforcing clause of this statute in the State or Territory to which it is affixed.
- † The dagger signifies that the study is not only mandatory, but is required of all pupils in all schools.
- ‡ The double dagger signifies that the study is required of all pupils in all schools, and is to be pursued with text-books in the hands of pupils able to read.
- || The parallel indicates that the study is to be taught in the same manner and as thoroughly as other required branches.
- § The section mark indicates that text-books on this topic used in primary and intermediate schools must give one-fourth or one-fifth their space to temperance matter, and those used in high schools not less than twenty pages.
- ¶ The paragraph indicates that no teacher who has not passed a satisfactory examination in this subject is granted a certificate or authorized to teach.
- Three lines indicate that text-books on this topic shall give full and adequate space to the temperance matter.



PART III.

STATISTICAL TABLES.



I.—CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment and attendance in cities of over 8,000 inhabitants.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
ALABAMA.									
1 Birmingham.....	40,000	7-21	8,849	600	1,489	1,854	3,343	2,602	411,116
2 Huntsville.....	9,000	7-21	1,881	300	354	390	744	584	93,440
3 Mobile.....	2,646	2,994	565,866
4 Montgomery.....	24,000	7-21	5,480	500	880	1,139	2,019	α 1,500	α 244,500
5 Selma.....	10,000	6-21	2,900	200	1,103	882	141,120
ARKANSAS.									
6 Fort Smith.....	17,000	6-21	3,513	450	1,093	1,117	2,210	1,600	280,000
7 Hot Springs.....	15,000	6-21	3,108	150	1,076	1,231	2,307	1,500	267,000
8 Little Rock.....	35,000	6-21	10,026	850	2,251	2,716	4,967	3,517	622,509
9 Pine Bluff.....	15,000	200	966	1,017	1,983	1,103	189,716
CALIFORNIA.									
10 Alameda.....	14,700	5-17	3,330	191	1,436	1,374	2,810	2,058	373,919
11 Berkeley.....	11,000	5-17	2,501	250	963	1,121	2,084	1,791	349,245
12 Eureka.....	8,000	5-17	1,771	56	723	768	1,491	1,204	234,875
13 Fresno.....	5-17	7,425	106	894	864	1,758	1,160	214,600
14 Los Angeles.....	80,000	5-17	16,956	990	6,887	7,133	14,020	10,227	1,671,485
15 Oakland.....	56,000	5-17	13,391	1,882	5,740	5,296	11,036	7,771	1,577,608
16 Pasadena.....	12,000	5-17	2,413	189	953	996	1,949	1,480	253,029
17 Sacramento.....	30,000	5-17	5,168	551	2,176	2,192	4,368	3,115	582,505
18 San Bernardino *.....	9,000	5-17	1,694	93	757	732	1,489	1,114	190,494
19 San Diego.....	20,000	5-17	3,348	200	1,489	1,567	3,056	2,273	427,324
20 San Francisco.....	300,000	5-17	70,006	16,000	44,822	32,974	6,594,800
21 San Jose.....	18,060	5-17	4,998	2,048	2,060	4,108	3,019	597,677
22 Santa Cruz.....	8,000	5-17	1,991	116	821	837	1,658	1,196	227,305
23 Stockton.....	21,000	5-17	3,559	460	1,336	1,506	2,842	2,179	414,111
COLORADO									
24 Colorado Springs... Denver:	16,000	6-21	2,894	40	1,290	1,376	2,666	1,872	355,718
25 District No. 1.....	135,000	{ 6-21	13,309	5,828	6,058	11,886	8,035	1,454,335
26 District No. 2.....		{ 6-21	7,561	150	2,648	2,817	5,465	3,866	704,772
27 District No. 17.....		{ 6-21	4,844	200	1,858	1,868	3,726	2,591	492,322
28 Leadville..... Pueblo:	12,000	6-21	2,493	500	698	735	1,433	1,020	178,500
29 District No. 1.....	30,000	{ 6-21	3,486	* 100	968	956	1,924	1,293	241,791
30 District No. 20.....		{ 6-21	3,707	300	1,012	1,055	2,067	1,151	249,180
31 Trinidad.....		{ 6-21	1,435	175	599	662	1,261	844	156,910
CONNECTICUT.									
32 Ansonia *.....	4-16	2,445	75	2,190	1,732	346,400
33 Bridgeport.....	56,073	4-16	13,080	1,000	4,378	4,470	8,848	7,008	1,299,984
34 Bristol *.....	9,000	4-16	1,800	0	875	825	1,700	1,300	253,500
35 Danbury.....	20,000	4-16	4,396	800	3,076	2,272	443,157
36 Hartford.....	62,000	4-16	12,175	* 3,345	9,546	6,554	1,284,545
37 Manchester.....	8,000	4-16	1,983	5	963	862	1,825	1,461	271,744
38 Meriden.....	26,000	4-16	6,094	1,500	2,386	2,346	4,732	3,088	599,727
39 Middletown.....	10,000	4-16	1,722	450	1,255	964	178,340
40 New Britain.....	23,000	4-16	4,819	1,350	3,385	2,401	451,338
41 New Haven.....	90,000	8-14	19,787	1,918	16,064	12,700	2,540,060
42 New London.....	15,000	5-16	2,571	440	1,101	1,087	2,188	1,524	294,132
43 Norwalk.....	20,000	4-16	4,013	632	1,549	1,520	3,069	2,126	425,100
44 Norwich *.....	4-16	1,548	194	1,208	866	173,200
45 Rockville.....	10,000	4-16	2,000	317

* Statistics of 1893-94.

α Estimated.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

	City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
			School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CONNECTICUT—cont'd.										
46	Stamford	18, 000	4-16	3, 975	*601			*2, 895	*1, 884	*371, 148
47	Waterbury		4-16	9, 012	1, 500			6, 130	4, 280	829, 620
48	Willimantic	8, 000	4-16	1, 974	230			927	777	149, 961
DELAWARE.										
49	Wilmington		6-21	10, 857				9, 764	7, 318	1, 434, 323
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.										
50	Washington: First to sixth divisions a.				4, 895					
51	Seventh and eighth divisions b.		6-17		500	5, 322	7, 147	12, 479	9, 482	1, 723, 885
FLORIDA.										
52	Jacksonville		6-21	9, 497	1, 000	2, 533	2, 681	5, 214	3, 349	334, 900
53	Key West	18, 000	6-21	5, 385	1, 500	917	965	1, 882	1, 144	185, 223
54	Pensacola	15, 000	6-21	3, 386	890	888	987	1, 875	c1, 200	c181, 260
55	Tampa	15, 000	6-21	3, 000	500	743	450	1, 193	878	131, 709
GEORGIA.										
56	Americus	8, 000	6-18	1, 920	50	571	723	1, 294	917	166, 894
57	Athens	12, 000	6-18	2, 800	150	763	807	1, 570	988	174, 262
58	Atlanta	100, 000	6-18	16, 338		5, 489	6, 334	11, 823	9, 411	1, 882, 200
59	Augusta	45, 000	6-18	12, 371	2, 500	2, 300	2, 750	5, 050	3, 750	607, 500
60	Brunswick	8, 000	6-18	2, 140	200	562	642	1, 204	724	123, 012
61	Columbus	18, 100	6-18	4, 315	574	1, 077	1, 287	2, 364	c1, 560	c274, 560
62	Macon	25, 432	6-18	8, 841	650	2, 103	2, 328	4, 431	3, 988	721, 828
63	Rome	8, 000	6-18		250	575	720	1, 295	1, 000	183, 000
64	Savannah	60, 000	6-18	11, 169	1, 290	3, 593	3, 731	7, 324	5, 858	913, 848
ILLINOIS.										
65	Alton	12, 000	6-21		150	900	876	1, 776	1, 297	243, 836
Aurora:										
66	District No. 4, West*	7, 000	6-21	1, 528	0	582	713	1, 295	922	173, 336
67	District No. 5, East*	17, 000	6-21	4, 954	701	1, 286	1, 419	2, 705	1, 963	376, 980
68	Belleville	18, 048	6-21	5, 783	1, 105	1, 410	1, 330	2, 740	2, 414	486, 336
69	Bloomington	25, 000	6-21	7, 318	500	1, 639	1, 923	3, 562	2, 800	495, 600
70	Cairo	14, 503	6-21	3, 866	411	944	1, 075	2, 019	1, 588	287, 363
71	Canon	8, 000	6-21		0	821	841	1, 662	1, 201	210, 175
72	Champaign	9, 000	6-21	2, 912	75	699	718	1, 417	1, 001	183, 315
73	Chicago	1, 567, 727	6-21	403, 066	78, 171	99, 910	101, 470	201, 380	154, 216	29, 917, 904
74	Danville	18, 000	2-21	3, 852	200	1, 361	1, 374	2, 735	2, 165	431, 885
75	Decatur	25, 000	6-21	6, 081	500	1, 974	2, 014	3, 988	3, 159	587, 574
East St. Louis:										
76	District No. 1.		6-21	1, 132	58	236	231	467	307	59, 922
77	District No. 2, T. 2 N., R. 10 W.	25, 000	6-21	3, 951	719	1, 211	1, 189	2, 400	1, 697	320, 847
78	District No. 2, T. 2 N., R. 9 W.		6-21		1, 000	150	90	240	207	41, 462
79	Elgin	19, 883	6-21	5, 148	800	1, 738	1, 822	3, 560	2, 884	549, 784
Evanston:										
80	District No. 1.		6-21	2, 772	*200	800	766	1, 566	1, 207	235, 436
81	North Evanston, No. 3.	10, 000	6-21	367	20	115	147	262	192	36, 369
82	South Evanston.		6-21	1, 363	250	380	380	760	644	119, 820
83	Freeport	14, 000	6-21	3, 332	550	1, 062	1, 072	2, 074	1, 644	320, 590
84	Galesburg	20, 000			500	1, 417	1, 499	2, 916	2, 313	404, 775

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a White pupils principally.

b Colored pupils only.

c Estimated.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
ILLINOIS—continued.									
85 Jacksonville*	16,500	6-21	4,100	1,500	1,000	1,150	2,150	1,775	315,212
86 Joliet	33,000	6-21	7,518	1,200	2,359	2,197	4,556	3,556	657,782
87 Kankakee		6-21	2,871	700	784	716	1,500	1,076	188,388
88 Mattoon	9,000	6-21	2,560	200	848	856	1,704	1,194	217,122
89 Ottawa	14,500	6-21	4,024	300	1,304	1,348	2,652	2,202	385,350
90 Moline	11,000	6-21	3,674	594	901	856	1,757	1,354	257,290
91 Peoria		6-21	2,362	250	765	802	1,567	1,180	213,010
92 Peoria	55,000	6-21	13,623	1,400	4,024	3,938	7,962	6,544	1,277,624
93 Quincy	33,500	6-21	10,228	2,450	2,256	2,268	4,524	3,216	620,572
94 Rockford	30,000	6-21	7,595	526	2,480	2,661	5,141	4,056	766,527
95 Rock Island	18,000	6-21	4,733	850	1,433	1,491	2,924	2,429	427,439
96 Springfield	28,739	6-21	8,259	1,305	2,137	2,258	4,395	3,572	650,104
97 Sterling	7,000	6-21	864	85	365	377	742	587	106,897
INDIANA.									
98 Anderson	18,000	6-21	5,037	210	1,280	1,483	2,868	1,912	344,320
99 Columbus	6,832	6-21	2,563	250	771	877	1,648	1,189	211,642
100 Columbus	10,000	6-21	3,281	200	751	835	1,586	1,187	208,912
101 Crawfordsville	9,000	6-21	2,744	100	717	738	1,455	1,090	293,900
102 Elkhart	14,000	6-21	3,516	200	1,268	1,213	2,481	2,076	373,619
103 Evansville	60,000	6-21	15,268	2,000	3,672	3,730	7,402	5,892	1,093,048
104 Fort Wayne	42,600	6-21	14,796	4,400	2,674	2,724	5,398	3,649	700,603
105 Frankfort	2,360	6-21	2,200	* 25	878	1,012	1,890	1,337	297,950
106 Goshen	6,500	6-21	2,005	100			1,435	1,025	184,500
107 Hammond	10,174	6-21	2,762	600	678	688	1,366	837	165,682
108 Huntington	10,000	6-21	2,051	400	869	919	1,788	1,405	271,165
109 Indianapolis	120,000	6-21	37,569	2,241	12,787	13,442	26,229	18,346	3,393,949
110 Jeffersonville	12,000	6-21	3,986	456	976	805	1,781		
111 Kokomo	11,000	6-21	3,170	100	1,088	1,063	2,151	1,603	282,128
112 Lafayette*	20,000	6-21	7,187	1,000	1,174	1,333	2,507	2,020	373,700
113 Laporte	10,000	6-21	4,042	800	633	789	1,472	1,322	251,180
114 Logansport	16,000	6-21	6,169	803	1,296	1,387	2,683	2,212	393,642
115 Madison	9,500	6-21	3,762	500	805	868	1,673	* 1,210	* 225,069
116 Marion	18,000	6-21	4,256	0	1,530	1,598	3,128	2,451	414,498
117 Michigan City	13,000	6-21	4,818	1,200	788	738	1,546	1,262	240,204
118 Muncie	* 19,763	6-21	4,750	225	1,290	1,421	2,711	1,842	294,779
119 New Albany	25,000	6-21	8,000	1,000			3,990	2,784	501,174
120 Richmond	20,000	6-21	5,799	800	1,445	1,467	2,912	2,357	424,260
121 Shelbyville	7,500	6-21	2,422	100	646	702	1,348	993	198,775
122 South Bend	27,077	6-21	8,123	1,760	1,672	1,772	3,444	2,769	463,420
123 Terre Haute	37,000	6-21	15,052	1,000	2,875	2,983	5,858	4,426	845,327
124 Vincennes	10,000	6-21	3,541	700	792	726	1,518	1,350	264,600
125 Wabash	9,000	6-21	2,150	0	752	826	1,578	1,277	236,920
126 Washington	10,000	6-21	2,500	1,000	755	756	1,511	1,130	199,893
IOWA.									
127 Boone	10,000	5-21	2,424	160	800	850	1,650	1,230	221,000
128 Burlington	30,000	5-21	8,136	1,000	2,096	1,969	4,065	3,280	642,880
129 Cedar Rapids	23,000	5-21	7,302	300	2,304	2,271	4,575	3,520	635,400
130 Clinton		5-21	5,574	400	1,749	1,860	3,609	2,837	524,845
131 Council Bluffs			7,602	900	2,175	2,228	4,403	3,370	640,300
132 Creston	8,000	5-21	2,491	50			1,739	1,224	216,717
133 Davenport	31,484	5-21	10,524	1,200	3,720	2,714	5,434	4,216	805,256
Des Moines:									
134 North Side	6,000	5-21	1,582	20	649	723	1,372	929	165,415
135 East Side	17,000	5-21	5,294	300	1,822	2,098	3,920	3,092	547,319
136 West Side	30,000	5-21	7,868	503	2,208	2,412	4,620	3,400	601,665
137 Dubuque	40,000	5-21	11,636	2,500	2,636	2,456	5,092	3,765	715,350
138 Fort Madison	10,500			* 675	707	700	1,407	1,018	173,080
139 Iowa City	7,500	5-21	3,814	500	751	757	1,508	1,158	211,914
140 Keokuk	15,000	5-21	4,564		1,220	1,258	2,478	1,836	326,950
141 Marshalltown	12,000	5-21		100	1,005	1,070	2,075	1,572	278,210
142 Muscatine	12,400	5-21	3,817		1,241	1,219	2,460	1,942	351,441

* Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

	City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
			School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
IOWA—continued.										
143	Oskaloosa	8,800	5-21	2,728	23	982	1,000	1,982	1,448	256,296
144	Ottumwa	17,000	6-21	5,004	125	1,768	2,072	3,840	2,969	540,682
145	Sioux City	40,000	5-21	11,186	800	2,565	2,722	5,287	4,244	740,012
Waterloo:										
146	East Side	5,244	1,761	*250	1,152	929	α167,220
147	West Side	4,000	5-21	1,166	50	810	600	105,600
KANSAS.										
148	Arkansas City	8,500	6-21	2,585	60	769	920	1,689	1,507	235,000
149	Atehison	14,000	5-21	4,467	450	1,021	1,150	2,171	1,600	280,876
150	Emporia	10,000	5-21	2,825	200	1,077	1,085	2,162	1,621	286,917
151	Fort Scott	10,500	5-21	4,203	150	2,057	2,146	4,203	1,937	311,901
152	Hutchinson	10,000	5-21	2,800	200	1,078	1,107	2,185	1,593	280,368
153	Kansas City	45,000	5-21	11,637	879	α7,410	5,166	914,382
154	Lawrence	10,500	5-21	3,500	*300	1,207	1,275	2,482	1,957	348,388
155	Leavenworth	23,000	5-21	7,502	900	3,146	2,449	426,126
156	Ottawa	7,074	5-21	2,431	100	820	894	1,714	1,235	222,300
157	Parsons	7,800	5-21	2,161	150	1,046	1,096	2,142	1,302	208,320
158	Pittsburg	10,983	5-21	2,584	150	925	1,006	1,931	1,357	213,049
159	Topeka	32,000	5-21	10,264	1,000	2,896	3,188	6,084	4,736	828,800
160	Wichita	24,000	5-21	6,000	*1,390	2,297	2,363	4,660	3,505	630,900
KENTUCKY.										
161	Bowling Green	10,000	6-20	2,461	649	731	1,380	1,121	210,748
162	Covington	60,000	6-20	15,820	3,660	2,063	2,129	4,192	*3,066	*613,220
Frankfort:										
163	White	11,000	5-20	1,683	50	450	434	884	475	77,818
164	Colored		5-20	1,147	30	250	266	516	416	68,224
165	Henderson	13,200	6-20	3,300	300	900	950	1,850	1,200	230,400
166	Hopkinsville	8,000	6-20	1,013	100	712	510	100,980
167	Lexington	9,978	3,479	2,557	α485,830
168	Louisville	182,000	6-20	78,216	6,000	12,361	13,574	25,935	18,983	3,872,532
169	Maysville*	8,000	6-20	200	500	700	1,200	700	70,000
170	Newport	30,000	6-20	8,606	1,200	1,888	1,949	3,837	3,112	622,400
171	Owensboro	15,000	6-20	3,250	400	934	949	1,883	1,453	264,450
172	Paducah	17,000	6-20	5,116	250	1,082	1,215	2,297	1,585	302,526
LOUISIANA.										
173	New Orleans	12,130	13,140	25,270
MAINE.										
174	Auburn	14,000	5-21	3,495	500	2,150	1,816	326,880
175	Augusta*	11,000	4-21	3,168	75	958
176	Bangor	21,000	5-21	5,756	250	1,520	1,820	3,340	2,807	477,190
177	Bath	9,000	4-21	2,987	0	865	842	1,707	1,470	257,250
178	Biddeford	15,000	4-21	4,681	1,000	1,772	1,230	171,616
179	Calais	7,350	4-21	2,545	64	654	873	1,527	1,106	193,550
180	Lewiston*	23,500	4-21	7,844	1,600	1,647	1,225	2,872	1,961	337,292
181	Portland	40,000	4-21	10,571	1,500	3,258	2,627	5,885	4,553	862,305
182	Rockland	9,000	4-21	2,337	50	1,491
MARYLAND.										
183	Baltimore	525,000	6-21	110,731	17,000	72,980	49,125	9,874,125
184	Frederick	9,000	6-21	560	610	1,170	773	113,674
185	Hagerstown	12,000	6-20	255	1,920	1,325	199,653
MASSACHUSETTS.										
186	Adams	9,000	5-15	1,732	35	1,847	1,404	α255,528
187	Amesbury	9,884	5-15	1,622	480	552	567	1,119	α930	α172,050

* Statistics of 1893-94.

α Estimated.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
MASSACHUSETTS—CON.									
183 Attleboro.....	8,275	5-15	1,465	50	806	866	1,672	1,134	212,058
129 Beverly.....	13,113	5-15	1,850	40	2,087	1,596	312,816
190 Boston.....	508,000	5-15	77,152	11,405	39,085	36,696	75,781	66,529	13,305,800
191 Brockton.....	33,016	5-15	5,213	*636	6,400	4,923	984,600
192 Brookline.....	14,500	5-15	2,376	141	1,373	1,408	2,781	2,067	405,132
193 Cambridge*	82,000	8-14	7,717	2,376	13,107	10,074	2,447,982
194 Chelsea.....	30,000	5-15	5,131	990	2,677	2,726	5,403	3,842	768,400
195 Chicopee*	5-15	2,455	650	2,128	1,457	281,201
196 Clinton.....	11,500	2,161	365	1,750	1,494	334,250
197 Everett.....	5-15	3,040	3	4,053	2,745	521,550
198 Fall River.....	89,576	16,975	4,084	7,077	6,885	13,962	9,311	1,824,956
199 Fitchburg.....	26,409	5-15	4,811	800	2,483	2,367	4,850	3,450	569,250
200 Framingham*	5-15	1,705	0	2,152	1,658	319,994
201 Gardner.....	9,500	5-15	1,644	100	810	812	1,622	1,315	243,275
202 Gloucester.....	27,000	5-15	2,710	325	2,194	2,260	4,454	3,869	748,652
203 Haverhill.....	30,000	5-15	5,048	1,371	4,266	3,368	656,760
204 Holyoke.....	40,549	5-15	8,042	3,000	2,573	2,580	5,153	3,677	676,440
205 Hyde Park.....	11,000	5-15	2,073	600	1,045	965	2,010	1,490	283,138
206 Lawrence.....	50,000	5-15	2,000	6,442	5,419	1,035,029
207 Lowell.....	90,000	5-15	13,778	4,000	6,097	5,834	11,931	8,273	1,753,019
208 Lynn.....	65,000	5-15	10,050	800	5,013	5,003	10,016	8,168	1,572,340
209 Malden.....	5-15	4,904	820	2,511	2,551	5,062	3,815	713,405
210 Marlboro.....	16,000	5-15	2,474	400	1,152	1,182	2,334	2,110	167,140
211 Medford.....	15,000	5-15	2,112	25	1,479	1,434	2,913	2,248	406,924
212 Melrose.....	11,000	5-15	2,056	0	2,378	2,026	401,148
213 Milford.....	8,780	5-15	1,202	200	723	777	1,500	1,190	186,573
214 Natick.....	8,825	8-14	888	10	850	903	1,753	1,490	283,104
215 New Bedford.....	55,000	5-15	9,665	2,715	3,655	3,771	7,426	5,270	1,022,380
216 Newburyport.....	13,947	5-15	2,381	669	954	966	1,920	1,450	289,928
217 Newton.....	24,375	5-15	4,735	693	2,242	2,183	4,425	3,567	713,320
218 North Adams.....	19,000	5-15	3,339	997	2,834	2,004	364,728
219 Northampton.....	17,600	5-15	2,576	480	2,426	1,940	369,800
220 Peabody.....	10,500	5-15	2,029	350	916	829	1,745	1,384	272,946
221 Pittsfield.....	19,486	5-15	3,694	130	2,065	1,046	4,111	3,094	587,920
222 Plymouth.....	8,000	5-15	1,620	30	1,575	1,296	248,832
223 Quincy.....	20,387	8-14	4,443	100	4,399	3,272	632,600
224 Salem.....	33,500	5-15	5,519	2,196	2,293	1,838	4,131	3,278	672,990
225 Somerville.....	51,510	5-15	8,040	1,329	4,608	4,779	9,387	6,840	1,234,620
226 Spencer.....	8,796	5-15	1,765	431	680	748	1,428	1,194	216,120
227 Springfield.....	51,851	5-15	8,002	1,500	4,442	3,900	8,342	6,312	1,205,592
228 Taunton.....	26,500	8-14	2,653	550	2,134	2,068	4,202	3,498	667,400
229 Waltham.....	18,522	5-15	3,328	975	1,250	1,314	2,564	1,924	435,864
230 Westfield.....	10,500	5-15	1,637	0	1,020	976	1,996	1,502	300,400
231 Weymouth.....	12,000	5-15	1,764	0	1,113	1,185	2,298	2,160	414,720
232 Weyburn.....	14,176	5-15	3,158	350	1,556	1,217	2,773	2,164	432,800
233 Worcester.....	100,000	5-15	17,212	2,500	9,054	8,583	17,637	13,120	2,199,795
MICHIGAN.									
234 Adrian.....	9,500	5-20	2,597	300	892	841	1,733	1,256	246,176
235 Alpena.....	13,000	5-20	4,657	1,500	891	935	1,826	1,362	272,438
236 Ann Arbor.....	11,311	5-20	3,047	250	1,256	1,072	2,328	1,961	265,355
237 Battlecreek.....	18,000	5-20	3,569	952	1,381	1,448	2,829	2,235	426,885
238 Bay City.....	30,039	5-20	10,877	1,200	2,276	2,314	4,590	3,447	668,634
239 Detroit.....	275,000	5-20	77,002	13,480	17,097	15,740	32,837	24,542	4,810,232
240 Escanaba.....	8,500	5-20	2,250	650	704	654	1,358	758	141,792
241 Flint.....	11,000	5-20	2,700	300	935	995	1,930	1,550	302,250
242 Grand Haven.....	5,367	5-20	1,835	154	644	590	1,234	1,015	202,995
243 Grand Rapids.....	79,433	5-20	24,717	3,474	7,053	7,148	14,201	10,859	2,171,800
244 Iron Mountain.....	9,000	5-20	2,361	884	900	1,784	1,504	300,963
245 Ironwood.....	9,376	5-20	2,129	600	763	733	1,496	1,320	264,000
246 Ishpening.....	12,785	5-20	4,061	550	1,343	1,513	2,856	1,601	313,655

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Estimated.

b In the model school connected with State Normal School there are 109 pupils.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
MICHIGAN—cont'd.									
Jackson:									
247 District No. 1.....	25,000	5-20	3,123	500	1,174	1,078	2,252	1,883	355,887
248 District No. 17.....		5-20	3,011	* 800	1,071	1,022	2,093	1,142	215,838
249 Kalamazoo.....	23,000	5-21	6,113	600	1,693	1,747	3,440	2,727	540,272
250 Lansing.....	18,000	5-21	* 500	1,373	1,561	2,934	2,364	459,704
251 Ludington*.....	5-20	2,683	1,083	1,428	269,892
252 Manistee.....	13,544	5-20	4,544	950	1,600	1,532	3,132	1,833	366,694
253 Marquette.....	10,000	5-20	2,816	375	967	910	1,817	1,307	227,931
254 Menominee*.....	12,540	5-20	3,563	250	2,335	1,491	292,236
255 Muskegon.....	25,000	5-20	7,411	2,168	2,299	4,467	3,624	674,064
256 Owosso.....	9,000	5-20	2,239	80	850	1,000	1,850	1,471	286,845
257 Port Huron.....	20,000	5-20	6,232	900	1,701	1,624	3,325	2,669	527,786
Saginaw:									
258 East Side.....	30,000	5-21	9,269	3,019	3,080	6,099	a 4,232	a 732,136
259 West Side.....	20,000	5-20	1,500	2,000	2,109	4,100	3,500	596,000
260 Sault Ste. Marie.....	7,600	5-21	2,100	250	864	1,000	1,864	966	183,131
261 Traverse City.....	8,000	5-20	1,861	150	821	903	1,724	1,132	196,391
262 West Bay City.....	14,000	5-21	4,246	700	1,240	1,257	2,497	1,740	335,899
MINNESOTA.									
263 Duluth*.....	33,115	7,409	5,390	1,045,697
264 Paribault.....	8,360	5-21	2,000	400	630	700	1,350	982	172,250
265 Mankato.....	10,189	5-21	2,900	1,040	927	962	1,889	1,427	258,860
266 Minneapolis.....	190,000	5,000	14,700	14,917	29,633	23,196	4,314,441
267 St. Cloud.....	9,000	2,500	800	570	596	1,166	920	164,566
268 St. Paul.....	142,000	7,000	10,508	10,768	21,276	15,991	3,051,397
269 Stillwater.....	350	889	867	1,756	1,536	270,335
270 Winona.....	22,000	5-21	1,500	1,855	1,835	3,690	2,869	545,034
MISSISSIPPI.									
271 Columbus.....	8,000	5-21	2,500	0	595	709	1,304	900	162,000
272 Jackson.....	8,000	5-21	2,200	150	600	700	1,300	950	171,000
273 Meridian.....	14,000	5-21	3,595	910	897	1,131	2,028	1,544	277,920
274 Natchez.....	11,000	5-21	3,425	850	610	754	1,364	835	150,300
275 Vicksburg.....	19,000	5-21	6,000	600	1,025	1,165	2,190
MISSOURI.									
276 Carthage.....	10,000	6-20	2,675	150	927	4,157	2,034	1,581	276,675
277 Chillicothe.....	6,600	6-18	1,585	711	728	1,439	* 979	* 172,350
278 Hannibal.....	15,000	6-20	4,118	209	1,195	1,435	2,630	1,886	335,292
279 Jefferson City.....	8,000	6-20	2,200	600	529	590	1,110	750	133,500
280 Joplin.....	17,000	6-20	4,055	75	1,597	1,698	3,295	2,316	409,885
281 Kansas City.....	150,000	6-20	41,540	3,000	9,068	10,121	19,189	13,581	2,444,580
282 Moberly.....	11,000	6-20	3,329	300	859	900	1,759	1,300	227,613
283 Nevada*.....	6-29	1,940	137	756	804	1,560	1,127	178,089
284 St. Charles.....	8,000	6-20	2,150	600	350	325	675	475	93,850
285 St. Joseph.....	55,000	6-20	23,121	1,200	3,547	3,876	7,423	5,531	884,960
286 St. Louis.....	596,157	6-29	158,352	25,000	34,392	36,036	70,428	51,014	9,611,213
287 Sedalia.....	18,000	6-29	4,030	250	1,565	1,653	3,218	2,487	447,680
288 Springfield.....	25,000	6-20	6,470	600	2,519	2,552	5,071	3,123	499,680
MONTANA.									
289 Butte City.....	32,000	6-21	5,323	600	1,884	2,085	3,969	2,852	484,840
290 Great Falls.....	12,000	6-21	1,516	15	623	651	1,274	892	151,612
291 Helena.....	15,000	6-21	2,423	200	961	1,072	2,033	1,525	259,167
NEBRASKA.									
292 Beatrice.....	12,000	6-21	2,596	120	1,107	1,112	2,219	1,691	237,612
293 Fremont.....	10,000	5-21	2,570	60	909	906	1,815	1,335	245,640
294 Grand Island.....	9,000	5-21	2,384	200	814	867	1,681	1,314	233,800

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Estimated.

TALBE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.	
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
NEBRASKA—cont'd.										
295	Hastings	14,000	5-21	2,433	50	850	875	1,725	1,235	216,125
296	Kearney	8,000	5-21	6	739	789	1,528	1,022	176,806
297	Lincoln	50,000	5-21	11,693	3,548	3,658	7,206	4,792	881,723
298	Nebraska City*	5-21	2,381	731	733	1,464	996	179,289
299	Omaha	140,000	5-21	28,630	1,552	8,173	8,364	16,537	12,238	2,178,304
300	Plattsmouth	10,000	5-21	2,236	400	649	671	1,320	928	167,400
301	South Omaha	15,000	5-21	3,617	250	1,219	1,293	2,512	1,711	313,113
NEVADA.										
302	Virginia City	4,000	6-18	1,416	100	446	425	881	723	147,492
NEW HAMPSHIRE.										
303	Concord	17,004	350	1,210	1,253	2,465	1,835	311,950
304	Dover	13,000	5-16	1,914	600	793	783	1,576	1,288	230,552
305	Keene (Union district)	8,000	8-16	818	175	567	540	1,107	955	169,235
306	Manchester	55,000	4,000	2,227	2,579	5,206	3,499	612,325
307	Nashua	21,000	5-16	3,995	1,500	1,205	1,121	2,326	2,067	333,457
308	Portsmouth	10,000	5-15	1,526	250	1,425	1,011	192,020
NEW JERSEY.										
309	Atlantic City*	15,000	2,936	1,133	1,178	2,311	1,612	298,263
310	Bayonne	21,000	5-18	5,915	1,500	1,746	2,230	3,976	2,401	468,815
311	Bridgeton	13,009	5-20	3,159	1,075	1,191	2,266	1,548	303,481
312	Camden	65,000	5-17	16,320	950	5,415	5,592	11,007	5,417	1,280,092
313	Elizabeth	43,000	5-18	10,576	2,500	2,805	2,726	5,531	3,993	811,810
314	Harrison	8,000	5-18	2,800	1,000	400	500	900	740	148,000
315	Hoboken	54,000	5-20	17,546	1,500	4,241	4,227	8,468	5,492	1,172,002
316	Jersey City	182,000	5-18	69,657	13,396	13,574	26,970	17,986	3,693,172
317	Long Branch	9,000	5-18	2,846	90	1,192	1,089	2,281	1,617	311,260
318	Millville*	1,033	1,073	2,106	1,430	285,000
319	Morristown	10,000	5-18	2,454	877	555	580	1,135	858	171,600
320	Newark	210,000	5-18	58,103	10,456	14,801	14,906	29,767	20,727	4,079,993
321	New Brunswick*	1,324	1,351	2,675	2,107	193,844
322	Orange	20,000	5-18	5,945	1,800	1,157	1,204	2,361	1,684	334,063
323	Passaic	18,000	5-20	4,308	300	1,435	1,503	2,938	2,180	374,120
324	Paterson	95,000	24,303	2,500	7,064	6,993	14,033	9,942	1,930,339
325	Perth Amboy	13,000	5-20	800	839	771	1,610	1,171	230,987
326	Phillipsburg	9,681	5-18	2,552	288	797	878	1,675	1,327	265,400
327	Plainfield	5-18	2,907	500	1,117	1,135	2,252	1,526	295,264
328	Rahway	9,000	5-18	1,773	674	645	1,319	858	174,955
329	Town of Union	13,336	5-18	3,582	393	1,264	1,283	2,547	1,809	375,289
330	Trenton*	3,599	3,811	7,410	5,461	1,084,704
NEW YORK.										
331	Albany	97,120	5-21	32,138	3,311	6,752	6,770	13,522	10,381	1,920,742
332	Amsterdam	19,000	4-21	5,093	2,821	1,900	325,000
333	Auburn	28,000	6-21	7,415	1,400	1,811	1,846	3,657	2,948	559,722
334	Batavia	9,000	5-21	2,419	400	1,450	989	185,265
3 5	Binghamton	42,200	5-21	8,912	454	3,143	3,271	6,414	5,022	934,361
3 6	Brooklyn	1,000,000	35,000	138,339	98,120	19,711,445
337	Buffalo	350,000	4-16	72,151	18,952	23,239	23,426	46,665	31,093	5,901,857
338	Cohoes	24,500	5-21	6,569	1,372	1,343	1,564	2,907	2,025	404,956
339	Corning*	10,025	5-21	2,090	0	732	763	1,495	1,048	297,000
340	Dunkirk	12,000	5-21	3,750	793	1,493	1,133	215,250
341	Edgewater: District No. 1 (Tomkinsville)	3,330	6-21	650	165	200	365	260	49,991
342	District No. 2 (Stapleton)	6,500	5-21	2,271	300	564	586	1,150	822	157,923

* Statistics for 1893-94.

^a Estimated.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
NEW YORK—cont'd.									
343 Elmira.....	36,000	5-21	799	2,680	2,640	5,320	4,303	830,534
344 Flushing.....	8,500	1,377	947	170,652
345 Geneva.....	10,000	5-21	2,257	540	658	682	1,340	985	189,369
346 Glens Falls.....	12,000	5-21	2,669	300	613	742	1,355	912	175,138
347 Gloversville.....	5-21	3,211	40	1,426	1,557	2,983	2,199	428,719
348 Hornellsville.....	12,000	5-21	3,281	425	1,025	1,075	2,100	1,531	295,547
349 Hudson.....	10,000	4-21	2,118	457	689	657	1,346	1,061	202,659
350 Ithaca.....	13,500	5-21	3,000	380	942	1,063	2,005	1,640	313,328
351 Jamestown.....	22,000	269	1,884	1,904	3,788	2,927	554,227
352 Johnstown.....	10,000	5-21	2,323	0	830	949	1,779	1,332	258,351
353 Kingstonschool district.....	13,000	5-21	3,388	476	1,063	1,095	2,158	1,529	296,593
354 Lansingburg.....	11,400	5-21	2,970	400	1,948	1,488	276,814
355 Littlefalls.....	12,000	5-21	2,123	400	575	650	1,225	916	176,221
356 Lockport.....	18,500	5-21	4,800	600	1,478	1,587	3,065	2,685	460,301
357 Long Island City.....	45,000	5-21	11,000	700	3,600	3,958	7,558	5,406	1,070,398
358 Middletown.....	13,000	5-21	3,391	250	1,113	1,071	2,184	1,568	301,050
359 Mount Vernon, District No. 5.....	17,000	5-21	4,026	200	1,426	1,581	3,007	2,188	433,188
360 Newburgh.....	24,376	5-21	6,990	1,402	1,616	1,589	3,205	2,348	455,627
361 New Rochelle.....	12,000	5-21	3,061	100	1,196	1,153	2,349	1,448	279,257
362 New York.....	1,900,000	5-21	486,000	70,500	128,185	119,376	247,561	175,271	34,679,401
363 Niagara Falls.....	17,000	5-21	4,066	350	1,247	1,225	2,472	1,715	325,901
364 North Tonawanda.....	10,000	5-21	2,700	400	1,719	1,135	219,055
365 Ogdensburg.....	5-21	4,375	600	2,211	1,423	270,443
366 Olean.....	12,000	5-21	2,593	400	1,002	925	1,927	1,436	277,203
367 Oswego.....	25,000	5-21	7,500	1,250	3,656	2,800	534,800
368 Peekskill, District No. 7 (Drumhill).....	α 11,000	5-21	1,327	115	469	562	1,031	624	120,456
369 Plattsburg.....	9,000	5-21	1,800	50	911	745	1,656	1,182	223,607
370 Port Jervis.....	9,632	5-21	2,365	79	951	1,000	1,951	1,431	263,373
371 Poughkeepsie.....	23,000	5-21	6,250	778	1,543	1,625	3,168	2,423	518,570
372 Rochester.....	155,000	5-21	53,000	9,500	10,692	10,988	21,680	16,504	3,135,760
373 Rome.....	15,500	5-21	2,786	398	1,819	1,334	251,816
374 Saratoga Springs.....	14,000	5-20	3,312	60	1,214	1,310	2,524	1,772	340,133
375 Schenectady.....	22,815	5-21	6,119	1,172	1,340	1,450	1,790	2,070	387,073
376 Sing Sing.....	8,000	5-21	1,650	304	487	545	1,032	709	133,982
377 Syracuse.....	116,564	5-21	27,500	3,500	7,666	7,895	15,561	12,578	2,440,132
378 Tonawanda.....	8,100	5-21	2,450	250	900	800	1,700	1,151	225,672
379 Troy.....	60,000	5-21	22,000	3,000	3,533	3,182	6,715	4,940	956,701
380 Utica.....	50,000	5-21	12,575	2,854	3,771	3,801	7,572	5,145	978,293
381 Watertown.....	20,000	4-21	4,241	200	1,485	1,515	3,000	2,055	390,928
382 Yonkers.....	5-21	10,800	1,900	4,110	3,126	599,706
NORTH CAROLINA.									
383 Asheville.....	12,000	6-21	2,600	500	1,353
384 Charlotte.....	20,000	6-21	4,594	150	1,020	1,078	2,098	1,405	252,900
385 Winston.....	12,400	6-21	2,486	12	680	780	1,460	943	169,740
OHIO.									
386 Akron.....	33,000	6-21	9,180	1,313	2,923	2,821	5,744	4,716	891,280
387 Alliance.....	9,000	6-21	2,270	91	790	841	1,631	1,305	242,730
388 Ashtabula.....	13,000	6-21	1,871	200	640	647	1,287	1,156	208,080
389 Bellaire.....	6-21	2,924	1,734	1,282	230,760
390 Canton.....	6-21	8,528	800	2,615	2,751	5,346	4,252	829,081
391 Chillicothe.....	6-21	3,692	112	1,182	1,176	2,358	1,797	327,054
392 Cincinnati.....	300,000	6-21	85,012	17,299	20,589	19,314	39,903	31,925	6,385,000
393 Circleville*.....	8,000	6-21	1,936	655	638	1,293	913	178,948
394 Cleveland.....	330,000	6-21	91,453	25,000	24,491	24,085	48,576	36,540	6,749,900
395 Columbus.....	115,000	6-21	28,931	*3,619	7,809	7,935	15,744	13,004	2,470,000
396 Dayton.....	80,000	6-21	19,029	5,440	5,542	10,982	9,437	1,821,410
397 Delaware*.....	8,500	725	751	669	1,420	983	188,717
398 Delaware*.....	8,000	6-21	2,273	400	774	852	1,626	1,233	229,338
399 East Liverpool*.....	13,000	6-21	4,431	100	1,110	1,141	2,251	1,561	277,858

* Statistics of 1893-94.

α Population of the entire village.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
OHIO—continued.									
400 Elyria	6,000	6-21	1,827	411	485	532	1,017	841	158,949
401 Findlay		6-21	4,549				3,500	2,705	486,900
402 Forestia	9,000	6-21	2,152	275	687	777	1,464	1,176	205,800
403 Fremont	8,500		2,201	400	686	665	1,351	1,090	200,560
404 Hamilton	22,000	6-21	6,490	1,200	1,544	1,596	3,140	2,593	490,153
405 Ironton	14,000	6-21	3,772	425	1,349	1,204	2,553	2,011	370,024
406 Lancaster	8,000	6-21	2,048	200	683	651	1,334	1,086	197,652
407 Lima	20,000	6-21	4,797	800	1,491	1,498	2,989	2,385	453,150
408 Lorain	10,000	6-21		256	684	699	1,383	992	184,512
409 Mansfield	16,000	6-21		300	1,388	1,421	2,809	2,313	402,402
410 Marietta	10,000	6-21	2,924	100	911	1,027	1,938	1,647	299,754
411 Marion		6-21	2,658				1,982	1,533	291,270
412 Martins Ferry	8,000	6-21	2,246	200	663	694	1,357	1,086	193,308
413 Massillon		6-21	3,895				1,956	1,575	315,000
414 Middletown	11,000	6-21	2,538	300	725	706	1,431	1,185	227,520
415 Mount Vernon *	8,000	6-21	1,760	205	667	665	1,332	1,010	186,850
416 Nelsonville	5,300	6-21	1,832	30	655	753	1,408	1,133	186,945
417 Newark	16,000	6-21	5,551	361	1,325	1,345	2,670	2,106	387,504
418 Norwalk *	8,000	6-21	2,195	450	652	644	1,296	1,027	195,130
419 Piquetta *	10,000	6-21	3,294	400	868	829	1,697	1,398	244,050
420 Portsmouth *	15,000	6-21	4,242	400	1,192	1,253	2,445	1,750	309,750
421 Salem	8,000	6-21	1,939	0	793	795	1,588	1,229	242,634
422 Sandusky	22,000	6-21	5,108	1,400	1,405	1,624	3,029	2,839	426,876
423 Springfield	35,000	6-21	9,296	1,400	2,830	2,826	5,656	4,726	907,392
424 Steubenville	14,000	6-21	4,335	640	1,142	1,044	2,186	1,749	333,281
425 Tiffin	14,000	6-21	3,408	800	873	897	1,760	1,372	256,564
426 Toledo	115,000	6-21	29,146	4,500	7,687	7,525	15,212	12,382	2,364,962
427 Warren		6-21	2,384		649	831	1,580	1,216	212,800
428 Xenia	8,500	6-21	2,071	175	741	825	1,566	1,240	230,980
429 Youngstown	37,000	6-21	11,281	2,000	3,016	3,076	6,092	4,833	869,940
430 Zanesville	23,000	6-21	6,270		1,828	1,890	3,718	3,069	567,765
OKLAHOMA.									
431 Oklahoma City	6,000	5-21	1,930	150	* 650	* 651	* 1,301	* 740	* 113,200
OREGON.									
432 Portland	90,000	4-20	19,471	1,100	5,107	5,447	10,554	8,388	1,593,663
433 Salem	12,000	4-20	2,658	300	926	845	1,771	1,335	230,304
PENNSYLVANIA.									
434 Allegheny	110,000			2,500	9,999	9,943	19,942	12,436	2,487,200
435 Allentown	32,000	6-21	5,200	300	2,420	2,277	4,697	4,236	787,000
436 Altoona	35,000	6-21		1,500	3,126	3,198	6,324	4,687	843,660
437 Beaver Falls	11,000			180	922	977	1,899	1,446	260,280
438 Braddock	12,000			250	853	881	1,734	1,267	228,060
439 Bradford	15,000			250	1,236	1,220	2,456	2,073	373,140
440 Butler	10,000			500	974	1,041	2,015	1,525	274,052
441 Carbondale	13,800			180	1,054	1,234	2,288	1,635	318,825
442 Carlisle	10,000			50	657	657	1,314	1,172	234,400
443 Chambersburg	9,000	6-21	1,800	150	853	782	1,635	1,300	234,000
444 Chester	21,000	6-21		500	1,605	1,779	3,384	2,464	492,800
445 Columbia	13,000		2,527	500	1,000	1,027	2,027	1,631	293,580
446 Dunmore *	9,000			0	844	929	1,773	1,125	225,000
447 Easton	16,500	6-21		50	1,368	1,358	2,726	2,165	428,514
448 Erie	50,200	6-21	15,200	2,500	3,465	3,434	6,899	5,058	980,306
449 Harrisburg	48,000	6-21		700	3,877	4,120	7,997	5,562	1,056,979
450 Hazleton	15,000	6-21		500	1,170	1,133	2,303	1,788	321,810
451 Homestead	10,000	6-21		450	862	848	1,710	1,147	206,460
452 Johnstown *				1,500	1,859	1,969	3,828	2,737	492,660
453 Lancaster	38,000	6-21		500	2,907	2,891	5,798	4,113	822,600
454 Lebanon	17,500	6-25		300	1,100	1,300	2,400	* 2,141	α 385,380
455 Lockhaven	8,000			200	706	801	1,507	1,211	217,980
456 McKeesport	32,000			850	2,083	2,180	4,263	3,318	597,240
457 Mahanoy City *				150	1,023	1,168	2,191	1,531	275,580
458 Meadville	10,500	6-21		150	927	1,028	1,955	1,603	288,540

* Statistics of 1893-94.

α Estimated.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
PENNSYLVANIA—con.									
459 Mount Carmel.....	10,000	6-18	400	828	852	1,680	1,096	195,147
460 Nanticoke.....	12,000	*300	773	840	1,613	1,127	195,247
461 New Castle*	20,000	6-21	250	1,400	1,500	2,900	2,200	352,000
462 Norristown.....	21,000	400	1,446	1,507	2,953	2,116	423,200
463 Oil City.....	14,000	6-21	550	1,032	1,184	2,216	1,617	291,060
464 Philadelphia.....	1,400,000	6-21	41,000	163,515	111,361	22,160,839
465 Phoenixville.....	9,000	6-21	300	558	573	1,131	826	156,940
466 Pittsburg.....	250,000	18,000*	19,576	19,377	38,953	28,958	5,791,600
467 Pittstor.....	12,000	690	779	646	1,425	1,205	228,704
468 Plymouth.....	11,000	6-21	*500	742	850	1,592	1,083	194,940
469 Pottstown.....	15,000	6-21	0	1,496	1,452	2,948	2,133	426,600
470 Pottsville*	300	1,408	1,183	2,591	1,902	392,400
471 Reading.....	80,000	6-21	2,000	5,149	5,039	10,188	8,804	1,708,976
472 Scranton.....	100,000	2,500	6,243	6,824	13,067	8,913	1,689,777
473 Shamokin.....	18,000	6-21	6,500	900	1,707	1,743	3,450	2,430	457,400
474 Shenandoah.....	17,500	6-21	4,500	200	1,357	1,522	2,879	2,048	409,600
475 South Bethlehem*	675	1,109	1,098	2,207	1,876	375,200
476 South Chester.....	7,500	6-21	1,600	100	653	633	1,286	1,170	210,600
477 Steelton.....	12,000	250	798	823	1,621	1,370	247,364
478 Titusville.....	9,000	6-21	2,000	300	777	807	1,584	1,400	252,000
479 Uniontown.....	8,000	6-16	1,600	150	503	772	1,275	1,065	191,700
480 Westchester.....	10,000	6-18	1,850	250	621	734	1,355	993	198,600
481 Wilkesbarre.....	45,000	6-21	1,500	2,871	3,516	6,387	5,110	950,460
482 Williamsport.....	30,000	6-21	7,500	1,000	2,472	2,473	4,845	3,703	667,690
483 York.....	24,000	5-20	500	1,939	1,891	3,830	2,922	525,791
RHODE ISLAND.									
484 East Providence.....	10,000	5-16	2,063	136	953	994	1,947	1,462	292,330
485 Johnston (P. O., Olneyville).....	10,000	5-15	2,187	42	887	891	1,778	1,403	280,600
486 Newport.....	22,000	5-15	3,830	1,151	1,329	1,270	2,599	1,968	365,728
487 Pawtucket.....	30,000	5-16	6,274	1,702	2,068	2,497	5,165	3,291	641,745
488 Providence.....	153,000	5-15	25,683	3,450	12,493	12,187	24,680	15,703	2,977,905
489 Woonsocket.....	24,000	5-15	5,645	1,800	1,849	1,772	3,621	2,309	461,800
SOUTH CAROLINA.									
490 Charleston.....	60,000	6-16	6,000	1,200	2,337	2,698	5,035	4,783	870,506
491 Columbia.....	17,000	6-21	4,000	600	913	1,161	2,074	1,495	254,163
492 Spartanburg*	8,500	300	1,318	889	158,242
SOUTH DAKOTA.									
493 Sioux Falls.....	10,000	6-20	2,395	125	933	972	1,905	1,575	263,888
TENNESSEE.									
494 Chattanooga.....	36,000	6-21	6,073	400	2,307	2,484	4,791	2,987	526,500
495 Clarksville.....	9,300	6-21	2,846	244	742	900	1,642	1,117	223,400
496 Knoxville.....	6-21	9,112	500	1,504	1,654	3,158	2,489	465,394
497 Memphis.....	60,000	6-21	17,207	2,500	3,062	3,871	6,933	4,419	783,117
498 Nashville.....	80,000	6-21	21,661	750	4,784	5,628	10,412	8,515	1,582,869
TEXAS.									
499 Austin.....	8-19	5,512	2,206	1,589	1,617	3,206	1,653	239,984
500 Corsicana*	7-21	75	632	691	1,323	950	175,750
501 Dallas.....	50,000	8-17	8,086	675	2,508	2,874	5,382	4,622	694,610
502 Denison.....	13,500	7-19	2,644	380	977	1,124	2,101	1,351	243,289
503 El Paso.....	13,000	8-17	1,580	400	586	583	1,169	659	118,620
504 Fort Worth.....	30,000	7-21	4,522	303	1,785	1,957	3,742	2,642	467,220
505 Gainesville.....	10,000	7-19	1,508	200	664	829	1,493	1,044	193,865
506 Galveston.....	40,000	8-17	9,412	1,500	2,549	2,707	5,256	3,658	625,518
507 Houston.....	61,530	8-16	11,021	500	2,657	2,895	5,552	3,928	668,352
508 Laredo*	8-15	3,138	499	515	1,014
509 Paris.....	13,000	6-18	2,810	100	860	1,276	2,136	1,750	a 280,000

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Estimated.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of population and school enrollment, etc.—Continued.

City.	Total population in 1894 (estimated).	School population.		Pupils in private and parochial schools (largely estimated).	Different pupils enrolled in public day schools.			Average daily attendance in public day schools.	Aggregate days attendance of pupils in public day schools.
		School-census age.	Children of school-census age.		Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
TEXAS—continued.									
510 San Antonio	48,048	8-17	12,012	3,187	3,506	6,693	4,489	757,649
511 Tyler*	8,000	7-17	1,500	80	500	1,000	1,500	750	135,000
512 Waco*	27,000	7-18	6,485	2,945	1,931	α 347,580
UTAH.									
513 Ogden	18,000	6-18	4,688	150	α 4,550	3,393	593,775
514 Salt Lake City	55,000	6-18	11,941	500	5,382	5,611	10,993	7,987	1,469,608
VERMONT.									
515 Burlington	16,000	5-21	4,665	1,575	1,208	1,045	2,253	1,574	285,391
516 Rutland	13,000	5-21	1,569	400	800	785	1,585	α 1,056	α 191,136
VIRGINIA.									
517 Alexandria	17,000	5-21	4,800	600	1,059	1,020	2,079	1,631	324,569
518 Danville	5-21	3,145	794	870	1,664	1,166	215,710
519 Lynchburg	19,000	5-21	6,748	350	1,342	1,659	3,001	2,317	451,815
520 Manchester	663	813	1,476	1,012	161,920
521 Norfolk	40,000	5-21	10,257	2,608	1,390	1,406	2,796	1,903	357,764
522 Petersburg	25,000	5-21	7,667	350	1,517	1,793	3,310	2,502	235,521
523 Portsmouth	20,000	5-21	4,318	488	758	849	1,607	1,243	248,600
524 Richmond	90,000	5-21	23,933	2,500	5,581	6,706	12,287	9,959	1,812,538
525 Roanoke	20,000	5-21	4,526	662	1,468	1,505	2,973	1,645	300,854
526 Staunton	9,000	5-21	2,377	175	556	575	1,131	880	153,125
WASHINGTON.									
527 Seattle	64,341	5-21	9,918	3,191	3,627	6,818	5,137	889,564
528 Spokane	30,000	5-21	4,113	250	1,635	1,737	3,392	2,551	451,527
529 Tacoma	40,000	5-21	7,774	700	2,674	2,594	5,268	4,365	763,582
530 Walla Walla	8,000	320	834	869	1,703	934	161,856
WEST VIRGINIA.									
531 Huntington	14,000	6-21	2,416	100	997	993	1,990	1,337	227,054
532 Parkersburg	14,000	200	910	1,144	2,054	1,741	318,603
533 Wheeling	35,310	6-21	10,261	1,100	2,899	3,022	5,921	4,100	721,600
WISCONSIN.									
534 Appleton	14,356	4-20	5,044	1,400	1,142	1,079	2,221	1,627	286,483
535 Ashland	12,000	4-20	3,652	350	1,901	1,253	227,057
536 Chippewa Falls	10,000	4-21	2,994	999	634	691	1,325	1,070	181,838
537 Eau Claire	20,000	4-20	6,152	600	1,803	1,857	3,660	2,998	515,520
538 Fond du Lac*	15,000	4-20	4,739	380	2,451	1,713	334,035
539 Green Bay	13,000	4-20	3,508	800	920	908	1,828	1,339	257,267
540 Janesville	15,000	4-20	4,326	300	1,041	1,090	2,131	1,586	285,449
541 La Crosse	4-20	9,743	935	2,453	2,491	4,944	3,961	6780,317
542 Madison	15,000	4-20	4,800	500	1,173	1,205	2,378	61,805	633,925
543 Marinette	4-20	4,177	1,641	1,534	3,175	2,205	419,450
544 Merrill	8,000	4-20	2,605	220	805	927	1,732	1,155	297,922
545 Milwaukee	257,384	4-20	86,140	16,879	16,258	33,157	25,324	4,611,773
546 Oshkosh	30,000	4-20	8,578	1,900	1,631	1,613	3,244	2,814	461,584
547 Racine	24,795	4-20	7,804	1,100	1,981	2,046	4,027	3,226	642,302
548 Sheboygan	2,500	4-20	7,473	1,262	1,644	1,627	3,271	2,414	468,303
549 Stevens Point	9,000	4-20	3,326	733	788	768	1,556	1,120	209,024
550 Superior	35,000	4-20	5,265	600	2,338	2,456	4,794	3,051	585,813
551 Watertown*	4-20	3,265	1,140	864	6172,800
552 Wausau*	10,500	4-20	4,000	500	2,270	61,600	6288,000
WYCMING.									
553 Cheyenne	10,000	100	569	578	1,147	770	133,210

* Statistics of 1893-94.

α Estimated.

b Approximately.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, and property of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants.

	City.	Number of regular teachers.			Number of supervising officers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruction contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public property used for school purposes.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
ALABAMA.												
1	Birmingham.....	12	61	73	3	1	4	158	11	8	3,560	* \$225,000
2	Huntsville.....	2	10	12	2	0	2	160	10	3	650	9,000
3	Mobile.....	14	55	69	1	0	1	189	11	8	3,000
4	Montgomery.....	3	43	46	1	0	1	163	12	7	2,000	125,000
5	Selma.....	1	18	19	2	1	3	160	12	3	1,000	50,000
ARKANSAS.												
6	Fort Smith.....	7	44	51	1	1	2	175	12	8	2,300	300,000
7	Hot Springs.....	2	29	31	1	0	1	178	11	6	1,620	75,000
8	Little Rock.....	9	64	73	1	0	1	177	12	14	4,286	312,450
9	Pine Bluff.....	3	24	27	1	1	2	172	12	7	1,625	45,000
CALIFORNIA.												
10	Alameda.....	6	42	48	5	0	5	12	7	2,568	197,962
11	Berkeley.....	5	39	44	2	0	2	195	12	7	1,568	70,000
12	Eureka.....	2	26	28	1	0	1	195	10	12	1,500	120,800
13	Fresno.....	5	30	35	0	0	0	185	9	4	1,702	90,125
14	Los Angeles.....	24	239	263	6	5	11	170	12	37	10,145	754,870
15	Oakland.....	27	179	206	11	3	14	203	12	14	10,000	1,004,575
16	Pasadena.....	6	33	39	2	0	2	171	11	5	1,635	100,000
17	Sacramento.....	3	114	117	3	2	5	187	15	17	3,180	270,850
18	San Bernardino *.....	9	26	35	7	5	12	171	10	133,000
19	San Diego.....	7	64	71	2	4	6	188	12	15	2,922	111,850
20	San Francisco.....	64	783	847	13	40	53	200	12	79	*39,526	5,140,258
21	San Jose.....	2	87	89	8	2	10	192	11	16	3,794	236,450
22	Santa Cruz.....	3	33	36	1	0	1	190	12	7	1,400	125,000
23	Stockton.....	13	43	56	2	2	4	190	12	11	2,900	284,090
COLORADO.												
24	Colorado Springs.....	0	49	49	9	3	12	190	12	9	2,850	352,000
Denver:												
25	District No. 1.....	17	197	214	10	3	13	181	13	24	9,955	* 2,100,000
26	District No. 2.....	3	90	93	10	1	11	183	12	14	4,256	600,000
27	Dist. No. 17.....	6	52	58	6	2	8	190	12	8	3,000	500,000
28	Leadville.....	3	22	25	1	0	1	175	11	5	1,165	66,000
Pueblo:												
29	District No. 1.....	5	40	45	1	0	1	187	12	8	2,000	* 250,000
30	District No. 20.....	4	41	45	1	0	1	180	12	12	2,100	184,000
31	Trinidad.....	3	20	23	1	1	2	186	11	4	1,175	83,000
CONNECTICUT.												
32	Ansonia *.....	3	41	44	200	7	2,155	b 110,000
33	Bridgeport.....	3	151	154	4	3	7	186	9	20	8,927	761,902
34	Bristol *.....	4	38	42	2	1	3	195	13	1,800	* b 85,000
35	Danbury.....	5	63	68	3	3	6	195	12	14	1,102	170,000
36	Hartford.....	18	199	217	196	9	19	7,353	b 1,238,000
37	Manchester.....	3	38	41	3	5	8	186	8	9	1,800	100,000
38	Meriden.....	11	95	106	1	0	1	194	13	20	5,250	413,548
39	Middletown.....	2	25	27	1	0	1	185	13	3	1,188	a 130,000
40	New Britain.....	4	66	70	1	0	1	188	9	11	2,950	* b 263,000
41	New Haven.....	27	351	378	13	9	22	200	13	45	14,471	1,191,299
42	New London.....	2	50	52	2	2	4	193	8	6	2,382	240,000
43	Norwalk.....	9	54	63	9	0	9	200	11	13	2,916	110,700
44	Norwich *.....	2	31	33	200	6	1,365	b 67,000
45	Rockville.....	70,000
46	Stamford.....	9	64	73	2	1	3	200	13	18	3,600	* b 142,800
47	Waterbury.....	11	116	127	6	11	17	192	12	16	4,980	600,000
48	Willimantic.....	6	37	43	4	1	5	193	14	90,000

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Including new high school building now nearly completed.

b Value of sites and buildings.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of regular teachers.			Number of supervising officers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruction contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public property used for school purposes.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
DELAWARE.												
49	Wilmington	5	202	207	2	1	3	196	15	27	10,076	* \$622,797
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.												
Washington:												
50	First to sixth divisions a	78	594	672	11	23	34	184	-----	78	35,500	3,260,027
51	Seventh and eighth divisions b	38	248	286	9	4	13	182	13	24		
FLORIDA.												
52	Jacksonville	32	107	139	1	0	1	100	8	82	5,500	76,735
53	Key West	6	26	32	-----	-----	-----	162	8	10	-----	25,242
54	Pensacola	5	27	32	1	0	1	151	10	9	2,000	* 43,250
55	Tampa	4	21	25	1	0	1	c 150	-----	7	1,050	18,000
GEORGIA.												
56	Americus	4	26	30	1	1	2	182	-----	2	1,200	30,000
57	Athens	5	25	30	1	0	1	172	10	6	1,400	25,000
58	Atlanta	13	186	199	9	16	25	200	12	23	9,733	462,780
59	Augusta	10	92	102	2	2	4	162	13	10	4,600	125,000
60	Brunswick	3	18	21	1	0	1	170	11	3	1,500	50,000
61	Columbus	10	48	58	1	0	1	176	10	8	2,322	120,000
62	Macon	6	93	99	1	2	3	181	10	16	4,683	160,500
63	Rome	-----	-----	24	1	0	1	133	-----	5	1,250	25,000
64	Savannah	73	40	113	10	2	12	180	10	9	7,500	400,000
ILLINOIS.												
65	Alton	3	27	30	1	1	2	188	12	5	1,335	85,000
Aurora:												
66	Dist. No. 4, west*	-----	-----	-----	1	2	3	188	12	3	1,100	80,000
67	Dist. No. 5, east*	2	46	48	1	4	5	192	12	8	2,400	200,000
68	Belleville	14	46	60	2	0	2	200	11	7	3,140	155,200
69	Bloomington	5	68	73	2	6	8	177	12	11	3,500	221,000
70	Cairo	3	37	40	1	1	2	181	12	9	1,842	118,023
71	Canton	1	33	34	2	1	3	175	11	8	1,708	110,000
72	Champaign	6	22	28	2	0	2	183	-----	5	1,252	74,500
73	Chicago	167	3,896	4,063	134	127	261	194	12	d 281	186,845	15,570,000
74	Danville	10	44	54	1	1	2	189	12	7	2,800	165,000
75	Decatur	12	61	73	2	1	3	186	11	10	3,600	230,000
East St. Louis:												
76	District No. 1	1	8	9	1	0	1	195	8	2	400	32,250
77	District No. 2, T. 2 N., R. 10 W	7	39	46	4	0	4	197	12	4	2,073	225,800
78	District No. 2, T. 2 N., R. 9 W	1	6	7	1	0	1	202	12	1	300	18,000
79	Elgin	1	87	88	1	3	4	186	12	13	3,710	320,000
Evanston:												
80	District No. 1	0	39	39	1	0	1	195	8	5	1,400	200,000
81	North Evanston, No. 3	1	6	7	1	0	1	189	8	1	270	20,000
82	South Evanston	0	19	19	1	0	1	186	8	2	650	120,000
83	Freeport	1	42	43	1	1	2	195	12	8	1,850	135,000
84	Galesburg	0	58	58	3	1	4	175	11	8	2,600	225,000
85	Jacksonville	1	51	52	1	0	1	177	12	7	2,300	135,000
86	Joliet	9	83	92	3	2	5	185	12	16	4,600	326,000
87	Kankakee	3	34	37	1	0	1	176	12	6	1,800	120,000
88	Mattoon	1	33	34	1	0	1	181	12	7	1,731	82,500
89	Moline	5	52	57	2	6	8	175	12	8	3,052	250,000
90	Ottawa	2	36	38	1	0	1	190	8	7	1,750	56,000

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a White pupils generally.

b Colored pupils only.

c Two schools were in session only 114 days.

d Not including 271 rented rooms.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of reg- ular teachers.			Number of su- pervising of- ficers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruc- tion contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public prop- erty used for school pur- poses.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
ILLINOIS—continued.											
91 Pekin	4	30	34	1	0	1	180	12	5	1,588	\$115,000
92 Peoria	7	156	163	11	7	18	196	12	15	7,800	578,000
93 Quincy	3	79	82	4	2	6	196	12	12	4,025	257,200
94 Rockford	6	109	115	1	1	2	189	12	16	4,850	356,425
95 Rock Island	3	59	62	2	2	4	176	13	7	2,700	215,000
96 Springfield	12	87	99	1	1	2	182	12	12	4,216	289,000
97 Sterling	0	18	18	1	0	1	188	12	2	700	51,100
INDIANA.											
98 Anderson	9	44	53	1	2	3	180	12	7	2,515	143,000
99 Brazil	7	17	24	1	0	1	178	11	5	1,443	98,550
100 Columbus	7	25	32	1	1	2	176	12	6	100,000
101 Crawfordsville	3	39	33	1	2	3	176	12	4	1,490	125,000
102 Elkhart	6	48	54	1	1	2	180	12	9	5,600	180,000
103 Evansville	16	160	176	8	8	16	194	12	18	7,700	460,000
104 Fort Wayne	5	113	118	1	8	9	192	12	16	5,600	315,000
105 Frankfort	6	30	36	6	0	6	178	12	5	1,600	125,000
106 Goshen*	3	28	31	1	1	2	180	12	5	1,305	60,000
107 Hammond	2	28	30	1	1	2	193	12	5	1,090	125,000
108 Huntington	6	34	40	1	2	3	193	11	5	1,550	126,708
109 Indianapolis	46	390	436	5	10	15	185	12	40	33,066	1,629,000
110 Jeffersonville	2	0	2	180	12	5	85,000
111 Kokomo	12	32	44	2	0	2	176	12	8	2,200	106,900
112 Lafayette	5	52	57	6	2	8	185	12	9	2,500	260,000
113 Laporte	6	34	40	3	1	4	190	14	6	1,560	120,000
114 Logansport	10	45	55	1	1	2	178	12	8	2,490	206,200
115 Madison	190	11	7	2,200	85,600
116 Marion	9	51	60	1	0	1	175	12	11	2,700	182,000
117 Michigan City	2	29	31	2	1	3	190	12	6	1,450	100,000
118 Muncie*	6	52	58	1	0	1	160	12	10	2,885	231,000
119 New Albany	12	62	74	1	0	1	180	12	13	3,836	210,700
120 Richmond	5	63	68	3	1	4	180	12	8	2,840	295,000
121 Shelbyville	4	25	29	1	2	3	175	12	4	1,400	75,000
122 South Bend	5	76	81	1	0	1	176	12	10	3,760	253,000
123 Terre Haute	20	126	146	1	1	2	191	12	18	6,600	399,811
124 Vincennes	2	28	30	1	1	2	196	12	5	1,450	55,500
125 Wabash	0	32	32	1	1	2	186	5	1,580	150,000
126 Washington	8	19	27	5	0	5	176	4	75,000
IOWA.											
127 Boone	2	40	42	2	0	2	180	12	6	1,700	100,000
128 Burlington	4	79	83	10	6	16	196	12	12	4,513	200,000
129 Cedar Rapids	1	102	103	1	1	2	180	12	16	4,100	315,000
130 Clinton	3	86	89	1	4	5	185	13	14	* 3,000	* 250,000
131 Council Bluffs	4	104	108	1	7	8	190	12	20	4,367	421,000
132 Creston	4	30	34	1	0	1	177	12	8	1,800	125,000
133 Davenport	5	105	110	11	3	14	191	12	4,898	345,000
Des Moines:											
134 North Side	0	33	33	1	2	3	178	12	4	1,200	39,000
135 East Side	1	81	82	1	1	2	177	13	10	3,250	265,700
136 West Side	4	104	108	5	8	13	177	13	12	4,054	500,000
137 Dubuque	4	105	109	3	0	3	130	12	14	4,500	353,000
138 Fort Madison	4	25	29	1	0	1	170	12	6	1,350	75,000
139 Iowa City	4	36	40	1	2	3	183	12	8	1,600	118,175
140 Keokuk	6	50	56	1	0	1	178	12	9	2,500	230,500
141 Marshalltown	3	53	56	2	2	4	177	12	7	2,246	200,000
142 Muscatine	3	49	52	2	0	2	181	12	8	2,500	127,100
143 Oskaloosa	6	35	41	1	1	2	177	12	5	1,594	131,000
144 Ottumwa	2	78	80	2	1	3	182	12	9	3,060	250,000
145 Sioux City	2	139	141	3	9	12	174	12½	28	6,032	750,000
Waterloo:											
146 East Side	2	27	29	2	0	2	* 180	13	4	* 1,000	58,500
147 West Side	3	17	20	1	0	1	176	12	2	625	48,000

* Statistics of 1893-04.

a 20 days lost on account of smallpox epidemic.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of reg-ular teachers.			Number of su-pervising of-ficers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruc-tion contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public prop-erty used for school pur-poses.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
KANSAS.												
148	Arkansas City.....	1	34	35	2	4	6	156	6	1,800	\$175,000
149	Atchison.....	4	33	42	1	0	1	176	12	8	2,382	*166,000
150	Emporia.....	5	36	41	2	0	2	173	11	10	1,850	123,300
151	Fort Scott.....	7	40	47	1	0	1	160	12	11	2,989	110,000
152	Hutchinson.....	5	37	42	4	4	8	176	7	2,200	120,000
153	Kansas City.....	20	114	134	177	12	23	5,584	304,000
154	Lawrence.....	5	38	43	1	1	2	176	11	8	2,100	*145,000
155	Leavenworth.....	3	54	57	2	2	4	174	12	8	2,675	91,550
156	Ottawa.....	4	26	30	1	1	2	176	11	5	1,460	65,000
157	Parsons.....	3	23	31	1	0	1	160	12	5	1,534	168,600
158	Pittsburg.....	6	26	32	1	0	1	157	12	5	1,624	*90,000
159	Topeka.....	20	96	116	1	0	1	175	12	20	6,380	425,000
160	Wichita.....	8	86	94	2	1	3	172	13	17	4,800	247,850
KENTUCKY.												
161	Bowling Green.....	4	21	25	1	0	1	188	8	3	1,224
162	Covington.....	8	99	107	2	2	4	180	12	6	3,927	205,840
Frankfort:												
163	White schools.....	2	19	21	1	0	1	164	11	2	800	} 50,600
164	Colored schools.....	0	0	0	164	12	1	560	
165	Henderson.....	*6	*25	*31	192	*6	90,000
166	Hopkinsville.....	0	16	16	1	0	1	198	11	2	679	26,000
167	Lexington*.....	71	1	2	3	10	8
168	Louisville.....	35	484	519	16	18	34	204	13 ¹	44	28,731	1,242,283
169	Maysville*.....	7	20	27	100	8	50,000
170	Newport.....	2	69	71	1	1	2	200	12	8	3,690	300,000
171	Owensboro.....	3	36	39	1	0	1	182	12	5	2,200	100,000
172	Paducah.....	10	32	42	8	0	8	191	11	7	2,100	120,000
LOUISIANA.												
173	New Orleans.....	19	541	560
MAINE.												
174	Auburn.....	6	57	63	2	1	3	180	13	32	*2,200	100,000
175	Augusta*.....	4	24	28	25	125,000
176	Bangor.....	2	101	103	2	5	7	170	13	38	4,000	200,000
177	Bath.....	3	40	43	1	0	1	175	13	15	2,200	100,000
178	Biddeford.....	7	40	47	1	0	1	176	14	22	2,117	160,600
179	Calais.....	4	26	30	1	0	1	175	15	14	1,350	40,000
180	Lewiston*.....	4	72	76	4	1	5	172	14	24	3,380	275,000
181	Portland.....	8	138	146	5	2	7	185	13	18	6,351	330,000
182	Rockland.....	2	37	39	2	1	3	163	13	10	1,500	67,482
MARYLAND.												
183	Baltimore.....	134	1,417	1,551	4	2	6	201	13,12	124	70,100	2,531,158
184	Frederick.....	5	17	22	1	0	1	147	10	5	1,200	25,500
185	Hagerstown.....	8	32	40	1	0	1	151	10	7	2,010	58,000
MASSACHUSETTS.												
186	Adams.....	5	35	40	1	1	2	{160- 195}	13	8	2,600	100,000
187	Amesbury.....	2	30	32	0	0	0
188	Attleboro.....	2	28	40	187	12	15	*1,278	80,000
189	Beverly.....	2	47	49	187	12	10	1,500
190	Boston.....	178	1,290	1,468	20	6	26	200	16	201	2,300	250,000
191	Brockton.....	11	115	126	4	1	5	200	13	30	73,333	10,400,000
192	Brookline.....	8	89	97	5	9	14	196	13	14	571,163
193	Cambridge*.....	19	278	297	3	4	7	243	14	38	784,100

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a The schools were closed 34 days on account of the prevalence of diphtheria.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of reg-ular teachers.			Number of su-pervising of-ficers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruc-tion contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public prop-erty used for school pur-poses.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
MASSACHUSETTS—con.											
194 Chelsea.....	8	94	102	2	0	2	200	13	11	4,900	a \$518,500
195 Chicopee *.....	2	37	39								
196 Clinton.....	3	39	42	1	0	1	191	13	12	2,148	174,500
197 Everett.....	9	70	79	2	2	4	190	13	10	3,400	
198 Fall River.....	16	283	299	2	2	4	196	13	46	12,612	902,800
199 Fitchburg.....	11	99	110	2	1	3	165	13	23	4,500	600,000
200 Framingham*.....	3	43	46								
201 Gardner.....	2	39	41	2	1	3	185	13	12	2,100	120,000
202 Gloucester.....	5	110	115	4	2	6	194	13	22	4,700	265,000
203 Haverhill.....	3	103	106	3	3	6	195	13	30		
204 Holyoke.....	13	117	130	4	2	6	188	13	17	5,183	402,846
205 Hydepark.....	10	43	53	0	0	0	190	12	6		
206 Lawrence.....	10	169	179	2	6	8	191	13	24	6,500	515,693
207 Lowell.....	13	210	223	5	7	12	193	b 13	48	11,790	1,268,850
208 Lynn.....	15	204	219	2	2	4	193	c 13	44	9,900	1,089,240
209 Malden.....	8	118	126	2	1	3	187	13	16	5,652	551,340
210 Marlboro.....	2	70	72	1	2	3	174	13	8	2,700	180,204
211 Medford.....	11	50	61	1	0	1	181	13	15	2,762	330,450
212 Melrose.....	3	49	52	3	1	4	194	12	13	2,140	190,000
213 Milford.....	2	39	41	1	2	3	e 172	13	16	1,850	
214 Natick.....	4	41	45	1	2	3	190	13	12	2,200	90,000
215 New Bedford.....	4	150	154	5	2	7	194	14	23	6,617	725,000
216 Newburyport.....	4	28	32	1	0	1	200	13	14	1,803	96,000
217 Newton.....	17	114	131	2	0	2	200	13	24	4,785	633,600
218 North Adams.....	2	59	61	2	4	6	182	13	12	2,800	175,500
219 Northampton.....	3	67	70	1	2	3	d 190	13	20	2,900	155,000
220 Peabody.....	4	46	50	1	0	1	197	13	9	1,700	100,000
221 Pittsfield.....	3	90	93	3	2	5	191	13	26	3,853	244,850
222 Plymouth.....	5	37	42	1	0	1	192	13	30		110,000
223 Quincy.....	9	82	91	2	4	6		12	10		401,000
224 Salem.....	10	98	108	2	2	4	205	13	18	5,105	450,000
225 Somerville.....	11	167	178	2	5	7	181	14	23	8,250	700,000
226 Spencer.....	3	38	41	1	0	1	e 180	13	17	1,890	126,000
227 Springfield.....	15	192	207	7	5	12	191	13	31	7,587	1,005,652
228 Taunton.....	11	98	109	1	0	1	e 190	13	30	5,000	320,000
229 Waltham.....	10	65	75	5	2	7		13	14	2,934	265,430
230 Westfield.....	5	50	55	2	1	3	200	13	19		* 208,400
231 Weymouth.....	9	46	55	2	0	2	192	13	20	2,550	146,200
232 Woburn.....	6	56	62	1	1	2	200	13	14	2,882	219,009
233 Worcester.....	39	388	427	1	0	1	189	14	57	17,460	357,647
MICHIGAN.											
234 Adrian.....	3	32	35	1	2	3	196	12	5	1,800	125,000
235 Alpena.....	3	31	34	1	1	2	189	12	8	1,544	125,000
236 Ann Arbor.....	7	44	51	1	0	1	180	12	7	f 1,693	205,000
237 Battle Creek.....	2	61	63	2	2	4	191	12	8	2,653	226,000
238 Bay City.....	5	93	98	2	6	8	194	12	11	4,400	260,000
239 Detroit.....	13	616	629	16	39	55	196	12	65	27,855	1,672,494
240 Escanaba.....	0	22	22	1	1	2	194		7	897	51,004
241 Flint.....	4	50	54	1	0	1	195	12	7	2,200	150,000
242 Grand Haven.....	3	27	30	1	0	1	196	13	7	1,300	50,000
243 Grand Rapids.....	14	296	310	4	18	22	191	12	35	15,335	1,172,723
244 Iron Mountain.....	2	31	33	2	0	2	200	12	4	1,498	150,000
245 Ironwood.....	1	31	32	1	0	1	200	13	7	1,500	60,000
246 Ishpeming.....	1	36	37	1	6	7	196	12	4	1,650	125,000
Jackson:											
247 District No. 1.....	5	46	51	1	2	3	189	13	8	1,995	119,000
248 District No. 17.....	3	35	38	1	0	1	189	12	* 7	1,567	100,000

* Statistics for 1893-94.

a Real estate only.

b Not including kindergarten.

c The high school was in session 194 days.

d The two high schools were in session 200 days.

e The high school was in session 200 days.

f This is exclusive of high school, where pupils do not prepare lessons in school.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of reg- ular teachers.			Number of su- pervising of- ficers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruc- tion contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public prop- erty used for school pur- poses.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
MICHIGAN—continued.											
249 Kalamazoo	2	80	82	1	1	2	187	12	9	4,000	\$400,000
250 Lansing	4	63	67	2	1	3	186	12	12	2,833	175,000
251 Ludington*	3	40	43	4	189	100,000
252 Manistee	6	49	55	1	2	3	196	12	6	2,364	103,500
253 Marquette	3	30	33	0	2	2	190	12	8	1,625	118,600
254 Menominee*	1	40	41	1	1	2	196	13	8	1,938	120,000
255 Muskegon	*5	*100	*105	*4	*1	*5	186	12	23	450,000
256 Owosso	4	30	34	1	0	1	195	12	4	1,900	115,000
257 Port Huron	1	67	68	1	0	1	194	12	14	3,720	223,285
Saginaw :											
258 East Side	11	114	125	2	3	5	173	12	13	5,369	338,915
259 West Side	6	87	93	2	3	5	196	13	13	3,500	300,000
260 Sault Ste. Marie	1	25	26	1	0	1	195	12	6	900	50,600
261 Traverse City	3	34	37	1	3	4	180	12	7	1,533	100,000
262 West Bay City	6	52	58	1	0	1	193	12	8	2,254	100,000
MINNESOTA.											
263 Duluth*	195	16	194	28	8,072	1,471,039
264 Faribault	3	27	30	1	1	2	176	9	1,400	75,000
265 Mankato	*3	*29	*32	1	1	2	176	13	6	1,926	114,000
266 Minneapolis	9	520	529	9	46	55	186	12	50	*26,000	2,500,000
267 St. Cloud	3	21	24	1	2	3	176	12	6	1,350	50,000
268 St. Paul	23	439	462	17	23	40	190	a 13	43	19,000	2,346,275
269 Stillwater	3	42	45	2	1	3	176	12	7	1,600	187,000
270 Winona	*4	*69	*73	1	6	7	190	12	9	3,300	400,000
MISSISSIPPI.											
271 Columbus	3	16	19	1	0	1	180	3	1,340	35,000
272 Jackson	1	21	22	2	1	3	180	3	1,200	45,000
273 Meridian	5	51	56	3	3	6	180	10	5	3,000	115,000
274 Natchez	2	26	28	3	0	3	180	8	2	950	30,000
275 Vicksburg	3	45	48	3	0	3	180	11	5	2,500	116,000
MISSOURI.											
276 Carthage	6	32	38	1	0	1	175	12	9	2,140	110,000
277 Chillicothe	7	16	23	1	0	1	177	12	5	1,172	50,000
278 Hannibal	5	55	60	1	0	1	177	11	9	2,697	93,350
279 Jefferson City	5	15	20	2	0	2	178	4	1,200	80,000
280 Joplin	8	47	55	1	0	1	176	11	2,924	101,000
281 Kansas City	45	311	356	4	0	4	180	11	37	21,000	1,600,000
282 Moberly	*7	*20	*27	1	0	1	175	11	5	1,836	70,000
283 Nevada*	4	25	29	180	2	1,560	64,000
284 St. Charles	4	9	13	1	1	2	198	5	725	75,000
285 St. Joseph	16	165	181	1	0	1	160	12	25	7,710	569,000
286 St. Louis	90	1,375	1,465	75	44	119	195	14	122	59,668	4,239,394
287 Sedalia	4	61	65	1	1	2	180	12	13	3,192	*136,000
288 Springfield	6	58	64	1	1	2	160	12	11	4,620	182,694
MONTANA.											
289 Butte City	11	75	86	1	0	1	167	12	14	3,500
290 Great Falls	6	21	27	1	1	2	170	6	1,500	220,000
291 Helena	2	43	45	2	0	2	170	12	9	2,500	432,574
NEBRASKA.											
292 Beatrice	9	32	41	3	1	4	176	12	8	2,000	150,000
293 Fremont	3	38	41	3	6	9	185	12	10	1,870	134,000
294 Grand Island	5	32	37	1	2	3	178	12	5	1,722	130,000
295 Hastings	2	29	31	1	2	3	175	12	6	1,500	89,975

* Statistics for 1893-94.

a The normal course is a year and a half additional.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of regular teachers.			Number of supervising officers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruction contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public property used for school purposes.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
NEBRASKA—cont'd.												
296	Kearney.....	* 4	* 30	* 34	2	1	3	173	12	8	1,200	\$231,000
297	Lincoln.....	11	127	138	1	0	1	184	12	18	385,000
298	Nebraska City*.....	5	30	35	180	9
299	Omaha.....	7	308	315	2	16	18	178	12	41	14,894	1,639,990
300	Plattsmouth.....	2	26	28	1	1	2	180	12	9	1,350	45,700
301	South Omaha.....	2	48	50	1	2	3	183	12	8	2,204	140,000
NEVADA.												
302	Virginia City.....	2	18	20	204	12	4	52,180
NEW HAMPSHIRE.												
303	Concord.....	2	59	61	1	0	1	170	13	14	750	325,000
304	Dover.....	5	39	44	2	1	3	179	12	17	1,655	150,000
305	Keene (Union district)	2	27	29	1	0	1	181	8	1,191	95,000
306	Manchester.....	11	97	108	2	2	4	175	13	24	5,200	535,000
307	Nashua.....	3	60	63	3	1	4	171	13	18	2,504	450,000
308	Portsmouth.....	6	43	49	1	0	1	190	13	9	1,450	200,000
NEW JERSEY.												
309	Atlantic City*.....	3	48	51	3	0	3	185	12	4	2,302	150,000
310	Bayonne.....	0	87	87	7	0	7	198	10	7	2,580	190,000
311	Bridgeton.....	1	42	43	1	0	1	200	12	6	2,210	81,000
312	Camden.....	8	202	210	8	6	14	215	12	19	8,860	700,000
313	Elizabeth.....	0	86	86	5	6	11	197	13	9	4,278	250,000
314	Harrison.....	7	14	21	0	0	0	200	2	800	60,000
315	Hoboken.....	147	6	0	6	210	12	7	6,324	258,500
316	Jersey City.....	2	443	445	18	23	41	202	13	25	19,684	1,039,620
317	Long Branch.....	5	38	43	1	1	2	191	12	9	2,500	190,000
318	Millville.....	5	37	42	200	12	1,942
319	Morristown.....	1	23	24	1	0	1	195	12	2	1,225	90,000
320	Newark.....	11	475	486	27	10	37	191	14	49	27,157	1,556,875
321	New Brunswick*.....	1	53	54	192	8	2,705
322	Orange.....	3	54	57	4	1	5	200	14	5	2,163	175,000
323	Passaic.....	2	54	56	1	0	1	199	11	7	2,696	141,900
324	Paterson.....	19	251	270	18	3	21	201	13	21	10,899	680,000
325	Perth Amboy.....	3	23	26	200	11	* 3	1,196	55,000
326	Phillipsburg.....	8	35	40	1	0	1	200	12	7	1,610	77,500
327	Plainfield.....	2	50	52	2	2	4	197	13	6	* 2,040	220,000
328	Rahway.....	4	22	26	195	10	4	1,203	46,782
329	Town of Union.....	3	35	38	3	1	4	209	12	2	1,924	140,000
330	Trenton*.....	7	152	159	210	25	6,900
NEW YORK.												
331	Albany.....	24	263	287	14	9	23	184	14	21	12,850	1,126,000
332	Amsterdam.....	1	45	46	2	0	2	190	10	9	2,300	* 111,925
333	Auburn.....	5	105	110	2	9	11	187	12	15	4,180	290,000
334	Batavia.....	0	30	30	1	0	1	200	12	7	1,600	190,000
335	Binghamton.....	8	143	151	1	3	4	196	12	16	6,239	375,300
336	Brooklyn.....	74	2,356	2,430	68	150	218	202	12	127	114,000	7,047,374
337	Buffalo.....	3	919	922	51	34	85	193	13	68	40,512	2,596,115
338	Cohoes.....	2	63	65	1	0	1	200	12	10	2,550	* 122,200
339	Corning*.....	1	27	28	1	2	3	196	12	3	1,502	100,000
340	Dunkirk.....	2	44	46	1	0	1	190	13	10	1,600	120,000
Edgewater:												
341	District No. 1 (Tompkinsville).	1	8	9	0	0	0	192	1	400	25,000
342	District No. 2 (Stapleton).	1	21	22	1	0	1	192	9	7	900
343	Elmira.....	0	119	119	8	3	11	193	12	10	* 4,800	485,000

* Statistics for 1893-94.

a Including training school for teachers.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of reg- ular teachers.			Number of su- pervising of- ficers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruc- tion contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public prop- erty used for school pur- poses.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
NEW YORK—cont'd.												
344	Flushing	1	20	30	1	0	1	180	12	2	1,500	\$134,563
345	Geneva	1	38	39	1	0	1	187	13	5	1,283	105,000
346	Glens Falls	1	29	30	1	0	1	195	12	4	1,123	90,000
347	Gloversville	1	55	56	1	0	1	195	13	8	2,829	30,316
348	Hornellsville	1	48	49	1	1	2	193	12	5	2,100	100,000
349	Hudson	1	28	29	1	1	2	191	12	3	1,500	75,000
350	Ithaca	4	37	41	1	0	1	191	12	6	1,966	170,000
351	Jamesstown	3	98	101	1	2	3	189	13	12	3,380	223,145
352	Johnstown	2	33	35	2	6	8	194	12	5	1,475	72,000
353	Kingston School Dis- trict	6	31	37	1	2	3	194	13	5	1,983	191,000
354	Lansingburg	2	56	58	1	0	1	186	10	5	1,700	100,800
355	Little Falls	3	23	26	1	0	1	191	12	4	1,275	85,000
356	Lockport	5	66	71	1	0	1	193	13	8	3,400	390,000
357	Long Island City	1	135	136	7	1	8	193	10	14	7,200	554,000
358	Middletown	2	*40	*42	1	2	3	192	12	3	1,666	90,000
359	Mount Vernon: Dis- trict No. 5	1	63	64	3	1	4	186	11	7	3,310	296,600
360	Newburgh	8	97	105	1	0	1	184	11	7	3,240	325,725
361	New Rochelle	0	43	43	1	4	5	193	12	4	1,800	123,000
362	New York	395	4,163	4,468	78	169	247	199	81	149	230,664	20,600,000
363	Niagara Falls	4	55	59	4	2	6	190	13	6	1,952	145,000
364	North Tonawanda	*4	*35	*39	2	1	3	193	13	4	1,625	80,000
365	Ogdensburg*	5	46	51	0	0	0	190	10	10	96,888	96,888
366	Olean	1	40	41	3	1	4	193	6	6	2,000	95,000
367	Oswego	3	74	77	1	0	1	191	13	14	3,700	171,140
368	Peekskill: District No. 7 (Drum Hill)	1	13	14	0	0	0	193	11	2	668	35,850
369	Plattsburg	0	35	35	2	2	4	189	12	7	1,660	65,000
370	Port Jervis	2	38	40	1	2	3	184	12	5	1,820	80,000
371	Poughkeepsie	3	72	75	2	2	4	190	12	11	2,700	146,605
372	Rochester	18	622	640	1	3	4	190	13	49	19,296	1,292,000
373	Rome	5	36	41	5	7	12	188	12	8	1,936	90,000
374	Saratoga Springs	4	47	51	2	0	2	195	13	6	2,629	520,000
375	Schenectady	1	55	56	1	0	1	187	12	7	2,512	145,000
376	Sing Sing	0	24	24	1	0	1	189	12	2	1,000	75,000
377	Syracuse	16	320	336	12	3	15	194	11	23	14,663	845,000
378	Tonawanda	1	29	30	1	2	3	196	12	5	1,400	60,000
379	Troy	20	166	186	2	1	3	193	13	18	8,400	450,000
380	Utica	4	166	170	5	2	7	191	13	20	7,071	495,000
381	Watertown	1	0	0	1	0	1	190	12	9	2,800	157,000
382	Yonkers*	4	89	93	0	0	0	192	12	9	1,400	490,000
NORTH CAROLINA.												
383	Asheville	5	23	28	1	0	1	160	10	4	1,400	75,000
384	Charlotte	2	35	37	1	1	2	180	10	2	1,824	60,000
385	Winston	5	23	28	1	0	1	180	10	3	1,400	60,000
OHIO.												
386	Akron	4	116	120	4	1	5	189	12	11	6,200	690,000
387	Alliance	8	25	33	3	0	3	186	12	6	1,650	210,000
388	Ashtabula	3	31	34	3	0	3	189	12	6	1,500	40,000
389	Bellaire	2	36	38	1	0	1	180	10	7	1,200	60,000
390	Canton	12	93	105	3	2	5	195	12	16	5,000	500,000
391	Chillicothe	4	47	51	0	0	0	182	12	5	700	70,000
392	Cincinnati	121	677	798	52	11	63	200	14	63	40,000	3,000,000
393	Circleville*	1	28	29	2	1	3	196	12	2	1,300	115,000
394	Cleveland	46	926	972	12	39	51	185	12	59	52,000	3,791,659
395	Columbus	21	339	360	8	15	23	190	12	34	16,677	2,093,622
396	Dayton	36	275	311	1	0	1	183	12	29	1,223,525	1,223,525
397	Defiance*	1	29	30	1	0	1	192	11	5	1,200	90,000
398	Delaware	5	30	35	1	0	1	186	11	5	1,325	57,000

* Statistics for 1893-94.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of reg-ular teachers.			Number of su-pervising of-ficers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruc-tion contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public prop-erty used for school pur-poses.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
OHIO—continued.												
399 East Liverpool*	0	41	41				178	13	8	2,500	\$100,000	
400 Elyria	0	23	23	1	0	1	189	12	5	980	94,277	
401 Findlay	7	64	71				180		13		236,000	
402 Fostoria	2	31	33	1	0	1	175	12	6	1,400	80,000	
403 Fremont	4	25	29	1	0	1	184	12	6	1,300	75,000	
404 Hamilton	16	58	74	2	0	2	189	12	10	4,000	400,000	
405 Ironton	3	47	50	1	0	1	184	12	6	2,500	150,000	
406 Lancaster	3	30	33	1	2	3	182	12	4		100,000	
407 Lima	5	70	75	2	0	2	190	12	11	3,000	188,000	
408 Lorain	2	27	29				186		5	1,300	55,000	
409 Mansfield	2	58	60	2	2	4	174	12	8	2,800	160,000	
410 Marietta	6	36	42	1	0	1	182	12	9	1,900	80,000	
411 Marion	0	42	42				190		9		142,000	
412 Martins Ferry	7	21	28	1	0	1	178	12	3		70,000	
413 Massillon	5	31	36	1	0	1	200		6		143,000	
414 Middletown	1	32	33	2	2	4	192	12	4		125,000	
415 Mount Vernon*	3	28	31	1	2	3	185		6	1,340	115,000	
416 Nelsonville	0	26	26	1	0	1	165	12	3	1,300	95,000	
417 Newark	4	60	64	3	1	4	184	12	11	3,240	136,279	
418 Norwalk*	2	27	29	1	0	1	190		6	1,500	85,000	
419 Piqua*	3	36	39				175	12	7	2,478	175,000	
420 Portsmouth*	5	49	54	1	0	1	177	12	8		190,000	
421 Salem	2	29	31				184	12	4	1,580	104,940	
422 Sandusky	4	67	71	3		4	181	12	9	3,472	290,000	
423 Springfield	21	102	123	1	0	1	192	12	17	5,796	330,000	
424 Steubenville	5	48	53	1	0	1	191	12	6	2,306	151,000	
425 Tiffin	3	37	40	1	1	2	187	12	6		200,000	
426 Toledo	23	297	320	3	2	5	191	11	42	16,315	1,000,000	
427 Warren	3	26	29	1	0	1	175	12	9	1,500	147,500	
428 Xenia	4	40	44	3	1	4	194	11	6	1,769	127,500	
429 Youngstown	11	114	125	3	1	4	180	9	22	5,500	600,000	
430 Zanesville	3	77	80	2	0	2	185	12	16		250,000	
OKLAHOMA.												
431 Oklahoma	3	22	25	1	0	1	157	11	7	1,200	50,000	
OREGON.												
432 Portland	22	197	219	9	2	11	190	12	31	9,346	764,386	
433 Salem	5	27	32	1	0	1	173	8	6	1,600	150,000	
PENNSYLVANIA.												
434 Allegheny	*25	*277	*302	21	4	25	200	8	26	14,243	1,487,161	
435 Allentown	*16	*70	*86	1	0	1	192	11	12	4,600	580,848	
436 Altoona	15	113	128	1	2	3	180	12	11	5,825	475,735	
437 Beaver Falls	1	37	38	1	0	1	180	11	4	1,800	132,000	
438 Braddock	5	31	36	1	2	3	180	9	3	1,450	160,000	
439 Bradford	5	47	52	1	1	2	180	12	7	2,600	175,000	
440 Butler	6	34	40	2	2	4	180	12	6	1,947	80,000	
441 Carbondale	2	37	39	1	1	2	195	12	9	2,540	158,850	
442 Carlisle	7	22	29	0	0	0	200	11	8	1,300	*65,000	
443 Chambersburg	5	29	34	1	0	1	180	13	6	1,700	75,000	
444 Chester	3	71	77	1	0	1	200	13	13	3,533	250,000	
445 Columbia	3	33	36	2	0	2	180	14	5	1,875	48,000	
446 Dunmore*	2	29	31	1	0	1	200	10	9	1,800	70,000	
447 Easton	15	52	67	0	0	0	198	11	10	3,180	450,000	
448 Erie	7	175	182	1	3	4	195	12	17	6,621	600,000	
449 Harrisburg	21	134	155	2	0	2	190	13	22	8,187	560,000	
450 Hazleton	7	35	42	1	0	1	180	12	7	2,330	150,000	
451 Homestead	1	34	35	1	1	2	180	11	4	2,000	140,000	
452 Johnstown	9	61	70				2	180	12	14	4,208	
453 Lancaster	7	90	97	2	0	2	200	12	15	4,800	357,150	
454 Lebanon	5	44	49	1	0	1	180	13	9	*2,500	225,300	
455 Lock Haven	8	20	28	2	0	2	180	12	4	1,800	120,000	
456 McKeesport	7	74	81	2	1	3	180	8	6	*3,840	340,000	

* Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

City.	Number of regular teachers.			Number of supervising officers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruction contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public property used for school purposes.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
PENNSYLVANIA—cont'd.											
457 Mahanoy City*.....	3	33	36	180	5	2,691
458 Meadville*.....	0	47	47	180	12	4	*2,000	*\$200,000
459 Mount Carmel.....	8	24	32	1	0	1	180	10	6	1,965	60,000
460 Nanticoke.....	5	27	32	1	1	2	180	11	5	1,284	75,000
461 New Castle.....	4	55	59	5	1	6	180	13	7	*2,700	115,000
462 Norristown.....	6	60	66	1	0	1	200	12	8	2,750	210,000
463 Oil City.....	4	40	44	1	0	1	180	12	8	2,000	128,000
464 Philadelphia.....	152	2,943	3,095	104	199	13	289	136,784	(1,273,573
465 Phoenixville.....	2	26	28	1	0	1	190	12	4	1,400	65,000
466 Pittsburg.....	15	775	790	27	11	38	200	11	72	40,000	3,276,000
467 Pittston.....	0	27	27	1	0	1	180	11	6	80,350
468 Plymouth.....	6	21	27	1	0	1	180	11	4	1,800	50,000
469 Pottstown.....	10	51	61	1	0	1	200	12	19	3,044	176,908
470 Pottsville*.....	8	45	53	200	0	2,500
471 Reading.....	8	221	229	2	4	6	194	12	36	10,500	679,206
472 Scranton.....	23	219	242	0	2	2	191	12	42	11,712	921,000
473 Shamokin.....	13	46	59	1	0	1	180	12	8	3,085	250,000
474 Shenandoah.....	9	45	54	1	2	3	200	11	8	3,178	110,000
475 South Bethlehem*.....	11	32	43	200	6	2,166
476 South Chester.....	4	30	34	1	0	1	180	12	8	1,450	100,000
477 Steelton.....	15	20	35	1	0	1	180	12	6	1,821	147,100
478 Titusville.....	2	38	40	1	3	4	186	11	5	1,650	100,000
489 Uniontown.....	0	23	23	1	1	2	180	11	1	1,200	100,000
480 West Chester.....	6	25	31	3	0	3	200	12	3	1,240	140,000
481 Wilkesbarre.....	24	109	133	2	2	4	186	12	17	6,540	430,000
482 Williamsport.....	16	83	99	1	0	1	180	13	14	5,341	291,000
483 York.....	20	57	77	1	0	1	180	12	14	4,020	238,000
RHODE ISLAND.											
484 East Providence.....	2	45	47	4	1	5	200	13	15	1,946	135,000
485 Johnston (Olneyville).....	5	44	49	0	2	2	200	13	18	2,073	151,950
486 Newport.....	10	59	69	1	0	1	196	a 13	12	2,596	326,843
487 Pawtucket.....	10	108	118	1	3	4	195	13	26	4,705	500,000
488 Providence.....	41	494	535	2	8	10	189	13	78	22,571	1,787,045
489 Woonsocket.....	4	71	75	1	0	1	200	13	17	3,098	250,000
SOUTH CAROLINA.											
490 Charleston.....	7	95	102	7	6	13	182	10	6	5,000	*150,000
491 Columbia.....	5	27	32	3	0	3	170	10	4	1,400	36,700
492 Spartanburg*.....	4	14	18	1	0	1	178	9	3	1,200	18,500
SOUTH DAKOTA.											
493 Sioux Falls.....	* 3	* 41	* 44	1	1	2	177	12	10	1,800	150,000
TENNESSEE.											
494 Chattanooga.....	13	64	77	6	1	7	177	11	6	4,315	*345,000
495 Clarksville.....	2	24	26	1	0	1	200	10	3	1,394	34,690
496 Knoxville.....	16	39	55	6	0	6	187	11	9	3,000	112,000
497 Memphis.....	11	111	122	1	0	1	180	11	13	5,346	342,858
498 Nashville.....	17	150	167	22	17	39	186	11	18	8,968	412,500
TEXAS.											
499 Austin.....	10	66	76	8	6	14	187	11	15	3,296	114,900
500 Corsicana*.....	5	19	24	1	0	1	185	4	1,057	87,500
501 Dallas.....	15	88	103	2	1	3	173	12	13	3,932	462,000
502 Denison.....	3	33	36	1	0	1	180	11	9	1,870	164,000
503 El Paso.....	2	21	23	1	0	1	180	12	5	900	65,000
504 Fort Worth.....	15	55	70	2	1	3	177	11	12	2,961	267,559
505 Gainesville.....	4	28	32	3	3	6	179	11	5	1,427	125,100
506 Galveston.....	17	78	95	6	1	7	171	12	9	4,500	441,000
507 Houston.....	26	78	104	1	1	2	174	11	16	4,000	353,610

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Not including kindergarten.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of teachers, supervising officers, school term, etc.—Continued.

	City.	Number of reg- ular teachers.			Number of su- pervising of- ficers.			Number of days the public schools were actually in session during the year.	Number of years' instruc- tion contemplated by the full course of study.	Number of buildings used for school purposes.	Total number of seats or sittings for study in all public schools.	Value of all public prop- erty used for school pur- poses.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
TEXAS—continued.												
508	Laredo*	1	13	14			1			2	606	\$11,500
509	Paris	6	38	44	1	0		160	11	5	2,100	79,000
510	San Antonio	20	86	106	* 1	* 0	* 1	173	11	17	5,591	317,744
511	Tyler*	2	24	26	2	2	4	180		3	2,000	7,500
512	Waco*	7	48	55			1	180		11	2,618	235,000
UTAH.												
513	Ogden				5	2	7	175	12	15	3,700	296,801
514	Salt Lake City	29	196	225	14	4	18	184	12	27	10,830	968,581
VERMONT.												
515	Burlington	4	46	50	2	0	2	181	13	11	* 1,825	179,200
516	Rutland	2	41	43	1	2	3	185	13	11	1,778	162,000
VIRGINIA.												
517	Alexandria	8	25	33	1	0	1	199	10	5	2,000	37,800
518	Danville	6	30	36	2	0	2	185	8	3	1,300	33,500
519	Lynchburg	10	51	61	1	1	2	195	10	10	3,000	95,000
520	Manchester	5	16	21	1	0	1	160	12	2	1,000	30,000
521	Norfolk	5	43	48	3	0	3	183	7	11	2,600	115,000
522	Petersburg	2	46	48	1	1	2	183	11	9	2,350	72,000
523	Portsmouth	2	23	25	0	0	0	200	11	3	1,388	33,300
524	Richmond	27	222	249	17	0	17	182	11	18	11,189	432,050
525	Roanoke	10	23	33	0	0	0	177	8	7	2,850	95,000
526	Staunton	6	24	30	1	1	2	174	12	3	1,215	50,000
WASHINGTON.												
527	Seattle	12	126	138	7	0	7	172	12	22	7,826	694,110
528	Spokane	4	67	71	1	0	1	177	12	11	3,306	494,450
529	Tacoma	7	110	117	5	3	8	175	12	10	5,800	723,700
530	Walla Walla	2	18	20	2	2	4	180	12	4	1,400	100,500
WEST VIRGINIA.												
531	Huntington	2	36	38	1	0	1	159	12	6	1,954	71,475
532	Parkersburg				3	0	3	183	12	7	2,100	* 178,350
533	Wheeling*	4	123	127	4	4	8	a 176	11	10	5,000	350,000
WISCONSIN.												
534	Appleton	8	44	52	6	3	9	176	12	8	2,300	188,370
535	Ashland	2	31	33	1	1	2	190		8	1,300	100,000
536	Chippewa Falls	3	30	33	1	1	2	170	12	8	1,154	97,000
537	Eau Claire	3	67	75	1	0	1	180	12	15	3,496	111,435
538	Fond du Lac*	3	46	49				185		13		
539	Green Bay	2	34	36	1	0	1	185	12	6	1,850	140,000
540	Janesville	3	43	46	1	0	1	180	12	7	1,600	260,000
541	La Crosse	11	100	111	9	2	11		12	14	4,730	125,000
542	Madison	1	48	49	2	2	4		12	9	2,377	200,000
543	Marinette	2	47	49	1	2	3	191	12	6	2,614	100,000
544	Merrill	0	33	33	1	1	2	180	12	6	2,200	29,000
545	Milwaukee	46	627	673	44	8	52	192	12	46	33,638	* 2,000,000
546	Oshkosh	3	65	68	7	2	9	190	12	10	3,475	250,000
547	Racine	9	74	83	1	0	1	193	b 12	13	3,789	240,000
548	Sheboygan	11	69	80	2	0	2	198	12	9	3,500	151,500
549	Stevens Point	2	34	36	1	0	1	189	12	9	1,715	63,800
550	Superior	3	92	95	1	4	5	192	12	17	4,132	400,000
551	Watertown*	1	15	16								
552	Wausau*	2	34	36	1	0	1	180	12	9	1,800	
WYOMING.												
553	Cheyenne	0	28	28	2	1	3	173	12	5	1,000	* 134,641

* Statistics of 1893-94. a 25 days lost on account of smallpox. b Not including the kindergarten.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 3,000 inhabitants.

City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.					Total amount available for use during the year.
	From State apportionment or taxes.	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ALABAMA.						
1 Birmingham	\$7,897	\$14,127	\$7,781	\$9,041	\$58,846	\$58,846
2 Huntsville	1,850	2,629	4,479
3 Mobile	18,404	59,503	3,214	314	81,438	82,556
4 Montgomery	5,016	28,298	3,085	36,309	61,209
5 Selma
ARKANSAS.						
6 Fort Smith.....	2,500	18,549	312	21,361	43,832
7 Hot Springs.....	3,000	19,000	200	21,049	21,049
8 Little Rock.....	12,937	0	71,789	0	84,726	93,184
9 Pine Bluff.....	21,272
CALIFORNIA.						
10 Alameda	31,763	27,598	17,181	522	77,064	123,184
11 Berkeley	17,750	15,000	21,030	53,750
12 Eureka.....	13,230	9,780	50	23,060	28,962
13 Fresno
14 Los Angeles.....	171,733	85,218	97,780	354,731	354,731
15 Oakland.....	117,000	87,000	65,000	3,000	272,000	402,535
16 Pasadena.....	18,401	7,333	13,896	39,630	49,417
17 Sacramento.....	39,988	40,795	23,292	50	103,107	123,142
18 San Bernardino*
19 San Diego.....	14,216	29,500	14,565	383	58,661	87,002
20 San Francisco.....	616,878	384,410	12,340	1,013,628	1,076,099
21 San Jose.....	42,754	32,153	28,726	1,326	104,959	112,004
22 Santa Cruz.....	17,233	7,226	7,720	468	32,647	79,148
23 Stockton.....	25,502	33,897	17,160	1,613	78,172	96,651
COLORADO.						
24 Colorado Springs.....	11,866	65,183	29,071	97,120	163,051
25 Denver:
District No. 1.....	a 133,525	b 201,041	2,088	336,654	343,254
26 District No. 2.....	5,000	b 87,913	58,954	735	152,602	156,361
27 District No. 17.....	43,596	59,603	5,445	108,644	171,628
28 Leadville.....	1,200	31,137	10,441	42,778	67,777
29 Pueblo:
District No. 1.....	22,643	27,854	19,563	70,060	77,160
30 District No. 20.....	22,494	39,950	22	63,918	92,354
31 Trinidad.....
CONNECTICUT.						
32 Ansonia*	5,501	36,130	41,632	41,632
33 Bridgeport.....	26,160	121,972	1,325	149,457	149,457
34 Bristol
35 Danbury.....	10,040	38,685	3,662	52,387	60,437
36 Hartford.....	25,339	c 116,639	b 117,714	259,712	259,712
37 Manchester.....	2,974	c 24,175	d 1,487	e 2,485	31,121
38 Meriden.....	69,635
39 Middletown.....
40 New Britain.....
41 New Haven.....	46,292	326,238	372,530	652,987
42 New London.....	6,428	32,225	691	39,344	57,405
43 Norwalk.....	9,524	c 33,352	42,916	42,916
44 Norwich*	3,483	b 19,907	c 3,708	1,208	28,306	28,306
45 Rockville.....
46 Stamford.....
47 Waterbury.....	19,813	109,555	599	132,631	188,631
48 Willimantic.....	4,442	19,884	6,778	31,104	38,638
DELAWARE.						
49 Wilmington.....	17,638	141,232	0	311	159,181	153,388

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a From State and county.

b From district taxes.

c From town appropriations.

d From school fund.

e Includes receipts from town deposit fund and from private donations.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 3,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.					Total amount available for use during the year.
	From State apportionment or taxes.	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.						
50 Washington: First to Sixth divisions <i>a</i>						
51 Seventh and Eighth divisions <i>b</i>						
FLORIDA.						
52 Jacksonville.....	\$6,811	0	\$40,776		\$47,587	\$48,301
53 Key West.....	2,227		9,643	\$190	12,060	16,330
54 Pensacola.....	2,500	\$7,900	0	350	10,750	16,588
55 Tampa.....						
GEORGIA.						
56 Americus.....				101	16,955	18,474
57 Athens.....	6,152	10,702				151,320
58 Atlanta.....	28,135	123,185				84,180
59 Augusta.....	31,880		45,000	7,300		10,100
60 Brunswick.....	4,800	3,200	2,100			
61 Columbus.....						
62 Macon.....	16,621	0	27,333	1,954	45,908	45,908
63 Rome.....						
64 Savannah.....	27,172		55,000	36,375	118,547	123,929
ILLINOIS.						
65 Alton.....	2,953	21,093	2,048	417	26,511	32,768
Aurora:						
66 District No. 4, west *.....	1,057	20,000			21,057	21,057
67 District No. 5, east <i>c</i>	3,382	49,833		211	53,426	53,426
68 Belleville.....	3,934	45,405	0	376	49,715	51,508
69 Bloomington.....	5,981	65,254		965	72,200	78,984
70 Cairo.....	2,000	0	26,107	0	28,107	28,377
71 Canton.....	1,500	26,000		300	27,800	50,800
72 Champaign.....						
73 Chicago.....	293,123	5,499,544		347,049	6,139,721	7,573,858
74 Danville.....	2,984	37,153		19,601	59,738	72,078
75 Decatur.....	3,069	61,912	0	1,751	68,732	118,622
East St. Louis:						
76 District No. 1.....						12,000
77 Dist. No. 2, T. 2 N., R. 10 W.....						
78 Dist. No. 2, T. 2 N., R. 9 W.....						
79 Elgin.....	3,266	55,027	25,563	273	84,129	135,106
Evanston:						
80 District No. 1.....	1,388	52,320		601	54,309	98,592
81 North Evanston, No. 3.....	156	6,760		331	7,227	9,727
82 South Evanston.....	632	30,958		d 20,189	51,779	79,231
83 Freeport.....	2,402	36,534		353	39,289	39,311
84 Galesburg.....	3,600	72,004	0	1,357	77,561	88,058
85 Jacksonville.....					76,509	76,509
86 Joliet.....	6,972	118,381		755	126,108	168,479
87 Kankakee.....	2,216	25,059		1,000	28,275	39,678
88 Mattoon.....	2,206	0	14,064	394	16,664	103,178
89 Moline.....	1,619	73,920	0	3,082	78,621	114,766
90 Ottawa.....	2,644	22,563	7,681	235	33,123	46,753
91 Pekin.....	1,650	20,050			21,700	21,700
92 Peoria.....	10,041	131,151		3,928	145,120	257,300
93 Quincy.....	7,962	64,599	0	1,317	73,878	74,651
94 Rockford.....	5,395	75,100		3,011	83,506	92,186
95 Rock Island.....	3,253	75,887		602	79,742	152,227
96 Springfield.....	6,500	68,893	372	985	76,750	100,097
97 Sterling.....	812	11,000		644	12,456	
INDIANA.						
98 Anderson.....	16,045	39,414	3,355	550	59,364	83,364
99 Brazil.....	11,441	0	e 7,311	314	19,066	34,066
100 Columbus.....						
101 Crawfordsville.....						
102 Elkhart.....	11,081	9,292	12,393	122	32,888	38,216
103 Evansville.....				0	146,771	197,068

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Principally white pupils.*b* Colored pupils.*c* From district taxes.*d* Insurance on burned building.*e* "Special school fund."

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

	City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.				Total.	Total amount available for use during the year.
		From State apportionment or taxes.	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
INDIANA—continued.							
104	Fort Wayne.....	\$47,843		\$60,002	\$161	\$108,006	\$168,201
105	Frankfort.....	7,676	\$21,384	874	618	30,552	37,289
106	Goshen.....						
107	Hammond.....	13,577	6,801			20,378	20,378
108	Huntington.....					38,774	65,943
109	Indianapolis.....	164,050	331,736		10,907	506,693	811,851
110	Jeffersonville.....						
111	Kokomo.....	10,392	9,529	282	1,193	21,396	32,843
112	Lafayette.....						
113	Laporte.....	14,145	14,689	2,145	183	31,162	77,452
114	Logansport.....	54,043			168	54,211	75,069
115	Madison.....	15,213	1,873	0	0		17,086
116	Marion.....						
117	Michigan City.....	16,175	2,180	8,305	311	26,971	38,680
118	Muncie*.....					57,100	87,738
119	New Albany.....					46,376	62,786
120	Richmond.....					75,693	138,843
121	Shelbyville.....	8,903	6,395			15,298	20,494
122	South Bend.....	36,620	45,971	7,753	743	91,087	112,706
123	Terre Haute.....	59,918	3,827	56,044	122	119,911	161,417
124	Vincennes.....						32,936
125	Wabash.....						
126	Washington.....						
IOWA.							
127	Boone.....	1,500		26,000		27,500	
128	Burlington.....	8,914	0	79,733	200	88,847	88,849
129	Cedar Rapids.....	9,149		62,138	1,267	72,554	112,289
130	Clinton.....	9,056	a 53,957		349	63,362	87,857
131	Council Bluffs.....	7,070	93,416		249	100,735	148,843
132	Creston.....	2,847	0	27,381	472	30,700	38,548
133	Davenport.....	12,824	0	76,484	5,083	94,391	114,432
Des Moines:							
134	North side.....						
135	East side.....	8,794	58,723		549	68,066	94,112
136	West side.....	11,712	a 134,330		11,508	157,550	178,442
137	Dubuque.....	11,573	84,200		17	95,790	121,767
138	Fort Madison.....	2,884		9,068	129	12,081	21,556
139	Iowa City.....	5,340	27,208		516	33,064	33,064
140	Keokuk.....	5,500		44,808	107	50,415	74,184
141	Marshalltown.....	3,328	52,533	0	22,296	78,157	130,785
142	Muscatine.....	6,298	a 38,762		1,285	46,345	46,345
143	Oskaloosa.....	2,700	31,000		230	33,930	33,930
144	Ottumwa.....						
145	Sioux City.....	14,297	153,150		78	167,485	216,754
Waterloo:							
146	East side.....						
147	West side.....	1,295		13,981	194	15,470	18,706
KANSAS.							
148	Arkansas City.....						
149	Atchison.....	4,087		29,495	1,023	34,605	43,423
150	Emporia.....	2,787	21,666	148		24,601	26,263
151	Fort Scott.....	b 3,449	22,394		1,302	27,145	34,864
152	Hutchinson.....						
153	Kansas City.....	11,500	(63,000)			74,500	74,500
154	Lawrence.....	b 3,218	27,887		3,260	34,365	34,365
155	Leavenworth.....	6,628	34,920		2,830	44,378	71,228
156	Ottawa.....	2,222	18,876	1,030	953	23,081	28,805
157	Parsons.....	1,964		15,059	241	17,264	33,691
158	Pittsburg.....						
159	Topeka.....	10,080		98,601	5,278	113,959	139,764
160	Wichita.....		71,500		1,503	73,003	73,003
KENTUCKY.							
161	Bowling Green.....						
162	Covington.....	38,144	42,844	2,958	4,487	88,433	88,433

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a From district taxes.

b From State and county taxes.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

	City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.				Total amount available for use during the year.	
		From State apportionment or taxes	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
KENTUCKY—continued.							
	Frankfort:						
163	White.....						
164	Colored.....						
165	Henderson.....						
166	Hopkinsville.....	\$2,666	\$10,380		\$572	\$13,618	\$14,200
167	Lexington*.....						
168	Louisville.....	204,809	274,069		8,376	487,284	505,052
169	Maysville*.....						
170	Newport.....	22,967	29,016		341	52,324	68,292
171	Owensboro.....	8,614	23,555		4,759	36,908	38,361
172	Paducah.....	14,376	19,952	0	121	34,449	35,116
LOUISIANA.							
173	New Orleans.....	45,609	319,500				553,713
MAINE.							
174	Auburn.....	8,500	21,000		200	30,100	30,100
175	Augusta.....						
176	Bangor.....	13,984	34,692		441		49,117
177	Bath.....	7,702	16,800	0	188	24,690	26,690
178	Biddeford.....	11,759	20,000			31,759	31,759
179	Calais.....	6,599	6,760		590	13,949	13,949
180	Lewiston*.....	19,393	28,000		178		47,571
181	Portland.....	23,635	110,689	0	0	137,324	137,324
182	Rockland.....	5,925	12,600		40	18,565	22,495
MARYLAND.							
183	Baltimore.....	214,726	914,086	0	3,662	1,132,474	1,132,474
184	Federick.....						
185	Hagerstown.....	23,000		\$51,376	14	74,390	75,390
MASSACHUSETTS.							
186	Adams.....						
187	Amesbury.....	0	18,100	0			18,100
188	Attleboro.....		24,918		550	25,418	25,418
189	Beverly.....						
190	Boston.....	0	2,459,144	0	38,620	2,497,773	2,497,773
191	Brockton.....						
192	Brookline.....		99,450				99,450
193	Cambridge*.....		315,265		1,450	316,695	316,695
194	Chelsea.....		90,939		3,282	94,281	94,281
195	Chicopee.....						
196	Clinton.....		42,379				42,379
197	Everett.....	0	53,674	0	84	59,158	62,280
198	Fall River.....		176,547		2,805	179,352	179,352
199	Fitchburg.....	0	118,484	0	62	118,546	221,546
200	Framingham.....						
201	Gardner.....	0	32,282	0	0	32,282	47,313
202	Gloucester.....		92,011				92,011
203	Haverhill.....		91,513				91,513
204	Holyoke.....		187,918				187,918
205	Hyde Park.....	0	38,950	0	0	38,950	39,409
206	Lawrence.....		119,554		369	119,914	119,914
207	Lowell.....	0	244,060	0	7,356	251,356	334,411
208	Lynn.....	0	215,500	0	580	216,080	216,080
209	Malden.....		149,553		2,087	151,640	151,640
210	Marlboro.....		50,400				50,400
211	Medford.....	0	60,755	0	0	60,755	97,755
212	Melrose.....				6	47,006	47,619
213	Milford.....		25,000	307	22	25,329	25,329
214	Natick.....		33,311				33,311
215	New Bedford.....		190,576		4,337	194,913	199,454
216	Newburyport.....	0	29,600	0	1,088	30,688	30,688
217	Newton.....	0		133,000	2,609	141,609	141,609
218	North Adams.....	0	48,159	441		48,591	48,591
219	Northampton.....	0	44,979	1,007	650	46,636	46,636
220	Pesbody.....	0	36,060		658	36,658	36,658
221	Pittsfield.....	0	63,000	0	0	63,000	63,000

*Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.					Total amount available for use during the year.
	From State apportionment or taxes.	From city appropriation or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.						
222 Plymouth	0	\$29,246			\$29,246	\$29,246
223 Quincy		89,114			89,114	89,114
224 Salem		121,891	\$1,545	\$575	124,011	124,011
225 Somerville	0	295,009	0	0	295,009	295,009
226 Spencer		29,862			29,862	29,862
227 Springfield		242,170		1,397	243,567	243,567
228 Taunton	0	89,704	0	0	89,704	89,704
229 Waltham	0	63,410	0	0	63,410	63,410
230 Westfield	0	37,300	0	4,883	42,183	48,097
231 Weymouth		40,754	859	155	41,738	59,602
232 Woburn		50,170		125	50,295	59,295
233 Worcester	0	394,405	0	1,215	395,621	395,621
MICHIGAN.						
234 Adrian	\$3,363	18,835		406	22,604	25,249
235 Alpena	6,229	13,164			25,227	
236 Ann Arbor	4,009	36,871		7,410	48,281	48,281
237 Battle Creek	4,745	44,000	321		49,223	83,417
238 Bay City	13,451	52,343	0	686	66,480	71,594
239 Detroit	96,725	535,068		2,245	634,038	1,201,660
240 Escanaba						
241 Flint	10,772	34,244		2,230	47,246	50,851
242 Grand Haven	2,484	14,614		286	17,384	25,345
243 Grand Rapids	31,011	218,540	15,018	9,063	273,632	352,626
244 Iron Mountain						
245 Ironwood	1,471	29,047	225		30,743	30,771
246 Ishpeming	3,653	23,651	1,350		28,654	33,250
Jackson:						
District No. 1	3,845	34,746				39,334
District No. 17	3,877	28,065		40	31,922	31,922
249 Kalamazoo	7,789	57,657	2,316		67,162	70,175
250 Lansing	6,559	58,222	479	3,291	68,551	102,751
251 Ludington						
252 Manistee	7,834	34,991		328	43,153	67,781
253 Marquette	3,642	18,500	2,930	16	25,058	32,875
254 Menominee *	4,716	26,270		544	31,530	44,613
255 Muskegon	9,881	43,569	6,182	733	60,265	126,063
256 Owosso		23,608		697	24,305	53,538
257 Port Huron	10,480	27,800		563	38,843	66,643
Saginaw:						
East Side	11,429	101,243	417		113,481	123,481
Wes Side	9,373	50,130	4,557		64,110	68,505
260 San Ste. Marie	3,600	12,042			15,139	19,139
261 Traverse City	2,274	25,622		830	28,726	38,915
262 West Bay City	5,702	36,949	3,632	199	45,882	53,882
MINNESOTA.						
263 Duluth*					405,019	772,868
264 Faribault						
265 Mankato	21,000					40,000
266 Minneapolis	104,114	562,801		2,261	669,176	683,689
267 St. Cloud	4,077	17,500	400		21,977	24,977
268 St. Paul	74,123	198,500	168,913	270	441,811	464,771
269 Stillwater	4,762	35,810	5,791		46,363	49,728
270 Winona	12,707	47,838	4,674	335	65,554	77,164
MISSISSIPPI.						
271 Columbus						
272 Jackson						
273 Meridian	5,600	14,500		4,000	24,100	24,100
274 Natchez	5,922	6,763	323		13,008	13,076
275 Vicksburg	7,500	13,500			23,000	23,000
MISSOURI.						
276 Carthage	4,999	(24,176)		3,590	32,765	33,633
277 Chillicothe	3,938	12,729		560	17,277	24,977
278 Hannibal	6,650	28,949		467	36,066	43,249
279 Jefferson City						

* Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.					Total amount available for use during the year.
	From State apportionment or taxes.	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MISSOURI—continued.						
280	Joplin					
281	Kansas City	\$60,309		\$362,174	\$19,774	\$690,881
282	Moberly				44,657	50,180
283	Nevada *					19,640
284	St. Charles					
285	St. Joseph	22,199		74,291	79,608	366,698
286	St. Louis	137,008	\$1,211,299	146,927	229,640	1,775,817
287	Sedalia	4,452	43,629		2,804	61,292
288	Springfield	6,667	41,633	2,668	1,625	
MONTANA.						
289	Butte City			91,907	97	92,004
290	Great Falls					
291	Helena			63,612	32	63,644
NEBRASKA.						
292	Beatrice	3,163	10,334	11,645	7,393	34,055
293	Tremont	2,575	(21,174)		8,589	34,843
294	Grand Island	3,154	18,193		11,728	41,439
295	Hastings	2,424	10,890	9,678	10,781	33,773
296	Kearney	2,221		18,651	15	40,763
297	Lincoln				445	174,016
298	Nebraska City *	3,764	4,651		17,283	25,698
299	Omaha	37,087	64,217	222,701	10,506	344,172
300	Plattsmouth	3,532		12,906	68	19,403
301	South Omaha	4,016	12,533	1,535		18,084
NEVADA.						
302	Virginia City					
NEW HAMPSHIRE.						
303	Concord	a 21,723	23,702		994	50,778
304	Dover	1,865	28,582		483	31,271
305	Keene (Union district)					
306	Manchester					202,290
307	Nashua	20,451	37,000	2,884	295	60,630
308	Portsmouth	1,665	27,676		743	30,084
NEW JERSEY.						
309	Atlantic City *	17,503	24,814			48,547
310	Bayonne	21,527	45,710			88,055
311	Bridgeton	a 12,433	11,673		80	25,185
312	Camden	95,812	105,000		1,412	204,224
313	Elizabeth	50,679	34,321	0	0	85,000
314	Harrison	11,400	4,100			15,500
315	Hoboken					
316	Jersey City	265,701	111,465		19,666	586,545
317	Long Branch	17,018	0	35,613	2,693	69,698
318	Millville *	b 11,533	13,373		8	24,914
319	Morristown	11,064	15,500		929	31,897
320	Newark	366,296	224,418		292	667,140
321	New Brunswick *	21,423	20,706			42,129
322	Orange	38,069	14,800		563	54,874
323	Passaic					59,249
324	Paterson	107,429	89,571	0	561	261,221
325	Perth Amboy		10,000			
326	Phillipsburg	11,858	19,551		82	34,594
327	Plainfield	14,726	38,190	0	2,319	64,047
328	Rahway	9,276	9,500		187	18,963
329	Town of Union	13,050	21,150		422	39,393
330	Trenton					
NEW YORK.						
331	Albany	45,459	193,310		5,165	338,120
332	Amsterdam					
333	Auburn	16,027	70,000		2,574	112,217

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a From State and county taxes.

b State, county, and township.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

	City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.					Total amount available for use during the year.
		From State apportionments or taxes.	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.	Total.	
		1	2	3	4	5	
NEW YORK—continued.							
334	Batavia	\$6,261	\$20,054		\$2,575	\$28,890	
335	Binghamton	21,008	84,000	0	1,822	106,830	\$106,830
336	Brooklyn	419,952	2,282,363		41,248	2,743,563	4,526,358
337	Buffalo	130,713	914,688		4,602	1,050,003	1,622,636
338	Cohoes	α 12,718	38,775		1,664	53,157	68,928
339	Corning*	5,344	17,342		389	23,075	27,511
340	Dunkirk	7,464	31,986	0	0	39,450	39,450
	Edgewater:						
341	District No. 1 (Tompkinsville)						
342	District No. 2 (Stapleton)	3,482	23,902		5,455	32,839	142,838
343	Elmira	17,515	58,585		2,019	78,119	141,819
344	Flushing	5,034	21,971		2,007	32,191	
345	Geneva	5,629	21,522		253	27,404	45,639
346	Glens Falls	5,345	13,809		601	19,756	26,523
347	Gloversville	8,415	31,925		1,310	41,650	48,826
348	Hornellsville	8,501	21,903		378	30,782	31,243
349	Hudson	5,183	7,009		4,873	17,056	22,838
350	Ithaca	8,178	23,208		7,655	38,041	38,459
351	Jamestown	13,492	41,538	0	2,366	60,366	62,366
352	Johnstown	5,481	21,439			26,920	
353	Kingston school district	7,811	28,001	0	1,359	37,171	37,171
354	Lansingburg	7,927	29,215		5,272	42,414	68,400
355	Little Falls	5,018	17,500		400	22,918	23,282
256	Lockport	11,012	39,250		4,802	55,064	71,474
357	Long Island City		99,302	0	40,047	139,349	166,756
358	Middletown	6,808	22,600	0	1,557	30,965	50,123
359	Mount Vernon: District No. 5	18,215	94,331			112,546	180,638
360	Newburg	13,922	59,603		2,409	75,944	75,946
361	New Rochelle	6,790			21,231	28,021	93,390
362	New York	696,069	3,996,232		115,380	4,807,681	6,200,470
363	Niagara Falls	7,151	38,214		994	46,359	67,587
364	North Tonawanda	6,236	29,873		725	36,839	40,517
365	Ogdensburg*	7,477	19,409		1,234	28,120	36,807
366	Olean						
367	Oswego	11,593	34,000	0	1,794	47,387	
368	Peekskill: District No. 7 (Drumhill)	1,984	8,916		1,008	11,908	12,107
369	Plattsburg	6,356	16,353		1,140	23,854	25,880
370	Port Jervis	7,424	22,393		361	30,178	34,739
371	Poughkeepsie	12,580	39,725		1,702	54,007	75,418
372	Rochester	113,351	405,060	0	999	519,350	534,902
373	Rome	8,069	16,444		663	25,176	25,176
374	Saratoga Springs	8,218	45,566	\$509		54,293	106,110
375	Schenectady	10,332	25,329		1,680	37,341	37,341
376	Sing Sing	4,048	18,650		1,390	24,088	30,966
377	Syracuse	48,684	257,152		1,980	307,816	594,524
378	Tonawanda	5,100	21,000	700			26,800
379	Troy	α 29,603	114,549		2,186	146,338	149,225
380	Utica	26,219	97,000		1,883	125,052	140,029
381	Watertown	11,290	35,000		1,059	47,349	47,349
382	Yonkers	14,405	87,577				205,630
NORTH CAROLINA.							
383	Asheville		10,000	4,500		14,500	14,500
384	Charlotte	α 6,600	7,500			14,100	
385	Winston						
OHIO.							
386	Akron	14,438	116,647		5,781	136,866	230,435
387	Alliance	3,405		26,075	561	30,041	39,410
388	Ashtabula						
389	Bellaire						31,297
390	Canton	12,792	90,603	483	1,461	105,339	227,530
391	Chillicothe	5,964	31,472		769	38,205	51,732
392	Circinnati	128,008	0	722,857	58,505	909,370	1,026,629
393	Circleville*						
394	Cleveland	131,831	936,888	6,396	110,840	1,185,155	1,900,682
395	Columbus	43,957	387,899		3,167	435,023	741,275

* Statistics of 1893-94.

α From State and county taxes.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.					Total amount available for use during the year.
	From State apportionment or taxes.	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OHIO—continued.						
396 Dayton.....	\$28,544	\$281,211	\$5,123	\$314,878	\$573,590
397 Delancey*.....	20,000
398 Delaware.....	5,094	29,338	\$203 847	25,482	43,252
399 East Liverpool*.....	3,392	(16,526)	1,181	21,109	82,888
400 Elyria.....	2,873	20,571	6,721	30,165	34,637
401 Findlay.....	78,833
402 Fostoria.....	3,754	25,445	2,087	35,768
403 Fremont.....	3,302	23,083	1,019	27,404
404 Hamilton.....	10,000	55,000	500	65,500	95,500
405 Ironton.....	5,685	280	23,525	650	30,140	58,340
406 Lancaster.....	3,034	29,574	0	124	23,742	24,200
407 Lima.....	6,429	46,289	2,170	54,888	70,427
408 Lorain.....
409 Mansfield.....	5,898	59,654	60	65,612	82,900
410 Marietta.....	4,386	21,643	307	970	27,306	64,477
411 Marion.....	53,916
412 Martins Ferry.....	29,000	50,000
413 Massillon.....	50,560
414 Middletown.....	3,807	35,777	98	39,682	56,500
415 Mount Vernon*.....
416 Nelsonville.....	2,793	12,209	3,682	18,675	36,729
417 Newark.....	6,634	35,962	1,375	43,971	71,850
418 Newwalk*.....
419 Piqua*.....	5,587	30,753	168	36,508	36,508
420 Portsmouth*.....	6,363	27,754	925	755	35,797	55,084
421 Salem.....
422 Sandusky.....	8,065	48,066	2,684	59,715	73,935
423 Springfield.....	13,944	87,253	2,290	103,501	184,743
424 Steubenville.....	6,503	31,791	262	38,556	57,097
425 Tiffin.....	5,112	28,249	249	33,610	53,428
426 Toledo.....	45,623	142,015	4,631	26,931	219,200	414,228
427 Warren.....
428 Xenia.....	6,106	38,811	0	971	42,888	54,891
429 Youngstown.....	17,742	103,469	587	127,798	242,438
430 Zanesville.....	(65,340)	95,772
OKLAHOMA.						
431 Oklahoma.....
OREGON.						
432 Portland.....	17,178	284,186	4,378	305,742	405,496
433 Salem.....	2,085	31,543	506	34,134	50,392
PENNSYLVANIA.						
434 Allegheny.....	103,457	(244,760)	2,942	351,168	671,068
435 Allentown.....	31,563	78,146	841	110,550	110,550
436 Altoona.....	32,085	69,267	425	101,777	164,814
437 Beaver Falls.....	8,198	29,028	269	2,018	30,513	30,513
438 Braddock.....	8,746	23,331	391	32,468	87,824
439 Bradford.....	9,857	38,907	706	49,530	70,272
440 Butler.....	9,636	29,388	183	39,207	40,807
441 Carbondale.....	13,235	23,532	139	36,906	47,936
442 Carlisle.....	9,068	9,605	220	18,893	18,951
443 Chambersburg.....	8,752	13,558	231	22,541	22,541
444 Chester.....	19,433	42,370	822	62,625	184,756
445 Columbia.....	9,498	15,824	0	313	25,635	50,676
446 Dunmore*.....	9,376	18,846	28,222	28,222
447 Easton.....	19,685	59,927	1,210	80,822	128,287
448 Erie.....	36,337	117,269	955	5,161	159,662	190,845
449 Harrisburg.....	43,381	84,079	357	127,808	234,785
450 Hazelton.....	11,316	27,143	3,319	41,778	49,489
451 Homestead.....	7,235	24,107	31,342	71,342
452 Johnstown*.....	19,621	64,548	84,169	102,565
453 Lancaster.....	33,119	59,380	11	268	92,778	105,908
454 Lebanon.....	16,574	30,148	46,722	46,821
455 Lockhaven.....	8,000	11,000	0	0	19,000	19,000
456 McKeesport.....	21,355	66,613	536	88,504	157,293
457 Mahanoy City*.....	13,655	13,554	50,605

* Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

	City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.				Total amount available for use during the year.	
		From State apportionment or taxes.	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.							
458	Meadville.....	\$11,825	\$29,106	\$1,695	\$42,626	\$44,798
459	Mount Carmel.....	8,031	11,128	\$2,327	21,486	41,122
460	Nanticoke.....	9,701	19,370	802	1,190	31,063	31,063
461	New Castle.....	14,975	21,633	36,608	44,807
462	Nerristown.....	18,172	32,379	1,174	51,725	107,267
463	Oil City.....	10,752	30,386	38	167	41,343	41,343
464	Philadelphia.....	1,000,000	2,563,497	3,563,497	3,563,497
465	Phoenixville.....	8,862	14,050	3	559	23,474	24,016
466	Pittsburg.....	241,159	801,877	53,175	1,096,211	1,363,615
467	Pittston.....	9,640	15,165	57	171	25,033	35,566
468	Plymouth.....	10,592	9,282	114	19,988	21,223
469	Pottstown.....	13,228	25,117	38,345	74,328
470	Pottsville*.....	17,055	13,761	30,816
471	Reading.....	58,047	139,776	5,188	203,011	242,243
472	Seranton.....	82,413	194,592	3,796	280,801	498,770
473	Shamokin.....	16,105	23,324	23	897	40,324	89,949
474	Shenandoah.....	19,934	28,885	1,810	50,629	62,473
475	South Bethlehem*.....	14,615	28,425	57,377
476	South Chester.....	6,630	15,420	0	170	22,220	24,470
477	Steelton.....	10,702	19,731	392	30,825	45,276
478	Titusville.....	10,493	29,190	0	468	40,151	46,906
479	Uniontown.....	6,440	13,452	604	20,496	21,781
480	West Chester.....	8,987	20,892	3,979	33,858	64,011
481	Wilkesbarre.....	39,985	93,878	1,284	930	136,077	176,284
482	Williamsport.....	30,608	63,430	94,038	94,038
483	York.....	24,271	32,495	598	57,364	97,948
RHODE ISLAND.							
484	East Providence.....	4,155	30,514	1,000	35,669	35,669
485	Johnston (Olneyville).....	4,217	a 20,058	b 8,861	1,173	34,309	110,019
486	Newport.....	5,681	61,038	5,367	72,086	101,309
487	Pawtucket.....	8,379	117,447	352	126,178	164,915
488	Providence.....	28,992	516,118	0	22,738	567,848	664,011
489	Woonsocket.....	7,714	67,000	2,875	77,589	101,895
SOUTH CAROLINA.							
490	Charleston.....	31,883	37,464	69,347	80,336
491	Columbia.....	4,200	10,367	432	14,999	25,681
492	Spartanburg.....
SOUTH DAKOTA.							
493	Sioux Falls.....	c 9,663	28,986	38,649	49,965
TENNESSEE.							
494	Chattanooga.....	a 20,000	20,000	1,000	41,000
495	Clarksville.....	6,289	5,383	347	12,019	15,017
496	Knoxville.....	1,629	8,959	29,132	1,619	41,339	41,332
497	Memphis.....	3,500	10,008	52,024	6,400	71,932	97,146
498	Nashville.....	81,310	75,000	156,310	156,310
TEXAS.							
499	Austin.....	20,664	32,994	900	12,219	56,777	69,465
500	Corsicana*.....
501	Dallas.....	36,420	37,345	613	0	74,378	75,145
502	Denison.....	9,766	9,800	218	900	20,684	21,164
503	El Paso.....	5,308	15,673	111	21,092	21,092
504	Fort Worth.....	15,727	28,598	2,221	195	46,741	46,741
505	Gainesville.....	5,414	19,724	705	1,002	26,845	31,364
506	Galveston.....	32,937	40,000	2,156	453	75,546	75,546
507	Houston.....	41,680	29,840	6,038	77,558	149,674
508	Laredo*.....	9,187	9,187	13,178
509	Paris.....	8,494	10,400	150	19,044	19,044
510	San Antonio*.....	44,926	49,537	8	94,471	98,562
511	Tyler*.....	5,153	8,285	20	13,458	14,557
512	Waco*.....	14,306	27,640	160	42,106	42,106

* Statistics of 1893-94.
a Town taxes.

b District taxes.
c From State and county taxes.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of receipts of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants—Cont'd.

	City.	Receipts for the school year 1894-95.					Total amount available for use during the year.
		From State appropriation or taxes.	From city appropriations or taxes.	From county and other taxes.	From all other sources.	Total.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
UTAH.							
513	Ogden.....	\$15,397	\$29,200	\$6,741	\$1,201	\$52,539	\$53,539
514	Salt Lake City.....	44,779	175,687	53,734	7,773	281,973	376,250
VERMONT.							
515	Burlington.....	1,658	30,000	4,080	35,739	56,239
516	Rutland.....	2,500	32,000	168	34,668	34,668
VIRGINIA.							
517	Alexandria.....	1,529	13,500	20,907
518	Danville.....	4,844	12,823	0	0	17,667	18,979
519	Lynchburg.....	9,135	32,016	1,055	42,206	42,388
520	Manchester.....	4,837	4,553	9,390	9,396
521	Norfolk.....	13,002	34,872	0	0	47,874	54,786
522	Petersburg.....	10,086	13,078	0	558	23,722	23,722
523	Portsmouth.....	4,888	11,232	0	41	16,161	17,771
524	Richmond.....	33,810	118,439	1,928	154,178	154,178
525	Roanoke.....	5,572	10,386	2,457	18,415	18,498
526	Staunton.....	2,655	10,694	462	14,374	14,374
WASHINGTON.							
527	Seattle.....	6,161	117,144	36	123,341	231,161
528	Spokane.....	2,552	50,315	430	53,297	68,941
529	Tacoma.....	4,610	107,959	29	112,598	112,598
530	Walla Walla.....	16,751
WEST VIRGINIA.							
531	Huntington.....	3,022	15,928	1,023	597	20,570	22,777
532	Parkersburg.....
533	Wheeling.....	15,037	81,445	1,317	238	98,037	110,612
WISCONSIN.							
534	Appleton.....	564	39,000	6,500	14,543	60,607	107,957
535	Ashland.....
536	Chippewa Falls.....	15,000	3,937	525	19,462	30,463
537	Eau Claire.....	7,555	50,000	8,177	1,323	67,055	82,538
538	Fond du Lac*.....	6,275	17,000	6,061	816	30,152	42,721
539	Green Bay.....	4,492	19,835	4,308	465	29,100	29,100
540	Janesville.....	5,594	1,800	6,089	839	14,322	74,666
541	La Crosse.....	11,721	58,700	12,155	2,569	85,145	116,858
542	Madison.....	5,894	29,056	6,221	5,045	46,216	59,903
543	Marinette.....	282	30,750	5,870	653	37,555	58,136
544	Merrill.....	8,700	4,000	7,981	20,681	27,270
545	Milwaukee.....	105,780	384,861	115,000	7,537	613,178	911,631
546	Oshkosh.....	10,533	45,500	250	56,283	59,890
547	Racine.....	9,865	35,000	12,000	588	57,453	132,767
548	Sheboygan.....	282	49,836	10,684	291	61,093	90,676
549	Stevens Point.....	4,358	15,000	4,077	178	23,613	28,680
550	Superior.....	6,653	110,000	3,014	119,667	247,520
551	Wauertown*.....	4,781	5,997	4,557	308	15,643	22,474
552	Wausau*.....
WYOMING.							
553	Cheyenne.....	24,515	24,515

* Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities of over 8,000 inhabitants.

City.	Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				
	Permanent investments and lasting improvements.	For salaries of teachers and supervising officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For evening schools.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6
ALABAMA.					
1 Birmingham.....		\$32,771	\$6,075		\$38,846
2 Huntsville.....	\$1,750	3,605	959		6,314
3 Mobile*.....	1,882	64,577	15,192		81,651
4 Montgomery.....	35,000	23,924	2,385	0	61,309
5 Selma.....		10,880			14,040
ARKANSAS.					
6 Fort Smith.....		38,984	1,873		40,857
7 Hot Springs.....	1,500	16,000	2,400	0	19,500
8 Little Rock.....	12,788	43,203	14,186		70,177
9 Pine Bluff.....		12,080	13,560		25,740
CALIFORNIA.					
10 Alameda.....	21,218	52,182	17,999	\$721	92,120
11 Berkeley.....		* 38,000			52,200
12 Eureka.....	646	20,650	6,216		27,512
13 Fresno.....		28,750	5,600		34,350
14 Los Angeles.....	27,579	209,334	46,364		283,277
15 Oakland.....	166,535	207,921	23,079		397,535
16 Pasadena.....		27,914	5,426		33,340
17 Sacramento.....	1,872	84,350	15,226	2,148	103,596
18 San Bernardino*.....		27,415			37,145
19 San Diego.....	2,082	52,140	14,541		68,763
20 San Francisco.....	45,511	844,985	152,570		1,043,066
21 San Jose.....		78,980			102,700
22 Santa Cruz.....	44,984	27,219	5,089		77,292
23 Stockton.....	13,699	47,493	19,815		81,007
COLORADO.					
24 Colorado Springs.....	25,337	46,801	91,203		163,341
25 Denver:					
District No. 1.....	56,041	187,964	99,249	0	333,254
26 District No. 2.....	16,334	89,522	43,393		149,249
27 District No. 17.....	70,609	57,464	41,746		169,819
28 Leadville.....	4,284	20,527	7,311	0	32,122
29 Pueblo:					
District No. 1.....	102	31,432	25,773		57,307
30 District No. 20.....		31,198	27,049	0	58,247
31 Trinidad.....		17,702			
CONNECTICUT.					
32 Ansonia*.....	12,285	23,460	5,887		41,632
33 Bridgeport.....	1,344	101,755	45,799	559	149,457
34 Bristol*.....		25,000			33,000
35 Danbury.....	6,390	33,204	12,052	663	52,309
36 Hartford.....	20,347	169,088			259,587
37 Manchester.....	2,000	12,538	7,583		31,121
38 Meriden.....	20,000	58,138	34,878	666	114,182
39 Middletown.....		16,475			* 35,368
40 New Britain*.....	16,825	31,438	12,256		60,519
41 New Haven.....	119,053	240,622	86,111	5,997	451,783
42 New London.....	18,000	25,172	8,690	579	52,441
43 Norwalk.....		36,966	5,950		42,916
44 Norwich*.....	0	20,469	8,097		28,566
45 Rockville.....		11,000			19,000
46 Stamford*.....		42,626	8,661		51,287
47 Waterbury.....	48,251	83,636	22,814	3,457	158,158
48 Williamantic.....	877	24,125	8,364		33,366
DELAWARE.					
49 Wilmington.....	29,962	102,347	32,973	0	165,282
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.					
Washington:					
50 First to Sixth divisions a.....		686,875	14,267	b 3,244 2,498	950,540
51 Seventh and Eighth divisions c.....					

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Principally white pupils.

b Cost of teachers.

c Colored pupils only.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

City.		Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				
		Permanent investments and lasting improvements.	For salaries of teachers and supervising officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For evening schools.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	
FLORIDA.						
52	Jacksonville.....	\$1,294	\$37,119	\$5,577	0	\$43,990
53	Key West.....	1,504	11,961	2,131	15,596
54	Pensacola.....	1,280	10,611	2,697	0	14,588
55	Tampa.....	13,400	14,341
GEORGIA.						
56	Americus.....	15,086	17,156
57	Athens.....	15,525	1,369	16,924
58	Atlanta.....	4,792	119,688	151,320
59	Augusta.....	7,500	49,500	16,450	73,450
60	Brunswick.....	1,200	10,870	600	12,670
61	Columbus*.....	26,105	5,526	\$503	32,134
62	Macon.....	5,665	47,358	4,753	0	57,776
63	Rome.....	13,000
64	Savannah.....	89,994	29,643	119,637
ILLINOIS.						
65	Alton.....	3,727	15,897	5,003	25,975
Aurora:						
66	District No. 4, west*.....	13,939	24,939
67	District No. 5, east*.....	1,340	31,035	12,822	45,197
68	Belleville.....	1,698	33,412	10,014	0	45,124
69	Bloomington.....	13,181	43,918	17,643	74,742
70	Cairo.....	2,344	19,373	5,566	0	27,283
71	Canton.....	22,000	20,000	6,800	0	59,800
72	Champaign.....	15,000	20,000
73	Chicago.....	1,726,551	3,492,123	931,098	138,612	6,238,324
74	Danville.....	4,288	27,106	13,111	44,505
75	Decatur.....	16,460	39,753	13,442	0	69,655
East St. Louis:						
76	District No. 1.....	6,250	1,800	8,050
77	District No. 2, T. 2, R. 10 W.....	52,136	28,022	22,790	102,948
78	District No. 2, T. 2, R. 9 W.....	0	3,520	1,150	0	5,000
79	Elgin.....	21,238	42,205	24,113	87,556
Evanston:						
80	District No. 1.....	33,349	39,020	19,002	390	82,761
81	North Evanston, No. 3.....	3,639	4,002	2,361	10,002
82	South Evanston.....	46,793	12,259	9,083	68,135
83	Freeport.....	2,975	21,012	9,447	33,464
84	Galesburg.....	4,542	30,949	36,675	0	72,166
85	Jacksonville.....	a 26,000	0	53,899
86	Joliet.....	44,379	49,010	20,196	113,585
87	Kankakee.....	9,808	16,730	7,485	34,023
88	Mattoon.....	75,000	15,962	6,508	0	97,470
89	Moline.....	49,041	33,373	15,848	0	98,262
90	Ottawa.....	1,000	22,179	6,843	30,022
91	Pekin.....	17,410	2,700	34,173
92	Peoria.....	2,470	107,325	29,091	138,886
93	Quincy.....	9,944	45,732	14,660	70,336
94	Rockford.....	14,980	57,350	17,406	299	99,095
95	Rock Island.....	28,871	34,783	12,635	76,289
96	Springfield.....	9,187	54,548	13,754	0	77,489
97	Sterling.....	9,051	3,207	12,253
INDIANA.						
98	Anderson.....	10,302	31,118	6,944	0	48,364
99	Brazil.....	7,956	11,338	3,911	23,207
100	Columbus.....	* 17,368
101	Crawfordsville.....	15,870	17,000
102	Elkhart.....	3,470	22,405	11,685	37,560
103	Evansville.....	9,695	102,498	23,921	722	136,836
104	Fort Wayne.....	28,249	65,943	14,132	108,324
105	Frankfort.....	550	17,373	3,448	21,371
106	Goshen*.....	12,624	13,369
107	Hammond.....	525	16,745	2,303	805	20,378
108	Huntington.....	11,608	23,289	7,046	0	41,943
109	Indianapolis.....	48,502	268,381	172,475	489,358
110	Jeffersonville.....	25,000
111	Kokomo.....	22,403	34,991

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Estimated.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

	City.	Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				Total.
		Permanent investments and lasting improvements.	For salaries of teachers and supervising officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For evening schools.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
INDIANA—continued.						
112	Lafayette*		\$32, 624	\$15, 213		\$47, 237
113	Laporte	\$33, 000	20, 190	6, 934		60, 124
114	Logansport	22, 520	26, 182	18, 793		67, 495
115	Madison		16, 991			
116	Marion		28, 122	14, 146		61, 605
117	Michigan City	1, 000	20, 087	4, 566		25, 653
118	Muncie*	9, 533	91, 780	11, 377		52, 640
119	New Albany	0	36, 813	12, 763		49, 576
120	Richmond	33, 877	39, 079	22, 856		95, 812
121	Shelbyville		12, 353		0	
122	South Bend	26, 165	40, 519	7, 430		74, 114
123	Terre Haute	23, 916	84, 121	20, 793	0	133, 835
124	Vincennes					20, 563
125	Wabash		22, 000			23, 500
126	Washington		12, 600			22, 616
IOWA.						
127	Boone		19, 000	4, 000		* 34, 720
128	Burlington	1, 012	62, 905	15, 302	0	79, 219
129	Cedar Rapids	0	44, 173	39, 483		83, 662
130	Clinton	4, 208	37, 978	17, 101		59, 287
131	Council Bluffs		55, 651	30, 450	\$130	86, 231
132	Creston	563	17, 805	7, 304		25, 672
133	Davenport	3, 047	74, 971	18, 193	278	96, 489
Des Moines:						
134	North side		17, 200	7, 500		34, 700
135	East side		37, 592	24, 022		61, 614
136	West side	13, 795	78, 455	24, 441		116, 691
137	Dubuque	28, 996	54, 039	34, 335		117, 370
138	Fort Madison	465	13, 000	5, 456		18, 920
139	Iowa City	0	20, 318	13, 108	0	33, 426
140	Keokuk	34, 545	30, 165	3, 536		68, 246
141	Marshalltown	53, 800	27, 110	23, 065		103, 975
142	Muscatine	382	29, 130	9, 493		39, 005
143	Oskaloosa	4, 100	24, 000	2, 100		30, 200
144	Ottumwa					
145	Sioux City	12, 060	95, 208	48, 209	0	155, 477
Waterloo:						
146	East side	889				19, 443
147	West side	1, 100	9, 514	6, 841		17, 455
KANSAS.						
148	Arkansas City		16, 827			22, 345
149	Atchison		19, 976	13, 911		33, 887
150	Emporia	1, 544	20, 991	2, 066		24, 601
151	Fort Scott	936	20, 310	6, 096		27, 342
152	Hutchinson		19, 541			26, 980
153	Kansas City	1, 000	55, 389	33, 201		89, 690
154	Lawrence		20, 978			32, 776
155	Leavenworth	2, 301	35, 769			56, 387
156	Ottawa		13, 184	5, 085		18, 269
157	Parsons	10	12, 456	4, 732		17, 198
158	Pittsburg*		18, 000			31, 040
159	Topeka	20, 000	61, 585	40, 049		121, 634
160	Wichita		49, 841	11, 033		60, 874
KENTUCKY.						
161	Bowling Green					
162	Covington	10, 473	64, 255	11, 387	0	86, 115
Frankfort:						
163	White	1, 525	10, 485	1, 505		13, 515
164	Colored					
165	Henderson		17, 000			20, 000
166	Hopkinsville	1, 854	9, 350	1, 996		13, 200
167	Lexington					
168	Louisville	5, 895	398, 848	81, 956	10, 337	497, 036
169	Maysville*		4, 650			4, 650
170	Newport	4, 108	40, 446	13, 057	500	58, 111
171	Owensboro	12, 856	19, 517	2, 029		34, 402
172	Paducah		11, 574	5, 988	0	38, 174

* Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

		Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				
City.		Permanent invest-ments and lasting improve-ments.	For salaries of teachers and super-visor officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For even- ing schools.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	
LOUISIANA.						
173	New Orleans.....		\$301, 141	\$254, 572		\$555, 713
MAINE.						
174	Auburn.....	0	21, 000	9, 200		30, 200
175	Augusta ^a		a 13, 321			27, 283
176	Bangor.....	\$4, 692	35, 313	9, 783		49, 788
177	Bath.....	0	19, 752	6, 938		26, 690
178	Biddeford.....		21, 366	10, 674	(b)	32, 040
179	Calais.....	649	11, 030	2, 130		13, 809
180	Lewiston.....	4, 000	33, 340	17, 340		54, 680
181	Portland.....	29, 546	80, 979	26, 799	b \$795	137, 324
182	Rockland.....	13, 691	14, 739	4, 817		33, 247
MARYLAND.						
183	Baltimore.....	117, 089	840, 112	238, 490	11, 538	1, 207, 229
184	Frederick ^a		8, 528			10, 441
185	Hagerstown.....	9, 609	55, 277	3, 386		68, 272
MASSACHUSETTS.						
186	Adams.....		20, 800	6, 700		27, 500
187	Amesbury.....		13, 261	5, 750	b 328	19, 011
188	Attleboro.....		17, 335	8, 083		25, 418
189	Beverly.....		22, 000			40, 000
190	Boston.....	397, 983	1, 533, 484	509, 190	57, 116	2, 497, 773
191	Brockton [*]	13, 700				115, 217
192	Brookline.....		73, 179	25, 681	524	99, 384
193	Cambridge.....	35, 423	215, 593	58, 461	7, 218	316, 695
194	Chelsea.....	2, 890	70, 292	19, 207	1, 549	93, 938
195	Chicopee [*]	35, 000	c 20, 204			63, 930
196	Clinton.....	8, 479	21, 669	11, 931	866	42, 945
197	Everett.....	20, 000	43, 486	17, 862	569	81, 917
198	Fall River.....		157, 712	d 63, 514	11, 600	d 232, 826
199	Fitchburg.....	102, 694	68, 002	37, 625	3, 325	211, 646
200	Frammingham [*]	15, 000	c 23, 379			51, 650
201	Gardner.....	15, 031	19, 284	9, 998	0	44, 313
202	Gloucester.....	5, 068	54, 684	32, 259		92, 011
203	Haverhill.....		68, 693	22, 820	b 2, 149	91, 513
204	Holyoke.....	67, 203	85, 273	31, 857	3, 585	187, 918
205	Hyde Park.....	493	29, 280	8, 356	707	38, 836
206	Lawrence.....	28, 317	87, 786	34, 595	3, 354	153, 962
207	Lowell.....	40, 350	167, 148	80, 411	22, 697	310, 606
208	Lynn.....	0	152, 223	60, 162	3, 613	215, 998
209	Malden.....	2, 675	76, 984	32, 443	2, 486	114, 588
210	Marlboro.....	500	34, 902	16, 368	600	52, 370
211	Medford.....	38, 379	41, 280	17, 102	700	97, 461
212	Melrose.....		32, 147	15, 386		47, 533
213	Milford.....		18, 094	6, 812	423	25, 229
214	Natick.....	3, 123	23, 387	6, 501	300	33, 311
215	New Bedford.....	48, 849	101, 962	37, 561	4, 891	193, 263
216	Newburyport.....		22, 116	7, 662	275	30, 053
217	Newton.....		109, 887	30, 339	994	141, 220
218	North Adams.....	7, 097	30, 165	9, 416	1, 977	48, 655
219	Northampton.....	0	32, 812	12, 501	1, 323	46, 636
220	Peabody.....		24, 790	8, 500	0	33, 290
221	Pittsfield.....	1, 157	44, 900	15, 667	1, 276	63, 000
222	Plymouth.....	2, 636	21, 250	7, 013	0	30, 899
223	Quincy.....		57, 126			79, 925
224	Salem.....	22, 603	74, 455	24, 110	2, 843	124, 011
225	Somerville.....	118, 206	131, 086	40, 494	3, 014	292, 800
226	Spencer.....	1, 500	17, 781	8, 587	440	28, 308
227	Springfield.....	50, 451	136, 072	51, 653	4, 946	243, 122
228	Taunton.....	0	62, 913	24, 914	1, 877	89, 704
229	Waltham.....	22, 303	48, 179	19, 144	1, 914	91, 540
230	Westfield.....	1, 182	32, 765	8, 820	313	43, 085
231	Weymouth.....		30, 812	11, 269		42, 081
232	Woburn.....	1, 802	37, 960	9, 584	786	50, 132
233	Worcester.....	143, 586	274, 263	103, 575	11, 480	532, 904

* Statistics of 1893-94.

^a Estimated.^b Included in other items.^c Approximately.^d Does not include expenditures for repairs, fuel, and the like.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

City.	Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				Total.
	Permanent investments and lasting improvements.	For salaries of teachers and supervising officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For evening schools.	
1	2	3	4	5	6
MICHIGAN.					
234 Adrian	\$16,774	*\$16,640	\$6,556		\$23,330
235 Alpena		17,256	6,002		23,258
236 Ann Arbor	771	32,453	10,019		43,243
237 Battle Creek	27,000	29,225	15,623		71,848
238 Bay City	4,996	49,303	17,296	\$511	72,111
239 Detroit	377,314	460,480	202,840	9,888	1,050,522
240 Escanaba		12,650			18,060
241 Flint	0	30,809	13,351		44,160
242 Grand Haven		12,680	6,955		19,645
243 Grand Rapids	9,262	179,970	71,638	408	261,278
244 Iron Mountain*		16,395			
245 Ironwood		14,500	10,774		25,274
246 Ishpening	3,551	22,550	3,565		29,666
Jackson:					
District No. 1		23,500	11,670		40,150
District No. 17		16,006	8,878		24,884
249 Kalamazoo		37,785	20,491		61,276
250 Lansing		31,963	19,311		51,274
251 Ludington*		21,455			44,222
252 Manistee	16,369	28,913	19,025		64,307
253 Marquette	1,725	17,645	8,275		27,645
254 Menominee	145	21,694	9,355		31,174
255 Muskegon	2,300	42,676	20,641		65,617
256 Owosso	23,467	17,000	6,380		46,847
257 Port Huron	15,158	29,297	11,980		56,435
Saginaw:					
East Side	11,246	57,467	41,614		α123,481
West Side	2,542	37,802	19,833	250	60,347
260 Sault Ste. Marie	266	13,024	5,037		18,327
261 Traverse City	100,000	16,217	14,857		31,114
262 West Bay City		32,337	16,140		48,477
MINNESOTA.					
263 Duluth*		116,616			380,772
264 Faribault		15,500			20,000
265 Mankato	7,000	18,488	10,000		35,488
266 Minneapolis	86,723	480,080	181,225	4,465	752,503
267 St. Cloud	500	14,500	9,977		24,977
268 St. Paul	22,453	342,197	86,728		451,378
269 Stillwater		24,386	9,007		34,106
270 Wimona	7,675	46,007	15,942		69,624
MISSISSIPPI.					
271 Columbus		9,000			10,000
272 Jackson		10,250			11,000
273 Meridian		21,229	1,775		23,004
274 Natchez		12,122	846		12,968
275 Vicksburg		17,293			20,834
MISSOURI.					
276 Carthage		17,981	5,983		23,964
277 Chillicothe		9,848	7,691		17,539
278 Hannibal	11,749	24,096	7,047		42,892
279 Jefferson City		10,000			18,000
280 Joplin		23,092			36,886
281 Kansas City	33,319	248,918	117,018		399,255
282 Moberly		14,341		0	40,908
283 Nevada*	3,243	11,668	2,170		17,081
284 St. Charles		7,650			8,756
285 St. Joseph	176,095	89,410	79,501		345,006
286 St. Louis	335,801	999,032	345,182	9,057	1,689,072
287 Sedalia	2,070	31,153			51,223
288 Springfield	11,883	27,305	10,791		49,479
MONTANA.					
289 Butte City	1,423	66,745	23,895		92,063
290 Great Falls		23,500			38,000
291 Helena	3,000	35,071	26,608		64,679

* Statistics of 1893-94.

α The sum of the items is \$110,327.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

	City.	Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				Total.
		Permanent investments and lasting improvements.	For salaries of teachers and supervising officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For evening schools.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
NEBRASKA.						
292	Beatrice	\$599	\$24,514	\$6,059	0	\$31,172
293	Fremont	2,099	22,056	10,579		34,734
294	Grand Island		20,946	9,537		30,483
295	Hastings		17,841	7,513		25,354
296	Kearney	490	15,985	24,288		40,763
297	Lincoln	557	83,312	32,248	\$300	116,407
298	Nebraska City*	0	15,803	6,226		22,029
299	Omaha		252,325	127,695		380,020
300	Plattsmouth		12,396	6,190		18,586
301	South Omaha	19,101	28,414	11,552	157	59,224
NEVADA.						
302	Virginia City		16,600			
NEW HAMPSHIRE.						
303	Concord		32,033	16,830		48,922
304	Dover	2,510	20,500	6,866		29,876
305	Keene (Union district)		12,220			19,360
306	Manchester	104,960	71,895	23,543	1,892	202,290
307	Nashua		* 34,162			56,180
308	Portsmouth		23,377	6,707		30,084
NEW JERSEY.						
309	Atlantic City *		26,983	20,770		47,753
310	Bayonne		45,344	19,916		65,260
311	Bridgeton		17,043	6,254		23,297
312	Camden	32,597	137,546	16,003	5,000	191,146
313	Elizabeth	3,205	69,038	20,652	0	93,895
314	Harrison		11,400	3,600	500	15,500
315	Hoboken		* 103,569		1,800	138,764
316	Jersey City		296,697	81,439	6,509	387,705
317	Long Branch	2,004	28,557	17,267		47,828
318	Millville *	1,139	17,224	4,437	a 592	22,800
319	Morristown	1,253	15,946	5,776		22,974
320	Newark	64,543	390,142	120,047	26,463	601,195
321	New Brunswick *	8,002	28,157	5,358	252	41,517
322	Orange	2,220	32,696	15,053	267	49,636
323	Passaic	9,986	28,471	19,271	1,521	59,249
324	Paterson	36,473	145,622	46,069	4,000	232,164
325	Perth Amboy		13,191		6,126	19,317
326	Phillipsburg	537	19,145	11,192	650	31,524
327	Plainfield	326	33,643	18,531		52,500
328	Rahway		14,123	4,656		18,779
329	Town of Union		20,339	11,362	637	32,338
330	Trenton *		92,622			199,010
NEW YORK.						
331	Albany	939	183,514	48,014	890	233,357
332	Amsterdam					
333	Auburn	22,807	51,847	13,405	644	88,703
334	Batavia	16,515	15,051	6,188		37,754
335	Binghamton	15,557	74,991	20,445	0	110,993
336	Brooklyn	624,583	2,068,153	454,240	b 36,833	3,183,809
337	Buffalo	490,691	639,513	135,875	10,901	1,270,980
338	Cohoes		39,149	11,654		50,783
339	Corning *		14,469	5,861		20,330
340	Dunkirk	5,108	20,808	6,104	0	32,020
	Edgewater:					
341	District No. 1 (Tompkinsville)		5,875			10,549
342	District No. 2 (Stapleton)	108,218	13,684	14,255	0	136,187
343	Elmira	30,635	59,662	16,412		106,709
344	Flushing		16,330	13,477		29,807
345	Geneva	44,533	18,393	3,602		36,528
346	Glens Falls		14,123	5,384		19,407
347	Gloversville	4,296	28,941	6,358		39,595
348	Hornellsville	5,000	22,634	8,195		35,829
349	Hudson		13,125	8,923		22,053
350	Ithaca	1,820	24,848	8,483		37,156

* Statistics of 1833-94.

a Included in other items.

b Salaries only.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

City.	Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				
	Permanent invest-ments and lasting improve-ments.	For salaries of teachers and super-visor officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For even-ing schools.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6
NEW YORK—continued.					
351 Jamestown.....	\$3,465	\$44,272	\$12,095	0	\$59,822
352 Johnstown.....	7,456	14,458	5,865	27,780
353 Kingston school district.....	657	24,003	8,169	32,829
354 Lansingburg.....	27,422	23,954	9,311	60,687
355 Little Falls.....	15,575	7,657	22,232
356 Lockport.....	15,137	36,065	11,155	62,357
357 Long Island City.....	11,764	83,596	28,446	\$1,273	125,079
358 Middletown.....	356	21,526	7,032	0	28,914
359 Mount Vernon: District No. 5.....	22,378	46,065	24,986	101,479
360 Newburg.....	3,176	50,995	21,610	75,781
361 New Rochelle.....	37,222	28,273	12,402	77,902
362 New York.....	1,508,169	3,397,035	1,129,622	165,644	6,200,470
363 Niagara Falls.....	27,684	26,646	12,461	296	67,087
364 North Tonawanda.....	3,787	18,892	14,703	37,382
365 Ogdensburg*.....	1,596	18,905	6,500	26,941
366 Olean.....
367 Oswego.....	5,616	39,881	9,302	0	48,859
368 Peekskill: District No. 7 (Drumhill).....	2,040	7,170	2,388	11,598
369 Plattsburg.....	375	16,700	5,930	23,005
370 Port Jervis.....	165	20,325	6,853	27,343
371 Poughkeepsie.....	37,109	16,308	53,417
372 Rochester.....	63,344	303,331	97,055	5,580	469,310
373 Rome.....	1,418	19,900	5,223	0	26,541
374 Saratoga Springs.....	19,237	29,961	7,369	56,567
375 Schenectady.....	3,806	27,105	6,439	37,341
376 Sing Sing.....	1,340	13,091	5,514	19,945
377 Syracuse.....	102,475	195,756	76,900	1,518	376,649
378 Tonawanda.....	1,000	17,000	5,800	200	24,000
379 Troy.....	300	115,387	33,019	0	148,706
380 Utica.....	11,157	94,792	20,630	1,444	128,023
381 Watertown.....	8,000	31,540	51,592
382 Yonkers*.....	52,316	69,318	30,372	152,006
NORTH CAROLINA.					
383 Asheville.....	11,520	2,900	14,500
384 Charlotte.....	15,340
385 Winston.....	11,268	17,460
OHIO.					
386 Akron.....	16,262	67,232	34,076	117,570
387 Alliance.....	3,745	18,057	6,031	27,833
388 Ashtabula.....	18,600	39,772
389 Bellaire.....	17,333	24,384
390 Canton.....	38,598	58,165	29,300	126,063
391 Chillicothe.....	26,400	34,964
392 Cincinnati.....	130,860	679,358	155,609	9,606	975,433
393 Circleville*.....	15,900	26,800
394 Cleveland.....	154,637	707,322	335,713	7,038	1,204,760
395 Columbus.....	98,632	268,710	102,326	469,718
396 Dayton.....	39,051	217,327	98,109	1,214	355,701
397 Defiance*.....	13,060	17,000
398 Delaware.....	18,214	5,568	0	23,782
399 East Liverpool*.....	21,411	15,514	13,633	0	50,558
400 Elyria.....	13,083	13,994	4,080	31,157
401 Findlay.....	36,567	52,831
402 Fostoria.....	14,205	13,298	27,503
403 Fremont.....	16,602	7,145	23,747
404 Hamilton.....	1,000	49,000	23,500	73,500
405 Ironton.....	9,867	22,697	7,563	40,127
406 Lancaster.....	0	18,350	4,207	0	22,557
407 Lima.....	35,109	11,402	250	46,761
408 Lorain.....	11,382	22,103
409 Mansfield.....	19,574	28,657	12,939	61,170
410 Marietta.....	10,234	29,716	8,501	39,451
411 Marion.....	21,639	39,822
412 Martins Ferry.....	13,500	37,020
413 Massillon.....	21,823	49,982
414 Middletown.....	20,738	6,646	27,384
415 Mount Vernon*.....	15,800	21,000

* Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

City.	Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				
	Permanent investments and lasting improvements.	For salaries of teachers and super- vising officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For even- ing schools.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6
OHIO—continued.					
416 Nelsonville	\$11,459	\$8,983	\$4,725	\$25,167
417 Newark	2,300	32,674	34,627	69,601
418 Norwalk *	13,650	28,000
419 Piqua *	3,630	21,398	10,814	35,842
420 Portsmouth *	1,500	25,427	10,006	36,933
421 Salem	17,539	32,806
422 Sandusky	33,363	10,630	43,993
423 Springfield	25,819	67,707	20,462	113,988
424 Steubenville	456	28,463	8,401	37,320
425 Tiffin	3,923	19,740	13,207	36,870
426 Toledo	142,660	187,183	71,181	\$723	401,747
427 Warren	17,487	28,457
428 Xenia	2,500	23,856	11,713	38,069
429 Youngstown	40,465	66,646	55,927	163,038
430 Zanesville	8,675	40,090	30,364	79,129
OKLAHOMA.					
431 Oklahoma City	11,280
OREGON.					
432 Portland	22,861	197,693	46,312	266,866
433 Salem	1,153	21,042	20,273	42,468
PENNSYLVANIA.					
434 Allegheny	178,547	201,516	65,560	4,175	449,798
435 Allentown	17,331	45,253	18,952	81,536
436 Altoona	52,332	57,000	31,075	140,407
437 Beaver Falls	3,714	16,584	9,454	29,752
438 Braddock	35,320	21,788	3,944	61,052
439 Bradford	18,813	26,468	14,517	59,828
440 Butler	3,139	21,511	6,284	30,934
441 Carbondale	16,931	16,030	9,903	42,864
442 Carlisle	869	12,403	4,540	17,812
443 Chambersburg	900	14,086	5,935	0	20,921
444 Chester	82,034	39,092	8,967	130,093
445 Columbia	6,160	15,095	12,677	33,932
446 Dunmore *	13,905	24,161
447 Easton	26,459	39,460	40,165	106,084
448 Erie	626	76,484	42,182	827	120,119
449 Harrisburg	94,015	74,411	41,187	209,613
450 Hazleton	13,329	23,085	10,483	46,897
451 Homestead	42,000	17,011	9,800	68,811
452 Johnstown *	41,096	84,978
453 Lancaster	21,229	52,190	22,052	(a)	95,471
454 Lebanon	159	16,610	11,977	28,746
455 Lockhaven	12,000	6,500	0	18,500
456 McKeesport	50,494	50,673	23,845	125,012
457 Mahanoy City *	16,979	50,431
458 Meadville	2,321	23,862	7,476	33,659
459 Mount Carmel	17,720	12,697	5,292	275	35,984
460 Manticoke	1,276	15,300	10,441	600	27,617
461 New Castle	11,284	38,050	13,067	62,401
462 Norristown	24,340	34,863	20,814	86,017
463 Oil City	1,000	22,476	15,557	39,033
464 Philadelphia	482,352	2,175,377	905,768	3,563,497
465 Phoenixville	627	12,526	4,248	17,401
466 Pittsburg	282,280	503,115	264,067	1,049,462
467 Pittston	8,850	12,143	5,805	300	27,098
468 Plymouth	143	12,520	5,149	372	18,184
469 Pottstown	15,601	26,468	9,630	51,699
470 Pottsville *	25,770	126,231
471 Reading	25,844	25,909	44,969	166,713
472 Scranton	214,563	124,198	43,060	6,097	387,918
473 Shamokin	33,718	26,312	12,254	360	90,389
474 Shenandoah	8,337	28,830	18,634	945	56,746
475 South Bethlehem *	20,961	58,603
476 South Chester	847	13,429	9,593	0	23,869
477 Steelton	999	18,175	6,896	26,070

* Statistics of 1893-94.

(a) Included in the other items.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

City.	Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				
	Permanent investments and lasting improvements.	For salaries of teachers and super- vising officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For even- ing schools.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.					
478 Titusville	\$1,383	\$20,352	\$11,605	0	\$33,340
479 Uniontown	537	11,937	3,205	15,679
480 West Chester	28,918	17,220	8,970	55,108
481 Wilkesbarre	51,867	75,204	18,761	\$1,800	147,632
482 Williamsport	13,918	51,232	28,340	93,490
483 York	30,172	29,711	11,092	70,975
RHODE ISLAND.					
484 East Providence	2,949	22,423	9,830	25	35,227
485 Johnston (Olneyville)	11,219	19,809	8,693	108	39,829
486 Newport	51,601	23,453	1,529	76,583
487 Pawtucket	10,848	78,108	29,090	3,223	121,869
488 Providence	124,871	357,749	149,227	32,164	664,011
489 Woonsocket	26,239	34,257	13,588	2,472	76,556
SOUTH CAROLINA.					
490 Charleston	1,080	57,165	2,104	60,349
491 Columbia	144	12,206	2,072	14,422
492 Spartanburg*	5,846	6,200
SOUTH DAKOTA.					
493 Sioux Falls	26,323	13,996	40,319
TENNESSEE.					
494 Chattanooga	40,174	1,810	41,984
495 Clarksville	11,691	1,209	12,900
496 Knoxville	172	35,933	5,016	41,121
497 Memphis	947	65,493	22,093	1,503	90,006
498 Nashville	12,495	129,280	14,535	156,310
TEXAS.					
499 Austin	10,116	31,299	9,339	50,754
500 Corsicana*	15,828	17,900
501 Dallas	1,891	59,984	11,464	0	73,339
502 Denison	16,080	4,204	20,284
503 El Paso	170	17,162	2,763	20,095
504 Fort Worth	40,383	6,358	46,741
505 Gainesville	262	19,974	4,176	24,412
506 Galveston	0	68,000	16,836	84,836
507 Houston	70,845	61,474	14,133	146,452
508 Laredo*	434	10,672	1,641	12,747
509 Paris	17,000	1,400	18,400
510 San Antonio	81,629	14,011	95,640
511 Tyler*	122	13,079	1,139	14,340
512 Waco*	37,920	5,440	43,360
UTAH.					
513 Ogden	0	32,673	23,081	55,754
514 Salt Lake City	115,422	148,854	104,456	368,732
VERMONT.					
515 Burlington	21,519	24,280	11,170	56,969
516 Rutland	*22,154	45,000
VIRGINIA.					
517 Alexandria	15,236	4,542	19,778
518 Danville	0	14,634	3,286	0	17,920
519 Lynchburg	8,386	27,186	4,832	40,404
520 Manchester	92	7,128	2,169	9,389
521 Norfolk	8,750	31,864	7,956	48,570
522 Petersburg	0	19,107	4,615	0	23,222
523 Portsmouth	0	12,514	3,727	0	16,241
524 Richmond	2,393	126,944	24,081	760	154,178
525 Roanoke	0	15,005	3,489	18,494
526 Staunton	377	12,294	703	14,374

* Statistics of 1893-94.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of expenditures of public schools of cities, etc.—Continued.

	City.	Expenditures for the school year 1894-95.				Total.
		Permanent investments and lasting improvements.	For salaries of teachers and supervising officers.	Current and incidental expenses.	For evening schools.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
WASHINGTON.						
527	Seattle.....	\$22,066	\$103,849	\$47,335	\$173,250
528	Spokane.....	663	46,299	26,546	73,508
529	Tacoma.....	1,853	89,463	47,298	138,614
530	Walla Walla.....	12,290	* 21,971
WEST VIRGINIA.						
531	Huntington.....	401	13,270	5,250	0	18,930
532	Parkersburg*	21,119	29,481
533	Wheeling.....	16,791	67,745	24,195	108,731
WISCONSIN.						
534	Appleton.....	23,383	29,263	37,003	89,649
535	Ashland.....	18,572	26,276
536	Chippewa Falls.....	473	15,505	5,457	21,435
537	Eau Claire.....	4,230	34,657	15,515	54,402
538	Fond du Lac*	1,387	21,787	6,161	29,335
539	Green Bay.....	5,774	18,199	5,777	0	29,750
540	Janesville.....	40,000	24,000	10,666	74,666
541	La Crosse.....	61,568	23,261	81,829
542	Madison.....	29,062	24,937	53,999
543	Marinette.....	28,431	26,804	15,410	70,645
544	Merrill.....	1,949	11,629	5,226	18,804
545	Milwaukee.....	(a)	485,931	87,867	\$1,749	a 575,547
546	Oshkosh.....	2,886	44,945	10,475	273	58,579
547	Racine.....	50,000	44,877	12,525	0	107,402
548	Sheboygan.....	8,981	37,910	10,594	57,485
549	Stevens Point.....	687	16,195	5,448	22,330
550	Superior.....	12,240	66,469	21,746	550	111,005
551	Watertown*	303	11,598	3,254	15,155
552	Wausau*.....	16,617	7,086	23,703
WYOMING.						
553	Cheyenne.....	23,462	6,612	30,074

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Construction of buildings and issue of bonds in payment thereof is controlled by another department of the city government.

TABLE 5.—List of cities containing 8,000 or more inhabitants concerning which no school data are available.

States.	Cities.	States.	Cities.
Alabama.....	Anniston.	New York.....	New Brighton.
Illinois.....	Lasalle.		Peekskill (District No. 8).
	Streator.		West Troy.
Louisiana.....	Baton Rouge.	North Carolina...	Newbern.
	Shreveport.		Raleigh.
Maryland.....	Cumberland.		Wilmington.
New York.....	Cortland.	Rhode Island....	Central Falls.
	Edgewater (Rosebank district).	South Carolina...	Greenville.
	Kingston (Districts No. 2, No. 3, and No. 4).	Tennessee.....	Jackson.
		Wisconsin.....	Manitowoc.

TABLE 6.—School statistics of cities and villages containing between 4,000 and 8,000 inhabitants.

City or village.	I	Estimated population in 1894.	Pupils in parochial and private schools.		Pupils enrolled in public schools.		7	Aggregate number of days' attendance.	8	Average daily attendance.		Supervising officers.		Regular teachers.			16	17	18	19	20	21
			3	2	4	5				6	9	Total.	Male.	Female.	10	11						
ALABAMA.																						
Bessemer	9,000	25	400	900	200	120,000	600	2	0	2	2	10	12	2	500	1	\$15,000	\$4,475	
Eufaula	5,000	181	331	180	1	1	3	8	11	1	350	1	20,000	
Florence	6,000	300	290	571	160	56,160	351	1	1	3	7	10	3	460	0	23,000	3,750	
New Decatur	4,000	50	198	238	436	157	1	1	3	6	9	2	460	1	15,000	2,980	
Opelika	4,000	125	184	186	370	179	40,770	160	0	0	2	4	7	9	12	225	0	3,075	3,500	
Tuscaloosa	6,500	300	280	123	403	38,087	238	2	0	2	2	7	9	12	350	1	35,000	3,140	
ARKANSAS.																						
Helena	9,000	150	350	463	813	2	2	2	14	16	2	1	35,000	7,770	
CALIFORNIA.																						
Napa	5,000	50	450	475	925	148,065	795	1	0	1	1	18	19	4	1,000	0	40,000	12,600	15,000	
Pomona	5,000	200	686	723	1,403	171,708	1,029	1	1	2	28	30	8	1,250	1	66,800	1,813	23,975	
Riverside	7,180	100	627	709	1,336	194,879	1,107	1	1	2	2	26	29	6	1,405	1	152,040	23,345	37,852	
Santa Ana	5,000	45	523	496	1,019	149,107	833	1	1	2	18	20	5	1,100	1	40,000	14,960	27,158	
Santa Barbara	7,000	194	645	601	1,246	151,535	856	1	0	1	1	5	23	7	1,200	1	62,500	21,633	27,638	
Santa Rosa	7,500	124	1,138	155,400	777	3	19	22	3	850	1	75,000	19,625	24,773	
COLORADO.																						
Aspen	7,500	150	559	564	1,123	153,784	818	1	1	2	18	20	3	1,000	1	75,000	17,263	23,692	
CONNECTICUT.																						
Branford	5,000	446	432	800	105,265	569	1	0	1	1	21	22	8	885	1	40,000	8,672	11,738	
Derby	6,000	300	625	648	1,273	108,544	579	2	0	2	1	19	20	4	885	1	50,000	10,900	14,500	
East Hartford	5,000	30	625	648	1,273	144,180	801	5	0	5	3	23	26	12	1,028	1	35,000	9,490	11,610	
Milford	4,000	25	518	80,464	428	1	1	3	550	1	40,000	6,981	
Naugatuck	4,500	25	400	500	900	1	1	2	3	21	24	3	1,000	1	108,000	14,000	

STATISTICS OF CITY SCHOOLS.

1881

Macomb.....	5,420	613	1,127	194	149,880	850	1	0	4	19	22	4	1,150	38,000	11,875	10,518
Metropolis City.....	4,500	498	1,078	194	113,813	509	1	0	2	31	17	4	725	85,000	5,821	13,137
Monmouth.....	737	655	200	232,000	1,100	1	1	2	33	5	1,450	85,000	13,137	19,990
Morris.....	136	404	756	107,108	1,104	5	1	16	17	4	850	46,000	8,135	11,075
Oak Park.....	100	696	762	216,453	1,164	2	1	39	43	9	1,500	300,000	43,633	80,405
Paris.....	70	579	607	149,970	842	1	2	20	23	3	900	55,000	12,916	15,000
Spring Valley.....	5,000	200	414	403,250	538	1	3	12	14	4	600	15,000	6,300	9,750
Urbana.....	4,410	503	511	147,647	781.2	2	1	13	17	5	900	44,500	9,744	12,814
INDIANA.																
Aurora.....	4,000	375	701	176	99,792	567	2	4	18	22	2	720	33,900	9,455	13,150
Bluffton.....	4,500	481	993	180	149,220	829	2	4	16	20	4	850	44,750	9,825	15,172
Connersville.....	6,500	522	541	843	146,910	890	1	3	18	21	3	950	60,000	7,800	11,400
Greencastle.....	75,000	407	436	175	116,305	664.6	1	2	18	20	3	860	81,500	11,585	16,940
Lawrenceburg.....	5,000	300	450	475	94,500	525	1	4	14	18	2	800	10,700	10,500	15,000
Lebanon.....	5,000	539	520	1,059	60,480	378	1	4	18	22	3	1,200	75,000	9,680	10,400
Mount Vernon.....	6,500	85	685	1,036	163,500	925	2	9	13	23	5	1,068	85,000	10,080	13,000
Portland.....	5,000	516	575	1,091	141,585	791	1	2	6	12	18	6	60,000	7,733	9,845
Seymour.....	6,000	250	563	604	157,422	904	1	0	23	23	5	1,100	50,000	10,300	12,000
Vandalia.....	6,000	3,000	612	582	163,341	907.4	1	1	85,000	11,115	14,358
Warsaw.....	4,500	450	851	180	118,170	661.5	1	2	23	23	5	50,000	10,510	11,550
IOWA.																
Atlantic.....	4,000	621	667	178	176,754	983	1	5	27	27	4	1,220	65,000	13,355	19,646
Centerville.....	5,500	601	705	1,306	189,601	1,054	2	4	1	5	3	1,347	75,438	109,000	108,602
Fort Dodge.....	7,800	657	695	1,352	180,900	1,005	1	3	28	31	7	1,200	80,000	14,000	21,000
Mason City.....	3,500	100	595	652	194,376	1,092	1	4	28	32	5	1,200	80,000	14,500	23,000
Mount Pleasant.....	4,000	45	336	407	108,990	630	1	1	22	23	4	860	60,000	9,280	11,870
KANSAS.																
Argentine.....	6,000	200	979	156.5	100,268.5	640.5	1	4	11	15	4	750	45,000	6,520	9,750
Newton.....	5,500	30	719	682	200,492.5	1,126.2	1	7	21	28	3	1,400	90,000	14,367	17,778
Wellington.....	5,000	18	528	575	136,803	864	1	4	16	20	4	1,000	100,000	8,720	12,000
Winfield.....	5,967	45	648	717	192,600	1,070.2	2	7	19	25	5	1,500	125,000	14,400	18,000
KENTUCKY.																
Ashland.....	7,000	567	598	150	141,450	943	1	3	20	23	12	1,285	39,530	10,149	26,712
Dayton.....	5,562	300	434	417	128,630	677	1	1	16	16	3	850	35,000	6,845	14,632
Winchester.....	7,500	50	200	250	76,000	380	1	2	8	10	3	450	30,000	7,511	8,000
MAINE.																
Belfast.....	5,296	6	450	500	141,405	857	1	1	25	26	21,000	10,060	4,132
Brewer.....	5,100	4	430	415	122,944	717	1	1	37	43	21	1,045	32,000	8,942	9,634
Brunswick.....	6,000	200	234,950	714	3	6	37	43	21	65,000	10,826	17,711
Eastport.....	6,000	450	627	1,017	103,586	816	0	0	18	22	7	1,080	16,500	6,673	11,907
Ellsworth.....	5,000	10	0	0	134,217	916	0	1	4	32	23	1,230	25,000	11,500	12,500
Fort Fairfield.....	4,000	580	698	150	108,750	725	3	4	28	32	26	1,033	21,000	7,169	10,236

TABLE 6.—School statistics of cities and villages containing between 4,000 and 8,000 inhabitants—Continued.

City or village.	Estimated population in 1894.	Pupils in parochial and private schools.		Pupils enrolled in public schools.		Number of days the schools were actually in session.	Aggregate number of days' attendance.	Average daily attendance.	Supervising officers.				Regular teachers.			Number of buildings used.	Number of seats or sittings.	Number of high schools.	Value of school property.	Salaries of teachers and supervising officers.	Total expenditure.
		♂	♀	♂	♀				♂	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂						
MAINE—continued.																					
Gardiner.....	5,300	25	487	498	985	180	144,360	892	1	0	0	5	18	23	10	937	1	\$75,030	\$10,291	\$15,428	
Houlton.....	5,000	30	458	471	929	187	155,023	810	1	1	1	2	21	23	13	937	1	35,000	6,701	10,522	
Old Town.....	5,420	100	761	761	1,522	165	108,900	690	0	1	1	2	21	23	12	940	2	33,000	7,147	10,345	
Sauford.....	5,000	150	454	750	1,204	160	176,586	1,105	0	0	0	0	0	14	14	0	30,000	5,600	7,100	0	
MARYLAND.																					
Cambridge.....	4,000	80-90	405	442	847	180	70,200	390	1	0	1	3	11	14	6	450	1	20,000	4,614	4,958	0
MASSACHUSETTS.																					
Abington.....	4,500	414	443	857	184	71,572	633	2	1	2	2	24	26	7	780	1	12,153	16,563	0
Amherst.....	4,800	50	815	180	113,880	631	1	1	2	1	21	22	6	786	1	51,000	10,731	15,825	0
Andover.....	6,101	1,040	183	131,880	830	1	0	1	3	31	31	12	1,100	1	87,000	17,500	21,500	0
Arlington.....	6,500	150	600	603	1,203	193	176,402	914	1	2	3	3	32	33	3	1,400	1	167,000	21,400	32,800	0
Athol.....	7,500	572	590	1,162	177	263,195	859	0	3	3	3	32	33	10	1,250	1	130,000	12,323	19,005	0
Barnstable.....	4,023	412	417	829	180	135,360	613	1	0	1	7	19	26	16	850	1	25,000	10,208	13,268	0
Blackstone.....	5,500	7	389	473	862	184	117,392	638	1	3	4	1	24	25	10	1,190	1	95,959	650	16,168	0
Bradford.....	4,700	493	483	976	189	165,564	876	1	1	2	4	24	25	4	1,232	1	125,000	15,300	20,874	0
Braintree.....	5,000	331	347	678	187	92,752	495	1	1	2	3	22	23	9	900	1	47,000	12,065	13,870	0
Bridgewater.....	4,350	319	286	605	200	91,800	459	2	2	4	2	17	19	8	700	1	59,000	1,421	15,650	0
Canterbury.....	4,600	25	444	444	888	135	138,310	658	1	1	2	5	27	32	10	1,500	1	55,000	17,325	24,000	0
Concord.....	4,100	8	700	700	1,400	194	233,382	1,203	2	2	4	6	37	42	13	1,600	1	200,000	16,310	21,793	0
Danvers.....	7,123	120	607	594	1,201	190	206,150	1,085	2	4	6	5	37	42	12	1,900	1	95,000	11,000	15,906	0
Dedham.....	4,500	10	495	551	1,046	190	152,180	691	1	0	1	3	38	41	11	1,000	1	250,000	16,310	21,793	0
Easthampton.....	5,162	261	500	507	1,007	197	132,933	689	2	1	3	1	24	25	11	900	1	60,000	10,900	13,411	0
Franklin.....	5,162	500	515	1,015	233	144,360	510.5	1	2	3	1	29	30	12	750	1	25,000	12,487	15,257	0
Great Barrington.....	4,900	23	850	187	129,965	695	0	0	0	4	33	37	17	875	2	60,000	9,564	13,356	0

Greenfield.....	6,000	25	569	624	1,203	185	170,755	923	1	2	3	1	34	35	14	1,200	1	110,000	24,129
Hingham.....	4,500	18	735	181	76,066	626	1	5	1	16	21	6	860	90,000	18,800
Hopkinton.....	4,000	320	363	683	195	98,280	546	1	0	1	2	21	23	10	50,000	9,232
Ipswich.....	4,720	491	405	896	195	114,075	585	1	2	2	24	12	12	820	52,000	8,912
Methuen.....	5,000	30	977	190	151,420	797	1	0	1	2	27	20	11	1,100	58,000	12,639
Middleboro.....	6,630	50	1,201	181	153,630	800	1	2	2	28	30	19	58,000	12,652
Millbury.....	5,000	1,023	188	141,660	767.9	1	1	2	4	18	22	7	65,000	9,476
Montague.....	2,300	100	1,073	188	146,888	776	1	1	5	4	31	35	8	1,000	130,000	25,708
North Attleboro.....	7,000	700	500	1,200	170	150,000	1,029	3	3	1	32	33	10	1,300	100,000	12,809
Orange.....	5,300	741	736	1,457	189	653,935.2	1,151.7	1	2	3	1	42	43	12	1,448	19,764	23,510
Palmer.....	7,000	1,106	185	192,063	96	1	1	1	1	34	35	13	1,100	105,000	17,132
Provincetown.....	6,575	125	1,189	180	151,440	8,582	1	1	1	2	22	20	8	1,278	67,000	13,511
Randolph.....	*3,246	453	471	924	170	132,600	780	3	0	3	1	22	24	7	1,250	40,000	9,580
Reading.....	5,000	338	335	673	181	858	526	3	0	3	1	22	21	8	784	34,350	107,733
Revere.....	6,800	10	083	794	1,477	189	262,720	1,077	2	0	1	1	22	23	8	14,200	17,143
Rockland.....	5,500	1,051	190	161,690	712.2	2	2	4	2	29	31	7	1,500	103,500	25,000
Rockport.....	4,400	10	438	465	903	177	127,055	712	2	2	4	5	21	26	13	975	52,000	13,866
Saugus.....	7,747	520	555	1,115	172	28,300	728.3	1	0	3	1	16	17	10	820	21,600	7,200
Southbridge.....	6,000	529	536	1,035	180	1	1	2	3	27	30	13	1,033	77,715	12,356
South Hadley.....	6,200	583	533	1,116	180	1	0	1	2	22	24	7	1,055	40,000	10,052
Stonham.....	6,200	1,680	191	161,850	896	1	0	1	1	26	27	9	1,260	14,280	19,700
Wakefield.....	7,000	346	543	594	1,137	190	162,025	1,375	1	0	1	3	32	35	9	1,383	23,615	26,489
Ware.....	4,300	1,385	177	126,863	716.6	1	2	3	3	23	25	9	105,000	13,668
Watertown.....	7,800	125	1,002	196	115,036	791	1	2	3	5	26	31	7	75,000	11,620
Webster.....	*7,031	734	196	104,468	533	2	1	3	1	14	15	6	650	8,586	17,999
Wellesley.....	4,000	149	336	275	611	285	129,290	454.9	1	3	1	19	4	23	6	644	12,034
Westboro.....	6,250	652	727	1,379	190	105,480	1,055.8	1	1	2	1	19	20	8	1,475	116,300	15,901
West Springfield.....	5,200	577	548	1,125	190	167,230	854	1	1	2	3	31	34	11	1,475	139,000	11,411
Whitinsville.....	5,200	50	903	260	163,020	618.9	1	0	1	2	22	24	9	1,212	35,000	8,170
Williamstown.....	4,296	440	471	911	180	122,220	679	1	0	1	3	24	27	12	1,150	160,000	13,000
Winchendon.....	4,430	15	440	471	911	180	122,220	679	1	0	1	3	24	27	12	1,150	160,000	13,000
Albion.....	4,983	45	504	537	1,061	182	150,150	825	1	2	3	1	21	22	5	1,200	75,000	9,496
Ansable.....	4,500	125	1,479	175	163,687	975	1	1	2	1	27	28	4	1,350	75,000	10,725
Benton Harbor.....	5,750	150	776	703	1,194	190	108,351	2	1	3	2	27	29	4	1,300	14,764	14,998
Big Rapids.....	6,000	200	533	611	1,194	190	108,351	2	1	3	2	27	29	4	1,300	14,764	14,998
Cadillac.....	5,165	573	630	1,203	185	2	0	2	1	21	22	6	943	40,000	11,454
Charlevoix.....	4,200	500	501	1,001	189	140,733	769	2	2	3	4	21	28	4	1,100	40,000	13,659
Coldwater.....	5,201	25	549	586	1,135	189	146,520	814	2	0	2	1	21	22	6	943	40,000	11,454
Ellisdale.....	4,120	453	458	914	184.5	127,099	718	1	1	2	1	23	25	5	1,420	50,000	8,637
Lansing.....	6,500	100	1,580	195	225,851	1,165	1	1	2	1	26	27	5	1,420	50,000	9,907
Lonia.....	6,000	300	460	521	981	193	350,002	875	1	4	5	1	23	25	4	1,029	60,000	11,000
Monroe.....	5,600	503	426	338	764	194	102,979	526	1	0	1	3	14	17	3	663	40,000	7,250
Mount Clemens.....	6,000	300	948	196	147,588	748.5	1	0	1	1	21	22	5	901	50,000	10,366
Negaunee.....	7,000	350	599	554	1,153	198	179,454	924	1	1	2	2	19	21	5	939	50,000	12,470
Niles.....	4,000	93	475	525	1,000	186	140,303	768	1	1	2	2	19	21	5	939	50,000	12,470
Pontiac.....	7,250	603	691	1,300	185	193,440	992	1	1	2	3	24	27	6	1,269	100,000	13,200
St. Joseph.....	4,519	100	469	460	913	182	129,302	681	1	0	1	1	23	24	2	955	100,000	13,200
Wyandotte.....	4,900	400	425	400	825	183	111,096	592.2	1	1	0	0	15	15	3	910	51,000	6,615

MICHIGAN.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.																			
Clermont	6,000	200	430	869	173.5	127,759	738	1	27	28	1	27	28	23	1,500	1	54,000	9,273	13,995
Franklin	5,135	15	386	442	838	228	152,304	608	2	2	4	5	22	27	11	1	75,000	12,246	19,381
Lacونا	6,000	150	730	764	1,494	173.5	195,345	1,127	2	1	3	2	33	35	14	1	80,000	16,430	30,028
Rochester	6,000	275	607	594	1,201	174	134,164	886	1	1	1	4	40	44	21	1,402	59,835	15,644	20,713
NEW JERSEY.																			
Bordentown	5,000	250	273	244	517	200	64,521	322	0	0	2	2	10	12	2	1	20,000	5,825	6,725
Gloucester City	6,500	375	416	403	819	198	136,234	455	0	0	1	11	11	12	4	800	34,500	6,250	8,750
Lambertville	5,000	225	270	281	551	190	83,753.5	418	1	3	2	12	12	3	630	18,000	8,421	8,595	
Red Bank	5,000	92	451	412	863	200	117,600	588	1	2	3	2	15	17	3	32,000	8,590	14,437	
Salem	6,300	39	607	613	1,220	200	181,016	905.8	1	1	3	22	25	5	1,200	55,000	9,653	14,437	
Somerville	4,700	50	410	428	838	200	112,559	569	1	1	2	2	14	16	3	40,000	8,150	12,231	
South Amboy	5,000	400	261	281	541	204	75,031	373	1	1	2	1	11	12	2	22,000	3,800	6,400	
Vineland	7,000	200	892	897	1,789	176	293,272	1,127.5	1	1	4	36	40	19	620	22,000	3,800	6,400	
Woodbury	4,000	35	730	200	730	200	119,400	597	1	1	2	16	18	4	50,000	9,401	14,829	
NEW MEXICO.																			
Albuquerque	6,000	200	447	397	844	174.5	94,045	540	0	0	2	16	18	4	800	50,000	13,000	18,000	
Santa Fe	7,500	65	270	253	523	189	54,621	289	1	1	4	10	14	6	400	1,600	7,900	9,301	
NEW YORK.																			
Albion	5,000	441	484	925	187	112,028	121	1	1	1	1	26	28	6	900	45,000	11,456	13,818	
Brookport	6,200	259	473	562	1,035	185	134,314	707	1	0	2	3	15	4	1,000	143,000	12,251	19,188	
Canandaigua	6,000	450	520	652	1,188	188	190,849	707	2	2	3	18	18	2	670	110,051	14,622	19,188	
Carskill	6,000	300	236	254	759	201	114,609	570.2	1	1	2	14	16	2	700	7,750	6,025	8,948	
College Point	5,000	300	260	260	490	192	70,700	331	1	1	1	11	12	1	550	36,000	5,500	21,000	
Dansville	5,000	125	200	260	460	194	68,472	350	1	1	1	23	24	2	1,018	65,000	10,000	16,000	
Fishkill Landing	5,200	608	717	1,225	1,900	167,627	882.3	3	0	1	1	13	14	2	778	38,000	7,624	10,682	
Fulton	5,200	10	489	461	950	193	117,379	698.3	1	1	1	13	14	2	778	38,000	7,624	10,682	
Green Island	4,500	300	300	763	1,035	191	95,789	493.5	1	1	1	13	13	2	524	40,000	7,704	25,797	
Haverstraw	5,000	600	220	330	650	191	90,757	463.5	1	1	6	20	26	4	1,048	25,000	7,389	8,400	
Hempstead	7,300	600	347	448	895	188	151,151	894.1	1	0	1	1	21	22	2	850	64,200	13,350	23,893
Honick Falls	4,400	398	386	784	1,023	188	120,111	809	1	0	1	17	21	1	900	64,500	10,470	16,318	
Lyons	5,000	506	517	1,023	188	136,132	809	1	0	1	4	17	21	1	900	64,500	10,470	16,318	
Mattawan	5,000	200	300	370	670	184	93,211	439	1	1	1	12	13	1	700	28,000	6,325	10,539	
Newark	4,250	300	424	465	886	193	148,007	767	1	1	1	10	11	1	1,080	38,000	5,185	8,398	
Nyack	7,000	300	521	465	986	193	148,007	767	1	1	1	10	11	1	1,080	38,000	5,185	8,398	
Oncida	7,000	100	852	852	187	119,400	569	1	1	1	17	18	2	924	28,127	9,045	13,020		
District No. 25	7,000	250	297	540	1,010	192	65,473	345	1	1	1	9	10	1	616	9,000	3,880	1,324	
District No. 26	7,000	175	475	535	1,010	192	128,448	633.9	1	1	1	21	22	2	1,044	30,000	9,700	12,600	
Onsetta	6,500	75	461	501	962	191	135,936	712	2	1	3	3	27	30	7	48,500	13,787	4,776	
Penn Yan	5,000	180	911	195	120,985	644	2	3	3	17	20	6	1,100	38,500	7,818	16,149		
Port Chester	6,500	236	975	198	150,491	760	1	1	1	28	29	3	1,077	74,000	16,541	22,929		
Port Richmond	7,500	125	630	845	1,475	196	213,530	1,089	1	0	2	23	25	4	1,250	115,000	17,940	25,925	

TABLE 6.—School statistics of cities and villages containing between 4,000 and 8,000 inhabitants—Continued.

City or village.	Estimated population in 1894.		Pupils in parochial and private schools.		Pupils enrolled in public schools.		Number of days the schools were actually in session.	Aggregate number of days' attendance.	Average daily attendance.	Supervising officers.		Regular teachers.				Number of buildings used.	Number of seats or sit-tings.	Number of high schools.	Value of school property.	Salaries of teachers and supervising officers.	Total expenditure.
	2	3	4	5	6	7				8	9	10	11	12	13						
NEW YORK—continued.																					
Saugerties.....	4,500	228	283	277	560	190	89,036	421.5	1	0	1	0	12	12	4	700	1	\$20,050	\$6,416	\$9,192	
Seneca Falls.....	6,500	600	401	433	834	192	134,104	696	1	1	2	0	23	23	4	1,000	1	52,000	10,770	7,938	
Tarrytown.....	4,500	649	489	619	1,108	185	58,875	296	1	1	1	1	7	8	1	375	1	18,000	6,450	8,453	
Waterloo.....	4,800	40	328	392	720	185	105,287	570	1	0	1	4	16	20	5	781	1	30,000	8,712	12,322	
Whitehall.....	4,500	400	500	900	1,277	192	127,000	719	1	0	1	1	21	21	5	450	1	73,525	9,407	42,694	
White Plains.....	6,500	150	365	354	719	197	97,256	482	1	3	4	1	13	14	1	655	1	73,525	9,407	42,694	
Woodhaven.....	7,000	150	651	814	1,465	198	208,206	1	1	2	1	27	28	4	1,250	1	67,748	16,424	31,330	
NORTH CAROLINA.																					
Durham.....	6,000	40	352	578	930	196	123,168	678	1	1	2	4	17	21	2	300	1	38,000	9,900	11,000	
Washington.....	6,000	350	100	125	225	135	27,125	175	2	0	2	2	4	6	2	1	6,000	2,500	11,580	
OHIO.																					
Ashland.....	4,000	383	577	960	180	113,220	629	1	1	17	18	6	770	1	56,000	8,000	11,000	
Avonida.....	5,000	413	425	838	185	123,580	698	1	1	18	2	850	150,000	12,900	25,352	
Bellefontaine.....	5,500	110	533	544	1,077	180	151,260	837	1	0	1	5	21	26	3	1,250	1	50,000	12,538	13,815	
Ducyrus.....	7,000	645	664	1,309	184	177,734	950	1	3	22	27	2	1,250	1	110,000	11,676	
Cambridge.....	7,000	629	679	1,308	176	178,456	1,071	1	0	1	3	25	28	4	1,276	1	100,000	13,240	22,704	
Coshocton.....	5,000	493	534	1,027	176	144,144	819	1	4	29	24	3	1,650	1	57,000	9,840	12,600	
Delphos.....	5,500	250	525	444	970	180	146,169	812	1	6	16	22	2	1,000	3	50,000	9,658	14,420	
Elyria.....	7,500	300	633	634	1,267	186	177,431	974	1	6	18	24	2	1,297	1	100,000	11,120	17,086	
Greenville.....	6,000	335	497	511	1,008	174	145,292	823	2	2	4	6	17	23	2	1,100	1	36,550	12,226	15,941	
Hillsboro.....	5,000	404	426	880	1,306	194	125,712	648	1	2	19	21	3	500	1	64,000	10,175	12,050	
Kent.....	7,000	75	450	447	897	185	132,725	717	1	5	15	20	3	1,000	1	70,000	14,500	17,507	
Nelsonville.....	5,300	30	655	753	1,408	176	197,120	1,120	1	8	22	30	5	1,200	1	80,000	9,883	25,060	
New Philadelphia.....	6,000	515	525	1,040	180	186,945	1,133	1	0	1	3	23	26	3	1,200	3	80,000	13,000	16,240	
Niles.....	6,000	200	576	587	1,163	176	147,136	836	1	0	1	3	20	22	6	1,200	1	72,000	9,157	14,000	

Montpelier	4,980	529	180	180	1	1	2	1	12	13	1	593	1	45,000	18,601	
St. Albans	6,567	1,194	184	147,568	802	1	1	1	2	24	3	1,200	1	45,000	12,920	
St. Johnsbury	6,567	942	842	1	1	1	27	14	55,251	10,606	
VIRGINIA.																
Charlottesville	6,300	647	755	1,052	1	0	5	15	20	2	670	2	11,713	7,524	
Fredericksburg	5,000	230	377	108,062	579.5	1	0	2	10	12	4	800	2	16,000	3,756	
Winchester	5,000	150	452	124,600	623	1	0	4	10	14	2	16,000	5,280	
WASHINGTON.																
New Whatcom	7,000	30	568	149,672	864	1	1	2	6	21	5	1,400	1	90,000	18,128	
Olympia	5,000	210	445	82,268	695.3	4	4	1	23	4	1,000	1	103,800	4,498	
WISCONSIN.																
Antigo	5,000	300	362	10,985	607	1	1	1	16	6	825	1	36,550	7,311	
Baraboo	5,682	359	659	1	0	1	1	27	28	1,270	1	4,593	4,593	
Berlin	4,300	400	97,865	549	3	3	15	18	5	782	1	50,000	6,810	
De Pere	4,289	350	148	38,069	251.5	0	1	1	8	8	2	300	1	7,840	3,825	
Kaukauna	6,000	941	339	39,370	221	1	3	14	17	3	900	1	45,000	8,863	
Kenosha	7,000	465	471	133,184	789	1	2	19	21	3	300	1	11,350	13,108	
Menasha	5,500	700	370	95,851.5	518	2	2	14	16	6	860	1	60,000	16,230	
Monroe	5,000	474	534	122,986	743.5	5	3	8	2	18	20	1,200	4	31,000	6,748	
Neeenah	6,000	100	578	396,261	990	1	0	1	1	25	26	1,200	1	50,000	8,000	
Oconto	6,000	546	406	140,000	700	1	4	1	15	19	1,000	1	86,500	10,263	
Portage	5,547	350	135,827	715	1	1	4	15	4	1,000	1	50,000	8,486	
Waukesha	6,536	650	702	172,340	845	1	3	4	2	25	27	1,200	1	42,000	9,340	
West Green Bay	6,000	290	350	108,915	889	1	1	2	22	24	1,150	1	61,000	17,000	
Whitewater	4,500	290	376	115,927	610	1	0	1	2	17	19	615	1	43,000	10,440	
.....	50,000	15,000	
WYOMING.																
Laramie	6,670	206	427	112,800	514	2	17	19	2	17	19	640	1	54,000	14,300	
.....	

II.—PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95.*

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mili-tary fac-ities.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of ground, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
ALABAMA.																							
1	Alexander City		4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
2	Alexandria	Jas. M. Pearson	1	1	12	11	0	0	2	2	4	4	2	1	2	1	75	73	3				\$3,000
3	High School	A. D. Glass	1	1	25	12	0	0	18	6	12	4					58	18	4				1,000
4	Flat Rocks High School	W. Holdridge	1	1	36	44	0	0	4	1	2						32	7	1				1,200
5	Shiloh High School	W. G. Woods	1	1	9	9	0	0	4	1	2						51	50	4				15,000
6	Brewton	D. Gillis	1	1	33	47	0	0	18	20	16	24	7	5	0	0	76	35	4				3,500
7	Crows	J. M. Walton	1	1	20	20	0	0	10	12	5	5					29	25	2				600
8	Tripeka College	Robert Jones, A. M.	1	0	23	35	0	0	5	5	3						27	31	4				6,000
9	Normal Institute	W. C. Williams	1	1	10	10	0	0									40	25					
10	Training School	E. B. Turner	1	1	30	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	125	3				
11	High School	F. L. McOwen	2	1	5	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	23					
12	do	J. C. Tidwell	2	0	20	30	0	0	0	0	0	6	5				60	30	4				1,500
13	Cherokee Normal Insti-tute.	T. E. Wilkinson	2	0	0	0	0	0															
14	Goodwater	W. B. Neighbors	1	1	24	23	0	0	8	0	4	2					44	46	3				2,000
15	Graham	W. T. Daniel	1	1	15	14	0	0	14	5	3						175	111	4				1,500
16	Hackneyville	Jef. Sox	1	1	12	8	0	0	2	2							48	42	1				1,000
17	Hamilton	A. W. Tate	1	0	12	15	0	0	0	0	6	2					30	30					2,000
18	Hollis	Sam'l P. Williamson	1	1	8	5	0	0									29	34					
19	Huntsville	S. R. Butler	1	1	8	0	0	0									204	169	2				
20	Irondale	C. C. Stamps	1	1	15	18	0	0	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	42	1				1,000
21	Jemison	J. L. Rudin	1	1	24	30	0	0	5	5							18	20	3				1,000
22	Kymulga	Rev. J. A. May	1	1	0	4	0	0	1	1	0						31	38					0
23	Loachapoka	G. W. Carlisle	1	2	29	39	0	0	3	4	5						20	21	1				2,000
24	Mobile	B. S. Woodcock	3	7	101	258	0	0	18	70							0	0	4				600
25	Montgomery	Miss E. M. Fullock	1	2	37	43	0	0	4	6	3	2					0	0	4				
26	Murphrees Valley	T. G. Whaley	1	1	14	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	184	209	3				15,000
27	New Decatur	R. R. Harris	1	1	14	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	140	140	3				500
	Oak Level	J. M. Le Master	1	0	15	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	20					

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific appar-at-us.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
ARKANSAS—cont'd.																							
71	Morrilton.....	W. J. McIlwain.....	1	1	3	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	153	163	3	3	\$23,000
72	National.....do	J. E. Watson.....	1	0	36	40	0	7	4	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	38	33	3	3	6,000
73	Newport.....do	R. M. Copenbaver.....	1	0	15	14	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	85	95	2	2	2,500
74	Oscola.....do	Mrs. Sarah S. Previtt.....	1	1	18	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	47	55	3	3	4,000
75	Ozark.....do	D. F. Withers.....	1	1	7	7	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	2	0	96	77	3	3	6,000
76	Paragould.....do	Geo. R. Hopkins.....	2	0	20	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	145	138	2	2	13,000
77	Parris.....do	G. S. Minier.....	1	2	50	45	0	7	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	137	43	4	4	500
78	Perryville.....do	J. H. Shackelford.....	2	2	8	15	0	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	0	173	177	4	4	4,000
79	Pine Bluff.....do	Miss Ruth McBride.....	2	2	43	75	0	3	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	115	145	1	1	8,000
80	Prescott.....do	W. C. Parham.....	1	1	15	25	0	0	10	20	5	3	7	2	5	0	185	275	3	3	3,000
81	Russellville.....do	J. G. Smyth.....	1	0	5	5	0	0	5	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	36	35	3	3	3,000
82	Salem.....do	J. H. Caldwell.....	1	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	205	195	5	5	3,000
83	Springdale.....do	J. B. Lea.....	1	4	15	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	205	195	5	5	800
84	Springfield.....do	J. M. C. Vaughtner.....	2	2	10	12	0	1	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	40	50	1	1	10,000
85	Van Buren.....do	J. C. Massie.....	2	2	18	21	0	0	8	12	1	3	3	1	1	1	107	62	2	2	2,000
86	Waldron.....do	Hubert J. Hall.....	1	2	21	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	19	3	3	500
87	Willmar.....do	Robt. F. Bond.....	1	6	6	5	0	3	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	19	3	3	2,000
CALIFORNIA.																							
88	Alameda.....do	Dr. A. W. Scott.....	4	3	45	105	0	0	0	3	12	42	5	19	3	7	0	0	3	3	21,500
89	Azusa.....do	Chas. T. Meredith.....	1	1	24	28	0	0	2	0	0	6	9	6	9	0	0	0	0	0	2,000
90	Bakersfield.....do	E. F. Goodyear.....	1	1	29	26	1	0	0	0	12	2	6	3	5	1	0	0	3	3	15,000
91	Bonita.....do	Emma M. Garretson.....	1	7	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	229	212	3	3	872
92	Berkeley.....do	S. D. Waterman.....	3	3	67	110	0	0	0	0	0	18	31	14	28	50	50	50	3	3	500
93	Bostonia.....do	Wm. W. Payne.....	1	0	7	8	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,000
94	Cambridge.....do	Merritt R. Trace.....	1	0	8	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	250
95	Cloverdale.....do	E. E. Hollpeter.....	1	1	12	15	0	0	0	0	4	6	0	2	3	1	0	0	4	4	50

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ry stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mili-tary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Value of ground, build-ings, furni-ture, and set-ting appa-ratus.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
CONNECTICUT—con.																							
221	New Canaan.....		4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
222	New Hartford.....		1	2	29	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	114	93	3	...	439	\$6,000	
223	New Haven.....		10	7	160	60	1	6	1	1	0	0	3	3	0	1	26	30	2	...	60	8,000	
224	do.....	Manual Training High School.	10	7	160	60	1	6	1	1	0	0	3	3	0	1	26	30	2	...	200	140,000	
225	do.....	Hillhouse High School.	8	15	315	411	2	5	138	122	150	0	46	74	16	19	0	0	0	4	...	5,000	150,000
226	New Milford.....	Center High School.	1	0	15	21	8	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	84	4	...	100	1,000	
227	do.....	High School (No. 11)	1	1	11	16	0	0	11	16	0	2	3	1	8	0	179	189	4	...	300	25,000	
228	Norwalk.....	Center High School.	1	1	20	25	0	0	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	0	160	181	4	...	50	2,000	
229	do.....	Over River High School.	1	1	20	25	0	0	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	0	160	181	4	...	50	2,000	
230	Orange.....	High School.	1	1	18	24	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	146	160	4	...	64	10,150	
231	Poquonock.....	do.....	1	1	15	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	
232	Putnam.....	Central High School.	1	2	18	19	0	0	4	1	0	0	5	7	3	1	0	0	3	...	640	23,000	
233	do.....	High School.	1	1	32	45	1	0	8	7	0	10	10	6	0	0	0	0	4	...	500	25,000	
234	Rockville.....	do.....	3	4	53	64	1	0	11	7	0	2	10	1	6	0	0	0	4	...	700	50,000	
235	Seymour.....	do.....	1	1	12	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	7	0	0	2	14	4	...	300	50,000	
236	Southington.....	Lewis High School.	1	3	43	81	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	1	0	0	0	4	...	575	10,000	
237	South Manchester.....	High School.	2	2	42	45	1	1	5	2	1	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	4	
238	Stafford Springs.....	do.....	1	2	42	45	1	1	5	2	1	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	4	
239	Stamford.....	do.....	3	3	69	74	0	0	9	6	4	2	13	0	1	116	120	4	...	1,000	75,000		
240	Stonington.....	do.....	1	1	7	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	4	0	184	190	3	...	1,200	40,000	
241	Thompsonville.....	do.....	1	2	20	35	0	0	3	10	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3	...	250	40,000	
242	Torrington.....	do.....	2	2	47	53	0	0	3	10	10	8	8	4	8	542	505	4	...	200	56,000		
243	Wallington.....	Central High School.	2	2	28	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	4	...	300	5,000	
244	Waterbury.....	High School.	5	4	118	149	0	0	4	0	0	0	3	3	1	2	180	223	3	...	420	50,000	
245	West Hartford.....	do.....	1	1	24	23	1	0	1	3	2	2	3	1	2	0	0	0	4	
246	West Haven.....	Union High School dept.	1	0	16	39	0	0	1	2	1	2	8	8	1	2	236	233	4	...	250	...	
247	West Winsted.....	High School.	0	3	44	37	0	0	1	5	7	3	2	9	9	4	0	0	4	...	200	...	
248	Williamantic.....	do.....	2	4	63	73	0	0	3	3	1	2	4	4	1	125	95	1	
249	WindSOR Locks.....	do.....	1	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	2	2	4	4	1	0	0	0	1	

DELAWARE.

250	Delaware City.....	Willard Smith.....	1	4	23	3	6	3	104	99	2	30	7,900
251	Felton.....	J. W. Lattomus.....	1	16	51	2	66	55	4	800	4,000
252	Georgetown.....	D. B. Jones.....	1	19	21	0	0	143	143	2	0	6,000
253	Laurel.....	G. M. Outten.....	1	16	28	0	2	1	90	108	2	1,400	5,000
254	Lewes.....	Walter Sparklin.....	1	8	13	0	0	0	103	148	3	66	8,009
255	Middletown.....	W. B. Tharp.....	1	4	12	0	0	0	136	117	3	625	5,000
256	Milford.....	Daniel S. Ellis.....	1	10	12	0	0	0	156	138	1	256	8,000
257do.....	C. B. Morris.....	1	1	28	24	0	0	129	134	2	50	10,000
258	Newark.....	J. H. Handy.....	1	9	21	0	0	3	223	277	4	0	12,000
259	Newcastle.....	A. H. Knapp.....	1	1	18	20	0	0	151	156	3	75	22,000
260	Seaford.....	A. C. Brower.....	1	1	18	25	0	0	176	176	3	400	87,000
261	Smayna.....	A. D. Yeoman.....	1	0	12	22	0	2
262	Wilmington.....	A. H. Berlin.....	5	13	239	345	0	0	34	43	1

DIST. OF COLUMBIA.

263	Washington.....	Dr. F. R. Lane.....	13	17	429	545	0	0	49	110	6,000
264do.....	C. M. Lacey Sites.....	9	10	161	291	28	17	9	85	49	11	6
265do.....	F. L. Cardozo.....	13	9	197	421	197	421	48	83	1,200	125,000
266do.....	Miss E. C. Westcott.....	2	9	75	150	0	0	7	19	1	0	0	110,600

FLORIDA.

267	Apalachicola.....	Theo. J. McBeath.....	2	27	27	2	3	0	0	100	7,500
268	Arcaha.....	W. S. Overstreet.....	1	5	10	1	2	2	2	25	1,000
269	Barrow.....	William Hood.....	2	0	19	36	0	0	0	0	0	162	179	4
270	Braidentown.....	Thos. C. Walton.....	1	2	83	63	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
271	Brooksville.....	J. T. Mallicoat.....	2	0	15	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5,000
272	Dade City.....	L. C. Ray.....	1	0	9	21	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	300
273	Enstaft.....	P. J. Carmichael.....	2	12	18	3	1	67	57
274	Fort Meade.....	S. W. Graham.....	1	12	12	2	79	68	4	5	3,000
275	Gainesville.....	Edwin P. Carter.....	4	0	33	23	12	10	150	2,700
276	Inverness.....	L. M. Hatton.....	1	1	4	5	3	2	1	1,000	25,000
277	Jacksonville.....	Duyal High School.....	2	0	30	76	3	9	2	100	1,600
278	Kissimmee.....	D. I. Ellis.....	2	2	20	21	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	200
279	Lake City.....	E. F. Wilson.....	1	0	9	9	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	150
280	Leesburg.....	John H. Fulks.....	2	2	12	18	0	0	0	0	0	185	194	4
281	Live Oak.....	J. M. Stuart.....	1	8	12	2	0	0	78	102	4	1,200
282	Monticello.....	J. S. Tomlin.....	1	1	20	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,000
283	Ocala.....	Jno. J. Earle.....	2	1	16	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8,000
284	Palatka.....	I. I. Hines.....	1	1	8	12	0	0	0	1	204	12,500
285	Rochelle.....	Martha Perry Institute.....	1	0	3	6	8	12	34	4,000
286	Starke.....	Alanson Hercules.....	1	14	16	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	30
287	Adairsville.....	N. Le Conte.....	1	6	6	2	1	1	95	5,000
288	Adel.....	R. J. Anthony.....	2	0	28	32	3	3	3	3,000
289	Alpharetta.....	Frank Lathrop.....	1	11	9	2	1	2	48

GEORGIA.

287	Adairsville.....	N. Le Conte.....	1	6	6	3	1	39	800
288	Adel.....	R. J. Anthony.....	2	0	28	32	3	3	25	1,500
289	Alpharetta.....	Frank Lathrop.....	1	11	9	2	1	2	48

317	Culloden	Institute	P. F. Brown, jr., A. M.	1	1	36	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	21	4	0	3,000
318	Culverton	Academy	Mrs. G. P. Culver	1	1	5	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	4	0	1,000
319	Dalton	High School	Chas. H. Humphreys	1	1	32	21	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	230	4	0	300	2,000
320	Darton	Academy	Jas. H. Clark	1	1	19	21	0	0	1	1	1	1	47	37	4	0	50	4,000
321	Eatonton	High School	C. H. Bruce	2	3	27	98	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10,000
322	Flavilla	do	C. R. Thompson	1	1	84	25	17	12	2	2	2	2	33	26	4	0	3,000	
323	Fort Valley	Grady Institute	W. J. Scroggs	1	1	25	23	10	10	2	0	0	0	69	54	3	400	5,000	
324	Franklin	Collegiate Institute	L. L. Hargrave	1	1	20	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	24	27	2	0	2,000	
325	Girard	Academy	Jas. W. Stone	1	1	20	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	45	15	0	0	0	
326	Gordon Springs	High School	J. J. S. Callaway	1	1	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	33	26	0	0	0	
327	Guyton	do	J. O. Culpepper	1	1	15	19	0	0	2	5	2	5	14	15	4	0	2,500	
328	Harmony Grove	do	Claude Gray	2	2	78	64	0	0	11	15	7	48	20	4	0	0	12,000	
329	Harrison	do	M. R. Graybill	1	1	40	25	0	0	2	0	0	39	31	0	0	0	1,000	
330	Hawkinsville	do	N. E. Ware	1	1	40	40	0	0	3	5	3	185	183	1	0	0	18,000	
331	Hollingsworth	do	W. H. Shelton	2	1	13	9	18	18	0	0	0	50	51	5	0	0	3,000	
332	Hollingsworth	Institute	T. Adams	1	1	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	28	34	2	0	0	1,000	
333	Holtonville	Planners' High School	Wm. R. Chambliss	1	1	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	44	47	0	0	0	1,000	
334	Hosoton	High School	Thos. H. Mencham	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	38	34	4	0	0	100	
335	Inglestide	do	Marvin Williams	1	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	1,200	
336	Irwinton	Talma Institute	John B. Madden	1	1	16	19	0	0	2	3	2	20	35	3	0	0	0	
337	Jenkinsburg	Institute	R. L. Paine	1	1	40	55	15	15	0	0	0	28	25	0	0	0	0	
338	Jonesboro	Middle Georgia College	J. H. Hall	1	4	0	55	0	0	0	0	0	31	29	4	0	0	1,200	
339	Kingston	High School	R. A. Clayton	1	1	0	7	10	0	2	6	2	31	29	4	0	0	500	
340	Knoxville	do	do	1	0	7	10	0	0	2	3	1	28	40	0	0	0	200	
341	Lawrenceville	do	P. E. Davant	1	1	3	17	0	0	1	6	0	52	48	3	0	0	5,000	
342	Leesburg	Hillier Institute	C. A. Castellow	1	1	9	6	0	0	1	1	0	15	14	0	0	0	1,000	
343	Leo	Mossy Creek High School	J. W. Smith	1	0	8	8	2	2	2	2	2	80	51	4	0	0	3,000	
343	Lexington	Meson Academy	M. S. Weaver	1	1	13	17	13	17	0	0	0	15	16	3	0	0	200	
344	Lithonia	Institute	J. F. Little, A. B.	1	1	9	12	0	0	0	0	0	62	75	0	0	0	6,000	
345	McDonough	High School	O. E. Ham	1	1	16	14	0	0	4	5	2	26	40	3	0	0	2,000	
346	Macon	Gresham High School	C. B. Chapman	1	7	85	174	0	0	13	34	5	19	0	0	0	0	51,750	
347	Madison	Male and Female Institute	A. J. Burrus	2	15	30	0	0	0	8	0	0	50	45	4	0	0	1,000	
348	Marshallville	High School	J. W. Frederick	1	1	18	20	0	0	6	4	0	36	36	4	0	0	5,000	
349	Mesena	Academy	Mrs. Alice Langford	1	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	15	0	0	0	0	
350	Montezuma	Institute	W. F. Davis	1	1	7	16	0	0	1	6	1	25	45	3	0	0	2,000	
351	Newnan	High School	Daniel Walker	1	1	37	47	0	0	20	30	0	170	175	3	200	0	2,000	
352	Palmetto	do	Geo. B. Wood	1	8	8	0	1	2	2	2	27	24	4	0	0	0	1,000	
353	Penfield	Mercer High School	J. S. Callaway	1	1	4	15	4	8	1	0	3	18	18	0	0	0	2,000	
354	Perry	High School	E. E. Miller	1	2	34	64	0	0	0	0	0	22	20	3	0	0	2,000	
355	Phenix	Academy	F. B. Mixon	1	1	0	5	4	0	0	0	0	25	25	3	0	0	3,000	
356	Point Peter	Glade High School	H. A. Lawrence	1	1	10	5	0	0	0	0	0	23	25	3	0	0	1,000	
357	Reidsville	Academy	Kenyon Dearing	1	0	5	0	0	0	2	2	0	30	23	0	0	0	1,900	
358	Rome	High School	R. T. Gwaltney	1	1	78	68	5	15	10	15	5	63	54	2	0	0	500	
359	Roopville	High School	V. D. Whately	1	1	15	17	2	0	0	0	0	40	58	0	0	0	1,500	
360	Rutledge	Henry Grady Institute	W. C. Latham	1	1	19	14	0	0	4	1	1	57	64	4	0	0	10,000	
361	Sandersville	do	A. W. Evans	2	1	6	5	0	0	1	1	0	45	36	0	0	0	300	
362	Sargents	Farmers' High School	A. S. Strickland	1	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	24	3	0	0	4,000	
363	Savannah	High School	H. F. Train	5	3	88	217	0	0	7	10	5	35	50	3	0	0	1,200	
364	Seneca	Institute	J. S. Bagwell	1	1	40	50	0	0	4	5	0	23	33	0	0	0	1,200	
365	Smithville	High School	G. M. Patterson	1	1	24	26	0	0	0	0	0	23	33	0	0	0	1,200	
366	Sparta	do	W. T. Dumas	1	1	20	49	13	25	2	1	2	47	50	3	0	0	16,500	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.		Name of principal.		Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stan-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-u-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-pa-ry stu-dents in grad-u-ating class.		Stan-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Students in military fac-ties.	Vol-umes in library.	Value of ground, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20					21
GEORGIA—cont'd.																									
367	Spivey	Rockville Academy	F. G. Branch	1	1	9	0	0	0	0	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	34	37	3	0	0	\$800
368	Spring Hill	Academy	W. A. Wooten	1	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	10	0	0	0	2,500
369	Sumach	Seminary	Jno. H. Anderson	0	2	25	34	0	0	25	21	4	3	6	0	12	4	0	0	50	26	4	0	0	1,000
370	Temple	High School	E. L. Connell	1	1	15	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	50	0	0	0	200
371	Turin	do	R. F. Hodnett	1	1	0	15	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	13	0	0	0	200
372	Valdosta	do	W. S. Graham	2	1	20	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	198	259	3	0	0	20,000
373	Villa Rica	do	B. L. Murphree	2	0	24	32	0	0	10	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	76	71	4	4	200	6,000
374	Waco	do	Geo. T. McLary	1	1	16	12	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	30	3	0	0	1,200
375	Walden	do	Jno. W. Greer	1	1	8	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	4	0	0	20	30	3	0	0	1,500	
376	Washington	do	Mary R. Bright	2	2	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	71	3	0	0	0	5,000
377	Waycross	do	E. A. Peard	1	2	23	27	0	0	0	13	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	132	163	3	0	0	0	13,000
378	West Point	do	Norman C. Miller	1	3	16	36	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	84	120	3	0	0	0	700
379	Whigham	Cornell Academy	Prof. Kitcher	1	1	0	10	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	16	0	0	0	0	0
380	Willard	Salem High School	E. S. Jarman	1	1	18	14	0	0	0	8	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	16	0	0	0	0
381	Woodville	High School	Joel Clout	1	0	6	7	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	51	48	4	0	0	0	800
IDAHO.																									
382	Boise City	High School	C. M. Kiggins	1	2	13	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	462	470	4	0	0	72,000
383	Caldwell	do	Chas. O. Broxon	1	1	32	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	71	79	3	0	0	5,000
384	Genesee	do	Hartzel Cobbs	1	1	6	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	136	4	0	0	0	2,500
385	Hailey	do	N. I. Garrison	1	1	15	10	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	110	90	2	1	294	0	25,000
386	Lewiston	do	W. O. Cummings	1	1	10	17	0	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	173	208	2	0	0	0	0
387	Moscow	do	J. O. Lansing	1	4	22	46	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	403	300	4	0	0	0	40,000
ILLINOIS.																									
388	Albion	High School	J. D. Samuel	2	0	23	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	165	176	3	0	0	10
389	Alexis	do	N. E. Johnson	1	3	15	20	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	94	112	3	0	0	0	25,000

890	Alton.....	Geo. E. Wilkinson	3	2	51	81	2	10	1	4	2	0	0	0	0	40	53	4	200
891	Annawan.....	E. J. Wiley	1	2	17	15	6					3	5	0	0	67	79	3	110
892	Apple River.....	G. W. Courts	1	2	31	47	0	0				1	8	0	0	181	137	4	45
893	Arcola.....	K. Lucile Brown	1	1	12	24	0	0				1	8	0	0	79	78	3	30
894	Arthur.....	Joseph O'Neal	1	1	6	8						6	8	0	0	125	135	3	25
895	Ashland.....	Elijah Needham	1	1	24	38	0	0				2	3	0	0	135	141	4	76
896	Astoria.....	H. N. Folz	1	2	9	23	0	0				0	0	0	0	152	128	4	4,500
897	Atlanta.....	John H. Pugh	1	1	9	23	0	0				0	0	0	0	115	148	4	6,000
898	Atlanta.....	Geo. S. Morris	2	14	25	0	6	4				0	0	0	0	175	150	4	8,000
899	Atwood.....	Caroline Grote	0	2	30	2	3	5	6	4		7	19	6	9	597	694	4	353
900	Augusta.....	Catherine Reynolds	2	3	32	33	0	0	32	20	14	2	11	4	4	693	747	4	1,075
401	Austin.....	B. F. Buck	2	5	63	101	2	0	0	0	4	2	4	2	4	158	164	3	100
402	Barry.....	Frank C. Dever	1	2	14	21	2	0	0	0	1	8	10	1	6	130	180	4	150
403	Batavia.....	W. E. King	1	1	16	16	0	0	3	4	2	0	0	0	2	195	185	4	100
404	do	J. H. Morton	1	2	20	36	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	477	519	3	2,000
405	Beardstown.....	H. W. Brua	4	80	100	0	5					10	17	0	1,231	1,163	3	100	
406	Belleville.....	J. M. Martin	2	0	20	24	0	0				2	5	2	1	107	195	4	300
407	Beaumont.....	E. B. Decker	1	0	18	29	0	0				1	8		112	140	3	40	
408	Bloomington.....	F. B. Spaulding	4	1	46	127	0	1				1	14						
409	Brighton.....	J. F. Garber	1	1	20	10	0	0	0	0	0	8	4	3	0	95	75	3	200
410	Brimfield.....	G. V. Pettit	1	1	12	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	86	80	2	200
411	Bunkerhill.....	Miss Mary E. Wood	1	1	9	12	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	1	0	106	177	3	100
412	do	Miss Mary E. Wood	1	1	9	12	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	1	0	106	177	3	100
413	Bushnell.....	Flora A. Culp	1	1	20	26	4	4				3	7	4	4	240	250	4	200
414	Byron.....	G. N. Maxwell	1	1	19	24	0	0				2	3	3	0	52	48	4	80
415	Cairo.....	John Snyder	1	4	51	104	0	0	2	0	0	4	17	0	0	0	0	4	640
416	do	Summer High School	1	1	7	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	25
417	Cambridge.....	E. E. Jones	1	1	25	31	0	0	0	12	7	2	7	2	5	242	311	4	125
418	Camppoint.....	H. W. Bowersmith	1	1	26	39	0	0	5	8	9	3	11	2	5	132	136	4	500
419	Canton.....	Chas. S. Aldrich	3	6	112	187	0	0	6	13	9	8	7	12	4	3	0	0	18,150
420	Carlinville.....	Edwin H. Owen	1	1	9	29	0	0	2	10		1	4	3	0	281	382	3	520
421	Carlyle.....	E. E. Van Cleve	1	1	15	23	0	1				1	4	0	0	155	157	3	400
422	Carui.....	W. S. Booth	3	2	50	50	2	0				2	10	0	0	250	350	4	600
423	Carrilton.....	Clyde Stone	1	3	39	67	0	0	3	18		6	16	2	0	240	208	3	600
424	Carthage.....	W. K. Hill	1	15	51	0	0	0	0	3	18				162	190	4	100	
425	Centralia.....	Miss Lulu Clark	1	3	38	56	1	0				4	7	2	3	309	355	3	25,000
426	Cerrigordo.....	A. L. Starr	1	0	16	18	0	0				1	1	1	92	98	3	325	
427	Champaign.....	Lothie Stitzer	3	1	48	72	0	0	11	44	37	28	3	13	1	143	142	3	400
428	Chandlerville.....	Heywood Coffield	1	1	27	38	0	0	1	2	4	3	2	1	2	62	106	4	525
429	Channahon.....	A. Leachman	1	1	13	19						2	5	2	0	140	180	4	15,000
430	Chenoa.....	Anthony Middleton	1	1	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	0	0	36	30	3	60
431	Cherry Valley.....	C. B. Baldwin	1	0	5	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	200	225	3	200
432	Chester.....	Jas. M. Dickson	1	1	20	30	3	4				2	2	0	0	0	0	4	400
433	Chicago (Station P.).....	Avon S. Hall	3	4	45	100	0	7	8			3	8	2	2	0	0	4	2,500
434	Chicago.....	Jas. E. Armstrong	10	13	198	542	3	9				13	58	0	0	0	0	4	87,500
435	do	Albert R. Robinson	15	0	389	0	4	0				25	0	70	0	0	0	3	1,000
436	do	Chas. W. French	13	17	362	655	3	5	30	15		19	50	10	9	0	0	4	2,100
437	do	Edw. F. Stearns	7	5	59	212	0	0	4	2		4	32	1	2	0	0	4	875
438	Englewood High School.....	Jas. E. Armstrong	10	13	198	542	3	9				13	58	0	0	0	0	4	87,500
439	Manual Training and English High School.....	Albert R. Robinson	15	0	389	0	4	0				25	0	70	0	0	0	3	1,000
440	Hyde Park High School.....	Chas. W. French	13	17	362	655	3	5	30	15		19	50	10	9	0	0	4	2,100
441	Lake High School.....	Edw. F. Stearns	7	5	59	212	0	0	4	2		4	32	1	2	0	0	4	875

464	Elizabeth	do	O. E. Taylor	1	0	5	3	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	63	52	3,000	
465	Elkhart	do	S. A. Johnson	1	1	10	43	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	132	112	100	
466	Elmhurst	do	J. L. Kingsley	1	1	20	43	8	4	6	8	4	1	2	2	2	100	100	25,000	
467	Elinwood	do	Harrist Watson	1	1	6	8	8	6	8	4	1	12	12	3	3	500	400	4,000	
468	El Paso	do	Anna E. Hill	3	7	141	202	1	2	1	2	1	13	12	4	4	900	900	55,000	
469	Evanson	do	Honey L. Boltwood	1	1	25	42	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	100	10,000	
470	Fairbury	do	Alice J. Batterson	3	0	12	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,000	31,000	1,000	
471	Fairmount	do	W. D. Fairchild	3	0	41	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	202	206	4,000	
472	Farmer City	do	C. C. Covey	3	0	41	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	202	206	4,000	
473	Farrington	do	R. V. De Groff	2	22	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	200	210	1,200	
474	Flora	do	J. L. Hughes	2	20	30	0	10	15	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	112	152	200	
475	Forrest	do	O. J. Condon	1	3	28	17	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	100	150	11,500	
476	Forreston	do	Lynn H. Coleman	1	1	6	17	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	100	150	200	
477	Galesna	do	F. G. Mattier	2	2	30	50	0	2	30	4	10	1	5	8	340	360	15,000		
478	Galesburg	do	Mrs. Mary E. Gettemy	1	6	95	138	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2,500	10,000	2,500	
479	Galva	do	F. U. White	3	2	27	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	457	30,000	457	
480	Geneseo	do	Miss Ada Schabel	1	3	24	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	274	392	400	
481	Georgetown	do	W. P. Orw	1	2	11	19	11	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	70	80	3,000	
482	Gibson City	do	J. D. Shoop	2	1	40	46	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	220	218	400	
483	Gillespie	do	Miss Rosa A. Burke	0	2	8	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	83	112	12	
484	Gilman	do	Harry M. Sharf	1	1	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	139	135	4	
485	Glen Elyn	do	Luther H. Grange	1	1	7	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	100	50	
486	Good Hope	do	J. R. Kennedy	1	0	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	51	48	2,525	
487	Grayville	do	R. W. Jennings	2	19	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	150	125	170	
488	Greenfield	do	A. D. Snyder	2	0	34	34	0	0	2	14	12	6	2	4	2	203	218	400	
489	Greenup	do	L. B. O'Dell	1	1	18	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	107	153	4	
490	Greenville	do	J. T. Ellis	2	1	23	38	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	230	236	4	
491	Griggsville	do	H. C. McCarroll	1	1	18	29	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	178	170	3	
492	Hamilton	do	Geo. C. Baker	1	1	21	43	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	114	126	3	
493	Hampshire	do	C. F. Hobert	2	26	47	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	94	165	22	
494	Harvard	do	Chas. W. Groves	1	10	25	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	268	265	600	
495	Hayma	do	Mrs. S. E. Pierce	2	30	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	320	315	4	
496	Hebron	do	Geo. W. Conn, jr.	1	2	23	92	0	0	1	0	1	2	2	2	2	106	72	9	
497	Henry	do	W. S. Wallace	1	1	35	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	135	4	
498	Heyworth	do	G. W. Winchel	1	1	20	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	70	80	3	
499	Highland Park	do	A. J. Laird	1	2	11	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	500
500	Hillsboro	do	Matteo Hunt	1	2	27	63	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	217	232	4	
501	Hinsdale	do	Emma C. Bates	1	2	14	14	0	0	2	5	3	0	1	2	0	178	197	4	
502	Huntley	do	Geo. E. Clendhen	1	1	19	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	60	3	
503	Illipolis	do	J. B. Wallace	1	1	14	24	0	0	6	14	2	4	5	2	2	138	140	3	
504	Ipava	do	L. E. Flueglin	1	0	12	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	84	68	400	
505	Jacksonville	do	Virginia Graves	1	4	56	91	5	4	20	22	5	3	7	8	6	1010	1037	4	
506	Joliet	do	J. S. Brown	5	5	120	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	300	500	5,500	
507	Kaukauee	do	Ellis D. Walker	1	3	43	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	101	117	4	
508	Kaunas	do	N. G. Wark	1	1	13	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	52	8,000	
509	Kingston	do	A. L. Thorp	1	1	14	18	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	128	178	3	
510	Kimunity	do	Harry C. Miller	1	1	12	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	89	92	3	
511	Kirkwood	do	Chas. E. Lanier	2	5	16	23	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	600	600	40,000	
512	Lagrange	do	E. G. Cooley	2	5	57	80	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	5	4	30,000
513	Lanark	do	L. J. Hancock	1	1	40	43	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	543	508	4	
514	Lasalle	do	T. C. Kohin	2	1	35	55	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	350	350	20,000	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mili-tary tac-tics.	Vol-umes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and set-tle-ments.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
ILLINOIS—cont'd.																							
515	Lena.....	High School	1	1	25	35	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	5	2	0	90	110	4	80	\$15,000	
516	Leroy.....	do	1	2	15	35	0	0	0	4	2	0	3	5	2	0	141	159	4	78	15,000	
517	Lexington.....	do	1	1	23	45	0	0	8	4	2	0	3	5	1	3	298	237	3	391	25,000	
518	Lincoln.....	do	1	5	24	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	4	1	3	111	139	4	250	29,000
519	Lincoln.....	do	1	2	31	48	2	4	3	4	4	4	7	3	4	4	655	609	4	121	85,000	
520	Litchfield.....	do	2	2	42	90	1	1	1	1	3	4	6	2	3	2	602	611	4	250	400	
521	Lockport.....	do	1	2	20	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	1	0	160	155	4	400	15,000	
522	Lyndon.....	do	2	3	43	77	3	4	10	20	1	8	6	15	3	6	58	65	4	200	5,000	
523	Macomb.....	do	2	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	52	63	2	40	10,000	
524	Mansfield.....	do	1	2	17	35	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	4	2	2	150	168	4	300	20,000	
525	Marengo.....	do	1	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	240	301	4	225	20,000	
526	Maroa.....	do	2	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	125	125	3	300	12,000	
527	Marseilles.....	do	1	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	320	210	3	200	30,000	
528	Martinsville.....	do	1	1	35	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	5	30	40	4	1,500	18,000	
529	Mattoon.....	do	1	3	45	72	0	4	25	19	5	0	10	18	7	2	0	0	0	4	800	35,000
530	Mayfair.....	Jefferson High School	7	3	66	128	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	4	2	2	55	48	3	500	35,000	
531	Mazon.....	High School	1	1	25	27	0	0	1	3	2	1	2	4	2	2	74	87	3	108	22,000	
532	Mazon.....	do	1	1	19	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	447	513	4	200	35,800	
533	Mendota.....	East High School	1	1	28	18	0	0	1	2	1	2	2	4	2	3	67	74	3	250	5,100	
534	Meredosia.....	High School	1	3	43	75	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	1	0	94	82	3	136	3,300
535	Metropolis City.....	do	1	1	33	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	95	300	4	500	20,000	
536	Milledgeville.....	High School (dept.)	1	0	39	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	60	65	2	200	70,000	
537	Minier.....	High School	1	1	35	40	3	6	0	0	5	10	2	0	0	0	1	227	1,225	4	1,200	70,000
538	Minonk.....	do	1	0	3	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	60	65	2	200	70,000	
539	Minooka.....	do	6	4	77	123	2	13	0	0	0	0	1	15	0	1	227	1,225	4	1,200	70,000	
540	Moline.....	do	1	2	45	39	1	18	12	20	4	5	5	5	4	5	270	257	4	176	41,000	
541	Momence.....	do	1	2	45	39	1	18	12	20	4	5	5	5	4	5	270	257	4	176	41,000	
542	Monmouth.....	do	2	3	58	101	2	20	40	15	20	2	14	0	9	0	243	255	4	25	200	
543	Monticello.....	do	2	3	58	101	2	20	40	15	20	2	14	0	9	0	243	255	4	25	200	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stru-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stud-ents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-atory stud-ents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in insti-tutes.	Vol-umes in library.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
ILLINOIS—cont'd.																						
596	Rockton.....	W. W. Austin.....	1	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
597	Roodhouse.....	T. H. Cobbs.....	2	29	40	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	7	4	7	4	75	80	3	100	83,500	
598	Roseville.....	Jos. A. Dixon.....	1	19	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	2	980	249	4	350	16,000	
599	Rossville.....	M. A. Kline.....	1	12	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	0	0	102	92	3	300	20,000	
600	Rushville.....	Nathan T. Veatch.....	1	22	40	0	0	0	2	1	3	3	3	5	1	0	246	291	4	300	5,000	
601	St. Elmo.....	Edw. D. Hart.....	1	12	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	84	69	4	40	5,000	
602	St. Elmo.....	M. E. Spencer.....	1	32	41	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	1	2	151	137	4	53	50,000	
603	Sandoval.....	W. L. Toler.....	0	4	16	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	130	122	3	290	9,000	
604	Sandwich.....	W. W. Woodbury.....	2	0	33	49	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	2	1	0	274	256	4	300	14,000	
605	San Jose.....	Mary H. Glasheen.....	0	1	17	12	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	43	37	3	331	19,000	
606	Savanna.....	B. F. Hendricks.....	1	2	24	36	2	3	0	0	0	0	7	15	0	0	276	288	3	50	29,000	
607	Saybrook.....	F. C. Provvedy.....	1	1	39	30	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	1	1	0	105	95	3	50	14,000	
608	Seneca.....	C. J. Byrne.....	1	1	12	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	2	2	120	130	4	600	6,000	
609	Shabona.....	Chas. H. Slater.....	1	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	0	0	35	61	3	50	3,600	
610	Shannon.....	C. A. Alden, A. M.....	1	9	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	70	71	3	500	20,000	
611	Shawneetown.....	Virgil McKnight.....	1	10	25	0	0	0	3	7	1	1	2	1	2	1	115	151	3	500	10,000	
612	Shelbyville.....	Miss Amy L. Schoff.....	1	1	13	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	7	0	0	400	420	4	381	12,000	
613	Sheldon.....	R. A. Bayne.....	1	1	11	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	8	2	3	131	111	3	509	5,000	
614	Sibley.....	A. F. Lyle.....	1	0	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	99	91	3	56	5,000	
615	Sidell.....	C. F. Ganner.....	1	6	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	69	85	3	125	4,500	
616	Sorento.....	J. H. Grigg.....	1	11	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	149	165	3	1,000	7,000	
617	Spartan.....	J. R. Benton.....	1	20	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	4	4	5	40	39	4	2,000	15,000	
618	Spartan.....	Wm. Helmle.....	3	32	35	0	0	0	3	1	1	0	3	4	1	0	32	54	3	1,000	7,000	
619	Springfield.....	J. M. Nickles.....	4	5	127	230	2	5	0	0	0	0	20	26	5	2	319	313	4	44	375	50,500
620do	Wm. Helmle.....	1	4	46	64	0	0	2	4	3	1	1	2	4	4	10	10	3	275	8,000	
621do	Miss Anna C. Eack.....	1	1	18	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	81	104	4	1,135	73,000	
622	Sterling High School.....	Jas. Rybolt.....	4	5	118	161	0	0	0	0	0	8	10	11	10	2	0	0	4	1,200	3,500	
623	Streator High School.....	Jas. W. Wentzel.....	1	3	30	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	5	5	150	172	3	200	3,500	
624	Streator.....do	M. F. Wentzel.....	2	32	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	7	7	150	172	3	200	3,500	
625	Sumner.....do	John Scroggum.....	2	32	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	7	7	150	172	3	200	3,500	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Colle-ge pre-para-tory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
INDIANA—cont'd.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
Huntington.....	Chearcreek Township High School.	Albert W. Colclesser.	1	8	6									0	0	0	0	30	8	4	4	200	\$4,000
do	do	Ella E. Kirtland.	3	43	63									35	81			110	117	4	4	4,000	
Indianapolis.....	do	Geo. W. Huford.	15	12	516	793								5	8	2	3	2	400	4	4	400	
Irvington.....	do	Jas. C. Bryant.	1	1	8	2		2						0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	
Jellicsonville.....	City High School.	C. M. Marble.	1	2	40	80								3	5	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	
do	Port Fulton High School.	E. S. Hopkins.	3	1	35	50								3	5	3	3	200	225	4	4	1,000	
Kendallville.....	High School.	J. M. Ogden.	3	1	40	55		1	3	15	20			3	8	3	8	245	195	4	4	30,000	
do	do	D. R. Efflabarger.	1	0	5	5								0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	15,000	
Knox.....	do	A. J. Whiteleather.	1	0	5	6								0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	4,459	
Kokomo.....	do	J. Z. A. McCaughan.	3	2	99	101								9	14	4	10	989	962	4	4	13,000	
Kokomo.....	do	R. K. Bedgood.	2	4	71	172		2	0	2	6			4	11	0	0	96	74	4	4	650	
Lafayette.....	do	Jos. W. Murphy.	2	0	34	36		0	0	0	0			7	2	0	0	74	60	3	3	115	
Lagro.....	do	P. H. Bolinger.	1	1	14	19								0	0	0	0	105	101	3	3	119	
Laketon.....	do	Miss Elvira Power.	1	1	14	19								0	0	0	0	74	60	3	3	115	
Laurel.....	do	G. D. Knopp.	2	0	9	31		3	5	19	31			2	8	2	8	306	319	3	3	1,000	
Lawrenceburg.....	do	J. W. Riddle.	1	0	9	10		0	0	0	0			0	0	0	0	93	102	3	3	50	
do	do	Miss B. G. Gimsley.	2	2	18	28		0	0	38	58			5	8	5	8	440	565	4	4	175	
Lebanon.....	do	Chas. Methley.	1	1	13	20								3	4	0	0	33	45	4	4	600	
do	do	Chas. D. Stubbs.	2	2	9	9								0	0	0	0	51	61	3	3	200	
Lewisville.....	do	W. N. Parks.	1	0	33	21		0	0	0	0			2	6	0	0	100	4	3	3	100	
Lexington.....	do	P. B. Nye.	3	0	40	52		1	0	0	0			113	141			250	250	4	4	250	
Liberty.....	do	W. A. Beane.	2	1	21	31								3	6			238	224	4	4	525	
Ligonier.....	do	H. S. Gillhams.	2	1	19	28								19	28	3	4	87	61	4	4	150	
Lima.....	do	East Ramsey.	1	1	1	3								43	46			43	46	2	2	198	
Lincleville.....	do	A. S. Fraley.	1	1	6	4		0	0	1	1			1	2	1	1	70	60	2	2	50	
Linden.....	do	F. M. Price.	1	1	17	18		0	0	0	0			3	6			225	226	3	3	200	
Linton.....	do	D. C. Arthur.	4	3	96	150		1	2	0	0			8	0	0	0	110	115	3	3	100	
Logansport.....	do	Frank F. Heighway.	2	2	22	33		0	0	2	1			1	2			92	96	4	4	150	
Lowell.....	do	F. E. Adleman.	1	11	11	12								1	1			92	96	4	4	150	
Lynn.....	do		1	11	11	12								1	1			92	96	4	4	150	

785	McCordsville.....do	J. W. Jay	1	16	14	1	4	10	4	8	1,443	1,498	4	150	8,000
786	Marion.....do	F. M. Ingler	2	3	87	100	1	1	0	0	0	0	4	300	75,000
787	Martinsville.....do	Edgar W. Abbott	1	23	43	1	0	2	2	0	103	117	3	70	0
788	Mentone.....do	D. H. Bowman	3	3	45	58	1	15	20	10	743	703	4	600	25,000
789	Michigan City.....do	Elmer E. Slick	3	3	45	58	1	15	20	10	743	703	4	600	10,000
790	Middlebury.....do	L. H. Kreke	2	1	18	10	0	0	0	0	52	49	3	150	14,000
791	Middlebury.....do	Mrs. Mary Stewart	2	1	29	24	0	0	0	0	134	163	4	275	14,000
792	Milroy.....do	Jno. L. Shanck	1	21	21	0	6	7	5	8	90	95	3	80	6,000
793	Milton.....do	Jos. H. Scholl	1	14	14	0	0	1	1	1	81	99	4	200	9,400
794	Mishawaka.....do	Mary D. Welch	1	3	23	42	0	0	5	8	262	235	4	1,210	43,900
795	Mitchell.....do	D. H. Ellison (Supt.)	1	2	23	33	1	1	0	0	106	195	4	200	12,000
796	Monon.....do	Wm. M. Sheets	1	7	12	0	0	0	0	0	153	197	3	145	1,500
797	Monroeville.....do	B. Clapham	1	22	11	0	0	0	0	0	85	80	3	250	1,500
798	Monument City.....do	H. D. Shideler	1	1	15	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	100	3,000
800	Mooreville.....do	G. B. Coffman	2	22	19	0	0	0	0	0	105	115	4	560	11,625
801	Morrison.....do	Arthur Smalls	1	14	8	0	0	14	8	0	11	20	3	12	0
802	Mount Vernon.....do	E. S. Monroe	4	29	74	0	0	3	2	8	72	98	3	150	25,000
803	Mulberry.....do	J. J. Richards	3	13	23	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	3	100	0
804	Muncie.....do	W. H. Masters	3	4	75	175	2	1	10	23	74	80	2	100	0
805	Nappanee.....do	I. W. Lucia	2	8	16	0	0	0	0	0	192	215	4	80	5,000
806	New Albany.....do	W. O. Vance	1	1	12	16	12	16	3	4	54	61	4	200	10,000
807	New Albany.....do	Joseph P. Funk	1	4	70	206	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	200	15,000
808	New Carlisle.....do	D. A. Sharp	1	0	15	10	0	0	0	0	65	60	3	100	8,000
809	Newcastle.....do	Rosa R. Mikels	2	3	57	87	3	2	1	1	35	94	4	300	10,000
810	New London.....do	C. L. Mendenhall	1	1	41	29	1	1	1	1	75	100	3	300	5,000
811	Newport.....do	C. E. Keim	1	1	11	10	0	0	0	0	50	58	4	250	2,500
812	Nikevel.....do	Oris W. Caldwell	1	1	2	14	0	0	0	0	18	10	3	400	45,000
813	North.....do	C. W. Glendening	2	69	81	1	1	4	7	9	498	483	4	400	45,000
814	Noblesville.....do	J. E. Linnig	1	0	5	11	0	0	0	0	450	920	2	200	2,000
815	North Judson.....do	Morace Ellis	2	11	38	17	1	1	0	5	230	248	3	600	15,000
817	Oakland City.....do	Mrs. Ella C. W. Heasley	1	1	17	17	1	0	0	0	50	45	4	100	15,000
818	Orland.....do	A. J. Colhas	2	1	20	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	40	0
819	Orleans.....do	Reed Carr	2	1	39	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	4	0
820	Ossian.....do	J. T. McManis	2	0	5	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	200	10,000
821	Otis.....do	Emma Williams	1	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	20	11	2	150	5,000
822	Owensville.....do	Jackson Boyd	2	0	17	12	0	0	0	0	178	138	3	176	5,000
823	Oxford.....do	Nora E. Hunter	1	1	21	13	0	0	0	21	13	7	6	100	5,000
824	Patoka.....do	R. N. Chappelle	1	9	7	0	0	0	0	0	68	53	4	500	8,000
825	Patriot.....do	R. L. Theiband	1	15	13	0	0	1	1	0	144	158	4	500	8,000
826	Pendleton.....do	M. L. Jordan (secy.)	3	0	20	25	0	0	0	0	243	291	4	21,450	8,000
827	Petersburg.....do	F. M. Chaucellor	2	24	33	0	0	0	0	0	108	112	3	1,000	5,000
828	Pierceton.....do	Wm. Eisenman	1	7	4	0	0	0	0	1	337	350	4	4,500	52,700
829	Pleasant Lake.....do	H. G. Brown	1	4	8	0	0	1	2	1	96	92	3	1,000	8,000
830	Plymouth.....do	S. Frank Reid	3	21	23	0	0	0	0	0	503	503	4	200	5,000
831	Portland.....do	Isaac E. Neff	2	1	51	77	0	0	0	0	512	15	4	200	5,000
832	Princeton.....do	Jno. H. Edwards	3	1	32	56	1	1	1	2	92	15	4	400	4,500
833	Providence.....do	Chas. E. White	3	1	7	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	100	3,000
834	Raleigh.....do	L. A. Hunter	1	0	13	17	0	0	0	0	47	43	2	300	4,500

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.		Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ratory stu-dents in gradu-ating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mili-tary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.				
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
INDIANA—cont'd.																								
805	Lemington				2	1	21	34	0	0						2	0	2	6	139	147	4	500	\$3,500
836	Bensecher	High School.	W. R. Murphy	1	2	15	37	1	1							3	5	4	3	270	260	4	1,200	40,000
837	Richland	do	A. H. Pruden	1	1	5	10	1	1							3	5	4	3	27	32	2		
838	Richmond	do	W. C. Burr	6	4	133	207	3	5	4	3					16	20	7	5	1,280	1,230	4	677	50,000
839	Ridgeville	do	Wm. H. Weir	1		8	12									4	2					3		
840	Rising Sun	do	J. B. Humphreys	1		3	1									6	5	3	2	207	183	3	300	20,000
841	Roann	do	W. S. Rowe	1	3	17	21	0	0	3	0	1	0	2	5	2	4	7	88	4	400	5,100		
842	Rosko	do	Noble Harter	1	1	0	14	35	0	0	1	0	2	5	2	4	7	8	5	206	257	3	600	20,000
843	Rockport	do	C. D. Brock	1	0	12	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	1	4	175	25,000
844	Rockville	do	H. L. Hall	2	1	16	40	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	264	309	4	500	20,000
845	Rolling Prairie	do	Georgiana Byer	1	1	15	25	1	5							7	8	7	8	206	257	3	250	10,000
846	Rushville	do	Miss Anna B. Collins	1	1	17	42	1	0	1	7	1	1	1	3	335	323	3	3	335	323	3	100	4,000
847	Russellville	do	Otell Whiteknack	1	1	1	13	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	75	74	3		
848	St. Joe Station	do	J. P. Bonnal	1	1	11	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	191	203	3		
849	Salenu	do	Marie Dunlap	1	1	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	38	3	25	10,000
850	Scipio	do	H. H. Jeffers	1	0	6	5	0	0	2	3					2				160	174	3	290	10,000
851	Scottsburg	do	Jacob J. Riddle	1	3	29	55	0	0	26	55					3	12	3	12	534	551	3		
852	Seymour	do	Ada W. Frank	1	3	9	5	0	0	0	0					2	1			91	89	2	450	10,000
853	Sharpsville	do	O. W. Deaney	1	2	27	19	0	0	1	2					2	1			249	251	4	400	15,000
854	Shelburn	do	David Wells	1	2	12	12	0	0	1	2					0	0	0	0	50	58	4	200	10,000
855	Shipswana	do	Jno. M. Geiser	1	2	12	12	0	0	1	2					0	0	0	0	50	58	4	200	10,000
856	Simpson	Union Township High School.	W. C. Shriner	1	0	10	5	0	0	0	0					0	0	0	0	23	19	4	24	40,000
857	Smithland	High School	J. H. Philby	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0					0	0	0	0	24	34	3	50	1,800
858	Smiths Valley	do	F. G. Haecker	1	0	9	13	0	0	1	0					0	0	0	0	0	0	0	350	4,000
859	Somerset	Waiz Township High School.	Geo. H. Burke	1	0	10	6	0	0	0	0					0	0	0	0	40	60	3	200	
860	South Bend	High School	Stuart McKibbin	3	6	91	152	1	3	6	0	2	4	10	23					2	3	4	1,607	100,000
861	South Milford	do	A. H. Barber	1	1	15	5													80	65	3	300	10,000
862	South Whitley	do	Alice Whitman	1	1	10	12									4	6	0	0	99	130	3	250	25,000

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stud-ents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-atory stud-ents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in military fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in library.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
IOWA—continued.																						
989	Elma	High School	1	1	6	19	0	0	8	3	5	3	0	0	0	0	151	149	2	100	\$5,000	
990	Bonnetsburg	do	2	1	40	36	0	0	7	12	1	2	3	3	2	293	272	3	1,043	2,000		
991	Estherville	do	1	2	38	45	0	0	1	1	24	26	10	10	4	2	114	120	2	44	6,000	
992	Extra	do	1	1	17	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	389	368	3	350	40,400	
993	Fairfield	do	2	2	50	88	0	0	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	155	159	3	450	1,200	
994	Farmington	do	2	0	18	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	43	51	2	13	2,000	
995	Farmhamville	do	1	1	21	19	0	0	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	85	66	2	259	5,200	
996	Farragut	do	1	1	15	25	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	30	3	400	10,000	
997	Fayette	do	1	1	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	700	707	4	100	1,500	
998	Floyd	do	1	1	8	14	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	1	89	80	4	146	10,000	
999	Fontanelle	do	1	3	125	65	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	140	149	5	150	8,000	
1000	Forest City	do	1	1	11	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	47	3	20	18,000	
1001	Fort Dodge	do	1	2	27	55	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	314	330	4	150	5,000	
1002	Fort Madison	do	1	1	12	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	0	60	98	2	1,300	16,000	
1003	Galva	do	1	1	12	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	75	106	3	150	4,000	
1004	Gardensgrove	do	1	2	20	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	135	130	3	65	10,000	
1005	Garnaville	do	1	1	26	42	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	83	80	4	146	10,000	
1006	Garnaville	do	1	3	8	13	0	0	5	5	0	0	2	4	1	1	140	149	5	150	8,000	
1007	Gilman	do	1	1	11	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	47	3	20	18,000	
1008	Glenwood	do	1	2	27	55	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	314	330	4	150	5,000	
1009	Goldfield	do	1	1	12	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	0	60	98	2	1,300	16,000	
1010	Goldfield	do	1	1	12	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	75	106	3	150	4,000	
1011	Gowrie	do	1	1	12	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	75	106	3	150	4,000	
1012	Grand Junction	do	1	1	12	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	75	106	3	150	4,000	
1013	Greene	do	1	2	20	40	0	0	3	2	0	0	5	4	2	1	145	141	4	150	15,000	
1014	Greenfield	do	1	3	33	40	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	6	3	3	177	196	3	600	10,000	
1015	Griswold	do	2	3	82	92	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	13	2	3	330	350	4	1,000	25,000	
1016	Grundy Center	do	2	1	35	44	0	0	6	10	6	10	6	10	3	5	110	131	3	1,200	5,000	
1017	Grundy Center	do	2	1	42	66	0	0	1	2	3	5	4	7	2	5	141	135	4	900	12,000	
1018	Guttenberg	do	1	1	25	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	120	130	3	185	8,000	
1018	Guttenberg	do	1	1	12	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	87	99	3	108	8,000	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stru-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stud-ents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stud-ents in grad-uating class.		Students below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Students in military fac-ties.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and set-tle-ments.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
IOWA—continued.			1	4	49	77	0	0	1	0	6	13	0	0	357	401	3	500	\$41,000			
1071	Missouri Valley	Miss E. C. De Groff	1	5	15	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	45	75	4	25	1,500			
1072	Medale	M. L. Dakan	1	2	38	62	1	1	6	8	3	12	3	5	122	128	4	500	30,000			
1073	Montezuma	G. W. Bryan	1	2	19	28	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	224	188	3	30	25,000			
1074	Monticello	Mary I. Jarnan	2	8	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	55	66	4	100	7,000			
1075	Montour	W. W. Davis	1	1	23	34	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	70	78	4	80	800			
1076	Montrose	W. H. Hopkick	1	1	17	21	0	0	0	0	9	5	5	2	138	145	4	200	10,000			
1077	Morning Sun	A. M. M. Dornon	1	1	17	21	0	0	1	1	4	10	2	4	153	154	3	680	12,750			
1078	Moulton	F. E. King	2	2	25	40	0	0	0	0	8	11	3	5	185	210	3	300	14,000			
1079	Mountjoy	J. W. Wilkerson	1	2	34	52	2	2	15	20	6	11	3	7	0	0	0	120	300			
1080	Mount Pleasant	Laura J. Brown	1	2	34	52	2	2	15	20	6	11	3	7	0	0	0	120	300			
1081	Mount Vernon	H. L. Wright	1	1	31	29	0	0	0	0	9	9	8	5	109	126	3	200	13,000			
1082	Murray	D. L. Newkirk	2	4	20	40	0	0	0	0	9	15	4	2	106	121	3	0	2,000			
1083	Muscataine	E. F. Schall	2	4	70	95	2	2	2	4	3	4	2	2	106	128	4	200	15,300			
1084	Nashua	G. E. Hancock	2	1	33	35	0	0	0	0	3	4	3	2	272	266	4	140	24,500			
1085	New Hampton	H. H. Monlux	1	2	38	47	0	0	1	1	2	3	2	2	0	0	0	500	8,000			
1086	New London	S. B. Stonerook, jr.	1	1	14	14	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	68	132	3	150	15,000			
1087	New Sharon	Chas. W. Hackler	3	0	28	56	0	0	1	0	0	7	8	1	165	187	3	1,500	50,000			
1088	Newton	E. J. H. Beard	2	2	28	55	0	0	0	0	28	55	2	11	312	354	4	1,500	50,000			
1089	North English	C. E. Stepping	1	0	7	7	0	0	7	6	2	2	1	1	106	117	4	157	10,000			
1090	Northwood	E. W. G. Vogenitz	1	1	35	43	0	0	0	0	10	10	7	14	0	0	0	350	15,000			
1091	Norway	J. E. Johnson	1	1	8	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	50	1	75	2,500			
1092	Oledo	Horace C. Coe	1	1	19	10	0	0	0	0	1	4	7	7	191	171	4	130	9,000			
1093	Oatwin	Charles E. Smith	1	1	14	15	0	0	3	3	3	2	1	1	195	190	3	300	10,000			
1094	Ogden	S. F. Reed	1	1	18	22	0	0	5	3	7	4	3	2	102	108	3	300	50,000			
1095	Orange City	R. W. Olmstead	1	1	9	13	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2	219	224	4	2,000	25,000			
1096	Oskaloosa	P. A. McMillen	3	4	70	128	1	1	0	0	13	18	12	16	75	80	2	300	20,000			
1097	Oxford Junction	W. E. Fleming	1	1	20	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	1	75	50			
1098	Panora	A. W. McPherson	2	3	40	60	0	0	20	30	4	3	8	7	50	38	4	751	20,000			
1099	Parkersburg	F. G. Miller	1	1	23	31	0	0	0	0	1	5	1	0	117	118	4	140	15,000			
1100	Patterson	Geo. N. Dunmire	1	0	3	4	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	56	60	2	15	800			

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary struct-ures.		Stru-dents in sec-ondary-grade.		Colored sec-ondary-stu-dents in-cluded.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stu-dents in gradu-ating class.		Students below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Students in military fac-ties.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and set-tle apparatus.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					Male.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
IOWA—continued.																							
1151	Tingley.....	E. F. Sanders.....	1	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	3	60	80	3	100	\$2,000		
1152	Toledo.....	C. J. Cooper.....	1	2	37	55	0	0	8	15	7	8	8	15	7	8	230	207	3	525	34,084		
1153	Traer.....	Jas. C. Sanders.....	1	2	30	48	0	0	8	12	4	4	5	6	4	5	115	107	4	1,000	18,000		
1154	Union.....	A. J. Cavana.....	2	1	40	30	0	0	17	10	6	4	5	6	4	1	50	90	1	96		
1155	Victor.....	S. T. May.....	1	1	23	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	5	6	0	99	80	4	300	5,000		
1156	Villisca.....	Albert F. Burton.....	2	3	55	79	0	0	15	15	0	0	2	6	6	0	251	251	4	300	5,000		
1157	Vinton.....	J. W. McClellan.....	1	1	48	65	0	0	0	0	0	5	11	3	3	0	317	321	4	500	15,000		
1158	Wall Lake.....	F. F. Strong.....	1	2	98	25	0	0	0	0	5	9	2	2	2	0	77	101	4	90	7,000		
1159	Wainate.....	M. E. Grazier.....	1	2	18	20	1	0	0	0	5	5	1	3	0	3	132	121	4	250	10,000		
1160	Wapello.....	H. O. Wilcox.....	1	1	18	20	1	0	2	2	0	0	3	12	2	2	320	153	3	80	20,000		
1161	Washington.....	Geo. H. Mullin.....	1	12	90	116	6	8	12	26	0	0	12	26	0	0	57	51	3	100	30,000		
1162	Washita.....	Wm. Durant.....	1	0	13	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	338	322	4	400	55,000	
1163	West High School.....	Annie S. Newman.....	3	4	61	76	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	10	0	0	83	89	3	300	6,000		
1164	Wanocoma.....	E. E. Finch.....	1	1	7	16	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	21	18	4		
1165	Waukon.....	S. L. Coffeen.....	1	1	7	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	34	4	1,600	20,000		
1166	Waverly.....	S. H. Sheakley.....	1	3	49	65	0	0	2	5	4	4	0	0	0	0	285	347	4	175	4,000		
1167	Webster City.....	Lillian L. Smith.....	1	3	38	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	42	3	331	16,000		
1168	Weldon.....	J. W. Cozad.....	1	0	19	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	65	4	300	10,500		
1169	Westbranch.....	F. W. Wood.....	1	1	33	39	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	3	0	0	320	242	3	150	8,500		
1170	West Liberty.....	Lillian Lewis.....	1	3	27	65	0	0	1	2	0	0	3	6	6	0	46	54	4	300	12,000		
1171	Whatcheer.....	Mattie Meacham.....	1	1	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	177	150	4	200	12,000		
1172	Williams.....	A. R. Gardiner.....	1	2	13	20	0	0	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	4	65	85	3	150	4,000		
1173	Williamsburg.....	A. T. Hukill.....	1	1	12	16	0	0	10	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	
1174	Wyoming.....	Lincoln Buchanan.....	1	1	12	16	0	0	10	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	
KANSAS.																							
1175	Almena.....	O. M. Reitor.....	1	1	8	14	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	82	90	2	250	7,000		
1176	Altamont.....	T. B. Hanna.....	2	2	34	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	37	38	3	200	24,000		
1177	American.....	C. A. Kent.....	1	4	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	65	54	2	250	7,000		

1178	do	Argentine	2	10	29	1	5						3	4	1	1	477	448	3	75	
1179	do	Arkansas City	3	1	25	102	1	5					4	10	3	5	85	152	4	200	
1180	do	Atchison	1	2	38	68	2	9					1	7	1	0	0	0	0	400	
1181	do	Augusta	2	1	21	34	1	1					4	10	3	0	198	205	3	100	
1182	do	Belle Plaine	2	18	22	0	0	0					6	7	0	1	102	108	2	250	
1183	do	Belleville	2	34	42	0	0	8					10	4	0	0	190	210	3	300	
1184	do	Bunkerhill	2	1	0	4	0	0					0	0	0	0	12	14	2	114	
1185	do	Burdett	1	1	4	7	27	0					0	0	0	0	103	112	2	62	
1186	do	Burlingame	1	2	27	39	1	4					2	3	6	3	203	226	3	1,450	
1187	do	Burlington	1	2	20	32	2	3					2	7	2	6	245	263	4	1,200	
1188	do	Burr Oak	1	1	20	25	0	0					0	8	0	0	98	44	4	120	
1189	do	Carbondale	1	1	14	29	0	2					2	2	0	0	166	135	4	441	
1190	do	Cawker City	1	1	18	35	0	0					1	0	0	0	100	130	3	75	
1191	do	Centuria	2	1	25	30	0	0					3	3	0	0	140	165	4	500	
1192	do	Chamato	2	3	12	20	1	2					7	1	5	9	100	98	4	200	
1193	do	Cherokee	2	3	24	45	0	2					4	5	0	2	441	426	3	800	
1194	do	Cherryvale	2	1	12	14	0	0					2	4	0	0	264	186	3	50	
1195	do	Chetopa	1	1	29	33	3	3					1	1	1	1	262	312	3	21	
1196	do	Cireleville	1	0	1	3	0	0					0	0	0	0	347	399	3	175	
1197	do	Clay Center	2	1	50	100	1	2					32	2	6	8	72	0	4	1,000	
1198	do	Clayton	2	1	33	66	0	0					8	12	0	0	147	3	200	12,000	
1199	do	Coffeyville	2	1	40	60	4	3					5	4	7	2	195	147	3	530	
1200	do	Colby	1	1	23	36	0	2					4	5	1	1	420	440	4	1,200	
1201	do	Coldwater	1	1	43	60	4	3					12	16	1	11	11	11	3	400	
1202	do	Columbus	1	1	8	20	0	0					0	0	0	0	73	59	3	100	
1203	do	Council Grove	2	0	30	53	3	1					0	30	53	2	62	56	2	100	
1204	do	Dodge City	2	0	9	22	1	0					0	0	0	0	231	319	3	1,100	
1205	do	Douglas	1	1	34	34	3	2					1	0	0	0	4	101	138	3	14,000
1206	do	Efingham	1	1	16	26	1	0					4	5	1	4	211	234	2	125	
1207	do	Elk City	1	2	10	18	3	0					0	1	0	0	203	250	4	400	
1208	do	Ellis	1	1	12	18	0	0					0	0	0	0	130	70	2	40	
1209	do	Ellsworth	2	0	17	25	0	0					0	0	0	0	105	110	3	500	
1210	do	Eureka	2	1	30	25	0	0					0	0	0	0	127	129	4	200	
1211	do	Everest	2	1	17	32	2	1					1	1	1	0	200	227	3	300	
1212	do	Excelsior	1	2	27	39	0	0					3	1	3	0	164	181	3	125	
1213	do	Excelsior	1	2	19	41	1	0					5	6	9	2	250	254	3	135	
1214	do	Excelsior	1	2	15	20	2	1					1	1	0	0	60	65	3	100	
1215	do	Excelsior	1	2	11	13	1	3					2	2	0	0	157	173	3	40	
1216	do	Excelsior	1	3	45	92	2	9					6	23	2	16	154	165	3	225	
1217	do	Excelsior	1	1	11	13	1	3					0	0	0	0	274	274	3	600	
1218	do	Excelsior	1	1	12	30	0	0					3	5	18	0	4	255	274	3	300
1219	do	Excelsior	2	1	21	42	0	0					0	3	2	2	495	571	3	25,000	
1220	do	Excelsior	1	1	11	19	0	0					1	15	19	3	61	41	4	450	
1221	do	Excelsior	2	1	20	27	2	1					2	2	2	2	300	315	4	250	
1222	do	Excelsior	2	1	36	51	2	1					16	20	2	4	300	279	3	300	
1223	do	Excelsior	2	1	37	51	0	0					5	12	1	4	30	32	2	1,500	
1224	do	Excelsior	2	1	15	20	0	0					2	7	0	0	397	468	3	5,000	
1225	do	Excelsior	1	1	9	9	0	0					1	1	1	1	109	98	3	600	
1226	do	Excelsior	1	1	21	33	2	2					1	4	1	4	130	12,000	4	300	
1227	do	Excelsior	1	0	6	6	0	0					1	1	1	1	75	75	3	8,000	
1228	do	Excelsior	2	0	31	28	0	0					2	2	2	2	145	163	4	300	
1229	do	Excelsior	2	0	31	28	0	0					2	2	2	2	145	163	4	300	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepar-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ities.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.		
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
KENTUCKY.																								
1316	Adairville.....		1	0	17	18	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	44	46	4			0	\$3,000	
1311	Ashland.....	J. W. Morrison.....	2	1	38	59	0	0	5	12	2	20	3	20	2	12	544	597	3			331	20,000	
1312	Carlisle.....	Wm. F. Ramey, A. M.	1	1	20	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	145	164	1			225	12,000
1313	Catlettsburg.....	J. B. Leech.....	1	1	24	30	0	0	4	6			0	0	0	0	216	194	4			300	2,800	
1314	Cloverport.....	J. H. B. Logan.....	2	2	37	39	0	0	27	30			5	5		119	138	3					5,000	
1315	Corydon.....	C. E. Dudley.....	1	1	18	34	0	0					2	4		147	126	4					150	5,000
1316	Covington.....	H. R. Blaisdell.....	2	4	51	130	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	9			189	4	(*)		200	20,000	1,700	
1317	Cynthiana.....	C. A. Leonard.....	1	1	28	46	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	430	392	3			228	20,000	
1318	Dayton.....	R. M. Mitchell.....	2	3	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	70	77	3				3,500	
1320	Farmington.....	T. B. Wright.....	1	1	20	8	0	0	8	3			2	2		91	82	4					10,000	
1321	Flemingsburg.....	G. W. Leahy.....	2	2	30	40	0	0					1	2		90	146	3					0	
1321	Fort Thomas.....	C. J. Hall.....	1	1	19	13	0	0					1	1		228	274	3					75	
1322	Frankfort.....	Wm. H. Mayo.....	1	2	4	10	4	10					1	3		1	3	228	274	3				20,000
(colored)																								
1323	do.....	J. D. Coleman.....	1	2	49	55							4	8		1	1	401	379	3			244	50,000
1324	Fulton.....	W. T. Aydeolt.....	1	3	19	32	0	0					1	4	3	3	133	150	3					6,000
1325	Glasgow.....	H. W. Barclay.....	1	1	10	7	0	0					5	2	4	1	95	123	2			200		
1326	Harrodsburg.....	Chas. W. Bell.....	1	0	18	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	132	128	3					12,000
1327	Hawesville.....	Abel Powell.....	1	1	10	12	0	0					0	3		80	94	2						3,500
1328	Hazard.....	B. P. Wootton.....	1	20	10				2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	70	30	1					150
1329	Hiseville.....	A. J. Thompson.....	1	1	26	24	0	0					0	0	0	100	50	3						3,000
1330	Hopkinsville.....	Chas. H. Dietrich.....	1	2	14	48	0	0	0	0	5	11	0	11		320	330	3					1,058	
1331	Lomasco.....	J. J. Nall.....	1	1	11	10							0	0	0	0	34	30	4					1,500
1332	Lewisburg.....	J. H. Williamson.....	1	0	10	15			3	4	2	3	0	0	0	40	50	0						800
1333	Lisman.....	E. G. Thompson.....	1	12	10								0	0	0	21	25	2						2,000
1334	Livermore.....	W. B. Maple.....	1	1	12	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	46	44	4					1,000
1335	London.....	M. B. Jones.....	1	0	10	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	90	120	2					1,000
1336	Louisa.....	U. S. G. Anderson.....	1	0	10	22	0	0					0	4	1	1	100	93	2					15,000
1337	Louisville.....	A. E. Meyzeek.....	1	9	50	138	50	138	0	0			6	16	0	0	232	386	3					185

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

1925

	1	17	304	599	5	42	1	1	4	140,000
1338	do	10	304	599	0	0	0	0	0	600
1339	do	12	222	0	0	0	0	0	0	145,000
1340	do	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1341	do	1	1	17	0	0	0	0	0	0
1342	do	1	4	17	0	0	0	0	0	0
1343	do	2	17	18	0	0	0	0	0	0
1344	do	2	25	30	0	0	0	0	0	0
1345	do	4	28	51	0	0	0	0	0	0
1346	do	1	8	10	0	0	0	0	0	0
1347	do	1	2	15	0	0	0	0	0	0
1348	do	1	5	49	0	0	0	0	0	0
1349	do	1	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	0
1350	do	1	1	24	0	0	0	0	0	0
1351	do	1	1	20	0	0	0	0	0	0
1352	do	1	1	19	0	0	0	0	0	0
1353	do	1	14	21	0	0	0	0	0	0
1354	do	1	25	20	0	0	0	0	0	0
1355	do	1	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
1356	do	1	15	22	0	0	0	0	0	0
1357	do	1	1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0
LOUISIANA.										
1358	do	1	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
1359	do	2	12	28	0	0	0	0	0	0
1360	do	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1361	do	1	3	10	0	0	0	0	0	0
1362	do	1	1	7	0	0	0	0	0	0
1363	do	1	1	7	0	0	0	0	0	0
1364	do	1	1	27	0	0	0	0	0	0
1365	do	1	1	84	0	0	0	0	0	0
1366	do	1	2	45	0	0	0	0	0	0
1367	do	1	1	34	0	0	0	0	0	0
1368	do	10	1	259	0	0	0	0	0	0
1369	do	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1370	do	2	3	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
1371	do	1	18	22	0	0	0	0	0	0
1372	do	1	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
1373	do	1	2	22	0	0	0	0	0	0
1374	do	1	1	12	0	0	0	0	0	0
1375	do	2	6	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
1376	do	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
1377	do	1	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
MAINE.										
1378	do	2	14	25	0	0	0	0	0	0
1379	do	1	12	19	0	0	0	0	0	0
1380	do	2	3	75	0	0	0	0	0	0

* Yes; number not given.

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95.—Continued.

1891	State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.		Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-u-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-u-ating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mili-tary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific appar-atus.	
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18					19
MAINE—continued.																									
1381	Rangor	High School.			H. K. White	3	9	155	180	1	60	40	10	5	15	25	10	8				4	40	500
1382	Bath	do			Herbert E. Cole	2	3	56	81	0	21	9	7	3	9	16	4	4				0	0	1,000
1383	Belfast	do			R. L. Halsey, A. M.	1	2	46	57	0	7	4	4	0	6	6	1	0				0	0	100
1384	Berwick	Sullivan High School.			Geo. W. Snow	1	2	9	22	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				0	0	0	10,000
1385	Biddeford	High School.			Jno. P. Marston	3	1	42	70	0	0	5	9		5	12	3	5				0	0	100
1386	Boothbay	do			Edw. P. Goodwin	1	1	3	7	1					0	0						12	10	
1387	Boothbay Harbor	do			F. J. Libby	1	5	30	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				0	0	150	15,000
1388	Boydinham	do			Sherman I. Graves	1	1	7	25	3	4	2	6		0	0	0	0				21	11	4	2,000
1389	Bridgton	do			W. O. Hersey, A. B.	1	1	26	32	0	0	3	2	3	0	0	6	1				0	0	428
1390	Brunswick	do			Chas. Fish	1	3	47	64	0	13	8			10	9	3	3				0	0	270	35,000
1391	Bryants Pond	do			W. H. Sturtevant	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				13	11	4	2,000
1392	Buxton Center	do			V. C. Torrance	1	1	24	23	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	0				0	0	90
1393	Calais	do			Verne M. Whitman	1	2	37	63		14	12	2		8	12	5	6				4	4		10,000
1394	Camden	Megrificook High School.			F. L. Libbey	1	2	14	30		2	4			2	3	2	2				4	4	130
1395	Canaan	High School.			Cyrus L. Hatch	1	22	30			1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0				0	0		15,500
1396	Cape Elizabeth	South Portland High School.			D. W. Hawkes	1	2	16	35	0	0				5	12						49	40	300
1397	Castine	High School.			Miss P. Perkins	1	1	8	23		0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0				52	104	75	2,625
1398	Cherryfield	Academy and High School.			Miss M. C. Hunter	1	1	17	51	0	2	2			7	6	0	0				15	10	100	3,000
1399	Cornish	do			Albert M. Jones	1	2	14	15	0	0	3	2	0	0	3	1					48	59	20	6,000
1400	Danforth	do			E. C. Megquier	1	1	20	25	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0				78	97	0	2,000
1401	Denmark	do			W. D. Woodbury, A. B.	1	1	10	18	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0					4	4	
1402	Dexter	do			R. W. Nutter	1	2	35	50	0	0	8	1		6	8	3	0				75	68	0	14,000
1403	Dover	do			W. J. Rideout	1	1	23	32		3				5	5	3					11	17	0
1404	Eastport	Boynton High School.			Jno. B. Warren	1	1	18	32		3				5	5	3					0	0	300
1405	Elliot	High School.			S. F. Howard	1	1	5	3	0	0				3							0	0		2,000
1406	Ellsworth	do			Wm. H. Dresser	2	1	48	60	0	0	8	3	1	0	6	3	0				0	0		7,500
1407	Fairfield	do			W. F. Kenrick	1	1	18	31	0	0				0	8	0	1				0	0	

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

1929

1475	Clearspring	do	1	0	15	12	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	45	0	2,000
1480	Cumberland	do	1	2	13	36	5	5	293	3	1,000	3	325	3	5,000	
1481	Darlington	Academy and High School	1	1	33	32	4	1	1	1	30	40	3	63	0	
1482	East New Market	Academy	1	1	11	22	0	0	0	0	55	4	51	4	4,000	
1483	Easton	Manual Training and High School	2	1	47	38	0	0	0	3	41	48	4	25,000	0	
1484	Ellisport City	High School	1	0	9	14	0	0	0	0	68	14	4	135	0	
1485	Forest Hill	do	0	2	12	24	0	0	0	1	0	47	34	0	15,000	
1486	Fredrick	Female High School	0	4	0	34	0	0	0	7	0	449	3	140	0	
1487	do	Male High School	1	0	25	0	0	0	0	1	13	0	1	0	2,500	
1488	Galena	Shrewsbury Academy	1	0	6	12	0	3	0	1	43	44	3	500	15,000	
1489	Hagerstown	Male and Female High School	3	1	47	65	3	5	1	0	8	15	3	73	7,000	
1490	Hancock	High School	1	0	10	16	0	0	1	1	3	1	0	206	40	
1491	Havre de Grace	do	2	4	20	23	1	2	1	3	1	2	36	41	300	
1492	Henderson	Academy	1	1	5	8	2	4	0	2	33	29	4	2,500	0	
1493	Marion Station	do	1	2	2	4	0	0	0	2	23	25	1	101	0	
1494	Marydel	High School	1	1	30	24	3	2	1	0	28	27	4	35	300	
1495	Middletown	do	1	1	5	17	0	0	1	0	89	180	4	89	10,000	
1496	Oxford	do	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	4	2	60	14,000	
1497	Pocomoko City	do	2	0	13	26	10	6	1	0	1	2	60	68	4	
1498	Princess Anne	do	2	20	22	0	0	0	0	2	1	6	1	6	0	
1499	Rising Sun	Friends' Normal Institute	2	11	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	90	65	12,000	
1500	St. Michaels	High School	1	2	39	63	0	0	0	4	3	194	194	150	11,000	
1501	Salisbury	do	1	6	42	79	0	0	0	1	4	0	143	183	0	
1502	Sharpsburg	Grammar High School	1	0	10	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	54	59	32	
1503	Smithsburg	do	1	0	7	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	83	63	350	
1504	Snowhill	High School	1	1	15	24	0	0	0	4	5	11	2	0	0	
1505	Thurmont	Male and Female High School	1	1	18	20	2	0	0	5	11	2	0	0	0	
1506	Towson	Grammar High School	1	2	21	22	11	10	0	0	10	8	2	88	69	15,000
1507	Trappe	High School	1	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	17	4	
1508	Vienna	do	1	3	9	0	0	0	0	1	33	37	4	30	40	
MASSACHUSETTS.																
1509	Abington	High School	0	4	35	44	0	0	2	7	2	0	5	12	1	3
1510	Adams	do	1	4	26	51	5	6	0	3	9	0	3	0	0	50
1511	Amesbury	do	2	3	42	69	0	15	4	17	22	3	5	2	3	100
1512	Amherst	do	3	3	45	90	0	1	20	23	5	3	8	11	8	40
1513	Ashfield	do	2	2	17	23	3	1	1	13	8	8	4	450	15,000	
1514	Ashland	Sanderson Academy	1	1	32	29	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	1	1	10,500
1515	Assinippi	High School	1	1	15	28	0	1	0	0	6	15	1	4	0	145
1516	Attleboro	Norwell High School	1	3	48	70	6	13	17	4	11	1	5	0	0	20,000
1517	Baldwinsville	High School	1	0	13	28	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500
1518	Barre	do	1	1	18	21	0	0	4	5	3	1	2	0	0	7,000
1519	Bedford	do	0	1	6	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35
1520	Belchertown	do	0	1	26	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15,000
1521	Beverly	do	1	4	79	125	1	10	20	6	13	20	6	10	4	300,000

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific appar-atus.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.																							
1522	Blackstone		4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
1523	Bolton	Edw. W. Barrett	1	1	40	43	0	0	1	0	1	0	5	7	2	0	2	0	4	50	\$12,000		
1524	Boston	Florence G. Houghton	0	1	6	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	4	1,500	0		
1525	do	Robt. E. Babson	24	0	712	0	17	0	13	0	19	0	150	0	0	0	93	0	3	140	0		
1526	do	Jno. Tellow	2	23	711	0	12	0	3	0	1	172	3	0	3	0	0	3	2,870	0	0		
1527	do	do	4	9	0	200	0	1	0	260	0	0	18	0	18	0	87	6	940	0	0		
1528	do	Moses Merrill, Ph.D.	19	0	605	0	5	0	605	0	0	36	0	37	0	0	0	0	4	509	4,387	0	
1529	Bradford	Jos. D. Bartley	1	2	20	48	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	4	150	8,200	0	
1530	do	O. R. Cook	2	2	41	63	0	0	1	3	2	8	7	0	0	0	0	4	4	150	34,000	0	
1531	Bridgewater	S. W. Hines	1	3	42	48	0	1	0	4	0	5	12	1	1	0	0	0	4	200	30,000	0	
1532	do	Benj. Wormelle	5	4	37	84	0	1	0	4	0	5	12	0	4	0	0	4	3	27	200	400	0
1533	Brockton	Edw. Parker	4	7	162	159	0	0	27	22	20	13	21	8	2	0	0	0	4	137	871	300,000	0
1534	Brookline	D. T. Sanford	6	11	116	146	0	0	0	40	9	51	42	26	1	56	67	4	4	137	871	300,000	0
1535	Cambridge	R. G. Hing, Sc.D.	4	18	286	336	7	5	205	178	3	16	11	16	11	0	0	0	5	2,950	289,000	0	
1536	Cambridgeport	Wm. F. Bradbury	3	9	205	178	3	5	205	178	3	16	11	16	11	0	0	0	5	950	55,900	0	
1537	Canton	E. H. Brackett	2	5	18	28	0	1	2	3	2	3	1	0	0	299	253	4	4	150	8,000	0	
1538	Charlestown	J. O. Norris	1	5	80	165	0	1	2	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	74	3,500	0	
1539	Chatham	M. F. Dargett	1	0	12	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	2,000	0
1540	Chelmsford	Susie M. Emerson	0	1	20	18	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	5	2	0	0	0	3	65	3,000	0	
1541	Chelsea	Alton E. Briggs	4	8	146	166	0	4	24	50	25	11	24	0	0	0	0	0	125	500	100,000	0	
1542	Clinton	Anna E. Hitchcock	4	13	15	15	1	0	0	0	0	13	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	40	15,000	0	
1543	Collings	Andrew E. Ford	3	4	65	69	0	0	15	5	8	13	11	4	3	0	0	4	150	80,000	0		
1544	Concord	C. F. Jacobs	2	3	24	40	0	0	1	1	5	6	9	2	1	0	0	0	4	75	32,000	0	
1545	Concord	Wm. L. Eaton	1	5	75	75	0	0	17	7	16	16	16	6	5	300	300	4	4	20,000	0		
1546	Conway	Chas. H. Phelps	1	1	24	21	0	0	1	2	4	6	3	3	1	2	9	2	4	75	6,000	0	
1547	Cumington	John Mason	1	1	9	10	0	0	7	0	0	3	3	1	2	8	6	6	3	30	25,000	0	
1548	Dartmouth	H. L. Allen	1	2	26	30	0	0	2	7	0	3	4	0	0	4	3	4	4	80	250	0	
1549	Dartmouth	E. J. Powers	2	5	80	120	0	0	6	4	2	10	15	5	6	0	0	0	4	80	35,000	0	
1550	Dedham	Geo. F. Joyce, Jr.	1	5	54	86	0	1	9	13	4	0	3	3	2	1	0	0	4	2,030	100,000	0	
1550	Dorchester	Chas. J. Lincoln	2	7	100	175	0	0	4	6	5	20	30	0	3	3	0	0	4	80	2,030	100,000	0

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepar-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in military fac-ties.	Vol-umes in library.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.		
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.																								
1599	Marshfield.....		1	0	11	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	150	154	4	\$10,000	
1600	Mattapoisett.....	High School.....	1	0	17	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	258	273	4	40,000	
1601	Maynard.....	Barlow High School.....	1	1	25	26	0	0	0	0	1	0	9	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	47,000
1602	Medford.....	High School.....	4	6	121	157	0	0	0	0	23	38	10	28	29	2	0	0	0	0	0	118	530
1603	Medway.....	do.....	1	1	23	36	0	0	0	5	3	1	5	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	75	30,000
1604	Melrose.....	do.....	3	5	100	130	0	0	0	12	10	10	1	15	20	5	4	0	0	0	0	100	30,000
1605	Mendon.....	do.....	1	0	15	13	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	6,000	
1606	Merrimac.....	do.....	1	1	13	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	49	77	4	30,000	
1607	Methuen.....	do.....	1	2	46	58	0	0	0	5	6	8	0	4	10	2	2	0	0	0	30,000		
1608	Middleboro.....	do.....	1	2	49	75	0	0	0	3	3	8	16	5	4	4	2	0	0	0	20,000		
1609	Milbury.....	do.....	3	3	55	80	0	0	0	3	3	8	16	5	4	2	2	0	0	0	20,000		
1610	Milton.....	do.....	0	2	18	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	60	39	4	20,000		
1611	Monkton.....	Center High School.....	1	1	4	5	0	0	0	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	6	3	25,000	
1612	Nahant.....	High School.....	1	7	88	113	0	0	0	4	3	8	4	16	20	2	2	0	0	0	25,000		
1613	Natick.....	do.....	2	1	20	40	0	0	0	4	3	1	1	2	8	0	0	0	0	0	17,000		
1614	Needham.....	Kimball High School.....	4	9	150	220	3	9	2	6	14	11	0	16	45	3	8	0	0	0	137,000		
1615	New Bedford.....	High School.....	2	4	81	92	0	0	0	6	14	11	0	9	13	0	0	0	0	0	116,000		
1616	Newburyport.....	do.....	7	15	288	339	2	2	112	152	66	0	02	78	21	42	0	0	27	35	4	75,000	
1617	Newtown.....	Newton High School.....	0	1	8	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	75,000		
1618	Norfolk.....	High School.....	2	3	55	90	1	1	16	19	2	1	6	5	6	4	2	0	0	0	50,000		
1619	North Adams.....	Drury High School.....	2	3	35	35	0	0	0	2	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	708	702	4	15,000	
1620	North Andover.....	Johnson High School.....	1	1	19	25	0	0	0	6	10	3	3	3	5	6	0	0	0	0	8,000		
1621	North Attleboro.....	High School.....	1	1	19	25	0	0	0	5	8	9	3	3	3	5	0	0	0	0	13,000		
1622	Northboro.....	do.....	1	1	28	34	0	0	0	12	14	2	1	1	9	1	4	0	0	0	7,000		
1623	North Brookfield.....	do.....	3	0	16	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	10	0	0	240	244	2	60,000		
1624	North Dartmouth.....	do.....	1	2	46	50	0	0	0	3	2	5	0	1	8	0	0	0	55	71	4	20,000	
1625	North Easton.....	do.....	1	1	15	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15,000		
1626	North Reading.....	do.....	1	3	48	49	0	0	0	8	17	2	0	5	7	2	2	0	0	0	15,000		
1627	Norwood.....	do.....	1	4	40	64	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15,000		
1628	Orange.....	do.....	1	4	40	64	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15,000		

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ry stu-dents in grad-ing class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Value of ground, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.																						
1678	Webster	J. I. Buck	2	1	25	44	0	0	2	2	4	0	1	1	2	2	0	0	4	450	\$10,000	
1679	Wellesley Hills	Seldon L. Brown	3	3	16	44	0	0	3	9	6	0	5	8	7	0	0	0	4	100	40,000	
1680	Wellesley	Joseph S. Burns	1	5	15	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	0	0	11	5	31	75	4,010	
1681	Westboro	T. W. White, A. M.	1	3	33	57	0	0	0	9	8	6	5	2	1	3	0	0	4	160	12,000	
1682	West Boylston	Chas. R. Tudser	1	1	10	23	0	0	1	4	4	4	1	5	1	1	14	9	4	800		
1683	West Brookfield	Miss Elvira Morrill	1	1	8	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	0	0	65	65	3		5,000	
1684	West Dennis	E. M. Sheridan, A. M.	1	6	15	26	1	0	8	7	6	2	15	24	6	5	0	0	3	100	4,000	
1685	Westfield	H. W. Kittredge	4	1	20	25	0	2	5	0	0	0	4	4	1	0	10	15	4	600	87,000	
1686	West Hanover	Wm. G. Park	1	1	10	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	55	36	3	95		
1687	Westminster	Lou B. Ballou	1	0	12	23	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	4		4,000	
1688	West Newbury	M. H. Goodwin	2	2	28	27	0	0	0	3	5	0	3	2	2	1	0	0	4	207	1,000	
1689	Weston	Justin E. Gale	2	2	61	76	0	0	8	9	0	0	0	8	1	2	0	0	4	300	20,000	
1690	West Springfield	Jno. C. Worcester	2	2	28	27	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	350	6,000	
1691	West Stockbridge	Miss F. A. Wheeler	1	0	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	930	945	3	200	20,000	
1692	North High School	S. A. Melcher	1	1	49	104	0	0	7	9	0	0	3	13	2	2	0	0	3	250	56,000	
1693	Wilmington	J. M. Lowell	1	1	13	19	0	0	0	0	5	2	3	3	2	0	0	0	3	81	2,500	
1694	Williamstown	Jas. E. Cabody	2	1	30	25	0	1	0	8	0	4	7	3	3	3	140	129	4		8,500	
1695	Williamstown	Grace T. Pratt	0	2	6	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	2	3	7		30,000	
1697	Winchester	Edwin N. Lovering	1	8	64	69	0	0	13	23	7	11	17	7	5	0	0	0	4	250	30,000	
1698	Woburn	L. H. Owen	2	6	81	125	0	0	19	30	13	0	16	12	13	18	0	0	81	3,000	195,172	
1699	Worcester	Edw. R. Goodwin	8	13	220	346	5	0	43	51	5	0	21	53	13	18	2	0	4	850	251,000	
1700	Worcester	James Jenkins	10	19	555	375	5	0	0	0	0	0	33	32	4	2	0	0	4		3,000	
1701	Wrentham	G. E. Marsh	1	1	20	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	0	0	0	0	4			
1702	Yarmouth Port	Edw. F. Peirce	1	1	12	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	9	3			
MICHIGAN.																						
1703	Adrian	Wade Millis	1	5	14	14	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	150	1,600	
1704	Adrian	A. E. Curtis	2	5	85	138	0	5	15	20	11	27	11	27	3	5	67	85	4	11,955	130,000	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Secondary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stud-ents in-cluded.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stud-ents in gradu-ating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mili-tary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparatus.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
MICHIGAN—cont'd.																						
1757	Colon.....	H. W. Hyrer.....	1	0	28	30	0	0	2	3	5	8	2	5	2	2	120	130	4	400	\$5,000	
1758	Concord.....	Frank W. Wells.....	1	1	17	18	3	1	12	8	1	6	0	0	56	44	4	175	10,000	
1759	Constantine.....	Rose M. Cranston.....	1	3	20	53	0	0	2	3	0	0	95	85	4	564	3,300	
1760	Corunna.....	C. I. Collins.....	2	1	24	36	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	124	149	3	1,000	
1761	Croswell.....	Wm. W. Weir.....	1	1	14	31	0	0	1	4	0	1	243	233	4	1,000	
1762	Crystal Falls.....	Chas. W. Mickens.....	1	1	7	8	0	0	3	1	0	60	65	3	140	13,000	
1763	Dansville.....	Jas. H. Wallace.....	1	1	15	20	0	0	1	1	2	5	14	0	2	137	167	4	150	8,000	
1764	Dearborn.....	O. M. Sarge.....	1	2	33	62	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	61	81	4	100	17,000	
1765	Dexter.....	O. M. Miles.....	1	1	23	34	0	0	0	0	20	22	2	2	3	96	105	4	705	53,200	
1766	Dowagiac.....	A. D. De Witt.....	2	1	25	31	0	0	0	0	15	20	6	7	4	335	273	4	220	3,000	
1767	Dryden.....	Henrietta M. Dalley.....	1	3	65	77	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	2	0	67	78	3	20	20,000
1769	Dundee.....	Geo. E. Bates.....	2	1	25	13	0	0	7	3	0	125	165	4	120	5,000	
1770	Durand.....	O. A. Johnson.....	1	1	10	14	0	0	1	1	1	0	2	0	0	90	111	2	05	8,000	
1771	East Tawas.....	C. N. McElhinney.....	1	1	12	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	243	300	4	350	8,000	
1772	Eaton Rapids.....	W. T. Bishop.....	2	2	28	27	0	0	2	2	7	5	9	8	5	200	290	1	300	10,000	
1773	Eau Claire.....	H. E. Morrell.....	1	1	4	8	0	0	1	1	1	36	52	3	
1774	Edmore.....	L. B. Woodard.....	1	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	90	115	3	50	3,000	
1775	Edwardsburg.....	Frank A. Preston.....	1	1	13	22	0	0	0	0	0	64	47	4	50	2,500	
1776	Elk Rapids.....	J. F. Biegan.....	1	2	30	30	0	0	2	5	2	170	230	4	650	30,000	
1777	Evart.....	Jas. L. Thompson.....	1	2	50	41	3	5	1	2	1	140	190	4	7,000	8,000	
1778	Farwell.....	J. D. Heaton.....	0	2	4	4	0	0	1	1	1	2	131	96	2	60	4,000	
1779	Fennville.....	Gemmie E. Martin.....	0	2	4	16	0	0	1	4	7	17	2	25	
1780	Fenton.....	Wells G. Brown.....	2	1	45	51	0	0	1	2	6	47	53	2	250	5,000	
1781	Flatroek.....	Lew D. Remington.....	1	1	12	10	0	0	5	6	2	216	225	4	691	9,000	
1782	Flint.....	T. Dale Cooke.....	4	6	100	200	3	4	4	6	10	20	13	33	8	700	900	4	465	1,200	
1783	Frankfort.....	F. F. Crampton.....	1	2	18	34	0	0	2	2	2	160	220	2	7,000	150,000	
1784	Fremont.....	A. B. Perrin.....	1	1	6	14	0	0	2	4	1	0	0	0	0	177	174	4	80	25,000	
1785	Frankfort.....	F. Stillson.....	1	1	6	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	177	174	4	73	8,000	
1786	Gaines.....	C. R. Jones.....	1	1	20	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	57	4	100	5,400	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

1899	State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-u-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-pa-ry-stu-dents in grad-u-ating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	20	21	22	23	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.	
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.							Male.
MICHIGAN—cont'd.																										
1839	McBrides.....	High School.....		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23		
1840	Mancelona.....	do.....	Chester Straight	1	0	3	6	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	3	0	0	72	95	4	231		\$1,200		
1841	Manchester.....	do.....	J. R. Jenkins	1	15	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	4	4	0	0	220	295	4	30	9,541			
1842	Manistique.....	do.....	D. M. Stoyenga	1	2	28	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	5	148	171	4	184	20,000			
1843	Manitou.....	do.....	R. I. Boyer	1	1	9	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	347	382	4	1,025	21,000			
1844	Maple Rapids.....	Graded High School.....	A. N. Hove	1	18	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	2	2	2	2	168	177	2	80	12,000			
1845	Marcellus.....	High School.....	Edmund Schoetzow	1	1	21	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	115	118	4	150	3,000			
1846	Marine City.....	do.....	Edith E. Petree	1	2	19	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	107	79	4	550	32,000			
1847	Marquette.....	do.....	E. M. Hartman	1	2	40	43	0	1	0	1	2	0	5	11	4	1	4	924	835	4	60	15,000			
1848	Marshall.....	do.....	R. S. Garwood	1	4	43	75	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	8	5	3	0	0	0	4	1,692	100,000			
1849	Marshall.....	do.....	V. C. Wolcott	3	2	52	74	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	4	5	60	46	3	25	4,000			
1850	Marion.....	do.....	M. A. Barnhart	1	3	35	78	1	0	0	1	4	5	7	9	3	2	2	155	199	4	470	8,000			
1851	Mason.....	do.....	L. H. Merriman	1	2	25	35	0	1	0	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	65	95	4	200	200			
1852	Mendon.....	do.....	Mary J. Gillan	2	2	35	75	0	0	0	1	2	3	5	12	4	5	1,000	1,200	4	500	3,500				
1853	Menominee.....	do.....	Byron Burnell	2	2	35	75	0	0	0	1	2	3	5	12	4	5	1,000	1,200	4	230	3,500				
1854	Metamora.....	do.....	A. O. Wilkinson	2	14	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	7	4	75	52	3	80	18,000				
1855	Middleville.....	do.....	L. H. Wood	1	22	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	7	4	104	75	3	80	18,000				
1856	Midland.....	Central High School.....	G. A. Demmisson	1	1	20	34	0	0	0	1	2	5	6	1	1	1	331	326	4	1,200	38,000				
1857	Milan.....	High School.....	A. C. Tagge	1	1	30	37	0	0	0	1	2	5	6	1	1	3	79	141	4	1,776	4,500				
1858	Millington.....	do.....	J. E. Farnham	1	1	22	34	0	0	0	1	2	5	6	2	3	2	2	61	65	4	25	6,500			
1859	Monroe.....	do.....	F. H. Hysor	3	55	68	0	1	1	5	16	15	4	8	3	4	370	265	4	3,901	12,000					
1860	Montague.....	do.....	A. C. Tagge	1	1	21	38	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	1	3	0	42	63	2	195	5,500				
1861	Mount Morris.....	do.....	M. J. Hysor	1	3	8	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	300	350	4	400	30,000				
1862	Mount Pleasant.....	do.....	Mabel I. Bishop	1	2	21	30	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	50	80	3	60	500	75,000			
1863	Muskegon.....	do.....	L. C. Highbrook	1	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	71	84	4	40	10,000				
1864	Muskegon Heights.....	do.....	J. H. Sheffield	3	5	88	188	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	24	4	2	20	28	4	100	6,000			
1865	Napoleon.....	do.....	L. G. Palmer	1	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	2	3	35	105	4	500	20,000			
1866	Nashville.....	do.....	W. W. Armstrong	2	1	55	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	12	8	95	166	4	200	20,000				
1867	Nashville.....	do.....	H. B. Andrus	1	1	55	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	12	8	95	166	4	200	20,000				
1868	Negaunee.....	do.....	F. D. Davis	2	23	46	0	0	0	2	0	2	4	4	4	8	8	575	567	4	400	50,000				

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

1920	State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ions.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stu-dents in gradu-ating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	20 21	22	23	
				Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female					Male
				1	1	20	20	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	144	140	3		331	\$5,000	
1921	Sangaruck	High School	Jas. Warnock	1	1	11	22	0	0	5	7	15	30	4	3	2	2	620	650	4		2,000	50,000	
1922	South Ste. Marie	do	Miss Ella Bourne	1	2	32	37	0	0					4	3	3	3	0	0	4		200	15,000	
1923	Schoolcraft	do	A. R. Crittenden	1	1	26	28	0	0					2	2	1	1	155	151	4		200	6,000	
1924	Shelby	Union High School	Jas. E. Clark	1	1	5	3	0	0									106	96	2		80	4,000	
1925	Sheridan	Graded High School	A. A. Ellsworth	1	1	12	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	71	76	4		0	4,000
1926	South Frankfort	do	H. H. Harris	1	1	46	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	2	2	286	244	4		350	15,000	
1927	South Haven	do	A. D. Prentice	1	1	17	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	9	2	2	70	81	3		28	5,000	
1928	South Lyon	do	Jas. M. Bailey	1	1	40	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	90	4		100	5,000	
1929	Sparta	do	J. G. Van Vinkle	1	1	7	10	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	1	139	146	3		300	8,000	
1930	Spring Lake	do	M. E. Osborn	1	1	18	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	6	6	63	61	3		270	5,000	
1931	Springport	do	Fred M. Harlow	1	1	7	7	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	93	98	2		0	4,000	
1932	Stephenson	do	Wayne Simmings	1	1	6	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	46	64	1		129	5,000	
1933	Stevensville	do	C. A. Stevens	1	1	14	15	0	0	0	0	2	2	3	1	0	0	51	63	3		100	5,000	
1934	Stockbridge	Union High School	T. A. Stevens	1	1	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	139	180	4		0	4,000	
1935	Tawas City	High School	Eva Drake	1	1	57	73	2	2	8	11	5	5	2	1	1	1	177	214	4		1,560	40,000	
1936	Tecumseh	do	L. M. Kellogg	1	1	16	24	0	0	0	0	6	10	2	6	3	3	164	146	4		200	6,000	
1937	Tekonska	do	Will L. Taylor	1	1	10	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	85	75	3		156	5,000	
1938	Three Oaks	do	H. C. Daley	1	1	66	68	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	13	6	6	310	316	4		300	25,000	
1939	Three Rivers	do	Stephen D. Fry	3	2	7	5	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	7	7	47	46	2		750	40,000		
1940	Tustin	do	Geo. F. Roxburg	1	3	50	65	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	120	130	4		0	4,000	
1941	Union City	do	H. W. McIntosh	1	0	7	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	47	54	4		300	15,000	
1942	Unionville	do	Henry Bush, jr	1	1	20	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	5	3	3	212	224	4		750	22,500	
1943	Vandalia	do	C. I. Pemberton	1	3	22	17	0	0	2	3	3	0	7	7	3	3	94	104	4		125	6,200	
1944	Warsaw	do	Ira L. Forbes	1	3	34	40	0	0	6	8	8	4	3	4	3	1	72	67	3		130	10,000	
1945	Wicksburg	do	W. A. Phillips	1	1	4	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4		40	5,100	
1946	Watervliet	do	R. H. Struble	2	0	16	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	3		35	15,000	
1947	Wayland	do	E. M. Vroman	1	1	54	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4		20,000	15,000	
1948	Wayne	do	Edw. F. Gee	2	4	67	129	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	17	0	0	193	206	4		35	15,000	
1949	West Bay City	do	C. S. Kingston	1	1	32	38	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	8	0	0	0	0	4		600	30,000	
	Whitehall	do	F. J. Hendershot	1	1	32	38	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	8	0	0	193	206	4		600	30,000	

MICHIGAN—cont'd.

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

1998	State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in military tac-tics.	Vol-umes in library.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.	
				4	5	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	18	19					
MINNESOTA—cont'd.																								
1998	Little Falls	High School	Rebecca Ashley	1	3	14	30	0	0	0	2	0	1	...	2	1	2	1	461	510	4	...	350	...
1999	Ln Verne	do	C. E. Guthrie	1	1	19	37	0	0	12	24	...	1	1	242	245	4	...	538	...
2000	Madelia	do	M. H. Robinson	1	1	19	25	0	0	0	0	10	5	...	3	3	188	170	4	...	500	...
2001	Mankato	do	O. M. Scaries	2	4	78	80	0	0	3	3	20	26	...	9	9	850	960	4	...	1,000	...
2002	Manorville	do	A. P. Paulson	3	25	31	...	1	5	10	...	3	3	68	69	4	...	600	...
2003	Mapleton	do	H. L. Bagley	1	1	13	12	1	1	112	128	4	...	338	...
2004	Marshall	do	N. C. Fims	1	3	33	46	1	1	301	279	4	...	651	...
2005	Minneapolis	Central High School	John N. Greer	3	36	314	688	6	8	36	36	370	150	...	51	79	0	0	4	...	2,500	...
2006	do	East Side High School	W. F. Webster	4	12	171	240	0	0	14	21	50	75	...	10	37	406	380	4	...	300	...
2007	do	North Side High School	W. W. Hobbs	3	12	114	200	1	3	8	20	30	11	...	25	11	215	183	4	...	900	...
2008	do	South Side High School	C. L. Sawyer, A. M.	1	6	100	175	0	0	10	4	40	75	...	21	13	105	145	4	...	272	...
2009	Montevideo	do	A. M. Webster	2	1	14	27	0	0	0	0	2	7	...	1	2	239	203	4	...	550	...
2010	Monticello	do	J. G. Newkirk	1	1	20	30	0	0	0	0	11	9	...	3	5	105	145	4	...	250	...
2011	Moorhead	do	John F. Giles	1	2	30	35	0	0	2	2	2	1	...	2	1	380	325	4	...	2,800	...
2012	Morris	do	R. C. Dewey	1	2	20	19	2	2	227	193	4	...	250	...
2013	New Paynesville	do	Pete W. Ross	1	0	13	11	0	0	0	0	1	3	...	0	0	90	103	4	...	153	...
2014	New Ulm	do	E. T. Critchett	1	1	27	21	0	0	1	7	10	30	...	10	11	300	350	4	...	802	...
2015	Northfield	do	Alma B. Stanford	2	4	40	74	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	4	0	700	125	4	...	200	...
2016	Ortonville	do	J. M. Richardson	1	1	15	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	4	6	430	432	4	...	1,400	...
2017	Owatonna	do	L. H. Ford	1	4	50	76	0	0	0	0	6	12	...	0	0	60	70	4	...	400	...
2018	Pine Island	do	A. M. Dresbach	1	2	15	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	3	3	81	113	4	...	7,000	...
2019	Plainview	do	C. D. Lewis	1	1	30	26	0	0	0	0	8	10	...	3	5	160	181	4	...	275	...
2020	Prescott	do	E. E. Lockery	1	2	11	20	0	0	2	1	20	50	...	4	8	143	157	4	...	600	...
2021	Princeton	do	George R. Simpson	1	4	35	65	0	0	1	0	8	6	...	0	7	200	199	4	...	1,368	...
2022	Red Wing	do	W. W. Kilgore	1	1	14	31	0	0	0	0	1	0	...	0	4	120	117	4	...	650	...
2023	Redwood Falls	do	J. L. Torrens	2	0	42	70	0	0	0	0	1	0	...	2	1	120	117	4	...	650	...
2024	Rochester	do	Miss Emma F. Allen	1	2	28	31	0	0	0	0	2	4	...	4	6	163	187	4	...	550	...
2025	Rushford	do	Henry Johnson	1	5	33	42	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	0	0	199	199	4	...	31,500	...
2026	St. Charles	do	B. F. Buck	1	5	33	42	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	4	6	163	187	4	...	550	...

2027	St. Cloud	do	1	2	41	27	0	0	0	3	2	4	4	6	2	0	1,200	
2028	St. James	do	1	0	1	18	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	210	1,400	
2029	St. Louis Park	do	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	210	20,000	
2030	St. Paul	do	17	25	445	824	3	5	16	30	2	18	44	68	16	30	3,000	
2031	Central High School	do	2	4	50	65	0	0	12	8	16	18	2	0	0	375	410	
2032	Cleveland High School	do	6	5	50	64	0	0	0	1	5	18	33	2	0	0	396	410
2033	Humboldt High School	do	2	1	26	45	0	0	0	0	21	38	2	10	0	320	336	
2034	High School	do	2	2	30	63	0	0	0	0	15	35	1	13	1	250	382	
2035	Sank Center	do	1	0	6	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	125	120	
2036	Slayton	do	1	0	6	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	200	244	
2037	Sleepyoke	do	2	2	25	30	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	200	244	
2038	Spring Valley	do	2	2	46	69	0	0	4	2	16	13	7	10	3	210	222	
2039	Stillwater	do	2	5	38	66	2	2	2	2	6	6	6	6	3	5	400	2
2040	Tracy	do	1	1	2	30	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	250	265	
2041	Verndale	do	1	1	12	15	0	0	12	15	12	15	12	15	12	71	3	
2042	Wabasha	do	1	3	32	19	0	1	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	206	251	
2043	Wadena	do	1	1	24	35	0	0	2	5	0	0	0	0	0	183	201	
2044	Waseca	do	1	2	39	39	0	0	0	18	20	5	6	3	5	300	350	
2045	Waterville	do	1	0	5	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	254	12,500
2046	White Bear Lake	do	2	1	18	25	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	182	239	
2047	Whitefish Lake	do	1	3	20	30	0	0	0	10	94	1	1	1	1	175	168	
2048	Winnobago City	do	5	3	104	113	0	0	3	0	19	6	7	10	3	185	144	
2049	Winona	do	2	1	23	38	0	0	0	1	3	3	2	3	2	41	36	
2050	Zumbrota	do	2	1	23	30	0	0	0	10	10	2	2	0	2	150	145	
MISSISSIPPI																		
2051	Aberdeen	High School	1	4	10	45	3	9	3	9	2	2	2	2	2	114	153	
2052	Arkabutla	do	1	1	8	10	8	10	3	5	5	5	5	5	5	50	60	
2053	Baldwyn	do	1	15	15	20	1	1	3	5	5	5	5	5	5	50	55	
2054	Benton	do	1	9	4	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	10	
2055	Big Creek	Chapel Hill High School	1	10	8	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	23	44	
2056	Booneville	High School	1	1	15	12	0	0	10	7	8	7	5	6	8	75	68	
2057	Caledonia	Academy and High School	2	2	10	20	0	0	2	8	2	2	3	3	3	30	30	
2058	Canton	High School	2	4	21	37	0	0	12	17	17	17	17	17	17	96	129	
2059	Caseville	Grace Hall High School	1	1	8	10	8	10	3	5	5	5	5	5	5	45	35	
2060	Clarksdale	Graded High School	1	1	25	15	0	0	8	6	0	0	9	6	6	10	25	
2061	Coldwater	High School	1	2	30	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	31	
2062	Coles Creek	do	1	2	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35	45	
2063	Columbus	Franklin Academy	1	2	21	37	0	0	12	17	17	17	17	17	17	239	255	
2064	Como Dupot	Como Academy	1	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	50	17	
2065	Comeliaha	Institute	1	12	13	0	0	2	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	30	25	
2066	Courtland	High School	1	10	10	0	0	2	1	5	6	2	2	2	2	30	22	
2067	Crawford	Courtland	1	1	5	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	13	
2068	Crystal Springs	Stonewall Institute	1	3	41	79	0	0	6	10	2	0	4	8	4	61	131	
2069	Deasonville	High School	1	10	11	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	9	
2070	Delay	do	1	12	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	42	59	
2071	Dow	Mount Vernon High School	1	1	17	14	1	1	17	14	17	14	17	14	17	16	200	
2072	Dnek Hill	Institute	1	0	12	8	0	0	3	5	1	0	1	0	1	12	24	
2073	Durant	do	1	5	11	0	0	2	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	108	87	
2074	Ellisville	Graded High School	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2075	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2076	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2077	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2078	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2079	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2080	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2081	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2082	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2083	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2084	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2085	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2086	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2087	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2088	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2089	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2090	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2091	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2092	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2093	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2094	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2095	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2096	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2097	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2098	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2099	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2100	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2101	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2102	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2103	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2104	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2105	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2106	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2107	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2108	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2109	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2110	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2111	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2112	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2113	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2114	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2115	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2116	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2117	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2118	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2119	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2120	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2121	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2122	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2123	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2124	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	115	
2125	Ellisville	do	1	3	20	15												

Lagrange.....	Pleasant Grove High School.	W. A. Mussetter	1	2	11	15	1	6	1	6	1	6	186	185	3	460	7,000
2179	Lamar.....	C. H. Paul.....	2	0	77	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	397	4	1,024	31,000	
2180	Lancaster.....	W. C. Thompson.....	1	0	6	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	161	39	242	10,000	
2181	La Plata.....	R. B. Noel.....	2	0	18	30	0	0	1	1	1	0	192	4	300	12,000	
2182	Lathrop.....	H. C. Richmond.....	1	1	9	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	204	3	25	25,000	
2183	Lees Summit.....	B. F. Brown.....	2	2	40	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	200	4	350	20,000	
2184	Lexington.....	H. D. Deonod.....	2	3	33	48	9	7	10	11	3	2	450	4	1,000	25,000	
2185	Liberty.....	E. H. Stroeter.....	4	3	53	75	18	22	13	20	22	2	276	4	1,400	23,000	
2186	Louisiana.....	R. K. Kowley.....	3	1	50	50	3	5	5	5	0	0	494	4	1,200	21,000	
2187	Macon.....	A. L. McKenzie.....	1	0	20	36	0	0	0	0	0	0	247	3	300	5,000	
2188	Macon.....	Jno. U. Crossen.....	1	0	14	19	0	0	7	15	3	8	85	3	180	3,500	
2189	Maitland.....	W. S. Platt.....	1	0	27	20	27	20	0	0	0	0	80	3	200	10,000	
2190	Mansfield.....	J. W. Barton.....	1	0	10	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	140	4	350	10,000	
2191	Marionville.....	Oliver Stigall.....	2	1	30	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	230	3	200	11,000	
2192	Memphis.....	E. E. Barnett.....	2	0	35	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	65	3	120	26,000	
2193	Miami.....	Delle Harwood.....	1	2	52	48	0	0	0	0	0	0	210	3	150	11,000	
2194	Monroe City.....	R. A. Higdon.....	1	0	8	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	82	2	30	1,200	
2195	Montrose.....	Wm. H. Lynch.....	3	2	25	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	135	3	225	10,000	
2196	Mt. Grove.....	W. D. Higdon.....	1	0	8	9	1	1	6	13	3	7	117	114	3	1,100	14,000
2197	Mt. Vernon.....	Miss L. K. Biggs.....	2	10	40	66	1	0	0	0	0	0	644	4	2,000	40,000	
2198	Neosho.....	D. L. Roberts.....	3	2	90	130	0	0	60	90	30	40	104	710	4	2,000	1,000
2199	New London.....	J. C. Briggs.....	0	3	24	29	0	5	4	9	6	6	104	96	3	189	1,000
2200	New Madrid.....	Edw. D. Hays.....	0	2	10	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	107	130	3	156	6,000
2201	Norborne.....	L. E. Petree.....	2	0	20	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	44	51	4	12,000	
2202	Oak Ridge.....	E. R. Graham.....	1	1	27	18	0	0	1	0	0	0	157	131	3	482	10,000
2203	Oak Ridge.....	Miss Fania Hayes.....	1	1	18	34	0	0	1	4	2	4	127	126	3	120	10,000
2204	Odesa.....	L. F. Crawford.....	1	1	12	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	123	127	4	130	10,000
2205	Oscoda.....	W. C. West.....	1	7	8	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	115	120	1	15,000	
2206	Ozark.....	J. M. McMurry.....	1	10	8	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	148	137	2	7,000	
2207	Palmyra.....	Thos. V. Bashore.....	1	1	17	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	280	300	3	200	20,000
2208	Perry.....	R. R. Saunders.....	1	0	12	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	210	228	3	400	13,400
2209	Pierce City.....	R. L. Eberts.....	2	1	16	16	0	0	7	8	4	3	210	228	3	570	12,000
2210	Plattsburg.....	Iora A. Pyles.....	1	1	30	34	0	0	2	1	0	0	88	96	3	230	7,000
2211	Pleasant Hill.....	W. C. Holman.....	1	16	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	339	370	2	71	11,000
2212	Polo.....	Jno. T. Withers.....	1	1	25	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	110	160	3	150	12,000
2213	Poplar Bluff.....	A. H. Smith.....	1	5	60	70	0	0	0	0	0	0	83	80	2	100	2,000
2214	Princeton.....	L. B. Osborne.....	1	4	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	63	51	4	129	1,500
2215	Queen City.....	Mrs. N. McKenney.....	1	1	15	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	610	3	681	25,000
2216	Reinick.....	C. A. Mitchell.....	1	0	45	40	0	0	12	12	0	0	172	174	4	330	20,000
2217	Republic.....	J. P. Thurman.....	2	1	28	26	0	0	1	5	1	4	210	200	2	2,800	50,000
2218	Rich Hill.....	B. F. Brown.....	2	7	20	40	10	15	10	15	2	7	0	0	1,400	403,038	
2219	Rock Port.....	C. W. Jones.....	4	8	116	239	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,700	8,500	
2220	St. Charles.....	F. Louis Soldan.....	24	46	326	141	0	0	0	0	36	242	190	3	467	10,000	
2221	St. Joseph.....	W. W. Walters.....	1	2	12	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	162	180	3	300	20,000
2222	St. Louis.....	W. T. Carrington.....	2	4	25	29	13	15	0	0	0	0	188	240	4	140	10,000
2223	Salem.....	L. M. Garrett.....	1	1	26	34	0	0	21	32	0	0	108	112	3	140	10,000
2224	Sareoxie.....	R. L. Walker.....	2	2	16	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,150	1,850	4	200	50,000
2225	Savannah.....	J. D. Wilson.....	1	1	5	75	131	12	15	15	20	4	1,150	1,850	4	200	10,000
2226	Schell City.....	J. E. Petree.....	3	5	75	131	12	15	15	20	4	7	1,150	1,850	4	200	10,000
2227	Sedalia.....		1	0	10	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	183	172	2	400	10,000
2228	Seneca.....		1	0	10	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	183	172	2	400	10,000

2331	Harvard	do	1	9	22	0	0	0	0	1	5	1	0	1	6	304	226	3	250	
2332	Hastings	do	1	2	65	74	0	0	0	0	0	10	9	5	4	735	810	4	300	
2333	Hebron	do	2	0	32	51	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	3	6	219	223	3	250	
2334	Holdrege	do	2	1	40	52	0	0	0	0	0	5	6	0	0	0	105	3	200	
2335	Hoopes	do	1	1	15	30	0	0	0	0	0	5	4	5	4	120	105	2	150	
2336	Howells	do	1	0	13	7	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	38	49	1	635	
2337	Humboldt	do	2	6	36	43	0	0	0	0	0	5	7	4	3	68	53	4	35	
2338	Humphrey	do	1	1	11	18	0	0	0	0	0	3	39	131	3	75	131	3	700	
2339	Indianola	do	1	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	67	54	2	6,000	
2340	Jones	do	1	0	9	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	79	56	3	0	
2341	Kenesaw	do	1	0	20	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	51	60	3	200	
2342	Lindsay	do	1	0	9	9	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	1	2	104	103	4	30	
2343	Louisville	do	1	2	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	1	3	95	101	4	60	
2344	Lyons	do	1	2	21	29	0	0	0	0	3	4	1	5	1	3	190	172	3	754
2345	Madison	do	1	1	25	34	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	2	4	244	259	3	2,500	
2346	Minden	do	1	1	21	38	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	2	4	121	115	3	600	
2347	Nelson	do	1	0	6	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	29	31	1	0	
2348	Newport	do	1	0	7	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	87	89	3	141	
2349	Niobrara	do	1	1	39	29	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	3	4	150	160	4	200	
2350	North Bend	do	1	1	29	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	4	4	4	43	47	3	350	
2351	North Platte	do	2	1	20	55	0	0	0	1	1	13	0	0	0	150	161	3	250	
2352	Oakland	do	1	1	10	15	0	0	0	1	1	5	0	0	0	80	75	2	50	
2353	Ogallala	do	1	1	8	7	0	0	0	3	7	0	2	1	2	180	93	0	300	
2354	Ottawa	do	1	18	105	677	9	15	50	105	28	28	31	51	8	15	0	185	1,750	
2355	Omaha	do	7	1	5	10	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	630,000	
2356	O'Neill	do	1	2	27	48	0	0	0	0	8	3	3	1	2	182	211	4	40	
2357	Ord	do	1	1	15	20	0	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	3	207	195	4	108	
2358	Orleans	do	2	0	20	33	0	0	0	3	1	1	3	9	4	95	97	3	100	
2359	Oscola	do	2	0	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	127	3	200	
2360	Osmond	do	1	0	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	55	55	3	8,000	
2361	Oxford	do	1	0	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	6	1	85	109	3	100	
2362	Palmer	do	1	1	7	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	35	1	25	
2363	Palmyra	do	1	14	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	3	3	39	45	3	30	
2364	Pawnee City	do	2	1	32	68	0	0	0	0	0	2	8	1	2	228	256	3	650	
2365	Pender	do	1	0	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	2	1	115	102	3	30	
2366	Petersburg	do	1	0	4	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	74	76	3	4,000	
2367	Pilger	do	1	4	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	43	56	3	300	
2368	Platte Center	do	1	1	10	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	33	1	75	
2369	Platte River	do	1	14	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	3	101	102	3	250		
2370	Ravenna	do	1	0	11	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	6	114	100	3	5	
2371	Raymond	do	1	0	20	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	91	81	2	5,300	
2372	Reading City	do	1	0	8	11	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	89	50	3	5,550	
2373	Riverton	do	1	0	8	11	0	0	0	0	0	5	3	3	3	55	51	3	100	
2374	Roseland	do	1	0	25	23	0	0	0	0	10	13	0	0	0	130	112	4	30	
2375	Rulo	do	1	2	33	40	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	74	86	3	10,000	
2376	Rushville	do	1	0	15	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	83	3	150	7,000	
2377	St. Edwards	do	1	1	16	18	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	2	2	215	262	4	200	
2378	St. Paul	do	1	1	32	44	0	0	0	0	0	4	7	1	83	4	200	5,000		
2379	Salem	do	1	1	16	18	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	71	83	4	35,000	
2380	Schuyler	do	2	1	30	43	0	0	0	11	20	4	2	2	2	412	363	4	75	
2381	Seward	do	1	1	17	37	0	0	0	0	17	37	2	8	2	280	203	4	84	
2382	Shelby	do	1	17	29	0	0	0	0	3	2	1	1	1	1	81	84	3	89	

2413	Wilber.....do	R. M. Thomason.....	1	1	20	29	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	253	221	3	600	13,350
2414	Wilcox.....do	Mary Alsbury.....	0	1	6	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	43	53	2	20	4,000
2415	Wilsonville.....do	J. D. Phillips.....	1	0	20	24	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	32	37	3	51	3,000
2416	Winside.....do	H. E. Maso.....	1	0	7	9	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	3	0	0	54	49	2	165	15,000
2417	Wisner.....do	C. H. Beaver.....	1	1	26	35	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	1	5	0	0	133	123	4	0	4,000
2418	Wood River.....do	A. H. Seymour.....	1	0	6	9	0	0	0	0	0	4	5	1	8	0	0	139	135	3	0	4,000
2419	York.....do	B. G. Moulton.....	3	2	58	75	0	0	13	15	19	10	5	5	3	1	0	353	362	4	300	50,000
NEVADA.																						
2420	Anstin.....do	Walter C. Gayhart.....	1	1	24	26	0	0	2	6	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	77	86	3	250	2,000
2421	Carson City.....do	H. H. Howe.....	1	2	35	47	0	0	0	0	0	3	13	1	3	0	0	249	251	3	150	20,075
2422	Elko.....do	E. C. Snyder.....	0	1	15	25	0	0	7	8	0	4	3	4	3	4	0	72	42	2	25	10,000
2423	Goldhill.....do	R. C. Storey.....	1	2	14	31	0	0	0	0	0	6	1	10	4	4	0	125	135	4	400	20,000
2424	Virginia City.....do	C. L. McLane.....	1	2	15	60	0	0	0	0	0	1	13	0	0	0	0	437	420	3	1,600	50,000
NEW HAMPSHIRE.																						
2425	Amherst.....do	C. A. Crooks.....	1	0	5	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	16	0	25	5,000
2426	Andrum.....do	A. W. Small.....	1	1	23	23	0	0	0	0	0	3	8	1	2	0	0	45	69	3	16	5,000
2427	Berlin.....do	H. W. Whittemore.....	1	1	29	26	0	0	2	2	0	2	1	1	1	0	0	31	42	4	111	12,000
2428	Bethlehem.....do	A. J. Matthews.....	1	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	74	67	4	35	5,000
2429	Bristol.....do	Albert L. Picher.....	1	0	10	16	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35	3,000
2430	Charlestown.....do	H. C. Sanders, Jr.....	1	1	17	16	0	0	6	5	0	11	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	25,000
2431	Claremont.....do	M. C. Smart.....	2	5	102	140	0	0	10	15	2	6	19	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	486	100,000
2432	Concord.....do	Jno. F. Kent.....	2	4	68	110	0	0	10	23	10	15	6	19	3	3	0	0	0	0	437	25,000
2433	Dover.....do	F. W. Whitney.....	1	1	11	9	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	5	7	3	6,000	8,000
2434	Epping.....do	Wm. S. Mason.....	1	1	50	0	1	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	300	75,000
2435	Exeter.....do	Albion Burbank.....	1	3	72	87	0	0	7	2	3	0	1	4	1	2	0	469	637	4	20	0
2436	Franklin Falls.....do	K. S. Thompson.....	1	1	13	31	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	0	0	0	0	150	150	4	75	0
2437	Goffstown.....do	J. A. McDougall.....	1	1	29	36	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	115	3,500
2438	Gorham.....do	F. L. V. Spaulding.....	1	1	8	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2439	Greenland.....do	Nora A. Lyon.....	1	3	19	26	0	0	1	1	0	3	5	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2440	Hampton.....do	Jack Sanborn.....	1	3	19	26	0	0	1	1	0	3	5	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2441	Henniker.....do	F. L. Pugsley.....	1	2	20	26	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	5	9	4	0	0
2442	Hinsdale.....do	C. H. Paterson, A.M.....	1	2	15	26	0	0	1	3	6	2	1	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	1,200	8,000
2443	Hollis.....do	F. W. Dudley.....	1	0	8	10	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	200	5,000
2444	Jefferson.....do	Flora J. Wheeler.....	3	2	62	88	0	0	4	10	20	0	7	11	3	5	0	8	2	4	600	0
2445	Keene.....do	Robt. A. Ray, A.M.....	1	3	26	24	0	0	7	9	2	4	1	1	80	89	4	50	30,000	4	250	35,000
2446	Lisbon.....do	Chas. L. Wallace.....	1	4	16	22	0	0	2	2	0	3	9	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	400	60,000
2447	Littleton.....do	F. B. Pelton.....	4	6	122	151	0	0	32	14	8	15	30	6	6	0	0	200	221	4	100	0
2448	Manchester.....do	Albert Somes.....	1	2	35	33	0	0	7	2	0	6	6	4	2	200	221	4	100	0	0	0
2449	Milford.....do	F. J. Allen.....	3	5	113	147	0	0	10	15	0	13	31	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	4113	125,000
2450	Milton Mills.....do	Henry L. Woodward.....	1	2	8	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	250	3,500
2451	Nashua.....do	Leuel S. Hastings.....	1	2	6	21	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	1	6	0	2	19	34	4	300	10,000
2452	New Boston.....do	F. O. Chellis.....	1	2	25	40	0	0	7	5	0	2	9	0	0	0	0	81	102	4	50	10,000
2453	Newport.....do	Jas. H. Johnson.....	1	1	24	43	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2454	Pittsfield.....do	C. C. Rounds.....	1	2	4	85	107	0	8	10	0	6	13	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	500	25,000
2455	Plymouth.....do	Irving H. Upton.....	2	4	85	107	0	0	8	10	0	6	13	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2456	Portsmouth.....do	J. S. Richardson.....	2	2	60	73	0	0	12	6	12	0	12	14	2	3	580	542	4	30	50,000	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stru-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stud-ents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stud-ents in grad-uating class.		Students below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Students in military fac-ties.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and set-entive apparatus.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
			4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
NEW HAMPSHIRE—continued.																						
2458	Somersworth	J. M. Russell	1	2	25	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	4	4	4	4	150	\$60,500
2459	Walpole	L. E. Shervin	1	1	16	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	20	1,300
2460	West Lebanon	S. P. French	1	2	7	18	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	102	138	8,000
2461	Whitfield	Henry W. Hurd	1	0	11	23	0	0	0	0	6	5	1	1	1	1	0	0	33	62	4	12,000
2462	Wilson	S. A. Smith	1	0	12	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	1	0	63	74	53	
2463	Winchester	W. O. Smith	1	1	20	24	0	0	2	6	4	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	63	74	53	
NEW JERSEY.																						
2464	Atlantic City	Henry P. Miller	1	2	15	40	0	0	0	5	3	8	10	14	3	4	1,105	1,130	3	21		
2465	Bayonne City	M. J. B. Thomas	3	3	21	51	0	0	3	15	3	8	10	14	3	4						
2466	Belleville	W. H. Winslow	1	1	13	14	4	2	0	0	0	0	3	5	0	0	225	281	2	2	260	11,000
2467	Belvidere	R. M. Van Horn	1	1	8	25	0	0	1	2	0	0	3	15	0	0	134	124	2	2	1,113	108,000
2468	Bloomfield	Jno. B. Dunbar	1	3	35	52	0	0	7	4	8	6	6	9	3	1	672	649	4	4	40	100
2469	Bloomsbury	C. H. Williamson	1	1	16	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	2	46	48	4	4	250	3,500	
2470	Boonton	L. J. Whitney	0	2	15	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	0	0	200	210	3	3	360	40,000
2471	Bridgeton	Chas. H. Platts	1	4	82	122	4	0	4	3	5	9	1	7	1	2	120	132	3	3	60	575
2472	Caldwell	C. E. Hedden	1	1	12	20	0	0	4	3	5	9	1	7	1	2	81	93	3	3	556	10,000
2473	Camden	Horatio Draper	2	5	62	79	0	4	0	0	0	0	5	2	0	0	195	201	3	3	275	10,000
2474	Chatham	F. O. Payne, M. S.	1	1	21	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	69	72	4	4	150	5,500
2475	Clayton	W. C. Cook	1	8	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0						
2476	Clinton	E. J. Frey	1	15	29																	
NEW HAMPSHIRE—continued.																						
2477	Granford	R. E. Clement	1	1	16	20	1	0	0	0	4	5	1	7	1	2	146	138	3	3	100	18,000
2478	Dover	J. H. Hurlburt	1	3	22	40	0	1	0	1	4	3	3	8	1	2	131	118	2	2	84	6,000
2479	Dunnell	A. J. Whitney	1	0	18	22	0	1	0	0	4	3	3	4	1	2	100	90	2	2	100	5,000
2480	East Orange	Vernon L. Pavey	2	7	79	128	3	2	24	11	30	10	9	6	0	0	1,000	128,000	4	4	1,000	128,000
2481	Edge Harbor City	Henry C. Krebs	1	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	3	0	0	180	187	1	1	300	6,000
2482	Elizabeth	Laetitia H. Sayre	1	5	28	77	3	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	23	24	3	3	481	82,675
2483	Flemington	S. P. Gilhuly	1	1	22	27	0	0	0	0	4	4	4	4	1	0	157	177	4	4	152	

2484	Freehold.....	High School.....	John Enright.....	2	2	58	60	30	35	0	0	4	7	9	8	4	0	251	248	4	1,000	35,000	
2485	Gloucester.....	do.....	William Dougherty.....	1	1	2	5	0	0	0	0	4	0	2	5	0	0	39	45	4	1,000	35,000	
2486	Hackensack.....	do.....	Nelson Has.....	2	1	33	37	0	0	0	0	3	10	10	10	0	0	294	224	3	165	25,000	
2487	Hammonton.....	Central High School.....	R. E. Salisbury.....	1	1	2	19	27	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	410	335	4	300	25,000	
2488	Hightstown.....	Academy and High School.....	Theodore Green.....	1	1	10	15	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	140	150	4	300	25,000	
2489	Hoboken.....	High School.....	F. H. Morrell.....	5	3	49	101	1	0	0	0	1	10	7	18	1	0	422	436	3	43	40,000	
2490	Irvington.....	do.....	A. H. Thompson.....	2	12	36	421	1	0	0	0	0	5	127	3	3	0	298	338	3	600	40,000	
2492	Keyport.....	High School (dept.).....	S. V. Arrowsmith.....	3	6	72	88	6	3	7	1	0	0	2	8	4	0	87	115	3	1,700	100,000	
2493	Long Branch.....	High School.....	C. Gregory.....	3	1	14	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	8	0	0	105	151	3	160	25,000	
2494	Madison.....	do.....	W. B. Matthews.....	3	1	98	101	0	0	2	3	4	5	4	8	2	0	981	1,043	4	550	83,148	
2496	Manasquan.....	do.....	S. B. Van Stone.....	3	1	45	74	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	8	9	7	8	0	0	1,867	135,000	
2497	Milville.....	do.....	T. D. Sensor, A. M.....	3	7	113	141	0	4	18	33	30	34	8	8	0	0	150	164	3	300	14,000	
2498	Moorestown.....	do.....	Randall Spaulding.....	1	1	13	27	0	0	0	0	2	7	0	11	2	1	523	528	4	290	38,000	
2499	Mountair.....	do.....	Geo. E. Megargee.....	1	2	32	52	0	0	0	1	8	4	5	1	0	0	420	391	4	2,398	5,010	
2500	Morristown.....	do.....	W. L. E. Haven.....	1	2	32	52	0	0	0	1	8	4	5	1	0	0	204	199	3	735	40,000	
2501	Mount Holly.....	do.....	Chas. D. Raine.....	1	1	18	55	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	7	0	0	204	199	3	735	40,000	
2502	Newark.....	do.....	E. O. Hovey.....	11	19	510	615	1	4	75	20	0	2	52	49	3	5	0	32	31	3	866	5,010
2503	New Providence.....	do.....	Henry W. Saxe.....	1	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	0	0	240	255	3	580	46,000	
2504	Newton.....	do.....	C. J. Major, Ph. D.....	1	2	28	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	7	0	0	134	175	4	580	46,000	
2505	Nutley.....	do.....	Wm. K. Wright.....	3	5	51	67	0	0	10	5	5	8	11	5	1	0	1,034	1,038	4	1,597	85,000	
2506	Orange.....	do.....	R. B. Jewett, A. B.....	2	2	47	94	0	0	8	6	11	0	31	54	2	3	0	0	0	0	1,150	25,000
2507	Paterson.....	do.....	L. H. White.....	2	12	159	271	0	1	2	13	10	0	10	9	5	1	146	186	3	0	25,000	
2508	Plainfield.....	do.....	Henry M. Maxson.....	2	5	83	97	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	4	4	4	84	94	4	375	12,000	
2509	Rahway.....	do.....	Geo. A. West.....	1	4	54	73	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	401	462	2	260	11,000	
2511	Raritan.....	do.....	Richard Case.....	1	1	13	14	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	5	0	2	140	131	4	369	10,000	
2512	Red Bank.....	do.....	Geo. R. Gerard.....	1	4	13	14	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	120	99	3	100	3,550	
2513	Roselle.....	do.....	Miss R. Van Syckel.....	1	4	15	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	737	718	3	673	29,210	
2514	Salem City.....	do.....	W. A. Storrie.....	1	1	15	31	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	75	75	3	3,550	3,550	
2515	Scotch Plains.....	do.....	G. T. Cull.....	1	2	22	41	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	388	387	3	298	25,000	
2516	Somerville.....	do.....	Jno. S. Haynes.....	1	1	13	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	5	2	0	106	110	3	600	16,000	
2517	South Amboy.....	do.....	W. L. Heiniken, A. M.....	1	1	5	31	47	0	17	23	14	24	2	6	2	4	178	167	4	425	4,000	
2518	South Orange.....	do.....	G. J. McAndrew, M. A.....	1	2	15	9	0	0	0	0	5	3	7	2	2	1	185	177	4	360	40,000	
2519	Summit.....	do.....	E. F. Knapp.....	1	0	23	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,000	5,000	
2520	Toms River.....	do.....	F. A. North.....	1	2	10	11	227	3	4	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	393	25,000	
2521	Trenton.....	do.....	Wm. H. Grace, Ph. D.....	5	8	80	74	0	0	20	6	31	9	13	8	12	0	191	212	4	43	40,000	
2522	Union.....	State Model School.....	Jas. M. Kline.....	1	3	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	41	39	3	320	3,500	
2523	Washington.....	Conn. Farms High School.....	A. B. Griffin.....	3	0	35	48	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	9	1	0	344	318	3	150	20,000	
2525	Westfield.....	do.....	R. Francis.....	1	2	36	44	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	213	263	4	463	50,000	
2526	West Hoboken.....	do.....	Robert Vaters.....	1	1	15	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,343	1,445	2	1,211	63,000	
2527	West Orange.....	do.....	E. D. McCollom.....	1	2	20	30	0	1	3	0	5	0	3	4	0	0	163	181	4	689	31,000	
2528	Woodbridge.....	do.....	Geo. Wm. Gamble.....	1	1	10	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	180	135	3	278	3,000	
2529	Woodbury.....	do.....	William Milligan.....	1	1	18	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	422	488	2	1,076	2,000	
2530	Woodstown.....	do.....	Emily S. Sayre.....	0	2	18	24	7	8	0	0	1	3	1	3	1	0	112	146	2	1,150	2,000	

* Yes; number not given.

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of ground, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific appar-at-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
NEW MEXICO.																						
2531	Albuquerque		1	3	10	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	\$12,000
2532	Bernalillo	Martha M. Winslow.	2	39	67	3,000
2533	Deming	Brother Gabriel	1	1	17	15	0	0	3	0	0	101	97	3	15,000
2534	do	J. H. Hutton	1	2	12	11	1	1	0	7	250	232	3	15,000
2535	East Las Vegas	J. A. Wood	1	2	20	35	0	0	4	10	3	0	0	114	176	3	15,000
2536	Eddy	E. O. Creighton	1	1	20	20	0	0	0	0	265	155	4	25,000
2536	Socorro	U. F. Duff	1	1	20	20	0	0	0	0	265	155	4	25,000
NEW YORK.																						
2537	Addison	D. A. Blakeslee	1	3	36	54	0	1	4	3	4	0	4	3	2	2	312	329	4	40,000
2538	Afton	W. D. Morse	2	4	40	60	0	0	3	3	63	66	4	5,425
2539	Akron	Orson Warren	1	2	42	38	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	139	171	4	7,000
2540	Albany	O. D. Robinson, A. M.	11	16	341	471	0	0	27	20	187	265	36	51	22	29	227,690
2541	Albion	C. A. Hamilton, A. M.	1	6	51	74	0	0	17	11	6	2	2	11	1	5	390	410	4	1,520
2542	Alexander	Joseph Howarth	0	2	11	19	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	3	39	30	3	45,000
2543	Andes	G. N. Sleight	0	3	10	12	0	0	1	1	2	38	38	3	6,086
2544	Andover	B. B. Brown, A. M.	2	2	32	40	0	0	1	6	0	0	2,600
2545	Angola	C. W. Vandegrift	1	2	32	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	7	1	1	89	75	4	5,650
2546	Argyle	E. C. Hogaire	1	1	6	8	0	0	1	1	71	82	4	10,000
2547	Attica	A. M. Preston	1	3	61	79	0	0	8	5	29	11	7	6	3	237	235	4	200	
2548	Aurora	Warrington Somers	4	7	174	260	0	3	19	4	39	30	23	27	11	5	0	0	174	1,746	1,023	96,000
2549	Avoca	C. E. Burton, A. B.	1	1	27	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	66	74	300	
2550	Avon	R. J. Wallace	1	2	20	30	0	0	4	6	5	7	3	8	140	160	4	12,000
2551	Bainbridge	F. W. Crumb, M. A.	1	2	51	46	0	0	6	4	12	9	3	2	2	2	88	112	4	1,300
2552	Baldwinsville	A. W. Emerson, M. S.	1	3	57	73	1	1	2	2	10	9	10	10	6	5	315	320	4	1,965
2553	Balleton Spa	H. H. Southwick	1	2	24	40	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	350	384	4	22,143
2554	Batavia	Jno. Kennedy (supt.)	0	5	54	108	0	0	4	11	7	5	4	13	2	8	750	825	4	142,000
2555	Bath on Hudson	S. J. Slauson	1	5	36	43	0	0	3	15	11	29	65	160	4	10,000
2556	Bay Shore	C. A. Du Vall	1	3	20	28	0	0	1	0	1	1	246	271	4	30,000

2557	Belfast	Seminary and Union School	Fred W. Gray	2	1	10	25	0	0	0	3	5	0	0	0	4	0	1	87	167	4	661	9,485	
2558	Belmont	Union School	Jay Crissey	1	2	15	25	0	0	2	4	1	3	3	6	0	2	135	147	4	1,000	20,000		
2559	Bergen	do	D. B. Albert	1	2	13	15	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	129	73	3	496	9,900		
2560	Berkshire	High School	C. D. Dykes	1	2	37	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	43	54	4	41	2,000		
2561	Boonville	Union School	C. H. W. Arnold	2	3	58	47	0	0	2	0	0	2	4	2	8	2	163	166	4	850	12,000		
2562	Brasher Falls	Brusher and Stockholm Union School	Wm. H. Adams	1	2	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	95	79	3	450	9,400		
2563	Brewster	do	Henry S. Purdy	1	1	40	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	158	134	4	314	25,950		
2564	Bridgewater	do	Stanard D. Butler	1	1	10	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56	23	4	200	3,500		
2565	Brooklyn	Boys' High School	A. G. McAllister	31	0	1003	0	2	0	200	100	140	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,300	300,000		
2566	do	Girls' High School	Calvin Patterson	9	70	0	2047	0	17	0	45	0	75	0	230	0	15	0	0	0	2,000	500,000		
2567	Buffalo	High School	F. A. Vogt	9	37	746	999	0	0	60	19	53	96	29	11	0	0	0	0	0	3,438	215,252		
2568	Cambridge	Union School	Chas. Perrine	2	1	20	42	0	0	3	4	2	5	13	2	3	3	145	202	3	500	15,000		
2569	Camden	High School	D. D. Van Allen, M. A.	1	2	33	81	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	3	3	3	125	235	4	50	1,500		
2570	Campbell	Union School	Minnie Newell	0	2	54	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	30	4	1,117	35,000		
2571	Canajoharie	do	S. McK. Smith	2	3	54	54	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	184	204	4	3,105	100,000		
2572	Canaseraga	do	J. C. Norris	1	2	73	91	0	0	0	5	6	25	30	1	16	1	7	400	471	4	600	24,300	
2573	Canastota	do	Henry E. Adams	1	2	11	19	0	0	0	3	4	5	2	0	0	0	81	83	3	1,250	13,325		
2574	Candor	do	Geo. H. Offitway	1	3	41	55	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	260	280	4	621	9,000		
2575	Canton	Academy	C. G. Sanford	1	1	29	42	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	103	98	3	600	35,000		
2576	Carthage	Union School	Arthur E. Chase	1	3	67	83	0	0	12	8	16	23	6	5	4	4	236	183	3	1,200	35,000		
2577	Castile	High School	M. F. Perry	1	2	30	40	0	0	3	5	5	5	2	5	0	0	89	92	3	407	6,500		
2578	Catskill	Union High School	Geo. H. Strittton	1	2	38	44	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	232	232	3	545	31,700		
2579	Catskill	Free Academy	Mabel Doolittle	2	3	48	66	1	0	0	2	3	2	0	11	0	2	69	79	3	500	6,200		
2580	Central Square	Union High School	C. O. Du Bois	1	1	14	21	0	0	1	0	4	0	2	4	0	0	96	147	4	1,080	18,894		
2581	Charlotte	do	Edw. J. Manly	1	1	14	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	146	149	3	1,080	18,894		
2582	Chateaugay	Academy	Edw. L. Stevens	1	2	28	61	0	0	2	4	3	5	2	4	3	5	2	4	164	175	3	2,348	46,900
2583	Chatham	Academy and High School	Frank H. Wood	1	4	48	73	0	0	1	3	0	10	5	4	6	2	4	164	175	3	2,348	46,900	
2584	Chester	Union High School	N. P. Wilson	1	2	59	62	0	0	2	2	4	1	1	4	1	2	115	141	4	1,342	22,000		
2585	Chittenango	Yates Academy and High School	F. M. Avery	1	2	33	43	0	0	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	114	102	4	2,745	11,350		
2586	Churchville	Union High School	N. Lee	1	1	8	9	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	72	78	4	300	6,000		
2587	Clarence	Parker Union High School	Geo. A. Bolles, A. B.	1	1	7	12	0	0	2	5	10	5	4	3	4	0	150	200	4	1,500	10,000		
2588	Clayville	Union High School	E. E. Edgerton	1	1	8	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	45	53	4	531	8,500		
2589	Clyton	Academy and Union High School	W. S. Knowlson	2	2	34	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	217	176	4	1,200	37,926		
2590	Clyde	Union High School	A. B. Bishop	1	2	55	60	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	56	0	1,726	37,016		
2591	Clymer	do	J. N. Gillies	1	1	12	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	200	216	4	500	30,000		
2592	Cobleskill	High School	W. H. Ryan, Ph. B.	1	2	55	39	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	12	11	4	0	27	3	441	30,000		
2593	Coeymans	Egberts High School	Geo. M. Strout	1	1	7	13	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	6	15	3	1	23	27	4	200	17,200	
2594	Copenhagen	Union High School	W. D. Johnson	1	3	40	52	0	0	4	10	10	4	0	10	10	4	0	172	175	4	3,317	29,311	
2595	Copenhagen	do	F. A. Walker	1	1	37	46	0	0	0	5	0	1	1	1	1	1	30	53	4	701	5,235		
2596	Corinth	do	A. M. Hollister	1	1	8	14	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	155	146	4	450	30,600		
2597	Corning	Academy	Leigh R. Hunt	1	1	37	67	0	0	2	2	2	0	2	2	8	2	743	725	4	1,340	70,000		
2598	Cornwall on the Hudson	Union High School	N. B. Chase	1	1	6	15	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	189	182	3	200	10,000		
2599	Coxsackie	Academy and Union High School	G. W. Fairgrieve, A. M.	1	1	19	20	0	0	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	186	198	4	657	4,500		
2600	Crown Point	Union High School	E. C. Race	1	1	12	18	1	1	0	0	8	16	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	4	23	479	6,450

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Secondary instructors.		Students in secondary grade.		Colored secondary students included.		Preparing for college.				Graduates in 1895.		College preparatory students in graduating class.		Students below secondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Students in military tactics.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, buildings, furniture, and scientific apparatus.	
			Male.	Female.	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18					19
NEW YORK—cont'd.																							
2601	Cuba																						
2602	Danville	J. E. Dewey	1	2	65	80	0	0	5	10	0	0	0	5	14	2	3	130	135	4	430	\$16,000	
2603	Delevan	W. G. Carner	1	3	45	66	0	0	1	0	10	7	3	3	3	3	3	194	182	4	150	30,630	
2604	Deposit	Ira P. Trevett	1	10	14	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	70	71	3	350	10,200	
2605	De Ruyter	S. G. Patterson	1	2	32	35	0	0	10	4	6	5	7	7	7	0	0	208	236	3	1,651	15,000	
2606	Dolgeville	Geo. W. Lang	1	1	40	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	1	0	0	50	75	3	350	5,000	
2607	Dryden	A. W. Smith	1	1	7	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	0	0	1,800	18,000	
		W. V. Flaherty	1	1	26	31	0	0	2	0	2	0	3	2	0	0	0	80	89	3	1,000	8,150	
2608	Dundee	F. H. Hansner	2	1	26	34	0	0	1	3	5	7	4	11	0	0	0	81	96	4	800	12,000	
2609	Dunkirk	J. E. Massee	2	3	29	60	0	0	1	0	4	5	1	5	1	0	0	52	81	4	598	26,000	
2610	Earlville	Mando E. Ansdadel	0	3	22	40	0	0	3	3	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	900	10,000	
2611	East Bloomfield	D. B. Williams, A. M.	1	2	10	12	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35	50	4	900	4,150	
2612	East Pembroke	H. I. Barber	1	1	12	5	0	0	2	0	0	1	2	2	1	1	0	281	277	4	1,200	53,500	
2613	East Syracuse	E. H. Chase, Ph. B.	2	1	18	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	7	1	7	0	65	75	4	620	5,000	
2614	Elizabethtown	S. F. Herron	1	1	6	13	0	0	2	0	5	7	4	7	0	0	0	369	387	4	150	6,115	
2615	Ellenville	J. W. Chandler	1	3	20	46	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	750	17,710	
2616	Ellipticville	C. J. Melrose	1	1	11	21	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	3	3	0	53	66	3	450	500	
2617	Ellington	E. W. Storms	0	2	25	28	0	0	2	3	0	0	4	9	2	3	0	0	0	4	2	450	500
2618	Elmira	Herbert M. Lovell	1	8	150	175	1	0	0	0	0	0	24	21	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	80,000	
2619	Essex	B. C. Miner	1	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	46	35	3	100	2,500	
2620	Fair Haven	G. A. Jacobs	1	2	25	26	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	2	1	0	70	53	4	400	3,800	
2621	Fairport	E. G. Frazil	1	2	41	62	0	0	7	8	3	6	3	10	0	0	0	210	290	3	673	43,000	
2622	Falconer	J. S. Wright	2	0	11	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	74	97	4	240	15,500	
2623	Fishkill	Edw. B. Du Mond	1	1	12	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	0	0	56	67	2	325	10,020	
2624	Florida	A. J. Clough	1	2	13	23	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	730	16,300	
2625	Flushing	L. J. Chickering (supt.)	2	5	39	45	2	1	1	1	0	3	5	0	1	0	0	20	25	4	2,000	
2626	Fonda	C. A. Coons	1	1	9	21	0	0	2	1	0	0	3	5	0	0	0	143	156	3	987	18,521	
2627	Forestville	A. C. Anderson	1	2	56	63	0	0	0	0	0	25	30	5	1	4	1	83	73	5	950	10,000	

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

1959

2628	Toot Edward	Union High School	1	2	30	35	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	240	230	4	1,300	23,000
2629	Fort Plain	do	1	2	14	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	223	219	3	674	22,926
2630	Frewsburg	do	2	2	45	42	0	0	4	5	1	0	4	5	1	0	0	473	180	4	230	8,000
2631	Friendship	do	3	2	35	80	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	1	4	0	0	55	183	4	1,000	30,000
2632	Fulton	Academy and Union High School	1	6	33	50	0	0	0	12	8	5	11	1	1	0	0	483	730	4	2,100	60,000
2633	Gainesville	Union High School	1	1	23	46	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	115	28	3	264	4,000
2634	Geneva	Classical Union High School	2	4	62	110	0	1	25	18	10	12	5	9	5	4	0	596	572	4	62	4,134
2635	Gilbertville	Union High School	1	1	7	15	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	73	85	3	800	12,000
2636	Glens Falls	do	1	7	51	78	0	0	2	7	13	7	16	1	3	0	0	562	664	3	200	25,000
2637	Gloversville	do	1	6	90	126	0	0	11	6	2	9	23	3	4	1	326	1,431	4	673	29,581	
2638	Gouverneur	do	2	3	62	61	0	0	0	3	2	1	4	1	2	0	0	450	450	4	600	56,000
2639	Gowanda	Academy and Union High School	1	2	50	69	0	0	0	0	10	5	9	9	4	3	0	130	160	4	750
2640	Granville	Academy and Union High School	1	2	30	40	0	0	7	0	6	5	4	9	4	0	0	176	314	4	500	25,000
2641	Greene	do	1	1	35	33	0	0	2	2	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	100	104	4	1,300	8,400
2642	Greenport	Union High School	1	2	20	33	0	0	0	1	5	2	4	1	2	0	0	219	203	4	1,076	22,725
2643	Greenwich	do	1	2	38	41	0	0	8	2	0	0	6	2	0	0	0	210	260	4	1,600	10,000
2644	Groton	do	1	2	38	42	0	0	3	1	8	3	4	4	2	2	0	125	125	4	1,104	25,000
2645	Hamilton	Academy and Union High School	3	2	50	90	1	2	75	210	5	13,000	
2646	Hammond	Graded School	0	2	21	21	0	35	3	300	
2647	Hammondsport	Union High School	1	1	30	21	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	1	0	0	107	102	4	562	14,500
2648	Hancock	Academy and Union High School	1	2	22	41	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	7	0	0	0	111	121	3	385	6,000
2649	Haverstraw	High School	1	5	26	39	0	0	304	326	3	650	40,000	
2650	Hempstead	do	1	2	23	32	0	0	1	3	1	1	5	4	0	0	0	287	308	3	1,250	50,000
2651	Herkimer	Union High School	1	3	23	45	0	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	327	430	4	300	26,000
2652	Highland	do	1	1	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	88	4	576	4,000
2653	Highland Falls	do	1	2	18	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	6	0	0	0	237	178	3	295	25,000
2654	Hobart	Academy and Union High School	1	1	15	20	0	0	3	1	0	0	4	5	0	0	0	70	70	4	325	5,000
2655	Hocausport	Academy	1	3	54	12	0	0	3	2	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	102	190	4	598	15,675
2656	Holland Patent	Union High School	1	1	8	10	0	0	0	1	6	3	9	8	0	4	0	50	32	5	1,000	10,150
2657	Holley	do	1	1	15	21	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	176	180	4
2658	Homer	Academy and Union High School	2	2	40	80	0	0	0	2	4	0	2	8	2	2	0	210	217	4	2,000	42,525
2659	Honoyac	Union High School	1	1	20	16	0	0	0	3	3	1	1	0	1	0	39	40	4	300	5,800
2660	Hoosic Falls	do	3	2	50	50	0	0	450	400	4	
2661	Hornellsville	Academy	1	2	20	265	2	0	2	3	4	8	10	2	2	3	0	746	755	4	1,669	38,132
2662	Horseheads	Union High School	1	2	29	67	0	0	0	2	3	0	4	1	5	1	0	145	131	4	600	25,000
2663	Howard	do	1	1	17	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	22	3
2664	Hudson	do	1	2	36	34	0	0	1	0	4	4	7	4	1	0	0	3	4,650	35,000
2665	Huntington	High School	2	3	43	49	0	1	6	3	2	0	3	11	2	0	0	250	258	4	1,100	40,000
2666	Ilion	Academy and Union High School	1	4	62	81	0	0	335	293	4	300	8,000	
2667	Islip	Union High School	1	1	17	20	0	0	0	0	0	5	7	0	0	0	0	130	140	4	371	16,500
2668	Ithaca	do	3	7	92	90	1	1	1,683	1,708	4	40	3,681	
2669	Jamestown	do	3	14	120	185	2	2	4	9	12	30	17	38	3	5	0	1,683	1,708	4	40	3,681

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.		Name of principal.		Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stan-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar- ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-para-tory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stan-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Students in military tac-tics.	Vol-umes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.
	1	2	3	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
NEW YORK—cont'd.																								
2744	Port Byron.....	Academy.....	Wm. I. Harris, A. B.	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24,490
2745	Port Chester.....	Union High School.....	J. C. Rockwell.....	1	2	16	22	0	0	0	0	4	6	1	5	1	0	155	126	3	1,000	\$12,490	
2746	Port Henry.....	do.....	P. F. Barke.....	1	2	16	22	0	0	0	2	3	4	2	6	1	2	479	444	3	80,000	
2747	Port Jervis.....	do.....	J. M. Dolph.....	1	4	67	121	2	1	4	6	7	10	1	9	1	4	130	150	3	476	19,328	
2748	Port Leyden.....	do.....	Henry Grubel.....	1	1	18	17	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	889	895	3	7,000	30,000	
2749	Port Richmond.....	do.....	Miss S. E. Eldridge.....	0	2	28	37	0	0	3	2	0	0	2	5	0	2	77	69	4	547	6,110	
2750	Poughkeepsie.....	High School.....	Jas. Winne.....	3	7	83	151	0	2	7	18	13	23	9	22	3	4	266	339	2	950	50,000	
2751	Prattsburg.....	Franklin Academy and Union High School.....	C. B. Miller.....	1	1	5	11	0	0	2	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	96	92	3	1,000	10,000	
2752	Red Creek.....	Seminary and Union High School.....	Albert D. Whitney.....	1	1	18	24	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	6	0	1	62	100	4	250	3,000	
2753	Red Hook.....	High School.....	D. C. Lehman.....	1	0	13	21	0	0	3	2	0	0	88	85	1	300	6,000	
2754	Rhinebeck.....	Union High School.....	T. S. Barnes.....	1	1	20	30	0	0	2	90	110	4	650	15,000	
2755	Rickfield Springs.....	do.....	J. A. Bassett.....	1	3	38	50	0	0	3	0	3	5	4	7	1	0	162	200	4	709	20,000	
2756	Ripley.....	do.....	F. M. Merriham.....	1	3	15	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	100	4	200	10,000	
2757	Rochester.....	do.....	J. G. Allen.....	5	23	370	542	0	0	12	21	3	5	0	0	4	2,285	15,500	
2758	Rome.....	Academy.....	W. E. Stearns.....	2	5	91	128	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	412	430	4	192	45,000	
2759	Rondout.....	Ulster Academy.....	Wm. E. Buntin.....	2	5	43	54	0	0	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	52	4	957	45,000	
2760	Rushford.....	Union High School.....	H. J. Walter.....	1	1	19	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	7	0	0	43	67	3	313	6,314	
2761	Rushville.....	do.....	E. J. Rowe.....	1	1	7	18	0	0	1	1	0	0	232	264	4	300	25,000	
2762	Sag Harbor.....	do.....	Jno. Jay Harrison.....	1	1	14	36	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	4	0	1	53	47	3	300	25,000	
2763	St. Johnsville.....	High School.....	F. X. Adams.....	1	2	30	29	0	0	2	2	15	6	7	5	4	2	130	178	4	611	5,432	
2764	St. Regis Falls.....	Union High School.....	Alex. McDonald.....	1	1	8	6	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	120	150	3	800	6,000	
2765	Salamanca.....	do.....	J. H. Carthey.....	2	2	49	76	0	0	3	0	0	0	5	8	1	0	324	320	4	1,300	44,000	
2766	Sandy Creek.....	High School.....	R. H. Snyder.....	1	3	44	39	0	0	3	1	12	8	4	3	2	1	91	84	4	800	25,000	
2767	Sandy Hill.....	Academy and Union High School.....	F. A. Tilt.....	1	4	61	112	0	0	1	0	12	12	4	13	3	5	4	1,100	20,100	
2768	Saratoga Springs.....	High School.....	H. H. Kendall.....	1	4	65	115	1	2	2	1	0	0	5	28	2	0	1,214	1,310	4	343	42,250	
2769	Saugerties.....	do.....	Fred N. Moulton.....	1	2	9	19	0	0	3	2	2	4	0	0	0	0	216	283	4	939	1,000	
2770	Savannah.....	Union High School.....	H. N. Tolman.....	1	1	23	26	0	0	2	3	0	0	67	79	4	540	8,000	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-u-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-u-ating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of ground, build-ings, furni-ture, and sch-olastic appar-at-us.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
NEW YORK—cont'd.																							
2818	Wellsville.....																						
2819	Westchester.....		1	2	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	4	0	310	285	2	4	1,000	\$26,000	
2820	Westfield.....	Academy and Union High School.	0	7	150	170	0	0	5	4	12	15	7	3	4	2	280	290	4	4	2,500	65,000	
2821	West Hebron.....	Union High School.	1	2	24	19	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	0	1	0	26	35	3	3	150	1,000	
2822	Westport.....	do	2	1	46	54	0	0	3	0	5	2	6	8	4	0	71	81	4	4	487	10,058	
2823	West Winfield.....	do	1	4	50	60	0	0	1	2	1	1	3	5	1	1	75	115	4	4	1,480	25,000	
2824	Whitehall.....	High School.	1	3	25	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	5	0	0	400	500	4	4	1,500	36,504	
2825	White Plains.....	Union High School.	1	3	24	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	41	31	3	3	300	8,000	
2826	Whiteboro.....	do	1	2	17	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	123	132	3	3	300	8,000	
2827	Whitney Point.....	Academy and Union High School.	1	1	28	33	0	0	0	0	1	1	4	3	1	0	81	78	4	4	345	10,000	
2828	Wilson.....	Union High School.	1	2	61	64	0	0	3	1	0	0	3	10	3	1	139	119	4	4	754	11,000	
2829	Windsor.....	Academy and Union High School.	1	1	30	45	0	0	2	0	1	0	7	4	3	0	90	88	4	4	700	8,175	
2830	Wolcott.....	Leavenworth Institute and Union High School.	0	6	24	35	0	0	2	0	8	6	3	4	2	1	140	151	3	3	250	900	
2831	Woodhull.....	Union High School.	0	1	23	25	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	47	54	3	3	80	3,400	
2832	Worcester.....	Academy and Union High School.	1	3	30	35	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	60	75	4	4	530	15,000	
2833	Wyoming.....	Middlebury Academy.	1	1	10	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	0	0	45	51	4	4	1,260	3,500	
2834	Yonkers.....	High School.	4	5	95	110	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	13	0	0	0	0	0	95	10,000	125,000	
NORTH CAROLINA.																							
2835	Ashboro.....	High School.	1	3	9	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	76	83	3	3	0	2,000	
2836	Concord.....	do	0	8	25	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	14	4	3	172	204	3	3	0	8,000	
2837	Durham.....	do	0	8	83	146	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	11	6	11	200	235	4	4	2,012	27,500	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary tac-tics.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific appar-at-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
OHIO—continued.																						
2881	Athens	Miss Kate Bord	1	2	23	53	1	4					2	10			305	265	4		300	\$20,000
2882	Africa	J. E. Ciekerman	1	1	9	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	75	83	3		300	10,000
2883	Award	A. D. Knapp	1	1	10	17	0	0					2	1	1	140	138	3		100		
2884	Bainbridge	C. K. Smith	1	0	12	18	1	2					0	1		100	120	4		137	18,000	
2885	Barberton	G. M. Korns	2	1	22	14	0	0	19	2	3	2				260	291	4		450	30,000	
2886	Barnesville	W. C. Dowers	2	1	32	43	1	1					5	6	2	343	410	3		125	2,000	
2887	Bartlett	E. N. Walker	1	1	18	17													3		402	4,000
2888	Bellbrook	W. A. Smith	1	1	10	7							4			42	58	2				
2889	Belle Center	D. O. Dean	3	1	18	18	0	0	2	2			2	5		124	92	2				
2890	Bellefontaine	Henry A. Cassidy	1	1	30	51	1	1	0	2	1	0	6	7		507	463	4		150		
2891	Belleville	W. S. Lynch	2	3	37	17							0	0		130	112	4				
2892	Bellevue	H. C. Bates	1	3	23	60							3	11	2	280	280	3		800	5,000	
2893	Belpre	C. E. Githens	1	1	10	12			9	10	1	2				110	113	3		600	12,000	
2894	Berea	D. C. Meek	1	1	25	28	0	0	5	3	4	0				175	197	3		600		
2895	Berlin	W. F. Garver	1	1	8	6							0	0		10	8	3		100	1,000	
2896	Berne	C. L. Lowe	1	1	5	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	34	3			3,000	
2897	Blanchester	J. L. Cadwallader	1	2	20	22	0	0	4	5	0	4	0	0	0	160	170	3			10,000	
2898	Bloomington	A. M. Farlow	1	1	12	20			1	10			3		1	92	75	3			2,500	
2899	Bloomville	O. J. Cory	1	1	3	7							3			101	70	4			250	3,000
2900	Blue Creek	Harry S. Stevenson	1	1	11	5												4				
2901	Bluffton	A. B. Kibler	1	1	14	12							3	7		155	169	3		250	15,000	
2902	Bolivar	I. C. Kulaea	1	0	7	10							5			80	50	3			10,000	
2903	Bourneville	F. B. Kirkendall	1	0	8	9	1	0		2	1		2	1	2	0	8	3		0		
2904	Bowling Green	A. B. Wrigate	1	1	10	11							2	1	1	60	57	3		12	7,000	
2905	Bowersville	Frank P. Snyrs	1	0	13	15	0	1		3	2	0	2	0	0	67	60	3		40	1,200	
2906	Bowling Green	Mrs. E. E. Barton	2	2	46	72	0	0		3	0		3	0		422	456	4		152	5,500	
2907	Bradford	H. L. Yount	1	1	10	8	0	0		1	0		0	8		213	162	4		50	23,000	
2908	Brecksville	J. F. Smith	1	1	26	16	0	0		4	3		4	3	2	93	86	4		300	2,000	

2986	Fort Recovery	Thos. W. Shimp	1	18	24	4	2	6	4	1	3	112	113	4	300
2987	Frankfort	J. C. Boldt	1	12	10	4	2	6	4	0	0	96	83	4	8,000
2988	Frederickburg	W. H. Webb	1	10	19	0	0	0	0	2	0	65	75	4	11,000
2989	Fredericktown	W. F. Algire	1	0	24	0	0	0	0	3	0	86	75	4	18,000
2990	Freeport	B. W. Rowland	1	14	22	0	8	12	7	1	7	6	8	4	4,000
2991	Fremont	W. D. Ross	2	2	67	0	0	0	0	6	25	43	43	4	10,000
2992	Galena	E. W. Van Fleet	1	28	17	0	0	0	0	1	3	50	50	3	5,000
2993	Gallatin	I. C. Guinther	2	0	36	52	40	40	20	20	8	602	578	3	100,000
2994	Gallipolis	T. W. Karr	1	1	70	65	40	40	7	1	3	0	0	4	2,000
2995	Gambier	M. T. C. Wing	1	2	16	12	1	1	2	1	1	82	84	3	10,000
2996	Garfield	E. W. Morton	1	1	15	13	1	1	1	1	1	17	11	5	3,000
2997	Garrettsville	C. T. Northon	2	1	22	51	3	5	6	10	1	95	124	4	2,350
2998	Georgetown	Isaac Mitchell	2	0	30	25	0	4	1	2	0	130	150	3	12,000
2999	Germanstown	H. W. Mumma	1	3	23	17	0	0	0	6	3	283	254	3	31,000
3000	Girard	A. W. Kennedy	1	1	5	10	0	0	0	0	1	89	73	3	20,000
3001	Gnadenhutten	S. K. Mardis	1	11	26	26	5	10	5	10	3	89	73	3	15,000
3002	Good Hope	A. L. Murry	1	13	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	89	73	4	2,000
3003	Grafton	J. R. Walton	1	1	14	20	1	3	2	4	1	86	130	4	30,000
3004	Granville	Horace A. Stokes	1	2	31	43	1	3	3	2	7	140	132	3	35,000
3005	Greenfield	Laura C. McGarraugh	1	1	2	12	5	0	3	1	0	281	279	3	700
3006	Greenford	J. R. Campbell	1	0	32	25	1	0	0	3	5	0	0	3	5,000
3007	Greenwich	B. D. Myers	1	1	15	20	0	2	0	2	0	95	95	3	10,000
3008	Grove City	Albert C. Fries	1	7	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	72	88	3	3,000
3009	Groveport	J. A. Wilcox	1	3	28	31	4	5	4	3	1	78	69	3	200
3010	Hamden Junction	J. W. Jones	1	12	13	1	1	1	3	5	1	0	99	4	16
3011	Hamilton	W. P. Cope	3	3	86	139	1	2	0	7	28	56	71	4	8,000
3012	Hanging Rock	H. R. Long	1	0	12	9	0	0	0	2	1	56	67	4	65,000
3013	Hanover	W. E. Painter	1	0	13	11	0	0	0	4	0	56	67	4	8,000
3014	Hanvorton	E. E. Babcock	1	0	10	16	0	0	0	0	0	30	26	3	4,000
3015	Harrison	E. E. Ellis	1	3	31	33	0	0	0	3	3	133	137	3	8,000
3016	Harrisville	W. L. Hughes	1	0	10	11	2	1	0	0	0	49	38	4	17,000
3017	Hartford	W. C. Ledingswell	1	1	30	19	1	1	1	1	1	20	25	3	8,000
3018	Hartsville	H. A. Myers	1	1	30	15	0	16	17	2	3	25	15	3	8,000
3019	Hartwell	J. L. Trisler	1	2	33	39	0	19	17	2	2	236	212	4	5,000
3020	Hebron	F. E. Slabaugh	2	2	35	36	1	0	3	2	10	55	44	4	5,000
3021	Hicksville	W. A. Salter	2	2	18	42	2	10	15	2	7	55	44	4	10,000
3022	Higginsport	A. F. Waters	1	1	16	20	1	1	1	2	2	104	96	4	200
3023	Highland	D. S. Ferguson	1	14	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	29	4	5,000
3024	Hilliards	H. E. Axline	1	1	21	22	0	0	7	9	3	67	78	4	10,000
3025	Hillsboro	E. J. Smith	3	3	29	38	0	1	0	6	5	391	400	4	1,300
3026	Holgate	W. H. Richardson	1	21	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	182	122	3	15,000
3027	Homer	F. P. Housholder	1	1	12	12	0	3	4	0	1	0	28	4	100
3028	Hubbard	L. T. McCartney	2	2	32	38	1	1	1	1	1	250	250	3	610
3029	Huron	B. B. Hall	2	0	38	55	0	0	0	0	0	191	168	3	200
3030	Iberia	D. E. Block	1	14	13	1	1	0	0	2	4	92	39	3	5,000
3031	Independence	Zeno I. Griner	1	0	6	9	0	0	0	0	0	22	8	4	130
3032	Jackson	Jno. R. Smith	2	27	61	0	3	0	0	2	11	107	107	4	300
3033	Jamestown	M. J. Flannery	1	13	37	2	0	0	0	3	8	121	107	3	18,000
3034	Jersey	Frank Elzey	1	1	22	31	0	0	0	0	0	15	34	6	2,000

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stu-dents in gradu-ating class.		Students below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Students in military fac-ties.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sch-olastic apparatus.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
			1	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
OHIO—continued.																							
30325	Jewett.....	High School.....	1	1	17	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	75	73	3	50	50	\$5,100
30326	Johnstown.....	do.....	1	1	15	14	0	0	0	4	2	3	3	3	5	0	0	60	65	3	300	300	10,000
30327	Junction City.....	do.....	1	1	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	78	95	4	3	3	3,000
30328	Kalida.....	do.....	1	1	56	64	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	96	104	3	125	125	8,000
30329	Kelly's Island.....	do.....	1	1	9	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	91	106	3	0	0	5,200
30400	Kings Creek.....	do.....	1	1	0	12	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	91	106	3	0	0	6,200
30401	Kingston.....	do.....	1	1	0	26	21	0	0	5	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	80	4	0	0	15,000
30402	Kingsville.....	do.....	0	4	50	40	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	43	56	4	615	615	10,000
30403	Kinsman.....	do.....	1	1	13	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	28	4	0	0	5,000
30404	Kipton.....	do.....	1	1	6	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	52	4	0	0	5,000
30405	Lakeside.....	do.....	1	1	12	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	219	217	2	100	100	20,000
30406	Lancaster.....	Crawds Institute.....	2	2	26	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	219	217	2	100	100	50,000
30407	Lebanon.....	High School.....	2	2	0	22	35	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	219	217	2	100	100	30,000
30408	Lees Creek.....	Wayne Township High School.....	1	1	21	10	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	219	217	4	10	10	3,500
30409	Leetonia.....	High School.....	1	1	20	22	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	237	237	4	0	0	65,000
30500	Leipsic.....	do.....	1	1	14	9	0	0	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	158	138	3	100	100	1,500
30501	Lewisburg.....	do.....	1	1	9	10	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	51	63	4	100	100	3,500
30502	Lexington.....	do.....	0	2	20	18	0	0	0	12	16	2	0	0	0	0	49	34	4	0	0	10,000	
30503	Lima.....	do.....	0	3	59	106	1	2	1	5	5	6	23	1	1	1	376	1,559	4	200	200	15,000	
30504	Lisbon.....	do.....	2	1	20	35	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	4	0	0	320	325	4	600	600	20,000	
30505	Litchfield.....	do.....	2	1	4	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	62	4	60	60	0	
30506	Lithopolis.....	Centralized High School.....	1	1	4	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	45	44	4	40	40	5,000	
30507	Lockington.....	High School.....	1	1	0	27	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	43	32	4	90	90	3,000	
30508	Lockland.....	do.....	1	1	3	28	16	2	2	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	233	220	4	125	125	35,000	
30509	Loeust Corner.....	Pierce Township High School.....	1	1	0	13	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	0
30600	Lodi.....	do.....	1	1	25	35	0	0	0	2	4	5	3	3	3	3	2	95	79	3	1,150	1,150	25,000
30601	Logan.....	High School.....	3	1	47	64	0	0	0	2	4	5	3	6	7	4	358	340	4	450	450	40,000	
30602	London.....	Lafayette High School.....	1	1	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	110	117	3	0	0	5,000	

3063	Lorain.....	High School	Elizabeth N. McCon- nell.	1	4	41	60	3	3	3	7	10	3	4	250	55,000		
3064	Loudonville	do	J. W. Scott	1	3	40	47				6	12	2	4	425	30,000		
3065	Louisville	do	Lewellyn O. Eldredge	1	1	10	14	0	0		4	4		90	37	16,500		
3066	Loveland	do	O. M. Patton	1	0	6	16	0	0	3	10	2	2	104	89	15,500		
3067	Lowellville	do	H. H. Bower	1	1	14	15			2	3			69	72	4,000		
3068	Loyal Oak	Norton Township High School.	U. F. Hourtel	1	0	26	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	147	139	3,000		
3069	Lucas	High School	A. L. Frechafer	1	0	18	20	0	0		3	4	0	52	48	5,000		
3070	Lynchburg	do	Henry G. Williams	2	0	45	34	0	0	2	1	4	3	80	83	4,420		
3071	McArthur	do	M. A. Henson	1	2	8	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	90	94	30,600		
3072	McComb	do	C. M. Milroy	2	19	21	0	0	0		2	5	0	110	129	30,165,000		
3073	McCornelsville	do	Geo. P. Deshler	1	2	18	23	0	0		3	4	1	159	149	5,000		
3074	Madison	do	F. P. Wheeler	1	1	32	22	0	0	6	2	0	2	91	86	4,2,500		
3075	Machensburg	do	H. N. Kimball	1	1	30	32	0	0	3	2	3	3	48	50	10,400		
3076	Malvern	do	J. E. Finetrock	1	0	20	15	0	0	3	2	1	7	65	75	30,14,000		
3077	Manuta Station	do	Virgil Mills	1	3	12	24	0	0	0	12	13	3	33	37	3,500		
3078	Marango	do	E. W. Green	0	2	12	13	0	0		1	13	0	0	0	500		
3079	Marietta	do	Harvey E. Smith	3	3	21	15	0	3				3	2	45	50	6,000	
3080	Marlboro	do	A. Y. Taylor	1	1	20	25	0	0		12	15	4	3	2	42	42	4,000
3081	Marshallville	do	R. A. Leisy	3	1	36	23	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	42	42	300	
3082	Martins Ferry	do	R. A. Blackford	3	1	40	71	1	3		5	2	1	0	52	48	20,3,000	
3083	Martinsville	do	R. B. Farley	2	1	23	18	0	2	2	3	4	0	297	317	3,200		
3084	Marysville	do	L. B. Penorest	2	1	29	54	1	1		6	16		102	93	10,30,000		
3085	Maumee	do	F. W. Latham	1	8	30	49	1	3	1	2	10	15	7	9	4	3,178	
3086	Mechanicsburg	do	J. M. Mailford	3	2	48	65	0	0	7	2	18	19	14	14	3	4,244	
3087	Medina	do	Francis E. Thompson	3	2	48	65	0	0	7	2	18	19	14	14	3	4,244	
3088	Mentor	do	R. H. Patchin	3	2	48	65	0	0	7	2	18	19	14	14	3	4,244	
3089	Merxer	do	H. F. Hooper	1	1	9	9			9	7			36	56	4,10,000		
3090	Mesopotamia	Pleasant View Institute.	H. F. Hooper	1	1	9	9							89	93	4,8,000		
3091	Middleport	High School	F. E. Hyde	1	1	16	17	0	0	2	1	2	1	28	42	4,7,000		
3092	Middleport	do	H. F. Ireland	1	1	10	6	0	0	0	1	4	6	1	28	42	3,000	
3093	Middletown	do	W. P. Stewart	2	1	16	24							48	45	100		
3094	Middletown	do	J. S. Miller	1	3	38	45				5	9	0	65	67	150		
3095	Milam	do	W. G. Sarogreg	1	1	28	21	0	0	7	3	3	3	70	92	300		
3096	Milford	do	Geo. W. Vidlam	1	0	34	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	141	149	18,000		
3097	Milford Center	do	W. H. Sidebottom	1	1	44	53				2	6	0	194	207	15,000		
3098	Milbury	do	E. E. Calkins	1	1	17	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	57	200		
3099	Minerabridge	do	C. W. Harshman	1	2	14	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	69	63	150		
3100	Minerva	do	O. W. Kurtz	2	0	15	30	0	0	2	3	3	0	115	107	1,000		
3101	Mogadore	do	A. A. Rothrock	1	1	8	9	0	0	2	2	2	3	34	39	1,800		
3102	Monroe	do	W. L. Smith	1	0	12	13	0	0	2	3	1	1	125	175	30,000		
3103	Monroeville	do	W. H. Mitchell	6	6	25	26			2	3	1	1	125	175	30,000		
3104	Montpelier	do	Harvey D. Grindle	2	0	10	17	0	0	3	5	2	3	210	164	100		
3105	Morning Sun	do	E. M. Parrett	1	0	12	70	0	0	0	1	3	1	25	21	1,200		
3106	Morrisstown	do	E. F. Barnes	1	1	0	20	0	0	0	1	3	0	25	21	3,275		
3107	Morrow	do	W. P. Vandervort	4	1	12	20	6	0	0	0	0	0	48	54	4,000		
3108	Moscow	do	U. L. Monce	1	0	14	12	0	0	0	1	0	0	84	63	0		
3109	Mount Carmel	do	D. S. Richards	1	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	40	5,000		
3110	Mount Eaton	do	Lee E. Messner	1	0	29	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	43	3,500		
3111	Mount Gilead	do	M. W. Spear	2	1	24	20	0	0					154	158	590		
3112	Mount Pleasant	do	Wm. M. White	2	2	28	40				5	10		80	68	10,000		

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of founds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sch-ematic apparat-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
OHIO—continued.																						
3113	Mount Vernon.....	Jno. K. Baxter.....	2	3	84	111	1	5	5	8	15	14	9	18	4	8	87	80	4	200	\$7,000
3114	Mount Victory.....	J. Edison Gordon.....	1	1	6	14	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	18	22	3	50	2,500
3115	Naakin.....	V. E. Rudy.....	1	1	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	260	275	4	150	45,000
3116	Napoleon.....	Emma Henderson.....	2	2	30	36	0	1	4	3	5	1	3	4	2	2	80	90	4	200	1,500
3117	Navarre.....	A. C. Baker.....	1	2	16	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	625	674	4	150	10,000
3118	Nelsonville.....	Miss M. Ella Moore.....	1	3	30	79	1	0	20	30	10	9	24	3	6	0	62	76	4	100	100	60,000
3119	Newark.....	E. E. Richards.....	1	5	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	0	249	239	3	80	8,800
3120	New Berlin.....	Jas. A. Syler.....	2	11	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	116	82	4	125	30,000
3121	New Bremen.....	Wm. Reeder.....	1	2	18	30	0	0	3	0	2	3	2	4	0	0	255	163	4	20	8,000
3122	New Carlisle.....	Jno. T. Duff.....	1	1	12	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	0	8	9	3	3	7,000
3123	New Comertown.....	Emma Herd.....	1	1	8	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	89	90	3	400	30,000
3124	New Dover.....	W. L. Rogers.....	1	6	20	24	0	0	2	3	4	6	2	3	198	224	3	100	400	30,000
3125	New Hampshire.....	Jas. C. Fowler.....	1	1	30	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	90	100	4	45	15,000
3126	New Lexington.....	C. C. Middleewart.....	2	1	13	24	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	150	12,000
3127	New Mariannas.....	Evan L. Thomas.....	3	2	41	56	0	0	3	6	0	0	7	14	3	2	626	576	4	1,000	20,000
3128	New Paris.....	W. H. Nicklas.....	1	0	4	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	55	50	3	0	16,000
3129	New Philadelphia.....	Mr. J. E. Prober.....	1	1	10	13	0	1	2	1	2	0	2	0	161	151	4	200	6,000
3130	Newtont.....	C. B. Bolenbaugh.....	1	1	9	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	240	385	3	400
3131	New Richmond.....	C. L. Williams.....	1	1	30	36	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	10	0	0	75	97	3	4,000
3132	New Stratonsville.....	L. E. York.....	2	1	21	18	0	0	5	7	2	1	4	5	3	3	165	106	3	50	12,000
3133	Newtown Falls.....	Florence B. McClure.....	1	1	21	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	100	100	4	200	20,000
3134	New Vienna.....	H. H. Frazier.....	0	2	35	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	4	2	0	538	539	4	589
3135	New Washington.....	Miss Lida Baldwin.....	0	2	18	48	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	5	0	0	180	170	4	125	35,000
3136	Niles.....	W. H. Schibley.....	2	1	19	28	0	0	1	0	3	9	0	0	263	280	4	150	27,000
3137	North Amherst.....	J. E. McFadden.....	2	1	13	44	0	1	0	2	6	0	4	0	44	42	2	300	3,000
3138	North Baltimore.....	B. D. Hirst.....	1	1	2	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	87	105	3	200	10,000
3139	North Bloomfield.....	Dane D. Bates.....	1	1	8	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	0	0	71	56	3	75
3140	North Lewisburg.....	C. M. L. Altkoerfer.....	1	1	13	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	8	10	3
3141	North Lima.....	Beaver Township High School.....	1	1	13	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	8	10	3

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stud-ents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-u-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stud-ents in grad-u-ating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary tac-tics.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of ground, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific appar-atus.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
OHIO—continued.																						
3272	Worthington	S. Herrick Layton	2	0	37	42	0	1	10	16	22	25	14	22	6	5	2	121	147	4	300	\$30,000
3273	Wilmington	Chas. S. Fay	1	2	80	115	26	90	2	0	22	26	14	22	6	5	2	661	710	3	500	30,000
3274	Xenia	G. J. Graham	2	5	126	201	0	2	20	25	10	0	14	24	7	8	0	600	600	4	500	20,000
3275	Youngstown	Geo. F. Jewett	3	5	126	201	0	2	20	25	10	0	14	24	7	8	0	600	600	4	500	20,000
3276	Zanesville	W. J. Beverly	1	3	14	16	0	0	2	2	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	83	87	3	77	8,000
3277	Zanesville	R. G. Jones	1	0	14	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	48	43	3	50	4,000
3278	Zanesville	W. M. Townsend	2	6	124	193	4	12	16	24	7	1	16	24	7	1	1,701	1,635	4	200
OKLAHOMA.																						
3279	Guthrie	L. W. Baxter	2	1	18	43	0	0	9	11	2	4	2	4	2	4	15	29	3	200	15,000	
3280	Oklahoma City	Mrs. S. J. Douglas	1	2	32	38	0	0	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	392	408	4	200	300	
3281	Perry	A. E. Robinson	1	1	8	12	1	1	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	42	50,000	
OREGON.																						
3282	Ashland	C. A. Hitchcock	1	1	38	46	0	0	0	0	2	2	4	8	1	1	0	0	50	
3283	Astoria	R. N. Wright	1	2	35	48	0	0	6	12	12	12	2	3	0	2	425	575	4	275	36,000	
3284	Dufur	Aaron Frazer	1	1	25	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	50	43	3	40	12,387	
3285	Heppner	A. W. Wier	1	1	31	42	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	3	114	126	3	130	20,000	
3286	Independence	T. A. Hayes	1	1	9	19	0	0	0	4	1	1	0	1	0	1	169	167	3	163	6,000	
3287	Jacksonville	J. M. Horton	1	1	13	21	0	0	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	72	82	2	25	20,000	
3288	Oregon City	S. W. Holmes	3	3	40	64	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	6	0	0	296	333	3	163	
3289	Union	E. B. Conklin	1	1	19	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	131	134	3	300	10,000	
PENNSYLVANIA.																						
3290	Abington	E. L. Flack	1	1	10	15	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	170	130	3	100	
3291	Alexandria	J. F. Meyer	1	0	9	11	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	51	53	4	100	
3292	Allentown	Jas. E. Morrow	7	8	161	245	3	4	12	7	27	41	14	31	14	31	12,122	2,500	3	800	50,000	
3293	Allentown	J. H. Schwartz	3	3	113	152	0	0	5	1	0	0	14	31	14	31	12,122	2,500	3	800	50,000	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.		Name of principal.		Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ry stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.		Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ities.		Vol-umes in lib-rary.		Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sel-	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23					
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.																												
3346	East Brady.....	High School.....	E. D. Baker.....	1	2	9	13	1	0	20	15	3	2	7	105	136	3	1,373	6,000	100,000								
3347	Easton.....dodo	Enoch C. Lavers.....	7	2	90	159	1	0	0	0	0	22	43	0	0	4	1,373	6,000	100,000								
3348	East Stroudsburg.....dodo	J. J. Unger.....	2	1	11	14	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	4	150	25,000	25,000								
3349	Elizabethtown.....dodo	B. F. Heiges.....	1	1	35	46	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	85	97	3	105	4,000	4,000								
3350	Elk Lick.....do	Salisbury High School.....	Geo. J. Bralier.....	1	0	11	9	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	0	0	3	35	4,000	4,000								
3351	Emanus.....do	High School.....	H. L. Reber.....	1	1	8	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	79	80	13,500	13,500								
3352	Emleuton.....dodo	Irvin Passmore.....	1	1	6	8	0	0	6	8	2	7	2	109	117	2	350	10,000	10,000								
3353	Ephrata.....dodo	H. E. Gehman.....	1	1	29	19	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	222	208	3	152	10,000	10,000								
3354	Erie.....dodo	Jno. C. Diehl.....	6	6	161	330	2	1	8	1	18	42	2	0	0	4	400	14,000	14,000								
3355	Everett.....dodo	C. H. Bucher.....	1	0	21	33	0	0	1	4	0	6	2	1	0	175	125	7,000	7,000								
3356	Fleetwood.....dodo	D. B. Linderman.....	1	0	21	33	0	0	1	0	0	2	5	0	0	4	238	14,000	14,000								
3357	Franklin.....dodo	Chas. E. Lord.....	3	1	46	81	0	2	2	5	0	10	2	5	0	4	200	5,000	5,000								
3358	Greatbond.....dodo	M. W. Cargill.....	1	1	12	18	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	120	104	400	400								
3359	Greencastle.....dodo	Wm. D. Smiley.....	2	1	29	25	0	1	0	0	0	5	1	4	0	107	153	9,275	9,275								
3360	Greenville.....dodo	Frank H. Shaw.....	2	1	36	43	0	0	4	8	6	4	5	4	0	500	569	163,000	163,000								
3361	Greenville.....dodo	S. C. Humes.....	2	2	24	51	0	0	10	10	5	5	14	3	7	495	494	60,000	60,000								
3362	Hamburg.....dodo	E. M. Dapp.....	1	0	5	25	0	0	1	0	0	3	3	1	0	200	250	40,000	40,000								
3363	Hanover.....dodo	Geo. R. Prowell.....	2	1	40	31	0	0	20	10	1	4	8	3	3	410	400	50,000	50,000								
3364	Harrisburg.....dodo	S. G. Landon.....	7	14	289	384	12	15	25	12	93	109	19	39	1	2	1,000	134,000	134,000								
3365	Harboro.....dodo	H. A. Markley.....	1	1	10	10	0	0	3	1	1	3	3	0	68	62	3	15,000	15,000								
3366	Hawley.....dodo	Mark Cressy.....	2	0	11	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	9	184	185	3	400	8,000	8,000							
3367	Hazleton.....dodo	Louis P. Bierly.....	2	1	31	63	0	0	3	4	0	6	5	0	95	100	20,000	20,000									
3368	Hokendauqua.....dodo	M. P. Reagle.....	1	0	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	6	5	0	210	222	400	10,000	10,000								
3369	Holidaysburg.....dodo	Jno. K. Hamilton.....	2	1	40	35	0	10	0	0	0	4	10	2	9	834	773	700	50,000	50,000							
3370	Homesford.....dodo	Lydo P. Williams.....	1	4	28	75	1	1	7	50	4	2	9	2	0	4	120	130	400	12,000	12,000						
3371	Houtzdale.....dodo	J. L. Bucke.....	1	1	12	18	0	0	1	4	4	1	4	1	145	153	3	376	7,000	7,000							
3372	Hughesville.....dodo	J. G. Dundore.....	2	0	23	32	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	4	1	175	169	3	376	7,000	7,000						
3373	Hummelstown.....dodo	Z. T. Meixel.....	1	1	17	25	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	5	0	0	97	376	7,000	7,000							

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepar-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary tac-tics.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.																						
3424	New Castle	A. J. Eckles	2	2	65	78			10	4	23		3	8	3	2	1,200	1,400	4		600	\$18,000
3425	Newtown	C. J. Walter	1	12	27	0			0	0	0		2	3	0	0	89	112	3		75	23,000
3426	Norville	D. M. C. Gring	1	23	25	0			0	0	0		4	8	0	0	120	160	3			9,000
3427	Nicholson	Chas. F. Osborne	1	1	8	13																
3428	Graded High School	A. D. Eisenhower	2	6	109	142	1	4	5	0	0		14	21	4	4					5,529	
3429	High School	G. F. W. Mark	1	2	14	21	0	0	1	0	0		2	5	2	1					200	
3430	North East	Myron Geddes	1	2	13	21							2	4	4	3	215	260	2		200	
3431	Northumbertland	Lewis R. Harley	1	1	8	12							3	2	4	3	95	105	4		500	10,000
3432	North Wales	E. J. Turnbull	2	3	45	120	1	0	9	6	0		4	4	4	0					200	
3433	OH City	H. J. Wicke	1	3	15	20							3	2	0						45	
3434	Orbisonia	P. Z. Kramer	1	3	2								0	0	0							
3435	Packerton	J. P. Myers	1	4	56	56	5	9	4	1	2		0	0	0						10	7,000
3436	Parkesburg	Jacob H. Schroppe	1	1	16	23	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0						30	500
3437	Parryville	Wm. P. Messinger	2	2	26	17							4	6	0		256	406	3		500	8,000
3438	Pen Argyl	G. W. Lenker	1	0	20	17	0	0	0	0	0		3	1	0	1	77	90	4		0	2,000
3439	Penfield	J. Lee Campbell	1	0	17	20	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0		60	80	3		0	
3440	Petersburg	Wm. L. Sayre	16	0	366	0	5	0	0	0	25		0	0	22	0	0	0	0		500	75,000
3441	Philadelphia	John G. Wight	2	51	1518				25	25			480	0	0						1,000	55,000
3442	do	C. H. Henderson	17	0	340	0	6	0	0	0	25		65	0	22	0	0	0	0		0	
3443	do	H. F. Leister	3	1	35	51	0	0	2	0	0		10	17	2	0	493	504	3		800	64,500
3444	Phenixville	W. S. Corman	2	15	25								83	103	24	22	25	19	3		275	
3445	Pilew	C. B. Wood	15	21	539	754	5	5	19	6			4	0	0		590	687	0		2,639	250,000
3446	Pittsburg	Robert Shiel	1	2	17	35	0	0					2	0	2	0					100	50,000
3447	Pittston	I. A. Hekes	2	0	17	23	0	0					0	6	0						100	
3448	Plymouth	Ephraim Dietrich	1	2	19	15	0	0	2	1			0	2	0		48	58	4		150	10,000
3449	Portland	J. H. Rohrbach	5	2	124	137	0	0	10	5	5		0	11	30	3	5	4			2,500	
3450	Pottstown	S. A. Thurlow	2	2	130	80	0	0	10	3	10		0	14	27	4	0	0			1,000	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ry stu-dents in grad-uat-ing class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.																						
3501	Upland.....	G. L. McCracken.....	1	7	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	183	211	2	60	400	\$20,000
3502	Vanderbilt.....	H. S. Drumbauld.....	1	17	12	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	6	3	0	0	30	28	3	400	100	\$20,000
3503	Venango.....	Wm. O. Woodring.....	2	1	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	1,400	1,400	100,000
3504	Warren.....	S. R. Brown.....	2	6	93	153	0	0	5	12	20	10	6	11	0	0	0	0	4	1,400	1,400	100,000
3505	Watson-town.....	I. H. Mauser.....	2	30	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	175	182	4	100	20,000	18,000
3506	Wayne.....	Radnor High School.....	1	0	15	9	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	200	100	50,000
3507	Waynesboro.....	R. T. Adams.....	3	1	53	91	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	18	8	18	433	414	4	200	100	50,000
3508	Welshboro.....	A. F. Stauffer.....	1	2	50	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	3	3	1	275	275	3	80	35,000	140,000
3509	West Beth-lehem.....	C. T. Bender.....	4	2	55	57	2	12	9	7	6	3	4	11	4	2	566	637	4	1,000	1,400	24,000
3510	West New-ton.....	J. Frank Evans.....	1	1	14	26	0	0	2	0	0	0	6	9	0	0	225	275	2	637	24,000	155,000
3511	Wilkins-burg.....	W. T. Slater.....	1	1	22	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	9	0	0	570	575	2	0	500	60,000
3512	Williams-port.....	W. W. Kaldner.....	2	4	101	157	3	7	25	15	4	7	9	28	6	4	329	293	4	5,000	13,500	16,500
3513	Williamst-own.....	A. H. Gutberlet.....	2	0	21	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	10	0	0	182	107	4	75	16,500	40,000
3514	Wrightsville.....	E. U. Ammiller.....	2	1	20	28	0	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	173	225	3	100	40,000	10,000
3515	Wrightsville.....	W. H. French.....	3	2	23	35	0	0	3	6	0	4	10	15	0	0	1,400	1,400	4	500	500	10
3516	Wyoming.....	Osht.L. Jacobs.....	3	2	16	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	15	0	0	1,400	1,400	4	500	500	10
3517	York.....	P. N. Osborne.....	1	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	63	2	0	0	0
3518	Youngsville.....		1	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	63	2	0	0	0
RHODE ISLAND.																						
3519	Ashaway.....	Chas. W. Moore.....	1	1	14	14	0	0	0	5	7	0	2	6	1	1	75	75	3	30	75	10,000
3520	Anuburn.....	A. H. Keyes.....	2	1	11	31	0	0	2	7	1	0	2	6	1	1	6	12	4	0	0	0
3521	Barrington.....	El. F. Colwell.....	1	1	29	24	0	1	1	0	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	4	300	300	0
3522	Bristol.....	Arthur P. Johnson.....	1	2	29	31	0	1	0	1	2	1	5	5	0	0	0	0	4	300	300	0
3523	Central Falls.....	Wm. Overton.....	3	2	32	48	0	0	10	2	0	0	7	8	0	0	0	0	4	225	225	26,000
3524	Johnston.....	Frank A. Spratt.....	3	2	43	50	0	0	15	15	1	0	7	8	2	3	0	0	4	300	300	26,000
3525	Newport.....	F. C. Thompson.....	4	6	75	105	0	1	19	11	2	0	6	10	4	2	0	0	4	400	400	34,000
3526	Pawtucket.....	W. W. Curtis.....	5	5	134	149	0	0	39	56	0	0	15	20	6	12	0	0	4	630	630	0

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Col-lege pre-pa-ry stu-dents in grad-uat-ing class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary tac-tics.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.			
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
SOUTH DAKOTA— continued.																							
3573	Clark.....	Elmer P. Letcher.....	1	1	5	16	0	0	2	0	4	6	1	1	0	2	55	84	4	50
3674	Deadwood.....	Alex. Strachan.....	1	1	22	24	0	0	2	0	4	6	1	1	0	0	227	202	4	350
3575	Dell Rapids.....	L. E. Goodwin.....	1	1	8	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	92	116	3	200
3576	DeSmet.....	C. E. Swanson.....	1	0	10	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	79	78	2	135	
3577	Elk Point.....	H. R. Miller.....	1	1	19	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	150	150	4	50	
3578	Groton.....	S. C. Hartman.....	4	1	20	28	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	74	113	3	90	
3579	Hermosa.....	P. F. McMahon.....	1	0	10	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	85	30	3	9	
3580	Hot Springs.....	H. F. Kling.....	1	1	18	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	118	131	4	500	
3581	Howard.....	C. E. Holmes.....	2	3	36	30	0	0	21	12	0	0	0	0	0	64	48	3	400	
3582	Huron.....	Elia C. Veacbard.....	3	27	68	0	0	0	2	6	0	0	2	2	6	326	356	4	0	
3583	Lead.....	A. J. Kimmel.....	1	1	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	1	260	285	4	300	
3584	Madison.....	R. B. McClenon.....	1	1	18	23	0	0	5	3	3	1	0	0	0	228	248	4	150	
3585	Mitchell.....	E. J. Quigley.....	3	1	60	90	0	0	6	9	0	0	6	9	0	280	262	3	0	
3586	Onida.....	D. Q. Jordan.....	3	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	130	50	3	150	
3587	Pierre.....	H. E. French.....	1	2	14	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	12	10	4	0	
3588	Pankinton.....	F. H. Hoff.....	1	1	8	18	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	5	13	4	100	
3589	Rapid City.....	W. A. Ferguson.....	1	1	18	24	0	0	15	24	3	0	0	0	0	176	218	4	(*)	200	
3590	Redfield.....	C. W. Young.....	2	20	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	0	84	86	3	75	
3591	Vermilion.....	S. S. Lowmsley.....	1	1	7	16	0	0	7	16	5	13	5	13	5	150	231	1	200	
3592	Webster.....	H. J. Rock.....	1	1	13	23	0	0	3	4	0	0	2	2	0	108	88	1	12,000	
3593	Yankton.....	Miss Rose J. Ryan.....	1	2	20	24	0	0	8	6	4	2	1	2	0	328	372	3	0	
TENNESSEE.																							
3594	Adam Station.....	S. M. Cherry.....	1	1	10	10	0	0	2	2	0	0	1	1	0	46	43	3	0	
3595	Arlington.....	M. F. Leake.....	1	1	21	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	39	3	0	
3596	Asper Hill.....	E. I. Luma.....	1	0	18	14	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	28	27	0	
3597	Bluff City.....	John J. Wolford.....	1	0	38	29	0	0	12	8	0	0	3	2	3	74	70	4	0	
3598	Booneville.....	L. A. Reagor.....	1	18	12	12	0	0	8	6	4	2	0	0	1	40	32	0	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

3647	Oak Grove.....	1	2	3	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-u-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-u-ating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	20	21	22	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.		
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						Male.	Female.
TENNESSEE—cont'd.																											
3647	Oak Grove.....				1	1	35	33	0	0	1	3	5	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	32	3		75	\$000	
3648	Philadelphia.....				1	6	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	95	3		0	2,000	
3649	Pinson.....				1	14	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56	59	4		100	15,000	
3650	Pulaski.....				5	2	25	6	2	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	2	257	207	3		200			
3651	Ripley.....				1	1	31	37	3	6	2	2	1	4	1	2	102	149	3	102	149	3		100			
3652	Russellville.....				1	1	20	26	6	7	4	4	0	4	0	70	54	4	70	54	4		100	900			
3653	Rutherford.....				2	1	29	30	0	15	18	7	6	4	3	4	3	4	3	70	105	4		800	5,000		
3654	St. Elmo.....				1	0	9	6	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	149	122	3	0	4		0	4,000		
3655	Sale Creek.....				1	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	94	83	0	94	83	0		0	8,000		
3656	Sherman Heights.....				1	0	10	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	118	129	3	118	129	3		0	1,200		
3657	Spring City.....				1	10	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	64	72	0	64	72	0		0	1,000		
3658	Sunny Side.....				1	0	13	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	41	41	0	41	41	0		0	1,000		
3659	Talone.....				1	0	40	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	50	0	30	50	0		0	1,000		
3660	Tiptonville.....				1	8	9	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	42	41	2	42	41	2		0	1,500		
3661	Triamble.....				1	6	11	0	0	0	6	11	0	0	0	0	50	65	0	50	65	0		0	500		
3662	Tullahoma.....				1	4	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	16	0	0	116	144	2		40	10,000			
3663	Verona.....				1	6	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	40	0	39	40	0		0	7,000		
3664	Wartrace.....				1	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	85	93	5	85	93	5		0	5,000		
3665	Watango Valley.....				1	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	63	3	80	63	3		0	5,000		
3666	Watertown.....				1	33	37	0	0	7	8	10	5	3	0	0	57	47	3	57	47	3		250	5,000		
3667	Well Spring.....				3	23	7	0	0	10	5	0	0	0	0	107	83	3	107	83	3		100	5,000			
3668	Williston.....				1	10	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	25	0	20	25	0		0	500			

TEXAS.	High School.	1	10	30	50	2	6	210	380	3	150	18,000	
3669	Abilene.....	1	10	30	50	
3670	Alto.....	1	1	5	20	15	14	0	50	500	
3671	Alvin.....	1	1	15	20	100	90	0	50	4,000	
3672	Altuda.....	1	1	25	30	4	2	0	0	170	3	50	5,000	
3673	Atlanta.....	2	2	70	60	10	8	0	0	111	108	10,000	
3674	Austin.....	1	1	8	11	5	1	25	1,500	
3675	do.....	2	4	70	140	0	0	600	2,500	
3676	Colored High School.	1	1	20	32	2	1	15	29	2	2	1	174	12,000
3677	White High School.	1	1	10	28	1	3	1	2	10	132	7,500	
3678	Belleville.....	1	0	16	21	0	0	88	1,500	
3679	Bellton.....	2	0	25	41	0	0	3	200	
3680	Belton.....	1	0	19	33	19	33	323	15,000	
3681	Black Jack Grove.	1	2	48	52	5	8	3	4	5	2	1	85	1,500
3682	Blanco.....	1	2	25	35	5	3	6	3	0	3	0	64	3,000
3683	Blue Ridge.....	2	17	19	5	3	6	3	0	3	0	64	2,000
3684	Boonsville.....	1	1	31	40	1	1	1,500	
3685	Bowie.....	2	3	40	60	0	0	19,000	
3686	Bracketsville.....	2	1	12	25	0	5	6	3	3	75	85	4,000	
3687	Brady.....	1	0	18	9	0	2	5	4	0	0	350	1,500	
3688	Brazoria.....	1	2	42	46	0	2	1	1	3	3	2	2,500	
3689	Bromond.....	1	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	3,000	
3690	Bryan.....	2	2	20	47	4	7	4	4	5	9	1	14,000	
3691	Bryan.....	4	0	19	36	1	0	0	14	0	2	7	20,000	
3692	Burkeville.....	1	1	21	15	0	0	1,000	
3693	Burnet.....	1	1	21	35	1,500	
3694	Caddo Mills.....	1	0	17	0	0	2	3	2,500	
3695	Calvert.....	2	0	13	23	0	0	0	0	3	3	150	15,000	
3696	Cameron.....	3	0	36	44	0	0	0	3	5	207	220	35,000	
3697	Canton.....	1	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	130	2,000	
3698	Center Point.....	1	1	4	9	0	0	3,000	
3699	Chico.....	4	4	55	65	0	3	6	2	3	0	0	4,000	
3700	Childress.....	1	1	17	24	0	0	800	
3701	Chisholm.....	1	0	25	12	0	10	8	8	5	0	0	1,750	
3702	Clarendon.....	1	3	15	35	0	0	4,000	
3703	Cleburne.....	2	2	22	71	0	0	35,000	
3704	Cold Spring.....	1	6	10	0	0	0	1,000	
3705	Coleman.....	2	1	25	35	0	4	7,000	
3706	Comanche.....	3	2	81	69	0	0	27	19	30	17	5	21,000	
3707	Comanche.....	1	1	67	58	0	30	40	38	27	4,000	
3708	Compus Christi.....	2	1	20	24	2	5	1	4	102	200	2	7,000	
3709	Crockett.....	1	1	10	39	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	12,000	
3710	Guero.....	1	10	40	23,000	
3711	Gundif.....	1	0	7	0	0	1,000	
3712	Damersfield.....	1	1	23	24	0	0	65,000	
3713	Dallas.....	3	3	76	131	0	0	500	
3714	Denison.....	1	3	36	76	0	0	610	
3715	Dodd City.....	1	1	15	8	0	0	2	3	2,500	
										57	68	4	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
			4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
TEXAS—continued.																						
3716	Dublin	W. J. Clay	1	2	30	45											240	304	3		200	\$6,500
3717	Ennis	S. A. Horton	2	1	29	32	0	0	10	15	8	2	7	5	3	0	435	462	4		1,200	30,000
3718	Fairfield	Miram M. Evans	2	0	29	32	0	0	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	48	44	3		0	1,800
3719	Farmer	W. A. Davis	1	2	6	5												43			45	1,500
3720	Farmersville	U. G. Reed	1	2	23	31											193	200	4		200	2,000
3721	Fatonia	William Cullen	1	2	20	30	0	0					0	0			100	101	3		0	5,000
3722	Fort Worth	E. E. Bramlette	1	5	72	170	0	0					5	25			70	109	4		356	30,000
3723	Gainesville	Jno. F. Glasgow	3	2	15	16	0	0					6	16			653	844	4		188	1,800
3724	Galveston	J. R. Gibson	1	1	15	16	0	0					0	0			127	150	4		45	30,000
3725	Garrett	J. D. Coghlan	2	1	15	15	0	0					3	5			65	73	4		0	15,000
3726	Goldthwaite	D. S. Landis	1	1	10	20	0	0					2	0			95	90	4		300	25,150
3727	Goliad	W. B. Howard	1	1	5	10	0	0					3	8			102	108	1		0	12,000
3728	Gonzales	S. B. Foster	1	1	7	28	0	0					0	0			95	94	4		0	3,500
3729	Graham	H. Fowler	3	1	50	50	0	0					1	0			102	94	4		0	5,000
3730	Hallettsville	C. A. Peterson	1	1	16	13	0	0					0	0			79	86	3		0	5,000
3731	Haskell	W. W. Hentz	1	1	16	23	0	0					0	0			109	110	3		200	1,000
3732	Hearne	J. E. Cook	1	1	11	10	0	0					0	0			33	27	4		100	20,000
3733	Hemphill	T. G. Arnold	1	1	11	10	0	0					1	2			380	510	4		100	20,000
3734	Hillsboro	T. S. Cox	2	3	32	50	0	0					4	4			62	66	4		0	1,500
3735	Johnson City	R. F. Hunter	2	1	16	18							2	5			60	25	1		0	750
3736	Katamey	Mrs. D. L. Daniel	2	0	13	42	0	0					1	10			159	148	4		200	14,825
3737	Kaufman	C. J. Maxwell	2	1	19	31	0	0					0	0			159	150	4		0	12,000
3738	Kerrville	J. A. Thomas	2	1	15	17							3	4			55	73	4		0	1,500
3739	Kingston	W. A. Stuckey	2	1	15	17							0	0			115	72	4		75	4,000
3740	Kosse	J. T. Hall	1	1	5	30	0	0					1	0			50	25	0		0	800
3741	Lancville	C. J. Liscvy	1	1	20	10	0	0					0	0			0	0	0		0	800
3742	Leesburg	W. D. Suter	2	0	31	44	0	0					3	2			111	115	4		100	1,700
3743	Leonard	L. W. Evans	2	0	31	44	0	0					3	2			10	10	4		50	2,000
3744	Lipscomb	Miss E. Bell	1	1	8	10	0	0					0	0			42	40	4		0	3,000
3745	Livingston	A. E. Davis	1	0	18	32	0	0					0	0			10	12	4		0	3,000

3746	Marble Falls	W. H. Bruce, Ph. D.	2	0	20	30	0	0	0	4	5	3	2	1	0	1	0	148	134	4	15,000
3747	Marfa	H. V. Moulton	1	0	30	35	0	0	10	15	10	15	1	1	1	1	1	15	13	2	1,000
3748	Marfa	Jno. T. Overby	1	2	12	15	0	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	81	85	4	50
3749	Mexia	L. K. Scarborough	3	0	60	50	0	2	10	5			4	10	3	0	240	200	4	114	
3750	Middleton	J. M. Crawford	1	1	20	14	0	0					1	3	1	3	105	105	4	3	
3751	Mineola	B. H. Stafford	1	1	12	15	0	0	12	17	8	7	0	0	0	0	140	100	3	200	
3752	Montague	J. H. Yaughtin	1	1	16	13	0	0	8	7	8	7	0	0	0	0	101	111	3	75	
3753	Mt. Vernon	L. J. Truett	2	20	30	30	0	10	8	8	8		3	1	313	338	4	35	126	4	5,000
3754	Navasota	J. F. Kimball	1	17	40	1	1	1	8				0	0	162	145	2	3	308	4	3,750
3755	Nocona	H. E. Oatis	1	2	22	26	8	8					0	0	28	30		28	30		500
3756	Olney	R. E. Farmer	1	4	5								0	0	54	51	3	54	51	3	3,500
3757	Ovilla	Frank Chapman	1	10	12				1	6	8	7	0	0	38	36	4	38	36	4	800
3758	Paint Rock	G. H. Hagan	1	8	7								0	0	185	209	3	185	209	3	2,000
3759	Palmetto	J. N. Dodson	1	1	6	12	6	12	20	20	5	10	5	12	3	2	57	54		500	
3760	Paris	E. L. Dohoney, jr.	2	5	35	130	10	0	1	3	1	0	1	3	0	0	33	22	4	0	
3761	Pickton	Jno. B. Gay	1	0	6	7	0	0	1	3	1	0	1	3	0	0	78	79	4	0	
3762	Pine Hill	J. T. Anderson	1	7	8								0	0	0	0	57	54		1,200	
3763	Pleasant Grove	M. M. Smith	0	10	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	33	22	4	0	
3764	Port Lavaca	W. T. Smith	1	0	20	22	0	0	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	78	79	4	1,500	
3765	Quitman	W. R. Shook	1	1	20	15	2	3					0	3	51	62	3	51	62	3	8,000
3766	Ranelo	F. V. Garrison	1	1	18	21	8	4	8	4	3	6			74	50	4	74	50	4	600
3767	Ranger	J. B. Jones	1	1	49	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	64	67		146	
3768	Rayenna	F. M. Gibson	1	1	33	49	5	3	9	17	11	10			20	20	60	70	1	2,000	
3769	Richland Springs	Jno. D. Robnett	1	2	33	49	9	17	11	10					70	60	1	70	60	1	2,000
3770	Rising Star	R. C. Christman	2	1	23	32	1	2					0	0	0	0	161	152	3	250	
3771	Rockdale	E. A. Breunman	1	0	8	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	142	146	4	104	
3772	Rockwall	A. C. Aker	1	2	16	14	12	4	8	9					107	127	3	110	127	3	6,030
3773	Runge	E. Z. T. Jackson	1	8	4								5	10	110	3				306	
3774	Sau Antonio	Wm. Schoch, A. M.	4	4	42	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	105	110	3			5,000	
3775	San Saba	J. M. Merchant	1	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	78	82	1	78	82	1	1,500
3776	Sealy	C. C. Glenn	1	2	20	30	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	70	60	3	70	60	3	500
3777	Shelbyville	M. M. Dupree	1	1	10	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	2	0	94	65		500	
3778	Shipe Springs	Ben Randalls	1	1	11	15	12	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	48	80		48	80		1,800
3779	Subpar Bluff	Sam J. King	1	12	10	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	1	3	40	55	4	0	
3780	Svan	T. J. McBride	2	1	30	35	0	0	5	12	3	6	0	4	0	1	40	35	4	750	
3781	Temple	W. F. Jourdan	2	1	20	25	0	0	5	10			0	0	55	61	3	55	61	3	150
3782	Trenton	T. E. Goff	1	15	23								0	7	206	241	3	206	241	3	25,000
3783	Vernon	Professor Hendricks	2	1	14	39	0	0	5	10			5	6	410	418	4	410	418	4	200
3784	Vernon	U. Collins	5	1	14	25	1	1					401	440	3	300	12,000				
3785	Waxahachie	K. M. Ryan	1	0	21	13	1	1					41	40	3	5,000					
3786	Weatherford	R. H. Buck	1	1	25	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	200		1	200		1,200
3787	Weatherford	A. M. Orvell	1	1	25	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	41	40	3	5,000	
3788	Winecock	O. B. Staples	1	1	25	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	79		30	
3789	Whitney	Mrs. Laura Edmans	1	0	12	13	5	9					0	0	106	150	4	106	150	4	12,500
3790	Wolfe City	W. W. J. Hanna	1	1	33	34	0	0	15	12	10	8	0	0	74	91	4	74	91	4	5,000
3791	Wortham	F. J. Wood	1	1	6	9	4	3					0	0	362	382	4	362	382	4	12,000
3792	Yoakum	G. D. Scott	1	8	12	0	0	1	1	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	200	200	3	30,000	
UTAH.																					
3793	Ogden	T. B. Lewis	3	0	50	80			2	3			8	13	2	1	1,547	1,819	3	200	
3794	Salt Lake City	W. R. Malone	9	4	138	245	0	0	32	41	29	18	6	22	6	19	0	0	0	400	

* Yes; number not given.

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

1991

2824	St. Johnsbury	do	1	1	12	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	330	349	4	0	
3825	Shelburne	do	0	1	10	16	0	0	0	0	0	3	10	24	4	100	
3826	South Royalton	do	1	0	3	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	60	4	9,000	
3827	Underhill	do	1	0	8	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	31	45	3	0	
3828	Vergennes	do	1	26	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	87	104	4	100	
3829	Waterbury	do	2	0	13	17	1	0	0	0	0	0	56	73	4	20	
3830	Wells River	do	1	1	15	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	30	4	8,000	
3831	West Rutland	do	1	2	20	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	192	4	30	
3832	White River junction.	do	1	1	11	27	0	0	1	3	1	1	160	192	4	15,000	
3833	Winooski	do	1	1	12	20	0	0	0	1	0	0	108	178	4	4,500	
3834	Woodstock	do	1	2	38	40	0	1	2	7	1	5	0	0	4	100	
VIRGINIA.																	
3835	Abingdon	Carve City High School.	1	8	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	96	89	2	11,000	
3836	Adviance	High School	0	1	16	15	0	10	15	2	5	0	15	15	0	200	
3837	Ashland	do	1	3	13	4	0	0	13	0	0	1	67	83	3	1,500	
3838	Baywood	Round Meadows High School.	1	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	51	51	3	1,000	
3839	Beaver Dam	High School	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	20	4	400	
3840	Bedford City	do	1	18	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	103	116	6	900	
3841	Berryville	do	1	1	28	4	0	0	3	0	1	0	37	61	5	0	
3842	Bowling Green	do	1	0	7	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	26	0	0	
3843	Boydton	do	1	0	10	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	29	0	0	
3844	Bristol	do	1	0	22	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	214	230	3	1,000	
3845	Broadway	do	1	0	18	15	0	0	3	0	2	0	61	72	3	25,000	
3846	Brookings	Providence High School.	1	0	3	4	0	0	2	0	0	0	15	18	3	500	
3847	Brookings	High School	1	0	3	4	0	0	2	0	0	0	183	150	3	7,000	
3848	Buena Vista	High Point High School.	1	0	15	20	0	0	1	0	0	0	19	23	0	700	
3849	Callands	High School.	1	2	5	10	0	8	10	0	0	1	45	50	4	3,000	
3850	Cedar Bluff	do	1	1	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	77	4	0	
3851	Chatham	do	1	0	8	0	0	0	5	7	0	0	71	56	0	1,500	
3852	Clarksburg	Liberty Academy.	1	0	6	5	0	0	2	3	0	0	46	42	4	500	
3853	Clifton Forge	High School	0	1	15	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	65	45	0	2,000	
3854	Clinch	do	1	3	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	19	0	0	
3855	Covington	Academy	1	2	27	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	77	70	4	6,500	
3856	Culpeper	High School	1	0	7	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
3857	Danville	do	1	0	15	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	83	83	2	12,000	
3858	East Radford	Belle Heith Academy	1	2	12	40	0	0	4	12	0	0	290	285	3	10,000	
3859	Elkton	Elk Run Academy	1	1	17	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	76	63	0	1,500	
3860	Emporia	High School	1	1	21	19	0	0	6	3	7	5	44	41	4	2,000	
3861	Farview	do	1	0	9	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	43	46	3	1,500	
3862	Fugates Hill	Collingwood High School	1	1	35	30	0	0	6	5	0	0	40	35	4	1,200	
3863	Grant	High Point Academy	1	0	10	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	40	0	600	
3864	Harrisonburg	do	2	0	10	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	157	157	3	10,000	
3865	Holland	High School	0	1	2	8	0	0	0	0	0	1	41	32	4	200	
3866	Honston	High School (No. 3)	0	0	11	14	0	0	3	4	1	1	24	20	4	1,000	
3867	Lacey Spring	Academy	1	0	8	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	27	3	2,000	
3868	Leesburg	do	1	0	24	12	0	0	4	0	2	0	111	100	4	9,000	
3869	Lincoln	do	1	6	8	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	22	4	5,000	
3870	Linville	High School	1	0	12	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	28	34	0	500	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Value of ground, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific appar-at-us.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
VIRGINIA—cont'd.																							
3871	Luray	B. B. White	1	1	44	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	44	1			\$5,000	
3872	McGheesville	C. E. Banglebaugh	1	1	26	16	0	0	4	1							41	52	5			2,000	
3873	Manchester	A. H. Fitzgerald	1	1	20	24	0	0	0	4	10						250	450	2			20,000	
3874	Monteary	Jno. M. Colan	1	0	26	18	0	0	20	11	0	0	8	5	2	2	34	23	4			1,500	
3875	Neapolis	F. W. Wheatley	1	0	10	22	0	0	3	12	0	0	0	4	0	4	200	191	3			5,000	
3876	New Market	W. H. Smith	1	1	16	10	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	60				25,000	
3877	Norfolk	Geo. McK. Bain	3	3	63	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	10	0	308	417	4				
3878	Petersburg	Jas. E. Shields	1	1	11	39	11	39	0	0	0	0	0	4	10	0	0	0	0	4			6,000
3879do.	A. P. Bolling	0	4	67	130	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	10	0	0	0	0	4			250
3880	Richmond	Julian P. Thomas	1	23	241	546	0	0	0	0	0	0	38	76	0	0	0	0	0	3			42,000
3881	Roanoke	J. P. Manzy	1	1	20	57	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	0	0	4				
3882	Rose Hill	J. P. Marshall	1	1	30	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	33	22	1				
3883	Round Hill	I. C. Fletcher	1	1	12	20	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	23	17	4			2,000	
3884	Salem	J. L. Sheppe	1	2	4	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	0	196	177	3					
3885	Snowflake	Lawrence Dougherty	1	1	10	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	19	3				15,000	
3886	South Boston	D. A. Pittard	1	0	9	26	0	0	6	8	2	2	0	4	5	2	52	41	3			2,000	
3887	Spring Valley	O. C. Brewer	1	1	8	7	0	0	5	4	2	2	0	0	0	28	13	3				32	
3888	Stanton	G. B. M. Zerr	3	2	34	66	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	309	281	3				56,000	
3889	Stevens Creek	Dr. L. Cole	1	1	35	24	0	0	5	4	0	0	5	3	0	15	22	3				1,000	
3890	Suffolk	Daisy D. Nursey	0	2	12	14	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	4	0	4	24	18				6,000	
3891do.	P. St. J. Wilson	1	1	8	4	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	2	132	116	2				
3892	Tazewell	Geo. C. Parry	1	1	10	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	74	58	0				1,000	
3893	Tenth Legion	A. M. Smith	1	1	8	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	37	30	0				5,000	
3894	Toshes	F. B. Fitzpatrick	1	0	8	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	4	3				4,000	
3895	Warrenton	Edw. L. John	1	1	13	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	55	0				4,000	
3896	Westpoint	Mrs. K. R. Richardson	1	1	3	9	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	47	107	3			1	
3897	Wise	C. Y. Chapman	1	1	20	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	102	83					2,000	

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

1993

School	1	11	11	0	0	0	8	1	162	165	2	175	25,000	
High School	1	1	11	0	0	0	8	1	162	165	2	175	25,000	
do	2	0	19	34	0	0	4	11	356	314	3	2	27,000	
do	2	0	30	54	0	0	4	11	231	205	3	100	22,250	
do	1	2	20	25	0	0	3	5	3	5	4	200	50,000	
do	1	2	25	19	0	0	3	3	257	271	4	300	40,000	
do	1	2	33	30	0	0	3	3	359	324	3	200	30,000	
do	1	1	13	12	0	0	2	3	138	129	2	153	21,300	
do	1	1	12	11	0	0	2	3	92	77	2	200	20,000	
do	1	0	3	17	0	0	0	6	161	161	2	5,000		
do	2	1	10	18	0	0	1	2	1	2	4	60		
do	1	2	17	25	0	0	6	4	301	351	3	150	45,000	
do	1	1	30	37	0	0	6	11	200	153	3	300	145,000	
do	1	1	4	14	0	0	2	5	200	153	2	200	30,000	
do	1	1	20	18	0	0	6	3	157	152	4	120	16,000	
do	2	1	20	21	0	0	8	3	250	271	3	200		
do	2	0	21	29	0	0	0	0	250	280	3	205	30,000	
do	1	0	8	14	0	0	0	0	62	66	2	300		
do	6	4	145	149	0	0	6	15	27	36	4	700		
Senior Grammar High School	1	1	13	22	0	0	0	0	272	285	4	163	30,000	
do	3	5	86	109	1	0	10	10	297	183	2	500		
do	2	1	9	10	0	0	4	5	100	121	3	10	40,000	
do	2	1	43	44	0	0	7	6	355	354	4	1,425	35,640	
do	1	2	25	65	0	0	4	8	899	804	4	1,300	100,300	
do	1	15	20	0	0	0	2	7	73	75	2	275	10,000	
do	1	0	11	9	0	0	0	0	109	113	3	35	7,000	
do	1	0	10	13	0	0	2	4	0	215	2	300	3,000	
do	1	1	10	30	0	0	1	2	0	0	4	25,000		
do	1	1	4	8	0	0	2	3	61	47	3	3,000		
do	2	1	9	27	0	0	4	0	3	17	3	600		
do	2	0	11	37	0	0	2	12	0	0	286	323	2	15,000
do	1	1	28	35	0	0	5	3	105	112	2	386	12,000	
do	2	1	10	21	5	5	2	1	875	845	3	0	8,000	
do	2	0	18	28	0	0	0	2	262	302	4	0	12,000	
do	1	1	9	10	0	0	4	3	64	72	3	306	7,000	
do	2	0	18	17	0	0	0	1	26	26	4	0	700	
do	1	2	18	15	0	0	3	9	0	0	417	450	4	20,000
do	1	2	8	8	0	0	1	0	215	245	3	50	2,500	
do	2	1	40	50	0	0	1	5	70	80	3	400	20,000	
do	1	1	7	23	0	0	6	4	340	315	4	400	20,000	
do	1	1	16	6	0	0	2	2	71	55	3	50		
do	1	1	10	25	0	0	0	0	138	112	4	25	18,000	
do	1	1	10	15	0	0	2	2	189	192	2	0	22,500	
do	1	4	11	0	0	0	1	2	180	185	2	0	16,000	
do	1	1	13	20	0	0	3	9	334	340	3	470	15,000	
do	2	8	16	0	0	0	1	1	220	250	2	125	13,855	

WASHINGTON.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar- ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uate class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sch-olastic appar-atus.		
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
WISCONSIN.	High School	W. N. Hayes	1	1	26	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	584	\$8,000
			1	1	16	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	625	12,000
			1	1	10	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	50	6,000
			1	1	16	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	80	5,000
			1	1	2	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	100	35,000
			5	4	34	64	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1,510	44,000
			1	1	11	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1,700	32,000
			1	1	1	38	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	991	8,500
			1	1	1	0	18	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	250	7,500
			1	1	2	20	52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	469	18,000
			1	1	1	33	53	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	340	6,500
			1	1	0	4	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	116	4,500
			1	1	11	16	0	0	5	4	2	0	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	93	7,000
			1	1	4	76	96	4	6	2	4	2	6	4	13	1	0	2	483	583	3	700	39,500	
			2	0	22	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	10	0	0	0	0	141	139	3	200	5,000	
			1	2	21	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	136	144	4	614	39,500	
			1	0	22	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	24	3,800
			1	5	64	179	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	300	40,000
			2	1	31	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	6	4	2	2	325	350	4	700	16,000		
			1	1	18	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	50	4	50	3,000		
			3	1	5	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	233	236	4	300	30,000		
			1	1	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	150	3,000
			1	1	8	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	250	13,000
			1	2	20	54	0	0	4	8	3	2	5	5	2	2	2	212	176	4	1,200	3,000		
			1	1	0	26	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	178	15,000
			1	1	2	34	53	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	473	10,000
			1	1	2	30	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	300	14,500
			1	1	0	11	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	131	159	3	170	200		
			1	0	11	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	55	66	3	200	0		

3975	Cassville	W. P. Colburn	1	18	32	0	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	7	3	5	77	150	
3976	Centralia	H. D. Kneip	1	1	23	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	3	0	187	395	
3977	Chilton	Jno. G. Nageler	2	0	25	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	450	12,000	
3978	Chippewa Falls	R. L. Barton	1	4	60	68	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	8	0	0	574	3,182	
3979	Clintonville	W. H. Hickson	1	0	22	18	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	2	3	2	154	5,000	
3980	Colby	F. M. Jackson	1	0	16	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	2,300	
3981	Cuba	T. J. Metcalf	1	15	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	76	4,000	
3982	Darlington	P. T. Cooper	2	50	57	0	0	2	2	12	16	1	10	1	4	165	183	1,200	
3983	Deerfield	E. C. Mead	1	22	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	72	6,000	
3984	Delavan	C. W. Brittenburg	1	34	33	0	0	0	0	8	6	8	5	4	0	0	800	48,000	
3985	Deperu	Violet M. Alden	1	2	18	35	0	0	4	3	6	2	16	0	0	0	229	35,000	
3986	Dodgeville	Geo. Beck	1	2	28	71	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	115	
3987	East Troy	C. F. Hardy	1	32	25	0	0	1	0	4	12	14	4	2	4	0	188	243	
3988	Edgerton	H. A. Adrian	1	3	31	39	0	0	3	4	12	14	0	12	0	3	162	168	
3989	Elkhorn	C. D. Kipp	1	2	42	68	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	6	0	0	100	125	
3990	Ellsworth	C. J. Brewer	1	1	35	42	0	0	0	0	10	12	2	2	1	240	250	18,000	
3991	Elroy	H. B. Lathie	1	1	25	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	149	434	
3992	Faircield	A. E. Tyler	1	0	11	15	0	0	0	0	5	4	2	1	1	0	0	452	
3993	Florencia	E. D. Rounds	1	1	19	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	0	0	0	1,150	
3994	Fond du Lac	L. A. Williams	3	87	108	0	0	0	0	10	19	0	0	0	0	0	314	40,000	
3995	Fort Atkinson	A. W. Weber	2	3	57	74	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	8	0	0	180	20,000	
3996	Fort Howard	A. W. Burton	1	3	21	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	650	702	
3997	Fox Lake	Robert Rienow	1	1	17	28	2	1	0	10	18	1	17	2	2	112	85	300	
3998	Friendship	Hugh Gallagher	1	0	4	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	28	40	
3999	Glenbentiah	E. E. Ouehl	2	0	14	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	100	
4000	Grand Rapids	Wm. H. Luehr	1	4	49	32	0	0	0	1	2	5	9	3	2	0	120	50,000	
4001	Green Bay	Wm. O. Brown	1	0	11	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	145	
4002	Greenwood	Frank Sontz	1	1	27	35	0	0	1	1	3	2	3	1	2	92	333	13,000	
4003	Hartford	Edw. W. Pryor	1	1	6	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	248	23,475	
4004	Hayward	J. G. Adams	1	0	15	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	0	0	75	3,500	
4005	Hazel Green	P. M. Bold	1	0	5	5	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	125	376	
4006	Highland	J. L. Clarke	1	0	13	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	107	4,000	
4007	Hillsboro	A. F. Johnson	2	14	20	0	0	0	0	15	10	4	4	4	4	106	140	200	
4008	Horicon	E. T. Johnson	1	2	45	63	0	0	6	21	3	15	6	11	3	5	295	309	
4009	Hudson	E. P. Frost	1	1	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	69	258	
4010	Humbird	E. M. Beeman	1	3	75	105	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	0	0	0	0	200	
4011	Janesville	D. D. Mayne	4	2	26	34	0	0	2	3	4	1	3	5	0	1	185	51,000	
4012	Jefferson	G. W. Gehrand	1	2	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	725	
4013	Juncos	J. T. Lindley	2	0	40	35	0	0	3	2	0	0	8	5	0	0	14	250	
4014	Kankana	C. F. Yonmans	1	3	48	80	0	0	0	3	5	4	8	2	2	440	452	1,200	
4015	Kenosha	E. C. Winall	1	1	26	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	9	0	0	144	60,000	
4016	Kovancee	M. McMahon	1	1	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	
4017	Kiel	G. M. Morrissey	1	0	97	142	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	250	8,000	
4018	La Crosse	W. R. Hennenway	2	0	33	57	0	0	1	4	0	0	6	10	6	10	0	574	
4019	Lake Geneva	A. F. Bartlett	1	2	33	37	0	0	3	2	4	3	3	3	2	387	356	408	
4020	Lake Mills	Allen B. West	1	1	24	36	0	0	1	2	1	0	3	5	2	136	170	480	
4021	Lancaster	L. L. Clark	1	2	39	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	4	221	231	100	
4022	Linden	David James	1	10	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	6	0	55	62	350	
4023	Madison	J. H. Hutchison	1	10	190	207	1	0	5	19	9	8	20	31	19	24	983	998	300
4024	Manawa	J. J. Gill	1	0	26	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	85	1,000
4025	Manitowoc	Albert Gutman	2	38	32	0	0	0	0	1	2	2	3	0	1	210	250	380	
4026	Marinette	W. A. Wilson	2	2	40	83	0	0	5	15	5	2	13	1	5	0	40	275	

4057	Peshigo.....do	A. H. Krealing.....	2	0	10	14	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	6	0	0	0	11	17	3	200	15,250	
4058	Pewaukee.....do	E. L. Metcowan.....	1	0	18	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	162	170	3	1,400	16,300	
4059	Phillips.....do	G. H. Jensen.....	1	1	8	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	171	30	
4060	Plainfield.....do	G. E. Daboe.....	1	1	11	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	358	387	2	30	500	
4061	Plainville.....do	Chas. M. Fox.....	1	1	23	28	0	0	0	0	3	4	2	3	2	0	0	0	0	3	300	25,000	
4062	Plymouth.....do	Otto Guffron.....	1	1	30	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	6	0	0	90	70	4	300	40,000	
4063	Port Washington.....do	Max Staehle.....	1	1	11	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	80	68	3	800	10,000	
4064	Potosi.....do	P. A. Kelb.....	1	1	34	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	56	4	100	40,000	
4065	Poyndre.....do	A. C. Piper.....	2	0	31	52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	242	245	4	565	5,000	
4066	Prairie du Chien.....do	Jno. F. Bergen.....	1	1	30	28	0	0	0	0	4	2	0	2	0	1	0	60	64	4	300	12,000	
4067	Prairie du Sac.....do	Jas. Goldsworthy.....	1	1	27	38	0	0	0	1	2	3	4	2	3	2	3	106	85	4	500	15,000	
4068	Prescott.....do	A. J. Volland.....	2	3	90	107	1	0	0	0	2	2	7	22	2	2	0	0	0	0	4	1,100	20,000
4069	Racine.....do	W. N. Parker.....	1	1	20	47	0	0	0	0	3	2	6	1	1	1	1	400	800	4	600	600	
4070	Reedsburg.....do	C. M. Gleason.....	1	1	2	20	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	295	305	4	322	500	
4071	Rhineland.....do	J. W. Creckmur.....	1	1	2	51	62	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	15	0	0	283	327	4	200	30,000	
4072	Rice Lake.....do	Philip Eden.....	1	2	33	41	0	0	1	1	10	9	5	9	0	0	0	167	195	4	80	7,000	
4073	Richland Center.....do	A. E. Schaub.....	1	1	23	35	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	52	3	70	0	
4074	Ripon.....do	H. L. Wilson.....	0	1	15	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	80	88	3	120	6,000	
4075	Rosendale.....do	Etta R. Gault.....	0	1	13	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	75	3,000	
4076	Rosendale.....do	Paul Vander Eike.....	2	30	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	3	0	0	90	78	4	600	6,000	
4077	St. Croix Falls.....do	W. H. Scholz.....	1	2	16	30	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	52	38	3	200	12,000	
4078	Sank City.....do	Miss Mary H. Hoyt.....	1	1	16	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	84	80	4	75	3,000	
4079	Saxonville.....do	J. G. Skeels.....	1	1	22	44	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	3	1	1	1	150	143	4	200	25,000	
4080	Sharon.....do	D. O. Williams.....	1	1	16	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	30,000	
4081	Shawano.....do	J. E. Rhordan.....	1	1	22	44	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,008	1,566	4	3,500	30,000	
4082	Sheboygan Falls.....do	F. F. Showers.....	2	1	30	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	132	224	3	8,500	30,000	
4083	Sheboygan Falls.....do	Jno. N. Foster.....	1	1	8	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	470	20,000	
4084	Shell Lake.....do	J. M. Warner.....	2	1	18	34	0	0	0	0	7	5	3	3	3	3	145	147	4	300	400		
4085	Shullsburg.....do	M. M. Warner.....	2	1	18	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	206	20,000	
4086	South Kaukauna.....do	C. F. Youmans.....	1	1	26	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	171	181	3	400	400	
4087	South Milwaukee.....do	Jno. E. Roets.....	2	2	83	125	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	260	348	4	400	8,000	
4088	Sparta.....do	J. W. Livingston.....	1	1	12	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	73	73	4	294	8,000	
4089	Spring Green.....do	A. H. Shultz.....	2	2	44	57	0	0	0	5	2	7	4	17	4	1	0	330	334	4	235	30,000	
4090	Stevens Point.....do	J. D. Rouse.....	1	1	27	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	277	272	4	600	13,000	
4091	Stoughton.....do	A. E. Beckwith.....	1	1	14	26	0	0	0	0	4	6	1	2	1	2	0	65	58	4	257	8,000	
4092	Sturgeon Bay.....do	Jas. McVie.....	1	1	20	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	140	3	100	30,000	
4093	Sun Prairie.....do	A. O. Rhea.....	1	2	30	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	700	6,000	
4094	Tomp.....do	G. W. Reagle.....	1	1	20	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	359	269	4	815	25,000	
4095	Two Rivers.....do	Edw. R. Smith.....	1	1	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	49	56	2	0	3,000	
4096	Unity.....do	Jas. M. Poyvers.....	1	3	70	110	0	0	1	2	4	14	5	16	0	0	0	201	197	4	175	20,000	
4097	Viroqua.....do	Taylor Fyve.....	1	1	8	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	55	3	112	3,500	
4098	Vadon.....do	Geo. H. Drewry.....	1	1	20	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	36	3	650	43,000	
4099	Walworth.....do	W. J. Kawson.....	1	1	4	12	0	0	0	0	1	5	1	5	1	5	0	104	108	4	450	10,000	
4100	Washburn.....do	H. W. Food.....	1	1	23	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	504	553	4	1,500	20,000	
4101	Waterloo.....do	G. H. Landgraf.....	1	1	3	43	68	1	0	4	8	5	7	3	7	0	0	11	8	4	275	9,000	
4102	Watkinsville.....do	H. L. Terry.....	1	1	3	19	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	411	1,900	
4103	Waukesha.....do	H. C. Curtis.....	1	1	2	64	70	0	0	0	1	1	1	12	1	1	1	1,130	1,130	4	600	12,975	
4104	Waupun.....do	F. C. Howard.....	1	2	2	44	89	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	600	17,000	
4105	Waunakee.....do	Karl Marhie.....	1	2	2	52	52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	600	17,000	
4106	Wausau.....do	A. W. Smith.....	1	1	60	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	600	20,000	
4107	Wauwatosa.....do	L. E. Amidon.....	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	600	20,000	
4108	Westbend.....do		1	1	60	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	600	20,000	

Statistics of public high schools, 1894-95.—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ry stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mili-tary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sch-olastic apparatus.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
WISCONSIN—cont'd.																						
4109	West Deperre.....		1	18	28	0	0	0	0	1	2	5	3	4	1	0	112	113	4		875	\$12,000
4110	Westfield.....		1	0	10	29	0	0	0	0	5	3	4	3	0	0	92	110	3		130	8,000
4111	West Salem.....		1	17	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	0	0	80	77	3		400	7,000
4112	West Superior.....		2	7	70	130	0	0	16	30	10	10	3	7	0	1	2,250	280	4	25		40,000
4113	Weyanwaga.....		1	1	10	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	0	0	63	71	4		208	5,000
4114	White Water.....		5	1	72	87	0	0	8	7	6	9	5	4	1	270	280	4		1,300	30,000	
4115	Winneconne.....		1	0	27	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	110	130	3		300	7,600
4116	Wonewoc.....		2	0	17	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	123	151	4		175	10,000
WYOMING.																						
4117	Buffalo.....		1	0	12	18	0	0									96	102	2		0	15,000
4118	Cheyenne.....		5	58	68								7	7	2		511	510	4		100	30,000
4119	Evans-ton.....		1	2	23	40	0	0									261	224	3		450	30,000
4120	Rawlins.....		1	1	5	14	0	0									0	0	4		50	
4121	Sundance.....		1	1	10	12							1	1	0	0	55	63				

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED IN 1893-94, BUT FAILING TO REPORT IN 1894-95.

ALABAMA.		Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ry stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mili-tary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sch-olastic apparatus.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
4122	Bessemer.....		1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0					342	336			0	
4123	Birmingham.....		2	5	61	182	0	0	0	25	30	6	30	2	1				4		4,500	
4124	Decatur.....		1	2	15	12											28	50	3			\$5,000
4125	Fort Deposit.....		1	1	36	29	0	0	18	12	7	5	0	0	0		12	13				2,000
4126	Glen Allen.....		1	2	45	45	0	0	23	21							25	20				
4127	Hanceville.....		1	15	15	20			6	6	2	4					51	54				450

Statistics of public high schools—Continued.
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED IN 1893-94, BUT FAILING TO REPORT IN 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Preparing for college.				College prepar-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in military tac-tics.	Vol-umes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
FLORIDA.																					
4162	Lady Lake	High School.	1	1	15	15	0	0													
4163	Marietta	do	1	1	9	20	0	0	4												
4164	Sanford	High School (No. 2)	1	0	9	25	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	1	1	56	52	0			
4165	Tampa	High School.	1	1	20	40	0	0	2	0	0	3	3	2	2	0	0	3	50		2,500
GEORGIA.																					
4166	Aecworth.	High School.	1	0	11	13										39	31	0			1,500
4167	Athens.	Washington Street High School.	1	3	40	35			2			5	4		75	80	3,323			30,000	
4168	do	West Broad Street High School.	1	1	16	21	16	21	16	9	12	2	5	2	5	177	233	154			3,000
4169	Aitapulgus.	Academy.	1	1	2	2			2	2		2	2	2	19	21					1,000
4170	Ball Ground	High School.	1	1	7	10	0	0	4	6	2	0	1	0	61	31					1,200
4171	Bellevue.	Valley Grove Academy.	1	1	7	10	0	0	2	2	0	1	0	1	12	13					1,750
4172	Batonrou.	Rockville Academy.	1	0	19	10	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	50	48					1,500
4173	Faceville.	C. A. Crews	1	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	25	0				100
4174	Ford.	Oak Grove High School.	2	0	7	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	33					250
4175	Frodona.	Walnut Hill Academy.	1	0	5	4									43	58	0				600
4176	Hillsboro.	Ben Hill Academy.	1	0	5	6									22	19					
4177	Linton.	Washington Institute.	1	0	13	15	0	0							18	16					1,500
4178	Mableton.	High School.	1	1	16	21	0	0	5	4	3	2	0	0	44	49					800
4179	Milner.	do	1	0	11	23									39	37					2,400
4180	Pendergrass.	Academy.	1	1	6	12			2	2					59	48					15,000
4181	Quitman.	High School.	1	1	12	28									38	32					15,000
4182	Rockmart.	Piedmont Institute.	4	2	43	31			15	11	4	3			114	86					15,000
4183	Roscoe.	Alexander Stephens Academy.	1	1	8	7			0	0	0	0	0	0	27	23					600
4184	Roswell.	High School.	1	1	32	37	32	37	32	37					111	109					1,200

4185	Shellman.....	Institute	1	2	18	27	40	45	0	0	2	6	6	2	6	24	28	2,500	
4186	Some*.....	Providence College	1	1	27	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	24	20	
4187	Stone Mountain.....	High School	1	2	15	20	7	12	10	6	15	20	15	20	65	50	1,000		
4188	Woodbury.....	do	1	1	40	45	7	12	10	6	15	20	15	20	25	25	3,500		
ILLINOIS.																			
4189	Ambly.....	High School	1	1	20	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	120	135	12,000	
4190	Ahona.....	do	1	1	8	23	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	2	167	177	60,000	
4191	Aurora.....	Eastern High School	2	4	80	100	8	6	12	12	16	6	4	80	100	600	500	12,000	
4192	Avon.....	High School	1	1	11	12	0	0	3	2	2	1	2	0	4	6	600	12,000	
4193	Belvidere.....	North High School	1	1	19	43	0	0	0	3	2	1	3	1	170	192	550	12,700	
4194	Chatsworth.....	High School	1	1	12	19	0	0	0	0	7	4	3	0	0	300	300	6,000	
4195	Chicago.....	Northwest Division High School	9	4	131	357	1	0	14	1	7	39	3	0	0	500	500	6,000	
4196	Creston.....	High School	1	0	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	38	12,000	
4197	Decatur.....	do	5	7	162	276	0	0	16	33	16	33	1	2	235	229	1,044	71,500	
4198	Dundee.....	do	1	2	33	27	0	0	0	0	3	6	1	2	75	75	30,000		
4199	El Paso.....	do	1	1	28	31	1	1	4	10	4	6	77	91	0	200	200	20,350	
4200	Eureka.....	East Side High School	1	1	15	30	1	1	1	1	2	6	0	0	0	300	0	600	
4201	Freeport.....	High School	2	3	75	78	0	6	0	12	16	7	16	2	2	0	0	400	
4202	Geneva.....	do	1	0	9	12	0	0	0	0	4	1	2	2	13	14	400	600	
4203	Golconda.....	do	1	0	10	11	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	139	140	312	5,100	
4204	Hoopston.....	do	1	1	18	22	0	0	0	0	2	7	2	2	14	16	30	16,000	
4205	Kewanee.....	do	1	4	42	64	0	0	0	0	2	7	2	7	22	39	916	700	
4206	Lacon.....	Union High School	1	1	6	15	0	0	0	1	3	1	2	7	16	700	700	50,000	
4207	Leaf River.....	High School	1	1	12	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56	64	75	3,000	
4208	Manitowish.....	do	1	2	3	7	0	0	3	3	1	5	1	1	18	9	60	9,000	
4209	Marshall.....	do	1	2	23	36	1	1	4	5	1	5	1	1	20	25	150	500	
4210	Mason City.....	do	1	2	60	37	6	8	4	3	13	6	0	0	10	28	150	60,000	
4211	Medora.....	do	1	0	8	7	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	57	68	2	2,500	
4212	Metamora.....	do	1	2	5	10	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	18	13	30	9,000	
4213	Mifflord.....	do	1	1	19	27	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	7	14	12	60	9,000	
4214	Mt. Carroll.....	do	1	1	16	20	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	7	10	1,100	1,500	15,000	
4215	Onarga.....	do	1	1	10	12	0	0	0	10	12	9	9	25	20	75	50	3,000	
4216	Onton.....	do	1	1	9	11	0	0	0	0	1	9	1	9	166	163	75	5,000	
4217	Pana.....	West High School	1	2	17	25	0	0	0	6	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	50	20,000
4218	Paris.....	High School	2	5	40	73	3	4	20	28	65	87	23	11	10	0	0	15,000	
4219	Peoria.....	do	8	2	184	343	3	4	20	28	65	87	23	11	10	0	0	58,500	
4220	Rantoul*.....	do	2	2	20	22	0	0	0	7	2	4	145	155	3	150	7,000		
4221	Richmond.....	do	1	2	5	9	0	0	0	0	1	4	4	40	66	100	8,000		
4222	St. Charles*.....	West Division High School	1	1	15	15	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	83	80	50	5,000	
4223	Spring Valley*.....	High School	1	1	25	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	2	415	430	35	15,000	
4224	Utica.....	do	1	1	10	15	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	17	14	55	15,000	
4225	Waukegan.....	do	1	3	52	83	0	0	0	0	6	8	1	1	117	104	1,300	
4226	Windsor.....	do	1	1	8	6	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	
INDIANA.																			
4227	Bedford.....	High School	3	0	48	67	0	0	0	0	5	7	2	2	0	0	0	15,000	
4228	Bippus.....	do	2	0	16	13	0	0	0	4	2	4	2	4	2	31	97	4,500	
4229	Bristol.....	do	2	0	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	80	3,800	60	

* Statistics for 1894-95, received after the preceding table had been closed.

4254	Carroll	do	J. E. Smith	1	0	10	16	8	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	22	51	83	50,000
4255	Cassey*	do	M. P. Konworthy	1	0	16	8	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	51	83	3	6,500
4256	Charles City	do	Gazelle Holstead	3	4	90	135	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	382	437	0	2,000
4257	Conrad Grove	do	J. C. Bennett	1	0	11	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	54	56	0	4,000
4258	Dows	do	R. B. Daniel	1	2	2	2	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	72	88	0	10,000
4259	Dunlap	do	W. X. Crider	1	2	21	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	142	196	0	350
4260	Essex	do	W. L. Long	0	1	14	13	0	0	0	0	0	10	10	4	2	3	4	4	0	50
4261	Humboldt	do	Cheno Messer	1	1	0	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	30	0	20,000
4262	Koosauqua	do	A. A. Gross	1	3	15	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	168	147	0	200
4263	Knoxville	do	S. J. Finney	1	3	42	86	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	700
4264	Le Mars	do	Susan Paxson	1	5	69	69	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	400
4265	Loneville*	do	J. W. Chadler	2	1	35	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	52	66	3	70
4266	Lohrville*	do	A. K. Jenkins	1	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	132	111	3	7,800
4267	Lowdon	do	J. W. Marker	1	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	73	51	0	105
4268	Lyon	do	Mrs. L. E. Wilson	1	0	30	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	186	196	0	400
4269	Manning	do	Miss Sara L. Garrett	1	2	3	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	28	0	1,200
4270	Maxwell	do	N. G. Richardson	1	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	31	23	0	50
4271	Mitchellville	do	C. H. Kogley	1	1	9	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	300
4272	Monroe	do	L. G. Scott	0	2	23	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20,000
4273	Onawa	do	F. E. Lark	1	1	17	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	290,000
4274	Ottumwa	do	Edie Frazier	1	5	50	86	2	2	10	10	5	5	5	5	5	5	79	85	35	7,150
4275	Riverton	do	B. M. Taylor	1	1	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	25	0	350
4276	Sibley	do	G. H. Ohmsted	1	1	9	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15,000
4277	Tipton	do	J. E. Luckey	1	1	35	61	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500
4278	Wilton	do	A. L. Brewer	1	1	37	42	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15,000
4279	Winchester	do	W. J. Dean	1	2	20	52	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	323	372	300	25,000
KANSAS.																					
4280	Anthony	High School	D. A. Tear	1	1	8	17	0	0	0	0	0	3	7	2	3	0	1	8	17	540
4281	Bite Rapids	do	E. M. Green	1	1	31	29	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	66	68	300
4282	Brookville	do	T. J. Rollman	1	1	6	15	0	1	8	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,000
4283	Burton	do	A. P. Head, Ph. B.	4	3	40	50	0	0	12	9	10	9	5	1	5	1	70	94	0	23,000
4284	Chapman	do	S. M. Cook, A. B.	1	3	32	46	0	0	0	2	10	3	2	13	326	311	25	35	0	650
4285	Concordia	do	A. B. Carney	2	1	30	35	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	200
4286	Independence	do	R. C. Fear	2	2	101	190	8	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56	40	0	5,000
4287	Kansas City	do	Geo. E. Ross	4	2	23	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	400
4288	La Crosse	do	W. J. Yoman	2	2	22	36	0	1	31	33	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	15,000
4289	Larned	do	H. S. Rogers	3	1	31	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	472	513	0	1,050
4290	Lyon	do	Maudie De Con	1	2	31	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	300
4291	McPherson	do	A. Ludlum	1	0	6	7	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	8	0	30,000
4292	Morantown	do	S. L. Fogleman	1	1	27	61	0	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	280
4293	Newtown	do	W. S. Allen	1	3	24	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	44	60	0	15,000
4294	Parsons	do	S. D. Frazier	1	2	20	42	0	0	3	4	2	0	5	13	3	4	0	0	0	300
4295	Peabody	do	J. C. Gibney	2	2	10	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	135	135	0	100
4296	Russell	do	John Greenlyke	1	1	13	17	0	0	5	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	43	56	1	650
4297	Wakarusa*	do	Mrs. Lucy S. Best	1	0	24	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	417	457	0	15,000
4298	Weir	do	Geo. B. Deem	1	0	24	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	65
4299	Wetmore	do	C. A. Strong	1	1	14	12	2	2	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	86	103	0	10,000

* Statistics for 1894-95, received after the preceding table had been closed.

Statistics of public high schools—Continued.
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED IN 1893-94, BUT FAILING TO REPORT IN 1894-95.—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ties.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific appar-at-us.		
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
KENTUCKY.																								
4300	Albany		1	1	28	22	0	0	5	2					0	0	0	0	25	44			0	\$2,000
4301	Augusta	A. L. Rhoton	1	17	17	27	0	0	12	20	23	30			0	0	0	0	113	138				3,000
4302	Blairstown	W. E. Fife	1	0	20	10	0	0	20	10	3	3							43	50				7,000
4303	Blaine	G. M. Elam	1	1	53	70	0	0	8	3	5	8			10	12	2	4	40	55			200	1,200
4304	Dixon	J. M. Kernohan	1	0	6	6	0	0	0	0	0	0			0	0	0	0	140	145			0	18,000
4305	Fredonia	J. J. Nall	1	3	25	35	0	0	0	0	0	0			0	0	0	0	40	35			525	1,500
4306	Hickman	W. E. Lunney	1	1	31	30	0	0	23	18	25	17			0	0	0	0	36	26			80	1,000
4307	Hyden	Mary Lewis	1	1	6	8	0	0	1	1									43	58				1,800
4308	Minerva	E. B. Buffington	1	1	20	21	0	0	2	1									67	58				8,000
4309	Monticello	J. P. Harrison	1	1	15	12	0	0	1	1														
4310	Newport	C. J. Hall	1	1	15	12	0	0	1	1														
4311	Owensboro	Edw. Taylor	2	4	51	82	0	0			3	3			4	14	3	3	0	0			2,000	35,000
4312	Owingsville	H. C. Wilson	1	1	20	15	0	0	8	5	6	4			0	0	0	0	40	50			0	2,500
4313	Upton	Jno. C. Firtle	3	0	45	25	0	0	20	10	0	0							25	25			250	
4314	Williamstown	J. H. Dickey	1	1	12	15	0	0	5	13	10	4			3	5	3	5	103	110			0	20,000
LOUISIANA.																								
4314	Golffax	Joseph Paul	1	0	5	0	0	0											35	46			0	
4315	New Orleans	Mrs. R. M. Lusber	0	11	0	163	0	0											0	18			617	
MAINE.																								
4316	Anson	A. A. Badger	1	1	6	8	0	0	2	1	0	0			0	0	0	0	14	6			0	4,500
4317	Brewer	F. W. Freeman	1	1	25	39	0	0	7	11	0	3			8	2	0	0	0	0			0	
4318	Buckfield	R. N. M'Field	1	0	12	19	0	0	1	3	0	0			0	0	0	0	5	5			0	
4319	Bucksport	Farker Spolford	1	2	18	40	0	0	2	10	1	1			1	1	1	1	0	0			6,000	
4320	Canton	E. F. Ridley	1	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			0	0	0	0	20	19			0	
4321	Caribou	W. S. Knowlton	1	2	75	60	0	0	10	4	2	2			6	9	2	2	6	9			17,000	

Statistics of public high schools—Continued.
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED IN 1893-94, BUT FAILING TO REPORT IN 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-u-ates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-u-ating class.		Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ities.		Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Val-ue of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.		
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.			Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
MICHIGAN.																						
4364	Alpena.....	George A. Hunt.....	3	2	57	100							9	12	0	0	874	809			2,355	\$40,000
4365	Au Sable.....	A. R. Weir.....	1	1	9	25							1	7	0	0	10	6			331	7,000
4366	Belding.....	L. B. Hall.....	1	1	12	17	0	0					5	7	3	3	338	208			350	15,000
4367	Bronson.....	W. J. Morrison.....	2	0	20	40							0	0	0	0	93	57			80	3,000
4368	Calumet.....	Florence Sanborn.....	1	2	35	54							8	20	12	24	1	7			3,000	
4369	Caro.....	R. L. Holloway.....	1	8	49	54	0	0					4	4	4	2	188	235			650	35,000
4370	Cheboygan.....	Elizabeth Hamilton.....	1	1	13	39	0	0					2	4	0	0	0	0				
4371	Clarks-ville.....	Thomas Sattler.....	1	1	33	18	0	0					16	9	2	1	5	4				6,000
4372	Detroit*.....	F. L. Bliss.....	11	33	672	1057											0	0			3,143	
4373	Douglas*.....	O. S. Flanagan.....	6	1	25	21	0	0									0	0			400	3,000
4374	Morrice.....	E. R. Nethercott.....	1	0	47	66	0	0									0	0			110	11,000
4375	Milford.....	O. L. Bristol.....	1	0	9	11	0	0									0	0			150	5,000
4376	Mt. Clemens.....	S. C. Price.....	2	3	33	77	0	0									0	0			2,500	
4377	Pontiac*.....	W. H. Smith.....	2	3	64	107	1	0					2				2				2,000	
4378	Reed City.....	Jos. H. Kacy.....	1	2	39	43							2	1	6	4	3	7			2,500	
4379	Stamton.....	J. B. McCloskey.....	1	1	8	30	0	0									221	270			200	25,000
4380	Sargis.....	A. M. Inyoke.....	1	2	13	25	0	0									7	124			300	7,000
4381	Verion.....	E. W. French.....	1	1	16	24	0	0									4	3			55	10,000
4382	White Cloud.....	H. A. Corbett.....	1	1	5	6	0	0									3	1			60	3,000
4383	Windon.....	A. N. Farmer.....	1	1	17	21	0	0									1	1			85	
MISSISSIPPI.																						
4384	Acler-man.....	W. H. Smith.....	1	2	24	32											3	4			61	800
4385	Batesville.....	R. W. Gowdy.....	1	2	8	11	0	0									3	2			0	2,000
4386	Blountville*.....	W. B. Pierce.....	1	1	90	0											11	5			100	300
4387	Bogue Chitto.....	J. V. Garner.....	1	1	10	10											4	2			55	1,500
4388	Europa.....	D. Harmon.....	1	1	10	35	0	0									2	4			52	2,000
4389	Holly Springs.....	W. A. Anderson.....	2	1	40	15											6	12			70	3,000

4390	Facinto	J. O. Looney	2	12	4	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	56	200	3,150
4391	Maben	T. P. Haney	1	20	29	0	0	0	5	10	0	0	21	0	350	
4392	Magnolia	W. K. Nettles	1	3	49	0	0	12	5	2	2	2	50	500	5,000	
4393	Monticello	R. D. Rivers	1	10	20	0	0	1	0	8	10	0	30	0	1,200	
4394	Mt. Pleasant	C. H. Curd	2	1	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	75	365	3,000	
4395	Nettleton	Mrs. Z. T. Trice	1	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	32	400	
4396	Oakland	R. D. Jamison	1	1	8	0	0	3	15	1	2	0	21	20	1,800	
4397do	J. S. Thornton	1	26	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35	35	2,000	
4398	Tallahatchie Academy	F. F. Phillips	1	30	30	0	0	0	0	8	0	2	296	120	4,000	
4399	Port Gibson	J. M. Taylor	1	5	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	44	55	600	
4400	Vernon	S. T. Gavin	1	0	6	1	0	0	3	2	0	0	63	46	1,200	
4401	Wallerville	Frank Binkley	1	0	4	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	270	330	11,000	
4402	Water Valley	Wm. A. Belk	2	3	30	70	4	18	16	17	1	8	1	6	652
MISSOURI.																
4403	Barnard	Mark Burrows	1	0	7	4	1	5	1	5	1	5	213	300	15,000
4404	Bolivar	H. S. Bruce	1	25	25	0	0	1	5	1	0	0	127	140	70	3,350
4405	Buffalo	I. W. Wingo	2	5	62	146	0	0	0	22	2	3	50	62	2,500	
4406	Carthage	R. D. Ford	1	0	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	167	171	23,000	
4407	Gilliam	Geo. W. Norvell	1	0	25	92	0	0	0	0	0	0	48	67	1,200	
4408	Hamilton	J. C. Pike	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	900	
4409	Highlandville	W. N. Pigg	1	0	36	50	0	0	4	0	3	0	0	0	900	
4410	Independence	Wm. L. C. Palmer	2	21	35	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	4	80	288	
4411	Jasper City	W. H. Ferguson	2	7	6	0	0	3	4	0	0	0	43	53	214	
4412	Knox City	C. D. Lewis	1	0	7	6	0	0	3	4	0	0	126	122	5,000	
4413	La Monte	S. C. Books	3	8	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	124	
4414	Marshall	R. H. Emberson	4	1	31	71	0	0	0	0	6	13	4	5	0	
4415	Maryville	A. E. Clarendon	2	3	76	89	0	15	12	9	2	7	11	5	7	0
4416	Mexico	W. T. Carrington	2	2	70	22	0	0	4	7	3	2	5	0	0	400
4417	Moberly	R. L. Reid	2	1	16	22	0	0	0	0	0	7	8	0	0	1,200
4418	Mound City	U. W. Gallaher	1	1	43	43	0	0	2	8	6	5	3	212	252	35,000
4419	Oregon	Louis N. Gray	2	0	26	33	0	0	0	5	4	2	11	130	159	25,000
4420	Parry	R. N. Kirby	1	0	7	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	59	95	1,500	
4421	Utica	H. N. Stamper	1	1	27	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	275	
4422	Windsor	Geo. B. Sturgis	2	1	50	60	0	0	2	1	3	5	200	29,000	
MONTANA.																
4423	Anaconda	Miss M. Livingstone	1	3	9	35	2	6	1	7	1	3	360	20,000
4424	Butte City	J. P. Hendrick	2	3	85	100	0	0	15	32	22	10	8	1,640	1,900	8,800
4425	Dillon	R. H. Wade	1	1	15	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	700	475,000
4426	Lewistown	Prof. T. J. Lear	1	1	24	27	0	0	4	3	0	0	2	60	250	12,000
NEBRASKA.																
4427	Aurora	J. L. Rose	1	1	37	45	7	9	41	49	350	20,000
4428	Bellevue	Wm. B. Iover	1	1	13	19	2	3	0	0	24	8,800
4429	Cretes	Mrs. E. K. Manville	2	1	46	62	0	0	2	4	5	4	1	0	200	24,000
4430	Kearney	M. Isabel Stewart	1	2	41	68	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	700	51,000
4431	Lincoln	M. W. Richardson	4	10	121	265	2	11	21	25	35	10	10	700	200,000

* Statistics for 1894-95, received after the preceding table had been closed.

Statistics of public high schools—Continued.
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED IN 1893-94, BUT FAILING TO REPORT IN 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-uates in 1895.		Col-lege pre-par-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in mil-itary fac-ilities.	Vol-umes in lib-rary.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furni-ture, and sci-entific apparat-us.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
NEBRASKA—cont'd.																						
4432	Long Plue.....		4	3	13	0	0	0	10	10	5	1	4	4	3	116	80	100	\$8,800
4433	Norfolk.....	J. A. Hornberger.....	1	3	30	35	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	7	13	250	35,000
4434	Ogallala.....	M. F. Laughlin.....	1	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	190	186	11	5,500
4435	Ponca.....	B. H. Culver.....	1	1	7	21	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	2	623	613	2,000	8,800
4436	Plattsmouth*.....	W. N. Halsey.....	2	1	26	58	0	0	0	0	0	2	8	1	1	4	0	450	30,000
4437	Scribner.....	L. A. Williams.....	1	2	19	18	0	0	5	1	10	1	1	1	1	4	0	45	10,000
4438	Stratton.....	Nellie Sparlin.....	1	2	4	0	0	1	2	2	3	0	0	0	0	11	14	12	6,000
4439	Sutton.....	Alex. Stephens.....	1	1	11	30	0	0	1	8	1	8	267	265	200	20,000
4440	Wymore.....	Miss Elizabeth Hum- phrey.....	1	3	50	52	2	3	2	2	260	298	360	50,000
NEVADA.																						
4441	Eureka.....	J. Jones, jr.....	2	0	7	23	1	3	1	3	8	15	20	25,000
NEW HAMPSHIRE.																						
4442	Farmington.....	Albert B. Allen, A. M.....	1	1	23	38	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	17,000
4443	Great Falls.....	J. M. Russell.....	1	2	21	29	0	0	3	7	2	5	0	0	150	20,000
4444	Laconia*.....	H. H. Tucker.....	2	5	52	77	0	0	5	3	47	10	15	1	2	0	0	60	30,000
4445	Leicester.....	D. T. Timberlake.....	1	1	13	20	0	0	2	8	2	4	18	18
4446	New Market.....	F. T. Johnson.....	1	0	16	28	0	0	2	0	2	2	2	2	4	0	0	0	15,000
4447	Peterboro.....	Ella C. Alboft.....	0	3	20	30	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12,000
4448	Raymond.....	Lizzie C. True.....	1	1	29	24	1	10	15	1	9	8	15	1,200	12,000
4449	Warner.....	J. M. Barton.....	1	1	16	25	0	0	0	0	6	7	0
4450	Washington.....	Elmer E. Farnsworth.....	1	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEW JERSEY.																						
4451	New Brunswick.....	Livingston A venue High School.....	2	6	110	120	12	13	6	2	3,000	75,000

4452	Vineand NEW YORK.	High School	H. J. Wightman	1	1	32	48	1	10	16	0	0	0	175	62,000	
4453	Amsterdam	Union School	Jno. G. Serviss	1	2	18	22	0	3	0	2	1	500	600	30,000	
4454	Babylon	do	F. H. Lane	1	2	45	30	0	3	2	3	3	140	2,956	44,150	
4455	Bolivar	Academy and Union School	A. G. Osborne	1	2	16	22	0	4	1	0	2	128	585	6,941	
4456	Brookfield	do	C. E. Osborne	1	1	10	13	0	3	2	0	0	60	800	5,335	
4457	Cattaraugus	Union School	Jas. V. Sturgis	1	1	10	18	0	4	0	0	7	131	1,200	25,000	
4458	Clayton	do	Chas. A. Shaver	1	2	45	55	0	0	5	8	1	130	250	40,000	
4459	East Aurora	do	Chas. Goldsmith	1	2	55	99	0	1	2	1	2	197	1,575	40,000	
4460	Fort Covington	do	L. W. Ward	1	3	6	12	0	0	0	0	0	83	320	8,798	
4461	Hamburg	do	B. H. Heath, B. L.	1	2	65	78	0	0	5	8	0	210	1,101	18,000	
4462	Havana	do	H. C. Jeffers	1	3	6	7	0	0	2	2	0	77	68	3,000	
4463	Irvington	do	R. A. McDonald	2	4	44	46	2	2	0	0	0	213	2,196	60,000	
4464	Jordan	Free Academy	W. S. Lattimer, A. B.	0	4	40	60	0	3	1	1	0	125	1,500	25,000	
4465	Le Roy	Union School	Miss E. Henderson	0	2	42	38	0	2	5	8	5	11	1,092	19,318	
4466	Lestershire*	do	E. T. Graves	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	129	25	14,000	
4467	Marathon	Academy and Union School	W. A. Ingalls	1	1	12	17	0	1	2	2	4	90	264	5,800	
4468	Masonville	Union School	Gay V. Wilson	1	0	7	18	0	0	0	0	13	15	26	19,200	
4469	Middletown	Walkill Academy	W. A. Wilson	2	2	43	40	1	0	0	0	5	64	438	15,000	
4470	Monticello	Union High School	Prof. O. Monroe	1	1	14	20	0	1	0	0	19	48	450	15,000	
4471	Mount Morris	do	A. M. Curtis	1	1	14	16	0	1	0	0	0	14	308	17,970	
4472	New Berlin	Academy and Union High School	W. M. Bennett	1	1	16	39	0	1	0	2	0	80	623	3,325	
4473	New York City	Central Evening High School	George White	1	2	52	0	6	0	0	0	0	1,411	0	0	
4474	Niagara Falls (Station A).	Suspension Bridge High School	T. B. Lovell, A. M.	1	3	10	21	0	1	3	3	6	1	2	0	80,000
4475	do	Union High School	R. A. Taylor	1	4	27	60	0	4	6	0	2	402	4,300	96,000	
4476	Portville	do	W. H. Smith	1	0	20	17	0	0	0	0	1	120	757	12,000	
4477	Putaski	Academy	S. R. Shear	2	2	15	0	12	1	2	2	8	25	30	1,000	
4478	Rickburg	Union High School	F. L. Peckham	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	58	70	10,000	
4479	Salem	Washington Academy	W. B. Harding	1	2	8	55	0	1	0	0	1	90	92	12,000	
4480	Sidney	Union High School	F. W. Gorth	1	2	8	9	0	2	3	0	1	224	1,200	27,600	
4481	Southville Flats	do	Jno. H. Murray	1	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	1,500	3,500	
4482	Spencer	do	S. D. Marsh	1	1	35	37	1	29	31	0	2	4	100	3,500	
4483	Union Springs	do	A. M. Tschell	1	2	18	24	1	4	0	1	0	70	1,700	17,500	
4484	Waterloo	do	Thos. C. Wheeler	2	3	59	56	0	0	3	4	9	2	146	28,100	
4485	Waverly	do	P. M. Hull	2	3	49	71	0	1	6	11	25	30	17	1,569	35,000
4486	Winthrop	Fraser and Stockholm High School	Wm. H. Adams	1	2	15	21	0	0	0	6	3	73	82	9,900	
4487	GOLD HILL	Bethany Academy	L. H. Rothrock	1	0	18	18	0	4	2	0	0	37	37	100	500
4488	Goldboro	Graded and High School	Geo. W. Corner	1	2	59	86	0	30	60	0	2	5	2,500	0	
4489	Reidsville	Graded and High School (colored)	C. C. Somerville	1	0	5	9	5	0	2	0	0	139	147	0	
4490	do	Graded and High School (white)	W. E. Darden	2	0	22	39	0	4	11	0	0	96	163	12,000	

* Statistics for 1894-95, received after the preceding table had been closed.

Statistics of public high schools—Continued.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED IN 1893-94, BUT FAILING TO REPORT IN 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name and principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Students below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Students in military fac-ties.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
			4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
			1	1	26	15	0	0	0	1	3	8	4	2	3	1	7	6			892	\$200,700
			1	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	2	4	7	7				80	7,000
			2	2	45	52			18	10	8	11	5	4	3	2	99	106			300	20,000
			1	1	2	13	17						0	0	0	0	75	74			35	5,000
			1	1	6	5	0	0	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	0	57	42			0	2,800
			1	1	16	32	1	1	1	8	15	1	2	5	2	3	119	142			290	20,000
			1	0	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	52			50	1,600
			1	4	26	57	0	2				6	7	9			15	25			120	250
			1	1	0	5	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	17	13			200	4,000
			1	1	13	19	0	0					3	6			87	64			160	16,000
			2	3	32	24	3	2					5	7			140	160			156	40,000
			2	4	63	94	6	8					4	7			156	160			156	40,000
			1	1	14	16	0	0	1				0	0	0	0	56	59			20	6,000
			1	1	10	18	0	0	3	10	0	0	1	5	1	5	22	10			300	5,000
			1	1	10	20	0	0					0	0	0	0	10	8			300	8,000
			1	2	20	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	15	22			250	10,000
			1	1	11	9	0	0					6	4	0	0	15	22			4	1,500
			1	2	23	32	0	0					6	4	0	0	15	22			4	1,500
			1	5	74	119	4	2	29	34	26	48	13	20	6	11	0	0			1,500	45,000
			1	0	7	14	0	0	2	3	2	4	2	1	0	0	0	0			1,500	35,000
			2	0	24	36	0	0	5	8	0	0	1	3	1	3	138	171			25	2,500
			5	5	20	30	0	0	9	20	0	0	1	3	1	3	80	120			50	18,000
			1	4	79	137	2	1					10	11		0	0	0			400	100,000
			1	3	28	53	1	0					4	10	2	0	345	318			200	25,000
			1	2	18	29	0	0					3	4	2	1	100	99			50	5,000
			1	0	23	20	0	0					4	1	4	1	100	99			50	5,000

4517	Geneva.....	J. P. Treat.....	5	1	50	74	0	0	8	5	5	6	3	2	146	201	400	30,000	
4518	Geneva.....	P. E. Graber.....	1	1	13	15	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	0	125	114	250	5,000	
4519	Glandorf.....	H. F. Raub.....	1	1	18	20	0	0	1	1	2	3	2	0	80	...	
4520	Glandale.....	C. F. Dean.....	1	1	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	
4521	Glenville.....	H. L. Cosgrove.....	2	0	12	4	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	191	204	400	35,000	
4522	Grand Rapids*.....	L. E. Webb.....	1	1	14	13	0	0	0	0	0	2	10	2	72	76	3	0	
4523	Greenville.....	T. G. Croner.....	2	1	67	80	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,400	455	2,300	85,000	
4524	Harbor.....	W. H. King.....	1	0	20	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	15	88	5,000	
4525	Harrisburg.....	D. C. Kehlolt.....	1	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	1	20	20	...	20,000	
4526	Harrison.....	J. E. McKean.....	2	3	40	80	1	3	4	6	6	3	3	3	22	62	800	44,000	
4527	Kent.....	E. O. Tresscott.....	2	1	20	20	0	0	14	10	8	14	3	3	80	40	100	...	
4528	La Grange.....	C. M. Carrick.....	1	0	21	13	0	2	2	4	0	1	1	0	3	1	...	5,000	
4529	Leesburg.....	W. C. Snyres.....	3	1	34	30	0	5	5	5	4	2	2	49	41	950	10,000		
4530	Leroy.....	W. M. Glasgow.....	1	4	44	46	0	0	7	1	11	7	0	0	500	10,000	
4531	Madisonville.....	E. B. Dyer.....	1	4	69	138	0	2	1	3	0	27	3	3	1,317	1,283	400	95,000	
4532	Mansfield*.....	E. D. Lyon.....	1	0	5	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	18	0	10,000	
4533	Mendon.....	W. E. Kershner.....	1	1	13	15	0	0	6	7	3	1	1	1	27	26	100	10,000	
4534	Millersburg.....	R. H. Stunkle.....	1	1	13	15	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	14	11	100	1,000	
4535	Nelson.....	P. L. Oesch.....	1	1	0	9	5	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	80	79	...	9,000	
4536	Nevada.....	Wm. H. Hill.....	1	1	2	25	26	0	0	3	4	3	4	3	16	18	50	14,000	
4537	New Concord.....	A. H. McCulloch.....	1	1	0	7	17	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
4538	New Holland.....	G. W. Hoffman.....	1	0	17	28	1	1	1	1	0	5	1	0	600	35,000	
4539	New Lisbon.....	W. M. Henderson.....	2	1	17	28	1	1	12	12	12	12	5	2	169	175	400	6,000	
4540	Oxford.....	C. W. M. Clure.....	1	2	29	45	2	3	2	1	2	1	4	2	4	6	345	...	
4541	Pikeeton.....	W. M. Clayton.....	1	2	12	16	1	2	1	2	1	4	2	4	112	85	200	11,000	
4542	Plymouth.....	H. B. Work.....	1	2	25	36	0	2	6	3	1	3	1	1	
4543	Portsmouth.....	D. P. Pratt.....	1	2	54	98	6	3	2	13	2	1	2	1	
4544	Reynoldsburg.....	D. J. Snyder.....	2	1	60	60	0	0	1	...	2	5	5	0	53	43	35	1,000	
4545	Seven Mile.....	E. C. Eikenberry.....	2	1	56	28	0	0	12	10	2	1	3	5	16	18	500	1,000	
4546	Sheldon.....	T. E. Warro.....	2	1	56	28	0	0	12	10	2	1	3	5	16	18	500	1,000	
4547	Smithville.....	Jus. Q. Zaring.....	1	1	5	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	75	55	630	6,000	
4548	Talmadge.....	W. M. Webb.....	1	1	18	17	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	1	51	48	...	40,000	
4549	Wauseon.....	J. W. Grabel.....	2	1	36	51	0	0	4	6	3	1	1	1	104	163	180	...	
4550	Wellsville.....	Miss R. Reynolds.....	2	2	20	38	0	0	6	3	4	13	1	1	
4551	West Bedford.....	J. H. Dull.....	1	1	12	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	31	37	10	3,500	
4552	Westboro.....	R. E. Andrews.....	1	0	8	15	0	0	5	1	5	1	5	3	57	45	...	4,000	
4553	Wooster.....	S. S. Milligan.....	7	2	84	134	1	0	3	5	3	4	9	25	8	9	400	100,000	
OREGON.																			
4554	Baker City.....	J. A. Chvrchhill.....	2	0	28	24	0	0	0	0	12	3	0	0	300	348	600	30,000	
4555	Grants Pass.....	W. B. Adams.....	1	1	12	16	0	0	20	16	10	12	0	0	258	257	...	19,000	
4556	Hillsboro.....	J. H. Stanley.....	1	1	16	18	0	0	5	7	...	7	0	237	252	...	15,000		
4557	La Grande*.....	Miss L. M. Collison.....	1	2	15	11	0	0	4	5	...	4	5	210	213	200	12,000		
4558	Medford*.....	N. L. Narregan.....	1	1	8	7	0	0	7	7	7	7	0	247	233	30	...		
4559	Portland*.....	Frank Bigler.....	7	8	317	518	1	0	0	0	0	21	40	6	0	0	4	...	
4560	Roseburg.....	W. J. Lacey.....	1	0	8	5	0	0	0	0	0	7	5	0	242	245	500	...	
PENNSYLVANIA.																			
4561	Ashland*.....	S. H. Clair.....	1	1	32	52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	642	671	1,500	15,000	
4562	Berlin.....	J. J. Bralier.....	1	1	5	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	90	105	130	...	

* Statistics for 1894-95, received after the preceding table had been closed.

Statistics of public high schools—Continued.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED IN 1893-94, BUT FAILING TO REPORT IN 1894-95—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.		Name of principal.		Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Preparing for college.				College prepar-atory stu-dents grad-uating in class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in military fac-ties.	Volums in library.	Val-ues of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and set-entific apparatus.		
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
4563		1																						
4564	Bridgeport.	1	1	5	16	1	16	36	1	4	10	291	290	2	250	15,000	90	\$37,000						
4565	Bryn Mawr.	1	1	26	30	0	30	0	0	0	0	4	27	300	60,000	300	0	5,400						
4566	Burlingame.	1	1	3	10	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4567	Canonburg *	2	1	16	36	1	36	1	1	4	10	291	290	2	250	15,000	90	\$37,000						
4568	Carlisle.	1	1	15	23	0	23	0	0	5	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4569	Catasauqua.	1	3	22	56	0	56	0	1	2	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4570	Centralia *	1	2	50	72	0	72	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4571	Chambersburg.	2	15	256	298	1	298	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4572	Cottersville *	2	0	22	43	0	43	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4573	Emporium.	1	0	10	10	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4574	Halifax.	2	2	20	26	0	26	0	0	10	3	15	6	7	4	3	2	0	0	7,894	250	13,000		
4575	Honesdale.	1	1	14	29	0	29	0	0	4	7	15	6	7	4	3	2	0	0	7,894	250	13,000		
4576	Levittsburg.	1	3	57	95	0	95	0	0	4	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4577	McKeesport *	1	1	21	37	0	37	0	0	4	6	7	3	6	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4578	Marietta.	0	8	92	146	0	146	0	2	0	10	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4579	Meadville.	1	1	30	40	1	40	1	2	0	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4580	Mt. Joy.	1	1	9	16	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4581	Osceola Mills.	1	1	9	16	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4582	Rochester.	1	1	24	24	0	24	0	0	2	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4583	Saegertown.	2	1	39	66	0	66	0	0	2	3	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4584	Seranton.	1	1	13	17	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4585	Spartansburg.	1	1	18	13	0	13	0	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4586	Weatherly.	1	1	14	20	1	20	1	0	7	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4587	White Haven.	1	1	87	290	1	290	1	1	27	23	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			
4588	Wilkes Barre.	3	3	87	290	1	290	1	1	27	23	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	7,894	250	13,000			

4588	RHODE ISLAND.	High School	F. W. Alexander	1	4	35	45	0	0	6	8	1	0	5	9	3	3	400	25,000	
4589	East Providence	Johnston High School	F. A. Spratt	1	2	29	40	0	0	7	14	0	0	4	7	4	0	200	0	
	SOUTH CAROLINA.																			
4590	Bamberg	High School	H. S. Hartzog	3	3	49	40	0	0	20	12	10	0	3	5	3	41	39	4,000	
4591	Beaufort	do	J. R. Verdier	1	1	11	12	0	0	8	4	2	0	0	0	0	36	42	6,000	
4592	Blackville	do	M. H. Ackerman	1	1	18	11	0	0	8	4	2	0	0	0	0	105	123	2,000	
4593	Charaw	do	R. C. M. Ivot	2	0	12	27	4	5	0	0	2	0	2	1	2	140	150	16,000	
4594	Chester	do	W. J. Hand	2	1	22	30	0	0	6	8	0	0	1	1	0	197	137	0	
4595	Dillon	do	P. L. Betha	1	1	4	6	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	21	14	1,200	
4596	Elmore	do	F. M. Sheridan	1	1	34	26	0	0	10	6	12	8	4	1	4	54	36	0	
4597	Fair Play	do	F. D. Bond	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	08	55	0	
4598	Little Rock	do	J. M. Moss	1	0	5	4	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	12	9	0	300	
4599	Ninety Six	do	J. C. Cork	1	2	30	22	0	0	6	8	1	0	0	0	26	22	50	2,500	
4600	Pine Ridge	do	James Wells	1	7	9	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	3	0	1	17	11	36	
4601	St. Matthews	do	M. H. Daniel	1	8	7	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	1	40	46	30	
4602	Stokes Bridge	do	P. P. Betha	1	2	24	27	0	0	16	10	2	6	4	4	4	32	36	200	
4603	Woodruff	do	B. W. Getsinger	1	0	12	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	28	1,500	
	SOUTH DAKOTA.																			
4604	Parker	High School	Edwin Dukas	1	1	11	12	0	0	11	12	0	0	3	2	3	2	250	15,000	
4605	Sioux Falls	do	Herbert Davenport	2	2	49	76	1	3	10	10	8	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	
	TENNESSEE.																			
4606	Andersonville	Big Valley Academy	J. M. Stookesbury	2	1	40	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	25	3,000	
4607	Beech Grove	College	E. W. Chadwick, A. B.	2	0	25	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	55	45	800	
4608	Benton	High School	H. F. Kinser	1	0	7	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	41	0	
4609	Caucy Spring	Academy	J. W. E. Floyd	1	1	6	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	38	0	
4610	Chattanooga	High School (white)	Wilford Cankins	4	4	70	130	0	0	6	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	345,000	
4611	do	Howard High School (colored)	J. A. Henry	1	0	14	10	14	0	0	0	0	2	11	0	0	0	0	0	
4612	Clinton	High School	E. B. Booth	2	0	46	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	126	145	2,500	
4613	Corryton	Walnut Grove Academy	H. B. Clapp	1	0	31	16	0	0	10	3	0	0	0	0	0	29	26	1,500	
4614	Daisy	Preparatory School	W. C. Milliken	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	100	100	0	
4615	Evie Mills	High School	J. B. Hicks, B. S.	1	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	38	23	2,500	
4616	Flag Pond	Seminary	Jno. C. McEwen	1	2	20	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	55	0	
4617	Glass	Palestine High School	W. R. Moore	2	0	15	11	0	0	5	4	5	0	0	0	0	70	61	1,300	
4618	Henderson Cross Roads.	Fall Creek High School	J. W. Patton	1	0	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	1,000	
4619	Hill City	North Side High School.	U. Y. Canik	1	0	6	18	0	0	6	18	0	0	5	6	0	70	150	2,000	
4620	Joppa	Sulphur Springs Acad-emy.	C. C. Justus	2	0	48	48	0	0	10	2	5	4	0	0	27	22	25	1,500	
4621	Kenton	Institute	J. E. Maury	1	0	10	12	0	0	0	0	10	12	0	0	0	58	62	0	
4622	Laneview	Male and Female Acad-emy.	J. W. Meadows	1	1	22	18	0	0	8	0	0	0	8	5	4	1	58	58	1,500
4623	Memphis	Leath High School	C. H. Collier	1	9	63	233	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	40	0	0	0	32,210	
4624	Morganton	High School	D. B. Simpson, B. A.	2	0	15	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	3	0	0	0	1,000	
4625	Newbern	Male and Female Semi-nary.	J. P. Grey	1	1	12	19	0	0	1	5	5	7	1	0	1	150	158	50	
4626	Pelham	Institute	Wm. Nelson	2	1	40	47	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	4	0	20	33	0	

* Statistics for 1894-95, received after the preceding table had been closed.

Statistics of public high schools—Continued.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTED IN 1893-94, BUT FAILED TO REPORT IN 1894-95.—Continued.

State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Name of principal.	Second-ary in-struct-ors.		Stu-dents in sec-ondary grade.		Colored sec-ondary stu-dents in-cluded.		Preparin _g for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stu-dents in grad-uating class.		Stu-dents below sec-ondary grade.		Length of course in years.	Stu-dents in military tac-tics.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, furniture, and sci-entific apparatus.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
			4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
WASHINGTON.																							
4697	Fairhaven.....	W. J. Hughes	1	1	11	17	0	0	4	5											26
4698	Port Townsend.....	O. B. Grant.....	2	0	38	33	0	0	6	10											225	\$125,000	
4699	Tacoma.....	J. no. Roberts.....	6	5	106	174			6	10											475	75,000	
WEST VIRGINIA.																							
4700	Charleston.....	Mary R. McCwigan.....	0	2	27	29	0	0	12	4	0	0	3	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	300	50,000	
4701	Morgantown.....	Harvey Brand.....	1	1	13	42			4	2				12	1	0	120	140		75	
4702	Parkersburg.....	F. P. Aues.....	2		38	60			4				3	9	0	0				400	
WISCONSIN.																							
4703	Beaver Dam.....	H. B. Hubble.....	1	3	56	70			4	6	5	9	2	9	1	3	21	13			200	40,000	
4704	Brandon.....	Thos. Webster.....	1	0	5	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	0	0			300	2,300	
4705	Columbia.....	M. H. Jackson.....	1	2	35	40	0	0	6	7	5	4	2	3	1	1	0	0			250	15,000	
4706	Durand.....	J. W. Nesbit.....	1	1	17	30	0	0					2	1	1	1					130	10,000	
4707	Evansville.....	L. E. Gettle.....	1	2	35	55			5	3	3	1	3	1	3	1	2	125	140			450	3,000
4708	Kilbourn City.....	C. W. Smith.....	1	1	36	41	0	0	2	0	0	0	10	0	2	36	80				75	17,600	
4709	Milton Junction.....	J. B. Borden.....	1	1	24	30	0	0	0	0	4	12	8	0	3	0	0	0			200	60	
4710	Montfort.....	Thos. J. Metcalf.....	1	1	11	34	0	0					2	2	2	2	0	0			0	0	
4711	New London.....	J. C. Freehof.....	1	3	50	55			4	11	11	3	5	3	5	3	15	31			525	
4712	Waupaca.....	F. A. Howell.....	1	3	50	55	2	0					4	6			0	0			260	22,467	

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries,

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
	ALABAMA.			
1	Abbeville	Southeast Alabama Agricultural School.	J. K. Davis	Nonsect ..
2	Anniston	Noble Institute for Boys <i>a</i>	W. H. MacKellar, M. A. ...	Nonsect ..
3	do	Noble Institute for Girls *	Miss N. Warder	Epis
4	Ashland	Ashland College *	James H. Riddle, Ph. M. ...	Nonsect ..
5	Ashville	Ashville Academy	E. B. Moore	Nonsect ..
6	Athens	Trinity Normal School *	Miss K. S. Dalton	Cong
7	Auburn	Auburn Female Institute	G. W. Duncan	Nonsect ..
8	Bevill	Pelham High School	Thomas P. Tate	Nonsect ..
9	Birmingham	Follock-Stephens Institute	Miss O. W. Summers	Nonsect ..
10	Birmingham (corner Sixteenth st. and Avenue K).	South Highlands Academy	Joel C. Du Bose, A. M. ...	Nonsect ..
11	Birmingham	The Taylor School	William P. Taylor, B. A. ...	Nonsect ..
12	Birmingham (201 South 20th st.).	Zelosophian Academy	James H. B. Hall, A. B. ...	Nonsect ..
13	Blacks Store	High School *	J. R. Graves Toland	Nonsect ..
14	Brundidge	do	H. C. Saunders	Nonsect ..
15	Butler	Butler Academy	O. L. Gray	Nonsect ..
16	Carrollton	Male and Female Academy	W. E. Turnipseed	Nonsect ..
17	Centerville	Centerville College	J. D. Cooper	Nonsect ..
18	Childersburg	Childersburg High School	C. F. Striplin	Nonsect ..
19	Chanton	University Military School	E. Y. McMorries, Ph. D. ...	Nonsect ..
20	Collinsville	High School	Douglass Allen	Nonsect ..
21	Cullman	Polytechnic College and Ladies' Institute.	S. A. Felter, A. M., B. I. ...	Nonsect ..
22	Danville	North Alabama Baptist Collegiate Institute and Normal School.	Josephus Shackelford, D. D.	Bapt
23	Demopolis	Marengo Female Institute	J. W. Beeson, A. M.	Nonsect ..
24	do	Marengo Military Academy	W. Allen McLeod	Nonsect ..
25	Edwardsville	Cleburne Institute	G. W. Cole	Nonsect ..
26	Elkmont	High School	Henry J. Fusch	Nonsect ..
27	Elyton	Elyton Institute	J. H. Swindell	Nonsect ..
28	Enterprise	Male and Female High School	J. A. Steed	Nonsect ..
29	Eutaw	High School *	Miss K. I. Alexander	Nonsect ..
30	Flomaton	do	J. W. Agnew	Nonsect ..
31	Florence	Florence Institute	Alex. S. Paxton, A. B. ...	Nonsect ..
32	Gaylesville	High School	John L. Ray, A. M., Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
33	Greensboro	Greensboro Female College *	J. B. Cassidy	Nonsect ..
34	Grovehill	Male and Female Academy	M. B. Du Bose	Nonsect ..
35	Harpersville	Elm Hill Academy	J. L. Leo	Nonsect ..
36	Hartsells	Hartsells Normal College *	S. J. Farris	Nonsect ..
37	Healing Springs	The Industrial Academy	J. B. Hamberlin, A. M. ...	Bapt
38	Heflin	Ross Institute	W. U. Almon	Nonsect ..
39	Holena	High School *	H. G. Fulton	Nonsect ..
40	Hickmans	Hickmans High School *	Mrs. A. J. Upchurch	Bapt
41	Hillsboro	Hillsboro High School b	do	Nonsect ..
42	Jackson	Jackson Academy	W. A. McLeod	Nonsect ..
43	Joppa	Sherrill College	J. B. Sherrill	Nonsect ..
44	Leighton	Male and Female Academy *	J. S. Hawkins	Nonsect ..
45	Lincoln	High School *	E. D. Acker	Nonsect ..
46	Lower Peach Tree	Male and Female Academy	J. F. Gillis	Nonsect ..
47	Marion	Marion Baptist Academy	W. M. Montgomery	Bapt
48	do	Marion Military Institute	J. T. Murfee	Nonsect ..
49	Midway	High School	G. R. Hall	Bapt
50	Mobile	Academy of the Visitation	Sister M. Stanislaus Campbell.	R. C.
51	do	Evangelical Lutheran Institute	Wm. Weinbach	Ev. Luth ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$50.

ONDARY SCHOOLS.

and other private secondary schools, 1894-95.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.	
		Total secondary stud-ents.		Colored secondary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that graduates in 1895.												
								Classi-cal course.		Scien-tific course.																
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24					
2	2	122	68	0	0	44	36	12	8	6	4	0	0	6	\$4,000	1				
2	0	44	0	0	0	37	0	6	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	4	69	100	25,000	2				
1	5	0	60	0	0	0	40	0	40	0	2	0	0	200	40,000	3				
1	1	57	43	0	0	43	47	10	6	15	10	5	4	20	20,000	4				
1	0	13	7	62	42	5			
1	1	14	16	14	16	54	84	1	1	6			
1	2	10	16	5	59	0	0	10	15	200	2,000	7			
1	0	8	4	7	6	700	8			
0	2	0	84	0	0	4	41	0	1	20,000	9			
2	1	24	4	0	0	27	8	20	4	2	0	7	2	7	0	300	4,000	10			
2	0	14	9	33	13	5	3	2	1	2	1	2	1	4	11			
2	1	27	30	0	0	43	40	1,000	12			
0	1	18	15	47	51	4	3	3	4	300	13			
1	1	33	18	20	32	12	15	10	0	3,000	14			
1	1	16	10	0	0	16	18	3	3	15			
1	1	15	5	0	0	10	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	16			
1	1	25	21	0	0	27	19	3,000	17		
1	1	22	21	0	0	31	47	3	2	17	12	1	3	3,500	18		
1	1	23	26	0	0	20	38	17	5	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	26	0	2,500	19		
1	1	20	36	0	0	20	12	10	4	6	2	6	2	6	2	4	100	6,000	20			
2	2	20	18	0	0	21	35	20	12	7	6	250	2,500	21			
1	0	6	11	29	30	0	1	5,000	22		
1	3	0	50	0	0	5	38	0	12	0	0	0	5	1,500	10,000	23			
2	1	56	0	10	0	18	0	4	0	24		
2	0	20	20	30	46	3	0	3	0	7	3	0	0	0	2	0	1,000	25			
1	0	10	6	0	0	15	9	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	3	0	1,000	26		
1	1	9	8	40	42	0	0	300	2,000	27			
1	1	10	8	30	20	450	28			
1	0	3	9	32	10	10	800	29		
1	0	16	6	0	0	10	8	30		
1	0	13	0	0	0	12	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	31		
1	1	30	30	0	0	30	20	13	13	20	9	4	500	4,500	32			
1	4	0	63	0	0	3	18	0	6	1,500	15,000	33			
0	1	16	10	0	0	19	9	5	3	0	0	34		
1	0	8	6	0	0	16	11	6	150	800	35			
0	3	30	20	0	0	20	25	5	0	0	0	200	4,000	36			
1	0	6	5	4	15	6	5	0	0	15	2,000	37			
1	1	26	32	36	32	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	800	38		
1	1	20	9	0	0	8	12	11	16	0	0	2	3	1	3	0	39		
0	1	15	11	0	0	7	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	40		
1	1	20	24	16	8	5	4	2	0	41		
1	1	10	6	0	0	141	107	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,000	42		
2	1	35	15	0	0	26	29	13	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,000	43	
1	0	18	13	0	0	20	16	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,000	44		
0	2	17	19	0	0	21	23	1	4	2	0	0	2,000	45	
2	0	10	21	22	32	1	0	4	3,580	46		
5	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	60	0	8	0	6	75	2,000	47		
1	1	10	15	0	0	30	30	0	3	0	3	4	500	60,000	48		
1	0	8	35	0	0	0	40	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	2,000	49		
2	0	17	18	8	10	5	4	50		

b No report received.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
ALABAMA—continued.			
52 Mobile.....	Select School for Girls and Young Ladies.	Miss Sallie E. Hunter.....	Nonsect ..
53 ..do.....	Select School (St. Mary's) *.....	Sister M. Agnes	R. C
54 Mobile (62 Hallet st.)	Towle's Institute for Boys	Amos Towle	Nonsect ..
55 Monroeville.....	Monroeville Academy	J. N. Powers	Nonsect ..
56 Moulton.....	Male and Female Academy*.....	L. R. Day	Bapt.
57 Nealton	Nealton Academy	Miss Mamie B. Lawler.....	Nonsect ..
58 Opelika	Opelika High School.....	A. H. Flake	Nonsect ..
59 Perdue Hill.....	High School	J. N. Ivey, A. B.	Nonsect ..
60 Piedmont	Cumberland Presbyterian Seminary.	J. P. Stephenson.....	Cum.Presb
61 Pine Apple.....	Pine Apple Male and Female College.*	G. R. Ellis	Nonsect ..
62 Pineville	Pineville High School	Miss Mary Goode Stallworth.	Nonsect ..
63 Pisgah	Male and Female Academy	J. J. Beeson	Nonsect ..
64 Pushmataha.....	High School	J. M. Watkins	Nonsect ..
65 Ramer	do	B. H. Boyd	Nonsect ..
66 Roanoke	Roanoke Normal College*	Leonidas Jones	Nonsect ..
67 Rockford	High School	G. M. Hill	Nonsect ..
68 Rutledge	do	R. O. Meek, A. M.	Nonsect ..
69 Salitpa	Salitpa Academy *	Miss Irene R. Beck	Meth
70 Six Mile	Six Mile Academy*	R. H. Pratt	Nonsect ..
71 Springville.....	Spring Lake College*	J. A. B. Lovett, president.	Nonsect ..
72 Sulligent.....	Sulligent Academy*	D. N. Ward	Nonsect ..
73 Talladega.....	Talladega College*	Martin Lovering	Cong
74 ..do.....	Talladega Military Academy..	Howard Griggs	Nonsect ..
75 Trussville.....	Trussville Academy	P. L. Acton	Nonsect ..
76 Tuskaloosa	Verner Military Institute	W. H. Verner	Nonsect ..
77 Tuskegee	Alabama Military Institute	Wm. D. Fonville	Nonsect ..
78 Vernon	Vernon Institute	C. V. Thompson	Nonsect ..
79 Woodstock.....	Woodstock Academy.....	A. W. Hayes	Cum.Presb
ARKANSAS.			
80 Amity	High School	Samuel M. Samson, Ph. B.	Nonsect ..
81 Arkadelphia.....	Arkadelphia Baptist Academy*	F. L. Jones	Bapt.
82 ..do.....	Shorter University	James E. Carter, president.	A. M. E.
83 Belleville.....	High School	J. L. Woodall	Nonsect ..
84 Berryville.....	Clarke's Academy	Isaac A. Clarke	Nonsect ..
85 Carrollton.....	Carrollton Academy	M. Larston	Nonsect ..
86 Clauthron.....	High School	W. W. Lundy, A. B.	Nonsect ..
87 Clinton	Male and Female Academy	T. N. Hill	Nonsect ..
88 Eglantine.....	Eglantine Academy *	David C. Sibley	Nonsect ..
89 Fordyce.....	Conference Training School for Youth.	J. D. Clary	M. E. So ..
90 Gully.....	North Arkansas Academy	J. W. C. Gardner	Nonsect ..
91 Helena	Sacred Heart Academy	Sister Evangelista	R. C
92 Hindsville.....	Hindsville Academy	Jesse Bird	Nonsect ..
93 Hope	Hope Institute	Miss Edna Turpin	Nonsect ..
94 Ingram	Vernon High School	T. W. Campbell	Nonsect ..
95 Judsonia	High School	W. F. Condray, L. I.	Nonsect ..
96 Little Rock	Arkansas Female College	Mrs. Myra C. Warner	Nonsect ..
97 Magnolia	South Western Academy	J. W. Cantwell, B. A.	Nonsect ..
98 Magnolia	"Single Branch System" *	J. W. St. Clair	Nonsect ..
99 Mason Valley	Mason Valley Institute	W. T. Maxwell	Nonsect ..
100 Melbourne.....	Melbourne Academy*	I. K. Hooper	Nonsect ..
101 Monticello.....	Hinemon's University School	J. H. Hinemon, A. M.	Nonsect ..
102 Okolona	Male and Female Academy	J. M. Greene	Nonsect ..
103 Ozark	Franklin Female College	Samuel S. Waters, president.	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
ARKANSAS—continued.			
104 Paragould.....	Thompson's Classical Institute	R. S. Thompson, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
105 Pea Ridge.....	Mount Vernon Normal College.	S. C. Parish.....	Nonsect ..
106 Pine Bluff.....	Jordan's Male Academy.....	W. A. Ramsey.....	Nonsect ..
107 Prairie Grove.....	Fayetteville District High School.*	W. P. King.....	Meth.....
108 Quitman.....	Male and Female College.....	Frank Barnett.....	M. E. So ..
109 Rogers.....	Rogers Academy.....	Rev. J. W. Scroggs.....	Cong ..
110 Rover.....	Fouche Valley High School.....	J. H. Reynolds.....	Nonsect ..
111 Searcy.....	Searcy College.....	Rev. S. H. Babcock.....	Nonsect ..
112 Spierville.....	Subiaco College.....	Rev. T. A. Keeler.....	R. C.....
113 Stephens.....	Stephen A. Bemis Institute ..	C. F. Walker, B. S.....	Nonsect ..
114 Sylvania.....	High School*.....	Charles F. Bizzell, A. B.....	Presb.....
115 Witherville.....	Buckner College.....	J. B. Williamson.....	Epis.....
116 Woodbury.....	Woodbury Normal School.....	A. Cooper.....	Nonsect ..
CALIFORNIA.			
117 Alameda.....	University Academy.....	W. W. Anderson.....	Nonsect ..
118 Belmont.....	Belmont School.....	W. T. Reid, A. M.....	Cong ..
119 Berkeley (P. O. box 42)	Boone's University School.....	P. R. Boone.....	Nonsect ..
120 Berkeley.....	Bowens Academy.....	Thomas Stewart Bowens, M. A.....	Nonsect ..
121 ..do.....	Miss Head's Preparatory School (girls).*	Miss Head, A. B.....	Epis.....
122 Bishop.....	Inyo Academy.....	J. W. Morris, A. M.....	M. E.....
123 Burlingame.....	Hoitt's Oak Grove School for Boys.	Ira G. Hoitt, M. A., Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
124 Chico.....	Chico Academy.....	Rev. J. M. Woodman.....	Nonsect ..
125 Crescent City.....	Crescent City Academy.....	Walter F. Jones.....	Nonsect ..
126 East Oakland.....	Our Lady of Lourdes Academy.	Sisters of Mercy.....	R. C.....
127 Eureka.....	Eureka Academy*.....	N. S. Phelps and C. J. Cradlock.	Nonsect ..
128 Grass Valley.....	Mount St. Mary's Academy a ..	Sister M. Columba.....	Nonsect ..
129 Healdsburg.....	Healdsburg College*.....	W. C. Grainger, M. S.....	7-Day Ad.
130 Irvington.....	Washington Female Seminary.	H. C. Ingram.....	Christian.
131 Lakeport.....	Lakeport Academy.....	J. No. Overholser.....	Nonsect ..
132 Lordsburg.....	Lordsburg College.....	Nonsect ..
133 Los Angeles.....	Collegiate Institute for Boys and Young Men.*	Rev. Anselm B. Brown, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
134 Los Angeles (Adams st., corner Hoover).	The Fröbel Institute*.....	Prof. and Madam Louis Claverie.	Nonsect ..
135 Los Angeles.....	Los Angeles Academy.....	C. A. Wheat, B. L.....	Bapt.....
136 Los Angeles (865 West 23d st.).	Marlborough School ^b	Mrs. G. A. Caswell.....	Nonsect ..
137 Los Angeles (1340-1342 South Hope st.).	Miss Marsh's School.....	Miss Abby S. Marsh.....	Epis.....
138 Marysville.....	College of Notre Dame.....	Sister M. Loretto.....	R. C.....
139 Merced.....	Merced Academy.....	Wm. F. Ringnalda, Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
140 Napa.....	Oak Mound School.....	F. O. Mower, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
141 Nordhoff.....	Thacker's School (Casa de Piedra Ranch).	Sherman D. Thacker, A. B., LL. B.....	Nonsect ..
142 Oakland.....	Convent of Our Lady of the Sacred Heart.	Mother M. Elizabeth.....	R. C.....
143 ..do.....	Field Seminary*.....	Mrs. W. B. Hyde.....	Nonsect ..
144 Oakland (964 18th st.).	Miss Horton's School*.....	Miss Sarah W. Horton.....	Nonsect ..
145 Oakland (528 11th st.).	Oakland Seminary for Young Ladies.*	Mrs. M. K. Blake.....	Nonsect ..
146 Oakland (1213 Madison st.).	Snell Seminary*.....	Miss Mary E. Snell.....	Nonsect ..
147 Pasadena (49 South Euclid ave.).	Classical School for Boys*.....	Stephen Cutter Clark.....	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$650.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and sci-entific appa-ratus.
	Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary stu-dents in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.											
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24					
1	0	19	12	0	0	21	6	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	300	\$200	104				
2	0	25	30	0	0	30	20	12	15	10	7	0	0	0	0	3	250	5,000	105				
2	0	23	0	0	0	17	0	13	0	10	0	5	0	0	0	500	5,000	106					
1	1	28	36	0	0	0	0	5	6	15	3,000	107				
2	1	35	25	25	20	10	5	0	0	4	500	30,000	108				
2	2	50	62	23	15	70	72	1	10	2	1,360	20,000	109				
1	0	8	9	7	4	3	3	100	2,000	110				
1	6	0	0	50	0	27	0	7	0	90	500	50,000	111				
4	0	23	0	0	0	10	0	13	0	112				
2	1	38	40	0	0	41	36	21	23	12	10	0	0	0	0	3	0	7,500	113				
1	0	4	7	0	0	17	12	100	500	114				
1	0	12	6	0	0	1	1	1	1	4	100	10,000	115				
1	2	68	26	0	0	44	23	12	6	18	5	5	3	5	3	4	388	3,000	116				
4	1	40	0	0	0	16	0	2	0	25	0	10	0	8	0	117				
8	1	60	1	0	0	29	3	7	0	33	1	13	1	13	1	64	1,200	156,000	118				
4	0	36	0	0	0	4	0	8	0	16	0	10	0	10	0	4	1,500	22,000	119				
3	0	20	0	0	0	11	0	7	0	13	0	7	0	7	0	3	10,000	120				
0	6	0	54	0	0	9	54	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	3	800	25,000	121					
1	1	13	20	0	0	2	0	3	12	200	15,000	122				
3	0	14	0	0	0	25	0	2	0	6	0	4	0	4	0	300	123				
1	1	5	6	11	6	2	1	2	0	2	0	500	8,000	124				
1	0	8	4	0	0	9	4	2	1	0	0	340	3,000	125				
0	1	19	6	0	0	1	9	3	200	126				
1	1	20	10	10	6	10	10	1	3	127				
0	3	0	10	0	0	0	126	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	800	25,000	128				
7	1	41	38	1	0	35	27	0	0	0	0	4	6	1,000	62,000	129				
3	7	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	2,000	75,000	130				
1	2	21	27	0	0	0	0	2	4	4	0	2	3	1	2	4	300	5,000	131				
.....	132			
1	0	10	0	16	0	3	0	3	0	0	200	133				
3	4	13	17	0	0	30	62	0	3	0	0	0	0	134				
1	1	8	6	17	7	3	4	2	0	1	0	4	700	50,000	135				
0	8	0	45	0	10	0	3	0	1	136				
0	4	0	21	0	0	4	28	0	2	0	1	0	7	0	2	4	137				
0	1	0	20	0	0	59	80	0	10	0	10	0	3	0	3	3	12,300	395,000	138				
2	2	29	78	0	0	13	18	1	2	2	0	875	16,000	139				
3	0	30	0	0	0	40	0	0	0	30	0	0	0	0	0	3	400	5,000	140				
3	1	11	3	0	0	4	0	5	2	6	1	3	0	2	0	400	15,000	141				
0	4	0	16	0	0	0	54	0	4	3	1,406	500,000	142				
1	7	0	60	0	0	0	12	0	6	0	9	0	2	1,000	40,000	143				
0	5	5	32	0	0	34	34	0	0	144				
1	2	0	20	3	12	0	3	0	3	0	1	200	100,000	145				
0	2	0	110	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	6	0	20	0	6	50,600	146				
1	0	13	0	0	0	12	0	6	0	4	0	0	0	147				

b Amount from benefactions, \$5.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
	CALIFORNIA—cont'd.			
148	Pasadena (124 South Euclid ave.)	Classical School for Girls.....	Miss Anna B. Orton.....	Nonsect..
149	Petaluma.....	St. Vincent's Academy.....	Sister M. Leocadia.....	R. C.....
150	Red Bluff.....	Academy of Our Lady of Mercy.	Mother M. Helena.....	R. C.....
151	Redwood City.....	Notre Dame Academy.....	Sister Louis de Gonzague.	R. C.....
152	Rio Vista.....	St. Gertrude's Academy.....	Sister Mary Camilla.....	R. C.....
153	Sacramento.....	Howe's High School and Normal Institute.	E. P. Howe.....	R. C.....
154	Sacramento (12th and K sts.)	Sacramento Institute.....	Brother Walter.....	R. C.....
155	San Diego.....	Academy of Our Lady of Peace.	Sisters of St. Joseph.....	R. C.....
156	do.....	Southwest Institute.....	Misses Way and Kinney..	Nonsect..
157	San Francisco (3142 16th st.)	Anderson's Academy.....	R. Sumter Anderson.....	Nonsect..
158	San Francisco (Dolores st., bet. 16th and 17th sts.)	College of Notre Dame.....	Sister Julia Teresa.....	R. C.....
159	San Francisco (1036 Valencia st.)	Irving Institute.....	Rev. Edward B. Church, A. M.	P. E.....
160	San Francisco (1534 Sutter st.)	Miss Lake's School.....	Miss Mary Lake.....	Nonsect..
161	San Francisco (Fremont and Harrison sts.)	Our Lady of Mercy's Academy.	Sister Mary Elizabeth....	R. C.....
162	San Francisco (2420 Buchanan st.)	Oxford House*.....	William W. Gascoque....	Nonsect..
163	San Francisco.....	Presentation Convent.....	Mother M. Josephine.....	R. C.....
164	San Francisco (Eddy and Larkin sts.)	Sacred Heart College.....	Rev. Brother Alexander..	R. C.....
165	San Francisco (1623 Broadway st.)	St. Bridget's School*.....	Sisters of Charity.....	R. C.....
166	San Francisco (671 Mission st.)	St. Vincent's School.....	Sister Mary Vincent.....	R. C.....
167	San Francisco (3300 Washington st.)	Trinity School.....	Rev. E. B. Spalding, L. H. D., rector.	Epis.....
168	San Francisco (2124 California st.)	Urban School.....	Nathan W. Moore.....	Nonsect..
169	San Francisco (1849 Jackson st.)	Van Ness Young Ladies' Seminary.	S. H. Willey.....	Nonsect..
170	San Francisco (2014 Van Ness ave.)	Miss West's School for Girls..	Miss Mary B. West.....	Nonsect..
171	San Francisco (1604-1606 Van Ness ave.)	Ziska Institute.....	Mme. B. Ziska, A. M.....	Nonsect..
172	San Jose (San Francisco st., bet. Market and 1st sts.)	St. Joseph's College.....	D. J. Mahoney, S. J.....	R. C.....
173	San Luis Obispo.....	Academy of Immaculate Heart of Mercy.	Sister Mencia.....	R. C.....
174	San Mateo.....	St. Margaret's School.....	Rev. Geo. Wallace, A. M., B. D.	P. E.....
175	do.....	St. Matthew's School.....	Rev. Alfred Lee Brewer, D. D.	Epis.....
176	San Rafael.....	Mount Tamalpais Military Academy.	Arthur Crosby, A. M.....	Presb.....
177	Santa Barbara.....	Collegiate Institute.....	T. H. McCune, A. M.....	Nonsect..
178	Santa Clara.....	Academy of Our Lady of Angels.	Sister Mary Beatrix.....	R. C.....
179	Santa Cruz.....	School of the Holy Cross.....	Sister Marie.....	R. C.....
180	Santa Rosa.....	Ursuline Academy.....	Sister Agatha.....	R. C.....
181	Vallejo (Florida st.)	St. Vincent's Convent School..	Sister Gabriel.....	R. C.....
182	Woodland.....	Holy Rosary Academy.....	Mother M. Lucretia.....	R. C.....

* Statistics of 1893-94.

Statistics of endowed academics, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
COLORADO.			
183 Canon City.....	Mount St. Scholastica's Academy.	Sister Mary Rose.....	R. C.....
184 Denver (P.O. box 1185)	Jarvis Hall Military Academy <i>a</i>	Rev. F. S. Spalding, B. A., B. D.	Epis.....
185 Denver.....	Wolfe Hall <i>b</i>	Miss Anna L. Wolcott.....	Epis.....
186 Leadville.....	St. Mary's School.....	Sisters of Charity.....	R. C.....
187 Longmont.....	Longmont Academy <i>c</i>	Curran F. Palmer.....	Presb.....
188 Trinidad.....	Tillotson Academy <i>d</i>	Henry E. Gordon.....	Cong.....
CONNECTICUT.			
189 Baltic.....	Academy of the Holy Family..	Sister Mary Carine.....	R. C.....
190 Black Hall.....	Black Hall School for Boys....	Charles G. Bartlett, M. A.	Nonsect..
191 Bridgeport (89 Courtland Hill).	The Courtland School.....	Miss Frances A. Marble.....	Nonsect..
192 Bridgeport (176 Park ave.).	Park Avenue Institute.....	Seth B. Jones, A. M.....	Nonsect..
193 Bridgeport (416 Fairfield ave.).	The University School.....	Vincent C. Peek.....	Nonsect..
194 Brookfield Center.....	The Curtis School for Boys....	Frederick S. Curtis.....	Nonsect..
195 Cheshire.....	Episcopal Academy of Connecticut.	Rev. James Stoddard, M. A.	P. E.....
196 Clinton.....	Morgan School.....	Dwight Holbrook, A. M..	Nonsect..
197 Colchester.....	Bacon Academy.....	James R. Tucker, B. A.....	Nonsect..
198 Corn wall.....	Housatonic Valley Institute..	Miss Mary L. Phillips.....	Nonsect..
199 Danbury.....	Miss Williams's Private School.	Miss Alice Williams.....	Nonsect..
200 Darien.....	Elmwood Home School.....	Miss Myra J. Davis.....	Nonsect..
201 Easton.....	Easton Academy.....	William M. Gallup.....	Nonsect..
202 Fairfield.....	Fairfield Academy.....	Francis H. Brewer.....	Nonsect..
203 Falls Village.....	The David M. Hunt School.....	Mrs. Charlotte H. Guion.....	Nonsect..
204 Farmington.....	Miss Porter's and Mrs. Dow's School.	Miss Porter and Mrs. Dow..	Nonsect..
205 Glastonbury.....	Glastonbury Academy *.....	J. H. Hutchins.....	Nonsect..
206 Greenwich.....	Greenwich Academy *.....	J. H. Root.....	Nonsect..
207 ..do.....	The Homestead School *.....	The Misses Stowe.....	Nonsect..
208 Hartford.....	Woodside Seminary.....	Miss Sara J. Smith.....	Epis.....
209 Lakeville.....	The Hotchkiss School.....	Edward G. Coy, M. A.....	Nonsect..
210 Lyme.....	Boxwood Boarding and Day School (Girls).	Mrs. Robert Griswold.....	Nonsect..
211 Mystic.....	Mystic Valley English and Classical Institute.	Prof. John K. Bucklyn.....	Nonsect..
212 New Canaan.....	New Canaan Institute.....	Mrs. E. F. Ayres.....	Nonsect..
213 New Haven.....	New Grammar School.....	Joseph Giles.....	Nonsect..
214 ..do.....	Hopkins Grammar School.....	Geo. L. Fox, M. A.....	Nonsect..
215 New Haven (97 Whitney ave.).	Miss Johnstone's School.....	Miss Johnstone.....	Nonsect..
216 New Haven (57 Elm st.).	Miss Orton's and Miss Nichols's School.	Miss Rebecca Orton, Miss Emily R. Nichols.	Nonsect..
217 New Haven (56 Hill-house ave.).	West End Institute School for Girls.	Mrs. Sarah L. Cady.....	Nonsect..
218 New Haven (420 Temple st.).	Miss Willard's School.....	Miss Charlotte A. Willard.	Nonsect..
219 New London.....	Bulkeley School.....	Walter A. Towne.....	Nonsect..
220 ..do.....	Williams Memorial Institute..	Colin S. Buell.....	Nonsect..
221 New Milford.....	Ingleside School.....	Miss Amelia Skillin.....	Epis.....
222 ..do.....	Rectory School *.....	Rev. Haynes L. Everst.....	P. E.....
223 New Preston.....	Upson Seminary.....	Rev. Henry Upson.....	Cong.....
224 Newtown.....	Newtown Academy *.....	P. E. Cliff.....	Epis.....
225 Norfolk.....	The Robbins School.....	Howard W. Carter, A. M.....	Nonsect..
226 North Stonington.....	Edgar Wheeler School.....	Herbert S. Young, A. B.....	Nonsect..
227 Norwalk.....	Miss Baird's Institute.....	Miss Cornelia F. Baird.....	Epis.....

*Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$100.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$10,000.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.				Prepar-ing for college.				Grad-uates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that graduates in 1895.							
												Class-ical course.		Scien-tific course.						Male.	Female.				
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24						
0	2	0	10			0	30							0	0	0	0	3		200		183			
2	0	23	0	0	0	11	0	9	0	9	0	5	0	5	0	4	35	1,600	\$150,000	184					
2	4	0	76	0	0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	4		1,000	275,000	185					
1	1	16	23	0	0	259	297	7	8			2	2					200	30,000	186					
2	1	25	33	0	0	0	0	4	1	4	4	4	10	2	1			450	13,000	187					
3	2	40	55	0	0	0	0	1	2	10	23	6	11	3	8	4		1,000	17,000	188					
0	4	0	25			0	45					0	6	0	3	4		700		189					
4	1	39	0	0	0	4	0	17	0	10	0	8	0	7	0	4		20,000		190					
0	5	0	36	0	0	0	40	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	5		300	16,600	191					
3	0	39	0	0	0	29	0	11	0	15	0	14	0	10	0	4		2,000	28,000	192					
3	1	42	0	0	0	29	0	25	0	17	0	4	0	4	0	5		600	600	193					
1	0	4	0			19	0	3	0	0	0							350		194					
4	1	39	0	0	0	5	0	9	0	19	0	2	0	2	0	4	44	300	50,000	195					
3	3	34	30	0	0	126	105	16	1	2	0	8	2	6	1	4		2,600	60,000	196					
1	1	21	30	0	0	0	0	2	6			3	7	1	2	4		400	5,000	197					
1	1	4	4			16	4		4	2								30	25,000	198					
0	2	0	15	0	0	5	5	0	2			0	3	0	2				1,200	199					
2	0	27	0	0	0	20	17	2	3											200					
1	0	8	9	0	0	7	7	4	0			2	0	2	0			281		201					
1	2	17	8	0	0	8	7	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4			15,000	202					
0	2	18	16			6	10	2	0	1	0	0	3	0	1	3			2,000	203					
5	13	0	125	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0							2,000		204					
1	1	29	30	0	0							2	2	0	0	0		0	10,000	205					
3	2	16	15	0	0	18	12	5	3	2	2	1	8	1	3				5,000	206					
0	1	0	6	0	0	6	28	0	3	0	3							200		207					
1	7	0	30	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0			1,000		208					
8	0	22	0	0	0	0	0	77	0	15	0	22	0	22	0				200,000	209					
0	4	0	26			0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					210					
2	2	10	13	0	0	10	6	4	2	1	0	1	3	1	3	4		600	10,000	211					
1	1	6	8	0	0	8	9	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				5,000	212					
1	0	20	0	0	0	30	0	10	0	10	0					4		350		213					
0	5	0	23	0	0	0	6	0	1	0	2	0	8	0	8					214					
1	5	0	34	0	0	0	9	0	1	0	1	0	4	0	1	4				215					
0	9	0	104					0	0	0	3	0	7							216					
1	2	0	12	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0									217					
4	0	100	0	0	0	0	0	40	0	35	0	22	0	6	0	3		400	50,000	218					
2	6	0	179	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	0							800	125,000	219					
0	0	0	37	0	0	0	16	0	1	0	0	0	10	0	1	4				220					
4	0	34	0	0	0	0	0					5	0							221					
2	0	13	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	7	2	1	0	3		350		222					
1	3	41	29	0	0	29	27	4	5			1	6	1	2			106	6,000	223					
2	2	29	20	0	0	0	0	7	3	6	0	6	3	2	0	4		150	45,000	224					
1	0	4	14	0	0	4	7	0	2			0	2	0	2	3		40		225					
0	2	0	28			0	32					0	4	0	2					226					
0	2	0	28			0	32					0	4	0	2					227					

c Amount from benefactions, \$150.

d Amount from benefactions, \$4,000.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
CONNECTICUT—cont'd.				
228	Norwalk	Norwalk Preparatory School ..	Carl A. Harstom, A. M.	Epis
229	Norwich (280 Broadway).	Norwich Free Academy	Robert P. Keep, Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
230	Putnam	Academy of Our Lady of Perpetual Succor.	Sister M. Paula	R. C
231	Saybrook	Private School (girls)	Miss F. C. Shepard	Nonsect ..
232	Simsbury	McLean Seminary	John B. McLean	Nonsect ..
233	Southport	Seaside Seminary *	Miss Augusta Smith	Nonsect ..
234	Stamford	Betts's Academy *	William J. Betts	Nonsect ..
235	Stamford (5 and 7 Willow st.).	Miss Low's School (girls)	Miss Low	Epis
236	Stamford	Merrill College <i>a</i>	Nonsect ..
237	do	School for Boys	Hiram U. King	Nonsect ..
238	do	School for Young Ladies *	Miss Catharine Aiken	Nonsect ..
239	Suffield	Connecticut Literary Institution.	Rev. W. Scott, A. M.	Bapt.
240	Wallingford	Rosemary Hall	Miss Caroline Runtz-Rees	Epis
241	Washington	The Gunnery	John C. Brinsmade	Nonsect ..
242	Waterbury	Convent of Notre Dame	Sister St. Stanislaus	R. C
243	Waterbury (corner Grove and Cooksts.).	St. Margaret's Diocesan School	Miss Mary R. Hillard	Epis
244	Watertown	Taft's School	Horace D. Taft, A. M.	Nonsect ..
245	Westport	Staples High School	Henry S. Pratt	Nonsect ..
246	Wilton	Wilton Academy	Edward Olmstead	Nonsect ..
247	do	Wilton Boarding Academy *	Augustus Whitlock	Nonsect ..
248	do	Wilton Educational Institute	Charles W. Whitlock	Nonsect ..
249	Windsor	Young Ladies' Institute *	Miss J. S. Williams	Nonsect ..
250	Winsted	Gilbert School	John E. Clarke, Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
251	Woodbury	Parker Academy	Edward S. Boyd, M. A.	Nonsect ..
252	Woodstock	Woodstock Academy	E. R. Hall, A. B.	Nonsect ..
DELAWARE.				
253	Dover	Wilmington Conference Academy.	W. L. Gooding, Ph. D.	M. E.
254	Milford	The Classical School	Robert T. Sloss, A. B.	Nonsect ..
255	Newark	Academy of Newark and Delaware Normal School.*	Rev. James Dickson Shanks, D. D.	Presb.
256	Wilmington	Friends' School	Isaac T. Johnson, M. A.	Friends (Hicksite) ..
257	Wilmington (Pennsylvania ave. and Franklin st.).	School for Girls	The Misses Hebb	Nonsect ..
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.				
258	Washington (8th st. and Maryland ave. SW.).	Academy of the Sacred Heart c.	Sister M. Wilfrid	R. C
259	Washington	Academy of the Visitation	Mother M. Agnes Mathaney.	R. C
260	Washington (1335 H st. N.W.).	Columbia College Preparatory School.	A. P. Montague, A. M., Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
261	Washington (1811 I st. N.W.).	Friends' Select School	Thomas W. Sidwell	Nonsect ..
262	Washington (3038-3042 Cambridge place).	Gunston Institute	Beverly R. Mason and Mrs. Mason	Nonsect ..
263	Washington (1312 Massachusetts ave.).	Holy Cross Academy	Sister M. Angelica	R. C
264	Washington (1100 M st. N.W.).	Mount Vernon Seminary	Mrs. E. J. Somers	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a No report received.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appar-atus.
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary stud-ents in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.		Prepar-ing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.									
										Clas-sical course.		Scien-tific course.													
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24						
1	0	4	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					
7	11	119	165	1	4	0	0	18	14	9	0	19	22	10	5	4	11	0	\$20,000	228					
0	4	0	40	0	20	0	30	0	3	0	3	4	350	230					
0	1	0	7	0	0	0	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	200	8,000	231					
0	3	0	31	6	3	0	4	0	8	0	5	0	3	4	1,000	232					
0	1	0	28	0	0	4	12	0	0	0	0	500	7,000	233					
4	1	27	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	4	0	234					
0	8	0	48	0	20	0	5	0	0	0	2	0	2	235					
.....	236					
6	0	51	0	17	0	12	0	8	0	12	0	8	0	200	8,000	237					
0	4	0	30	0	0	0	35	0	3	0	16	200	238					
6	4	90	75	0	1	0	0	49	37	15	0	7	13	7	7	4	2,100	239					
0	6	0	20	0	8	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	175	15,000	240					
4	2	34	7	12	2	12	1	4	0	4	0	241					
0	4	0	28	0	150	0	2	4	1,800	68,000	242					
0	8	0	91	0	58	0	5	0	5	0	0	5	243					
.....	244					
6	0	34	0	0	0	12	0	25	0	9	0	11	0	11	0	4	350	30,000	244					
1	1	25	10	0	0	40	35	0	0	1	0	5	4	3	2,500	30,000	245					
1	0	10	1	0	0	3	2	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	246					
2	0	10	0	0	0	25	0	0	0	2	0	247					
1	0	12	0	0	0	18	0	6	0	3	0	3	0	2	0	2	300	15,000	248					
0	4	0	40	0	1	0	15	0	4	0	8	0	6	0	4	249					
2	6	61	77	0	1	0	0	6	14	5	5	2	4	2	4	4	2,258	100,000	250					
1	1	27	33	0	0	2	3	4	4	2	3	2	3	0	1	4	125	1,800	251					
2	2	31	21	0	0	5	5	4	5	2	0	3	5	1	2	4	500	18,000	252					
.....	253					
4	3	50	40	0	0	17	8	18	0	10	8	10	8	10	4	3	1,000	75,000	253					
1	1	10	13	0	0	3	9	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	254					
1	1	33	17	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	6	255					
4	4	43	45	0	0	93	79	2	5	5	3	7	5	5	2	4	700	50,000	256					
0	5	0	40	0	35	0	2	0	4	0	1	0	0	257					
.....	258					
0	4	0	15	0	40	0	4	0	0	4	700	100,000	258					
0	8	0	60	0	40	259					
7	0	50	0	0	0	15	0	22	0	20	0	28	0	28	0	4	500	75,000	260					
4	6	40	22	0	0	79	30	6	1	24	12	4	4	1	1	4	400	261					
0	8	0	34	0	0	5	7	0	1	0	1	0	6	0	1	4	500	262					
0	4	0	35	0	0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	7	4	2,000	60,000	263					
0	5	0	60	0	105	0	13	264					

b Amount from benefactions, \$1,200.

c Amount from benefactions, \$300.

Statistics of endowed academics, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—continued.			
265	Washington (1435 K st.).	Norwood Institute.....	Mrs. Wm. D. Cabell..... Nonsect ..
266	Washington (1827 I st.).	Olney Institute*.....	Misses Dorsey..... Epis
267	Washington (601 E. Capitol st.).	St. Cecilia's Academy.....	Sisters of the Holy Cross. R. C
268	Washington (1225 Vermont ave.).	St. John's College.....	Rev. Brother Fabrician... R. C
269	Washington.....	School of Notre Dame.....	Sister Mary Euphonia... R. C
270	Washington (1823 Jefferson place).	The University School (Boys)..	Robert L. Preston, A. B... Nonsect ..
271	West Washington.....	Academy of the Visitation.....	Mother Superior..... R. C
272	do.....	The Linthicum Institute*.....	Edwin B. Hay..... Nonsect ..
FLORIDA.			
273	Gainesville.....	Boarding and Day School.....	Miss Maggie Tebeau..... Epis
274	Jacksonville.....	Cookman Institute.....	Miss Lillie M. Whitney... M. E.
275	do.....	Edward Waters College <i>a</i>	Wm. Henry Gibson..... A. M. E. ..
276	do.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Mother Claverie..... R. C
277	Jasper.....	Jasper Normal Institute.....	J. M. Guilliams..... Nonsect ..
278	Key West.....	Convent of Mary Immaculate.....	Sister M. Delphine..... R. C
279	Live Oak.....	Florida Institute.....	Rev. Geo. P. McKinney... Bapt.
280	St. Augustine.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Sister Margaret Mary... R. C
281	St. Leo.....	St. Leo's Military College <i>b</i>	Rev. F. Benedict, O. S. B. R. C
282	San Antonio.....	Holy Name Academy.....	Rev. Mother M. Dolorosa, O. S. B. R. C
283	Tampa.....	Miss Baker's Seminary.....	Miss Abbie Baker..... Nonsect ..
284	do.....	Convent of the Holy Names.....	Sister M. Theophilus... R. C
GEORGIA.			
285	Albany.....	Albany Academy.....	Hanson W. Jones..... Nonsect ..
286	Arabi.....	Arabi Institute*.....	A. F. Ware..... Nonsect ..
287	Athens (812 Prince ave.).	Home School for Young Ladies.	Miss Sosnowski..... Nonsect ..
288	Athens.....	Jernel Academy <i>c</i>	John H. Brown..... Bapt.
289	do.....	Knox Institute.....	L. S. Clark, A. M..... Cong
290	Atlanta.....	Atlanta Baptist Seminary <i>d</i>	Rev. George Sale, B. A... Bapt.
291	do.....	Capitol College*.....	Leonora Beck, president. Nonsect ..
292	Atlanta (99 Leonard st.).	Spelman Seminary <i>e</i>	Miss Harriet E. Giles... Bapt.
293	Atlanta (46 Walton st.).	Washington Seminary.....	Mrs. W. T. Chandler..... Nonsect ..
294	Augusta.....	Academy of Richmond County.	C. H. Withrow..... Nonsect ..
295	do.....	The Payne Institute.....	Geo. Wms. Walker, A. M. M. E. So ..
296	do.....	St. Mary's Academy.....	Sister Mary Rose..... R. C
297	do.....	St. Patrick's Commercial Institute.	Brother Dosithaus..... R. C
298	do.....	Sacred Heart Academy*.....	Sister Mary Scholastica. R. C
299	do.....	Summerville Academy*.....	Sterling G. Brinkley... Nonsect ..
300	do.....	Walker Baptist Institute <i>f</i>	Rev. G. A. Goodwin... Bapt.
301	Blue Ridge.....	Blue Ridge Institute.....	E. S. Harrison, A. B..... Meth
302	Canton.....	Etowah Military Institute*.....	George D. Pollock, B. Ph. Nonsect ..
303	Carnesville.....	High School*.....	Howell B. Parker..... Nonsect ..
304	Cartersville.....	West End Institute.....	Mrs. J. W. Harris, sr... Nonsect ..
305	Cave Spring.....	Hearn Male School and Female Seminary.	Claude Gray..... Bapt.
306	Cleveland.....	Cleveland High School*.....	Albert Bell..... Nonsect ..

* Statistics 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$82.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$600.*c* Amount from benefactions, \$129.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Instruct-ors.		Students.																		Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.					
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elem-entary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College preparatory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.														
								Clas-sical course.		Scien-tific course.																		
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24					
0	4	0	30	0	0	0	56	0	2	0	0	0	3										2,500	265				
0	2	0	12			0	4	0	3	0	2	0	0	0	0									\$2,700	266			
0	4	0	55			0	135							0	4	0	3	4					600		267			
6	0	110	0	0	0	25	0	110	0																	268		
0	4	0	28			64	472							0	6									1,000		269		
2	0	14	0	0	0	7	0	10	0	4	0	0	3	0	3	0								500		270		
0	20	0	110			0	40							0	7									8,000		271		
6	0	100	0			50	0			50	0														75,000		272	
0	1	0	7	0	0	0	51			0	0														10,000		273	
0	3	28	35	28	35	77	107						0	2	0	2									25,000		274	
2	1	15	25	15	25	57	118						2	2	0										10,000		275	
0	6	0	20	8	12	40	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	0													276	
2	2	61	61	0	0	65	64						12	11													277	
2	2	10	39	10	39																			1,000	4,500		278	
2	2	12	8	1	1	0	71	12	8				0	0	0	0	3							325			279	
0	3	0	34			0	41			0	3	0	0	3										400			280	
3	0	15	0			30	0	3	0	2	0	4	0	3	0									3,000	25,000		281	
0	2	0	11			5	19																				282	
0	1	0	11			39	77	0	4																		283	
0	7	25	57	25	57	100	130						0	3											1,450		284	
2	0	32	30	0	0	98	102	8	5				2	3	2	3	4							40	3,000		285	
1	2	25	35	0	0	40	20	25	20	5	10	7	8	10	5									300	1,500		286	
0	3	0	30			0	30						0	10										500			287	
1	1	30	31	30	31	37	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0												5,275		288
4	0	3	4	3	4	82	155	3	4				1	0	1	0	3							75	4,500		289	
4	0	50	0	50	0	72	0	50	0	0	0	14	0	13	0	4									50,000		290	
2	4	0	90	0	0	0	40						0	6													291	
1	7	0	52	0	52	0	413	0	3	0	0	0	7	0	0	3								2,500	150,000		292	
2	7	0	59	0	0	0	60	0	3	0	0	0	7	0	0	4								400	50,000		293	
3	0	92	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	17	0													100,000		294
1	1	39	28			56	58					15	2	5	8	4								400	14,439		295	
0	5	0	35			0	165	0	17				0	8	0	4	4									50,000		296
3	0	25	0	0	0	125	0						5	0											567			297
0	4	0	35	0	0	52	231						0	6	0	6									300			298
1	1	5	18	0	0	43	33						0	0	0	0										10,000		299
4	3	36	56	36	56	46	71	4	3	0	0	0	1	1	0	3								50	5,000		300	
2	1	15	16	0	0	75	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0								110	3,000		301	
2	1	38	37	0	0	45	25	15	10	5	0	3	2	3	2									400	5,500		302	
1	2	45	55			30	25	6	4	5	2	0	0	0	0										0	2,000		303
0	2	5	35	0	0	20	25	3	6	0	0	1	6	2	5	4									700	6,100		304
1	1	37	33	0	0	38	23					6	5	6	4	5										40,000		305
1	1	12	10	0	0	51	53																					306

d Amount from benefactions, \$402.

f Amount from benefactions, \$400.

e Amount from benefactions, \$2,804.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
GEORGIA—continued.			
307 Cochran.....	New Ebenezer College.....	Everett M. Turner, president.	Bapt.....
308 Columbus (217 12th st.)	Columbus College.....	Miss A. J. Backus and Miss B. Waddell.	Nonsect ..
309 Columbus.....	Wynnton High School.....	J. E. McRee.....	Nonsect ..
310 Cooksville.....	High School.....	G. W. St. John.....	Nonsect ..
311 Crawfordville.....	Stephens High School.....	L. A. McLaughlin.....	Nonsect ..
312 Dahlonega.....	North Georgia Agricultural College.	I. W. Waddell.....	Nonsect ..
313 Decatur.....	Agnes Scott Institute.....	Miss Nannette Hopkins.....	Presb.....
314 ..do.....	Donald Fraser High School.....	G. Holman Gardner, A. B.....	Presb.....
315 Delmar.....	Marietta Camp Ground Academy.	Thomas M. Pierce.....	Meth.....
316 Douglasville.....	Douglasville College.....	Rev. J. T. Lin.....	Nonsect ..
317 Eastman.....	Eastman Academy.....	J. A. Bryan.....	Nonsect ..
318 Ellijay.....	Ellijay Seminary*.....	Rev. Ralph Pierce, A. M.....	M. E.....
319 Everett Springs.....	Everett Springs Seminary.....	W. J. Moore, president.....	Nonsect ..
320 Fairburn.....	Fairburn Institute.....	Buell Stark.....	Nonsect ..
321 Fairmount.....	Fairmount College.....	Rev. J. A. Sharp, A. B.....	Meth.....
322 Flowery Branch.....	Flowery Branch College.....	N. A. Moss.....	Nonsect ..
323 Geneva.....	Geneva Academy.....	Z. Whitehurst, B. S.....	Nonsect ..
324 Glenn.....	Glenn High School.....	J. C. C. Treeman.....	Nonsect ..
325 Greensboro.....	Thomas Stocks Institute.....	N. H. Ballard.....	Nonsect ..
326 Haleyondale.....	Lee Evans Institute.....	F. D. Seckinger.....	Nonsect ..
327 Hamilton.....	West Georgia Agricultural and Mechanical College.*	J. E. McRee.....	Nonsect ..
328 Hartwell.....	The Hartwell Institute.....	M. L. Parker, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
329 Hephzibah.....	High School*.....	C. H. S. Jackson.....	Bapt.....
330 Hiwassee.....	do.....	A. B. Greene, A. B.....	Bapt.....
331 Jackson.....	Jackson Institute.....	Jas. C. Blasingame, president.	Nonsect ..
332 Jefferson.....	Martin Institute.....	C. L. Gunnels, A. B.....	Nonsect ..
333 La Grange.....	High School*.....	Clifford L. Smith.....	Nonsect ..
334 Lake Park.....	do.....	J. C. Culpepper.....	Nonsect ..
335 Lawrenceville.....	Lawrenceville Seminary.....	Philip E. Davant.....	Nonsect ..
336 Leo.....	Mossy Creek High School*.....	J. W. Smith.....	Nonsect ..
337 McIntosh.....	Dorchester Academy.....	Fred W. Foster.....	Cong.....
338 Macon.....	Ballard Normal School.....	Geo. C. Burrage.....	Cong.....
339 ..do.....	St. Stanislaus Novitiate.....	Rev. John Brislan, S. J.....	R. C.....
340 Metter.....	Metter Grammar School*.....	Jason Scarboro.....	Bapt.....
341 Milledgeville.....	Middle Georgia Military and Agricultural College.*	John Charles Woodward, A. B.....	Nonsect ..
342 Mineral Bluff.....	High School.....	J. M. Clement, jr.....	Bapt.....
343 Monroe.....	Johnston Institute*.....	John Gibson.....	Nonsect ..
344 Montezuma.....	Spalding Seminary.....	W. E. Ware.....	Nonsect ..
345 Monticello.....	Male and Female College.....	J. W. Moore.....	Nonsect ..
346 Morgan.....	High School.....	W. S. Moore.....	Nonsect ..
347 Mount Zion.....	Mount Zion Seminary*.....	W. D. Stevenson, Ph. B.....	M. E.....
348 Norcross.....	Norcross High School and Collegiate Institute.*	Prof. E. T. Cato.....	Nonsect ..
349 Oliver.....	High School.....	J. M. Lutts.....	Nonsect ..
350 Penfield.....	Mercer High School.....	John S. Callaway.....	Bapt.....
351 Pinehurst.....	Pinehurst Academy.....	W. O. Sanders.....	Nonsect ..
352 Powder Springs.....	High School*.....	Walter McElreath.....	Nonsect ..
353 Reynolds.....	do*.....	J. O. Maugham.....	Nonsect ..
354 Savannah (30 Harris st.)	Beach Institute.....	Miss Julia B. Ford.....	Am. Miss. Ass.
355 Savannah (184 Drayton st.)	Oglethorpe Seminary.....	Miss Mary S. Young.....	Nonsect ..
356 Savannah (88 Ball st.)	Savannah Academy.....	John Taliaferro.....	Nonsect ..
357 Senoia.....	Excelsior College*.....	W. H. Woodall.....	Bapt.....

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appa-ratus.	
	Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.								
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24		
2	0	17	19	0	0	47	57	1	4	2	0	3	0	3	0	4			\$16,000	307	
0	4	0	25	0	0	7	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	3						308	
0	2	25	15			15	17	10	12							3		0	10,000	309	
1	1	12	8			22	20	2	3					0	0	0	4	0		310	
1	1	26	15			16	36	4	6					0	0	0	4		2,000	311	
2	2	76	20			30	19							5	1		117	5,000	50,000	312	
3	7	0	67			0	164							0	6		4	1,000		313	
2	0	25	0	0	0	30	0	7	0	2	0	6	0	6	0	0	4	500	7,000	314	
1	0	25	0			40	20	3	2	2	0	1	0	1	0				2,500	315	
2	1	4	60			50	75	10	15	5	0	4	2	2	2	4		100	5,000	316	
1	2	25	35			40	35	8	15	0	0	3	7	2	4	4			7,000	317	
1	1	8	10	0	0	71	54	4	5	0	0	0	0	0			100	10,000		318	
2	0	10	8	0	0	63	46	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3		50	2,000	319	
2	1	50	51			45	54	15	29											7,000	320
1	1	20	20			105	90					2	2	0	1	4		25	6,000	321	
1	2	10	16			30	54	2	5										1,000	322	
1	1	16	20	0	0	25	31	2	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	4				323	
1	1	22	20	0	0	40	30	14	10											324	
2	1	19	21	0	0	67	51	2	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	3		200	6,000	325	
1	1	21	18			8	7	7	6			3	6	2	4				1,100	326	
1	1	20	20	0	0	25	15	10	10	0	0	0	0	0				0	10,000	327	
1	2	70	55			60	50	10	10	1	0	2	5	2	1	4			3,000	328	
4	3	26	25			75	75	10	15			4	8						3,000	329	
2	1	69	28			35	36	69	21									275	800	330	
2	1	40	58	0	0	91	92					1	6	1	3	4		250	800	331	
3	0	77	69	0	0	39	34	12	5	16	2	2	1	3	0			450	20,000	332	
2	1	56	0	0	0	29	0	10	0	21	0	3	0	3	0				5,000	333	
1	1	18	25	18	25	22	20	3	4							1			1,500	334	
1	2	6	13	0	0	47	48	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3		0	5,000	335	
1	1	40	34			23	27	2	0	1	0								2,000	336	
1	1	10	6	10	6	185	224	1	0							4		400	7,500	337	
2	3	15	50	15	50	85	250					1	5			5		400	30,550	338	
5	0	34	0	0	0	0	0					11	0	7	0	5		6,000		339	
1	0	30	29	0	0	27	18	6	0	0	0					5				340	
5	2	120	45	0	0	144	105	70	25	50	20	5	1			5		2,000	100,000	341	
1	0	34	26	0	0	39	33	8	5	7	6	0	0	0	0				1,500	342	
2	0	18	19	0	0	0	0	18	19	0	0	4	3	4	3			100	5,000	343	
0	1	6	6	0	0	12	9	0	4	6	0	0	4	0	4					344	
1	1	20	16			30	35													345	
0	1	16	12			14	13												500	346	
2	0	10	20			52	78	2	2										6,000	347	
1	1	30	50	0	0	35	30	7	12	1	0	7	6	3	2					348	
1	0	6	5			21	12	1	0										1,200	349	
0	1	13	11			18	22	4	18											350	
1	0	5	5			30	15	0	0							4			650	351	
1	0	11	4	0	0	40	33	2	3			0	0	0	0			0	1,200	352	
1	0	29	18			43	29	1	2										1,200	353	
0	2	19	48	19	48	104	138	2	11	1	0	4	10	4	10	2		414	1,441	354	
0	3	0	10			0	23					2	2	0	2	4		150	10,000	355	
1	0	17	0	0	0	13	0	17	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	4			12,000	356	
1	2	8	15	0	0	22	30					0	0					500	3,500	357	

a Amount from benefactions. \$4,000.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
GEORGIA—continued.				
358	Sharpsburg	Sharpsburg Academy	J. H. Melson	Nonsect ..
359	Shellman	Shellman Institute	T. P. Branch	Nonsect ..
360	Silver Creek	High School*	S. J. Boykin	Nonsect ..
361	Smyrna	do	L. W. Mizell	Nonsect ..
362	Social Circle	Social Circle Academy	C. L. Wolcott	Nonsect ..
363	Stilesboro	Stilesboro Academy	W. L. Abbott	Nonsect ..
364	Sumach	Sumach Seminary*	Jno. H. Anderson	Nonsect ..
365	Swainsboro	High School*	W. E. Arnold	Nonsect ..
366	Sylvania	Sylvania Academy	F. R. Alexander	Nonsect ..
367	Tennille	Tennille Institute	R. H. Powell, jr., A. B.	Nonsect ..
368	Thomasville	South Georgia College	E. H. Merrill	Nonsect ..
369	Tunnel Hill	High School	R. L. Crawford	Nonsect ..
370	Unadilla	do	J. E. McDonald	Nonsect ..
371	Union Point	Union Point Academy	Geo. W. Tribble	Nonsect ..
372	Vickery's Creek	Midway High School*	Rev. Lamont Gordon, A. M.	Nonsect ..
373	Walnut Grove	Walnut Grove Academy	John J. Nash	Nonsect ..
374	Warrenton	Warrenton Academy	J. E. Purks	Nonsect ..
375	Washington	St. Joseph's Academy	Mother Clemence	R. C
376	Weston	Weston High School	J. G. Calhoun	Nonsect ..
377	Whitesburg	Hutcheson Collegiate Institute ^a	Rev. Geo. W. Griner, A. B.	M. E. So ..
378	Winder	Winder Institute*	S. P. Orr	Nonsect ..
379	Winterville	Winterville Academy	Dr. G. B. Atkisson	Nonsect ..
IDAHO.				
380	Caldwell	The College of Idaho	William Judson Boone	Presb.
381	Lewiston	Episcopal School	J. D. McConkey	P. E
ILLINOIS.				
382	Albion	Southern Collegiate Institute ^a	Frank B. Hines	Cong
383	Alton	Ursaline Convent of the Holy Family	Martha Theresa Gillespie	R. C
384	Anna	The Union Academy of Southern Illinois	Rev. H. L. Bean	Presb.
385	Aurora (cor. Broadway and North ave.)	Jennings Seminary	Rev. A. R. Crouce	M. E.
386	Bunker Hill	Bunker Hill Military Academy	S. L. Stiver, A. B., A. M.	Nonsect ..
387	Cairo	Chase Academy	Miss J. L. Chase	Nonsect ..
388	do	St. Joseph's Female Seminary*	Sister Sophronia	R. C
389	Chicago	Ascham Hall ^b	Miss Kate B. Martin	Nonsect ..
390	Chicago (Station P.)	Chicago Female College*	Miss Julia H. Thayer	Nonsect ..
391	Chicago (2141 Calumet ave.)	Dearborn Seminary	Mrs. Jennie F. Pennington	Nonsect ..
392	Chicago (Wabash ave. and 35th st.)	De La Salle Institute	Brother Pius	R. C
393	Chicago (479-81 Dearborn ave.)	Girls' Collegiate School	Miss Rebecca S. Rice, A. M.	R. C
394	Chicago (249 Dearborn ave.)	Grant Collegiate Institute	Miss Mary A. Mineah, A. M.	R. C
395	Chicago (2101 Indiana ave.)	The Harvard School	J. J. Schobinger and John C. Grant	R. C
396	Chicago (5001 Lake ave.)	Kenwood Institute*	Miss A. E. Butts	R. C
397	Chicago (38 and 40 Scott st.)	Kirkland School	Mrs. T. L. Adams	R. C
398	Chicago (2535 Prairie ave.)	The Loring School	Mrs. Stella Dyer Loring	R. C
399	Chicago (2834 Wabash ave.)	St. Francis Xavier's Academy	Rev. Mother Genevieve	R. C

* Statistics of 1833-94.

^a Amount from benefactions, \$599.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepara-tory stud-ents in the class that graduates in 1895.											
								Classi-cal course.		Scien-tific course.															
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24						
1	0	26	26			20	18	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	3	5		0	\$300	358					
1	0	14	26			43	30	3	1			2	3	2	1	3				359					
1	3	15	17	0	0	32	8	10	13	2	0	0	0	0	0				800	360					
1	1	10	13	0	0	30	22	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0				1,000	361					
1	1	4	7	0	0	58	60							0	0				4,000	362					
1	1	12	10	0	0	61	34	1	0							4		100	3,000	363					
1	1	135	95	0	0	40	30	75	60	25	30	4	3	4	3			1,500	3,000	364					
1	1	31	27			22	18	4	4									0	3,000	365					
1	0	24	17			13	11	0	0	0	0	1	0					0	800	366					
1	1	24	12	0	0	36	26	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0			0	2,000	367					
1	2	40	28	0	0	60	43					0	0					30	20,000	368					
1	1	18	17			27	35	16	14	2	3	3	6	3	6	4				1,000	369				
0	2	20	17	0	0	56	32	2	3	1	0	2	1	1	1	4				1,000	370				
1	1	5	13			15	27	3	7							3			0		371				
1	2	64	46	0	0	0	0	2	0	32	16	6	2	6	1			400	500	372					
0	0	5	2			47	30					0	0	0	0	2			1,000	373					
1	2	27	33			40	50					3	6	2	3	3			6,000	374					
0	2	0	17			0	25	0	10				0	10	0	10	4	1,500	25,000	375					
1	1	32	34	0	0	11	10	5	13			0	0	0	0	3			0	1,500	376				
1	1	31	34	0	0	69	58	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4			59	3,000	377				
2	2	42	30	0	0	66	67	1	0	1	0	0	1						0	3,000	378				
0	1	5	6	0	0	2	8	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0				0	300	379				
1	2	15	37	0	0	2	7	1	2	0	0	5	4	5	0	3		1,000	3,000	380					
1	0	15	12	0	0	5	5	3	0	1	4	0	0	0	0						381				
4	0	31	10	0	0	31	50					0	2			4		1,200	10,000	382					
0	2	0	35	0	0	0	25	0	5	0	5	0	6	0	5	4					383				
3	1	21	14	0	0	8	14	1	0	8	10	0	1	0	1			500	8,700	384					
2	4	54	56	0	0	40	34	20	25			2	3	2	1			500	75,000	385					
1	1	20	10			10	10	5	5							15		500	25,000	386					
1	2	31	40			10	12	3	6	7	8	2	2	2	2			100		387					
0	1	0	12	0	0	0	75					0	0	0	0			150	6,100	388					
1	4	0	50	0	0	15	50	0	3				0	2	0	3		600	3,000	389					
1	3	0	50	0	0	20	0	2	2				0	2				600		390					
0	10	0	78	0	0	0	20	0	12				0	12	0	4	4			2,000	391				
17	0	320	0	0	0	0	0	50	0	35	0	33	0	6	0	4		5,000	200,000	392					
2	2	1	39	0	0	17	55			1	25	0	2	0	1	5		2,200		393					
0	5	0	60			0	15	0	2			0	3	0	3	4		1,000		394					
6	2	80	0			70	0	50	0	20	0	14	0	14	0	4		500	40,000	395					
1	4	0	55			15	25					0	6	0	2			500	10,000	396					
0	7	0	73	0	0	43	127	0	5	0	6	0	8	0	3	5		1,200	50,000	397					
0	8	0	48	0	0	20	31	0	10	0	6	0	5	0	3						398				
0	12	0	86	0	0	0	192	0	0	0	0	0	16			4		6,000		399					

‡ Amount from benefactions, \$10.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
ILLINOIS—continued.			
400	Chicago (222 Ashland boulevard).	St. Margaret's School *.....	Miss Virginia Sayre..... Epis.....
401	Chicago (SE. cor. Dearborn ave. and Elm st.).	University School.....	Eugene C. Coulter, A. M. . . Nonsect..
402	Crab Orchard.....	Crab Orchard Academy.....	James W. Turner..... Nonsect..
403	Creal Springs.....	Creal Springs College.....	Mrs. G. B. Murrah..... Bapt.....
404	Dakota.....	College of Northern Illinois *.....	Rev. H. L. Beam, A. M. . . Reformed.
405	Decatur.....	St. Theresa's Academy *.....	Mother Lucy Superior..... R. C.....
406	Elgin.....	Elgin Academy.....	A. G. Welch, A. M. . . . Nonsect..
407	Evanston.....	The Winchell Academy.....	S. R. Winchell, A. M. . . Nonsect..
408	Fairfield.....	Hayward College.....	A. A. Kester, president . . M. E.....
409	Galesburg.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Sister Superior..... R. C.....
410	Geneseo.....	Geneseo Collegiate Institute . .	Rev. Norbury W. Thorn- ton, A. M. Presb.....
411	Godfrey.....	Monticello Female Seminary . .	Miss Harriet N. Haskell . . Nonsect..
412	Greenville.....	Greenville College <i>a</i>	Rev. W. T. Hogg..... Free Meth
413	Highland Park.....	Northwestern Military Acad- emy.....	Col. H. P. Davidson, A. M. . Nonsect..
414	Kankakee.....	St. Joseph's Seminary.....	Sister St. Zephyrina..... R. C.....
415	Knoxville.....	St. Alban's Academy.....	Arthur H. Noyes, B. A. . . Epis.....
416	La Harpe.....	Gitting's Seminary.....	G. W. Gray, president . . Meth.....
417	Langwood.....	Academy of Our Lady of the Sacred Heart.....	Mother Pacifica..... R. C.....
418	Marissa.....	Marissa Academy.....	H. W. Speer..... Un.Presb.
419	Mendota.....	Mendota College *.....	G. V. Clum..... 2d Day Ad.
420	Mount Carroll.....	Mount Carroll Seminary*.....	Mrs. F. A. Wood Shimer . . Nonsect..
421	Mount Morris.....	Mount Morris College <i>b</i>	J. G. Royer, president . . Ger. Bapt.
422	Nauvoo.....	St. Mary's Academy.....	Mother M. Ottilia..... R. C.....
423	Onarga.....	Grand Prairie Seminary <i>c</i>	Rev. S. Van Pelt, A. M., D. D. M. E.....
424	Ottawa.....	St. Francis Xavier's Academy .	Sister Mary Paula..... R. C.....
425	Paxton.....	Rice Collegiate Institute.....	Rev. R. H. Blome..... Cong.....
426	Port Byron.....	Port Byron Academy <i>d</i>	J. E. Conner, A. B. . . . Cong.....
427	Princeville.....	Princeville Academy.....	Thaddeus H. Rhodes, A. B. Nonsect..
428	Quincy.....	St. Mary's Institute for Young Ladies.....	Sisters of Notre Dame... R. C.....
429	Rardin.....	Lee's Academy.....	G. W. Lee..... Nonsect..
430	Springfield.....	Bettie Stuart Institute.....	Mrs. A. M. Brooks..... Nonsect..
431do.....	Concordia College.....	Prof. R. Pieper..... Ev. Luth.
432do.....	St. Agatha's School.....	Mrs. L. A. Smith..... Epis.....
433	Sycamore.....	Waterman Hall.....	Rev. B. F. Fleetwood, D. D. P. E.....
434	Toulon.....	Toulon Academy.....	Samuel W. Scott..... Nonsect..
435	Upper Alton.....	Western Military Academy.....	Willis Brown..... Nonsect..
436	Vermilion Grove.....	Vermilion Academy.....	Geo. H. Moore, Ph. B. Friends..
INDIANA.			
437	Bloomington.....	Friends' Bloomington Acad- emy.....	A. F. Mitchell..... Friends..
438	Borden.....	Borden Institute*.....	H. H. Buerk..... Nonsect..
439	Collegeville.....	St. Joseph's College <i>d</i>	Rev. Augustine Seifert . . R. C.....
440	Fairmount.....	Fairmount Academy and Nor- mal School.....	Elwood O. Ellis..... Friends..
441	Fort Wayne.....	St. Augustine's Academy.....	Sister Domitilla..... R. C.....
442do.....	Westminster Seminary.....	Miss C. B. Sharp, and Mrs. D. B. Wells..... Presb.....
443	Indianapolis (783 N. Delaware st.).	Boys' Classical School.....	L. R. Baugher..... Nonsect..
444	Indianapolis (345 N. Pennsylvania st.).	Girls' Classical School.....	Theodore L. Sewall, A. B., L. L. D., and Mrs. May Wright Sewall, A. M. . . Nonsect..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$5,000.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$4,500.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appa-ratus.
	Total second-ary stud-ents.				Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that graduates in 1895.							
	Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.					
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24				
0	3	0	37	0	0	4	15	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	400	\$30,000	400				
10	0	105	0	0	0	60	0	60	0	30	0	14	0	12	0	105	100,000	401				
3	1	42	26	0	0	26	14	3	1	2	1	9	1	2	1	4	150	3,000	402				
1	1	25	20	16	89	400	10,000	403				
2	1	13	13	0	0	11	19	1	1	1	0	3	1	0	0	4	350	404				
0	1	0	14	0	0	106	130	300	405				
2	4	48	46	0	0	31	15	5	4	10	4	8	5	8	2	4	200	60,000	406				
2	1	13	6	0	0	20	30	2	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	4	800	100	407				
5	5	150	40	0	0	50	10	2	0	8	2	10	2	300	10,000	408				
0	1	0	25	86	129	30	409				
5	5	55	69	0	0	0	2	3	200	30,000	410				
0	10	0	100	0	50	2,000	500,000	411				
3	2	20	20	0	0	25	40	1	3	6	4	10	5	0	3	4	500	25,000	412				
4	1	27	0	20	0	2	0	4	0	3	0	2	0	3	500	65,000	413				
0	7	0	68	0	0	0	245	663	35,290	414				
5	1	41	0	0	0	9	0	5	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	4	1,000	58,000	415				
1	2	38	42	0	0	30	40	20	30	15,000	416				
0	8	0	30	0	65	0	18	0	12	0	9	0	9	4	2,000	417				
2	0	11	15	5	5	2,000	418				
4	1	11	17	0	0	0	0	1	5	4	4	2	1	2	1	3,500	419				
1	4	0	36	0	0	0	22	0	420				
8	4	189	113	0	0	0	0	24	21	27	18	12	13	12	11	4	30,000	60,000	421				
0	3	0	20	0	33	200	422				
5	6	200	214	0	0	0	0	10	10	20	15	4	3	3	2	5	1,000	40,000	423				
0	4	0	60	0	0	0	90	0	0	0	30	0	1	1,000	424				
2	1	24	22	0	0	29	23	5	2	2	2	9	12	5	6	3	60	15,000	425				
3	1	6	7	0	0	11	10	1	2	5	5	2	3	2	3	2	200	5,000	426				
1	2	31	19	0	0	0	0	7	9	4	6	1	1	1	1	4	250	1,200	427				
0	6	0	75	0	0	0	100	428				
1	0	10	4	0	0	9	7	6	3	3	1	1,000	429				
0	3	0	100	0	40	0	5	0	3	0	4	0	2	5	500	30,000	430				
3	0	90	0	2	0	190	0	0	0	0	0	45	0	45	0	2	3,000	100,000	431				
0	2	0	28	0	0	0	20	0	1	0	432				
0	6	0	62	0	23	0	0	433				
1	2	31	46	0	0	14	8	1	6	3	20	1	6	1	2	4	50	1,200	434				
8	1	47	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	9	0	8	0	7	0	4	500	150,000	435				
1	1	25	14	0	0	11	21	200	5,000	436				
1	2	19	9	0	0	32	43	800	8,000	437				
4	0	60	40	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	0	3	1	3	0	4,000	25,000	438				
8	0	74	0	0	0	41	0	4	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	5	38	720	95,000	439				
2	3	78	61	2	0	0	0	500	20,000	440				
0	3	0	40	0	240	441				
0	4	0	35	0	0	0	15	2,000	35,000	442				
2	1	16	0	6	0	3	0	443				
2	9	0	98	0	0	6	66	7	2	3	2	0	14	0	7	5	20,000	444				

cAmount from benefactions, \$23,000.

dAmount from benefactions, \$500.

Statistics of endowed academics, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
INDIANA—continued.			
445 Indianapolis	St. John's Academy.....	Sister Superior	R. C
446 ..do.....	St. Mary's Hall*	Rev. Geo. E. and Mrs. Swan.	Epis
447 La Porte	St. Rose's Academy.....	Sister Mary Barbara	R. C
448 Lima.....	Howe School.....	Rev. C. N. Spalding	P. E
449 Michigan City.....	St. Mary's School.....	Rev. J. B. Bleckman	R. C
450 Notre Dame.....	St. Mary's Academy.....	Mother Annunciata	R. C
451 Oakland City.....	Oakland City College <i>a</i>	John Vance Poole, A. M.	Bapt.....
452 Oldenburg	Immaculate Conception Academy.	Sister Mary Veronica	R. C
453 Plainfield	Central Academy <i>b</i>	Robert L. Kelly.....	Friends
454 ..do.....	Sugar Grove Academy.....	Adolphus E. Harvey	Friends
455 St. Marys.....	St. Mary's Academic Institute.	Sisters of Providence.....	R. C
456 South Bend.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Sister M. Ambrose.....	R. C
457 Spartanburg.....	Union Literary Institute*.....	J. F. Cousins.....	Nonsect
458 Spiceland.....	Spiceland Academy.....	G. W. Neet	Friends
459 Vincennes.....	St. Rose Academy.....	Sister Mary Bernardine.....	R. C
460 ..do.....	The Vincennes University.....	Ellwood P. Cubberley	Nonsect
461 Westfield	Union High School.....	A. V. Hodgin.....	Friends
INDIAN TERRITORY.			
462 Atoke.....	Baptist Academy.....	Edwin H. Rishel.....	Bapt.....
463 Coalgate.....	Coalgate Institute *	B. H. Gordon.....	Nonsect
464 Muskogee.....	Harrell International Institute.	Rev. Theo. F. Brewer.....	M. E. So
465 Okmulgee.....	Nuyaka Mission School.....	Miss Lida A. Robe.....	Presb.
466 Vinita.....	Willie-Halsell College.....	W. L. Chapman, A. M., Ph. D.	M. E. So
467 ..do.....	Worcester Academy <i>b</i>	H. L. Hopkins	Cong
IOWA.			
468 Ackley.....	Graves Academic School*.....	G. A. Graves	Nonsect
469 Ackworth.....	Ackworth Academy *	E. W. Beard	Friends
470 Birmingham.....	Birmingham Academy.....	J. W. Wolf.....	Nonsect
471 Bode	Lutheran Academy *	O. A. Sauer	Luth
472 Boone.....	Convent School of Sacred Heart	St. Mary Bertha	R. C
473 Cedar Rapids.....	St. Joseph's Academy of the Sacred Heart.	Sister Mary Agatha	R. C
474 Centerdale.....	Scattergood Seminary.....	E. D. Stout	Friends
475 Clarinda.....	Clarinda Educational Institute.	O. P. Fairfield, A. M.	Nonsect
476 Corning.....	Corning Academy.....	Rev. T. D. Ewing, D. D.	Presb.
477 Council Bluffs.....	St. Francis Academy.....	Sister M. Henrietta.....	R. C
478 Davenport.....	Immaculate Conception Academy.	Sister Mary Gonzaga	R. C
479 ..do.....	Kemper Hall.....	Harvey Ray Coleman, A. M.	Epis
480 ..do.....	St. Ambrose College.....	Rev. J. T. A. Flannagen	R. C
481 Decorah.....	Decorah Institute.....	J. Breckenridge.....	Nonsect
482 Denmark.....	Denmark Academy.....	Charles Ward Macomber, A. M.	Cong
483 Des Moines (566 15th st.).	Miss Clarke's School	Rachel C. Clarke, A. M.	Nonsect
484 Dubuque.....	St. Joseph's College.....	John P. Carroll, D. D.	R. C
485 Earlham.....	Earlham Academy.....	J. A. Beard	Friends
486 Elk Horn.....	Elk Horn College.....	Rev. Christian Anker.....	Luth
487 Epworth.....	Epworth Seminary *	W. S. Lewis, A. M.	M. E.
488 Fort Dodge.....	Tobin College.....	T. Tobin, A. M.	Nonsect
489 Grand Junction.....	St. Mary's School.....	Sister Mary Berchmans.....	R. C
490 Hartland.....	Hartland Academy*.....	Miss Miriam Crunly	Friends
491 Hull.....	Hull Educational Institute*.....	William W. Cook.....	Cong
492 Iowa City.....	Iowa City Academy.....	W. A. Willis.....	Nonsect

*Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefaction, \$5,000.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Instruct. ors.	Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, buildings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total secondary students.		Colored secondary included in columns 7 and 8.		Elementary.		Preparing for college.				Graduates in 1895.		College preparatory students in the class that graduates in 1895.											
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24					
0	5	0	80	0	0	0	270	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	7	5				445				
0	3	0	26	0	0	0	38	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0				\$30,000	446				
0	4	0	25			0	45					0	2			5		500		447				
3	0	28	0			5	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	4		500	50,000	448				
0	3	0	60			150	90	2	12			0	2			4		100		449				
0	8	0	84											0	15			5,781		450				
4	2	20	20	0	0	60	40	5	1			7	1	2	0	2		3,000	10,000	451				
0	7	0	25	0	0	0	50	0	25	0	0	0	9	0	9	4				452				
1	2	50	40			8	10					6	10	5	6	3		500	10,000	453				
1	1	11	5				5	17					0	0	0			30	425	454				
0	10	0	120			0	60					0	15			4		4,000		455				
0	2	0	16	0	0	0	100					0	5			4		300		456				
1	2	18	16	8	6	10	24	0	0	0	0	4	1	0	0			500	8,000	457				
3	1	53	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	3		4,000		458				
0	1	0	40	0	0	20	120	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	4	4		500		459				
6	4	93	135	0	0	12	12					5	2	5	2	5	68	4,000	25,000	460				
1	35	40	0	0	30	15						5	4				1,000	10,000		461				
1	1	2	5	0	2	68	53							0	1	4		150	7,000	462				
1	2	35	25	0	0	97	123	0	0	15	8	23	19	23	19			487	3,750	463				
0	1	0	21			30	50					0	4					300	30,000	464				
1	1	5	3	0	0	40	40			2	1					2		500	15,000	465				
4	1	30	25	0	0	50	35	20	9	15	9	1	3			4		100	50,000	466				
0	3	16	17	0	0	82	88	2	0			3	2	2	1	4		50	20,000	467				
1	1	32	13	0	0	0	0				2	0	0	0	0					468				
3	1	54	43	0	0	0	0	3	3			7	0	0				650	9,000	469				
1	0	10	6			6	2	1	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	2		60	1,500	470				
1	0	8	7	0	0	29	11					0	0	0	0			0	4,000	471				
0	1	0	20			54	66					1	4			4			15,000	472				
0	2	10	2	0	0			1	0	2	0	2	2	2	0	4		300	20,000	473				
2	1	14	12	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	3		250	8,000	474				
2	1	24	48	0	1	0	0	12	24	12	24	1	3	1	3	4			7,000	475				
4	5	54	99	0	0	0	0	12	10	10	12	4	7	4	7	4		300	25,000	476				
0	4	0	62			0	130			0	40	0	6	0	6	4			100,000	477				
0	2	0	49			0	97					0	15			4				478				
3	0	13	0			12	0	2	0	2	0	2	0			4	25	400		479				
5	0	69	0	1	0	7	0					8	0			4		4,000		480				
1	1	32	26			162	91					8	3						4,500	481				
1	1	20	18	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	4			18,000	482				
0	3	6	18			1	1					0	1	0	1	4				483				
0	6	0	100	0	0	0	0	50	0	50	0	15	0	0	0			5,000	80,000	484				
2	5	34	37	0	0	0	0					0	0	0	5			322	10,500	485				
5	1	110	94	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	9						15,000	486				
2	7	95	78	0	0	30	22	25	10	48	35	15	5	15	5			2,000	4,000	487				
2	1	30	25	0	0	20	28	10	5	1	0	10	9	0	2	3		475	30,000	488				
0	1	0	10			20	30	0	0			0	6	0	0			40		489				
0	1	16	16			5	6					2	2					100		490				
3	2	25	30	0	0	5	6	3	2	3	2	3	1	1	0			300	10,000	491				
2	3	80	65	0	0	42	34					22	20	18	11	3		100		492				

b Amount from benefaction, \$600.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
IOWA—continued.			
493 Iowa Falls	Ellsworth College.....	C. W. Lyon	Nonsect ..
494 Legrand.....	Friends' Academy.....	John H. Hadley, A. B.	Friends...
495 ..do.....	Legrand Christian College <i>a</i> ..	D. M. Helfinstine, A. M.	Christian .
496 Mount Pleasant	Howe's Academy *.....	Seward C. Howe.....	Nonsect ..
497 New Providence	New Providence Academy <i>b</i> ..	Volney W. Macy, A. M.	Friends...
498 Nora Springs	Nora Springs Seminary *.....	C. P. Colgrove, A. M.	Nonsect ..
499 Orange City.....	Northwestern Classical Academy.	Rev. James F. Zwemer, A. M.	Reformed.
500 Osage	Cedar Valley Seminary <i>c</i>	Alonzo Abernethy, A. M., Ph. D.	Bapt.....
501 Pleasant Plain	Pleasant Plain Academy	J. W. Marshall.....	Friends...
502 St. Ansgar	The St. Ansgar Seminary <i>d</i>	K. Gjerset.....	Luth.....
503 Salem	Whittier College	W. C. Pidgeon, M. A.	Friends...
504 Vinton	Tilford Collegiate Academy ..	T. F. Tobin.....	Nonsect ..
505 Washington	Washington Academy	J. T. Matthews	Nonsect ..
506 Waukon	Presentation Convent <i>e</i>	Presentation Nuns	R. C.....
507 Wilton Junction	Wilton German-English College. <i>f</i>	Rev. E. Mannhardt	Cong.....
KANSAS.			
508 Abilene	St. Joseph's Academy *.....	Sister M. Bernard Sheridan.	R. C.....
509 Arkansas City	Arkansas City Academy	C. P. Hendershot, A. B.	Nonsect ..
510 Atchison	The Atchison Latin School.....	Carlton A. Foote.....	Nonsect ..
511 Baxter Springs.....	Baxter Springs Normal College.	C. S. Bowman, president..	Nonsect ..
512 Concordia	Nazareth Academy.....	Sister Mary Stanislaus ..	R. C.....
513 Eureka	Southern Kansas Academy.....	Rev. E. G. Lancaster, M. A.	Cong.....
514 Haviland.....	Haviland Academy.....	James E. McMeen.....	Friends...
515 Hesper	Hesper Academy *.....	Theo. Reynolds, A. M.	Friends...
516 Hiawatha	Hiawatha Academy <i>g</i>	L. E. Tupper, M. A.	Nonsect ..
517 Leavenworth.....	Mount St. Mary's Academy.....	Mother Mary Petes.....	R. C.....
518 Lincoln	Kansas Christian College.....	O. B. Whitaker, M. S., A. M.	Nonsect ..
519 McPherson.....	McPherson College.....	S. Z. Sharp, A. M., president	Ger. Bapt.
520 Neosho Rapids	Neosho Rapids Seminary	Charles E. Harroun, jr.	Free Meth
521 Newton	Bethel College.....	Rev. Cornelius H. Wcdel..	Mennonite
522 North Branch	North Branch Academy	D. R. Hawarth, A. B.	Friends...
523 Osage Mission	St. Ann's Academy.....	Mother Ann Joseph.....	R. C.....
524 Ottawa.....	Select School	Miss H. D. Kittredge.....	Nonsect ..
525 St. Marys	St. Mary's College.....	Rev. Edward A. Higgins, S. J.	R. C.....
526 Salina	St. John's School.....	Walter M. Jay, A. M.	P. E.....
527 Stockton	Stockton Academy <i>h</i>	Rev. F. E. Sherman.....	Cong.....
528 Tonganoxie	Tonganoxie Friends' Academy.	Richard Haworth.....	Friends...
529 Washington	Washington Friends' Academy	Henry Townsend.....	Friends...
530 Wichita.....	Fairmount Institute <i>i</i>	W. H. Isely, B. A., B. S.	Cong.....
531 ..do.....	Lewis Academy	J. M. Naylor, Ph. D.	Presb.....
KENTUCKY.			
532 Albany	Albany High School.....	A. L. Rhoton.....	Bapt.....
533 Anchorage	Bellewood Seminary	W. G. Lord.....	Presb.....
534 Ashland	Ashland Collegiate Institute ..	A. V. Babbs.....	M. E.....
535 ..do.....	Eastern Kentucky High School <i>a</i>	Rev. Andrew Fleming.....	P. E.....
536 Auburn	Auburn Seminary *.....	P. A. Lyon, jr.....	Cum. Presb
537 Bardstown	Male and Female Institute	Rev. A. M. Vardeman.....	Bapt.....
538 Beattyville.....	Beattyville Episcopal High School.	J. E. H. Galbraith.....	P. E.....
539 Blandville	Blandville Baptist College.....	J. N. Robinson.....	Bapt.....
540 Boston	Male and Female Academy <i>b</i>	W. B. Gwynn.....	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.

b Amount from benefactions, \$600.

c Amount from benefactions, \$9,000.

d Amount from benefactions, \$1,500.

e Amount from benefactions, \$150.

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
KENTUCKY—continued.				
541	Buffalo	East Lynn College.....	H. H. Montgomery.....	Nonsect ..
542	Burkesville	Alexander College *	M. Avery Colton	Presb ..
543	Cadiz	Cadiz High School	H. L. Holt	Nonsect ..
544	Campbellsburg	Campbellsburg Graded School.....	J. W. Pearcy	Nonsect ..
545	Campbellsville	Campbellsville High School *	J. R. Sanders	Presb ..
546	Carrollton	St. John the Evangelist	I. M. Ahmann, rector	R. C ..
547	Cecilian	Cecilian College *	A. D. Cecil, president	R. C ..
548	Clinton	Clinton College	Edward K. Chandler, D.D.	Bapt ..
549do.....	Marvin College *	J. C. Dean and J. C. Speight ..	M. E. So ..
550	Corinth	Northern Kentucky Normal School.....	A. A. Hibner, A. B.	Nonsect ..
551	Covington.....	Educational Institute of Covington.....	Dr. Alois Schmidt	Nonsect ..
552do.....	Notre Dame Academy.....	Sister Superior	R. C ..
553do.....	Rugby Preparatory School	K. J. Morris, A. M	Nonsect ..
554	Cynthiana.....	Harrison Female College	J. A. Brown	Nonsect ..
555do.....	Smith's Classical School.....	N. F. Smith	Nonsect ..
556	Elizabethtown	Hardin Collegiate Institute.....	L. W. Doolan, B. A	Nonsect ..
557	Elkton	Vanderbilt Training School	R. E. Crockett, B. A	M. E. So ..
558	Flat Gap	Enterprise High School *	James G. Talbert	Bapt ..
559	Flippin	Monroe Normal School	E. T. Thomas	Nonsect ..
560	Frankfort	St. Joseph's Academy	Sister Liguori	R. C ..
561	Fulton	Fulton Normal and Business College.....	A. M. Kirkland	Nonsect ..
562	Gethsemane	Gethsemane College	M. Edmund	R. C ..
563	Greensburg	Greensburg Academy	K. van der Maaten	Nonsect ..
564	Greenville	Greenville Ladies' College and College for Young Men.....	Mrs. S. T. Hall	M. E. So ..
565	Halway	Douglas Academy	Rev. James Rice	Nonsect ..
566	Hampton	Hampton Academy	W. W. Appleton	Nonsect ..
567	Hazel Green	Hazel Green Academy	Wm. H. Cord	Christian ..
568	Henderson	Henderson Female Seminary	Miss S. S. Towles	Nonsect ..
569do.....	Henderson High School	Miss Annie M. Starling	Nonsect ..
570	Hindman	Hindman School	George Clarke	Nonsect ..
571	Hopkinsville	Hopkinsville High School *	James O. Ferrell	Nonsect ..
572	Hustonsville	Christian College *	M. G. Thomson	Nonsect ..
573	Independence	Independence High School	George W. Dunlop	Nonsect ..
574	Jackson	Jackson Collegiate Institute.....	Eugene P. Mickel, M. A., D. D.	Presb.....
575	Kirksville	Elliott Institute	Whitty Waldrop	Nonsect ..
576	La Grange	Funk Seminary.....	Thad. Wilkerson, B. S., I. S.	Nonsect ..
577do.....	The La Grange Academy *	John J. Roberts	Nonsect ..
578	Lexington	Alleghan Academy	A. N. Gordon	Nonsect ..
579do.....	St. Catharine's Academy.....	Mother Cleophas Mills	R. C ..
580	Loretto	Loretto Academy	Mother Catharine	R. C ..
581	Louisville	Allmond's University School.....	Mrs. B. Allmond, LL. D.	Nonsect ..
582	Louisville (1225-1227 4th ave.)	Collegiate School *	Mrs. P. B. Semple	Nonsect ..
583	Louisville	Flexner's School.....	Abraham Flexner	Nonsect ..
584do.....	Hampton College	L. D. H. Cowling	Nonsect ..
585do.....	Kentucky Home School	Miss Belle Peers	P. E ..
586do.....	Louisville Training School for Boys.....	H. K. Taylor, A. M.	Nonsect ..
587do.....	Presentation Academy	Sister Eutropia	R. C ..
588do.....	St. Xavier's College	Rev. Brother Stanislaus	R. C ..
589	Mayfield	West Kentucky College *	Henry A. MacDonald, M. A.	Nonsect ..
590	Maysville	Hayswood Female Seminary	Rev. J. S. Hays, D. D.	Nonsect ..
591do.....	St. Francis de Sales Academy * ..	Mother Dolores Smith	R. C ..
592	Millersburg	Millersburg Training School for Boys and Young Men.....	C. M. Best, C. E.	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total second-ary stud-ents.				Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepara-tory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.							
	Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.					
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24				
1	1	15	10	0	0	30	30	0	0	0	0					
1	1	2	8	36	30	1	2	0	0	0	0					
1	1	17	9	0	40	8	3	3	5					
1	3	8	6	0	0	30	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	...	39	4,500					
3	2	40	23	0	0	7	10	18	21	10	14	6	0	6	0	4	...	0	4,000					
1	1	20	25	0	0	14	16	12	3	12	3	4	2,500					
7	0	167	0	0	0	0	0	40	0	5,000	25,000					
1	1	20	20	25	37	3	5	300	25,000					
2	2	33	35	94	84	2	0	500	17,000					
0	1	22	28	0	0	15	25	4	...	20	2,500					
3	3	13	16	0	0	2	20	5	2	5	2	4	...	1,000	...					
0	4	0	10	0	0	43	64	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	4	552					
1	1	16	0	0	0	12	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	1	0	4	28	100	4,000					
0	2	0	44	0	40	0	24	0	20	0	2	500	20,000					
1	1	35	14	0	0	20	11	29	2	0	0	15	1	15	1	800	3,000					
4	2	37	13	0	0	8	2	25	10	8	3	3	2	3	2	4	60	...	20,000					
2	0	76	4	0	0	0	0	40	4	10	0	3	0	3	0	4	...	200	25,000					
1	0	21	9	0	0	30	24	0	0	500	1,040					
2	1	60	35	0	0	20	15	0	0	2,000					
0	2	0	19	69	45	3	560					
2	2	40	55	0	0	70	50	3	3	170	9,500					
6	0	30	0	0	0	155	0	0	0	0	0	300	18,000					
1	0	17	20	0	0	48	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3,000					
2	1	7	12	0	0	18	35	5	2	3	1	4	...	200	15,000					
1	0	17	10	0	0	16	11	0	0	0	0	4	1,000					
1	1	28	28	0	0	12	8	10	9	18	15	10	8	10	8	3	2,000					
1	1	60	24	33	36	3	0	5	2	3	0	3	0	400	8,000					
1	4	0	34	0	0	0	29	0	1	0	0	0	9	0	0	4	...	650	5,000					
1	3	52	40	0	0	4	3	7	6	4	...	300	18,000					
2	2	46	11	0	0	102	76	9	4	2,500					
1	0	33	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	571					
1	2	15	29	12	15	2	8	900	10,000					
1	2	29	7	0	0	18	20	5	0	0	0	3	...	300	3,500					
5	1	67	55	0	0	40	35	0	1	4	120	1,250	10,000					
2	2	31	50	0	0	14	16	8	12	8	4	6	3	6	3	4	...	225	7,500					
2	1	10	15	0	0	70	60	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	...	150	27,000					
1	0	14	6	0	0	9	3	4	3	4	0	0	1	0	1	306	2,264					
1	0	18	1	0	0	0	0	18	1	578					
0	2	0	16	0	0	14	84	0	7	0	7	4	...	633	579					
0	6	0	45	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	6	1,200	264,000					
2	1	19	1	0	0	15	1	4	0	581					
0	6	0	64	0	48	0	12	0	4	0	4	300	582					
2	0	9	0	0	0	6	0	1	0	3	0	5	0	5	0	3	...	100	583					
0	10	0	110	15	40	0	50	0	60	0	18	0	6	5	...	5,000	40,000					
0	5	0	34	9	47	0	4	4	...	4	585					
1	1	25	0	0	0	20	2	5	0	3	0	2	0	2	0	300	10,000					
0	3	1	39	0	0	26	59	0	3	4	...	400	100,000					
7	0	84	0	0	0	99	0	10	0	4	588					
3	1	42	58	0	0	23	30	0	4	4	...	250	35,000					
1	4	0	42	0	0	7	13	0	3	0	0	4	...	1,500	1,200					
0	6	0	45	0	35	0	1	2,000	591					
2	1	42	0	0	0	16	0	6	0	32	0	4	0	4	0	4	...	200	1,500					

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
KENTUCKY—continued.				
593	Morgantown	Morgantown Seminary	J. A. Stewart	Nonsect ..
594	Mount Sterling	Kentucky Training School	C. W. Fowler, M. A., C. E.	Nonsect ..
595	Nazareth	Nazareth Literary Institution	Mother Helena Torney	R. C
596	Newport	Mount St. Martin's Academy	Rev. Mother M. Leo	R. C
597	North Middletown	English and Classical Institute.*	Thos. C. Curran	Nonsect ..
598	Owenton	Smith's Classical School	H. C. Smith	Nonsect ..
599	Paducah	St. Mary's Academy	Sister Mary Regina	R. C
600	Paris	Paris Classical Institute	Mrs. M. W. Berry	Nonsect ..
601	do	Preparatory School	W. L. Yerkes	Nonsect ..
602	do	Select School	Miss M. S. Tipton	Nonsect ..
603	Pikeville	Pikeville Collegiate Institute	T. J. Kendrick	Presb. ..
604	Princeton	Princeton Collegiate Institute a	John M. Richmond	Presb. ..
605	Providence	Male and Female Academy*	W. S. Coleman	Nonsect ..
606	Richmond	Madison Female Institute*	J. D. Clark	Nonsect ..
607	Russellville	Miss Sevier's School	Miss Elizabeth Sevier	Epis
608	St. Joseph	Mount St. Joseph's Academy	Mother Florence	R. C
609	Sharpsburg	Male and Female College	Miss Fannie B. Talbot	Presb. ..
610	Shelbyville	Secaree's Academy	George S. Secaree	Bapt. ..
611	do	Science Hill School	W. T. Poynter, D. D.	Nonsect ..
612	Slaughtersville	Van Horn Institute	W. R. Smith, A. B.	Nonsect ..
613	Taylorsville	Spencer Institute	George F. Winston, LL. B.	Nonsect ..
614	Vanceburg	Riverside Seminary	Lawrence Rolfe, A. B.	Nonsect ..
615	Versailles	Henry Academy	Wm. Henry, A. M.	Nonsect ..
616	do	Rose Hill Seminary	Mrs. G. B. Crenshaw	Nonsect ..
617	Williamsburg	Williamsburg Academy*	Chas. M. Stevens	Cong
LOUISIANA.				
618	Arcadia	E. A. Seminary	R. A. Smith	Nonsect ..
619	Clinton	Clinton Female Institute	Mrs. S. E. Munday	Nonsect ..
620	Columbia	Pine Grove Academy*	J. A. Walker, A. M.	Nonsect ..
621	Coushatta	Male and Female College	W. D. Powell, A. M.	Nonsect ..
622	Donaldsonville	St. Vincent's Institute	Sister M. Clotilda	R. C
623	Franklinton	Franklinton Central Institute	W. D. Beme, A. M.	Nonsect ..
624	Gibbsland	Gibbsland Institute	G. L. Wren	Nonsect ..
625	Grand Coteau	Sacred Heart Convent	Madame E. Chandet	R. C
626	Jackson	Feliciana Female Collegiate Institute.*	Miss L. J. Catlett	Nonsect ..
627	do	Millwood Female Institute*	Miss M. B. McCalmont	M. E. So. ..
628	Lafayette	Mount Carmel Convent*	Mother St. Patrick	R. C
629	Mount Lebanon	Mount Lebanon College	W. E. Robinson	Bapt. ..
630	Napoleonville	Napoleonville High School	Juse Fontaine, jr.	R. C
631	New Iberia	Fasnacht Graded Institute	Miss Marie Louise Fasnacht.	Nonsect ..
632	New Orleans	Carnatz Institute	Miss Leoline de Varenne	Nonsect ..
633	do	Columbian Institute*	Miss H. Fritz Gerald	R. C
634	New Orleans (1727 Carondelet st.).	Dykers's Institute	Miss Harriett V. Dykers	Nonsect ..
635	New Orleans (2231 Prytania st.).	French and English Boarding and Day School.	Mrs. Francis D. Blake and Mrs. Lucia P. Chappmans.	Epis
636	New Orleans (1456 Camp st.).	Home School	Miss Sophie B. Wright	Nonsect ..
637	New Orleans (372 Esplanade st.).	Markey-Picard Institute	Mrs. Matthey and Madame A. Picard.	Nonsect ..
638	New Orleans	St. Joseph's Academy	Sister Coletta	R. C
639	do	St. Mary's Dominican Academy	Mother Mary B. Harding	R. C
640	do	St. Simeon's Select School*	Sister Adelaide	R. C
641	do	Select School for Boys*	L. C. Ferrell	Nonsect ..
642	New Orleans (2618 Coliseum st.).	Southern Academic Institute*	Mrs. J. E. Seaman	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and sci-entific appa-ratus.
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elem-entary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.											
								Classi-cal course.		Scien-tific course.															
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24						
0	2	20	20	0	0	50	60	3	2	13	6														
3	1	45	20	0	0	6	9	0	0	1	0	6	0	1	0	4	4	200	\$3,000	593					
5	0	0	36	0	0	0	34	0	0									5,000	8,500	594					
0	4	0	26	0	0	0	36													595					
1	1	13	7	0	0	33	20					0	0						0	10,000	596				
																					597				
1	1	3	2			0	3	4	2												598				
0	0	32	20			44	83					0	5								599				
0	3	0	45			0	25					0	1					1,200	2,000	600					
1	0	32	0			4	0	14	0											3,000	601				
0	1	0	30	0	0	0	20	0	5	0	5	0	0							600	602				
2	2	40	30	0	0	20	20	4	1	2	2	2	0	2	0					100	10,000	603			
2	2	23	24	0	0	27	28					2	4	1	0			1,300	60,000	604					
2	2	65	60	0	0	0	0	5	7			2	0	0	0			500	1,500	605					
0	0	0	100	0	0	20	20					0	7					500	35,000	606					
0	0	6	2	0	0	1	2	1	2												607				
0	0	0	20	0	0	0	30	0	12	0	5	0	10	0	10			900		608					
0	0	10	20	0	0	50	50	2	0	0	0	2	8	2	0			500		609					
1	1	60	12	0	0	10	6	13	2	5	1	6	1	6	1					3,000	610				
1	0	1	89	0	0	11	61	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	2			1,500	20,000	611					
0	1	20	26			20	30														612				
1	1	17	35	0	0	8	10					0	0							0	613				
1	2	14	8			40	41					1	0	1	0						614				
1	0	35	0	0	0	0	0	35	0												615				
2	2	5	15	0	0	20	15	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0			500	10,000	616					
1	1	13	9	0	0	108	120	1	0			1	1					1,200	2,000		617				
2	1	48	46	0	0	17	14	8	5	6	1	1	5	0	5	4	33	300	2,500		618				
0	3	0	23	0	0	10	10					0	3					500	1,500		619				
0	0	31	0			5	6			3	4							0			620				
1	0	25	13	0	0	34	40	5	10	0	0	0	0	0	0			200	8,000		621				
0	2	0	22			0	54											900	20,000		622				
1	1	28	21	0	0	35	41					0	0	0	0						623				
0	2	9	14	0	0	34	27	3	7	6	7	0	0	0	0			200	4,000		624				
0	5	36	60	0	0	37	69					0	0	0	0			325			625				
0	4	4	36	0	0	26	30					0	2							8,000	626				
0	1	1	48									0	4							10,000	627				
0	5	10	40	0	0	30	93	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0						628				
0	2	39	65	0	0	46	15	5	0			0	4	0	4			0	40,000		629				
0	2	10	10	0	0	32	8	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0						630				
0	1	11	10	0	0	10	11					0	1					400	2,000		631				
0	2	0	10			0	25	0	4			0	2	0	1			400			632				
0	1	0	14			20	36	0	0	0	0	0	5					375	10,000		633				
0	1	0	11	0	0	3	16					0	3					300	19,000		634				
0	6	0	53	0	0	0	56	0	2	0	0	0	8	0	2	4		1,500	25,000		635				
0	5	0	94	0	0	11	83	0	20	0	0	0	20	0	20	3		350	15,000		636				
1	2	0	10	0	0	30	90	5	0	0	0	0	10	6	0	2				10,000	637				
0	8	0	100	0	0	0	135	0	16	0	0	0	4	0	4			7,000			638				
0	10	0	175	0	0	0	125	0	12	0	0	0	6					800	0		639				
0	4	0	42	0	0	46	272					0	16					1,500			640				
3	1	70	0	0	0	30	0					0	10	0	10					10,000	641				
1	2	0	30	0	0	20	50					0	5	0	2			500	25,000		642				

a Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
LOUISIANA—continued.			
643 New Orleans.....	University School.....	T. W. Dyer.....	Nonsect..
644 Olla.....	Male and Female Institute....	R. J. Wilson.....	Nonsect..
645 Opelousas.....	Academy of the Immaculate Conception.	Sister Mary.....	R. C.....
646 ..do.....	Opelousas Female Institute....	Mrs. M. M. Hayes.....	Nonsect..
647 Paincourtville.....	Mount Carmel Convent*.....	Sister Valeria.....	R. C.....
648 Shreveport.....	Thatcher Institute.....	Geo. E. Thatcher.....	Nonsect..
649 Thibodaux.....	Mount Carmel Convent*.....	Sister M. Apoline.....	R. C.....
650 Washington.....	..do.....	Mother Mary Elizabeth.....	R. C.....
651 Winsted.....	Gilbert Scientific and Indus- trial College.*	W. D. Godman.....	M. E.....
MAINE.			
652 Athens.....	Somerset Academy.....	L. C. Williams.....	Nonsect..
653 Bangor.....	Classical and English School..	Miss Helen L. Newman.....	Nonsect..
654 Bethel.....	Gould Academy.....	Edgar M. Simpson, A. B.....	Nonsect..
655 Blue Hill.....	Blue Hill Academy.....	Eugene H. Stover, A. B.....	Nonsect..
656 Bucksport.....	East Maine Conference Semi- nary.	A. F. Chase, Ph. D., presi- dent.	M. E.....
657 Charleston.....	Higgins Classical Institute....	C. C. Richardson, A. M.....	Bapt.....
658 Cumberland Center.....	Greely Institute.....	Edgar L. Pennell.....	Nonsect..
659 Deering.....	St. Joseph's Academy*.....	Mother M. Teresa.....	R. C.....
660 Dresden Mills.....	Bridge Academy.....	F. V. Gunnuer.....	Nonsect..
661 East Machias.....	Washington Academy*.....	Ivory H. Robinson.....	Nonsect..
662 Farmington.....	Abbott Family School.....	A. H. Abbott, A. M.....	Nonsect..
663 Foxcroft.....	Foxcroft Academy.....	Eugene L. Sampson, A. M.....	Nonsect..
664 Fryeburg.....	Fryebroft Academy*.....	John C. Hull, A. B.....	Nonsect..
665 Gray.....	Pennell Institute.....	W. B. Andrews, A. M.....	Nonsect..
666 Hampden.....	Hampden Academy.....	Albert Robinson.....	Nonsect..
667 Hebron.....	Hebron Academy.....	W. E. Sargent.....	Bapt.....
668 Houlton.....	Ricker Classical Institute.....	Arthur M. Thomas, A. M.....	Bapt.....
669 Kents Hill.....	Maine Wesleyan Seminary and Female College.	Charles W. Gallagher, A. M., D. D.	M. E.....
670 Lewiston.....	Latin School*.....	Ivory F. Frisbee.....	FreeBapt.
671 Limerick.....	Phillip's Limerick Academy....	Willis B. Moore, A. B.....	Cong.....
672 Limington.....	Limington Academy*.....	Wm. G. Lord.....	Nonsect..
673 Litchfield Corners.....	Litchfield Academy*.....	W. F. Sims.....	Nonsect..
674 Newcastle.....	Lincoln Academy.....	John Edward Dinsmore.....	Nonsect..
675 New Gloucester.....	Stevens School.....	M. B. Stevens.....	Nonsect..
676 North Anson.....	Anson Academy.....	Walter W. Poore, A. B.....	Nonsect..
677 North Bridgton.....	Bridgton Academy a.....	Elmer E. French, A. M.....	Nonsect..
678 Paris.....	Paris Hill Academy.....	Eli Edgcomb.....	Nonsect..
679 Pittsfield.....	Maine Central Institute.....	O. H. Drake, A. M.....	Free Bapt.
680 Portland.....	St. Elizabeth's Academy.....	Mother M. Teresa.....	R. C.....
681 Presque Isle.....	St. John's English and Classi- cal School.	Rev. Charles F. Sweet.....	P. E.....
682 Saco.....	Thornton Academy.....	Edwin P. Sampson, A. M.....	Nonsect..
683 Sebago.....	Potter Academy.....	E. P. Barrell, A. M.....	Nonsect..
684 South Berwick.....	Berwick Academy.....	Geo. A. Dickey.....	Nonsect..
685 South China.....	Erskine Academy.....	W. J. Thompson.....	Nonsect..
686 Vassalboro.....	Oak Grove Seminary b.....	Henry H. Goddard, A. M.....	Friends
687 Waterford.....	Douglass Seminary.....	Miss H. E. Douglass.....	Cong.....
688 Waterville.....	Coburn Classical Institute.....	F. W. Johnson, A. M.....	Bapt.....
689 Wilton.....	Wilton Academy.....	Drew T. Harthorn, A. B.....	Nonsect..
690 Yarmouth.....	North Yarmouth Academy.....	Rev. B. P. Snow, A. M.....	Nonsect..
MARYLAND.			
691 Baltimore.....	The Baltimore Academy of the Visitation.	Sister Mary Bernardine Millard.	R. C.....
692 Baltimore (870 Lin- den ave.).....	The Boys' Latin School.....	J. A. Dunham, A. B.....	Nonsect..

*Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$509.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
MARYLAND—cont'd.			
693 Baltimore	The Bryn Mawr School.....	Ida Wood, Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
694 do.....	Calvert Hall College.....	Brother Denis	R. C
695 Baltimore (122 West Franklin st.)	Edgeworth Boarding and Day School.*	Mrs. H. P. Lefebvre.....	Epis.....
696 Baltimore (Highland Park).	Epiphany Apostolic College...	J. A. St. Laurent.....	R. C
697 Baltimore	Friends' Elementary and High School.	Eli M. Lamb.....	Friends...
698 Baltimore (St. Paul and 24th st.).	The Girls' Latin School	William H. Shelley.....	M. E.....
699 Baltimore	Gymnasium School for Boys...	E. Deichmann, Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
700 do.....	F. Knapp's Institute	Wm. A. Knapp.....	Nonsect ..
701 Baltimore (21 Mount Vernon place).	Mount Vernon School for Girls.	The Misses Bond	Nonsect ..
702 Baltimore (Charles ave., Station 11).	Notre Dame of Maryland.....	Sister Mary Meletia.....	R. C
703 Baltimore (1405 Park ave.).	The Randolph-Harrison School.	Mrs. Jane Randolph H. Randall.	Nonsect ..
704 Baltimore	St. Frances Academy.....	Sister Theresa	R. C
705 Baltimore (1214 Eutaw place).	The Sarah Randolph School ..	Mrs. A. L. Armstrong.....	Nonsect ..
706 Baltimore (915-917 North Charles st.).	Southern Home School.....	Mrs. Wilson M. Cary.....	Nonsect ..
707 Baltimore (710-712 Madison ave.).	The University School for Boys.	W. S. Marston, A. B.....	Nonsect ..
708 Baltimore (909 Cathedral st.).	Wilford School.....	Mrs. Waller R. Bullock...	Nonsect ..
709 Brunswick.....	Brunswick Seminary.....	J. J. Shenk.....	Luth
710 Catonsville.....	Mount de Sales, Academy of the Visitation.*	Mother Superior.....	R. C
711 Charlotte Hall.....	Charlotte Hall School.....	G. M. Thomas, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
712 College of St. James..	College of St. James Grammar School.	Henry Onderdonk.....	P. E
713 Colora.....	West Nottingham Academy...	John G. Conner, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
714 Darnestown.....	Andrew Small Academy.....	William Nelson.....	Nonsect ..
715 Elkton.....	Elkton School	George A. Steele, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
716 Forest Glen.....	National Park Seminary.....	J. A. I. Cassidy.....	Nonsect ..
717 Frederick.....	Frederick College	Lucian S. Tilton, A. B.....	Nonsect ..
718 Gaithersburg.....	Fair View Seminary.....	Charles H. Waters, M. D.....	Nonsect ..
719 Hyattsville.....	Melrose Institute.....	The Misses Lewin.....	Nonsect ..
720 Leonardtown.....	St. Mary's Academy.....	Sister of Charity.....	R. C
721 McDonogh.....	McDonogh School.....	James T. Edwards, D. D., LL. D.	Nonsect ..
722 Millersville	Anne Arundel County Academy.	J. A. Hodges.....	Nonsect ..
723 Mount Washington..	Mount St. Agnes's Collegiate Institute.	Sisters of Mercy.....	R. C
724 Poolesville.....	Briarley Hall Seminary.....	Mrs. W. A. Gassaway.....	Epis.....
725 Port Deposit.....	Jacob Tome Institute.....	James R. Campbell, A. M.	Nonsect ..
726 Reisterstown.....	The Hannah More Academy*..	Mrs. A. J. Rich	P. E
727 Rising Sun.....	Friends Normal Institute*..	Geo. G. Shaffer.....	Friends..
728 Rockville.....	Rockville Academy.....	W. Pinckney Mason.....	Nonsect ..
729 St. George.....	St. George's Hall for Boys.....	James C. Kinear, A. M.....	Epis.....
730 St. Marys City.....	St. Mary's Female Seminary...	Mrs. A. E. Thomas-Lilburn	Nonsect ..
731 Sandy Spring.....	Sherwood Friends' School.....	Miss Belle W. Hannum...	Friends..
732 Sellmans.....	Briarley Hall*.....	Mrs. Wm. A. Gassaway...	Epis.....
733 Sykesville.....	Springfield Institute*..	Juan C. Weems.....	Nonsect ..
734 Union Bridge.....	Union Bridge High School*..	Charlton B. Strayer, A. B.	Nonsect ..
735 Unionville.....	Unionville Academy and Normal Institute.	Prof. J. E. W. Taneyhill...	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
MASSACHUSETTS.			
736 Amherst	Home School for Young Ladies	Mrs. W. F. Stearns	Nonsect
737 ..do.....	Mount Pleasant Institute.....	Wm. K. Nash, A. M.	Nonsect
738 ..do.....	Oak Grove Home School.....	Miss V. W. Buffum, A. B. .	Nonsect
739 Andover	Abbot Academy	Miss Laura S. Watson	Nonsect
740 ..do.....	Phillips Academy <i>a</i>	Cecil F. P. Bancroft, Ph.D., L. L. D., L. H. D.	Nonsect
741 ..do.....	Punchard Free School	Allen Latham	Nonsect
742 Ashburnham.....	Cushing Academy	Hervey S. Cowell, A. M. .	Nonsect
743 Auburndale.....	Riverside School (Wellesley Preparatory)	Miss Delia T. Smith	Nonsect
744 Bernardston.....	Powers Institute	Francis S. Brick, B. S.	Nonsect
745 Billerica	Howe School	Samuel Tucker	Nonsect
746 ..do.....	Mitchell's Boys' School.....	M. C. Mitchell	Nonsect
747 Boston	The Berkeley School	Taylor, De Meritte, and Hagar	Nonsect
748 Boston (Back Bay)...	Boston Academy of Notre Dame	Sister Francis.....	R. C.....
749 Boston (64 Common- wealth ave.)	Miss Chamberlayne's School for Girls	Miss Catharine J. Cham- berlayne	Nonsect
750 Boston (252 Marlboro st.)	Miss Clagett's School for Girls.	Miss B. A. Clagett.....	Nonsect
751 Boston	Classical School.....	J. W. C. Noble.....	Nonsect
752 Boston (324 Common- wealth ave.)	Commonwealth Avenue School	The Misses Gilman.....	Nonsect
753 Boston (618 Massa- chusetts ave.)	Female Academy of the Sacred Heart	Mme. C. M. Collins.....	R. C.....
754 Boston	Hale's Classical and Scientific School	Albert Hale	Nonsect
755 Boston (25 Chestnut st.)	Miss Hersey's School for Girls.	Miss Heloise E. Hersey... Epis.....	Epis.....
756 Boston (18 Newbury st.)	Home and Day School for Girls*	Miss Frances V. Emerson.	Nonsect
757 Boston (21 Marlboro st.)	Home and Day School.....	Mrs. Selma Wesselhoeft..	Nonsect
758 Boston	Miss Winsor's School.....	Miss Mary Pickard Win- sor.....	Nonsect
759 Bradford	Bradford Academy	Miss Ida C. Allen	Nonsect
760 Bradford (142 Main st.)	Carleton School <i>b</i>	Isaac N. Carleton, Ph. D. A. M.	Cong
761 Brimfield.....	Hitchcock Free High School..	George W. Earle, B. L.	Nonsect
762 Cambridge (8 Garden st.)	The Browne and Nichols School (Boys)	George H. Browne, A. M., Edgar H. Nichols, A. B. .	Nonsect
763 Cambridge (79 Brattle st.)	The Cambridge School (girls) ..	Arthur Gilman, M. A.	Nonsect
764 Cambridge (13 Ap- plan way)	Day and Family School for Boys	Joshua Kendall.....	Nonsect
765 Cambridge (13 Buck- ingham st.)	Private School for Boys and Girls.....	Miss K. V. Smith	Nonsect
766 Concord	Concord Home School.....	James S. Garland.....	Nonsect
767 Danvers	The Willard Home School for Girls	Mrs. H. M. Merrill.....	Nonsect
768 Deerfield	Deerfield Academy and Dick- inson High School	A. B. Tyler	Nonsect
769 Dorchester.....	Shawmut School.....	Miss Ella G. Ives.....	Cong
770 Dudley	Nichols Academy <i>c</i>	Alfred G. Collins, A. M. .	Nonsect
771 Duxbury	Partridge Academy	T. H. H. Knight	Nonsect
772 ..do.....	Powder Point School.....	F. B. Knapp, S. B.	Nonsect
773 Easthampton.....	Williston Seminary.....	Wm. Gallagher, Ph. D. .	Cong
774 East Northfield.....	Northfield Seminary <i>d</i>	Miss Evelyn S. Hall.....	Nonsect
775 Everett	Home School	Mrs. A. P. Potter.....	Bapt.
776 Franklin	Dean Academy	Lester L. Burrington, A. M.	Univ
777 Great Barrington	Housatonic Hall.....	Miss F. M. Warren.....	Nonsect

* Statistics of 1893-94. *a* Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$2,000.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that graduate ^s in 1895.											
								Classi-cal course.		Scien-tific course.															
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24				
1	2	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1,000	\$18,000	736			
1	0	5	0	0	0	4	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	500	20,000	737			
0	3	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	4	400	15,000	738			
1	5	0	50	0	0	0	12	0	10	0	6	0	20	0	3	4,200	4,200	175,858	739				
24	0	524	0	5	0	0	0	294	0	230	0	104	0	104	0	4	3,000	200,000	740				
1	3	40	83	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	0	6	14	1	2	4	37	250	40,000	741				
6	8	142	157	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	34	4	954	130,060	130,060	742				
0	6	0	14	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	10	0	6	0	6	800	20,000	743				
1	1	29	38	0	0	6	7	1	1	0	0	5	5	1	1	4	15,000	744				
1	1	17	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	4	250	745				
2	0	10	0	0	0	25	0	2	0	6	0	3	2,000	40,000	746			
4	3	45	39	0	0	20	1	14	7	11	7	15	14	14	10	4	5,000	1,000	747			
0	8	0	45	0	0	0	55	0	8	4	5,000	200,000	748		
0	5	0	23	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	400	60,000	749		
0	3	0	37	0	0	0	20	0	5	0	0	0	10	0	1	4	750		
5	0	90	0	0	0	25	0	90	0	0	10	0	10	0	4	751		
2	10	0	33	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	2	752		
0	3	0	34	0	0	0	38	0	0	0	0	65,300	753		
4	0	39	0	0	0	8	0	6	0	6	0	4	1,000	754		
0	5	0	73	0	0	0	35	755		
2	4	0	40	0	0	0	40	756		
0	6	0	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	6	0	1	1,250	4,500	757		
0	9	0	61	0	0	0	16	0	12	0	0	0	5	0	1	5	758		
3	11	0	127	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	21	5	5,300	180,000	759	
1	1	8	0	0	0	10	0	4	0	500	15,000	760		
2	1	20	40	0	0	0	0	10	22	0	0	4	6	0	2	4	1,900	761		
6	0	40	0	0	0	21	0	29	0	11	0	5	0	5	0	5	200	26,000	762		
0	12	0	91	0	0	0	23	0	15	0	15	900	50,000	763
0	3	0	12	0	0	0	0	11	0	1	0	2	0	2,000	764
0	6	12	7	0	0	2	3	10	3	0	1	0	1	765
3	0	14	0	0	0	3	0	12	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	4	150	25,000	766	
0	2	0	10	0	0	0	2	0	2	767
2	1	36	30	0	0	0	0	10	10	10	10	1	5	1	0	4	1,400	25,000	768		
0	2	0	7	0	0	0	15	769
2	3	41	43	0	0	0	0	10	6	6	3	3	6	3	2	5	2,600	200,000	770		
1	1	13	22	0	0	8	8	0	0	0	0	4	3	0	0	3	20	250	5,000	771		
5	0	22	0	0	11	0	8	0	8	0	11	0	3	0	3	0	1,000	25,000	772		
9	0	117	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	0	17	0	4	2,500	169,500	773		
2	23	0	243	0	1	0	152	0	19	0	9	4	5,000	300,000	774	
0	4	0	20	0	0	10	0	4	0	0	0	0	7	0	1	4	500	20,000	775		
5	6	93	83	0	0	0	0	11	4	23	9	12	13	6	7	4	1,350	200,000	776		
1	1	0	10	0	0	0	12	0	3	0	1	0	0	4	200	2,500	777	

c Amount from benefactions, \$5,000.

d Amount from benefactions, \$17,500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.			
778 Great Barrington	Sedgwick Institute.....	Edward J. Van Lennep, A. M.	Nonsect ..
779 Greenfield.....	Prospect Hill School for Girls.	Rev. James Challis Parsons	Nonsect ..
780 Groton.....	Groton Schoola	Sherrard Billings, A. M., acting head master.	P. E
781 ..do.....	Lawrence Academy	Alfred O. Tower, A. M ..	Nonsect ..
782 Hadley.....	Hopkins Academy	Alfred C. Thompson, B. A.	Nonsect ..
783 Harvard	Bromfield School	Miss Leila Frost.....	Nonsect ..
784 Hatfield	Smith Academy	Ashley H. Thorndike, A. B.	Nonsect ..
785 Hingham.....	Derby Academy	Miss Sarah G. Robinson..	Nonsect ..
786 Leicester.....	Leicester Academy.....	Corwin F. Palmer, M. A. ..	Nonsect ..
787 Marion.....	Tabor Academy	Dana Marsh Dustan, A. M.	Nonsect ..
788 Middleboro.....	Eaton School.....	Amos H. Eaton.....	Nonsect ..
789 Milton (Center st. and Randolph ave.).	Milton Academy b.....	Harrison Otis Aphorpe, A. M.	Nonsect ..
790 Monson	Monson Academy	Arthur Newell Burke, A. B.	Nonsect ..
791 Mount Hermon.....	Mount Hermon School.....	Henry F. Cutler, B. A.	Nonsect ..
792 Nantucket	Admiral Sir Isaac Coffin's Lancasterian School.	Edmund B. Fox	Nonsect ..
793 Natick	Walnut Hill Wellesley Preparatory School.	Miss Charlotte H. Conant, B. A.	Nonsect ..
794 New Bedford	Friends' Academy.....	Thomas Hooper Eckfeldt.	Nonsect ..
795 New Bedford (523 County st.).	School for Boys and Girls.....	Charles E. E. Mosher.....	Nonsect ..
796 New Salem.....	New Salem Academy d.....	Emerson L. Adams	Nonsect ..
797 Newton.....	Cutler's Preparatory School..	Edward H. Cutler.....	Nonsect ..
798 ..do.....	Newton Private School.....	Miss Elizabeth Spear.....	Nonsect ..
799 Northampton	Mary A. Burnham School for Girls.*	Miss B. T. Capen.....	Nonsect ..
800 Norton.....	Wheaton Seminary e.....	Miss A. Ellen Stanton....	Cong.....
801 Pittsfield (170 South st.).	Miss Salisbury's Family and Day School.	Miss Mary E. Salisbury...	Nonsect ..
802 Quincy.....	Adams Academy f.....	William R. Tyler, A. B.	Nonsect ..
803 ..do.....	Woodward Institute for Girls*	Miss Carrie E. Small.....	Nonsect ..
804 Roxbury (36 Waverly st.).	Miss Curtis's Private School ..	Miss Elizabeth Curtis	Nonsect ..
805 Roxbury	Notre Dame Academy	Sister Julia	R. C
806 Shelburne Falls.....	Arms Academy	J. W. F. Wilkinson, A. B. ..	Nonsect ..
807 Sherborn	Sawin Academy and Dowse High School.*	J. Francis Allison	Nonsect ..
808 Southboro.....	St. Mark's School.....	William G. Thayer, A. M.	P. E
809 South Braintree.....	The Thayer Academy g.....	J. B. Sewall, A. M.	Nonsect ..
810 South Byfield	Dummer Academy	George P. Rogers, A. M. ..	Nonsect ..
811 South Lancaster	South Lancaster Academy	Joseph H. Haughey	7-Day Ad.
812 South Worthington	Rev. Russell H. Conwell's School.	F. H. Dewey	Nonsect ..
813 Springfield (141 High st.).	"The Elms" Home and Day School for Girls.	Miss Charlotte W. Porter.	Nonsect ..
814 Springfield	Magnolia Terrace School (Girls)	John McDuffie.....	Nonsect ..
815 Taunton	Bristol Academy	Wm. F. Palmer, A. M.	Nonsect ..
816 Waltham.....	Waltham New-Church School*	Benj. Worcester	Nonsect ..
817 Wellesley	Dana Hall School.....	Miss Julia A. and Sarah P. Eastman.	Nonsect ..
818 ..do.....	Wellesley Home School for Boys.	Edward A. Benner.....	Nonsect ..
819 West Bridgewater	Howard High School	Howard M. Willard	Nonsect ..
820 ..do.....	Howard Seminarydo.....	Nonsect ..
821 Westford	Westford Academy.....	Wm. E. Frost, A. M.	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$10,000.

b Amount from benefactions, \$5,000.

c Amount from benefactions, \$4,603.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																		Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appa-ratus.
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Colle-ges prepar-atory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.									
								Clas-sical course.		Scien-tific course.													
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24		
6	0	25	0	0	0	9	0	11	0	13	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	\$30,000	778	
3	4	0	27	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	300	30,000	779	
14	0	109	0	0	0	0	0	108	0	1	0	8	0	8	0	8	0	4	250,000	780	
1	2	13	19	1	0	0	0	3	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	0	1	4	2,760	100,000	781	
1	1	36	32	0	0	0	0	6	15	3	0	10	5	1	0	4	300	40,000	782		
0	2	13	14	0	0	0	0	3	6	3	0	0	1	0	0	4	1,200	40,000	783		
1	0	16	31	0	0	12	6	1	2	0	2	0	6	0	1	4	200	30,000	784		
0	1	6	3	0	0	10	15	785	
0	3	38	33	0	0	0	0	8	10	6	0	2	3	2	3	5	300	25,000	786		
3	3	19	21	0	0	0	0	4	4	2	0	3	3	2	1	4	1,000	30,000	787		
1	3	17	20	0	0	15	0	3	1	2	0	10,000	788	
8	1	65	16	0	0	21	13	9	0	3	0	12	0	12	0	4	1,500	100,000	789		
2	4	58	51	1	1	0	0	21	13	9	13	13	10	9	4	4	1,850	15,000	790		
12	6	198	0	0	0	206	0	124	0	18	0	11	0	4	4,500	288,769	791		
1	2	18	35	0	0	2	10	0	1	2	0	6	8	0	1	4	1,500	10,000	792		
0	2	0	30	0	5	0	12	0	3	0	5	0	5	4	600	25,000	793		
3	4	16	18	0	0	9	22	14	2	2	0	1	2	1	1	4	1,000	25,000	794		
2	2	21	7	0	0	10	4	9	5	3	0	9	2	5	0	4	20,700	795		
1	0	10	13	0	0	3	2	2	3	0	6	0	0	4	50	5,000	796		
1	2	31	4	0	0	3	21	2	3	2	4	0	7	0	4	4	797		
0	4	8	32	0	0	12	28	2	9	2	0	1	4	0	2	4	798		
4	13	0	153	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	26	2,500	799		
3	6	0	70	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	5,000	102,000	800		
0	4	0	34	0	0	14	40	0	6	0	0	0	2	0	0	1,100	801		
3	0	49	0	0	0	0	0	49	0	0	0	11	0	11	0	4	500	802		
0	6	0	83	0	0	0	41	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35,000	803		
0	4	0	20	0	0	0	20	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	16,000	804		
0	5	0	35	0	0	0	50	0	5	0	0	4	4,000	185,091	805		
1	4	52	68	0	0	0	3	2	8	0	2	5	1	1	4	300	20,000	806		
1	3	23	11	0	0	0	0	1	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	807		
11	0	96	0	0	0	0	0	70	0	25	0	18	0	17	0	6	2,000	350,000	808		
7	2	28	43	0	0	2	4	10	19	14	2	0	9	0	6	4	758	97,000	809		
0	1	8	2	0	0	2	6	2	0	1	0	1	0	4	300	810		
0	2	37	35	0	0	59	40	6	2	5	3	1	0	0	630	45,314	811		
2	1	29	7	0	0	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	18	3,500	812		
2	7	0	110	0	10	0	21	0	2	0	2	4	4,000	813		
3	5	0	33	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	1	0	9	0	0	5	100	814		
2	2	58	33	0	0	7	8	14	4	12	0	2	3	2	0	4	815		
1	2	11	14	0	0	20	12	2	0	3	0	0	0	200	40,700	816		
0	21	0	115	0	0	0	1	0	14	0	99	0	13	0	13	4	817		
2	0	5	0	6	0	1	0	3	0	3	0	4	500	8,000	818		
2	6	11	17	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	7	2	7	4	5,000	120,000	819		
3	10	0	48	0	0	0	5	0	15	0	3	0	8	0	0	4	820		
1	1	35	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	7	2	4	4	100	5,250	821		

d Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.
e Amount from benefactions, \$7,000.

f Amount from benefactions, \$75.
g Amount from benefactions, \$8,300.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.			
822 823	West Newton..... Wilbraham.....	English and Classical School .. Wesleyan Academy <i>a</i>	Nathaniel T. Allen William Rice Newhall, D. D., M. A. Nonsect .. M. E.
824 825 826	Winchendon Worcester.....do.....	Murdock High School The Dalzell School for Boys .. The Highland Military Acad- emy.....	Frank M. Collester, A. M. John W. Dalzell, A. B. Joseph Alden Shaw, A. M. Nonsect .. Nonsect .. Epis
827 828 829do.....do..... Worcester (4 Linden st.).....	The Home School for Girls ... School for Young Ladies..... Miss Williams's School.....	Miss Ellen A. Kimball ... Mrs. Mary J. C. Throop.. Miss Ava Williams..... Nonsect .. Nonsect .. Nonsect ..
830	Worcester.....	Worcester Academy <i>b</i>	D. W. Abercrombie, A. M. Nonsect ..
MICHIGAN.			
831 832 833	Adrian..... Ann Arbor..... Benton Harbor.....	Raisin Valley Seminary St. Thomas' Catholic School .. Benton Harbor College.....	Thomas W. White, B. S. .. Rev. E. D. Kelly..... G. J. Edgcombe, A. M., Ph. D. Friends... R. C. Nonsect ..
834	Calumet.....	Sacred Heart High School *...	Rev. Father Angelus, O. S. F. R. C.
835 836 837 838	Clarksville..... Detroit..... Detroit (36 Putnam)... Detroit (20 and 47 Ad- ams ave. west).	Clarksville Academy Detroit Home and Day School. The Detroit School for Boys... The Detroit Seminary	Chas. J. Transue..... Ella M. Liggett, A. B. Frederick Whitton..... Miss Anna M. Cutcheon... Nonsect .. Nonsect .. Nonsect .. Nonsect ..
839 840 841 842 843 844 845 846 847 848 849	Grand Haven..... Grand Rapids..... Ishpeming..... Kalamazoo..... Marquette..... Monroe..... Orchard Lake..... Red Jacket..... Saginaw West Side...do..... Spring Arbor.....	Akeley Institute <i>c</i> Private School..... St. John's School..... Michigan Female Seminary *... St. Joseph's Academy..... St. Mary's Academy..... Michigan Military Academy... Sacred Heart School..... German Lutheran Seminary... St. Andrew's Academy..... Spring Arbor Seminary <i>d</i>	Mrs. James E. Wilkinson . Rev. Isaac P. Powell..... Sister Superior..... Miss Louise B. Sampson... Sister M. Agnes..... Mother Superior..... Col. J. S. Rogers..... Father Angelus, O. S. F. O. Hoyer..... Sister Mary Vincent..... David S. Warner..... Epis..... Nonsect .. R. C. Presb..... R. C. R. C. Nonsect .. R. C. Luth..... R. C. Free Meth
MINNESOTA.			
850 851 852 853 854 855	Albert Lea..... Duluth..... Faribault.....do.....do..... Fergus Falls.....	Luther Academy *..... The Hardy School *..... Bethlehem Academy..... St. Mary's Hall..... Shattuck School..... The Park Region Luther Col- lege.....	L. S. Swenson..... Miss Kate B. Hardy..... Dominican Sister..... Miss Ella F. Lawrence..... James Dobbin, D. D. Rev. O. N. Fosmark..... Luth..... Nonsect .. R. C. P. E. Luth.....
856 857	Graceville..... Madison.....	Convent of Our Lady..... Lutheran Normal School <i>e</i>	Sisters St. Joseph..... O. Lo' Kestgaard, presi- dent..... R. C. Luth.....
858	Minneapolis.....	Minneapolis Academy.....	Clark L. Herron, Ph. B., M. S. Nonsect ..
859	Minneapolis (10 E. 7th st.).....	Stanley Hall.....	Miss Olive Adèle Evers... Nonsect ..
860 861 862 863 864 865	Montevideo..... Moorhead..... Owatonna..... Red Wing..... Rochester..... St. Joseph.....	Windom Institute..... Hope Academy..... Pillsbury Academy..... Red Wing Seminary <i>f</i> Academy of Lourdes..... St. Benedict's Academy.....	Charles W. Headley, A. B. Rev. S. G. Swenson, A. B. James W. Ford, Ph. D. Prof. H. H. Bergsland..... Mother M. Matilda..... Mother Aloysia..... Cong..... Luth..... Bapt..... Luth..... R. C. R. C.

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$6,000.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$10,000.*c* Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
MINNESOTA—cont'd.			
866 St. Paul.....	Baldwin Seminary.....	Clinton J. Backus.....	Nonsect..
867 ..do.....	Barnard School for Boys.....	Charles V. B. Wheeler....	Nonsect..
868 ..do.....	College of St. Thomas.....	Rev. James C. Byrne.....	R. C.....
869 ..do.....	Convent Visitation.....	Mother Superior.....	R. C.....
870 ..do.....	Cretan High School.....	Brother Emery.....	R. C.....
871 St. Paul (137 Western ave.)..	St. Catherine's School.....	M. S. Dusinberre.....	P. E.....
872 St. Paul.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Sister St. Rose.....	R. C.....
873 St. Paul (St. Anthony). ..	Stryker Seminary.....	Miss Anna K. Stryker.....	Nonsect..
874 Sauk Center.....	Sauk Center Academy.....	Lewis H. Vath.....	Nonsect..
875 Wilder.....	The Breck School.....	F. F. Joubert, B. S.....	Epis.....
876 Willmar.....	Willmar Seminary.....	H. S. Hilleboe, A. M.....	Luth.....
877 Winona.....	Winona Seminary.....	Sis'er M. Celestine.....	R. C.....
MISSISSIPPI.			
878 Abbeville.....	Abbeville Normal School.....	F. A. Forman, A. B.....	Nonsect..
879 Banner.....	Banner College.....	A. A. Newell.....	Nonsect..
880 Binnsville.....	Fairview Male and Female College.....	Leonard L. Vann.....	Nonsect..
881 Blue Springs.....	Normal College*.....	W. W. Cornelius, president.....	Nonsect..
882 Brandon.....	Brandon Female College*.....	Miss F. A. Johnson.....	Nonsect..
883 Braxton.....	Braxton High School*.....	E. J. Gilmer.....	Nonsect..
884 Buena Vista.....	Buena Vista Normal College.....	Robert V. Fletcher, A. M.....	Nonsect..
885 Byhalia.....	The Kittie Bowen Private School.*.....	Miss Kittie Bowen.....	Nonsect..
886 ..do.....	The Kate Tucker Institute.....	Miss Kate E. Tucker.....	Nonsect..
887 ..do.....	Waverly Institute.....	E. H. Randle, A. M.....	Nonsect..
888 Caledonia.....	Caledonia Academy.....	Rev. J. Turner Hood, A. B.....	Nonsect..
889 Carrollton.....	Carrollton Male and Female Academy.....	V. H. Nelson.....	Bapt.....
890 Cascilla.....	Cascilla Normal College.....	D. F. Montgomery.....	Nonsect..
891 Chalybeate.....	Chalybeate Springs Academy.....	Walker & Ray.....	Nonsect..
892 Chester.....	Chester Normal High School.....	J. C. Benedict.....	Nonsect..
893 Clarkson.....	Woodland Academy.....	J. B. Scott.....	M. E.....
894 Clinton.....	Mount Hermon Seminary a.....	Miss Sarah A. Dickey.....	Nonsect..
895 Columbia.....	Columbia High School.....	T. C. Reese.....	Nonsect..
896 College Hill.....	College Hill Classical Academy*.....	Rev. R. W. Mecklin.....	Presb.....
897 Corinth.....	Corinth Male and Female College.*.....	B. R. Morrison.....	Nonsect..
898 Dixon.....	Dixon High School.....	G. W. Huddleston.....	Nonsect..
899 East Fork.....	Mississippi Male and Female College.....	J. W. Townsend.....	Bapt.....
900 Edwards.....	Southern Christian Institute b.....	J. B. Lehman, Ph. B.....	Nonsect..
901 French Camp.....	Central Mississippi Institute.....	J. A. Sanderson.....	Presb.....
902 ..do.....	French Camp Academy.....	Prof. Jackson Reeves.....	Presb.....
903 Gatewood.....	Walthall High School.....	A. M. Beauchamp.....	Nonsect..
904 Gillsburg.....	Gillsburg Collegiate Institute.....	Charles Hooper.....	Bapt.....
905 Grenada.....	Grenada Collegiate Institute.....	John W. Malone, A. M.....	Meth.....
906 Handsboro.....	Gulf Coast College.....	Rev. J. M. Pugh, A. B., A. M.....	Nonsect..
907 Harpersville.....	Harpersville College.....	F. B. Woodley, A. M.....	Nonsect..
908 Hebron.....	Hebron High School.....	G. H. Brunson, A. B.....	Nonsect..
909 Heidelberg.....	Heidelberg Institute.....	T. H. Oden, president.....	Nonsect..
910 Holly Springs.....	Malone Female College.....	Mrs. Fort.....	Meth.....
911 ..do.....	North Mississippi Presbyterian College.*.....	Mrs. E. T. Talliferro.....	Presb.....
912 ..do.....	St. Thomas Halle.....	Rev. Peter Gray Sears.....	P. E.....
913 Houston.....	Mississippi Normal College.....	H. B. Abernethy.....	Nonsect..
914 Jacinto.....	Jacinto Academy.....	J. O. Looney.....	Nonsect..
915 Kilmichael.....	Kilmichael High School.....	J. W. Lucas, A. B.....	Nonsect..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$255.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																								Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.		Prepar-ing for college.				Grad-uates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.													
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.										
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24									
2	3	12	10	0	0	8	15	2	0	4	3	2	0	2	0	5	1,000	866								
0	0	21	0	0	0	4	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	5	350	867								
7	0	75	0	0	0	21	0	0	0	4	868								
0	8	0	38	0	0	0	20	0	3	4	700	125,000	869								
2	0	32	0	0	0	294	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	2	450	48,000	870								
0	7	0	22	0	0	0	28	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	4	400	2,000	871								
0	5	0	50	0	0	0	125	0	3	4	600	872								
0	3	0	12	0	0	0	6	0	3	0	1	4	1,000	40,000	873								
2	0	10	5	0	0	35	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	400	1,000	874								
4	2	60	47	0	0	14	11	0	0	4	0	2	100	15,000	875								
4	1	80	48	0	0	0	0	2	1	4	600	20,000	876								
0	4	0	15	0	0	0	55	0	15	0	2	0	2	4	900	1,500	877								
2	1	30	20	40	40	3	0	0	0	3	2	3	300	500	878								
1	1	33	77	0	0	45	43	6	3	4	4	3	40	1,500	879								
2	1	35	38	25	27	10	13	10	13	3	150	5,000	880								
1	1	11	4	0	0	51	47	3	4	4	4	4	1	4	1	125	1,250	881								
0	2	0	25	0	0	0	25	0	5	100	882								
0	2	41	39	0	0	60	70	2	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	500	2,000	883								
1	1	6	15	0	0	39	22	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	400	3,000	884								
0	1	2	12	0	0	2	2	0	3	2	3	0	2	25	1,000	885								
1	1	13	28	0	0	15	14	0	3	10	15	0	3	0	3	620	7,125	886								
1	2	30	45	0	0	20	35	2	1	0	0	2	7	2	0	4	1,000	7,000	887								
3	4	15	15	0	0	25	45	2	3	5	10	0	0	250	888								
1	0	7	9	0	0	29	36	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	889								
1	2	11	18	0	0	57	85	3	7	5	13	7	9	3	4	3	75	3,175	890								
1	2	20	14	0	0	50	40	1	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	3	50	1,500	891								
1	0	7	3	0	0	33	37	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	2	200	1,000	892								
1	1	10	15	0	0	22	43	2	1	1	0	4	150	1,500	893								
0	1	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	300	25,000	894								
0	3	10	20	0	0	40	70	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	600	5,000	895								
1	1	20	22	0	0	10	12	6	5	4	6	0	0	0	0	4	300	1,500	896								
2	0	10	19	0	0	45	26	0	0	0	0	897								
0	1	18	20	55	25	4	2	8	2	12	4	12	4	4	312	900	898								
1	0	7	21	0	0	2	0	4	16	0	0	0	0	3	2,500	899								
2	2	15	20	0	5	25	21	15	20	3	3	3	3	4	1,000	25,000	900								
2	2	0	48	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	4	600	5,000	901								
2	0	45	0	0	0	22	0	10	0	0	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4,000	902								
1	2	20	22	0	0	32	40	1	4	3	5	0	0	4	150	2,500	903								
1	1	19	25	0	0	35	40	2	3	1	0	0	3	4	150	3,000	904								
2	6	0	101	0	33	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	4	500	50,000	905								
1	1	9	9	0	0	19	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	175	4,000	906								
0	1	55	49	0	0	15	16	15	0	20	12	0	0	4	2,000	2,000	907								
0	2	15	15	0	0	35	30	7	8	0	0	2	0	2	0	3	1,000	2,500	908								
1	1	40	62	0	0	20	26	5	3	4	5	1	2	1	2	4	856	2,500	909								
0	2	0	38	0	38	0	20	0	13	0	20	0	5	3	900	910								
1	5	0	50	0	0	0	20	0	50	0	0	0	8	0	0	300	20,000	911								
5	1	56	0	0	0	0	0	31	0	20	0	6	0	6	0	56	25,000	912								
3	2	155	177	0	0	40	50	29	40	35	45	9	10	4	2,000	10,000	913								
1	0	20	16	0	0	40	37	2	1	1	3	3	300	1,000	914								
2	0	14	18	0	0	25	27	12	15	2	3	2,000	915								

b Amount from benefactions, \$600.

c Amount from benefactions, \$4,000.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
MISSISSIPPI—cont'd.				
916	Kosciusko	Male and Female Institute	E. M. McNulty.....	Nonsect ..
917	Kossuth	Kossuth High School	F. M. Patton, A. B.	Nonsect ..
918	Lexington	Lexington Normal College	Dickey & Smith	Nonsect ..
919	Liberty	Male and Female College	P. L. Marsalis, president ..	Nonsect ..
920	Louisville	Louisville Normal School	Prof. C. E. Saunders	Nonsect ..
921	Lumberton	Lumberton High School*	A. L. Sumner	Nonsect ..
922	Meridian	Meridian Academy*	G. G. Logan	M. E. So ..
923	Montrose	High School (Braudon district) ..	Professor McLaurin	Meth
924	Moss Point	Moss Point Academy	W. A. Gillon	Nonsect ..
925	Natchez	Cathedral Commercial School ..	Brother Gabriel	R. C
926do.....	Natchez College	S. H. C. Owen	Bapt.....
927do.....	St. Joseph's College	Sister Theresa	R. C
928do.....	Stanton College for Young Ladies ..	Miss Mary Louisa Prince ..	Nonsect ..
929	Nettleton	Providence Male and Female College ..	M. B. Turman	Nonsect ..
930	Orwood	Orwood Institute*	J. R. Gossett	Nonsect ..
931	Oxford	Warren Institute	Mrs. C. A. Lancaster	Nonsect ..
932	Piera	Select School	E. T. Kcetton	Nonsect ..
933	Pittsboro	Male and Female College	Charles B. Sisler	Nonsect ..
934	Plattsburg	Winston Normal High School ..	H. Lynn McCleskey, B. S. ..	Nonsect ..
935	Port Gibson	Chamberlain-Hunt Academy	W. C. Guthrie	Presb.
936	Potts Camp	Reids Institute*	H. R. Collins	Nonsect ..
937	Pulaski	High School	E. P. Howie	Nonsect ..
938	Ripley	Male and Female College*	W. T. Smith	Nonsect ..
939	Saltillo	High School	J. S. Threlkeld	Bapt.....
940	Senatobia	Blackbourn College for Girls ..	F. Snider, A. B.	Nonsect ..
941	Sherman	Mississippi Normal Institute ..	D. H. Davis	Nonsect ..
942	Shubuta	Shubuta High School	C. W. Anderson	Nonsect ..
943	Sylvarena	Sylvarena High School*	T. H. Oden	Nonsect ..
944	Tula	Tula Normal Institute	C. C. Hughes	Nonsect ..
945	Tylertown	Tylertown Normal Institute ..	Y. Y. Lee	Nonsect ..
946	Union Church	High School*	C. W. Grafton	Nonsect ..
947	Vaiden	Miss Sanderson's School*	Miss Julia Sanderson	Nonsect ..
948do.....	Vaiden Male and Female Institute ..	J. S. Hudson	Nonsect ..
949	Washington	Jefferson Military College	Joseph S. Raymond	Nonsect ..
950	Waynesboro	Waynesboro Collegiate Institute ..	Alexander Powe	Nonsect ..
951	Yale	Oakland Normal Institute	G. A. and J. T. Holley	Nonsect ..
MISSOURI.				
952	Appleton City	Appleton City Academy	G. A. Theilmann	Nonsect ..
953	Arcadia	Ursuline Academy	Mother Marian, Superior- ess ..	R. C
954	Ashley	Watson Seminary	Alex. R. Coburn, A. M.	Nonsect ..
955	Boonville	Cooper Institute	Anthony Haynes	Nonsect ..
956do.....	Kenper Family School	T. A. Johnston, A. M.	Nonsect ..
957	Boonville (8th st., corner Locust) ..	Megquier Seminary	Miss Julia Megquier	Nonsect ..
958	Brookfield	Brookfield College	M. H. Reaser, Ph. D.	Presb.
959	Butler	Butler Academy	R. P. Redfield	Presb.
960	Caledonia	Bellevue Collegiate Institute ..	Nelson B. Henry, presi- dent ..	Meth
961	Camden Point	Camden Point Military Insti- tute ..	Maj. E. D. Valliant	Nonsect ..
962do.....	Female Orphan School of the Christian Church ..	C. A. Moore	Christian ..
963	Chillicothe	St. Joseph's Academy	Sisters of St. Joseph	R. C.
964	Clarence	High School (Macon district) ..	Joe J. Pritchett	Meth. So.
965	Clarksburg	Clarksburg College	T. S. Creekmore, A. B.	Bapt.....

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appar-atus.		
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Prepar-ing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.													
								Clas-sical course.		Scien-tific course.																	
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24		
1	2	32	23	0	0	20	15							0	0	0	0	3						300	\$1,200	916	
1	0	7	4	0	0	53	38							0	0	0	0							700		917	
3	0	25	25	0	0	75	100							7	8	1	0	4					2,000	20,000		918	
2	0	8	10			35	45	2	0					1	1	1	0	4					0	6,000		919	
1	1	15	10			50	35							0	0	0	0	4					125	2,000		920	
1	0	12	13	0	0	30	35	0	2	0	0	0	1	3									25	1,500		921	
0	4	63	102	63	102	27	27	6	2	0	0	10	10	10	10			4					230	10,000		922	
2	0	27	30	0	0	21	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4					0			923	
1	0	6	16	0	0	43	18	2	1					0	0	0	0						100	1,800		924	
2	0	45	0	0	0	102	0	4	0	14	0	3	3	0	2	0	3						1,500	50,000		925	
1	2	25	25	25	25	30	40	6	6	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4					200	25,000		926	
0	3	0	25	0	0	0	75	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4								927	
0	3	0	18	0	0	20	60							0	0	0	0	4						75,000		928	
0	2	31	44	0	0	60	40							0	0	0	0	2					300	2,000		929	
2	0	12	20	0	0	22	26	4	8	8	12														800		930
1	1	18	6	0	0	17	4	10	5	0																	931
1	0	10	14	0	0	28	26	0	5	0	5	0	2	0	2	0	2	4					200	450		932	
1	3	25	25	0	0	35	40	0	0	5	2	3	1	3	1										2,000		933
2	0	37	34	0	0	13	20							1											1,200		934
3	0	58	0	0	0	30	0	20	0	10	0	8	0					4					2,000	40,000		935	
0	2	20	15	0	0	78	66	6	5	5	7	0	6	6	0								85	800		936	
1	1	10	3	0	0	45	42	0	0	0	0							4					0	500		937	
1	2	28	22	0	0	62	73	5	5					0	2										5,000		938
1	1	15	20	0	0	30	60							3	4	3	4	4					100	1,000		939	
1	0	0	30	0	0	0	73							0	0	0	3	3					125	2,500		940	
3	2	15	20	0	0	95	95	1	0	0	0	1	0					3					500	3,000		941	
1	0	16	13	0	0	29	15											2							2,500		942
1	1	37	24	0	0	14	10	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0						300	1,000		943	
2	0	18	22	0	0	75	122	3	2	5	0	7	5	5	5	3							500	3,000		944	
1	0	10	10	0	0	42	66	10	6														75	3,000		945	
3	1	35	40	0	0	10	15	10	5					1	3	1	2						150	6,000		946	
0	1	4	8	0	0	8	30							0	0	0	0						50	600		947	
1	1	8	15	0	0			2	8					0	0	0	0	4								948	
3	0	27	6	0	0	32	10							1	1	1	1	4	41				2,500	20,000		949	
1	1	15	14	0	0	60	62			4	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	4					0	4,000		950	
1	1	48	44	0	0	95	80	5	2	10	4	17	4	2	2	2	2						1,050	2,500		951	
3	2	33	30	0	0	52	40	1	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	4	60					175	3,000		952	
0	1	0	31	0	0	0	9	0	6					0	0			1,200								953	
2	1	21	19	0	0	15	10	5	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4						800	6,000		954	
4	1	15	21			4	7	5	0					1	4	1	0	4					600	10,000		955	
0	3	48	1	0	0	21	0	8	0	0	1	4	0	4	0	3	69						2,000	50,000		956	
0	3	0	24	0	0	12	15							0	1	0	1	4					300	5,000		957	
2	3	40	65	0	0	20	21	5	6	30	50	1	5	1	3	5							100	30,000		958	
2	2	27	28	0	0	2	3	1	0					1	5			3					200			959	
2	1	25	32	0	0	35	40							1	2								1,200			960	
1	0	27	0	0	0	19	0							5	0	2	0									961	
0	2	0	60	0	0	0	10							0	4								400	30,000		962	
0	1	0	24			0	16							0	8	0	8	4					40			963	
0	3	23	32	0	0	20	25	25	28					4	3			4					58	30,000		964	
4	0	26	19	0	0	23	17	5	6	3	0	2	3					4					500	10,000		965	

Statistics of endowed academics, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
MISSOURI—continued.			
966	Clarksburg	Hooper Institute	W. C. Sebring
967	Clinton	Baird College	Mrs. H. F. Baird
968	do	Clinton Academy	J. C. Wooley and W. H. Forsythe
969	College Mound	McGee College	Robert E. Hatton, A. B.
970	Columbia	University Academy	John W. Wilkinson, S. B., L. B., Pe. B.
971	Concordia	St. Paul's College	J. H. C. Kaepffel
972	Dadeville	Dadeville Academy	Geo. Melcher, M. S.
973	Farmington	Carlton College	Eliza A. Carleton, A. M.
974	do	Elmwood Seminary	Miss S. H. Holliday
975	Florissant	St. Stanislaus Seminary	Frederick Hageman
976	Fulton	The Orphan School of the Christian Church of Missouri.	Frank W. Allen
977	Gravelton	Concordia College	Rev. L. M. Wagner, A. M.
978	Holden	St. Cecilia's Academy	Sister M. Purification
979	Humphreys	Wentworth Military Academy	Paul H. Linn, A. B.
980	Iberia	Iberia Academy	G. Byron Smith, A. M.
981	Independence	Woodland College	George S. Bryant, A. M.
982	Joplin	Academy of Lady of Mercy	Sisters of Mercy
983	Kansas City	Private School for Girls	Miss Ada Brann and Miss Barston
984	Kidder	Kidder Institute a	G. W. Shaw, A. M.
985	Kirkwood	Kirkwood Military Academy and Glendale Institute.	Edward A. Haight
986	Labadie	Labadie Academy	Wm. S. Allen
987	Ladonia	Collin's Academy	E. A. Collins
988	Lexington	Wentworth Military Academy*	Sanford Sellers, M. A.
989	Liberty	Liberty Female College*	F. Menefee
990	Macon	St. James's Military Academy*	Col. F. W. Blees
991	Marble Hill	Mayfield-Smith Academy	M. W. Graves, A. M.
992	Marionville	Marionville Collegiate Institute.	D. Martin L. Curl, A. B.
993	Marshall	St. Saviour's Academy	Sister of Loretto
994	Maryville	Maryville Seminary	Geo. E. Moore
995	Mexico	Missouri Military Academy	A. F. Fleet, A. M., LL. D.
996	Middle Grove	Middle Grove College	Isom Roberts
997	Mill Spring	Hale's College	W. H. Hale
998	Moundville	Cooper Institute	C. H. Miles, president
999	Mountain Grove	Mountain Grove Academy	Wm. H. Lynch, A. M.
1000	Mount Vernon	Mount Vernon Academy	Geo. H. Pollard
1001	Nevada	Cottey Female College	Mrs. V. A. C. Stockard
1002	do	Nevada Seminary	Mrs. Lula G. Elliott
1003	Odessa	Odessa College and Business Institute.	J. R. McChesney, A. M.
1004	O'Fallon	Woodlawn Institute	Rev. W. T. Howison, A. M.
1005	Olney	Olney Institute	Geo. P. Welch
1006	Otterville	Otterville College	Philetus A. Grove
1007	Pierce City	Pierce City Baptist College	Richard D. Swain
1008	Pilot Grove	Collegiate Institute (Eichelberger Academy).	J. W. Taylor
1009	Platte City	Gaylord Institute	Mrs. T. W. Park, president
1010	Plattsburg	Plattsburg College	J. W. Ellis, Ph. D., LL. D.
1011	Portland	St. Mark's School	F. E. Alleync, rector
1012	Powersville	York Seminary	J. A. Cozad
1013	Rensselaer	Van Rensselaer Academy	J. E. Anderson
1014	St. Charles	Sacred Heart Convent	R. M. Conway
1015	St. Joseph	Academy of the Sacred Heart	Madame A. M. Niederkorn
1016	do	College of St. Joseph	Edward T. Mathes

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																				Number of years in course.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.		Prepar- ing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa- ratory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.									
									Clas- sical course.		Scien- tific course.													
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24					
4	2	70	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	3	0	0	4	70	50	\$10,000	966				
0	6	0	100	0	0	0	25	0	45	0	45	0	16	0	0	4	3,000	75,000	967					
0	1	20	10	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	3	1	3	0	4	1,000	0	968					
0	2	40	45	0	0	40	60	0	0	0	0	20	17	3	6	3	1,000	25,000	969					
3	0	50	10	0	0	65	10	1	1	10	3	11	4	0	0	3	400	10,000	970					
5	0	86	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	9	0	4	300	18,000	971					
2	0	40	25	0	0	40	30	0	0	20	10	1	1	1	0	4	200	1,800	972					
2	2	33	27	0	0	6	4	8	4	2	0	5	1	5	1	3	694	25,000	973					
0	3	0	42	0	0	0	26	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	200	0	974					
6	0	65	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	975					
0	1	0	74	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	4	1,300	60,000	976					
1	0	20	15	0	0	25	12	18	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	977					
1	2	20	60	0	0	20	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	400	25,000	978					
3	2	20	40	0	0	0	0	2	3	1	0	3	2	3	2	4	0	3,000	979					
1	3	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1,500	4,000	980					
1	1	23	32	0	0	6	10	0	0	0	0	2	7	0	0	4	1,500	20,000	981					
0	2	0	13	0	0	18	37	0	6	0	0	0	2	0	4	4	120	25,000	982					
0	6	9	31	0	0	6	44	7	1	0	8	2	3	2	3	4	800	0	983					
3	2	40	43	0	0	20	30	10	10	8	6	5	11	2	4	4	1,600	30,500	984					
1	1	12	5	0	0	23	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	32	20,000	985					
0	1	10	10	0	0	21	16	8	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	3,500	986					
1	1	10	13	0	0	5	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	175	2,500	987					
6	1	60	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	25	0	10	0	6	0	0	300	30,000	988					
1	9	0	110	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	100	75,000	989					
4	1	49	12	0	0	9	3	2	0	7	0	1	1	1	1	0	800	30,000	990					
2	1	40	26	0	0	8	9	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	300	5,000	991					
3	2	76	72	0	0	0	0	4	1	0	0	5	3	5	3	4	400	10,000	992					
0	3	0	20	0	0	0	70	0	15	0	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	993					
2	1	25	20	0	0	40	40	25	15	0	0	7	8	0	0	0	1,000	0	994					
8	0	46	0	0	0	36	0	16	0	29	0	13	0	10	0	4	350	85,000	995					
2	1	10	14	0	0	30	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	125	5,400	996					
3	1	23	20	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	20	2,500	997					
2	0	24	8	0	0	20	30	4	3	0	0	3	2	3	2	4	0	6,000	998					
3	2	68	60	0	0	211	200	0	0	68	60	8	2	0	0	4	155	10,000	999					
1	1	25	35	0	0	7	8	3	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	4	0	0	1000					
0	3	0	65	0	0	10	46	0	0	0	0	13	0	1	4	0	600	30,000	1001					
0	1	5	20	0	0	4	16	5	20	0	0	0	0	0	6	4	300	2,200	1002					
0	2	33	33	0	0	10	8	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	300	6,000	1003					
0	1	8	22	0	0	4	3	5	20	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	100	6,000	1004					
1	1	16	6	0	0	20	5	0	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	100	3,000	1005					
2	2	28	27	0	0	11	10	0	0	0	0	3	4	3	4	3	1,000	4,000	1006					
2	2	30	36	0	0	16	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12,000	1007					
1	1	15	13	0	0	5	10	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	4	250	4,500	1008					
1	3	9	26	0	0	10	14	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	700	25,000	1009					
2	3	24	19	0	0	29	35	6	4	1	0	0	2	0	0	2	3,000	10,000	1010					
1	0	15	0	0	0	15	0	10	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,500	1,200	1011					
1	0	21	15	0	0	5	5	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	50	0	1012					
1	0	11	9	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	5,000	1013					
0	2	0	43	0	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	4	900	160,000	1014					
0	5	0	50	0	0	0	120	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	4	1,000	0	1015					
1	1	10	24	0	0	30	20	0	0	0	0	4	6	4	6	4	500	30,000	1016					

a Amount from benefactions, \$1,551.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
MISSOURI—continued.			
1017 St. Louis (South) (Meramec st.)	Academy of the Sacred Heart..	Genevieve Ganci	R. C
1018 St. Louis (4411 Washington ave.)	Edgar School	Miss Anna Edgar.....	Nonsect ..
1019 St. Louis (900-912 S. 9th st.)	Educational Institute.....	J. Toensfeldt	Nonsect ..
1020 St. Louis (2812-2814 Locust st.)	Hosmer Hall.....	Misses Shepard and Mathews.	Nonsect ..
1021 St. Louis (Pine st. and Jefferson ave.)	Loretto Academy.....	Mother M. Louie.....	R. C
1022 St. Louis (1607-1617 S. Compton ave.)	Bishop Robertson Hall.....	Sister Superior.....	P. E
1023 St. Louis (3817 Olive st.)	Rugby Academy	Denham Arnold	Nonsect ..
1024 St. Louis (3812 Washington boulevard)	St. Louis Collegiate Institute..	Miss Fannie H. Dodge....	Nonsect ..
1025 St. Louis	Ursuline Academy and Day School.	Mother Seraphine	R. C
1026 do.	Walther College.....	Prof. A. C. Burgdorf	Luth
1027 Sedalia (407 W. Broadway)	Mrs. Miller's Seminary	Mrs. R. T. Miller.....	Nonsect ..
1028 Sedalia	Geo. R. Smith College <i>a</i>	P. A. Coot, D. D	M. E.
1029 Sikeston	Sikeston Academy	T. W. Thomson	Nonsect ..
1030 Spring Garden	Miller County Institute.....	H. M. Sutton	Nonsect ..
1031 Sweet Springs	Marmaduke Military Institute.	John B. Welch	Nonsect ..
1032 do.	Sweet Springs Academy	J. E. Barnett, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1033 Unionville	Unionville Academy	C. D. Frank	Nonsect ..
1034 Washington	Washington High School.....	J. U. Schneider	Ev. Luth ..
1035 Weaubleau	Weaubleau Christian College <i>b</i>	John Whitaker, M. S., A. M.	Christian ..
1036 Wyaconda	Wyaconda College.....	Rev. J. W. Atterberry....	Bapt.....
MONTANA.			
1037 Butte	Newill Academy	A. C. Newill	Nonsect ..
1038 Helena	St. Vincent's Academy	Sister Columba Normile ..	R. C
1039 Miles City	Ursuline Convent of the Sacred Heart.	Ursuline Sisters	R. C
1040 Missoula	Sacred Heart Academy.....	Sister Aristides	R. C
NEBRASKA.			
1041 Chadron	Chadron Academy*	John N. Bennett.....	Cong
1042 Columbus	St. Francis Academy <i>c</i>	Rev. Mauritius Bankholt ..	R. C
1043 Franklin	Franklin Academy	Alexis C. Hart, A. M.	Cong
1044 Grand Island	Grand Island College.....	Geo. Sutherland, A. M., B. D.	Bapt.....
1045 Hastings	Hastings College*	W. F. Ringland	Presb.
1046 Kearney	Platte Collegiate Institute.....	Clarence Albert Murch.....	P. E
1047 Lincoln	Worthington Military Academy.	E. De S-Juny, M. A.	Epis
1048 North Platte	School of the Nativity.....	Sister M. Antoinette.....	R. C
1049 Omaha	Brownell Hall	Robert Doherty, M. A.	P. E
1050 do.	St. Catherine's Academy.....	Sister M. Aquin	R. C
1051 Pawnee City	Pawnee City Academy.....	Rev. R. T. Campbell.....	Presb.
1052 Wahoo	Luther Academy <i>d</i>	Prof. S. M. Hill, A. M.	Ev. Luth ..
1053 Weeping Water.....	Weeping Water Academy <i>e</i>	Frank C. Taylor, A. B.	Nonsect ..
1054 York	School of the Holy Family	Superiores of Ursuline Convent.	R. C

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$150.

b Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																		Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.		
		Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.				Prepar-ing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepara-tory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.							
												Classi-cal course.		Scien-tific course.											
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24		
0	7	0	50	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6					4		3,000		0171	
1	4	6	30	0	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4				1018	
5	0	61	0	0	0	149	0							9	0					3		1,260	\$32,000	1019	
1	8	0	66	0	0	0	38	0	4	0	6	0	10	0	10	0	3	4	4			300		1020	
0	5	0	26	0	0							0	14	0	3									1021	
2	5	0	31	0	0	2	56	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	4	0	0	4	4			1,500	80,000	1022	
3	2	68	0	0	0	22	0							9	0	8	0	4	4				25,000	1023	
0	1	0	4	0	0	6	10	0	4											4		300		1024	
0	4	0	40			20	160							0	7							1,230	70,000	1025	
5	1	94	27	0	0	0	0	15	0	13	0	3	1							4		300	50,000	1026	
2	2	0	20	0	0	2	20	0	12	0	5	0	7	0	7	0	5	4	4			200		1027	
1	6	7	13	4	6	33	22	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	4	4			800	60,000	1023	
1	1	18	17	0	0	0	0	4	8					3	5	3	1	4	4				5,000	1029	
1	0	14	12	0	0	22	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4				3,000	1030	
8	0	50	0	0	0	57	0	5	0	10	0	18	0	5	0	5	0	4	107			200	200,000	1031	
3	2	30	30	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	3											100	2,500	1032	
1	0	14	18	0	0	10	8	0	0	0	0			0	0	0	0					40		1033	
1	1	10	6			25	14							0	0	0	0	4				35	6,000	1034	
1	1	28	20			49	62							6	2			4				120	10,000	1035	
0	1	5	7	0	0	5	7	0	0	5	7	0	0	0	0	0	0					2,000	1,800	1036	
2	1	19	20	0	0	9	7	2	1	1	0	6	1	6	1	6	1	4				200	1,500	1037	
0	2	15	15	0	0	65	130	0	24	0	15	0	12	0	1	0	0	4				300	40,000	1038	
0	2	0	35			0	24															0			1039
0	1	0	20	0	0	60	103							0	0			3				200	15,000	1040	
2	2	14	21	0	0	0	0	5	8	2	2	2	7	2	7	2	7					600	15,000	1041	
2	4	5	25	0	0	110	110	0	5			0	5					3				50	30,000	1042	
3	2	42	59	0	0	3	11	18	6	8	8	2	7	2	4	4						3,000	18,900	1043	
4	0	46	23	0	0	13	19	18	3	13	10	4	3	4	3	3						526	60,000	1044	
5	1	35	30	0	0	15	10	30	25			4	3	4	3							2,500	80,000	1045	
3	2	90	45	0	0	8	7	2	2	14	4	0	0	0	0	0	0					150	25,000	1046	
4	1	12	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	8	0	4	0	3	0	3	12					400		1047	
0	1	4	10	0	0	41	46					0	6	0	0	4						100	5,000	1048	
2	3	0	53	0	0	0	22	0	4			0	3				4	3				2,500	150,000	1049	
0	3	3	18	0	0	20	19	0	4	0	0	0	4	0	4	4						100		1050	
1	2	42	38	0	0	56	10	6	5	0	0	3	5	2	0							200	20,000	1051	
4	3	32	23	0	0	25	4	13	6			5	1	4	0	4						950	20,000	1052	
3	1	23	15	0	0	10	3	8	6	5	2	2	4	1	4	3						4,000	5,700	1053	
0	4	0	25	0	0	40	55					0	2									80		1054	

e Amount from benefactions, \$2,796.

d Amount from benefactions, \$690.

e Amount from benefactions, \$500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
NEVADA.			
1055 Virginia City.....	St. Mary's School.....	Sister Baptista.....	R. C.....
NEW HAMPSHIRE.			
1056 Andover.....	Proctor Academy.....	James F. Morton, A. M....	Unitarian.
1057 Canterbury.....	Kezer Seminary.....	Frank J. Sherman.....	F. W. Bapt.
1058 Center Strafford.....	Austin Academy.....	Alvin E. Thomas, A. M....	Nonsect..
1059 Concord.....	St. Mary's School.....	Miss Elizabeth M. M. Gainforth.	P. E.....
1060 ..do.....	St. Paul's School.....	Joseph H. Coit, D. D., vice-rector.	P. E.....
1061 Derry.....	Pinkerton Academy*.....	G. W. Bingham.....	Nonsect..
1062 Epping.....	Watson Academy*.....	William S. Mason, A. B....	Nonsect..
1063 Exeter.....	The Phillips Exeter Academy. <i>a</i>	Charles Everett Fish, A. M.	Nonsect..
1064 ..do.....	Robinson Female Seminary.....	George N. Cross, A. M....	Nonsect..
1065 Francestown.....	Francestown Academy*.....	Howard P. Haines.....	Nonsect..
1066 Franconia.....	Dow Academy.....	Fredk. W. Ernst, A. M....	Cong.....
1067 Gilmanton.....	Gilmanton Academy.....	S. W. Robertson, A. M....	Cong.....
1068 Hampstead.....	High School*.....	F. E. Merrill.....	Nonsect..
1069 Kingston.....	Sanborn Seminary.....	Charles H. Clark.....	Nonsect..
1070 Meriden.....	Kimball Union Academy.....	W. H. Cummings, A. M....	Cong.....
1071 Milton.....	Nute High School.....	William K. Norton.....	Nonsect..
1072 Mount Vernon.....	McCollom Institute.....	Y. B. Welch.....	Nonsect..
1073 New Hampton.....	New Hampton Literary Institution.	Atwood B. Meservey, D. D., Ph. D.	F. W. Bapt
1074 New London.....	Colby Academy.....	Geo. W. Gile.....	Nonsect..
1075 Northwood Center.....	Coe's Northwood Academy.....	Julius Waverley Brown..	Nonsect..
1076 Pembroke.....	Pembroke Academy.....	Isaac Walker, A. M....	Nonsect..
1077 Plymouth.....	Holderness School for Boys <i>b</i>	Rev. Lorin Webster, M. A.	P. E.....
1078 Portsmouth.....	The Morgan School.....	Miss Georgiana S. Woodbury.	Nonsect..
1079 Reeds Ferry.....	McGaw Normal School.....	Miss Elmer Ellsworth French, A. M.	Nonsect..
1080 Wolfboro.....	Brewster Free Academy*.....	Edwin H. Lord.....	Nonsect..
NEW JERSEY.			
1081 Belvidere.....	Belvidere Classical Academy.....	Miss Sarah Cecilia Bale..	Nonsect..
1082 Blairstown.....	Blair Presbyterial Academy*.....	W. S. Eversole, A. M., Ph. D.	Presb.....
1083 Beverly.....	Farnum Preparatory School.....	James B. Dilks, A. M....	Nonsect..
1084 Bloomfield.....	Academic Department of the German Theological School of Newark, N. J.	Charles E. Knox, D. D., president.	Presb.....
1085 Bordentown.....	Adelphi Institute*.....	Rev. Robert Julien, A. M.	Nonsect..
1086 ..do.....	Bordentown Military Institute.	R. T. H. Landon, A. M....	Nonsect..
1087 ..do.....	The Priscilla Brainslin School (girls).	The Misses Brainslin.....	Nonsect..
1088 ..do.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Sister M. Stanislaus.....	R. C.....
1089 Bridgeton.....	Ivy Hall School.....	Mrs. J. Allen Maxwell.....	Nonsect..
1090 ..do.....	The South Jersey Institute.....	H. K. Trask.....	Bapt.....
1091 ..do.....	The West Jersey Academy.....	Phœbus W. Lyon.....	Presb.....
1092 Burlington.....	Van Rensselaer Seminary.....	Miss Helen M. Freeman.....	Presb.....
1093 Camden (419 Penn st.)	Raymond Academy.....	Miss Helen Tuxbury, A. M.	Nonsect..
1094 Cinnaminson.....	Westfield Friends School.....	Miss Annie L. Croasdale..	Friends..
1095 Deckertown.....	Seeley's Select School.....	W. H. Seeley, A. M....	Nonsect..
1096 East Orange (P. O. box 69).	Dryad Hill.....	Mrs. Louisa H. Benjamin.....	Nonsect..
1097 East Orange (63 Harrison st.)	The East Orange School.....	Miss H. Louise Underhill.	Nonsect..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$2,000.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds build-ings. and scientific apparatus.
	Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Prepar-ing for college.				Grad-uates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.											
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24					
0	1	0	14	0	0	12	63	0	0	0	0	5	...	200	...	1055				
1	3	11	14	0	0	9	5	3	5	3	1	3	...	75	\$8,000	1056				
1	1	18	15	0	0	2	3	6	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	...	0	4,000	1058				
2	5	0	26	0	0	0	6	0	3	0	0	4	...	900	26,000	1059				
33	0	340	0	0	0	0	0	285	0	55	0	69	0	69	0	5	...	9,500	...	1060				
3	3	32	49	0	0	13	3	8	7	11	17	5	5	5	4	...	3,173	60,000	1061					
1	0	15	14	0	0	14	11	0	0	0	0	...	175	7,000	1062					
10	0	222	0	9	0	0	0	98	0	16	0	41	0	30	0	4	...	1,600	172,325	1063				
0	4	0	105	0	3	0	90	0	12	0	0	0	23	0	5	3	...	800	100,000	1064				
1	0	9	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	340	2,000	1065					
2	0	15	10	0	0	50	49	5	1	1	0	1	0	4	...	250	25,000	1066				
2	1	0	15	0	0	0	0	4	3	0	0	0	0	4	...	300	3,000	1067				
1	0	6	13	0	0	3	8	3	6	32	9,000	1068				
0	0	3	22	26	0	21	11	4	2	0	0	7	4	1,450	...	1069					
2	5	99	92	1	1	0	0	25	7	54	0	9	8	1	1	4	...	2,000	40,000	1070				
1	2	21	30	0	0	0	0	9	8	1	1	4	...	900	35,000	1071				
1	1	10	3	0	0	0	0	4	0	5	0	4	0	2	0	4	...	500	15,000	1072				
6	5	131	89	0	0	15	9	32	15	5	3	...	11,000	30,000	1073					
4	5	82	84	1	0	0	0	30	10	17	11	12	9	4	50,000	1074				
2	0	9	11	0	0	13	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	...	800	20,000	1075				
1	1	20	20	0	0	0	0	3	1	5	2	900	...	1076					
5	0	35	0	0	0	6	0	30	0	3	0	9	0	9	0	5	...	1,200	45,000	1077				
0	5	0	20	0	0	8	15	0	5	0	5	0	2	4	16,000	1078				
2	3	40	50	0	0	0	0	19	16	10	14	7	5	4	2	4	...	700	1,500	1079				
4	2	52	55	0	0	0	0	13	12	2	0	6	13	1	4	...	800	60,000	1080					
1	1	10	9	0	0	4	8	2	2	1	2	0	0	4	1081				
5	3	74	63	0	0	0	0	38	21	12	2	3	6	3	6	...	1,200	400,000	1082					
1	3	9	36	0	0	44	47	0	2	2	0	2	16	4	2	3	...	0	20,000	1083				
0	4	0	33	0	0	0	2	0	0	5	0	4,000	22,000	1084					
6	0	58	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	12	0	3	0	2	0	58	1085				
1	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1086				
0	4	0	14	0	0	0	34	0	12	0	0	0	2	4	...	200	...	1087				
0	1	0	30	0	0	0	15	0	1	300	25,000	1088				
0	3	0	28	0	20	0	10	0	4	0	1	4	1089				
2	3	95	40	0	0	30	20	40	25	27	15	16	7	18	2	40	2,500	100,000	1090					
5	0	43	0	0	0	8	0	24	0	24	0	4	0	4	48	2,000	75,000	1091						
0	1	8	5	0	0	14	10	2	0	0	2	1092				
0	4	0	27	14	22	0	8	0	4	0	2	5	...	800	10,000	1093				
0	1	3	7	0	0	2	9	0	3	4	2,500	1094				
1	1	6	9	0	0	9	10	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8,000	1095				
0	1	1	4	0	0	3	6	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	...	300	...	1096				
1	8	0	24	0	0	23	50	0	4	3	14	0	0	0	0	4	15,000	1097				

b Amount from benefactions, \$10,000.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
	NEW JERSEY—cont'd.			
1098	Elizabeth	The Pingry School	Wm. Herbert Corbin, A. B.	Nonsect ..
1099	Elizabeth (279 N. Broad st.)	Vail-Deane School	Misses Vail and Dean	Nonsect ..
1100	Englewood (Lincoln Park)	Collegiate School for Girls.....	Caroline M. Gerrish, A. B.	Nonsect ..
1101	Englewood	Dwight School for Girls.....	Miss E. S. Creighton, Miss E. W. Farrar.	Nonsect ..
1102do.....	The Englewood School for Boys.	Wm. Wilberforce Smith, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1103	Fort Lee	Institute of Holy Angels.....	Sister Mary Nonna	R. C
1104	Freehold	Freehold Institute.....	A. A. Chambers, H. C. Talmage.	Presb.
1105do.....	Young Ladies' Seminary	Misses Sewall.....	Nonsect ..
1106	Hackettstown	Centenary Collegiate Institute.	W. P. Ferguson	M. E.
1107	Hightstown	Peddie Institute	Rev. Jos. E. Perry, Ph. D.	Bapt
1108	Hoboken	Academy of the Sacred Heart	Sister M. Geraldine	R. C
1109	Hoboken (cor. 5th st. and Willow ave.)	Hoboken Academy	Ernst Richard, Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1110	Hoboken	Stevens School.....	Rev. Edward B. Wall, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1111	Jersey City (cor. of Crescent and Harrison aves.)	Hasbrouck Institute	Charles C. Stimets, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1112	Jersey City (144 Grand st.)	St. Peter's College	Rev. J. Harpes, S. J.	R. C
1113	Lakewood	Lakewood Heights School.....	James W. Morey	Nonsect ..
1114do.....	The Oaks	Miss E. T. Farrington	Nonsect ..
1115	Lawrenceville.....	Lawrenceville School.....	Rev. James C. Mackenzie, Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1116	Matawan	Glenwood Collegiate Institute*	Casper G. Brower.....	Nonsect ..
1117	Mont Clair	Mont Clair Military Academy.	John G. MacVicar, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1118	Moorestown	Friends' High School.....	J. W. Gregg	Friends ..
1119	Morristown	Miss Dana's School.....	Miss E. Elizabeth Dana.....	Nonsect ..
1120do.....	Morris Academy	Charles D. Platt	Nonsect ..
1121do.....	St. Bartholomew's School.....	Rev. F. E. Edwards, A. B., B. D.	Epis
1122	Mount Holly	Mount Holly Academy.....	Richard F. Loos	Epis
1123	Mount Holly (48 Broad st.)	Mount Holly Preparatory School (girls)	C. Cotton Kimball, D. D., LL. D.	Nonsect ..
1124	Newark	Miss Hall's School.....	Miss Clara L. Hall.....	Nonsect ..
1125	Newark (536-548 High st. cor. William)	Newark Academy	Samuel A. Farrand, Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1126	Newark (27 Hill st.)	The Newark Seminary	Miss Anna Frances Whitmore.	Nonsect ..
1127	Newark (54 Park place)	Miss Townsend's School.....	Miss Anna P. Townsend..	Nonsect ..
1128	New Brunswick (66 Bayard st.)	The Misses Anable's School..	Miss Harriet I. Anable ..	Nonsect ..
1129	New Brunswick	Rutgers College (Preparatory).	Eliot R. Payson, A. M., Ph. D.	Reformed.
1130do.....	St. Agnes Academy*	Sister Agnes Regina.....	R. C
1131	New Egypt	New Egypt Classical Seminary*	Geo. D. Horner	Nonsect ..
1132	Newton	Newton Collegiate Institute	Joel Wilson, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1133	Orange	Dearborn-Morgan School	David A. Kennedy, Abby B. Morgan.	Nonsect ..
1134do.....	Orange Academy	Rev. C. H. W. Stocking, D. D.	Nonsect ..
1135	Paterson (cor. Van Houten and Auburn sts.)	The Paterson Classical and Scientific School.	L. A. Rogers, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1136	Pennington	Pennington Seminary.....	Thomas Hanlon, A. M., D. D., LL. D.	M. E.
1137	Plainfield	Leal's School for Boys.....	John Leal	Nonsect ..

*Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																								Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Prepar-ing for college.				Grad-uates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that grad-uates in 1895.															
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.			Male.	Female.	Classi-cal course.	Sci-entific course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.												
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24									
4	1	70	0	0	0	60	0	24	0	15	0	6	0	5	0	4	200	\$35,000	1098								
1	7	0	36	0	0	0	36	0	3	0	1	0	7	0	1	4	500	1,000	1099								
0	4	0	54	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	32	0	14	0	6	1100								
0	9	0	80	15	35	0	12	0	1	300	30,000	1101								
4	1	60	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	6	0	3	0	4	200	2,300	1102								
0	4	0	40	0	0	0	40	0	18	0	2	900	1103								
1	1	25	0	0	0	30	0	7	0	4	0	8	2	7	0	4	400	20,000	1104								
0	4	0	35	0	0	1	16	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	5	5	400	20,000	1105								
7	7	75	75	0	0	21	19	14	15	14	1	1106								
6	6	90	63	0	0	10	7	28	2	25	20	24	8	18	2	4	6,000	265,000	1107								
0	4	0	15	23	87	0	1	1108								
4	2	36	26	0	0	154	99	15	0	7	5	5	0	4	2,000	28,000	1109								
12	0	209	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	195	0	50	0	49	0	4	52,976	1110								
6	4	130	150	0	0	50	60	40	20	30	2	7	11	5	3	4	500	100,000	1111								
10	0	235	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1112								
2	1	26	0	0	0	10	0	6	0	20	0	4	0	4	0	4	500	30,000	1113								
0	2	1	21	0	0	7	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2,000	400	1114								
20	0	327	0	0	0	0	0	200	0	127	0	40	0	40	0	4	3,000	1115								
2	3	23	27	0	0	8	9	1	4	2	0	4	1	2	0	10,000	1116								
4	0	32	0	0	0	38	0	5	0	15	0	7	0	6	0	4	500	1117								
1	2	19	20	0	0	18	23	19	20	0	0	4	0	0	0	4	150	5,000	1118								
0	6	0	66	0	0	0	36	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	4	450	1119								
3	1	43	0	0	0	22	0	10	0	2	0	3	0	3	0	3	1120								
6	0	27	0	0	0	0	0	27	0	1	0	1	0	4	1,000	60,000	1121								
2	0	35	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	10	0	4	0	200	12,000	1122								
1	3	0	29	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	5	2,000	11,000	1123								
0	3	0	30	0	20	0	3	0	0	0	7	0	1	4	1,500	1124								
11	0	189	0	85	0	64	0	60	0	21	0	18	0	5	200	100,000	1125								
1	3	0	20	0	0	0	20	0	3	0	1	0	2	0	0	4	700	1126								
0	6	0	39	0	0	0	46	0	4	0	0	0	0	4	500	1127								
1	4	0	55	0	0	0	0	0	15	0	4	1128								
7	1	96	7	2	0	38	21	45	7	41	0	11	0	11	0	5	29	1129								
0	4	29	30	275	300	700	60,000	1130								
1	1	19	9	0	0	3	1	3	0	3	0	300	6,000	1131								
1	1	10	13	0	0	20	12	12	3	4	0	3	0	3	0	600	25,000	1132								
3	11	51	110	0	0	50	40	24	7	5	2	7	8	6	2	6	37,925	1133								
1	1	8	6	12	14	2	1	1	0	2	2	1134								
5	0	33	0	0	0	22	0	9	0	24	0	10	0	10	0	4	12,000	1135								
4	3	75	53	75	25	50	10	10	0	11	11	6	2	4	500	175,000	1136								
4	0	49	0	0	0	16	0	25	0	10	0	12	0	8	0	4	49	6,000	1137								

a Amount from benefactions, \$500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
NEW JERSEY—cont'd.			
1138 Plainfield (The Chestnuts, 7th st.).	Plainfield Seminary.	Miss Eliza E. Kenyon....	Nonsect..
1139 Pompton.....	The Henry C. De Mille Preparatory and Boarding School.	Mrs. H. C. De Mille.....	Epis.....
1140 Princeton.....	The Princeton Preparatory School.	John B. Fine head master.	Nonsect..
1141 Rahway.....	Friends' Select School.....	Miss Ella T. Gause.....	Friends (orthodox).
1142 Salem.....	Salem Friends' School.....	Miss Anna M. Ambler.....	Friends..
1143 Short Hills (P. O. Box 13).	The Short Hills School for Girls.	Miss Harriet S. Baquet...	Nonsect..
1144 Short Hills.....	Short Hills Academy*.....	Alfred Colburn Arnold.....	Nonsect..
1145 Summit.....	The Kent Place School.....	Miss Amelia S. Watts.....	Nonsect..
1146 ..do.....	St. George's Hall.....	Hartman Naylor, head master.	Epis.....
1147 ..do.....	Summit Academy.....	James Heard, A. M.....	Nonsect..
1148 Woodbury.....	Woodbury Private School.....	Curtis J. Lewis.....	Nonsect..
1149 Woodstown.....	Select School for Boys.....	Mrs. Lydia H. Norris.....	Friends..
NEW MEXICO.			
1150 Albuquerque.....	Albuquerque Academy <i>a</i>	George L. Ramsay.....	Cong.....
1151 ..do.....	Goss Military Institute.....	Robert S. Ross.....	Nonsect..
1152 East Las Vegas.....	Las Vegas Academy.....	N. C. Campbell.....	Cong.....
1153 Las Cruces.....	Visitation Academy*.....	Sister M. Rosine.....	R. C.....
1154 Santa Fe.....	Academy of our Lady of Light.	Mother Francisca Lamy..	R. C.....
1155 ..do.....	St. Michael's College.....	Brother Botolph.....	R. C.....
NEW YORK.			
1156 Adams.....	Adams Collegiate Institute.....	Salem G. Pattison.....	Nonsect..
1157 Albany (Kenwood)...	Academy of the Sacred Heart.	Madame Mary Burke.....	R. C.....
1158 Albany.....	The Albany Academy.....	Henry P. Warren, A. B.....	Nonsect..
1159 ..do.....	Albany Female Academy*.....	Miss Lucy A. Plympton..	Nonsect..
1160 ..do.....	Christian Brothers' Academy <i>b</i> .	Brother Junian Peter.....	R. C.....
1161 ..do.....	St. Agnes School.....	Miss Ellen W. Boyd.....	Epis.....
1162 ..do.....	St. Joseph's Academy*.....	Brother Thomas.....	R. C.....
1163 Allegany.....	St. Elizabeth's Academy.....	Mother M. Teresa.....	R. C.....
1164 Amsterdam.....	Amsterdam Academy.....	R. P. Green, A. M.....	Nonsect..
1165 ..do.....	St. Mary's Catholic Institute..	Rev. J. P. McInerow.....	R. C.....
1166 Antwerp.....	Ives Seminary <i>c</i>	F. E. Arthur.....	M. E.....
1167 Belleville.....	Union Academy.....	Alexander Hadlock.....	Nonsect..
1168 Bridgehampton.....	Lady Jane Grey School.....	Mrs. Jane Grey Hyde.....	Nonsect..
1169 ..do.....	Literary and Commercial Institute.	Lewis W. Hallock, A. M..	Nonsect..
1170 Brooklyn.....	Adelphi Academy <i>d</i>	Chas. H. Levermore, Ph.D.	Nonsect..
1171 ..do.....	Bedford Academy.....	George Rodeman M. A., Ph. D.	Nonsect..
1172 Brooklyn (183-185 Lincoln place).	Berkeley Institute <i>e</i>	Julian W. Abernethy, Ph. D.	Nonsect..
1173 Brooklyn (102 Berkeley place).	The Berkeley School for Boys..	Prof. Wm. A. Stamm.....	Nonsect..
1174 Brooklyn.....	Brevort School for Girls.....	Mrs. A. Kipling.....	Epis.....
1175 Brooklyn (429 Clason ave.).	Brooklyn Hill Institute.....	Mrs. C. P. Lane.....	Nonsect..
1176 Brooklyn (139 Clinton st.).	Prof. Deghuée's School for Young Ladies and Children.	Joseph Deghuée and Chas. J. Deghuée, M. A.	Nonsect..
1177 Brooklyn.....	Female Institute of the Visitation.	Sister Mary Paula McMahon.	R. C.....
1178 Brooklyn (310 State st.).	German American Academy...	Joseph Deghuée.....	Nonsect..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$3,251.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$969.*c* Amount from benefactions, \$100.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																		Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.	
	Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elem-entary.		Prepar-ing for college.				Grad-uates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.										
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.									
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20							
1	7	0	37	0	0	0	28	0	4	0	0	0	6	0	2	4	1,000	\$55,000	1138			
1	3	5	11	0	0	11	15	5	0	3	0	2	2	3	0	4	800	25,000	1139			
5	0	40	0	0	0	0	0	20	0	18	0	12	0	12	0	4	500	28,000	1140			
0	1	3	9	9	12	1	0	1141			
0	2	10	11	20	22	0	0	1142			
0	4	0	11	0	0	4	13	0	2	0	0	0	5	0	0	4	350	15,000	1143			
1	1	4	3	0	0	10	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	160	22,000	1144			
1	6	0	22	0	0	9	46	4	1145			
2	0	35	0	38	0	14	0	7	0	8	0	7	0	150	1146			
6	0	20	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	4	100	1147			
2	2	18	18	1	2	1	2	3	300	1148			
1	0	5	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	450	6,000	1149			
2	2	13	15	0	0	5	13	1	1	0	0	4	250	25,000	1150			
2	0	10	0	0	0	25	0	4	35	500	10,000	1151			
1	1	10	16	0	0	37	37	4	1	4	2	2	1	4	8,000	1152			
0	2	0	25	0	15	0	8	29,000	1153			
0	1	0	8	0	0	0	40	0	1	0	2	4	600	50,000	1154			
2	0	20	0	0	0	75	0	6	0	6	0	3	1,000	60,000	1155			
2	5	54	54	0	0	0	0	4	5	4	0	5	6	2	0	4	1,650	49,000	1156			
0	5	0	59	0	0	0	41	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	5	3,602	400,000	1157			
5	2	120	0	0	0	120	0	50	0	70	0	18	0	18	0	5	115	1,000	90,000	1158			
2	6	0	71	0	0	0	47	0	0	0	5	0	15	0	2	3,000	1159			
4	0	34	0	0	0	87	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	34	2,109	31,477	1160			
8	15	0	137	0	0	3	90	0	3	0	16	4	4,000	150,000	1161			
2	3	36	35	0	0	384	385	4	6	4	0	4	6	3	4	1,250	45,000	1162			
0	5	0	33	0	0	0	45	0	2	0	0	9	0	2	4	2,159	105,705	1163			
3	2	41	29	0	0	16	14	8	3	5	7	4	4	3	2	3	1,200	1164			
1	1	30	38	0	0	276	270	0	0	8	3	5	10	4	3	4	1,150	96,850	1165			
2	3	41	49	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	3	804	29,975	1166			
2	4	16	26	0	0	35	15	3	2	3	4	3	3	2	0	4	2,150	23,058	1167			
0	5	0	30	0	0	1	10	0	4	0	3	1,000	35,000	1168			
2	2	13	13	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	3	82	4,060	1169			
17	5	96	115	0	0	442	312	24	17	12	0	11	11	11	11	5	5,832	537,079	1170			
2	1	26	0	0	0	20	12	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	46	125	40,000	1171			
4	2	0	19	0	0	0	79	0	4	0	0	0	3	0	0	4	1,500	37,550	1172			
1	1	3	10	0	0	65	5	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	15,000	1173			
0	3	0	14	8	27	0	5	0	1	3	190	1174			
0	1	0	6	0	0	17	57	0	1	3	300	1175			
2	5	0	23	0	0	8	29	0	3	0	2	0	2	0	1	4	350	17,000	1176			
0	5	0	80	0	0	0	40	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	3	2,000	150,000	1177			
2	0	11	0	14	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	4	250	14,000	1178			

d Amount from benefactions, \$3,711.
e Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.		Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4	
NEW YORK—continued.				
1179	Brooklyn (50 Monroe place).	Miss Hall's School.....	Miss Clara F. Hall.....	Nonsect ..
1180	Brooklyn (145 Montague st.).	The Latin School.....	Caskie Harrison, M. A., Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1181	Brooklyn.....	Pratt Institute (High School)..	William A. McAndrew, director.	Nonsect ..
1182	Brooklyn (525 Clinton ave.).	Miss Rounds's School for Girls.	Miss Christiana Rounds..	Nonsect ..
1183	Brooklyn (286-292 Washington ave.).	St. Catharine's Hall <i>a</i>	Sister Caroline.....	Epis.....
1184	Brooklyn.....	St. Francis Xaviers Academy *	Sisters of St. Joseph.....	R. C.....
1185	Brooklyn (36 Monroe place).	School for Girls.....	Miss Bodman.....	Nonsect ..
1186	Buffalo.....	Buffalo Academy of the Sacred Heart.	Sister M. Leonard.....	R. C.....
1187	do.....	The Buffalo Seminary.....	Mrs. C. F. Hartt.....	Nonsect ..
1188	Buffalo (129 College st.).	Hawley's Preparatory School..	Lucius E. Hawley, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1189	Buffalo (621-623 Delaware ave.).	Heathcote School.....	Lester Wheeler, A. M., L. H. D.	Nonsect ..
1190	Buffalo.....	Holy Angels Academy.....	Sister D. M. Kirby.....	R. C.....
1191	do.....	St. Joseph's College.....	Rev. Brother Hebrd.....	R. C.....
1192	Canandaigua.....	Canandaigua Academy <i>b</i>	J. Firman Coar.....	R. C.....
1193	do.....	Granger Place School for Girls	Miss Caroline A. Comstock.	Nonsect ..
1194	Canisteo.....	Canisteo Academy.....	Daniel M. Estee, M. A.....	Nonsect ..
1195	Carmel.....	Drew Seminary and Female College.	James Martin Yeager.....	M. E.....
1196	Carthage.....	St. James' School.....	Sister M. Josephine.....	R. C.....
1197	Cazenovia.....	The Cazenovia Seminary.....	Isaac N. Clements, A. M.	M. E.....
1198	Central Valley.....	Estrada-Palma Institute.....	Thomas Estrada.....	Nonsect ..
1199	Chappaqua.....	Chappaqua Mountain Institute	S. C. Collins.....	Friends ..
1200	Cincinnati.....	Cincinnati Academy.....	W. E. Gushee.....	Nonsect ..
1201	Claverack.....	Claverack Academy and Hudson River Institute.	Arthur H. Flack, A. M.....	M. E.....
1202	Clifton Springs.....	Clifton Springs Female Seminary.	Charles Ayer.....	Nonsect ..
1203	Clinton.....	Cottage Seminary.....	Rev. Chester C. W. Hawley, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1204	do.....	Houghton Seminary.....	A. G. Benedict, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
1205	Cohoes.....	St. Bernard's Academy.....	T. S. Keveny.....	R. C.....
1206	Cornwall-on-Hudson	Cornwall Heights School.....	Carlos H. Stone.....	Nonsect ..
1207	do.....	New York Military Academy..	Sebastian C. Jones.....	Nonsect ..
1208	Delhi.....	Delaware Academy <i>d</i>	Willis D. Graves.....	Nonsect ..
1209	Dobbs Ferry.....	Boarding and Day School*.....	The Misses Masters.....	Nonsect ..
1210	do.....	Westminster School.....	W. L. Cushing head master.	Nonsect ..
1211	Dover Plains.....	Dover Plains Academy.....	A. E. Bangs.....	Nonsect ..
1212	Dundee.....	Dundee Preparatory School*.....	Thos. B. Fitch.....	Nonsect ..
1313	East Springfield.....	East Springfield Academy.....	J. M. Norton.....	Nonsect ..
1214	Eddytown.....	Starkey Seminary <i>e</i>	Frank Carney.....	Nonsect ..
1215	Elba.....	Elba Private School.....	Miss Mary H. Hollister.....	Nonsect ..
1216	Elbridge.....	Munro Collegiate Institute.....	Norah Leonard, B. A.....	Nonsect ..
1217	Fishkill-on-Hudson	De Garmo Institute.....	James M. De Garmo, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1218	Flushing.....	Flushing Institute.....	Elias A. Fairchild, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1219	Flushing (242 Sanford ave.).	Flushing Seminary.....	Hans Schuler, Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
1220	Flushing.....	Kyle Military Institute.....	P. Kyle.....	Nonsect ..
1221	do.....	St. Joseph's Academy *	Sister M. Aloysius.....	R. C.....

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$2000.

b Amount from benefactions, \$800.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appa-ratus.
	Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.											
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20								
2	8	0	18	0	0	0	43	0	2	0	3	4	800	\$30,000	1179				
8	0	70	0	0	0	30	0	25	0	20	0	30	0	25	0	3,000	1180				
14	15	74	101	0	0	0	0	6	0	11	14	4	2	3	50,000	1181				
0	5	0	61	0	0	0	32	0	12	0	0	0	3	0	0	4	2,500	1182				
0	2	0	26	0	74	0	2	0	0	0	5	0	2	4	600	100,000	1183				
0	3	0	75	0	0	0	75	0	20	0	0	0	6	700	75,000	1184				
0	7	0	83	0	0	0	29	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1185				
1	5	0	41	0	0	0	62	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	4	4	1,000	40,000	1186				
3	12	0	209	0	0	7	0	0	3	0	0	0	27	0	1	4	1,718	96,200	1187				
1	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	8	0	4	0	400	1188				
5	1	30	0	0	0	62	5	8	0	14	0	16	0	12	0	4	100	50,000	1189				
0	5	0	60	0	0	20	170	0	9	0	0	4	2,049	256,100	1190				
4	0	45	0	55	0	30	0	15	0	1	0	2,000	1191				
4	0	38	0	0	0	10	0	12	0	8	0	3	0	7	0	2	2,260	25,000	1192				
0	4	0	30	0	0	0	20	0	2	0	5	0	5	0	5	3	1,800	30,000	1193				
1	2	70	65	0	0	40	65	6	4	0	0	3	13	1	2	3	400	22,785	1194				
2	5	0	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	3,000	50,010	1195				
0	2	3	17	98	113	2	9	3	300	1196				
5	4	134	101	0	0	0	0	26	3	20	10	20	8	17	1	4	3,405	83,845	1197				
2	1	7	3	0	0	33	1	0	0	6	0	4	0	0	0	4	100	15,000	1198				
3	6	46	29	0	0	0	0	4	2	2	0	1	3	1	1	3	75,000	1199				
1	1	25	33	0	0	10	12	1	2	1	2	400	3,000	1200				
6	7	68	48	1	0	4	0	16	3	10	2	13	6	8	2	4	60	1,487	59,478	1201				
1	2	3	15	5	13	1	0	0	3	4	600	10,000	1202				
1	5	3	30	0	0	1	3	3	5	0	0	0	3	0	1	4	600	10,000	1203				
1	5	0	60	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	4	2,248	54,465	1204				
1	2	6	20	0	0	264	394	4	6	3	2	5	14	5	14	734	30,832	1205				
2	1	15	0	0	0	10	0	10	0	3	0	3	0	4	200	1206				
10	0	68	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	23	0	9	0	6	0	4	64	3,070	80,000	1207				
12	3	82	83	1	0	15	17	7	7	4	0	3	7	1	2	4	2,270	32,884	1208				
4	16	0	124	0	0	14	17	0	14	0	10	0	0	0	0	4,000	1209				
8	0	83	0	0	0	0	0	44	0	38	0	11	0	11	0	4	1210				
1	1	10	21	12	9	3	5	4	6	4	22	4,500	1211				
3	1	15	20	0	0	44	31	3	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	560	8,500	1212				
1	0	8	10	0	0	6	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	300	2,664	1213				
2	1	20	18	114	40	7	4	14	2	2	1	2	1	4	2,600	1214				
0	2	5	15	0	2	23	57	0	0	0	0	1215				
0	2	32	23	0	2	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	1,206	24,150	1216				
2	5	67	0	0	0	10	0	4	1	11	3	2	3	2	3	3,000	26,000	1217				
3	0	14	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,335	69,100	1218				
1	5	0	53	0	0	18	23	0	0	0	0	0	8	4	500	20,000	1219				
2	1	18	0	0	0	32	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	18	325	40,000	1220				
0	5	0	85	0	0	50	0	50	0	35	0	0	7	0	6	1,500	200,000	1221				

c Amount from benefactions, \$125.
d Amount from benefactions, \$100.

e Amount from benefactions, \$425.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
NEW YORK—continued.			
1222 Fort Edward.....	Fort Edward Collegiate	Joseph E. King, D. D., Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1223 Fort Plain	Clinton Liberal Institute and Military Academy. <i>a</i>	Myron J. Michael, A. B. ...	Univ
1224 Franklin.....	Delaware Literary Institute <i>b</i> ..	Charles H. Verrill, A. M., Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1225 Garden City.....	St. Mary's School.....	Miss Julia H. Farwell	P. E.
1226 ..do.....	St. Paul's School.....	Frederick Luther Gam- age head master.	P. E.
1227 Geneva.....	De Lancy School <i>c</i>	Miss Mary S. Smart	P. E.
1228 Glencove	Mrs. E. A. Hopkins's School... ..	Miss Mary H. Hopkins	P. E.
1229 Greenville.....	Greenville Academy	T. W. Stewart	Nonsect ..
1230 Hamilton.....	Colgate Academy <i>d</i>	Charles H. Thurber, A. M. Rev. John G. Traver, A. M.	Bapt ..
1231 Hartwick.....	Hartwick Seminary <i>e</i>	E. Hinds	Luth ..
1232 Hempstead.....	Hempstead Institute	Miss Sarah R. Skinner.....	Nonsect ..
1233 Hudson	The Misses Skinner's School ..	P. V. Parsell	Nonsect ..
1234 Ithaca	Cascadilla School	Sister M. Joseph Carr	R. C.
1235 Keeseville.....	McAuley Academy *	Frank Bond	Nonsect ..
1236 Kinderhook.....	Kinderhook Academy	John W. Cross, A. M.	Presb. ..
1237 Kingston.....	Golden Hill Preparatory School	St. Mary's Academy	R. C.
1238 Kingston.....	St. Mary's Academy	Genesee Wesleyan Seminary... ..	Meth ..
1239 Lima	Genesee Wesleyan Seminary... ..	W. H. Reese	R. C.
1240 Locust Valley.....	Friends' Academy *	Franklin P. Wilson, A. B. Lincoln E. Rowley	Friends ..
1241 Lowville.....	Lowville Academy *	J. Carson Benedict.....	Nonsect ..
1242 Macedon Center.....	Macedon Academy	William Verbeck	Epis ..
1243 Manlius.....	St. John's Military School*.....	W. Carleton Tift, A. M.	Bapt.....
1244 Marion.....	Marion Collegiate Institute.....	Roger W. Swetland, A. B. B. L. Brown, A. M.	Bapt.....
1245 Montour Falls	Cook Academy <i>f</i>	Miss Leila H. and Miss Mary C. Lockwood	Nonsect ..
1246 Moriah.....	Sherman Collegiate Institute.....	Rev. E. Bohm	Ev. Luth ..
1247 Mount Vernon (45 1st ave.).....	Misses Lockwood's Collegiate School	Miss Spurling and Miss Briggs	Nonsect ..
1248 Neperan.....	Concordia College	John M. Hawkins, Ph. D.	P. E.
1249 New Brighton.....	St. Margaret's School.....	The Misses Mackie.....	Nonsect ..
1250 ..do.....	Trinity Classical and English School (boys')	Sister M. Hildegard	R. C.
1251 Newburg	Miss Mackie's Seminary	Henry W. Siglar	Nonsect ..
1252 ..do.....	Mount St. Mary's Academy... ..	Miss Whiton and Miss Bangs	Nonsect ..
1253 ..do.....	The Siglar School.....	Francis B. Allen, A. B.	Nonsect ..
1254 New York City (43 West 47th st.).....	The Academic Classes for Girls	Wm. Livingston Hazen, B. A., LL. B.	Nonsect ..
1255 New York City (315 Madison ave.).....	The Allen School for Boys.....	John S. White, LL. D.	Nonsect ..
1256 New York City (117- 119 West 125th st.).....	The Barnard School	James G. Crosswell, A. B. ..	Nonsect ..
1257 New York City (20 West 44th st.).....	Berkeley School	A. W. Callisen	Nonsect ..
1258 New York City (17 West 44th st.).....	Brearley School.....	Henry B. Chapin, D. D., Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1259 New York City (132 West 71st st.).....	Callisen's School for Boys and Young Men	Miss Edith H. Gregory... ..	Nonsect ..
1260 New York City (721 Madison ave.).....	The Chapin Collegiate School..	Lemuel C. Mygatt, L. H. D ..	Nonsect ..
1261 New York City (2034 5th ave.).....	Classical School for Girls.....	R. S. Bacon, A. M., and B. H. Campbell, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1262 New York City (241- 243 West 77th st.).....	Collegiate School	Miss Lydia Day	Nonsect ..
1263 New York City (34- 36 East 51st st.).....	Columbia Grammar School.....		
1264 New York City (32 West 40th st.).....	The Comstock School.....		

* Statistics 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$3,950.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$50.*c* Amount from benefactions \$300.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appa-ratus.
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umn 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College pre-para-tory stu-dents in the class that graduates in 1895.											
								Classi-cal course.		Scien-tific course.															
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24
2	8	0	85	0	10	0	3	0	5	0	14	0	3	4	800	\$80,000	1222					
6	8	64	74	0	0	9	6	5	4	10	2	4,000	125,000	1223					
3	1	60	59	0	0	20	16	4	4	3	2	6	2	6	2	3	2,000	25,000	1224					
1	5	0	20	0	0	8	32	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	1	3	4,000	1225					
8	0	79	0	0	0	16	0	69	0	10	0	10	0	6	0	4	2,000	1,000,000	1226					
0	3	0	23	0	0	5	4	0	4	0	0	0	2	0	1	565	24,000	1227						
3	10	8	0	0	0	0	6	4	4	0	5	4	4	2	1228					
0	16	23	0	0	0	4	3	0	0	0	0	4	500	2,500	1229					
8	0	125	0	0	0	0	0	75	0	15	0	4	2,000	75,000	1230					
6	2	25	22	0	0	15	10	1	1	1	0	9	3	1	1	5	4,000	41,655	1231					
3	2	14	4	0	0	12	4	6	0	2	0	3	0	1,000	20,000	1232					
0	1	0	4	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1233					
1	1	61	1	0	0	0	0	13	1	13	1	4	44	430	47,608	1234				
0	4	13	21	0	0	20	30	20	3	1	2	0	3	0	2	524	25,988	1235					
1	1	13	8	0	0	6	9	1	1	450	4,100	1236					
2	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	2,100	15,000	1237					
0	2	2	10	8	20	2	10	0	2	0	2	1238					
6	7	74	84	1	1	18	34	13	2	21	25	10	3	3	5,000	100,000	1239					
2	3	40	22	0	0	14	9	1,000	1240					
3	4	67	63	0	0	0	0	4	3	2	4	0	1	4,000	45,433	1241					
1	2	60	32	0	0	0	0	0	2	350	5,534	1242					
8	1	78	0	16	0	13	0	17	0	9	0	700	120,725	1243					
2	3	40	26	0	0	12	18	7	6	3	0	5	0	2	0	4	553	16,786	1244					
5	7	80	55	0	1	14	15	20	15	10	4	10	4	7	3	4	45	2,150	111,850	1245					
1	3	65	113	0	0	10	12	6	8	6	8	4	300	12,000	1246					
2	3	0	50	12	30	0	8	0	6	4	1247					
4	0	57	0	0	0	0	0	51	0	7	0	65,000	1248				
0	4	0	20	0	10	0	4	0	4	0	4	300	1249					
3	0	22	0	0	0	0	0	12	0	10	0	7	0	8	0	5	1,800	20,000	1250					
0	2	0	23	0	50	0	3	0	5	1,200	1251					
0	2	0	20	0	0	20	50	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	3	504	37,512	1252					
3	0	30	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	2	0	30,000	1253				
0	2	0	13	0	0	0	10	0	10	0	0	0	1	0	1	4	1254				
2	0	7	0	0	0	16	0	4	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	4	200	1255					
8	0	50	0	80	0	20	0	10	0	14	0	12	0	4	50	500	80,000	1256					
8	1	100	0	0	0	160	0	85	0	15	0	25	0	21	0	4	100	1,500	600,000	1257					
0	10	0	110	0	100	0	28	0	5	0	25	0	10	4	200,000	1258					
3	0	15	0	0	0	16	0	8	0	7	0	8	0	8	0	4	300	40,000	1259					
6	1	28	0	33	0	18	0	3	0	4	0	4	0	5	1260					
0	6	0	35	0	0	0	23	0	2	0	12	0	3	0	2	4	1261					
7	0	46	0	0	0	67	0	7	0	7	0	4	1262					
5	2	150	0	0	0	25	0	27	0	35	0	26	0	4	315	1263					
0	4	0	45	0	27	0	6	0	2	0	6	0	2	1,200	1264					

d Amount from benefactions, \$250.
e Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.

f Amount from benefactions, \$3,952.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
	NEW YORK—continued.			
1265	New York City (741-743 5th ave.).	The Condon School	Edward B. Condon, A. B., A. M.	Nonsect ..
1266	New York City (20 East 50th st.).	The Cutler School	Arthur H. Cutler, A. B., Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1267	New York City	De La Salle Institute.....	Rev. Brother Pompian, F. S. C.	R. C
1268	do	Drisler School	Frank Drisler	Nonsect ..
1269	New York City (1479-1485 Broadway).	Dwight School.....	Arthur Williams.....	Nonsect ..
1270	New York City (85th and 86th st., Riverside Drive).	The Misses Ely's School for Girls.	The Misses Ely.....	Nonsect ..
1271	New York City (Manhattanville, 128th st., Nicholas ave.).	Female Academy of the Sacred Heart.	Miss Eilen Mahony.....	R. C
1272	New York City (Rutherford Place 23 East 16th st.).	Friends' Seminary.....	Edward A. H. Allen, C. F.	Friends...
1273	New York City (55 West 47th st.).	Miss Gibbons's School.....	Mrs. Sarah H. Emerson ..	Nonsect ..
1274	New York City (34 West 40th st.).	Halsey's Classical School* (boys').	Wm. McD. Halsey, A. M., Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1275	New York City (105 West 82d st.).	Hamilton Institute.....	N. Archibald Shaw, jr....	Nonsect ..
1276	New York City (2134 7th ave.).	Harlem Collegiate Institute...	Max F. Giovanoly and Otto Diedrich.	Nonsect ..
1277	New York City (5th ave. and 47th st.).	Harvard School.....	William Freeland, A. B....	Nonsect ..
1278	New York City (823 Lexington ave.).	Heidenfeld's Educational Institute.	Dr. Theo. E. Heidenfeld..	Nonsect ..
1279	New York City (343 West 42d st.).	Holy Cross Academy	Sister M. Helena.....	R. C
1280	New York City (54 West 84th st.).	Irving School.....	Louis Dwight Ray, M. A., Ph. D., head master.	Nonsect ..
1281	New York City (44-50 2d st.).	La Salle Academy	Brother Agapas, director	R. C
1282	New York City (334 Lenox ave.).	Lenox Institute	Andrew Zerban	Nonsect ..
1283	New York City (576 5th ave.).	Lyon's Classical School*.....	Edward D. Lyon, Ph. D....	Nonsect ..
1284	New York City (181 Lenox ave.).	Miss Merington's School for Girls.	Misses Merington	Nonsect ..
1285	New York City (336 West 29th st.).	Moeller Institute	P. W. Moeller	Nonsect ..
1286	New York City (423 Madison ave.).	Morse's Classical and English School.	I. H. Morse	Nonsect ..
1287	New York City (30 East 127th st.).	Mount Morris Latin School...	F. C. Lyman.....	Nonsect ..
1288	New York City (233 Lenox ave.).	New York Collegiate Institute.	Miss Mary Schoenmaker .	Nonsect ..
1289	New York City (91st and 92d sts. and Central Park west).	Rugby Academy.....	Clinton Burling, A. M., head master.	Nonsect ..
1290	New York City (38 West 59th st.).	Sachs's Collegiate Institute for Boys.	Dr. Julius Sachs.....	Nonsect ..
1291	New York City (116 West 59th st.).	Sachs's School for Girls.....	do	Nonsect ..
1292	New York City (231 East 17th st.).	St. John Baptist School for Girls.	Sisters of St. John Baptist.	Epis
1293	New York City (6-8 East 46th st.).	St. Mary's School.....	Sister Anna.....	Epis

* Statistics of 1893-94.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
NEW YORK—continued.				
1294	New York City (139 Henry st.).	St. Teresa's Academy.....	Mother Irene	R. C
1295	New York City (34 Union square.).	School of Social Economics*....	George Gunton	Nonsect ..
1296	New York City (6 West 48th st.).	Miss Spence's School for Girls.	Miss Clara B. Spence	Nonsect ..
1297	New York City (173d st. and Batlgate av.)	Suburban Academy.....	Mrs. Edwin Johnson.....	Cong
1298	New York City (52 West 56th st.).	University Grammar School*..	Elmer E. Phillips, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1299	New York City (280-282 West 71st st.)	Van Norman Institute.....	Mme. Van Norman	Nonsect ..
1300	New York City (160-162 West 74th st.)	Veltin School for Girls.....	Mlle. Louise Veltin.....	Nonsect ..
1301	New York City (148 Madison ave.).	Miss Walker's School for Girls.	Miss J. G. Walker	Epis
1302	New York City (109-111 West 77th st.).	Mrs. Leopold Weil's School for Girls.	Mrs. Matilda Weil.....	Nonsect ..
1303	New York City (113 West 71st st.).	West End School*.....	Chester Donaldson.....	Nonsect ..
1304	New York City (622 5th ave.).	Wilson & Kellogg School*....	F. F. Wilson, A. M., and I. M. Kellogg, M. D.	Nonsect ..
1305	New York City (417 Madison ave.).	Woodbridge School.....	J. Woodbridge Davis	Nonsect ..
1306	Niagara Falls	De Veaux College	Reginald H. Coe, president	Epis
1307	Nyack	The Nyack School	Mrs. Imogene Bertholf	Nonsect ..
1308	Oakfield	Cary Collegiate Seminary a	Rev. Curtis C. Gove, M. A.	P. E.
1309	Oxford	Oxford Academy	Herbert P. Gallinger	Nonsect ..
1310	Peekskill	"The Institute"	Charles Unterreiner	Nonsect ..
1311	do	Mohegan Lake School	Henry Waters, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1312	do	Peekskill Military Academy ..	Louis H. Orleman	Nonsect ..
1313	do	St. Gabriel's School	Sister Esther	Epis
1314	Peterboro	Evans Academy	Miss F. R. Spaulding	Nonsect ..
1315	Pike	Pike Seminary	Ray H. Whitbeck	F. W. Bapt
1316	Pine Plains	Seymour-Smith Academy	Rev. A. Mattice, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1317	Plattsburg	D'Youville Academy	Sister M. A. Roby	R. C
1318	Pompey	Pompey Academy	Charles S. Benedict	Nonsect ..
1319	Poughkeepsie	Classical and Home Institute*	Miss Sarah V. H. Butler	Nonsect ..
1320	do	Lyndon Hall School for Young Ladies.	Samuel W. Buck, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1321	Poughkeepsie (cor. Market and Pine sts.).	Quincy School.....	Miss Mary C. Alliger.....	Nonsect ..
1322	Poughkeepsie	Riverview Military Academy..	Joseph B. Bisbee	Nonsect ..
1323	Randolph	Chamberlain Institute.....	Rev. E. A. Bishop, A. M., president.	M. E.
1324	Riverhead	Riverhead Academy.....	George N. Edwards.....	Nonsect ..
1325	Rochester (2 Prince st.).	Academy of the Sacred Heart.	Mme. Stuart.....	R. C
1326	Rochester (401-404 Beckley Building, South Clinton st.).	Bradstreet's College Preparatory School.	J. Howard Bradstreet.....	Nonsect ..
1327	Rochester (9 Gibbs st.)	The Cruttenden School for Girls	Miss L. H. Hakes.....	Nonsect ..
1328	Rochester	Hale's Classical and Scientific School.	George D. Hale	Nonsect ..
1329	do	Livingston Park Seminary	Miss Georgia C. Stone.....	Epis
1330	do	Nazareth Academy	Rev. J. P. Kiernan	R. C
1331	Rochester (77 South Fitzhugh st.).	The Misses Nichols's School...	Misses J. H. and Margaret D. Nichols.	Nonsect ..
1332	Rochester	The Wagner Memorial Lutheran College.	Rev. John Nicum, D. D.	Ev. Luth..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																								Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total secondary students.		Colored secondary included in columns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepara-tory stu-dents in the class that graduates in 1895.															
							Clas-sical course.		Scien-tific course.																			
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26							
1	4	0	75	0	0	10	50	0	50	0	8	0	8	800	1294							
7	1	116	42	0	0	22	10	13	2	1295						
1	8	0	65	0	0	0	75	0	25	0	4	0	1	5	400	1296							
1	4	0	15	0	0	2	18	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1297						
4	1	16	0	0	0	6	0	7	0	9	0	2	0	2	0	1298						
0	8	0	32	0	0	0	8	0	2	4	1,200	\$12,000	1299							
2	4	0	47	13	136	0	1	0	8	0	9	0	2	4	500	125,000	1300							
0	3	0	30	0	0	0	30	0	3	0	0	0	4	4	200	1301							
0	9	0	40	12	30	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	3	1302						
3	0	30	0	0	0	30	0	16	0	12	0	4	0	4	0	50,000	1303						
6	0	71	0	0	0	24	0	17	0	19	0	13	0	13	0	250	10,000	1304							
8	0	39	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	38	0	16	0	16	0	4	300	5,000	1305							
4	0	52	0	0	0	22	0	12	0	20	0	4	0	4	0	4	52	2,000	118,150	1306							
1	1	1	5	0	0	9	25	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	15,000	1307							
1	1	19	33	0	0	6	4	10	12	2	1	4	4	4	4	4	880	24,000	1308							
1	3	39	55	0	0	59	63	3	1	1	0	3	4	2	0	3	1,603	1309							
2	4	1	25	18	6	0	7	1	1,200	15,000	1310							
4	0	40	0	0	0	6	0	6	0	15	0	3	0	3	0	4	46	400	1311							
11	1	128	0	0	0	12	0	7	0	30	0	20	0	13	0	3	128	1,000	50,000	1312							
0	5	0	66	0	0	0	26	0	8	0	0	0	7	0	0	4	1,000	1313							
1	0	2	12	0	0	19	33	0	0	0	0	341	1,000	1,000	1314						
2	2	52	27	0	0	20	18	6	2	10	4	5	0	5	0	4	500	16,050	1315							
2	2	16	13	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	3	460	16,377	1316							
0	3	1	19	0	0	36	107	1	1	0	5	1	1	4	875	60,380	1317							
1	1	8	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	800	300	1318							
0	3	0	25	12	12	0	3	0	0	1,000	5,000	1319							
1	1	6	0	96	0	0	7	43	0	20	0	0	0	8	0	3	35,000	1320							
1	2	0	10	0	0	70	60	0	0	0	0	4	300	1321							
8	0	90	0	0	0	32	0	30	0	13	0	24	0	18	0	4	90	1322							
6	4	88	103	0	0	6	6	3	4	1	0	4	1,600	72,775	1323							
1	0	8	3	0	0	2	0	4	1	1	0	4,000	1324							
0	6	0	60	0	0	0	30	0	8	0	8	3	1,500	1325							
3	0	21	0	0	0	16	0	17	0	4	0	3	150	700	1326							
0	5	0	44	0	6	0	0	0	4	0	4	1327						
1	0	27	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	14	0	8	0	6	0	2	800	350	1328							
0	7	0	60	3	10	0	5	0	10	200	30,000	1329							
0	8	0	75	0	0	30	60	0	0	0	0	0	22	0	0	4	2,191	1330							
0	4	0	32	0	10	0	3	0	5	4	1331							
4	0	35	0	0	0	12	0	12	0	9	0	6	570	25,000	1332							

α Amount from benefactions, \$10.

Statistics of endowed academics, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
NEW YORK—continued.			
1333 Rome	St. Peter's Academy	Sister Holy Family	R. C
1334 Rondout	St. Mary's Academy	Sister M. Leontine	R. C
1335 Rosylin	Rosylin Classical School	Rev. James Hall	Nonsect
1336 Round Lake	Round Lake Institute	James C. Weld	M. E.
1337 Sag Harbor	Academy of Sacred Heart of Mercy	Mother St. Basile	R. C
1338 Sherwood	Sherwood Select School <i>a</i>	A. Gertrude Flanders	Nonsect
1339 Sing Sing	Dr. Holbrook's Military School	Rev. D. A. Holbrook	Nonsect
1340	Mount Pleasant Military Academy	C. F. Brusie, A. M.	Nonsect
1341 Sodus	Sodus Academy	Prof. Lewis H. Clark	Nonsect
1342 Southold	Southold Academy <i>b</i>	Annie A. Allis, A. B.	Presb.
1343 Stapleton	Staten Island Academy and Latin School	Frederick E. Partington, A. M.	Nonsect
1344 Syracuse	Academy of the Sacred Heart*		R. C
1345	St. John's Catholic Academy	Rev. M. Clune	R. C
1346 Tarrytown	Miss Bulkley's School for Girls	Miss H. L. Bulkley	Nonsect
1347	Irving Institute	John M. Furman, A. M.	Nonsect
1348 Troy	La Salle Institute	Rev. Brother Edward	Nonsect
1349	St. Peter's Academy	Sister M. Odilia	R. C
1350	Troy Academy	Maxcy & Barnes	Nonsect
1351	Troy Female Seminary	Miss Emily T. Wilcox	Nonsect
1352 Union Springs	The Oakwood Seminary	Isaac Sutton	Friends
1353 Utica	Mrs. Piatt's School	Mrs. Julia C. G. Piatt	Nonsect
1354	Utica Catholic Academy	J. S. M. Lynch, DD., LL.D.	R. C
1355 Verona	The Home School	Mrs. Theodosia Foster	Nonsect
1356 Walworth	Walworth Academy	Prof. A. H. McMurry	Nonsect
1357 Watertown (17 Clinton st.)	The Irving School*	Miss Edith L. Cooper	Nonsect
1358 Westchester	Sacred Heart Academy	Brother August	R. C
1359 West New Brighton	St. Austin's School	Rev. G. E. Quaile, headmaster	P. E.
NORTH CAROLINA.			
1260 All Healing	Jones Seminary for Young Ladies	Rev. C. A. Hampton	Nonsect
1361 Arnold	Arnold Academy	W. B. Scarborough	Reformed
1362 Asheville	Bingham School	R. Bingham, A. M., LL.D.	Nonsect
1363	Home and Day School for Girls	Miss Harriett A. Champion	Nonsect
1364	Ravenscroft School	T. H. T. Wight	Nonsect
1365 Augusta	Hodges Business College	J. D. Hodges, A. M.	Nonsect
1366 Autryville	South River Baptist Institute	J. W. Smith, Jr	Bapt.
1367 Belmont	Sacred Heart Academy	Mother M. Teresa	R. C
1368	St. Mary's College	Rev. L. Haid, D. D., O.S.B.	R. C
1369 Belvidero	Belvidero Academy	Adelaide E. White	Friends
1370 Bensalem	Oak Grove <i>c</i>	T. M. Langley	Nonsect
1371 Bethany	Bethany High School	R. H. Biesceker	Nonsect
1372 Bethel Hill	Bethel Hill Institute	Rev. J. A. Beam	Bapt.
1373 Boonville	Yadkin Valley Institute	R. B. Horn	Nonsect
1374 Burlington	Burlington Academy	R. T. Hurley	Meth
1375 Burgaw	Burgaw High School	O. J. Peterson, A. B.	Nonsect
1376 Caldwell Institute	Caldwell Institute	J. H. McCracken, A. M.	Nonsect
1377 Candor	Candor Institute	J. J. Dunn	Nonsect
1378 Charlotte	Charlotte Military Institute	Maj. J. B. Baird	Nonsect
1379 Chocowinity	Trinity School	N. C. Hughes	P. E.
1380 Clinton	Clinton Collegiate Institute*	Ernest M. Hobbs	Nonsect
1381 Clyde	Clyde High School	Rev. R. A. Scetelle	Nonsect
1382 Como	Buckhorn Academy	Julien Henri Picot, LL.D.	Nonsect
1383 Conover	Concordia College	Rev. W. H. T. Dau	Luth
1384 Concord	Scotia Seminary <i>d</i>	D. J. Satterfield, D. D.	Presb.
1385 Culler	Pinnacle School*	Charles T. Ball	Bapt.

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$98.

b Amount from benefactions, \$8,000.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct- crs.	Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, buildings, and scientific apparatus.	
	Total second-ary students.				Colored second-ary included in columns 7 and 8.				Elementary.		Preparing for college.				Graduates in 1895.		Collego preparatory students in the class that graduates in 1895.								
	Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.						
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24					
0	3	0	19	0	0	0	56	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	4	640	\$25,200	1333	
0	12	2	9	0	0	5	24	..	2	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	5	500	6,000	1335	
2	1	7	4	0	0	4	0	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	34	2,025	80,799	1336	
0	5	0	27	13	0	3	1337	
0	2	21	10	0	0	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	20,000	1338
6	0	40	0	0	0	29	0	8	0	5	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	40	1,000	30,000	1339	
3	0	15	0	0	0	15	0	4	0	8	0	1	0	4	15	12,000	150,000	1340	
1	3	15	20	0	0	32	36	0	0	2	3	2	7	1	2	4	4	..	200	4,000	1341	
2	1	19	12	0	0	12	13	5	0	1	0	4	0	3	0	2	4	..	160	15,000	1342	
2	3	42	22	0	0	78	82	6	1	2	1	4	36,000	1343	
0	1	7	21	0	0	218	217	15	0	0	0	0	4	1344	
0	3	16	20	0	0	233	214	2	6	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	..	1,461	44,932	1345	
0	4	0	20	34	0	500	..	1346	
2	0	30	0	0	0	18	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	..	2,000	..	1347	
2	7	70	0	0	0	160	0	5	0	6	0	12	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	70	1,835	23,329	1348	
6	0	8	33	0	0	239	331	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	..	1,680	65,481	1349	
0	6	96	0	0	0	50	0	20	0	29	0	9	0	6	0	3	90	1,078	17,300	3	..	90	1,078	17,300	1350
0	1	11	6	0	0	36	0	7	0	0	4	2,215	245,925	4	1351	
0	4	0	70	0	0	33	17	4	4	1352	
0	2	0	23	0	0	50	0	5	0	0	0	25	0	7	7,000	80,000	1353	
0	1	1	4	0	0	121	251	2	2	1	..	0	0	0	6	0	600	1354	
1	2	4	7	2	2	2	2	600	1355	
0	1	0	15	0	0	6	19	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	1356	
6	0	50	0	0	0	45	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	800	300,000	1358	
6	0	38	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	6	0	3	0	3	0	4	38	84,000	1359	
0	4	0	60	0	0	0	30	0	8	700	15,000	1360	
1	0	25	14	0	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	1,000	1361
0	0	101	0	0	0	0	0	25	0	10	0	10	0	5	0	4	101	60,000	1362
1	3	0	32	9	0	0	0	0	0	1363
3	0	15	0	0	0	0	15	0	8	4	4	4	0	0	0	300	1364
1	1	13	14	0	0	8	4	8	4	4	4	0	0	0	0	1365
1	0	10	21	10	9	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,000	1366
0	6	0	17	17	0	0	5	200	1367
6	0	63	0	0	0	29	0	36	0	0	0	16	0	8	0	5	7,365	95,000	1368
0	1	4	6	0	0	23	30	2	4	0	0	0	0	4	1,000	1369
1	0	20	35	0	0	25	20	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	100	1370
1	0	14	5	0	0	9	4	9	5	3	0	1,167	1,800	1371
3	2	20	11	0	0	43	28	0	5,000	1372
3	2	85	55	0	0	10	8	6	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	150	1,000	1373
2	0	10	5	0	0	40	25	5	5	0	5,000	1374
0	1	6	9	0	0	30	35	3	4	0	600	1375
1	1	38	35	0	0	30	35	6	4	4	3	0	0	0	0	4	100	3,000	1376
1	0	13	7	12	10	2	4	0	0	0	0	2	300	1377
3	0	65	0	0	0	10	0	10	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	4	40	3,000	1378
2	1	26	8	0	0	16	6	11	1	6	2	6	2	4	1,100	1379
1	2	20	16	0	0	28	23	4	7	6	3	1,800	1380
0	1	6	4	0	0	74	81	5	3	0	0	2,200	1381
4	0	10	0	20	0	10	0	1	0	1	0	4	2,000	1,000	1382
1	0	24	9	0	0	0	11	8	0	8	1,000	1383
1	4	0	15	0	15	0	270	0	8	1,000	60,000	1384
2	2	25	12	15	8	7	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	..	50	1,500	1385

c Amount from benefactions, \$500.

d Amount from benefactions, \$1,500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
	NORTH CAROLINA—continued.			
1386	Curtis.....	Friendship High School.....	E. Lee Fox.....	Nonsect ..
1387	Dalton.....	Dalton Institute.....	Prof. W. A. Flynt.....	Nonsect ..
1388	Elizabeth City.....	Atlantic Collegiate Institute.....	S. L. Sheep.....	Nonsect ..
1389	Elon College.....	Elon College <i>a</i>	Rev. W. W. Stalley, A. M., D. D.	Christian ..
1390	Fair View.....	Fair View Collegiate Institute.....	J. H. Yarboro.....	Bapt.....
1391	Farmers.....	Farmers Institute <i>b</i>	Thomas C. Amick, L. I.....	Nonsect ..
1392	Farmington.....	Male and Female Academy.....	Leon Cash.....	Nonsect ..
1393	Fayetteville.....	School for Girls.....	Mrs. Fanny Morrow.....	Epis.....
1394	Fork Church.....	Fork Academy.....	M. F. Foster.....	Bapt.....
1395	Franklin.....	High School.....	M. C. Allen.....	Meth.....
1396	Franklinton.....	Franklinton Christian College <i>c</i>	N. Del McReynolds.....	Nonsect ..
1397do.....	Franklinton Classical Institute.....	R. Bruce White.....	Nonsect ..
1398	Gastonia.....	Gaston Institute.....	James McDowell Douglass.....	Nonsect ..
1399	Goldston.....	Goldston Academy and Business College.....	James R. Rives.....	Meth.....
1400	Greensboro.....	Bennett College *.....	J. D. Chavis.....	Meth.....
1401	Hayesville.....	Hayesville High School*.....	W. H. Phillips.....	Nonsect ..
1402	Henderson.....	Gilmer High School.....	John A. Gilmer.....	Nonsect ..
1403	Hertford.....	Hertford Academy *.....	J. C. Kittrell, A. B.....	Nonsect ..
1404	Hibriten.....	Hibriten Mountain Academy.....	E. B. Phillips.....	Nonsect ..
1405	Highlands.....	Shortia School <i>d</i>	Thos. G. Harbison.....	Nonsect ..
1406	Hillsboro.....	Hillsboro Male Academy.....	F. C. Mebane.....	Nonsect ..
1407do.....	Select Private School.....	Mrs. Bragg and Miss Heardt.	Nonsect ..
1408	Holly Springs.....	Holly Springs Academy.....	C. Frank Siler.....	Nonsect ..
1409	Hookerton.....	Hookerton Collegiate Institute.....	James E. Patrick.....	Nonsect ..
1410	Huntersville.....	Huntersville High School.....	Hugh A. Grey.....	Nonsect ..
1411	Ilex.....	Holly Grove Academy.....	A. R. Beck, A. M.....	Luth.....
1412	Jonesboro.....	High School.....	J. H. Slodd, A. M.....	Meth.....
1413	Kernersville.....	Kernersville Academy.....	R. H. Willis, A. B.....	Meth.....
1414	Kings Mountain.....	Lincoln Academy.....	Miss L. S. Cathcart.....	Cong.....
1415	Kinston.....	Lewis's School.....	Richard H. Lewis, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
1416do.....	Misses Patrick's Boarding and Day School.....	Misses V. and H. Patrick.....	Nonsect ..
1417	Lenoir.....	Barnes Home School.....	E. I. Barnes, A. B.....	Presb.....
1418do.....	Davenport College.....	John D. Minick, A. M.....	M. E.....
1419do.....	Kirkwood School.....	Miss E. L. Rankin.....	Presb.....
1420	Lexington.....	Lexington Seminary.....	Thomas Carrick.....	Nonsect ..
1421do.....	Pilgrim Academy *.....	J. C. Leonard.....	Ger. Ref.....
1422	Littleton.....	Littleton Female College.....	J. M. Rhodes, A. M.....	M. E. So.....
1423	Louisburg.....	Louisburg Male Academy.....	S. McIntyre.....	Nonsect ..
1424	Lumberton.....	Robeson Academy.....	John Duckett.....	Bapt.....
1425	Madison.....	Madison High School *.....	A. L. Betts.....	Nonsect ..
1426	Magnolia.....	Magnolia Military Institute.....	O. C. Ferrell.....	Nonsect ..
1427	Marshallberg.....	Graham Academy.....	Rev. W. O. A. Graham, A. B.	M. E.....
1428	Mars Hill.....	Mars Hill College.....	A. E. Booth, A. M., Ph. D.....	Bapt.....
1429	Marshville.....	Marshville Academy.....	Plummer Stewart.....	Nonsect ..
1430	Mebane.....	High School of Orange Presbytery.*.....	Rev. E. C. Murray.....	Presb.....
1431	Mizpah.....	Mountain View Institute.....	M. T. Chilton.....	Nonsect ..
1432	Mocksville.....	Mocksville Academy.....	Geo. E. Barnett, A. B.....	Nonsect ..
1433do.....	Sunny Side Seminary.....	Misses Mattie Eaton and Laura Clement.	Nonsect ..
1434	Moravian Falls.....	Moravian Falls Military Academy.....	Frank B. Hendren, B. L.....	Nonsect ..
1435	Morganton.....	Boys' High School.....	Leonard H. Query.....	Nonsect ..
1436	Morven.....	Morven High School.....	George W. Picher.....	Meth.....
1437	Mount Olive.....	High School *.....	E. P. Mendenhall.....	Nonsect ..

*Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$50,000.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$500.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																		Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appar-atus.
		Total second-ary stu-dents.				Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepara-tory stu-dents in the class that graduates in 1895.					
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24				
1	0	25	10	25	15	3	2	0	0	0	0	1386			
0	1	15	10	10	20	0	4	1	0	1	0	\$1,300			
4	1	40	44	0	0	50	40	20	15	4	0	1	0	1	0	100	6,000			
2	1	45	25	16	18	40	10	10	10	3	2	1,000	100,000			
1	1	14	17	0	0	25	42	10	13	4	3	0	0	0	0	4	8,000			
1	1	35	27	0	0	25	12	4	0	6	6	0	0	0	0	4	5,000			
1	0	20	5	0	0	22	21	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	175	1,500			
0	1	0	13	0	9	0	12	1393			
1	1	17	12	0	0	15	10	500			
1	1	28	20	10	8	5	5	2,000			
1	1	4	12	4	12	66	80	0	0	3	2	2	2	0	0	3	1,500	6,000			
1	1	13	10	0	0	21	19	9	8	1,700			
1	2	0	30	0	0	70	60	3	4	3	4	5,000			
1	0	20	18	15	20	20	12	3	1	4	3	4	3	1,000			
5	5	92	106	92	106	5	0	3	7	35,000			
2	1	50	30	0	0	30	20	4	5	2	0	2	0	4	1,000			
1	1	30	0	0	0	10	5	0	1,800			
1	1	16	21	13	22	1	3	1	3	1,000			
1	1	30	20	0	0	20	2	4	2	4	0	0	0	0	3	1,000			
1	0	5	6	0	0	10	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	1,500	6,000			
1	0	11	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0			
1	0	13	14	0	0	10	11	0	0	0	0	800			
0	2	50	50	0	0	30	23	15	13	21	9	13			
1	0	4	3	0	0	17	26	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
0	3	35	18	0	0	36	31	16	10	0	2	0	2	3	200			
1	1	14	6	19	29	6	0	1	0	0	0	100			
1	1	20	19	0	0	20	26	11	7	7	6	4			
1	0	25	22	0	0	19	17	6	2	1	1	0			
0	3	5	14	5	14	57	108			
1	0	20	13	0	0	10	8	2	5	1	0	3			
0	3	0	16	0	0	12	0	0	13	0	0	150			
2	0	21	0	0	0	6	0	6	0	10	0	3	0	3	0	4	100			
2	2	15	22	0	0	25	29	0	3	300			
0	2	2	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	400			
1	0	27	22	0	0	15	16	4	3	0	1	2	2	2	2	3	500			
1	1	20	0	15	17	1,000			
1	4	0	50	0	0	30	0	10	0	7	0	0	600			
1	0	20	0	0	0	15	0	10	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	2,000			
1	1	25	10	0	0	45	31	0	0	0	0	100			
1	1	39	30	0	0	16	15	5	7	2	0	100			
3	0	51	0	0	0	5	0	10	0	12	0	22	0	22	0	4	6,000			
1	0	6	4	0	0	55	56	0	0	6	4	0	0	0	0	4	2,000			
1	1	135	71	25	29	15	12	6	2	570			
2	1	49	49	0	0	30	25	2	0	2	0	3	15,000			
2	0	44	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	2	125			
1	0	8	8	27	17	0			
1	1	30	21	0	0	0	0	6	5	0	0	5	4	5	4	3	350			
0	2	6	24	0	0	14	26	1	15	1	0	200			
1	0	15	2	0	0	60	48	2	2	1	0	0	2	0	2	300			
1	0	11	0	0	0	12	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	3	0			
0	2	25	15	0	0	20	25	6	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0			
1	1	12	11	0	0	6	6	2	0	5	6	0	0	0	0	90			

c Amount from benefactions, \$1,100.

d Amount from benefactions, \$100.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
NORTH CAROLINA—continued.				
1438	Mount Pleasant.....	Mount Amcna Seminary.....	Rev. C. L. T. Fisher.....	Luth.....
1439	Mount Vernon Springs	Mount Vernon Springs Academy.	Rev. O. T. Edwards.....	Nonsect..
1440	New Berne.....	New Berne Collegiate Institute.	J. D. Hodges, A. M.....	Nonsect..
1441	Newport.....	Newport Academy.....	G. W. Mewborn.....	Nonsect..
1442	North Catawba.....	Amherst Academy.....	R. L. Moore, A. B.....	Bapt.....
1443	Oakdale.....	Oakdale Academy.....	George H. Ross, B. A.....	Nonsect..
1444	Oak Ridge.....	Oak Ridge Institute.....	J. A. & M. H. Allen.....	Nonsect..
1445	Ora.....	Salem High School.....	A. F. Howard.....	Nonsect..
1446	Oxford.....	The Francis Hilliard*.....	Miss Margaret B. Hilliard.....	Epis.....
1447do.....	Hornor School.....	Horner & Drewry.....	Nonsect..
1448	Palmerville.....	Yadkin Mineral Springs Academy.	E. F. Eddins.....	Nonsect..
1449	Peedee.....	The Barrett Collegiate and Industrial Institute.*	A. M. Barrett.....	Nonsect..
1450	Penelope.....	Penelope Academy.....	Rev. C. M. Murchison.....	Bapt.....
1451	Pleasant Garden.....	Pleasant Garden Academy.....	A. C. Sherrill, B. S.....	Nonsect..
1452	Pocket.....	High School.....	Allen Jones and I. W. Hughes.	Nonsect..
1453	Poes.....	Bnie's Creek Academy.....	Rev. J. A. Campbell.....	Nonsect..
1454	Polkton.....	Polkton Academy.....	W. F. Humbert.....	Nonsect..
1455	Raleigh.....	Miss Hinsdale's School.....	Miss Margaret Hinsdale.....	Nonsect..
1456do.....	Peace Institute.....	James Dinwiddie, M. A.....	Nonsect..
1457do.....	Raleigh Male Academy.....	Hugh Morson and C. B. Denson.	Nonsect..
1458do.....	St. Augustine's School.....	Rev. A. B. Hunter, A. B.....	P. E.....
1459do.....	St. Mary's School*.....	Bennett Smedes, A. M., D. D.	Epis.....
1460	Ramseur.....	Ramseur High School.....	D. M. Weatherly.....	Nonsect..
1461	Reidsville.....	Reidsville Female Seminary.....	Miss Annie L. Hughes.....	Presb.....
1462	Rich Square.....	Aurora Academy.....	Chas. G. Cook.....	Friends (orthodox).
1463	Ridgeway.....	Ridgeway High School.....	John Graham.....	Nonsect..
1464	Rocky Mount.....	University School.....	Wm. Holmes Davis, A. B.....	Nonsect..
1465	Ronda.....	The Inter-Collegiate School.....	J. E. Green, A. B.....	Bapt.....
1466	Roxobel.....	Roxobel Academy*.....	S. L. Johnson, A. M.....	Nonsect..
1467	Rowland.....	Plainview Academy.....	Maj. J. R. McLean.....	Nonsect..
1468	Rutherfordton.....	Rutherford Military Institute.....	W. T. R. Bell, A. M.....	Nonsect..
1469	Salem.....	Salem Boys' School.....	James F. Brower, A. M.....	Moravian.
1470	Saluda.....	Saluda Seminary.....	Miss Mary C. Phelps.....	Cong.....
1471	Selma.....	Selma Academy.....	Palmer Dalrympel.....	Nonsect..
1472	Scotland.....	Scotland Neck Male School.....	Prince & Wilson.....	Nonsect..
1473	Siler City.....	Thompson School.....	J. A. W. Thompson.....	Nonsect..
1474	Sonoma.....	Bethel Academy.....	H. P. Bailey, A. M.....	Nonsect..
1475	Snow Hill.....	Greene Academy*.....	J. B. Williams, sr.....	Nonsect..
1476	Southport.....	Southport Collegiate Institute.....	G. G. Crichtett.....	Nonsect..
1477	Sunshine.....	Sunshine Institute.....	D. M. Stallings.....	Nonsect..
1478	Tabernacle.....	Tabernacle Academy.....	Prof. S. A. Hodgin.....	Nonsect..
1479	Table Rock.....	Table Rock Academy.....	Prof. W. A. Rankin.....	Nonsect..
1480	Tarboro.....	Tarboro Female Academy.....	D. G. Gillespie.....	Nonsect..
1481	Taylorsville.....	Taylorsville Collegiate Institute.	Rev. J. A. White.....	Nonsect..
1482	Thomasville.....	Thomasville Female College.....	H. W. Reinhart.....	Nonsect..
1483	Trenton.....	Trenton High School*.....	Wm. Henry Rhodes.....	Nonsect..
1484	Union Bridge.....	Union Bridge Academy.....	Rev. Thomas W. Strowd.....	Nonsect..
1485	Wadesboro.....	Wadesboro Graded Institute*.....	James A. McLauchlin.....	Nonsect..
1486	Wakefield.....	Wakefield English and Classical School*.....	J. C. Clifford, A. B.....	Nonsect..
1487	Walnut Cove.....	High School.....	Isham Royal.....	Nonsect..
1488	Warronton.....	Warrenton Male Academy*.....	C. H. Scott.....	Nonsect..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.									
		Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.																				
								Classi-cal course.		Scien-tific course.																								
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.									
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34					
1	2	8	73	0	0	8	22					0	12																100	\$5,000	1438			
1	0	6	4			14	21																						1,000	1,000	1439			
2	2	45	55	0	0	10	15	10	15																				1,000		1440			
1	0	6	6			24	37	2	2																					600	1441			
1	0	12	8	0	0	28	35	5	3	0	0	4	1	4	1														150	900	1442			
1	0	13	17	0	0	32	28																						0	600	1443			
0	1	180	10	0	0	6	22	0	15	0	17	1																	2,000	50,000	1444			
0	2	70	25	0	0	20	15																						200		1445			
0	2	0	27	0	0	4	5			0	7	0	3																590	6,000	1446			
0	2	0	97	0	0	0	0	15	0	50	0	6	0	6	0														75	18,000	1447			
2	0	43	25			24	22	5	4																					600		1448		
1	1	40	57	49	57	20	25	10	15					1	0	0	0													800	4,890	1449		
1	1	10	7	0	0	10	15	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	1450	
1	0	1	6	0	0	23	12	1	1																					0	400	1451		
2	0	19	8	0	0	44	21																							0	1,600	1452		
5	1	85	56	0	0	30	30	0	0	0	0																			0	1,000	1453		
1	1	12	10			43	40	6	0																					3	125	600	1454	
0	2	0	8	0	0	0	7							0	0	0	0															1455		
2	13	0	149			0	25							0	9																	1456		
2	0	60	0	0	0	50	0	25	0	15	0	8	0	8	0																5,500	1457		
3	0	18	23	18	23	54	111							0	1																	1458		
1	10	0	135	0	0	0	25	0	1	0	7	0	1	0	1															3,000		1459		
1	0	34	26			21	34	30	22	3	2	10	13	10	13	4															2,000	1460		
0	2	0	39	0	0	8	22	0	8	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	4,000	1461		
1	0	4	14	0	0	26	22	1	1	0	3	0	0	0	0															104	1,000	1462		
1	2	20	20			30	15	25	10					1	7																250	20,000	1463	
1	2	32	38	0	0	50	41							0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6,100	1464		
1	1	32	31	0	0	6	9	3	2	2	3	0	0	0	0																50	1,500	1465	
1	1	15	10	0	0	11	7	2	0	1	3																					400	1466	
1	0	10	6	0	0	15	14	1	3					0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,000	1467		
2	1	65	57			30	15	36	19																						4	8,000	1468	
1	0	36	0			53	0	2	0	2	0																				44	500	1469	
0	1	2	8	0	0	68	73	0	0	0	0			1	5	0	0															3,500	1470	
1	1	20	10			10	20	0	0																								1471	
2	0	49	0			20	0							0	0																	170	7,000	1472
1	1	50	25			15	20	10	1	1	0	20	1	5	1	3	50																4,000	1473
2	1	10	10			0	80	99	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,000	1474	
1	0	6	7	0	0	5	6	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0																	500	1475	
0	3	11	3	0	0	44	65	11	0	6	4	2	5	2	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,000	1476	
1	1	10	25			65	25	10	6					0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,000	1477	
1	1	14	12			31	21							0	0																0	400	1478	
1	1	15	7	0	0	50	40							0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	1479		
0	3	0	30	0	0	10	20	0	12	0	10	0	5	0	5																	3,000	1480	
2	1	50	11			50	65	18	10	10	7																					4,000	1481	
0	1	0	16			0	4							0	0	0	0															20,000	1482	
1	1	11	10			15	25	2	1					2	2	2	2														2,000	1483		
1	0	23	19			12	10	1	4	8	0																					800	1484	
1	1	22	28	0	0	30	38	12	18	4	5	3	3	1	1	4																1485		
1	1	22	19	0	0	54	36	5	8																							3,500	1486	
1	1	10	6			15	14	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	800	1487		
1	0	17	2	0	0	11	0	7	2	2	0	0	0	0	0																	1,500	1488	

a Amount from benefactions, \$10.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																		Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.	
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elem-entary.		Prepar-ing for college.				Grad-uates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that graduates in 1895.										
								Clas-sical course.		Scien-tific course.														
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24			
1	0	11	0			10	13	3	3					3	2	3	2	2			\$2,000	1489		
2	0	16	15	0	0	12	18	3	0									3		1,800	12,500	1490		
1	1	8	14	0	0	72	61							0	0	0	0			0	100	1491		
1	0	20	10	0	0	20	26	3	2					0	0	0	0				600	1492		
0	2	5	30			10	15							0	0	0	0			75		1493		
2	0	51	0	0	0	25	0	10	0					10	0	6	0	4		110	8,000	1494		
1	0	31	3	0	0	3	0							3	0	3	0			2,000	5,000	1495		
1	4	36	57	36	57	09	155	1	3					0	0	0	0	4		500	23,000	1496		
0	2	0	34			0	6							0	0	0	0				600	1497		
2	1	10	25	10	25	25	50	0	0	0	0			0	0	0	0			150	3,500	1498		
1	0	34	21	0	0	8	7	15	10	1	0										3,000	1499		
2	2	15	56	15	56	63	42	7	0	3	0			0	2			4			10,860	1500		
2	2	20	18	0	0	45	40	4	2	8	6			4	1	4		3		25	2,500	1501		
1	0	6	5			50	19							0	4	0	3			35	2,500	1502		
0	4	2	48			25	50	2	4					0	4	0	3			498	30,000	1503		
0	2	15	15			25	60	0	0	0	0			0	0	0	0	4		62	10,000	1504		
3	0	70	23	0	0	37	43	9	0	0	0			7	0	3	0			250	1,000	1505		
3	4	22	28	0	0	31	39							4	2	3	1	3		500	12,000	1506		
1	1	21	27	0	0	0	0							2	4			3		600		1507		
1	0	15	12	0	0	15	30	5	0					0	2	0	0	2			2,000	1508		
0	2	3	15			0	19	2	4					0	5	0	4					1509		
3	1	26	0			2	0	18	0	2	0			2	0			5		0		1510		
1	0	10	0			0	0	0	0	0	0			0	0			4				1511		
0	5	0	17			0	8							0	0			4		700		1512		
0	5	0	20					0	0	0	0			0	0							1513		
4	3	68	0	0	0	29	0	43	0	25	0			24	0	20	0	4		500	20,000	1514		
1	7	0	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13									4,000		1515		
5	0	27	0	0	0	12	0							0	0	0	0	4	27	3,000	80,000	1516		
7	0	115	0			0	0							9	0			5				1517		
0	6	0	20			0	180							0	3							1518		
0	5	0	20			0	0	0	5					0	6	0	1	4		2,000		1519		
0	9	0	50	0	0	25	65	0	0	0	30			0	6	0	1	4		1,300		1520		
3	7	0	72	0	0	30	104	0	0	0	0			15	0	7	4			4,000	25,000	1521		
13	0	110	0	0	0	64	0	31	0	40	0			12	0	12	0	4		1,500	180,600	1522		
3	2	0	60			20	190			0				0	2			4		5,000		1523		
2	1	15	0	0	0	3	0	12	0	3	0			4	0	4	0	4		975	300	1524		
2	8	0	100			12	53	0	9					0	16	0	8			1,500	8,000	1525		
0	4	0	26			0	100							0	2			4		3,000		1526		
3	0	44	36	0	0	10	8			4	2										20,000	1527		
1	1	25	26	0	0	20	15	5	9	2	1			2	6	1	4	4		400	5,000	1528		
2	1	8	4	0	0	9	3			5	0			3	0							1529		

b Amount from benefactions, \$2,000.

c Amount from benefactions, \$500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
OHIO—continued.			
1530 Dayton.....	St. Mary's Institute	Rev. Joseph Weckesser	R. C.
1531 Dayton (Ludlow and Franklin sts.).	Notre Dame Academy	Sisters of Notre Dame	R. C.
1532 Ewington	Ewington Academy	F. F. Vale	Nonsect ..
1533 Fostoria	Fostoria Academy	T. A. Hostetler, A. B.	United Br.
1534 Gambier	Harcourt Place Seminary	Mrs. H. N. Hills	Epis
1535 Germantown	Miami Military Institute	Orvon Graff Brown, M. A. ..	Nonsect ..
1536 Green Spring	Green Spring Academy	H. C. DuRon	Nonsect ..
1537 Hayesville	Vermillion Institute	D. K. Andrews	Nonsect ..
1538 Hudson	Western Reserve Academy <i>c</i> ..	Frederick W. Ashley	Nonsect ..
1539 Marion	St. Mary's School	Rev. James A. Burns	R. C.
1540 Mechanicstown	Mechanicstown Academy	W. A. McBane	Nonsect ..
1541 Middlepoint	Western Ohio Normal School ..	P. S. Morgan	Nonsect ..
1542 Mount Vernon	Mount Vernon Academy	Wm. T. Bland	7-Day Ad
1543 Newark	Miss Jones's Private School ..	Miss Laura J. Jones	Nonsect ..
1544 New Hagerstown	New Hagerstown Academy	John Howard Brown	Nonsect ..
1545 New Lexington	St. Aloysius Academy	Mother Gonzaga	R. C.
1546 Painesville	School for Girls	Mrs. Maria R. D. Mathews ..	Nonsect ..
1547 Pleasantville	Fairfield Union Academy	C. C. Webb, A. B.	Nonsect ..
1548 Poland	Poland Union Seminary	Walter H. Houston	Presb
1549 Reading	Mount Notre Dame Academy ..	Sister Agnes Aloysia	R. C.
1550 St. Martins	Ursuline Academy for Young Ladies.	Sister M. Baptista	R. C.
1551 Savannah	Savannah Academy	W. H. Yearly	Presb
1552 South New Lyme	New Lyme Institute <i>b</i>	J. Tuckerman, A. M., Ph. D. ..	Nonsect ..
1553 South Salem	Salem Academy	John E. Williams, A. B.	Presb
1554 Springfield	Springfield Seminary	Miss Susan A. Longwell	Nonsect ..
1555 Tiffin	Ursuline College	Mother Lignori	R. C.
1556 Toledo	Smead School	The Misses Smead	Nonsect ..
1557 ..do.....	Ursuline Convent of the Sacred Heart.	Ursuline Nuns	R. C.
1558 West Farmington	Western Reserve Seminary	E. J. Moore, Ph. D.	M. E.
1559 Woodville	Woodville Academy	Theodore Mees	Luth
1560 Zanesville	Putnam Military Academy	J. M. Hulbert	Presb
1561 ..do.....	Putnam Seminary	Mrs. Helen Buckingham Colt.	Nonsect ..
OKLAHOMA.			
1562 Guthrie	St. Joseph's Academy	Mother Paula, O. S. B.	R. C.
1563 Kingfisher	Kingfisher College	J. T. House	Cong
OREGON.			
1564 Baker	St. Francis Academy <i>c</i>	Sister Mary Cupertino	R. C.
1565 Coquille	Coquille City Academy	W. H. Bunch	7-Day Ad
1566 Dallas	La Creole Academy	A. M. Sanders, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1567 Forest Grove	Tualatin Academy	H. L. Bates	Cong
1568 Lebanon	Santiam Academy	S. A. Fandle, A. M.	M. F.
1569 Mount Angel	Mount Angel Academy	Mother M. Bernardine, O. S. B.	R. C.
1570 Pendleton	St. Joseph's Academy	Sister M. Stanislaus	R. C.
1571 Portland	Bishop Scott Academy	J. W. Hill, M. D.	P. E.
1572 ..do.....	Portland Academy <i>d</i>	S. R. Johnston and J. R. Wilson.	Nonsect ..
1573 ..do.....	St. Helen's Hall	Miss Mary B. Rodney	Epis
1574 Portland (15th and Davis sts.).	St. Mary's College	Brother Lucius	R. C.
1575 Salem	Academy of the Sacred Heart ..	Sister Mary Assumption	R. C.
1576 The Dalles	St. Mary's Academy	Sister Mary Alodia	R. C.
1577 Tillamook	Tillamook Academy *	Mrs. Carrie May	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$225.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$30,000

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																								Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appar-atus.
	Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.	Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.														
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.											
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24									
9	0	75	0	0	0	192	0	0	0	58	0	5	0	0	0	4		3,600		1530								
0	3	0	17	0	0	0	73	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	4		300		1531								
1	0	15	13	0	0	15	17			4	2							40	\$1,000	1532								
1	1	32	19	0	0	43	23					2	1	1	0	4		900	27,000	1533								
0	8	0	47	0	0	5	2	0	3	0	8	0	4	0	3	4			100,000	1534								
2	0	14	0	0	0	7	0									14		1,000	36,000	1535								
1	1	38	41	0	0	4	12	6	4	7	3	4	3	4	3	4		500	75,000	1536								
1	1	25	23			95	102	5	5	1	1							300	2,000	1537								
4	1	30	16	0	0	1	5	18	8	4	0	13	9					900	40,000	1538								
0	1	3	10			97	105					0	0	0	0					1539								
1	0	21	20			0	0	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	3		40	15	1540								
1	1	20	18	0	0	130	32	10	4	5	3	7	2			3		200	18,000	1541								
3	2	14	31	0	1	46	37					0	0	0	0	4		400	15,000	1542								
1	1	0	8	0	0	1	7	0	5	0	0									1543								
1	0	7	2	0	0	6	5	3	1									100		1544								
0	3	0	32	0	0	0	21	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2			380	26,800	1545								
0	2	0	10	0	0	0	10	0	10	0	0	0	2	0	2	4		500	15,000	1546								
2	0	15	14			60	21	10	5	8	6					3		100	5,000	1547								
1	0	14	7			16	12					2	2	2	2	3		1,000		1548								
0	5	0	23	0	0	0	19					0	4			4		3,000		1549								
0	6	0	41			0	60			0	1	0	3			4		6,000	75,000	1550								
2	0	42	44	0	0	0	0	4	6	6	8	1	5	1	2	3		200	4,000	1551								
2	2	30	33	0	0	82	82												15,000	1552								
1	2	30	32	0	0	0	0	10	10			6	5	3	3			1,300	5,000	1553								
0	4	0	30	0	0	10	40	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	2	4		50	30,000	1554								
0	3	0	50			0	150	0	25	0	25	0	6			3		890		1555								
0	4	0	30	0	0	5	45	0	0	0	8	0	3	0	1	4		600	5,000	1556								
0	10	0	200	0	0	0	200					0	20	0	0	4		0		1557								
4	2	30	44	0	0	0	0	4	0	2	4	9	1	4	0	3		200	25,000	1558								
3	0	15	0	0	0	23	0	5	0			5	0	5	0	5		2,000	30,000	1559								
5	0	15	0	0	0	10	0	10	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	4	15	0	6,000	1560								
0	2	0	34			0	14	0	2			0	4					8,000		1561								
0	3	0	18			0	24	0	15	0	3									1562								
2	2	21	20	0	0	15	18	21	18									200	18,000	1563								
0	2	5	15	0	0	25	55	2	5	0	0	0	0	2	2	5		400	1,600	1564								
3	1	15	15	0	0	30	31	6	4	5	6					3		120	7,000	1565								
1	0	27	16	0	0	0	0			5	3					3		100	5,000	1566								
5	4	56	50	0	0	21	22	3	4	5	12	8	13	8	13	3		7,000		1567								
2	1	17	11	0	0	11	26	1	2	1	2	1	1			3		400	10,000	1568								
0	1	0	12	0	0	0	22	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	4		2,070	3,200	1569								
0	4	5	26	0	0	9	31	0	9			0	2	0	3	4		300	13,000	1570								
5	1	69	0	0	0	9	4	35	0	25	0	10	0	6	0	60			200,000	1571								
4	2	58	48	0	0	53	50	25	4	25	12	5	8	5	8	4		420	21,000	1572								
1	6	0	37	0	0	1	24	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	4		700		1573								
1	0	21	0	0	0	120	0	10	0	11	0	2	0	0	0	4	21	900	20,000	1574								
0	4	0	25	0	0	0	25	0	8			0	2							1575								
0	3	0	11			42	7					0	3			4				1576								
1	3	26	23	0	0	2	7			1	0	0	0	0	0			200	7,500	1577								

c Amount from benefactions, \$100.

d Amount from benefactions, \$7,250.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
PENNSYLVANIA.			
1578	Academia.....	Tuscarora Academy.....	Presb.....
1579	Allegheny (204 North ave.)	Park Institute*.....	Nonsect.....
1580	Ambler.....	Sunnyside School.....	Miss S. A. Knight..... Nonsect
1581	Armagh.....	Armagh Academy.....	C. A. Campbell..... Nonsect
1582	Barkeyville.....	Barkeyville Academy.....	Chas. Manchester, D. D. Nonsect
1583	Beatty.....	St. Xavier's Academy.....	Sisters of Mercy..... R. C.
1584	Bedford.....	Bedford Classical College.....	Lawrence M. Colpelt..... Nonsect
1585	Bellefonte.....	Bellefonte Academy.....	J. R. Hughes..... Nonsect
1586	Bethlehem.....	Moravian Parochial School.....	Albert G. Rau, B. S. Moravian
1587do.....	Preparatory School for Lehigh University.....	William Ulrich, Ph. D. Nonsect
1588	Birmingham.....	Mountain Seminary.....	Miss N. J. Davis..... Presb.
1589	Brodheads ville.....	Fairview Academy.....	E. T. Kunkle, A. B. Nonsect
1590	Bryn Mawr.....	School for Girls (Preparatory to Bryn Mawr College).	Miss Florence Baldwin..... Nonsect
1591	Buckingham.....	Hughesian Free School.....	Miss Cynthia Doane..... Friends.
1592	Bustleton.....	St. Luke's Boarding School for Boys.....	Charles H. Strout, F. E. Moulton. Epis.
1593	Canonsburg.....	Jefferson Academy.....	R. H. Meloy, A. M. Presb.
1594	Chambersburg.....	Chambersburg Academy.....	M. R. Alexander, A. M. Nonsect
1595	Chester.....	Chester Academy.....	George Gilbert..... Nonsect
1596	Columbia.....	St. Peter's Convent.....	Sister Mary Flavia..... R. C.
1597	Concordville.....	Maplewood Institute.....	Joseph Shortlidge..... Nonsect
1598	Darlington.....	Greensburg Academy.....	C. A. Simonton, B. S. D. Nonsect
1599	Dayton.....	Dayton Union Academy.....	H. U. Davis..... Nonsect
1600	Dry Run.....	Path Valley Academy.....	Charles W. Lonx, A. B. Nonsect
1601	Easton.....	Easton Academy.....	Samuel R. Park, A. M. Nonsect
1602do.....	Charles H. Lerch's School.....	Charles H. Lerch..... Presb.
1603	Eau Claire.....	Eau Claire Academy.....	R. W. Veach..... Nonsect
1604	Elders Ridge.....	Elders Ridge Academy.....	Rev. N. B. Kelly, A. M. Nonsect
1605	Ercildoun.....	Ercildoun Academy.....	G. W. Moore..... Nonsect
1606	Erie.....	Erie Academy.....	Louis Leakey..... Nonsect
1607do.....	St. Benedict's Academy.....	Sister M. Clara..... R. C.
1608	Factoryville.....	Keystone Academy.....	Fred M. Loomis, A. M. Bapt.
1609	Fredericksburg.....	Schuylkill Seminary.....	Wilson A. Deily, A. M. Nonsect
1610	Fredonia.....	Fredonia Institute.....	J. A. McLaughry..... Nonsect
1611	Freeburg.....	Freeburg Academy*.....	G. W. Malborn..... Nonsect
1612	Germantown.....	Friends' School.....	D. H. Forsythe..... Friends
1613	Germantown (204 West Chelven ave.)	Miss Stevens's Boarding and Day School.....	Miss Mary E. Stevens..... Epis.
1614	Gettysburg.....	Mrs. Croll's Academy.....	Mrs. Jennie L. Croll..... Nonsect
1615	Greensburg.....	Greensburg Seminary <i>a</i>	W. M. Swingle, Ph. D. Luth.
1616do.....	St. Joseph's Academy for Young Ladies.....	Mother Mary Josephine..... R. C.
1617	Harrisburg.....	Harrisburg Academy.....	Jacob F. Sieler..... Nonsect
1618do.....	Misses Tomkinson's School for Young Ladies.....	Miss Martha M. Tomkinson. Nonsect
1619	Hazleton.....	Hazleton Seminary.....	Mrs. S. C. Jack..... Nonsect
1620	Hawthorn.....	West Millville Academy*.....	C. E. Sayers..... Nonsect
1621	Hickory.....	Hickory Academy.....	W. A. H. McIlvaine..... Nonsect
1622	Holidaysburg.....	Holidaysburg Seminary.....	Mrs. R. S. Hitchcock..... Nonsect
1623	Huntingdon.....	Juniata College.....	M. G. Brumbaugh, president. Ger. Bapt.
1624	Jenkintown.....	Abington Friends' School <i>b</i>	Louis B. Ambler..... Friends.
1625	Kennett Square.....	Martin Academy.....	Arthur B. Turner, A. B. Friends.
1626	Kingston.....	Wyoming Seminary <i>c</i>	L. L. Sprague, A. M., D. D. M. E.
1627	Kittanning.....	Kittanning Academy.....	J. A. Ritchey, Ph. D. Nonsect
1628	Lancaster (19 South Queen st.)	School for Girls*.....	Mrs. Blackwood..... Nonsect

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$2,000.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Instruct-ors.	Students.																								Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.	
	Total second-ary students.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.																
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.											
3	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24										
1	1	15	9	0	0	3	5	4	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	4	50	17	29	3	4	50	\$2,000	1578				
10	1	181	33	0	0	0	0	10	1	38	1	50	17	29	3	4	50	17	29	3	4	50	1,000	1579					
0	3	7	7	0	0	13	18	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	200	40,000	1580					
2	0	41	35	0	0	19	15	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	400	7,000	1581					
1	1	13	3	0	0	34	30	13	0	0	0	2	2	2	0	3	0	4	0	0	5	2,000	2,000	1582					
0	6	0	84	0	0	0	39	0	0	0	0	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	1583					
1	0	45	6	0	0	0	0	40	5	1	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	1584					
3	2	49	31	0	0	15	10	2	1	3	0	8	5	5	1	4	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	1585					
3	2	40	49	0	0	74	52	0	3	10	16	5	4	5	1	4	0	0	0	0	4	500	50,000	1586					
2	0	34	0	0	0	20	0	2	0	32	0	26	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	2,000	15,000	1587					
6	6	0	30	0	0	0	10	0	8	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	3	1,500	30,000	1588					
2	0	30	10	0	0	20	15	6	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1589					
0	5	0	63	0	0	0	22	0	0	0	0	0	25	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1590					
0	2	22	23	0	3	47	36	0	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1591					
4	4	40	0	0	0	0	0	10	1	14	0	6	0	5	0	4	0	0	0	0	4	500	10,000	1592					
3	0	25	12	0	0	10	20	8	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2,500	30,000	1593					
4	0	60	0	0	0	0	0	20	0	24	0	14	0	14	0	4	0	0	0	0	4	500	30,000	1594					
2	3	25	29	0	0	16	4	3	4	0	0	0	4	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	4	700	15,000	1595					
0	3	22	19	0	0	40	28	14	10	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	420	0	1596					
3	0	13	0	0	0	30	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2,000	30,000	1597					
1	0	5	4	0	0	8	10	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	50	5,000	1598					
1	0	10	4	0	0	16	24	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1599					
1	0	7	6	0	0	19	10	2	4	0	0	1	3	1	3	3	0	0	0	0	3	0	2,500	1600					
1	1	64	27	0	4	3	13	0	17	0	6	5	6	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	200	10,000	1601					
1	0	30	0	0	0	2	3	11	0	0	0	10	1	4	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	60	0	1602					
1	1	18	18	0	0	10	12	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	5,000	1603				
2	1	33	10	0	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	9	5	9	0	3	0	0	0	0	3	1,000	8,000	1604					
1	1	7	11	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	150	5,000	1605					
1	1	8	7	0	0	47	52	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	300	0	1606					
0	3	0	20	0	0	100	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	350	0	1607					
6	4	85	59	0	0	20	18	20	8	0	0	8	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,500	100,000	1608					
1	1	16	8	0	0	6	1	3	1	0	0	2	1	1	1	4	0	0	0	0	4	500	40,000	1609					
6	2	58	56	0	0	63	64	9	1	0	0	9	8	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	850	0	1610					
2	1	15	15	0	0	40	20	0	0	0	0	8	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	300	2,500	1611					
0	4	35	53	0	0	30	34	22	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	5	0	0	0	0	5	2,000	0	1612					
0	14	0	102	0	0	0	18	0	32	0	0	0	12	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,000	0	1613					
0	1	0	15	0	0	0	10	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1614					
3	2	40	30	0	0	67	17	28	10	3	0	14	6	6	2	4	0	0	0	0	4	800	40,000	1615					
0	7	0	30	0	0	45	0	0	25	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	300,000	1616				
2	0	28	0	0	0	0	0	16	0	12	0	9	0	6	0	4	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	15,000	1617				
2	5	8	30	0	0	20	14	4	6	4	5	0	4	0	3	4	0	0	0	0	4	300	8,500	1618					
0	3	9	14	0	0	7	18	5	5	0	0	3	2	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1,500	0	1619					
2	0	20	24	0	0	40	50	8	3	0	0	8	6	8	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12,000	1620				
1	1	24	31	0	0	0	0	5	5	0	0	1	7	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	120	2,500	1621					
0	4	0	34	0	0	0	41	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,000	0	1622					
14	3	184	109	0	0	0	0	30	27	3	0	16	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5,000	50,000	1623					
2	3	33	30	0	0	27	31	0	0	0	0	3	3	2	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	500	0	1624					
1	3	26	24	0	0	8	4	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1625				
10	10	247	123	0	0	73	127	19	9	58	0	20	11	17	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	4,000	250,000	1626					
2	1	20	15	0	0	0	0	14	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	4,600	0	1627				
1	2	0	33	0	0	0	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1628				

b Amount from benefactions, \$45.

c Amount from benefactions, \$15,000.

Statistics of endowed academics, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
	PENNSYLVANIA—continued.			
1629	Lancaster.....	The Yeates Institute.....	Montgomery R. Hooper, M. A.	P. E.
1630	McDonald.....	Ingleside Academy.....	Rev. W. D. Irons.....	Nonsect ..
1631	McSherrystown.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Mother Ignatius.....	R. C.
1632	Media.....	Brooke Hall Female Seminary*	Misses Mason.....	Epis.
1633do.....	Friends' Select School a.....	Miss Margaret R. Caley..	Friends... ..
1634do.....	Media Academy for Boys.....	C. W. Stuart.....	Nonsect ..
1635	Mercersburg.....	Mercersburg College.....	W. M. Irvine, Ph. D.....	Reformed..
1636	Mifflintown.....	Mifflin Academy.....	J. Harry Dysinger.....	Nonsect ..
1637	Millville.....	Greenwood Seminary.....	Sarah J. Kester, Ellen Russell.	Friends... ..
1638	Monongahela.....	Monongahela Academy.....	Mrs. M. M. Scott.....	Nonsect ..
1639	Mount Pleasant.....	Western Pennsylvania Classical and Scientific Institute.	Rev. Leroy Stephens, D. D.	Bapt.....
1640	Myerstown.....	Albright Collegiate Institute..	Edwin W. Chubb, A. M... ..	Nonsect ..
1641	Nazareth.....	Nazareth Hall.....	Rev. Charles C. Lanus.....	Moravian..
1642	New Bloomfield.....	Bloomfield Academy.....	George Black Roddy.....	Nonsect ..
1643	New Lebanon.....	Mehlwein Academy.....	W. E. Stratton.....	Nonsect ..
1644	Newtown.....	George School.....	Geo. L. Maris, A. M.....	Friends... ..
1645	Newtown Square.....	Friends' School.....	Miss Nettie S. Malin.....	Friends... ..
1646	North East.....	St. Mary's College.....	Aug. Dooper, rector.....	R. C.
1647	North Hope.....	North Washington Institute..	W. R. Fruit.....	Nonsect ..
1648	North Wales.....	North Wales Academy and Business School.	Samuel U. Brunner.....	Nonsect ..
1649	Oakdale Station.....	Oakdale Academy.....	John B. Kelso.....	Presb.
1650	Ogontz.....	Cheltenham Academy.....	John C. Rice, Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
1651	Oley.....	Oley Academy.....	Martin S. Harting, A. M... ..	Nonsect ..
1652	Pennsburg.....	Perkiomen Seminary.....	Oscar S. Kriebel, A. M... ..	Schwenk- felder.
1653	Philadelphia (Locust and Juniper sts.).....	Academy of the Protestant Episcopal Church.	William Henry Klapp....	P. E.
1654	Philadelphia (2122 Locust st.).....	Adelphi Academy.....	John W. Allen.....	Nonsect ..
1655	Philadelphia (401 S. 22d st.).....	Blight's School for Boys.....	Wm. S. Blight, jr.....	Nonsect ..
1656	Philadelphia (Chest- nut Hill).....	Mrs. Comegys and Miss Bell's Young Ladies' Boarding School.	Mrs. Comegys and Miss Bell.	Nonsect ..
1657	Philadelphia.....	Day School for Girls.....	Miss Katharine B. Hay- ward.	Nonsect ..
1658	Philadelphia (700 N. Broad st.).....	Eastburn Academy.....	George Eastburn, Ph. D..	Nonsect ..
1659	Philadelphia.....	English, French, and German School.	Miss E. H. Marshall.....	Nonsect ..
1660do.....	French and English Home School.	Mme. H. V. F. Clerc.....	Epis.
1661	Philadelphia (15th and Race sts.).....	Friends' Central School.....	Annie Shoemaker, and Wm. W. Birdsall.	Friends... ..
1662	Philadelphia (140 N. 16th st.).....	Friends' Select School b.....	J. Henry Bartlett, supt... ..	Friends (orth.)..
1663	Philadelphia.....	Miss Gibson's School for Girls.	Miss M. S. Gibson.....	Nonsect ..
1664do.....	The Girard College.....	Adam H. Fetterolf, Ph. D., LL. D.	Nonsect ..
1665	Philadelphia (4112 Spruce st.).....	Miss Gordon's English and French School for Girls.	Miss Elizabeth F. Gor- don.	Nonsect ..
1666	Philadelphia (4105 Chestnut st.).....	The Hamilton School.....	Le Roy Bliss Peckham... ..	Nonsect ..
1667	Philadelphia (921 Bainbridge st.).....	Institute for Colored Youth... ..	Miss Fanny M. J. Coppin.	Friends... ..
1668	Philadelphia (2011 De Lancey place).....	Agnes Irwin's School for Girls.	Miss Sophy Dallas Irwin.	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$300.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																		Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Collego prepara-tory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.									
								Clas-sical course.		Scien-tific course.													
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24		
2	0	30	0			0	0	15	0			2	0	2	0	5			0	\$15,000	1629		
2	1	37	34	0	0	7	6	20	6	8	9	7	3	7	3	4					1630		
0	2	0	23	0	0	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0			1,200		1631		
0	4	0	29	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0			600	33,000	1632		
0	2	5	8	0	0	8	6					0	0	0	0	0					1633		
3	1	24	0	0	0	14	0	4	0	12	0	12	0	9	0	4			2,500	30,000	1634		
8	0	109	16	0	0	0	0	60	0	20	0	17	0	16	0	70			1,000	40,000	1635		
2	0	32	20	0	0	3	0	3	2	13	3	1	2	1	2						1636		
0	3	20	10			6	15					0	0	0	0					2,500	1637		
1	2	20	24	0	0	6	10	4	6			3	6	1	1				0		1638		
3	1	50	30	0	0	20	15	18	5	6	2	5	7	5	2	3			2,000	32,000	1639		
4	2	50	27	0	0	10	5	7	0	10	0	13	7			4					1640		
5	0	45	0	0	0	21	0	0	0	9	0	10	0			2					1641		
2	1	30	30	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	1	0	0						1642		
1	2	28	32	0	0	0	0	1	0	12	8	0	0			4			800	4,000	1643		
5	6	88	101	0	0	0	0					4	6			5			1,700	276,000	1644		
1	2	3	8	0	0	6	5	2	0			0	0								1645		
10	0	101	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0			4			5,000		1646		
1	1	30	35			20	25	10	0	4	2	2	2	1	2	3			400	2,000	1647		
2	2	11	12	0	0	8	6	9	8	4	2	2	2						400	18,000	1648		
1	1	15	15	0	0	10	10	6	4	0	0	3	4	3	0	3			200	15,000	1649		
7	0	76	0	0	0	14	0	9	0	30	0	5	0	4	0	4			1,500	75,000	1650		
2	1	40	12	0	0	25	20	15	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	4			1,600		1651		
0	3	30	41	0	0	30	45	18	0	3	6	3	3	2	2	3			500	8,500	1652		
14	0	137	0			19	0					25	0	22	0				2,000	108,000	1653		
5	1	48	0	0	0	35	0	26	0	22	0	9	0	9	0	4			0	130,000	1654		
5	0	34	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	5	0	5					1655		
0	3	0	45			0	20	0	0	0	0										1656		
0	5	0	41			0	6	0	2	0	1	0	5	0	1	4			1,000	2,000	1657		
3	2	115	0	0	0	22	0	20	0	30	0	12	0	5	0	5			1,350		1658		
0	0	0	50			0	0	0	1			0	0	0	0						1659		
1	5	0	21			0	0					0	7						5,000	15,000	1660		
9	28	188	384	0	0	0	0	12	0	50	0	16	40	9	0	5			750	105,000	1661		
2	9	53	107	0	0	70	70	4	3			4	8	3	4	4			12,000	100,000	1662		
0	1	0	12			0	8							0	1						1663		
10	3	282	0	0	0	1636	0	0	0	0	0	35	0			3	232		12,226	3,250,000	1664		
2	9	0	90	0	0	10	0	8	0	0	0	0	6	0	3				1,200		1665		
4	0	40	0	0	0	90	0	30	0	10	0	8	0	8	0	4			300	50,000	1666		
1	3	34	59	34	59	81	93	1	1	0	0	5	5			4			3,335		1667		
2	4	0	88	0	0	0	75	0	2			0	10	0	1	4			2,000		1668		

b Amount from benefactions, \$500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
	PENNSYLVANIA—continued.			
1669	Philadelphia	Martin's School for Boys*.....	George F. Martin.....	Nonsect ..
1670	Philadelphia (Chestnut Hill).....	Mount St. Joseph Academy.....	Sisters of St. Joseph	R. C
1671	Philadelphia (4046 Walnut st.).....	The Pennsylvania School for Girls.....	Miss Elizabeth A. Reinboth and Miss Elizabeth Dwight Leach.....	Nonsect ..
1672	Philadelphia (18th and Chestnut sts.).....	Rittenhouse Academy	De Benneville K. Ludwig, A. M., and Erasmus B. Waples, A. M.....	Nonsect ..
1673	Philadelphia (2100 S. College ave.).....	School for Girls of the Evangelical Lutheran Deaconess Mother House.....	Pastor Goedel.....	Luth
1674	Philadelphia (1427 N. 16th st.).....	The Schleigh Academy.....	Miss Dawson	Nonsect ..
1675	Philadelphia (2101 Spruce st.).....	The Walton-Wellesley School.....	Dr. and Mrs. James R. Danforth.....	Nonsect ..
1676	Philadelphia.....	West Green Street Institute.....	Miss Martha Laird	Nonsect ..
1677	Philadelphia (2045 Walnut st.).....	West Walnut Street Seminary.....	Mrs. Henrietta Kutz	Nonsect ..
1678	Philadelphia.....	The William Penn Charter School.....	Richard M. Jones, LL. D.....	Friends ..
1679	Pittsburg	Alinda College Preparatory School.....	Miss Ella Gordon Stuart.....	Nonsect ..
1680do.....	Bishop Bowman Institute*.....	Rev. Robert John Coster, A. M.....	Epis
1681do.....	Pittsburgh Academy*.....	J. Warren Lytle.....	Nonsect ..
1682	Pittsburg (Shady Side).....	Shady Side Academy.....	William R. Crabbe, Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
1683	Pittsburg (6106 Penn ave.).....	Miss Thurston's Preparatory School.....	Miss Alice M. Thurston.....	Nonsect ..
1684	Pittsburg	Ursuline Young Ladies' Academy, <i>a</i>	Mother M. Ursula.....	R. C
1685	Pleasant Mount.....	Pleasant Mount Academy*.....	Nelson J. Spencer	Nonsect ..
1686	Pottstown.....	The Hill School.....	John Meigs, Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
1687	Prospect	Prospect Normal and Classical Academy.....	G. I. Wilson	Nonsect ..
1688	Reidsburg.....	Reid Institute	Rev. George Ballentine	Bapt.....
1689	Rimersburg.....	Clarion Collegiate Institute.....	S. W. Kerr, A. B	Reformed ..
1690	Rose Point.....	Rose Point Academy*.....	Prof. J. S. Fruit*.....	Nonsect ..
1691	Saltsburg	Kiskiminetas Springs School.....	A. W. Wilson, jr., Ph. D.....	Nonsect ..
1692	Scranton	College of St. Thomas.....	Rev. Joseph J. Mangan	R. C
1693do.....	Green Ridge School.....	Louise Gerecke.....	Nonsect ..
1694do.....	St. Cecilia Academy.....	Mother Mary	R. C
1695do.....	The School of the Lackawanna.....	Rev. Thos. M. Cann, A. M.; Walter H. Buell, A. M.....	Presb.....
1696	Selins Grove	Susquehanna Collegiate Institute, <i>b</i>	J. R. Dimm, D. D.....	Luth
1697	Sharon	Hall Institute	Rev. H. C. Hall, A. M.....	Bapt.....
1698	South Bethlehem.....	Bisphorpe School for Girls.....	Miss A. Oakley, B. L.....	Epis
1699	Stewartstown.....	Stewartstown English and Classical Institute.....	D. C. Weller	Nonsect ..
1700	Sugar Grove	Sugar Grove Seminary ^c	Robert John White.....	United Br.
1701	Titusville.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Mother Superior.....	R. C
1702	Towando	Susquehanna Collegiate Institute.....	Edwin E. Quinlan, A. M.....	Presb.....
1703	Uniontown.....	Redstone Academy*.....	James H. Griffith	Nonsect ..
1704	Ward	Ward Academy.....	Benj. F. Leggett, Ph. D.....	Meth
1705	Washington	Trinity Hall.....	Wm. W. Smith, rector.....	Nonsect ..
1706do.....	Washington Female Seminary.....	Miss Nancy Sherrard.....	Nonsect ..
1707	Waterford	Waterford Academy.....	W. F. Mercer, Ph. M.....	Nonsect ..
1708	West Bridgewater	Peirso's Academy*.....	S. H. Peirso.....	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$1,500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.			
1709 West Chester	Darlington Seminary for Young Ladies.	Richard Darlington.....	Nonsect ..
1710 ..do.....	Friends' High School.....	Frances B. Stevenson.....	Friends (Hicksite). Nonsect ..
1711 West Sunbury.....	West Sunbury Academy	C. B. Robertson, A. B.	Friends ..
1712 Westtown	Westtown Boarding School....	Zebedee Haines	Nonsect ..
1713 Wilkesbarre	Female Institute*	Elizabeth H. Rockwell....	Nonsect ..
1714 ..do.....	Harry Hillman Academy.....	H. C. Davis, Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1715 Williamsport	Williamsport Dickinson Seminary.	Edward J. Gray, D. D.	M. E.
1716 Wyncote.....	Chelton Hills School.....	Mrs. E. W. Heacock	Nonsect ..
1717 York.....	York Collegiate Institute.....	E. T. Jeffers, D. D.	Presb.....
RHODE ISLAND.			
1718 East Greenwich.....	The East Greenwich Academy	Rev. Francis D. Blakeslee, D. D.	M. E.
1719 Pawtucket (35 Fountain st.).	English and Classical School...	Charles A. Cole.....	Nonsect ..
1720 Providence.....	do	Charles B. Goff, Ph. D.	Nonsect ..
1721 ..do.....	Female Academy of the Sacred Heart.	Mme. E. L. Hogan	R. C.
1722 ..do.....	La Salle Academy.....	Brother James	R. C.
1723 ..do.....	Lincoln School.....	Miss Ednah G. Bowen, Miss Margaret Gilman.	Nonsect ..
1724 ..do.....	St. Mary's Academy.....	Sister M. Bernard	R. C.
1725 Providence (10 Claverick st.).	St. Xavier's Academy.....	Sister Mary Fidelis.....	R. C.
1726 Providence (15 Greene st.).	School for Young Ladies and Misses.	Mrs. Annie F. Fielden....	Nonsect ..
1727 Providence.....	School for Young Ladies.....	Miss Irene Saniewska....	Nonsect ..
1728 ..do.....	University Grammar School...	Lynn & Swain	Nonsect ..
1729 ..do.....	Private School.....	Miss Mary C. Wheeler....	Nonsect ..
SOUTH CAROLINA.			
1730 Adamsville.....	Palmetto Academy.....	E. E. Craven.....	Nonsect ..
1731 Aiken.....	The Aiken Institute.....	J. R. Mack.....	Nonsect ..
1732 Anderson.....	Patrick Military Institute	John B. Patrick	Nonsect ..
1733 Batesburg.....	Batesburg High School.....	J. J. Andrews.....	Bapt.....
1734 Beaufort.....	Harbison Institute	G. M. Elliott.....	Presb.....
1735 Camden.....	Browning Industrial Home and School.*	Miss Nellie A. Crouch....	M. E.
1736 Charleston.....	Academy of Our Lady of Mercy*	Sister Mary Agatha	R. C.
1737 ..do.....	Avery Normal Institute.....	Morrison A. Holmes.....	Cong
1738 ..do.....	Charleston Female Seminary	Miss E. A. Kelly.....	Nonsect ..
1739 Charleston (38 Corn- ing st.).	Misses Gibbs's School.....	Miss E. S. Gibbs and Miss S. P. Gibbs.	Nonsect ..
1740 Charleston.....	High School of Charleston.....	Virgil C. Bibble, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1741 ..do.....	The Porter Military Academy*	Charles J. Colcock, head master.	Epis.....
1742 ..do.....	Miss Smith's Private School....	Mrs. Isabel A. Smith	Nonsect ..
1743 ..do.....	University School.....	W. D. McKenney	Nonsect ..
1744 ..do.....	Wallingford Academy.....	Rev. L. A. Grove.....	Presb.....
1745 ..do.....	Young Ladies' School.....	Miss C. O. Martin	Luth
1746 Chester.....	Brainerd Institute.....	Jno. S. Marquis	Presb.....
1747 Chesterfield.....	Chesterfield Academy.....	N. R. Baker.....	Nonsect ..
1748 Clinton.....	Presbyterian College of South Carolina.	Rev. E. C. Murray	Presb.....
1749 ..do.....	Thornwell Orphanage	Rev. Wm. P. Jacobs, D. D. .	Presb.....

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appar-atus.	
		Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-uates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.												
								Clas-sical course.		Sci-entific course.																
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24	
0	3	0	60	0	0	0	10	0	3	0	2	0	6	0	3	4	...	1,000	\$25,000	1709						
0	3	11	12	6	5	2	1	6	1710
4	2	100	60	0	0	0	0	20	25	5	10	8	9	1	8	4	...	300	5,000	1711						
4	4	42	45	0	0	91	51	2	2	4	3	8	14	2	1	4	...	8,000	500,000	1712						
0	6	0	55	0	0	0	48	0	7	1713
7	2	120	0	0	0	0	0	13	0	23	0	12	0	9	0	200	1714
5	2	122	159	0	0	12	27	5	2	4	1	17	24	8	2	3	...	4,000	125,000	1715						
2	2	8	18	0	0	14	20	1	0	1	4	1	0	4	10,000	1716						
3	4	50	42	0	0	0	0	17	7	13	0	7	3	6	2	4	...	2,500	100,000	1717						
4	6	54	43	0	0	53	59	3	0	5	0	9	12	8	0	3	60	...	62,000	1718						
1	1	22	5	0	0	41	9	3	0	7	0	9	2	7	0	...	700	5,000	1719							
9	1	76	0	0	0	75	0	45	0	15	0	17	0	8	0	4	74	1,000	100,000	1720						
0	5	0	51	0	20	0	0	0	6	5,100	75,000	1721						
6	0	150	0	0	0	45	0	95	0	0	0	6	0	6	0	4	55,000	1722						
0	4	0	25	0	0	0	35	0	0	0	1	1723						
0	4	0	20	0	0	0	40	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	3	4	...	900	...	1724						
0	4	0	60	10	70	0	7	600	...	1725						
0	6	0	24	0	21	0	1	0	7	0	1	4	1726						
0	4	0	38	0	22	0	4	1727						
5	0	31	0	24	0	9	0	9	0	100	...	1728						
0	4	0	45	0	0	0	22	0	8	0	2	30,000	1729						
1	2	8	14	20	6	3	7	4	0	50	2,000	1730						
2	0	30	28	71	72	0	0	0	9	3	15,000	1731						
6	0	55	0	0	0	3	0	25	0	1	0	7	0	1	0	4	53	1,300	...	1732						
1	1	20	20	0	0	20	30	1,500	1733						
1	1	7	7	2	3	46	45	4	0	3	...	50	5,000	1734						
0	4	9	56	9	56	70	40	0	0	0	0	1	4	4,000	1735							
0	4	0	60	0	40	0	4	40,000	1736						
1	3	49	108	49	108	98	155	4	5	0	0	4	21	1	0	4	...	500	2,500	1737						
0	6	0	50	0	0	0	50	0	15	2,000	35,000	1738						
0	2	0	14	0	0	0	31	0	1	1739						
5	0	150	0	0	0	30	0	150	0	17	0	12	0	4	25,000	1740						
6	0	97	0	0	0	23	0	1	0	10	0	11	0	1741						
0	5	0	49	0	0	5	45	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	0	1742						
2	0	20	0	11	0	15	0	1743						
1	2	16	26	16	26	108	120	5	3	7	4	1	3	1	0	4	...	300	...	1744						
0	3	0	12	22	21	0	0	0	0	2	2	1745						
2	1	9	7	9	7	65	70	5	0	0	0	4	3	3	1	3	10,000	1746						
1	1	30	31	0	0	50	24	8	2	7	1	1	2	1	2	5	...	120	1,500	1747						
3	0	39	8	0	0	19	15	30	3	5	4	20	6	20	6	2	...	290	...	1748						
2	3	8	19	0	0	51	50	0	3	5,000	60,000	1749						

a Amount from benefactions, \$1,964

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
SOUTH CAROLINA—continued.				
1750	Clio.....	Hebron High School.....	Benj. W. Crouch.....	Meth.....
1751	Cokesbury.....	Cokesbury Conference Fitting School.....	S. M. Rice, jr.....	Meth.....
1752	Columbia.....	Benedict College.....	Rev. Charles E. Becker.....	Bapt.....
1753	Conway.....	The Burrough School.....	Wm. Z. McGhee.....	Nonsect.....
1154	Covington.....	Hebron High School.....	J. B. Humbert.....	Meth.....
1755	Frogmore.....	Penn Normal and Industrial School. ^a	Miss Ellen Murray.....	Nonsect.....
1756	Gowensville.....	Male and Female Seminary*.....	W. D. O'Shields.....	Bapt.....
1757	Hartsville.....	Welsh Neck High School ^b	A. Poindexter Taylor.....	Bapt.....
1758	Honea Path.....	High School.....	J. L. Eskew.....	Nonsect.....
1759	Jordon.....	Jordon Academy.....	Miss Rebecca E. Wilson.....	Meth.....
1760	Kingstree.....	Kingstree Collegiate Institute.....	Rev. W. B. Duncan.....	Nonsect.....
1761	Lexington.....	Palmetto Collegiate Institute.....	Sidney J. Derrick.....	Nonsect.....
1762	Manning.....	Manning Collegiate Institute.....	E. J. Browne.....	Nonsect.....
1763	Pine Ridge.....	Pine Ridge Academy ^c	James D. Wells.....	Nonsect.....
1764	Reidville.....	Reidville Female College.....	D. Balharrrie Simpson.....	Presb.....
1765	do.....	Reidville Male High School.....	George Briggs.....	Presb.....
1766	Rock Hill.....	Presbyterian High School.....	Rev. Alexander Sprunt.....	Presb.....
1767	Sellers.....	Sellers High School.....	Miss Annie Reaves.....	Nonsect.....
1768	Sharon.....	Magnolia B. P. L. Institute*.....	L. F. Shuford.....	Nonsect.....
1769	Summerville.....	Private School*.....	Miss Quackenbush.....	Nonsect.....
1770	Sumter.....	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Sister Mary Loretto.....	R. C.....
1771	do.....	The Sumter Institute.....	H. F. Wilson, president.....	Nonsect.....
1772	Townville.....	Townville Academy*.....	H. L. Clayton.....	Nonsect.....
1773	Winnboro.....	Mount Zion Institute*.....	W. H. Witherow.....	Nonsect.....
1774	Yorkville.....	Baptist High School.....	Adonnas E. Booth, M. A.....	Bapt.....
SOUTH DAKOTA.				
1775	Burnside.....	Ward Academy.....	Mrs. D. G. Herron.....	Cong.....
1776	Canton.....	Augustana College ^b	Anthony G. Tuve.....	Luth.....
1777	Scotland.....	Scotland Academy ^c	John B. Curtis.....	Presb.....
1778	Sioux Falls.....	All Saints School ^d	Miss Helen S. Peabody.....	P. E.....
1779	do.....	Sioux Falls University.....	E. A. Ufford, A. B.....	Bapt.....
1780	Sturgis.....	St. Martin's Academy.....	Mother Angela.....	R. C.....
1781	Wessington Springs..	Wessington Springs Seminary ^e	Rev. J. K. Freeland.....	Nonsect..
TENNESSEE.				
1782	Alamo.....	Alamo Male and Female Academy.....	J. O. Brown, B. S.....	Nonsect..
1783	Alexandria.....	Masonic Normal School*.....	Gross and Woods.....	Nonsect.....
1784	Andersonville.....	Big Valley Academy.....	William L. Wallace.....	Nonsect.....
1785	Athens.....	Athens Female College.....	L. L. H. Carlock, D. D.....	Nonsect.....
1786	Bellbuckle.....	Webb School.....	W. R. and J. M. Webb.....	M. E. So.....
1787	Big Sandy.....	Big Sandy Normal School*.....	Prof. W. L. McKinney.....	Nonsect.....
1788	Bloomington.....	Kingsley Seminary*.....	Joseph H. Ketrn, A. M.....	M. E.....
1789	Bluff City.....	Zollicoffer Institute*.....	John J. Wolford.....	Nonsect.....
1790	Brownsville.....	Wesleyan Female College.....	T. W. Crowder.....	Meth.....
1791	Bryson.....	Bethany High School.....	C. H. Walker.....	Nonsect.....
1792	Butler.....	Holly Spring College.....	James H. Smith, A. M.....	Nonsect.....
1793	Camden.....	Camden Collegiate Institute.....	O. L. Kennedy.....	Nonsect.....
1794	Campbellsville.....	High School.....	W. B. Davidson.....	Nonsect.....
1795	Carlock.....	Hoyle Institute*.....	N. B. Goforth, A. M.....	Nonsect.....
1796	Carthage.....	Geneva Academy.....	H. A. Ingram.....	Nonsect.....
1797	Centerville.....	Centerville High School*.....	W. A. Matthews.....	Nonsect.....
1798	Chapel Hill.....	Chapel Hill Academy.....	M. L. Cancer.....	Nonsect.....
1799	Chattanooga.....	Chattanooga College for Young Ladies.....	John L. Cooper, A. M.....	Nonsect..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

^a Amount from benefactions, \$1,000.^b Amount from benefactions, \$200.^c Amount from benefactions, \$100.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																								Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.	Prepar-ing for college.				Grad-uates in 1895.		College prepar-atory stu-dents in the class that grad-uates in 1895.														
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.											
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24								
1	2	30	30	1	3	14	14	3	3	0	10	9	1	2	1	2	3	125	\$1,500	1750								
0	2	13	9	1	3	14	14	3	3	0	10	9	0	0	0	0	3	2,000	1751									
3	5	0	136	0	136	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	6	0	0	4	1,500	1752									
1	1	40	20	0	0	20	17	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	3	600	2,000	1753								
1	1	10	10	0	0	20	20	6	6	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	5	100	1,800	1754								
0	2	15	15	15	15	130	166	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	3	300	4,000	1755								
0	1	10	8	0	0	20	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	700	1756								
2	3	35	15	0	0	6	8	20	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8,000	1757								
1	1	28	28	0	0	14	12	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	1,000	1758								
0	1	7	18	0	0	14	25	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	0	1759								
1	1	0	20	0	0	20	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1760								
1	1	23	17	0	0	36	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1,000	1761								
1	1	10	3	0	0	35	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	3,000	1762								
1	0	6	3	0	0	15	16	2	1	2	4	5	4	2	1	1	6	12	7,000	1763								
0	1	0	25	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	4	400	12,000	1764								
1	0	17	0	0	0	30	0	15	0	2	0	4	0	4	0	0	4	100	1,500	1765								
2	0	47	0	0	0	3	0	20	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	4	150	20,000	1766								
0	1	12	12	0	0	13	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1767								
0	1	11	7	0	0	32	34	4	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	800	1768								
0	2	5	10	0	0	18	17	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	450	1769								
0	3	0	40	0	0	0	35	0	8	0	0	0	5	0	5	4	4	300	0	1770								
0	1	0	55	0	0	0	30	0	20	0	20	0	13	0	12	4	4	500	15,000	1771								
1	0	8	5	0	0	33	40	3	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	400	400	1772							
2	1	21	21	0	0	66	58	6	8	1	0	6	0	6	0	0	3	150	15,000	1773								
1	0	25	30	0	0	5	5	15	0	12	15	0	1	0	0	3	35	2,000	3,500	1774								
2	3	36	16	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	600	10,000	1775								
2	1	20	12	0	0	27	28	20	12	0	0	1	0	1	0	3	3	1,100	10,000	1776								
2	0	27	0	0	0	4	0	3	0	0	0	1	3	1	1	0	0	400	12,000	1777								
0	5	0	27	0	0	0	29	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	5	0	0	55,000	1778								
2	1	16	14	0	0	11	1	0	0	0	0	2	3	2	3	4	4	500	20,000	1779								
0	3	5	15	0	0	36	6	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	20,000	1780								
1	1	14	16	0	0	54	39	3	4	0	2	1	3	0	1	4	0	800	12,000	1781								
1	1	7	18	0	0	55	49	4	3	7	10	4	8	4	3	2	0	120	1,500	1782								
2	0	40	35	0	0	20	35	3	5	6	6	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1783								
2	0	38	25	0	0	27	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,400	1784								
0	2	1	83	0	0	7	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	10,000	1785								
4	5	215	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	72	3	23	3	23	3	4	0	1,800	4,500	1786								
1	0	31	26	0	0	32	27	5	4	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,000	1787								
3	0	33	10	0	0	36	30	8	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	2,200	1788								
2	0	37	70	0	0	60	50	4	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1789								
1	4	8	42	0	0	20	55	13	45	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	4	0	10,000	1790								
2	1	24	21	0	0	52	47	13	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,500	1791								
2	0	75	43	0	0	64	47	23	23	18	21	2	0	0	0	3	4	600	5,000	1792								
1	1	25	35	0	0	75	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,500	1793								
1	1	20	22	0	0	38	50	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	1,500	1794								
1	1	10	20	0	0	90	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5,000	1795								
1	0	6	10	0	0	32	54	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1,000	1796								
1	1	45	49	0	0	18	21	8	13	12	5	2	3	2	3	0	0	101	2,000	1797								
1	1	35	20	0	0	40	30	12	10	8	5	4	3	6	3	0	0	100	0	1798								
2	2	0	38	0	0	0	30	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	100	1,500	1799								

d Amount from benefactions, \$17,000.

e Amount from benefactions, \$351.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
TENNESSEE—cont'd.			
1800 Chattanooga (706 Georgia ave.).	The English and French Boarding and Day School.	The Misses Duvall	Nonsect ..
1801 Chattanooga	University School	J. Roy Baylor, A. B.	Nonsect ..
1802 Clarksville	Clarksville Female Academy	H. W. Browder, A. M.	M. E. So.
1803 Cleveland	Centenary Female College	Daniel Sullins, D. D.	M. E. So.
1804 Clifton	Clifton Masonic Academy*	Miss Ida Tarbet	Nonsect ..
1805 Cloverdale	Cloverdale Seminary	W. A. Bell	Nonsect ..
1806 Cornersville	Presbyterial Institute*	T. R. Best, A. B.	Presb.
1807 Culleoka	Culleoka Academy	R. W. Lambuth	Nonsect ..
1808 Cumberland City	Cumberland City Academy	J. H. Bayer	Nonsect ..
1809 Dayton	Masonic College	E. A. Ashburn	Nonsect ..
1810 Decatur	Decatur High School	J. T. Townsend	M. E. So.
1811 Decaturville	Decaturville Normal and High School.	J. N. Ruddle	Nonsect ..
1812 Dover	Dover High School	W. T. Loggins, A. B.	Nonsect ..
1813 Doyle Station	Doyle College	R. L. Jones	Nonsect ..
1814 Duck River	The Shady Grove Institute.	W. C. Salmon	Nonsect ..
1815 Erin	Houston College School.	G. I. Byrom	Nonsect ..
1816 Evensville	Tennessee Valley College*	J. P. Dickcy	Nonsect ..
1817 Fayetteville	Collegiate Institute.	Geo. C. Simmons	Nonsect ..
1815 do	Dick White College.	R. S. Bradshaw	Nonsect ..
1819 Franklin	Franklin High School	Allen, Chiles and McConico.	Nonsect ..
1820 do	Wall and Mooney's School.	W. D. Mooney and S. V. Wall.	Nonsect ..
1821 Friendsville	Friendsville Academy	J. H. Moore, A. B.	Friends ..
1822 Garland	Garland High School	J. P. Williams	Nonsect ..
1823 Gillenwater	Alum Well Academy	J. W. Showalter, A. B.	Nonsect ..
1824 Gleason	Masonic Male and Female Institute.	J. A. Howard	Nonsect ..
1825 Gordonsville	Gordonsville Academy	H. J. Arnold	Nonsect ..
1826 Grand Junction	Male and Female Institute	W. E. Lewellen	Nonsect ..
1827 Grand View	Grand View Normal Institute.	W. F. Cameron, Ph. B.	Cong ..
1828 Grassy Cove	Grassy Cove Academy	T. J. Miles, A. B.	Presb.
1829 Graysville	Graysville Academy*	G. W. Colcord	7-Day Ad.
1830 Green Brier	Central Tennessee Normal School.	N. J. Pritchard	Nonsect ..
1821 Henderson	Jackson District High School*	I. B. Day	M. E. So.
1832 Hilbram	Fisk Academy*	E. D. White	Nonsect ..
1833 Hillsboro	Hillsboro Academy*	S. L. Phillips	Nonsect ..
1834 Holladay	Holladay Independent Normal School.*	G. M. Leslie	Nonsect ..
1835 Howell	Howell Academy*	R. K. Morgan	Nonsect ..
1836 Jasper	Pryor Institute.	B. E. Atkins	M. E. So.
1837 do	Sam Houston Academy.	H. R. Gilliam	Nonsect ..
1838 Kingston Springs	Vanderbilt Preparatory Academy.	Rufus J. Clark	M. E. So.
1839 Knoxville	Miss Lee's Fifth Avenue School.*	Miss Ida M. Lee	Nonsect ..
1840 do	The University School	Lewis M. G. Baker, M. A.	Nonsect ..
1841 Kyles Ford	Blackwater Seminary a.	Jasper Bostic	Nonsect ..
1842 Lascassas	Lascassas High School	Prof. Ellington	Nonsect ..
1843 Lawson	Holston Institute*	G. Clinton Hanna	Nonsect ..
1844 Lebanon	Lebanon College for Young Ladies.	B. S. Foster	Nonsect ..
1845 Leipers Fork	Hillsboro High School	Z. A. McCenico	Nonsect ..
1846 Lewisburg	Haynes-McLean School.	W. W. McLean and I. M. M.	Nonsect ..
1847 Lexington	Lexington Baptist College	J. A. Mount	Bapt.
1848 Limestone	Limestone High School.	E. E. Bearden	M. E. So.
1849 Lobelville	Lobelville High School	J. O. Griffith	Nonsect ..
1850 London	London Seminary	J. C. Reid	Cum. Pres.
1851 Lynchburg	Lynchburg Normal Academy.	T. G. Riddle	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build- ings, and scientific apparatus.
		Total second- ary stud- ents.		Colored second- ary in- cluded in col- umns 7 and 8.		Elemen- tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu- ates in 1895.		College preparatory stud- ents in the class that graduates in 1895.											
								Classical course.		Scien- tific course.															
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24						
0	2	8	21													4		350	\$800	1800					
1	0	51	0	0	0	15	0									4		1,000		1801					
1	5	0	90	0	0	0	40	0	3			0	9			4		1,000	12,000	1802					
5	10	0	201			0	0					0	22	0	12	4		500	75,000	1803					
0	1	5	12	0	0	30	25	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0			50	2,000	1804					
1	1	20	25	0	0	4	1					0	3					500	2,000	1805					
1	2	0	24	16	0	0	21	8	3	5								0	1,200	1806					
1	0	6	6	0	0	0	7	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4		1,000	1,500	1807					
1	1	0	15	15	0	0	60	65				2	1	0	0	2		21	4,000	1808					
2	2	50	35			175	200					6	4						2,000	1809					
1	1	6	5	0	0	54	50	1	1	0	0	4	5	0	0	4			1,500	1810					
2	0	9	5	0	0	14	6	0	0	5	3	0	0	0	0	4			250,000	1811					
																			1,000	1812					
1	0	11	7	0	0	46	44	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	3				1813					
1	0	4	10	0	0	57	43	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4		100	5,000	1813					
2	1	40	35	0	0	123	130	3	3									0	3,000	1814					
1	1	29	25			89	25	1	2	30	10							200	3,000	1815					
2	0	30	15			75	70	25	20			2	2							10,000	1816				
1	1	35	25			65	46	6	2	0	0	2	2							1817					
2	1	50	40	0	0	25	15	6	3	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	200	20,000	1818					
1	0	15	20	0	0	15	6	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4		300	5,000	1819					
3	0	170	14	0	0	0	40	6	100	8		21	0	18	0	5		1,400	12,000	1820					
2	1	29	24	0	0	9	17	2	0			1	0	0	0	4		50		1821					
1	0	10	15	0	0	20	26	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0				1,500	1822					
1	1	37	18			40	35												2,500	1823					
1	1	5	5					0	1	4	5								0	1824					
1	0	9	9	0	0	54	41	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4		30	2,000	1825					
1	1	15	24			15	18													1826					
2	5	69	54			52	32					5	7	3	1	4		1,200	5,000	1827					
1	1	12	13			43	33	2	0							3		1,200		1828					
5	3	42	43	0	0	14	13					0	0	0	0					1829					
2	0	35	28	0	0	95	98											375	5,000	1830					
1	1	46	54	0	0	24	26	15	15	14	16	1	0					50	3,500	1831					
1	2	1	35	21	0	20	25	15	11	0	0	0	0	0	0			113	500	1832					
1	1	5	7	0	0	43	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			0	500	1833					
2	1	25	22	0	0	90	87	7	8	14	10	7	5	7	5			340	2,500	1834					
1	0	20	16	0	0	25	24												0	2,000	1835				
2	1	59	45	0	0	13	17					0	0	0	0	4		200	35,000	1836					
2	2	17	13	0	0	29	25	8	2	10	10	3	2	3	2	3		200	7,000	1837					
2	0	12	9	0	0	36	29					1	0			3		100	3,500	1838					
0	1	5	11	0	0	0	2	0	3	0	0									1839					
3	0	76	0			34	0	76	0			0	0							1840					
1	0	20	10			70	50	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5		380	15,000	1841					
1	0	14	7	0	0	29	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			0	1,200	1842					
1	1	27	11	0	0	39	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			300	4,500	1843					
0	8	0	100	0	0	0	25	0	25	0	75	0	12	0	0	5		300	30,000	1844					
1	0	20	5			15	10	8	0									400	5,000	1845					
0	2	40	50	0	0	29	40	15	10	13	0	6	8	4	3	4	30	200	12,000	1846					
2	0	30	25	0	0	95	75	10	5			0	0					500	5,000	1847					
1	1	29	29			25	20					0	3	0	3					3,000	1848				
1	1	35	15	0	0	30	29	18	13	12	7									3,500	1849				
2	1	19	10	0	0	40	20	4	6									200	10,000	1850					
1	0	10	19			55	56	3	8	5	12	2	10	2	10	4		0	2,000	1851					

a Amount from benefactions, \$500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
TENNESSEE—cont'd.				
1852	McKenzie	McTyeire Institute	J. H. Harrison, B. A.	Meth
1853	McLemoresville	McLemoresville Collegiate Institute. <i>α</i>	L. S. Mitchell, A. M.	M. E.
1854	Manchester	Manchester College	A. R. Steele	Nonsect ..
1855	Martin	McFerrin College	F. E. Peters, A. M.	M. E. So.
1856	Maryville	Maryville Normal and Preparatory School	Wilson J. Hole	Friends ..
1857	Memphis (395 Poplar st.)	Clara Conway Institute	Miss Clara Conway	Nonsect ..
1858	Memphis	Higbee School*	Miss Jennie M. Higbee ..	Nonsect ..
1859	Memphis (501 Vance st.)	Memphis Institute*	Wharton Stewart Jones ..	Nonsect ..
1860	Memphis	St. Mary's School	Sister Superior	Epis.
1861	Memphis (400 Poplar st.)	University School	Werts & Rhea	Nonsect ..
1862	Middleton	Middleton High School	H. B. Williams	Nonsect ..
1863	Milton	Milton Seminary	W. H. Turney	Nonsect ..
1864	Monteagle	Fairmount College	Wm. H. Du Bose, M. A. ...	P. E.
1865	Morelock	Ottway College	J. K. P. Saylor	Nonsect ..
1866	Morristown	Morristown Normal Academy ..	Judson S. Hill, A. M., B. D.	M. E.
1867	Mount Juliet	Mount Juliet High School	W. A. Caldwell	Nonsect ..
1868	Mount Pleasant	Howard Institute	J. A. Bostick	M. E. So.
1869	Munford	High School (Dyerburg District) ..	R. L. Taylor	Meth
1870	Murfreesboro	Murfreesboro Academy*	Walter W. Brown, A. M. ...	Nonsect ..
1871	Nashville	East Side Academy	R. D. L. Robertson	Nonsect ..
1872do.....	Montgomery Bell Academy	S. M. D. Clark, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1873do.....	St. Bernard's Academy	Mother Superior	R. C.
1874do.....	St. Cecilia Academy	Sister Ursula	R. C.
1875do.....	St. Joseph's School	Rev. P. J. Gleeson, V. G. ...	R. C.
1876do.....	University School	C. B. Wallace, M. A.	Nonsect ..
1877do.....	Wharton Academic School*	A. D. Wharton, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1878	New Market	New Market Academy	F. A. Penland	Presb.
1879	Orlinda	Orlinda Normal Academy	William McNeely*	Nonsect ..
1880	Parrottsville	Parrottsville Academy*	H. P. Kctron, A. M.	Meth
1881	Petersburg	Elizabeth College	W. M. Carter	Nonsect ..
1882	Pigeon Forge	Pigeon Forge Academy	W. W. Matney	Nonsect ..
1883	Pleasant View	Pleasant View Academy*	N. I. Harper	Nonsect ..
1884	Portland	Bay View College	T. M. Clark	Nonsect ..
1885	Prospect Station	Prospect Academy*	D. J. Moore	Nonsect ..
1886	Readyville	Readyville High School	J. W. Jamison	Nonsect ..
1887	Rogersville	McMinn Academy	J. W. Lucas, M. A.	Nonsect ..
1888do.....	Swift Memorial Institute	W. H. Franklin, A. M.	Presb.
1889	Rucker	High School	G. A. Dunn	Nonsect ..
1890	Rugby	Rugby School	D. R. Case	Nonsect ..
1891	St. Clair	St. Clair Academy	W. J. Stewart	Nonsect ..
1892	Saulsbury	Woodland Academy	A. E. Handly	Nonsect ..
1893	Sevierville	Murphy College	J. C. Eckles	M. E.
1894	Sharon	Sharon Training School	J. B. Reed	Nonsect ..
1895	Smyrna	Smyrna Fitting School	James A. Robins, B. A. ...	Nonsect ..
1896	Sneedville	McKinney High School	H. J. Bostic	Nonsect ..
1897	South Side	South Side Preparatory School ..	P. L. Harned	Nonsect ..
1898	Sweetwater	Sweetwater Seminary for Young Ladies	William Shelton	Bapt.
1899	Tampico	Tampico Academy*	J. E. Wickham	Nonsect ..
1900	Tazewell	Tazewell College	Nonsect ..
1901	Temperance Hall	Earl College	James E. Drake	Nonsect ..
1902	Trcevant	Male and Female Academy	A. J. G. Wcll, B. S.	Nonsect ..
1903	Troy	Obion College	A. B. Collom, A. M.	Nonsect ..
1904	Tullohoma	Woolwine School	S. S. Woolwine	Nonsect ..
1905	Union City	Union City Training School	D. A. Williams	Nonsect ..
1906	Waverly	Southern Methodist Institute ..	Arthur C. Minter	M. E. So.

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appar-atus.	
		Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elem-entary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepara-tory stud-ents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.												
								Classi-cal course.		Scien-tific course.																
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22							
2	0	38	29	0	0	20	23	38	29	---	---	5	6	1	2	4	4	---	---	---						
1	2	38	27	0	0	32	28	17	15	8	3	9	7	4	3	4	4	---	---	600						
2	0	54	26	0	0	28	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	125						
3	0	45	36	0	0	15	20	20	3	---	---	2	3	---	---	---	---	---	---	400						
1	2	7	9	0	0	58	37	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	4						
2	8	0	65	---	---	12	49	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	3						
2	6	0	103	---	---	6	121	0	10	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	4						
5	1	100	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	1,000						
0	5	0	50	---	---	---	---	60	0	10	0	10	9	---	---	---	---	---	---	2,300						
3	0	44	0	---	---	6	0	6	0	8	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	15,000						
1	2	12	11	0	0	23	19	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	15,000						
1	1	25	30	0	0	59	50	0	0	---	---	0	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	75,000						
0	3	0	25	0	0	3	10	---	---	---	---	0	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	15,000						
2	0	15	8	0	0	69	45	7	2	15	8	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	6,000						
1	5	39	60	33	60	102	89	17	18	---	---	3	0	3	0	---	---	---	---	18,000						
1	1	10	20	0	0	51	44	4	3	2	0	2	1	2	1	3	4	---	---	18,000						
2	1	50	63	0	0	20	22	50	30	---	---	3	3	3	3	4	4	---	---	10,000						
1	1	40	40	0	0	25	30	2	10	3	7	4	6	2	3	4	4	---	---	7,000						
2	1	12	10	0	0	6	1	---	---	---	---	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	500						
0	1	20	0	0	0	32	0	3	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	3	---	---	---	50,000						
5	1	56	0	0	0	25	0	4	0	11	0	10	0	7	0	4	---	---	---	1871						
0	5	0	23	0	0	25	0	15	0	10	0	5	0	4	4	---	---	---	---	0						
0	1	0	39	0	0	0	41	0	0	0	12	0	9	0	0	4	---	---	---	1872						
5	0	11	0	0	0	107	211	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	---	---	---	150						
0	5	0	50	0	0	25	0	14	0	27	0	3	0	3	0	4	---	---	---	5,000						
3	0	41	0	0	0	8	0	10	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	100,000						
0	2	8	17	0	0	40	50	1	0	0	15	0	6	0	1	4	---	---	---	20,000						
1	0	38	20	0	0	18	24	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	109						
2	0	10	5	---	---	45	20	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	0						
0	2	20	10	0	0	49	33	---	---	---	---	0	0	0	0	4	---	---	---	1,300						
1	2	7	6	---	---	54	53	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	150						
1	1	32	18	0	0	30	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	500						
2	0	10	10	---	---	30	20	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	5,000						
1	1	40	45	0	0	25	30	25	30	12	15	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	2,000						
1	1	13	13	0	0	12	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	---	---	---	100						
1	0	26	0	0	0	33	0	17	0	---	---	1	0	1	0	3	---	---	---	3,000						
0	2	10	9	1	2	75	81	---	---	---	---	1	2	0	0	4	---	---	---	1,500						
2	0	14	10	---	---	66	50	14	10	---	---	0	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	7,000						
1	1	8	5	0	0	35	33	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	3,000						
1	1	27	12	0	0	51	67	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	3	---	---	---	2,500						
1	1	13	16	---	---	37	34	6	4	---	---	---	---	---	---	3	---	---	---	0						
2	1	24	19	---	---	142	117	12	8	12	9	6	4	6	4	---	---	---	---	12						
1	1	10	15	0	0	60	90	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	2	---	---	---	1,000						
1	0	24	15	0	0	4	8	---	---	---	---	0	0	0	0	4	---	---	---	15,000						
2	0	40	25	0	0	50	35	15	5	1	0	10	3	8	1	5	---	---	---	3,800						
1	1	13	5	0	0	73	64	2	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	4	---	---	---	3,500						
0	2	0	39	0	0	0	26	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	---	---	---	500						
2	0	30	16	0	0	11	12	8	2	3	1	3	5	---	---	---	---	---	---	1,500						
1	0	30	35	0	0	38	27	0	0	0	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	1,500						
1	0	8	5	0	0	65	75	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	1,000						
1	1	33	37	0	0	30	40	30	40	0	0	4	1	4	1	---	---	---	---	800						
2	0	21	14	0	0	92	74	---	---	---	---	0	0	0	0	4	---	---	---	105						
3	0	53	0	---	---	30	0	21	0	7	0	3	0	---	---	5	---	---	---	400						
1	2	51	53	---	---	0	0	4	3	---	---	1	0	1	0	---	---	---	---	700						
2	0	22	26	0	0	66	92	3	4	---	---	0	1	0	0	3	---	---	---	50						

a Amount from benefactions, \$60.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
1	2	3	4
TENNESSEE—cont'd.			
1907	Wheat	Roane College*	Geo. W. Butler, D. D. Nonsect ..
1908	White Pine	Edwards Seminary	Ross Masters. United Br
1909	Williston	Williston Academy*	J. T. Nolan, A. B., B. D. Nonsect ..
1910	Woodbury	Woodbury Academy	Kellogg and Lehmann Nonsect ..
TEXAS.			
1911	Abilene	Simmons College	George O. Thatcher, A. M. Bapt.
1912	Austin (202 West 8th st.)	Hood Seminary	R. L. Hood
1913	Austin	St. Mary's Academy	Sisters of the Holy Cross. R. C.
1914	do	Edwards Seminary	Rev. J. M. Parcell
1915	do	Tilolton College <i>a</i>	Winfield S. Goss, A. B. Cong.
1916	Belton	Belton Male Academy	Charles H. Wedemeyer, A. M. Nonsect ..
1917	Ben Wheeler	Alamo Institute	Davidson & Dean
1918	Bonham	Carlton College	Charles Carlton
1919	do	Masonic Female Institute	J. B. Lyle
1920	Brenham	Blinn Memorial College	Carl Urbantke
1921	Brownsville	Incarinate Word Academy*	Mother Stanislaus
1922	Buffalo Gap	Buffalo Gap College	J. N. Ellis
1923	Burleson	Red Oak Academy	L. C. Collier, A. M. Cum. Pres.
1924	Carthage	Parola Male and Female College*	L. C. Libby, A. B. Cum. Pres.
1925	Castroville	Divine Providence Academy	Mother Mary Florence
1926	Cleburne	Irving Select School for Young Ladies	Peyton Irving
1927	Comanche	Comanche College*	W. H. Rogers, Ph. D. R. C.
1928	Commerce	East Texas Normal College <i>b</i>	W. L. Mayo
1929	Corpus Christi	Corpus Christi Female College	J. D. Meredith
1930	Crockett	Mary Allen Seminary*	John B. Smith, A. M., D. D. Nonsect ..
1931	Crowell	Crowell College	B. R. Blankenship
1932	Decatur	Northwest Texas Baptist College <i>c</i>	A. J. Emerson
1933	Detroit	The Detroit Normal College	Andrew Rose
1934	Eddy	Eddy Literary and Scientific Institute	J. M. Bedichek
1935	Forney	Forney Academy	E. C. Lewis
1936	Fort Worth	St. Ignatius' Academy	Sister Louise
1937	do	Miss Watson's School	Miss L. G. Watson
1938	Galveston	St. Joseph's Academy	Sister Mary
1939	do	Ursuline Convent	Mother M. Joseph
1940	Grapevine	Grapevine Seminary*	J. S. Brown
1941	Greenville	Burleson College	W. H. Long, A. M. Bapt.
1942	Greenwood	Greenwood Male and Female College	Charles S. Garrison
1943	Hearne	Hearne Academy	M. H. Broyles
1944	Henderson	Henderson Normal Academy	M. M. Dupre and V. M. Fulton
1945	Hillsboro	Patterson Institute*	W. A. Patterson, A. B., B. D. Nonsect ..
1946	Honey Grove	Methodist Conference School	S. T. Smith, A. M. Meth.
1947	Independence	Independent Institute*	W. E. Clark
1948	Jasper	Southeast Texas Male and Female College	Charles E. Durham
1949	Lufkin	East Texas College	A. C. Foster
1950	Madisonville	Madison College	J. H. Allen
1951	Marshall	Bishop College <i>d</i>	N. Wolverton, A. B. Bapt.
1952	do	Masonic Female Institute	W. D. Allen
1953	Minden	Rock Hill Institute	G. I. Watkins, A. M. Nonsect ..
1954	Moulton	Moulton Male and Female Institute*	Mrs. T. H. Allen

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$150.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$10,000.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.	
		Total second-ary students.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.				Prepar-ing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.								
												Clas-sical course.		Scien-tific course.												
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.							
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24							
1	2	25	21	0	0	22	24	6	5	10	6	1	2	1	2	300	\$5,000	1907						
2	0	13	14	0	0	0	120	1	0	1	0	0	0	4	...	221	3,000	1908						
0	1	0	33	8	4	1,500	1909						
1	1	28	30	0	0	14	18	2	4	3	0	100	5,000	1910						
2	2	19	29	20	19	1	13	0	3	4	...	2,000	25,000	1911						
1	1	2	5	8	17	1	4	14,000	1912						
0	5	0	40	0	210	0	6	0	26	0	6	4	...	860	25,090	1913						
1	6	0	33	0	8	0	6	0	0	6	0	1914						
1	6	21	19	21	19	70	73	4	0	1	1	0	0	4	...	1,350	60,000	1915						
5	0	66	4	0	0	5	0	18	0	4	0	4	0	4	...	400	10,000	1916						
3	0	37	15	0	0	60	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	...	250	3,500	1917						
2	3	0	29	19	22	0	0	0	9	7,000	1918						
1	4	0	50	0	0	0	12	0	0	0	4	4	...	350	25,000	1919						
4	0	34	11	0	0	42	9	3	2	0	0	1	2	1	1	4	...	1,060	15,000	1920						
0	4	0	60	0	140	0	0	0	3	3,000	20,000	1921						
1	2	31	20	0	0	45	50	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	...	0	10,000	1922						
1	1	37	28	30	37	3	...	75	4,000	1923						
2	2	40	50	0	0	83	97	7	8	530	7,000	1924						
0	1	0	10	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1925						
2	1	0	20	0	0	0	15	0	1	3	...	86	5,000	1926						
2	10	160	137	0	0	139	157	53	16	0	0	8	11	8	11	497	2,450	1927						
4	1	63	28	0	0	0	0	23	14	31	17	4	3	4	3	4	...	2,000	15,000	1928						
1	1	0	40	0	0	0	23	0	20	0	20	0	6	0	6	4	...	800	3,000	1929						
0	3	0	129	0	129	0	91	0	0	0	0	0	11	500	50,000	1930						
2	0	28	22	0	0	40	50	0	0	0	0	4	...	400	5,000	1931						
6	3	60	50	0	0	0	0	200	50,000	1932						
1	0	19	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	6	3	...	150	3,000	1933						
1	1	18	17	0	0	35	43	3	0	5	3	4	...	400	3,000	1934						
1	0	9	21	0	0	13	7	4	8	5	13	0	0	0	0	4	...	100	2,000	1935						
0	3	0	40	0	0	70	100	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	4	...	200	60,000	1936						
2	2	0	14	2	8	0	10	0	0	1937						
0	2	5	15	0	0	95	119	0	0	0	0	4	1938						
0	4	0	40	0	0	0	75	0	3	1939						
1	1	12	11	27	31	4	...	3,500	80,000	1940						
2	1	28	26	0	0	35	44	2	6	4	5,000	1941						
0	2	68	133	0	0	21	30	35	50	25	40	7	12	5	...	350	6,090	1942						
2	4	13	12	13	12	21	29	4	4,000	1943						
4	0	40	40	0	0	40	40	4	8	3	3,000	1944						
3	5	74	143	0	0	60	40	45	120	0	1	275	20,000	1945						
1	0	63	19	0	0	12	6	4	...	400	18,000	1946						
1	1	12	14	0	0	4	6	4	8	6	8	2	2	2	2	600	2,500	1947						
0	1	6	11	0	0	44	39	1	2	1	2	5,000	1948						
0	2	18	20	0	0	46	68	3	...	20	3,500	1949						
2	1	30	50	60	75	13	4	23	17	4	...	50	1,800	1950						
3	3	49	16	49	16	112	158	34	5	3	1	3	1	4	...	886	80,000	1951						
0	4	0	50	0	0	0	100	0	6	0	4	4	...	250	10,000	1952						
1	1	40	31	0	0	45	40	3	0	4	3	1953						
0	1	10	15	0	0	25	30	10	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	6,000	1954						

c Amount from benefactions, \$2,000.

d Amount from benefactions, \$2,789.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

	State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.
	1	2	3	4
	TEXAS—continued.			
1955	Mount Syivan.....	Rosedale Academy.....	J. S. Magee.....	Nonsect..
1956	Newton.....	The W. H. Ford Male and Female College.	J. M. Horger.....	Nonsect..
1957	Oak Cliff.....	Central Academy.....	Waldemar Malcolhson.....	Nonsect..
1958	Omen.....	Summer Hill Select School.....	Orr & Lanier.....	Nonsect..
1959	Overton.....	Hubbard College.....	C. G. Cates.....	Nonsect..
1960	Paris.....	East Side Boys' School.....	J. P. Downer.....	Nonsect..
1961	do.....	Paris Female College.....	T. J. Sims.....	Bapt.....
1962	Peaster.....	Peaster College.....	T. W. Stanley.....	Nonsect..
1963	Pilot Point.....	Franklin College.....	T. C. Belsher.....	Nonsect..
1964	Plainview.....	Llano Estacado Institute.....	O. C. Mulkey.....	Nonsect..
1965	Quannah.....	Quannah College*.....	Rev. J. L. Dickens, Ph.D., L. L. D.	Nonsect..
1966	Salado.....	Thomas Arnold High School*.....	S. J. Jones, A. M., Ph. D., T. J. Witt, Ph. D.	Nonsect..
1967	San Antonio.....	Magruder's Collegiate Institute.	J. B. Magruder, A. M.....	Nonsect..
1968	do.....	St. Mary's College.....	John B. Bumeder.....	R. C.....
1969	do.....	San Antonio Academy.....	W. B. Sceley, A. M., Ph. D.	Nonsect..
1970	do.....	Ursuline Academy.....	Mother M. Magdalen.....	R. C.....
1971	do.....	West Texas Military Academy.	A. L. Burselon, A. M.....	Epis.....
1972	San Marcos.....	Coronal Institute.....	A. A. Thomas, A. M.....	M. E. So.....
1973	Sherman.....	North Texas Female College.....	Mrs. L. A. Kidd Key.....	Meth.....
1974	do.....	Sherman Institute.....	J. G. Nash, A. M., L. L. D.....	Nonsect..
1975	do.....	Sherman Private School.....	J. H. Le Tellier.....	Nonsect..
1976	Slidell.....	Slidell High School ^a	Prof. E. F. Finch.....	Nonsect..
1977	South Bend.....	High School.....	G. A. Gray.....	Nonsect..
1978	Springtown.....	Male and Female Institute*.....	B. F. Fronabarger, A. B.....	Nonsect..
1979	Sulphur Springs.....	Central College.....	Frank J. Squires, A. M.....	M. E. So.....
1980	Van Alstyne.....	Columbia College*.....	H. L. Piner.....	Nonsect..
1981	Victoria.....	St. Joseph's College.....	Rev. L. Wycer.....	R. C.....
1982	Walnut Springs.....	Central College.....	John Collier.....	Nonsect..
1983	Weatherford.....	Texas Female Seminary.....	J. S. Howard, A. M.....	Cum. Presb.
1984	do.....	Weatherford College.....	David S. Switzer.....	M. E. So.....
1985	Whitewright.....	Grayson College ^b	F. E. Butler.....	Nonsect..
1986	Willis.....	Male and Female College*.....	C. M. Jansky, B. S., A. B.....	Nonsect..
1987	Willis Point.....	Yantis Institute.....	R. E. Yantis.....	Nonsect..
	UTAH.			
1988	Ephraim.....	Sanpete Stake Academy.....	Newton E. Noyes.....	L. D. S.....
1989	Logan.....	New Jersey Academy.....	C. C. Norwood.....	Presb.....
1990	Mount Pleasant.....	Wasatch Academy.....	Geo. H. Marshall.....	Presb.....
1991	Nephi.....	Juab Stake Academy.....	Justin D. Call.....	L. D. S.....
1992	Ogden.....	Gordon Academy.....	David A. Curry.....	Cong.....
1993	do.....	Ogden Military Academy*.....	C. L. Howard.....	Nonsect..
1994	do.....	Weber Stake Academy.....	L. T. Moench.....	L. D. S.....
1995	Parowan.....	Parowan Mission School.....	L. S. McMonigal.....	Presb.....
1996	Provo City.....	Brigham Young Academy*.....	Benjamin Cluff, M. S., B. M. D.	L. D. S.....
1997	do.....	Proctor Academy.....	Isaac Hense.....	Cong.....
1998	Salt Lake City.....	All Hallows College.....	Rev. Thomas J. Larkin.....	R. C.....
1999	do.....	Latter Day Saints' College.....	Williard Done, D. B.....	L. D. S.....
2000	do.....	Rowland Hall.....	Miss Clara Colburne and Miss Bessie Howe.	Epis.....
2001	do.....	St. Mary's Academy*.....	Sister Superior.....	R. C.....
2002	do.....	Salt Lake College.....	Henry K. Warren.....	Cong.....
2003	do.....	Salt Lake Collegiate Institute.....	Robert J. Caskey.....	Presb.....
2004	Springville.....	Hungerford Academy.....	Prof. Willis Marshall.....	Presb.....

* Statistics of 1893-94-

^a Amount from benefactions, \$30.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.		Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific appar-atus.			
		Total second-ary stu-dents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Preparing for college.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		Collego prepara-tory stu-dents in the class that gradu-ates in 1895.														
								Scien-tific course.		Clas-sical course.																		
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	21	22	23	24			
1	1	25	30			40	45							1	5	1	2					4		200		\$200	1955	
1	0	15	13			33	21							0	0	0	0							0		3,000	1956	
1	1	28	12	0	0	6	3	6	3	2	1	3	1									2		1,800		2,500	1957	
4	0	30	20			25	20	5	0	3	0	3	1	3	1	3	1					2		500		5,000	1958	
1	0	10	15			45	60							0	0	0	0					3		40		1,500	1959	
1	0	20	0	0	0	26	0	0	0	0	0													0		500	1960	
0	2	0	70	0	0	0	20							0	6							3		500		15,000	1961	
2	0	20	30	0	0	60	55							0	0	0	0					4		50		3,000	1962	
1	1	39	32	0	0	12	9							1	2							4		200		5,000	1963	
1	1	39	41	0	0	34	41	18	22	16	14											4	46			6,000	1964	
2	0	30	40	0	0	30	40							0	1												8,000	1965
2	1	44	38	0	0	0	0							5	5									150		30,000	1966	
2	0	16	7	0	0	25	10	1	0	16	7	1	0	1	0	1	0					4		75			1967	
5	0	50	0			250	0							5	0							4		2,000			1968	
2	1	40	12			28	2							6	2	6	2					4				12,000	1969	
0	8	0	200			0	100	0	60	0	40	0	8	0	8	0	4					4		500			1970	
6	0	78	0			16	0															4	78	700		20,000	1971	
3	2	70	107	0	0	50	70							4	2	4	2					4		350		30,000	1972	
1	4	0	124	0	0	0	81	0	42					0	40	0	32					4		1,000		75,000	1973	
0	5	0	100			0	75	0	25					0	30	0	30									50,000	1974	
2	1	46	11			49	12							2	0									250		9,000	1975	
1	1	20	20			40	30							0	0	0	0							112		3,000	1976	
1	0	10	10	0	0	15	25	3	4	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	0										1977	
2	0	25	14			41	34	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	0	0	0							400		8,000	1978	
1	3	0	103	0	0	20	22	1	5	5	20	0	0	0	0	0	0					4				6,000	1979	
4	2	100	84	0	0	50	60							5	4	5	4							600		12,000	1980	
6	0	70				100	0	3	0															550		25,000	1981	
1	2	55	35	0	0	77	113	28	30	2	1	4	4									4		1,200		5,000	1982	
1	1	0	45	0	0	0	20	0	6	0	3	0	3									2		700		33,000	1983	
4	5	115	110			13	11							2	6							4		1,500		27,000	1984	
5	4	125	100	0	0	25	54	90	75	20	10	2	3	3	2	2	3					50		3,200		25,000	1985	
1	1	10	12	0	0	66	73	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0									10,000	1986	
6	2	0	29	0	0	0	16	0	5					0	0							4		25		150	1987	
4	1	20	16	0	0	50	15							4	13	2	5					3	25	250		2,000	1988	
0	1	7	6					0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0										1989	
1	1	15	25	0	0	45	65	5	7	7	3	1	0	1	0	1	0					3		1,200		10,000	1990	
1	0	10	15	0	0	50	40	10	15					0	2									45		3,500	1991	
1	2	13	19	0	0	16	24	4	2					3	2	2	0					3		250		25,000	1992	
3	1	25	0	0	0	6	0	6	0	8	0	9	0	3	0									400		50,000	1993	
1	1	40	40	0	0	30	40	25	30	15	10											2		100		50,000	1994	
0	1	5	9			40	38																	175			1995	
18	2	432	193			107	68							11	2									3,000		82,000	1996	
1	1	8	21	0	0	67	58	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	4							150		10,000	1997	
2	0	50	0	0	0	45	0	25	0	20	0	3	0	3	0	3	0					4		1,000			1998	
8	1	99	54	0	0	50	40	14	16	4	2	1	3	2	1	3	2					3		1,500		30,000	1999	
0	7	0	87	0	0	32	10	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	0					4		850		25,000	2006	
0	3	0	85	0	0	15	40	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0							500			2001	
3	2	8	17	0	0	5	5							2	2	2	2					4		2,000		65,000	2002	
1	2	13	37	0	0	37	39	5	1					2	10	2	2					4		300		25,500	2003	
1	0	9	0	0	0	70	76															4		190			2004	

b Amount from benefactions, \$500.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
VERMONT.				
2005	Bakersfield.....	Brigham Academy.....	Charles H. Morrill, A. B.	Nonsect..
2006	Barre.....	Goddard Seminary <i>a</i>	Arthur W. Peirce, A. B.	Univ.....
2007	Brattleboro.....	North Street School.....	Miss Florence A. Sawyer..	Nonsect..
2008	Burlington.....	The Bishop Hopkins Hall....	Miss Edith M. Clark.....	Epis.....
2009	Burlington (449 Pearl st.)	St. Joseph's Academy.....	Brother Charles.....	R. C.....
2010	Burlington.....	St. Mary's Academy.....	Sister M. Magdalen.....	R. C.....
2011	do.....	Vermont Episcopal Institute..	Henry H. Ross, A. M.....	P. E.....
2012	Chelsea.....	Chelsea Academy.....	John M. Comstock, A. M....	Nonsect..
2013	Derby.....	Derby Academy.....	G. A. Andrews.....	Nonsect..
2014	Essex.....	Essex Classical Institute....	Chauncey H. Hayden.....	Nonsect..
2015	McIndoes.....	McIndoes Falls Academy*.....	D. F. Andrus, A. B.....	Nonsect..
2016	Manchester.....	Burr and Burton Seminary <i>b</i> ..	E. Herbert Botsford, A. M..	Nonsect..
2017	Montpelier.....	Montpelier Seminary <i>c</i>	Edgar M. Smith, A. M., D. D.	M. E.....
2018	New Haven.....	Beeman Academy.....	B. M. Weld.....	Nonsect..
2019	North Craftsbury....	Craftsbury Academy.....	R. C. Moodie, A. B., B. D..	Nonsect..
2020	Peacham.....	Peacham Academy.....	C. A. Bunker.....	Nonsect..
2021	Poultney.....	Troy Conference Academy....	Charles H. Dunton, D. D..	M. E.....
2022	Royalton.....	Royalton Academy.....	H. S. Martyn.....	Cong.....
2023	Rutland.....	Rutland English and Classical Institute.	O. H. Perry.....	Nonsect..
2024	St. Albans.....	Congregation de Notre Dame..	Sister St. Clarissa.....	R. C.....
2025	St. Johnsbury.....	St. Johnsbury Academy.....	Charles E. Putnoy, Ph. D..	Nonsect..
2026	Saxtons River.....	Vermont Academy <i>d</i>	George A. Williams, Ph. D..	Bapt.....
2027	Thetford.....	Thetford Academy*.....	F. W. Newell.....	Nonsect..
2028	Townshend.....	Leland and Gray Seminary....	Aubrey B. Call, A. M.....	Bapt.....
2029	Waterbury Center...	Green Mountain Seminary....	J. N. Greene.....	Bapt.....
VIRGINIA.				
2030	Abingdon.....	Academy of the Visitation....	Sisters of the Visitation...	R. C.....
2031	Achilles.....	Guinea Academy.....	Rev. R. A. Fookes.....	Bapt.....
2032	Alexandria.....	Potomac Academy.....	John S. Blackburn.....	Nonsect..
2033	do.....	St. John's Academy.....	Wm. H. Sweeney.....	Nonsect..
2034	Arvonnia.....	Seven Islands School.....	Philip B. Ambler, A. B....	Nonsect..
2035	Bedford City.....	Belmont Seminary.....	James R. Guy.....	Presb.....
2036	Bellevue.....	Bellevue High School.....	Wm. R. Abbott.....	Nonsect..
2037	Berkeley.....	Berkeley Collegiate and Military Institute.	John W. Roberts, Ph. B....	Nonsect..
2038	do.....	Ryland Institute for Young Ladies.	Miss Lula M. Butt.....	Nonsect..
2039	Berryville.....	Berryville Female Institute*..	Miss Mary B. Baskerville*	Bapt.....
2040	do.....	Shenandoah University School*	W. N. McDonald.....	Nonsect..
2041	do.....	Miss Stuart's Boarding and Day School.*	Miss A. K. Stewart.....	Nonsect..
2042	Bethel Academy.....	Bethel Military Academy.....	R. A. McIntyre.....	Nonsect..
2043	Blackstone.....	Hoge Academy.....	Samuel J. Coffman, A. M....	Presb.....
2044	Black Walnut.....	Cluster Springs High School..	T. S. Wilson.....	Presb.....
2045	Bonair.....	Bon Air School*.....	W. D. Smith, A. M., C. M. Hazen, A. M.	Nonsect..
2046	Burkeville.....	Ingleside Seminary*.....	Graham C. Campbell, A. M. (Rev.)	Presb.....
2047	do.....	South Side Female Institute..	R. W. Criddle (Rev.).....	Bapt.....
2048	Cappahosic.....	The Gloucester Agricultural and Industrial School.*	W. B. Weaver.....	Nonsect..
2049	Charlottesville.....	Albemarle Female Institute....	Wm. P. Dickinson.....	Bapt.....
2050	do.....	Piedmont Female Institute....	Miss Mary N. Meade.....	Epis.....
2051	do.....	University School.....	Horace W. Jones.....	Nonsect..
2052	Chase City.....	Chase City Academy.....	H. D. Drew.....	Presb.....
2053	do.....	Southside Male Academy*.....	M. M. Hargrove.....	Bapt.....
2054	Chester.....	Chester Collegiate Institute....	W. H. Cooke, A. B.....	Meth.....

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$4, 800.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$650.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																								Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, build-ings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total second-ary students.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.				Elemen-tary.				Preparing for col-lege.				Gradu-ates in 1895.		College prepa-ratory stu-dents in the class that Graduates in 1895.											
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.										
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24									
2	2	45	55	0	0	20	20	0	0	6	5	6	11	3	1	4	600	\$20,000	2005								
4	6	69	69	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	8	4	7	2	3	4	2,000	95,000	2006								
1	8	41	52	6	6	0	0	2	12	3	5	0	0	4	2007								
0	4	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	500	2008								
2	0	40	0	0	0	66	0	26	0	0	0	0	40	0	0	2009								
0	2	0	25	0	1	125	270	0	5	3	1,500	2010								
5	0	31	10	4	0	5	0	7	0	8	0	4	0	4	40,000	2011								
1	1	8	15	0	0	12	15	1	1	1	0	0	0	4	170	2012								
2	2	52	57	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	12	1	2	0	0	4	300	5,000	2013								
2	2	41	54	4	6	3	1	1	7	1	1	1	1	4	300	8,000	2014								
2	3	19	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	50	6,000	2015								
2	3	32	35	0	0	11	10	3	2	2	0	3	7	2	2	4	1,000	2016								
5	5	103	122	0	0	0	0	16	3	8	5	7	15	5	2	4	2,500	102,375	2017								
1	2	32	20	0	0	0	0	9	4	15	2	2	2	4	100	2018								
1	1	27	35	0	0	3	1	4	3	3	0	4	1,200	3,000	2019								
1	2	52	60	0	0	0	0	10	15	0	2	0	2	4	1,600	8,000	2020								
5	4	107	70	23	6	35	1	14	3	12	7	7	1	2,824	68,000	2021									
1	1	15	10	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	300	3,000	2022								
1	1	36	8	0	0	29	40	13	2	2	6	16	12	3	1	4	1,000	1,200	2023								
0	6	36	80	57	57	0	0	5	2024								
3	7	150	143	0	0	0	0	50	10	50	0	26	27	15	5	4	100,000	2025								
6	7	117	85	0	0	8	4	41	13	20	11	15	13	7	8	110	3,800	112,000	2026								
2	4	40	36	0	0	0	0	3	5	6	4	3	4	1	2	3,000	10,000	2027									
1	2	20	19	0	0	11	9	7	0	4	8	3	1	3	0	4	300	5,500	2028								
1	3	24	18	0	0	21	23	5	6	5	6	4	500	15,000	2029								
0	4	0	12	0	0	0	33	0	2	0	9	0	1	4	2030								
0	2	11	13	0	0	10	10	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	2031								
2	0	39	0	0	0	11	0	8	0	2032								
2	0	20	0	0	0	10	0	7	0	5	0	2	20	850	15,000	2033								
2	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	0	4	1,000	5,000	2034								
1	3	0	65	0	0	5	25	4	200	45,000	2035								
3	0	44	0	0	0	4	3,000	25,000	2036								
4	3	53	37	0	0	17	19	3	7	6	4	4	30,000	2037								
0	6	0	40	8	0	0	15	0	12	0	15	0	8	4	350	15,000	2038								
0	3	2	17	0	0	6	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,500	2039								
1	0	33	0	0	0	10	0	10	0	100	4,000	2040								
0	1	5	11	3	1	2041								
7	1	75	0	0	0	0	0	20	0	15	0	60	700	20,000	2042								
3	0	30	0	0	0	10	0	12	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	10,000	2043								
2	0	34	0	0	0	3	0	25	0	6	0	6	0	4	600	10,000	2044								
2	1	15	5	0	0	5	2	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,000	2045								
1	7	0	109	0	109	0	0	0	0	0	0	300	20,000	2046								
0	2	0	60	0	0	0	20	0	20	4	2,000	20,000	2047								
1	1	25	36	9	3	2	1	14,000	2048								
0	2	0	40	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	20,000	2049								
0	2	0	18	0	0	0	22	2050								
3	0	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2051								
0	1	0	11	2	4	0	0	3	2052								
1	1	11	11	0	0	4	4	6	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	200	5,000	2053								
1	1	4	12	0	0	15	13	2	6	1	1	4	5,000	2054								

c Amount from benefactions, \$25,000.

d Amount from benefactions, \$2,750.

Statistics of endowed academics, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
VIRGINIA—continued.				
2055	Churchland	Churchland Academy	C. C. Crittenden, A. M.	Bapt.....
2056	Columbia	Rivanna Home School	James McClellan Miller ..	Nonsect ..
2057	Covesville	Cove Academy	Rev. Daniel Blain	Nonsect ..
2058	Culpeper	Culpeper Female Seminary ..	Mrs. S. C. Biggers	Nonsect ..
2059	Danville	Danville Military Institute ..	I. H. Saunders	Nonsect ..
2060	Dayton	Shenandoah Institute	Rev. George P. Hott, A. M. ..	Un. Br ..
2061	Elk Creek	Elk Creek Academy	Rev. J. R. Pugh	M. E. So ..
2062	Farnham	Farnham Academy	R. Williamson	Nonsect ..
2063	Floyd	Oxford Academy	Rev. and Mrs. J. K. Harris ..	Presb.
2064	Fort Defiance	Augusta Military Academy ..	Charles L. Roller	Nonsect ..
2065	Franklin	Franklin Male Academy	John G. Mills	Nonsect ..
2066	Front Royal	The Misses Holcombe's School ..	Miss Alice W. Holcombe ..	Nonsect ..
2067	Gloucester	Summersville Home School for Girls	John Tabb	Nonsect ..
2068	Graham	Wartburg Seminary	Rev. J. B. Greever	Luth
2069	Greenwood Depot	Greenwood School	William Dinwiddie, M. A. ..	Nonsect ..
2070	Hampton	Hampton Female College	E. E. Parham	Nonsect ..
2071	Ingram	Ingram Institute	T. E. Crenshaw, A. M.	Nonsect ..
2072	Irrington	Chesapeake Academy	H. B. Nolley	Nonsect ..
2073	Lebanon	The Russell College *	J. W. Repass, A. M.	Nonsect ..
2074	Locust Dale	Locust Dale Academy	W. W. Briggs	Nonsect ..
2075	Longfield	Curry College *	R. E. Kennedy	Bapt.....
2076	Luray	Luray Military Academy	Fred T. Amiss	Nonsect ..
2077	do	Von Bora College	Rev. J. N. Stirwalt	Luth
2078	Marshall	Select School	Mrs. S. J. Frost	Epis
2079	Martinsville	East End High School	William H. Parrvet	Nonsect ..
2080	Mcndota	Hamilton Institute	W. I. Benham	Nonsect ..
2081	Millwood	Clay Hill Academy	W. H. Whiting, jr., A. M. ..	Nonsect ..
2082	Mount Clinton	West Central Academy	I. S. Wampler	Nonsect ..
2083	Norfolk (138 Granby st.)	Leache-Wood School for Young Ladies	Miss Agnes D. West	Nonsect ..
2084	Norfolk	Norfolk Academy	Robert W. Tunstall, B. A. ..	Nonsect ..
2085	do	Norfolk Mission College	J. B. Work	Presb.
2086	Norfolk (186 Free- mason st.)	Phillips and West's School for Girls	Miss E. F. Phillips and Miss S. K. West	Nonsect ..
2087	Onancock	Margaret Academy a	Frank P. Brent	Nonsect ..
2088	Petersburg	St. Paul's School (female)	Miss Russell	Nonsect ..
2089	do	University School *	W. Gordon McCabe	Nonsect ..
2090	Portsmouth	Portsmouth Academy	W. H. Stokes	Nonsect ..
2091	do	Portsmouth Seminary *	Mrs. M. H. Bain	Nonsect ..
2092	Richmond	The Franklin Street School (boys)	G. M. Nolley	Nonsect ..
2093	do	Hartshorn Memorial College ..	Lyman B. Tefft, D. D.	Bapt.....
2094	do	McGuire's School	John P. McGuire	Nonsect ..
2095	Ridgeway	Ridgeway Institute	W. G. Wilborn, A. B.	Nonsect ..
2096	Roanoke	Alleghany Institute	S. Speiden Handy, A. B.	Nonsect ..
2097	do	Mrs. P. L. Gilmer's School for Young Ladies	Mrs. P. L. Gilmer	Nonsect ..
2098	Rockfish Depot	Kleinberg Female School	Misses Wailes	Presb.
2099	Rocky Mount	Columbia Institute	Charles C. Anderson	Nonsect ..
2100	Rural Retreat	Hawkin's Chapel Institute	W. E. Hummel	Nonsect ..
2101	San Marino	Sunny Side Home School *	Miss Maria J. Atkinson ..	Nonsect ..
2102	Simmons ville	Fair View Academy	L. D. Shumate	Nonsect ..
2103	South Boston	South Boston Female Institute ..	J. P. Sncad	Nonsect ..
2104	Spottswood	Valley High School	James A. McClure	Nonsect ..
2105	Spring Garden	Spring Garden High School * ..	R. R. Jones	Presb.
2106	Staunton	Staunton Military Academy	William H. Kable	Nonsect ..
2107	Suffolk	Collegiate Institute	P. J. Kernode, A. M.	Nonsect ..
2108	do	Nansmond Seminary	Mrs. Lucy H. Quinby	Epis
2109	do	Suffolk College	Miss Sally A. Finney	Meth
2110	do	Suffolk Military Academy	Joseph King	Nonsect ..
2111	Tappahannock	The Rappahannock Institute ..	Alex. Fleet	Nonsect ..

* Statistics of 1893-94.

other private secondary schools, 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.																				Length of course in years.	Number in military drill.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds, buildings, and scientific apparatus.
	Total second-ary stud-ents.		Colored second-ary in-cluded in col-umns 7 and 8.		Elemen-tary.		Prepar-ing for col-lege.				Grad-uates in 1895.		Col-lege prepa-ratory stud-ents in the class that grad-uates in 1895.											
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24					
0	1	16	10	0	0	4	3	3	0	0	0	4	0	4	0	3	...	350	\$4,000	2055				
1	0	10	0	0	0	3	0	8	0	2	0	4	0	4	0	3	...	0	300	2056				
2	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	15	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	4	...	0	300	2057				
1	5	0	51	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	...	300	10,000	2058				
4	0	58	0	0	0	15	0	20	0	38	0	5	0	4	0	4	58	...	35,000	2059				
1	1	25	16	0	0	53	40	0	0	0	0	3	3	2	0	4	39	1,000	6,000	2060				
1	1	35	35	0	0	40	35	0	0	4	6	0	1	0	1	...	0	0	1,200	2061				
1	1	13	0	0	0	6	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	...	0	0	2062				
1	1	22	22	0	0	22	18	1	2	0	0	2	2	2	2	5	...	1,500	2,000	2063				
3	0	56	0	0	0	13	0	56	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	56	1,200	11,000	2064				
1	0	28	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	4	...	130	3,500	2065				
0	1	0	8	0	0	6	22	0	6	0	0	0	2	0	2	4	...	0	1,000	2066				
0	1	6	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2067				
2	1	3	16	28	0	0	36	30	12	8	5	5	0	0	0	3	...	225	25,000	2068				
1	0	18	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2069				
0	5	0	54	0	0	16	0	7	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	...	18,000	8,000	2070				
0	1	18	7	0	0	23	10	10	14	13	17	3	6	0	0	4	...	150	8,000	2071				
1	1	16	29	0	0	10	14	13	17	3	6	0	0	0	0	4	...	0	8,000	2072				
1	1	34	36	0	0	40	50	0	20	0	10	0	0	0	0	...	350	10,000	2073					
1	0	45	0	0	0	45	0	20	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	10,000	2074					
2	2	37	25	0	0	15	15	17	20	10	15	0	0	0	0	1,800	1,800	2075				
2	0	10	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	2076				
1	0	28	0	0	0	9	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,000	4,000	2077				
1	1	5	8	0	0	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2078				
1	1	18	16	0	0	4	2	8	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,100	2,100	2079				
1	1	30	25	0	0	75	70	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	300	3,000	3,000	2080				
1	0	12	0	0	0	4	0	6	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	...	500	500	500	2081				
5	1	71	63	0	0	21	20	6	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	3	...	0	8,000	8,000	2082			
0	4	0	50	0	0	60	0	0	3	0	0	0	6	0	0	5	...	500	30,000	30,000	2083			
4	1	63	0	0	0	57	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	4	75,000	75,000	2084			
0	1	23	41	23	41	226	396	0	0	0	0	11	10	0	0	3	...	1,200	60,000	60,000	2085			
1	6	0	55	0	0	0	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	...	600	8,000	8,000	2086			
3	0	28	37	0	0	38	45	10	10	7	0	1	2	1	0	4	...	2,500	17,000	17,000	2087			
2	2	0	10	0	0	0	23	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	4	...	100	5,000	5,000	2088			
4	0	71	0	0	0	10	0	40	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	...	5,000	12,000	12,000	2089				
1	0	38	2	0	0	20	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	200	200	200	2090				
0	2	0	25	0	0	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2091				
2	0	40	0	0	0	10	0	10	0	15	0	5	0	0	0	3	3,000	3,000	2092			
0	2	0	22	0	0	0	77	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	16	4	2093				
5	0	109	0	0	0	45	0	50	0	20	0	5	0	5	0	4	...	50	8,000	8,000	2094			
1	1	12	17	0	0	12	18	12	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	...	0	2,500	2,500	2095			
4	0	42	0	0	0	23	0	8	0	9	0	2	0	2	0	4	...	500	25,000	25,000	2096			
0	2	0	28	0	0	10	12	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2097				
0	1	0	22	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	5,000	5,000	2098			
0	1	9	9	0	0	12	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2099				
0	2	1	35	0	0	12	8	3	2	9	4	0	0	0	0	4	...	0	6,000	6,000	2100			
0	1	2	7	0	0	3	10	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	75	75	2101				
1	1	19	21	0	0	31	17	3	2	3	2	0	0	0	0	4	1,800	1,800	2102			
1	1	0	22	0	0	10	10	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	...	75	75	75	2103				
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	2	0	5	2	2	0	890	890	2104				
1	1	20	6	0	0	0	11	7	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	4,000	4,000	2105				
4	0	30	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	6	0	5	0	5	0	4	30	500	20,000	20,000	2106			
5	0	41	0	0	0	6	0	22	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	40	...	936	14,000	14,000	2107			
1	5	2	39	0	0	6	7	2	5	0	0	8	0	8	0	4	...	200	7,000	7,000	2108			
0	7	2	86	0	0	2	22	1	0	0	0	0	7	0	4	4	...	0	25,000	25,000	2109			
2	0	48	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	...	0	10,000	10,000	2110			
1	1	4	25	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	3	...	400	4,000	4,000	2111			

α Amount from benefactions, \$150.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religious denomination.	
1	2	3	4	
VIRGINIA--continued.				
2112	Tazewell.....	Tazewell College.....	Alson Hutton.....	Nonsect..
2113do.....	Tazewell Female Seminary.....	C. Shelburne.....	Nonsect..
2114	Warrenton.....	Fauquier Female Institute.....	Geo. G. Butler, A. M.....	Nonsect..
2115do.....	South Warrenton Academy.....	E. A. Smith.....	Nonsect..
2116	Warsaw.....	Warsaw Female Academy.....	Mrs. E. B. Breckenbaugh.....	Nonsect..
2117	Waynesboro.....	Fishburne School.....	Jas. A. Fishburne, A. B.....	Nonsect..
2118	West Point.....	West Point Female Institute.....	Rev. J. H. Newbill.....	Bapt.....
2119do.....	West Point Military Academy.....	J. A. Jones.....	Nonsect..
2120	Winchester.....	Fairfax Hall*.....	Miss Mary E. Billings.....	Nonsect..
2121do.....	Shenandoah Valley Academy*.....	J. B. Lovett, M. A.....	Nonsect..
2122	Wood Lawn.....	Male and Female Academy.....	Everett E. Worrell.....	Nonsect..
WASHINGTON.				
2123	Centralia.....	Grace Seminary.....	Arthur M. Brumback.....	Bapt.....
2124	Coupeville.....	Puget Sound Academy.....	Charles E. Newberry.....	Cong.....
2125	North Yakima.....	Ahtanum Academy <i>a</i>	N. P. Hull, M. S.....	Cong.....
2126	Olympia.....	Providence Academy*.....	Sisters of Charity.....	R. C.....
2127	Seattle.....	Academy of the Holy Names*.....	Sister M. Perpetua.....	R. C.....
2128	Snohomish.....	Dorrance Academy.....	J. W. Dorrance, B. S.....	Presb.....
2129	South Park.....	Institute of Our Lady of Lourdes (boys). Academy of the Holy Names..	Brother Philip.....	R. C.....
2130	Spokane.....	Academy of the Holy Names..	Sister M. Geraldine.....	R. C.....
2131do.....	Gonzaga College*.....	Rev. L. Van Gorp, S. J.....	R. C.....
2132do.....	St. Mary's Hall.....	James Lyon.....	P. E.....
2133	Tacoma.....	Annie Wright Seminary.....	Mrs. Sarah K. Wright.....	P. E.....
2134do.....	Tacoma Academy.....	Alfred P. Powelson, A. M.....	Nonsect..
2135	Waitsburg.....	The Waitsburg Academy <i>b</i>	J. A. Keener, M. E.....	Presb.....
WEST VIRGINIA.				
2136	Alderson.....	Allegheny Collegiate Institute.	C. A. Brown.....	Nonsect..
2137	Buckhannon.....	West Virginia Conference Seminary. <i>c</i>	Rev. B. W. Hutchinson.....	M. E.....
2138do.....	West Virginia Normal and Classical Academy. <i>d</i>	W. O. Mills, Ph. D.....	U. Breth.....
2139	Charlestown.....	Charlestown Academy*.....	R. K. Meade.....	Nonsect..
2140do.....	Stephenson Seminary for Young Ladies.	C. N. Campbell, D. D.....	Presb.....
2141	Clarksburg.....	Broadbush Classical and Scientific Institute.	Wayland F. Reynolds.....	Bapt.....
2142	Fayetteville.....	Fayetteville Academy.....	H. C. Robertson.....	Nonsect..
2143	Lewisburg.....	Classical School for Boys.....	Joseph M. Sloan.....	Presb.....
2144do.....	Lewisburg Female Institute*.....	R. L. Telford.....	Presb.....
2145	Martinsburg.....	Berkeley Female Institute.....	Miss Betty Wiltshire.....	Nonsect..
2146	Oak Hill.....	Oak Hill Normal School.....	W. H. Duncan.....	Nonsect..
2147	Parkersburg.....	Academy of Visitation*.....	Sister M. Xavier.....	E. C.....
2148	Romney.....	Potomac Seminary.....	W. S. Friend.....	Presb.....
2149	Salem.....	Salem College.....	Theodore L. Gardiner.....	7-Day Bapt
2150	Wheeling.....	School for Young Ladies and Children.	Mrs. M. Stevens Hart.....	Nonsect..
WISCONSIN.				
2151	Ashland.....	North Wisconsin Academy.....	E. P. Wheeler, president.....	Cong.....
2152	Beaver Dam.....	Wayland University (academic department).	Herbert M. Burchard, A. M.....	Bapt.....
2153	Delafield.....	St. John's Military Academy.....	Sidney T. Smith.....	Epis.....
2154	Evansville.....	The Evansville Seminary.....	C. V. Bertels.....	Meth.....
2155	Fond du Lac.....	Grafton Hall <i>e</i>	B. Talbot Rogers.....	Epis.....
2156	Hillside.....	Home School.....	Misses Lloyd-Jones.....	Nonsect..
2157	Kenosha.....	Kemper Hall.....	Sister Margaret Clare.....	P. E.....

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Amount from benefactions, \$400.*b* Amount from benefactions, \$17,000.*c* Amount from benefactions, \$5,000.

Statistics of endowed academies, seminaries, and

State and post-office.	Name.	Principal.	Religions denomination.
1	2	3	4
WISCONSIN—cont'd.			
2158 Kenosha	University School	Nicholas A. Rowe, A. B. . .	Nonsect ..
2159 Madison	All Saints Cathedral Institute ^a ..	E. F. Priest	Epis
2160 ..do	Concordia College	M. J. F. Albrecht	Ev. Luth ..
2161 Milwaukee	German-English Academy <i>a</i> ..	Emil Dapprich	Nonsect ..
2162 ..do	Milwaukee Academy <i>b</i>	Julius Howard Pratt	Nonsect ..
2163 ..do	Sacred Heart Academy	Sister Mary Edmund	R. C
2164 ..do	Wisconsin Academy ^a	Miss Charlotte E. Richmond.	Nonsect ..
2165 Mount Calvary	St. Lawrence College	Rev. Alphonsus Bœumle, O. M.	R. C
2166 Mount Horeb	Mount Horeb Academy	A. G. Bjorneby	Luth
2167 Poynette	Poynette Academy	W. L. Green, D. D.	Presb
2168 Prairie du Chien	St. Mary's Institute	Sister M. Seraphia	R. C
2169 Racine	Racine Academy	W. W. Rowlands	Nonsect ..
2170 ..do	Racine College	Arthur Piper, S. T. D.	P. E
2171 ..do	Racine Home School	Mrs. M. S. McMurphy	Nonsect ..
2172 ..do	St. Catherine's Academy ^a	Mother M. Hyacintha	R. C
2173 St. Francis	Catholic Normal School of the Holy Family	Rev. M. M. Gerend	R. C
2174 Sinsinawa	St. Clara's Academy	Dominican Sisters	R. C
2175 Stoughton	Stoughton Academy and Business Institute	K. A. Kasberg	Luth
2176 Watertown	Sacred Heart University	Rev. John O'Keeffe, C.S.C.	R. C
2177 Waukesha	Carroll College	Walter L. Rankin, Ph. D.	Presb
2178 Wausau	Wausau Business College and Academy	Charles M. Boyles	Nonsect ..
WYOMING.			
2179 Big Horn	Wyoming Collegiate Institute ..	Rev. Charles Anderson	Cong
2180 Cheyenne	Academy of the Holy Child Jesus	Mother Mary Stanislaus	R. C

* Statistics of 1893-94.

^a Amount from benefactions, \$2,000.



IV.—UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.

TABLE I.—Statistics of universities and colleges for 1894-95.

Location.	Name.	Year of opening.	Religious denomination.	Professors and instructors.						Students.														
				Pre-para-tory depart-ment.		Collegi-ate depart-ment.		Profes-sional depart-ments.		Total.		Prepara-tory depart-ment.		Collegiate depart-ment.		Graduate department.		Profes-sional depart-ments.		Total number.				
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	
ALABAMA.																								
1	Montsville	1839	Nonsect..	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	3	44	51	63	46	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	112	97
2	Cullman	1892	R. C.	4	0	10	0	4	0	15	0	22	0	70	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	0	111	0
3	East Lake	1842	Bapt.	1	0	7	0	0	0	8	0	50	0	144	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	174	2	
4	Greensboro	1859	M. E. So.	1	0	10	0	0	0	11	0	20	0	115	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	145	0	
5	La Fayette	1835	Nonsect.	0	3	3	0	0	3	4	50	62	29	41	29	41	0	0	0	0	0	80	108	
6	Lineville	1890	Nonsect.	0	1	4	2	0	4	3	48	26	80	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	128	64	
7	Selma	1878	Bapt.	2	2	1	1	0	4	2	89	70	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	91	73	
8	Spring Hill	1827	R. C.	3	0	12	0	0	0	19	0	10	0	180	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	190	0	
9	University	1831	Nonsect..	0	0	13	0	3	0	16	0	0	0	158	1	4	0	0	0	20	0	182	1	
ARIZONA.																								
10	Tucson	1891	Nonsect..	2	1	8	1	0	0	8	1	10	17	14	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	24	29	
ARKANSAS.																								
11	Arkadelphia	1890	M. E. So.	1	3	7	0	0	0	3	8	10	15	75	100	1	3	0	0	0	0	86	118	
12	do	1886	Bapt.	1	2	4	2	0	0	4	3	75	75	60	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	135	125	
13	Batesville	1872	Presb.	0	1	4	0	0	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	63	47	
14	Clarksville	1891	Cum. Pres	0	1	5	3	0	0	5	4	77	80	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	87	92	
15	Conway	1884	M. E. So.	8	0	8	0	0	0	8	0	45	3	88	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	133	22	
16	Little Rock	1882	M. E.	1	2	2	0	0	4	3	26	31	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	35	
17	do	1877	M. E.	0	4	4	0	1	0	6	5	133	164	14	1	0	0	0	0	0	13	0	147	165
18	Mountain Home	1893	Bapt.	1	1	6	0	0	0	7	5	48	30	68	55	0	0	0	0	0	0	116	85	

Statistics for 1893-94.

40	Middletown	Wesleyan University	1831	0	0	29	0	0	0	0	0	219	53	14	1	1	0	0	0	234	51
41	New Haven	Yale University	1791	0	0	120	0	71	0	296	0	1,812	0	110	28	0	0	411	0	2,291	59
DELAWARE.																					
42	Newark	Delaware College	1870	0	0	12	0	0	0	12	0	78	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	78	0
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.																					
43	Washington	Columbian University	1823	10	0	64	0	70	0	137	0	62	0	290	78	33	5	0	0	538	3
44	do	Gallaudet College	1864	14	3	14	3	14	3	14	3	14	3	56	24	0	0	0	0	56	24
45	do	Georgetown University	1791	12	0	25	0	31	0	74	0	155	0	141	0	4	0	4	0	429	0
46	do	Gonzaga College	1821	6	0	3	0	0	0	9	0	100	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	123	0
47	do	Howard University	1868	3	0	6	1	49	0	53	6	80	13	30	5	0	0	0	206	12	384
FLORIDA.																					
48	De Land	John B. Stetson University	1883	10	12	7	2	0	0	10	12	134	114	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	140
49	Leesburg	Florida Conference College*	1886	0	1	4	0	0	0	4	3	5	5	45	45	0	0	0	0	50	50
50	St. Leo	St. Leo Military College	1890	1	0	6	0	0	0	7	0	16	0	27	0	0	0	0	0	43	0
51	Tallahassee	Seminary West of the Suwannee River	1857	4	2	0	0	4	2	42	45	9	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	51	59
52	Winter Park	Rollins College	1885	4	9	4	9	0	0	4	9	77	79	10	1	0	0	0	0	87	80
GEORGIA.																					
53	Athens	University of Georgia	1801	0	0	20	0	18	0	38	0	0	0	215	0	6	0	0	0	299	0
54	Atlanta	Atlanta University	1869	6	10	6	10	0	6	10	44	4	4	13	7	0	0	0	0	57	11
55	do	Morris Brown College	1885	3	7	3	1	2	0	3	8	179	252	24	29	0	0	0	10	203	281
56	Birmingham	Methodist Episcopal College	1884	1	1	1	0	0	0	2	1	51	31	16	18	0	0	0	0	67	49
57	Bowdon	Bowdon College	1897	1	1	1	3	0	0	2	3	10	16	13	0	0	0	0	0	22	29
58	Dahlonega	North Georgia Agricultural College	1873	0	1	7	0	0	0	7	1	53	13	80	30	0	0	0	0	141	45
59	Macon	Mercer University	1833	1	0	9	0	5	0	14	0	39	0	132	0	0	0	44	0	211	0
60	Oxford	Emory College	1839	0	10	0	3	0	11	0	56	0	232	0	0	0	0	0	0	288	0
61	South Atlanta	Clark University	1868	5	1	5	1	1	1	5	40	51	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	160	181
62	Wrightsville	Nannie Lou Warthen College	1892	1	1	2	0	0	0	2	3	23	13	33	37	0	0	0	0	62	50
63	Young Harris	Young L. G. Harris College	1887	4	3	1	2	0	0	5	3	202	121	59	20	0	0	0	0	261	147
IDAHO.																					
64	Moscow	University of Idaho	1892	10	3	9	2	0	0	11	3	117	74	20	9	0	0	0	0	137	83
ILLINOIS.																					
65	Abingdon	Hedding College	1855	6	3	7	2	0	0	14	10	150	140	37	0	0	0	0	0	187	177
66	Bloomington	Illinois Wesleyan University	1853	9	5	8	1	8	0	28	13	142	108	71	26	0	0	51	0	1,021	604
67	Bourbonnais	St. Viator's College	1860	5	0	17	0	2	0	23	0	59	0	150	0	0	0	0	0	230	0
68	Carlinville	Blackburn University	1861	6	4	7	0	0	0	7	5	49	28	29	17	0	0	3	0	69	53
69	Carthage	Carthage College	1870	6	2	6	0	0	0	8	2	55	48	24	18	1	0	0	0	81	93

* Statistics for 1893-94.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of universities and colleges for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name.	Year of opening.	Religious denomination.	Professors and instructors.						Students.									
				Pre-para-atory department.	Collegi-ate depart-ment.	Profes- sional depart-ments.	Total.	Propara-atory depart-ment.	Collegiate depart-ment.	Graduato department.	Profes- sional depart-ments.	Total number.							
1		2	3	4	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.			
ILLINOIS—continued.																			
70	Champaign.....				3	3	64	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
71	Chicago.....	1868	Nonsect.....	13	0	10	116	31	493	84	22	0	0	0	0	0	677		
72do.....	1870	R. C.....	11	2	138	9	17	0	101	0	0	0	0	0	0	494		
73do.....	1892	Bapt.....	2	0	6	0	0	304	366	337	156	1	0	0	0	1,255		
74	Elmhurst.....	1871	Nonsect.....	2	0	6	0	0	121	110	0	0	0	0	0	0	170		
75	Evangelical Proseminary.....	1871	Ev.....	2	0	6	0	0	40	117	0	0	0	0	0	0	129		
76	Eureka College.....	1855	Christian.....	11	4	11	4	89	48	72	49	0	2	0	0	0	193		
77	Evangelical Proseminary.....	1871	Ev.....	2	0	6	0	0	40	117	0	0	0	0	0	0	129		
78	Northwestern University.....	1857	M. E.....	11	5	40	2	146	19	169	26	335	199	37	181	19	7	945	
79	Northwestern University.....	1857	M. E.....	11	5	40	2	146	19	169	26	335	199	37	181	19	7	945	
80do.....	1853	Univ.....	3	4	1	0	0	4	55	20	3	0	0	0	0	0	75	
81	Hoopston.....	1853	Univ.....	3	4	1	0	0	4	55	20	3	0	0	0	0	0	75	
82	Jacksonville.....	1829	Nonsect.....	3	2	3	3	0	0	15	0	135	0	0	0	0	0	224	
83	Lake Forest.....	1876	Nonsect.....	10	0	13	0	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	364	
84	Lebanon.....	1866	Presb.....	6	15	20	0	137	104	15	108	72	94	46	3	3	6	2,106	
85	Lincoln.....	1866	M. E.....	7	1	5	0	1	0	0	4	68	29	47	18	0	0	145	
86	Monmouth.....	1861	Cum. Presb.....	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	4	1	48	33	30	0	1	81	
87	Naperville.....	1861	Ev. Ass'n.....	5	2	7	0	3	0	17	6	116	54	45	16	0	0	238	
88do.....	1876	R. C.....	5	0	5	0	0	8	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	
89	Quincy.....	1860	M. E.....	3	0	3	0	0	0	6	24	30	94	8	0	0	0	141	
90do.....	1860	R. C.....	3	0	3	0	0	0	13	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	54	
91	Rock Island.....	1860	Univ.....	10	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	182	
92	Tentopolis.....	1860	Univ.....	10	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	322	
93	Upper Alton.....	1827	R. C.....	3	5	8	0	0	0	12	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	189	
94	Westfield.....	1865	Bapt.....	3	5	8	0	0	0	3	0	16	5	36	04	33	18	1	15
95	Wheaton.....	1860	U. B.....	4	1	4	0	0	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	89	
	Wheaton College.....	1860	Cong.....	3	3	9	4	0	0	12	7	109	97	47	34	0	0	156	
INDIAN TERRITORY.																			
96	Bacone.....	1880	Bapt.....	2	3	2	0	0	0	3	5	36	34	10	4	0	0	46	
97	Muscouge.....	1894	Presb.....	2	4	2	0	0	0	3	4	30	45	1	1	0	0	31	

TABLE I.—Statistics of universities and colleges for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name.	Year of opening.	Religious denomination.	Professors and instructors.						Students.															
				Preparatory department.		Collegiate department.		Professional departments.		Total.		Preparatory department.		Collegiate department.		Graduate department.		Professional departments.		Total number.					
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24		
NEBRASKA—cont'd.																									
263	Omaha.....	1878	R. C.....	4	0	10	0	26	0	40	0	127	0	47	0	0	7	0	50	0	231	0	0	0	
264	University Place... Nebraska Wesleyan Univer- sity.	1888	M. E.....	3	0	9	5	0	0	12	5	120	100	54	50	1	0	0	2	0	175	152	0	0	
265	York.....	1890	U. B.....	2	2	2	2	0	0	4	4	38	19	5	9	0	0	0	0	0	70	87	0	0	
NEVADA.																									
266	Reno.....	1874	Nonsect.....	16	0	0	0	16	3	50	34	0	0	0	0	0	116	149	0	0	
NEW HAMPSHIRE.																									
267	Hanover.....	1770	Cong.....	0	0	31	0	14	0	45	0	0	0	344	0	5	0	0	149	0	509	0	0	0	
NEW JERSEY.																									
268	Newark.....	1868	R. C.....	1	0	6	0	0	0	7	0	28	0	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	82	0	0	0	
269	New Brunswick.....	1770	Re.(Dutch)	7	4	28	0	0	31	4	133	29	294	0	2	0	0	0	0	339	29	0	0	0	
270	Princeton.....	1746	Nonsect.....	0	0	76	0	0	0	76	0	0	0	980	0	126	0	3	0	0	1,109	0	0	0	
271	South Orange.....	1856	R. C.....	11	0	13	0	3	0	13	0	47	0	80	0	0	0	0	27	0	154	0	0	0	
NEW MEXICO.																									
272	Albuquerque.....	1892	Nonsect... University of New Mexico...	4	4	0	0	0	0	4	4	41	52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	41	52	0	0	0
NEW YORK.																									
273	Alfred.....	1857	7-Day-Bap.	12	6	11	3	3	0	12	6	69	48	18	10	1	2	0	0	4	91	58	0	0	
274	Allegany.....	1860	R. C.....	11	0	7	0	6	0	19	0	71	0	76	0	0	0	0	45	0	192	0	0	0	
275	Annandale.....	1860	P. E.....	2	0	7	0	0	0	8	0	16	0	51	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	0	0	0	
276	Brooklyn.....	1855	Nonsect... Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn.	29	3	17	0	0	0	46	3	680	0	101	0	0	0	0	0	0	781	0	0	0	

TABLE I.—Statistics of universities and colleges for 1894-95.—Continued.

Location.	Name.	Year of opening.	Religious denomination.	Professors and instructors.						Students.										
				Preparatory department.	Collegiate department.	Professional department.	Total.	Preparatory department.	Collegiate department.	Graduate department.	Professional department.	Total number.								
I	2	3	4	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
OHIO—continued.																				
316	Berea.....	1864	M. E.....	7	0	7	0	7	0	49	20	26	5	0	0	0	29	0	15	25
317	Cedarville.....	1894	Ref. Presb.....	4	2	4	2	4	2	11	17	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	20
318	St. Joseph's College.....	1871	R. C.....	0	6	0	0	0	0	11	0	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	242
319	do.....	1840	R. C.....	11	0	8	0	0	0	188	0	95	0	0	0	0	0	0	383	0
320	St. Xavier College.....	1873	Nonsect.....	0	0	21	2	78	0	99	2	141	95	6	4	2	1	607	794	
321	do.....	1873	Nonsect.....	1	0	3	0	0	0	4	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	0
322	Cleveland.....	1883	Reformed.....	6	0	8	0	0	0	21	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	152	0
323	do.....	1880	R. C.....	0	0	3	0	0	0	14	0	56	0	0	0	0	199	0	340	
324	Western Reserve University.....	1826	Nonsect.....	0	0	25	5	53	0	82	5	132	108	13	4	0	0	37	0	143
325	do.....	1850	Luth.....	3	0	7	0	3	0	26	0	80	0	0	0	0	65	0	67	
326	do.....	1873	Nonsect.....	1	6	1	0	0	0	73	1	36	14	0	0	0	0	0	53	
327	Defiance.....	1884	Nonsect.....	2	1	6	1	1	0	13	0	40	62	0	0	0	0	0	646	
328	Delaware.....	1884	M. E.....	16	7	20	4	0	0	36	12	248	213	6	0	30	3	0	105	
329	Findlay.....	1886	Ch. of God.....	4	1	5	1	0	0	9	7	93	13	0	0	0	0	21	0	
330	Gambier.....	1828	Bapt.....	8	0	11	0	6	0	22	0	82	0	0	0	0	0	0	184	
331	Granville.....	1831	Bapt.....	0	12	0	0	0	0	13	2	160	96	82	31	9	0	0	212	
332	Hiram.....	1867	Christian.....	9	2	9	1	0	0	19	0	172	34	149	04	0	0	0	83	
333	Lima.....	1863	Luth.....	4	1	7	1	0	0	9	4	21	18	11	0	0	0	0	105	
334	Marietta.....	1833	Nonsect.....	4	5	13	2	0	0	17	8	97	65	82	17	2	0	0	181	
335	New Athens.....	1825	Nonsect.....	3	4	4	0	0	0	7	4	72	46	35	15	2	0	0	107	
336	New Concord.....	1837	Un. Presb.....	0	7	0	0	0	0	5	15	2	35	0	0	0	0	0	92	
337	Oberlin.....	1833	Nonsect.....	11	11	29	2	10	0	61	27	295	238	143	1	3	0	64	633	
338	Oxford.....	1824	Nonsect.....	2	0	9	0	0	0	11	0	78	0	0	0	2	0	0	132	
339	Richmond.....	1835	Nonsect.....	5	1	4	0	0	0	5	1	45	40	10	1	2	3	4	61	
340	Rio Grande.....	1876	Bapt.....	4	2	4	2	0	0	4	2	16	20	16	10	0	0	0	32	
341	Solo.....	1866	M. E.....	7	1	5	0	0	0	14	4	94	69	57	16	1	6	5	263	
342	Springfield.....	1845	Luth.....	4	1	8	0	3	0	17	4	130	75	141	20	18	4	0	40	
343	Tiffin.....	1850	Ref.....	8	1	4	0	0	0	18	3	44	26	52	28	1	0	15	1	
344	Urbana.....	1851	New Ch.....	3	1	3	1	0	0	3	3	15	8	4	5	0	0	0	17	
345	Westerville.....	1847	U. B.....	2	1	9	2	0	0	10	2	73	35	73	37	0	3	0	149	
346	Wilberforce.....	1855	A. M. E.....	4	6	9	6	3	0	10	8	37	77	61	56	0	0	10	175	

346	Wilmington	Wilmington College.....	1870	Friends.....	6	2	2	3	2	0	0	3	4	39	40	24	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	63	62		
347	Wooster	University of Woooster.....	1870	Presb.....	7	4	18	4	39	0	61	8	66	49	157	87	37	0	0	117	9	114	0	0	0	0	592	294			
348	Yellow Springs	Antioch College.....	1853	Nonsect..	6	1	7	2	0	0	7	6	84	102	10	14	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	97	119		
349	Norman	University of Oklahoma.....	1892	Nonsect..	5	0	5	0	0	0	5	0	92	84	9	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	101	85		
OKLAHOMA.																															
OREGON.																															
350	Engene	University of Oregon.....	1876	Nonsect..	2	1	9	1	19	0	39	5	106	71	69	49	0	0	0	0	0	110	0	0	0	0	0	273	120		
351	Forest Grove	Pacific University.....	1848	Cong.....	3	1	7	2	0	0	11	5	78	70	18	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	99	90		
352	La Fayette	La Fayette Seminary.....	1889	Un. Evang	3	2	0	0	2	0	3	2	30	21	8	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28	30		
353	McMinnville	McMinnville College.....	1859	Bapt.....	3	2	4	2	0	0	3	2	12	10	24	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56	38		
354	Newberg	Pacific College.....	1891	Friends	2	2	4	2	0	0	2	4	22	30	29	18	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	63		
355	Philomath	Philomath College.....	1867	U. B.....	0	2	5	0	0	0	3	4	19	12	7	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	31	36			
356	Salem	Williamette University.....	1844	M. E.....	4	2	5	3	33	0	47	12	87	72	17	5	3	0	1	0	0	32	14	175	229	171	229	198			
357	University Park	Portland University.....	1891	M. E.....	3	1	6	2	2	0	13	9	84	70	33	7	5	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	129	128			
PENNSYLVANIA.																															
358	Allegheny	Western University of Penn- sylvania.....	1819	Nonsect..	0	0	27	0	65	0	82	0	0	0	144	1	0	0	1	0	0	292	0	0	0	0	0	437	1		
359	Allentown	Muhlenberg College.....	1867	Lath.....	4	0	9	0	0	0	13	0	65	0	113	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	178	0		
360	Annyville	Lobanov Valley College.....	1867	U. B.....	3	1	5	1	0	0	8	2	38	34	33	6	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	86	40		
361	Beatty	St. Vincent College.....	1846	R. C.....	3	0	9	0	6	0	26	0	72	0	148	0	34	0	0	0	0	40	0	0	0	0	0	311	0		
362	Bever Falls	Geneva College.....	1849	Ref. Presb	1	1	6	0	0	0	8	4	37	24	62	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	118	119		
363	Bethlehem	Moravian College.....	1807	U. B.....	0	0	5	0	4	0	6	0	0	0	24	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	13	0	0	0	0	38	0		
364	Carlisle	Dickinson College.....	1783	M. E.....	6	0	13	0	8	0	24	0	87	5	174	13	0	0	7	4	70	1	334	23	0	0	334	23			
365	Chester	Pennsylvania Military Col- lege.....	1862	Nonsect..	12	0	0	0	0	12	0	27	0	87	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	114	0		
366	Collegeville	Ursinus College.....	1869	Reformed	5	4	11	0	5	0	17	4	81	25	50	4	0	0	0	0	0	22	0	0	0	0	153	29			
367	Easton	Lafayette College.....	1829	Presb.....	0	0	28	0	0	0	28	0	0	0	282	0	7	0	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	307	0			
368	Gettysburg	Pennsylvania College.....	1832	Lath.....	4	0	12	0	0	0	16	0	62	5	129	5	0	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	207	10			
369	Grovetown	Thiel College.....	1870	Lath.....	4	1	0	1	0	0	10	1	39	11	49	11	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	292	203		
370	Grove City	Grove City College.....	1876	Nonsect..	6	2	8	2	0	0	10	0	148	37	132	63	1	1	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	364	202		
371	Haverford	Haverford College.....	1833	Friends	0	0	18	0	0	0	18	0	0	0	91	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	98	0		
372	Jehonson	Monongahela College.....	1871	Bapt.....	3	1	7	1	0	0	7	1	17	22	40	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	57	51		
373	Lancaster	Franklin and Marshall Col- lege.....	1836	Ref.....	5	0	11	1	0	0	16	1	103	6	169	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	251	0		
374	Lewisburg	Backnell University.....	1846	Bapt.....	4	7	15	0	0	0	19	7	85	98	155	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	240	114		
375	Lincoln University	Lincoln University.....	1857	Presb.....	0	0	9	0	8	0	11	0	0	0	127	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	0	0	0	0	167	0			
376	Loreto	St. Francis College.....	1850	R. C.....	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	221	0			
377	Meadville	Allegheny College.....	1815	M. E.....	5	2	12	3	0	0	13	3	105	49	105	38	0	0	52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	262	87			
378	New Berlin	Central Pennsylvania College.....	1856	Un. Evang	0	0	3	1	1	0	6	2	27	5	31	9	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	61	138			
379	New Wilmington	Westminster College.....	1852	Un. Presb	6	6	6	6	0	0	6	6	48	29	90	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	918	0		
380	Philadelphia	Central High School.....	1838	Nonsect..	0	0	28	0	0	0	28	0	0	0	907	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	178	0		
381do	La Salle College.....	1867	R. C.....	7	0	9	0	0	0	15	0	198	0	70	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	178	0		
382do	University of Pennsylvania.....	1740	Nonsect..	0	0	100	0	293	0	273	0	0	0	635	118	127	24	0	0	1,534	0	0	0	0	0	2,243	157			
383	Pittsburg	Duquesne College.....	1891	Nonsect..	6	3	6	3	0	0	12	6	113	118	50	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	172	170		
384do	Holy Ghost College.....	1878	R. C.....	8	0	12	0	0	0	29	0	120	0	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	180	0		

* Statistics for 1893-94.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of universities and colleges for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name.	Year of openings.	Religious denomination.	Professors and instructors.						Students.											
				Preparatory department.		Collegiate department.		Total.		Preparatory department.		Collegiate department.		Graduate department.		Professional departments.		Total number.			
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		
1	2	3	4																		
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.																					
385	State College.....	1859	Nonsect.....	3	3	3	3	73	13	207	6	1	0	1	0	0	0	286	21		
386	Swarthmore College.....	1869	Friends.....	0	0	14	10	0	0	97	94	0	1	0	0	0	0	97	95		
387	Villanova College.....	1843	R. C.....	2	0	8	0	3	0	52	0	0	0	0	0	13	0	165	0		
388	Volant College.....	1889	Nonsect.....	3	1	2	1	0	0	5	2	120	76	50	41	0	0	170	117		
389	Washington and Jefferson College.....	1802	Presb.....	8	0	12	0	0	0	14	0	79	0	190	0	0	0	270	0		
RHODE ISLAND.																					
390	Brown University.....	1764	Bapt.....	0	0	83	0	0	0	83	0	0	0	534	100	58	6	41	3	633	109
SOUTH CAROLINA.																					
391	College of Charleston.....	1785	Nonsect.....	0	0	6	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	32	0	0	0	0	0	32	0
392	Presbyterian College of South Carolina.....	1881	Presb.....	4	0	6	0	0	0	7	0	36	8	39	23	1	0	0	0	74	33
393	Columbia.....	1880	A. M. E.....	4	0	4	0	4	0	2	0	33	29	3	0	0	0	0	0	131	122
394	do.....	1805	Nonsect.....	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	141	0	2	0	0	0	160	0
395	Erskine College.....	1839	Presb.....	1	0	6	0	0	0	7	0	29	0	56	1	0	0	0	0	85	1
396	Furman University.....	1852	Bapt.....	2	0	8	0	0	0	10	0	40	0	94	5	0	0	0	0	134	5
397	Newberry College.....	1858	Luth.....	1	0	7	0	0	0	8	0	26	0	103	0	1	0	0	0	131	0
398	Orangeburg.....	1869	Nonsect.....	2	8	7	3	0	0	11	325	222	17	6	6	0	0	0	0	342	228
399	Spartanburg.....	1854	M. E. So.....	3	0	7	0	0	0	10	0	50	0	144	0	0	0	0	0	194	0
SOUTH DAKOTA.																					
400	East Pierre.....	1883	Presb.....	2	3	7	2	0	0	3	4	21	51	6	5	0	0	0	0	27	56
401	Hot Springs.....	1890	M. E.....	0	1	7	0	0	0	7	3	29	48	16	6	0	1	0	0	45	56
402	Dakota University.....	1885	M. E.....	6	2	5	1	0	0	9	6	74	27	17	11	0	0	1	0	102	43
403	Redfield.....	1887	Cong.....	4	2	5	2	0	0	7	3	20	1	17	0	0	0	0	0	61	33
404	Vermilion.....	1883	Nonsect.....	10	2	10	2	0	0	12	2	78	96	42	22	3	1	1	0	148	143
405	Yankton College.....	1882	Cong.....	8	4	8	4	0	0	8	4	83	77	24	13	0	0	0	0	115	126

462do	1862	Nonsect ..	0	0	16	2	0	0	183	203	2	6	0	0	21	5	206	219
463	Summer	1890	Presb.....	4	3	5	5	26	14	13	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	20
464	Tacoma.....	1890	M. E.....	11	4	11	4	50	22	10	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	63	23
465	Vancouver.....	1856	R. C.....	2	0	4	0	6	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	34	0
466	Walla Walla.....	1882	Cong.....	5	3	5	3	34	18	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	43	50
WEST VIRGINIA.																			
467	Barboursville.....	1888	M. E., So.....	1	1	3	0	1	0	4	2	20	17	10	6	0	0	56	55
468	Bethany.....	1840	Christian.....	0	0	11	1	0	0	11	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	113	93
469	Flemington.....	1868	F. W. Bapt.....	3	0	0	38	33
470	Morgantown.....	1867	Nonsect.....	2	0	12	0	2	0	16	0	120	0	82	19	0	0	263	20
WISCONSIN.																			
471	Appleton.....	1847	M. E.....	5	2	11	3	0	0	16	5	30	26	66	62	0	0	96	78
472	Beloit.....	1847	Cong. and Presb.....	6	0	18	0	0	0	24	0	296	0	111	0	2	0	409	0
473	Franklin.....	1860	Mission House.....	11	0	7	0	3	0	15	0	44	0	57	0	0	0	107	0
474	Galesville.....	1859	Gale College.....	2	2	2	2	37	30	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	35
475	Madison.....	1851	University of Wisconsin.....	0	0	75	5	13	0	89	5	0	0	846	293	47	9	1,201	319
476	Milton.....	1844	Milton College.....	6	2	5	1	0	0	7	3	58	67	25	11	0	0	83	78
477	Milwaukee.....	1881	Marquette College.....	10	0	6	0	0	0	15	0	99	0	74	0	0	0	232	0
478	Ripon.....	1854	Ripon College.....	9	8	9	8	0	0	9	8	78	49	31	22	0	0	110	115
479	St. Francis.....	1856	Seminary of St. Francis of Sales.....	0	0	7	0	5	0	12	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	220	0
480	Watertown.....	1865	Luth.....	4	0	5	0	0	0	9	0	94	13	55	1	0	0	149	14
WYOMING.																			
481	Laramie.....	1887	Nonsect.....	10	2	10	2	0	0	10	2	36	37	23	10	0	0	59	47

* Statistics for 1893-94.

24	California College.....	4	0	3,000	800	200	60,000	40,000	2,400	1,600	0	0	1,000	5,000	1,000
25	St. Mary's College.....	0	0	10,000	250,000	0
26	Throop Polytechnic Institute.....	13	0	1,500	800	10,000	80,000	60,000	22,850	3,400	0	0	0	28,250	13,500
27	St. Ignatius College.....	3	0	30,000	300	100,000	800,000	0	4,000	0	0	0	0	4,000	45,000
28	University of the Pacific.....	3	0	9,000	3,000	6,000	300,000	45,000	30,000	0	0	0	0	30,000
29	Santa Clara College.....	0	0	18,000	3,000	80,000	95,000	0	*1,500	0	0	0	*1,200	*2,700
30	Pacific Methodist College.....	0	0	40,000	2,000	2,000	30,000	0	250,000	250,000
31	Leland Stanford Junior University.....	1	0	3,000	1,000	6,000	125,000	500,000	15,000	7,000	0	0	0	22,000
32	University of Southern California.....	0	0	1,000	250	1,000	8,000	0	3,000	0	0	0	0	3,000
33	San Joaquin Valley College.....	0	0	1,000
COLORADO.															
34	University of Colorado.....	0	0	12,000	1,100	40,000	200,000	80,000	0	4,000	*60,000	0	1,000	63,000	1,000
35	Colorado College.....	10	0	26,000	6,000	10,000	465,500	190,000	4,500	10,000	0	0	11,000	23,500	24,000
36	Presbyterian College of the South-west.....	0	0	700	500	950	14,630	0	196	0	0	0	547	743	1,868
37	College of the Sacred Heart.....	8,000	1,000
38	University of Denver.....	1	3,000	1,000	33,000	350,000	200,000	15,000
CONNECTICUT.															
39	Trinity College.....	58	1	36,172	23,500	15,000	1,200,000	700,000	15,533	56,418	0	0	17,379	89,330	65,000
40	Wesleyan University.....	3	0	43,000	128,755	539,780	1,101,624	0	0	6,377	705,226	37,800
41	Yale University.....	52	12	220,000	509,000	5,250,000	3,821,876	486,661	212,188	0	0	0	0	286,210
DELAWARE.															
42	Delaware College.....	30	0	6,736	5,714	38,700	82,000	83,000	1,742	4,980	3,000	16,000	0	25,722
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.															
43	Columbian University.....	42	9,000	2,000	25,000	600,000	209,700	51,785	9,466	0	0	8,070	69,321	2,500
44	Gallaudet College.....	60	0	4,000	700,000	4,046	0	0	64,000	749	68,795
45	Georgetown University.....	12	63,500
46	Gonzaga College.....	0	0	9,000
47	Howard University.....	0	0	13,200	500,000	165,000	7,847	8,500	0	23,500	11,548	57,395	7,972
FLORIDA.															
48	John B. Stetson University.....	3	0	6,000	10,000	170,000	100,000	6,261	5,000	0	0	6,947	18,208	61,000
49	Florida Conference College*.....	1	0	600	600	1,000	23,000	0	2,500	2,000	2,000	0	0	4,500
50	St. Leo Military College.....	2,000	200	25,000	0	5,000	0	0	0	0	5,000
51	Seminary West of the Suwannee River.....	750	150	1,000	25,000	85,000	800	4,800	1,000	0	0	6,600
52	Rollins College.....	3,000	100	5,000	67,000	6,000	4,100	210	0	0	0	4,310	14,500
GEORGIA.															
53	University of Georgia.....	14	3	28,000	80,000	500,000	445,217	27,614	20,000	4,527	52,141	3,000
54	Atlanta University.....	0	0	7,548	600	10,000	250,000	10,286	1,550	580	0	0	123	2,253	22,233

* Statistics for 1893-94.

80	Lombard University.....	15	0	7,000	12,000	200,000	1,000	12,000	0	0	0	13,000
81	Greer College.....	0	0	2,200	2,600	50,000	0	4,000	0	0	0	8,380
82	Illinois College.....	8	0	10,200	175,000	130,000	40,000	2,130	0	0	0	6,880
83	Lake Forest University.....	25	0	13,000	500,000	500,000	70,000	39,000	0	0	0	100,000	45,000
84	McKendree College.....	0	0	6,000	60,000	25,000	4,132	1,200	0	0	125	5,517
85	Lincoln University.....	1	0	2,000	4,000	40,000	241	3,200	0	0	1,700	5,141	800
86	Monmouth College.....	4	0	2,000	30,000	105,000	8,500	7,000	0	0	1,500	17,000	40,000
87	Northwestern College.....	0	0	10,000	170,000	85,000	4,000	5,950	0	0	500	10,453	12,000
88	St. Bado College.....	2	500	2,500
89	Chaddock College.....	2	0	2,000	73,000	0	2,203	0	0	0	2,000	4,203	200
90	St. Francis Solanus College.....	0	0	6,500	135,000	0	17,000	0	0	0	17,000	6,000	6,000
91	Angustana College.....	0	0	10,000	178,000	60,000	10,989	3,160	0	0	8,967	23,115	7,725
92	St. Joseph's Diocesan College.....	0	0	3,000	5,000	0	22,000	0	0	0	0	22,000
93	St. Joseph's College.....	19	0	8,000	100,000	115,000	2,200	6,200	0	0	0	8,400
94	Westfield College.....	10	0	2,500	5,000	1,200	2,854	1,100	0	0	2,854	4,732
95	Wheaton College.....	6	0	3,000	4,000	85,000	47,710	7,381	0	0	202	10,076	7,250
INDIAN TERRITORY.													
96	Indian University.....	800	600	35,000	0	750	0	0	4,605	5,355	385
97	Henry Kendall College.....	0	1,000	15,000	0	3,000	0	0	3,500	6,500	0
INDIANA.													
98	Indiana University.....	0	0	20,000	40,000	250,000	10,000	28,000	40,000	0	0	78,000	0
99	Wabash College.....	1	34,000	3,600	94,000	180,000	8,300	25,475	0	0	0	33,775	7,000
100	Concordia College.....	500	22,000	67,000	4,000	10,500	0	0	*12,400	12,400
101	Franklin College.....	10,000	6,500	204,632	132,254	9,000	0	0	935	35,168	14,335
102	De Pauw University.....	14,500	20,000	100,000	175,000	10,000	0	0	2,500	12,500	8,000
103	Hanover College.....	10,000	1,000	10,000	1,000	700	0	0	1,700	2,800
104	Hartsville College.....	1,200	10,000	175,000	1,000	16,000	0	0	920	6,620	830
105	Butler College.....	3	0	10,000	45,000	175,000	253,000	5,174	0	0	2,174	1,054
106	Union Christian College.....	2,630	300	30,000	5,500	3,200	0	0	7,700	18,000
107	Moore's Hill College.....	1	0	2,800	5,000	55,000	6,000	1,100	0	0	*15,000	7,000	1,054
108	University of Notre Dame.....	0	0	47,000	100,000	150,000	70,000	3,800	0	0	16,000	26,800	2,500
109	Earham College.....	6,000	20,000	40,000	0	7,500	0	0	0	0
110	Ridgeville College.....	3,000	4,000
111	St. Meinrad's College.....	10	0	15,000	3,500	*50,000	0	1,400	0	0	1,700	3,100	2,500
112	Taylor University.....	1,300	200	45,000	0
IOWA.													
113	Coe College.....	3	0	2,500	15,000	250,000	80,000	4,000	0	0	3,000	10,000	3,000
114	Charles City College.....	1,000	200	35,000	17,000	1,000	0	0	4,500	6,882	105
115	Warburg College.....	0	0	1,600	2,000	75,000	2,300	2,600	0	0	4,682	5,000
116	Amity College.....	2,500	1,000	35,000	33,000	2,600	0	0	5,000
117	Luther College.....	7,332	10,000	80,000	8,527	434	0	0	0	2,004
118	Des Moines College.....	1	0	4,000	4,500	50,000	2,898	3,441	0	0	2,566	8,908
119	Drake University.....	51	0	3,000	17,000	92,000	22,638	8,112	0	0	0	30,150	17,760
120	Parsons College.....	1	2,500	10,000	100,000	2,500	8,900	0	0	0	11,500
121	Upper Iowa University.....	4,500	7,000	75,000	43,635	6,000	700	0	1,000	7,700	23,155

* Statistics for 1893-94.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of universities and colleges—Continued.

Name.	Scholarships.		Fellowships.		Library.		Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of productive funds.	Income—					Total.	Benefactions.
	25	26	27	28	29	30				31	32	33	34	35		
IOWA—continued.																
122 Iowa College.....	40	0	20,000	\$23,000	\$175,000	\$300,000	\$15,000	\$21,000	0	0	\$2,000	\$98,000	\$35,000		
123 Lenox College.....	4	0	2,560	3,500	31,000	8,000	6,968	1,450	0	0	125	3,541	3,575		
124 Simpson College.....	7,000	1,600	6,400	100,000	64,014	6,037	3,836	0	0	1,571	11,444	10,381		
125 State University of Iowa.....	0	2	40,200	200,000	457,000	230,000	47,030	10,000	\$68,354	0	0	131,384	10,000		
126 German College.....	800	200	20,000	25,000	1,372	1,500	0	0	447	3,319		
127 Iowa Wesleyan University.....	4,800	1,000	500	300,000	35,000	4,020	5,012	0	0	0	9,082	21,000		
128 Cornell College.....	125	0	12,537	500	23,000	215,000	100,000	19,693	4,178	0	0	0	23,871	20,000		
129 Oskatoosa College.....	4,000	10,000	20,000	20,000	1,200	1,200	0	0	0	2,400	1,000		
130 Penn College.....	3	0	3,500	1,000	60,000	25,000	6,000	1,500	0	0	10,000	17,500	10,000		
131 Central University of Iowa.....	5,000	375	20,000	22,600	0	0	0	0		
132 University of the Northwest.....	1,000	500	2,000	75,000	33,000	2,100	0	0	0	400	2,500	2,800		
133 Buena Vista College.....	0	0	300	8,000	45,000	81,000	3,700	5,200	0	0	300	9,200	13,511		
134 Tabor College.....	18	0	6,000	1,000	1,554	67,765	0	3,017	0	0	0	3,698	6,715	18,045		
135 Western College.....	3,000		
KANSAS.																
136 Midland College.....	4,000	5,000	46,500	24,773	4,089	1,664	0	0	5,440	11,183	1,050		
137 St. Benedict's College.....	1	0	12,300	800	5,000	40,000	0	20,000	0	0	0	0	20,000		
138 Baker University.....	5,000	1,200	100,000	40,000	10,000	2,000	0	0	4,000	16,000		
139 Soutle College.....	400	110	1,000	100,000	10,000	600	0	0	0	2,200		
140 College of Emporia.....	2	0	4,000	200	7,000	100,000	10,000	1,600		
141 Central College.....	2,000	500	5,000	30,000	50,000	2,000	1,000	3,000		
142 Highland University.....	4,000	5,000	10,000	40,000	1,200	2,400	0	0	0	3,600	500		
143 Campbell University.....	0	0	500	2,000	40,000	0	13,500	0	0	0	0	13,500	0		
144 University of Kansas.....	0	0	23,721	300	314,000	490,000	250,000	500	8,500	86,500	0	0	95,500	0		
145 Lane University.....	600	150	1,000	40,000	10,000	2,300	450	0	0	500	3,200	2,800		
146 Bethany College.....	4,000	1,000	5,000	125,000	0		
147 Ottawa University.....	2,500	500	4,000	60,000	83,268	5,322	5,106	0	0	618	11,046	2,776		
148 St. Mary's College.....	7,200	180,000	0	30,000	4,000	1,600	0	0	2,400	30,000	2,500		
149 Kansas Wesleyan University.....	5,000	1,000	10,000	55,000	32,000	4,000	1,600	0	0	1,100	8,000	2,500		
150 Cooper Memorial College.....	500	200	500	26,000	20,000	1,500	1,500	0	0	1,100	4,100	1,100		

151	Washington College	6,679	3,000	20,000	200,000	100,000	6,000	6,000	6,000	0	0	0	1,000	13,000	3,000
152	St. John's Lutheran College	500	250	1,500	35,000	0	250	0	0	0	0	0	0	250	3,350
153	Southwest Kansas College	2,500	0	6,000	60,000	0	5,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	5,000	0
KENTUCKY.															
154	Union College	400	0	8,000	8,000	7,000	1,610	252	0	0	0	0	70	1,932	2,475
155	Berea College	7,000	3,000	6,356	110,500	100,000	3,350	4,063	0	0	0	1,000	8,413	21,290	0
156	Ogden College	2,600	750	3,500	40,000	125,000	0	6,300	0	0	0	700	1,000	0	0
157	Columbia Christian College	1,100	50	100	8,000	0	1,200	0	0	0	0	0	1,200	500	0
158	Centre College	7,731	1,500	10,000	*75,000	*250,000	*6,000	*14,000	0	0	0	0	0	*20,000	0
159	Emmoree College*	3,000	500	1,500	30,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
160	Georgetown College	9,000	0	15,000	200,000	215,000	8,000	15,000	0	0	0	0	0	23,000	15,000
161	Liberty College	0	0	50	20,000	0	3,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,000	0
162	South Kentucky College	1,000	0	1,500	50,000	0	4,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,000	0
163	Garrard College*	1,200	50	700	20,000	0	4,800	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,800	0
164	Kentucky University	12,000	2,000	25,000	235,000	203,770	5,380	14,735	0	0	0	1,786	21,901	0	0
165	Central University	3,000	0	4,000	150,000	200,000	5,000	6,000	0	0	0	11,000	22,000	12,000	0
166	Bethel College	5,000	2,000	6,000	62,000	7,745	6,120	0	0	0	0	0	13,865	100	0
167	St. Mary's College	2,000	0	3,000	40,000	0	17,000	0	0	0	0	0	17,000	0	0
168	Kentucky Wesleyan College	2,500	500	3,000	50,000	35,000	3,351	1,800	0	0	0	0	5,151	20,000	0
LOUISIANA.															
169	Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College	20,000	0	25,000	250,000	318,313	0	14,556	14,800	\$24,685	2,713	56,755	0	0	0
170	Jefferson College	0	0	10,000	100,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500	3,750	966
171	Centenary College of Louisiana	4,000	1,560	500	100,000	50,000	2,250	3,000	0	0	0	0	6,475	8,605	600
172	Ketchie College	1,000	0	1,500	3,000	0	2,130	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
173	College of the Immaculate Conception	15,000	2,000	*10,000	*150,000	0	*28,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	*28,000	0
174	Leland University	1,000	0	1,000	175,000	95,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	5,300	8,740	3,000
175	New Orleans University	3,000	1,000	2,000	100,000	0	3,440	0	0	0	0	0	8,000	10,400	1,500
176	Straight University	2,500	1,000	1,000	125,000	9,000	2,000	400	0	0	0	0	27,800	136,400	5,000
177	Tulane University	20,000	5,000	56,000	745,000	1,235,000	25,400	83,200	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MAINE.															
178	Bowdoin College	55,169	800	100,000	500,000	542,549	25,694	24,136	0	0	0	0	49,830	22,850	0
179	Bates College	17,154	0	25,000	250,000	318,000	5,500	18,700	0	0	0	0	24,200	6,707	0
180	Colby University	30,600	10,000	50,000	200,000	495,521	12,695	24,994	0	0	0	0	37,689	0	0
MARYLAND.															
181	St. John's College	6,000	500	10,000	200,000	0	4,000	0	14,200	0	0	0	5,000	22,200	0
182	Johns Hopkins University	70,000	40,000	185,000	600,000	3,000,000	50,000	125,000	0	0	0	0	173,000	0	0
183	Loyola College	40,000	0	30,000	250,000	0	10,000	0	0	0	0	0	10,000	0	0
184	Morgan College	2,000	0	4,000	45,000	22,000	1,388	702	0	0	0	6,083	8,383	6,205	0
185	Washington College	2,500	0	3,000	60,000	30,000	3,000	1,500	4,000	0	0	0	8,500	0	0

* Statistics for 1893-94.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of universities and colleges—Continued.

Name.	2	25	26	Library.		29	30	31	32	33	Income—				37	38
				Bound volumes.	Pamphlets.						From State or municipal appropriation.	From United States Government.	From other sources.	Total.		
MARYLAND—continued.																
186 Rock Hill College.....				4,700	410	\$2,300	\$65,000	0	\$23,000	0	0	0	0	0	\$23,000
187 St. Charles College.....		5	0	14,500		10,000	200,000	0	59,000	0	0	0	0	59,000	\$2,117	
188 Mount St. Mary's College.....		0	0	15,000		10,000	150,000	0	3,000	0	0	0	0	\$2,000	5,000	
189 New Windsor College.....		2	0	2,000	4,000	2,000	40,000	0	3,000	0	0	0	0	\$22,000*	*30,000	
190 Western Maryland College.....		26	0	2,000		3,000	100,000	0	8,000	0	0	0	0	8,000	
MASSACHUSETTS.																
191 Amherst College.....	45	4		63,000	15,000	200,000	600,000	\$1,400,000	42,000	\$52,000	0	0	0	6,000	110,000	30,000
192 Boston College.....	53			28,519		5,000	400,000	0	25,000	0	0	0	0	25,000	0	35,000
193 Boston University.....	2	21		40,000		28,000	700,000	723,832	54,659	103,232	0	0	0	163,891	4,350	
194 Harvard University.....	232	2		452,512	366,540	1,000,000	4,000,000	8,381,582	500,000	332,751	0	0	0	182,190	1,044,941	171,061
195 French-American College.....				763	156	1,000	50,000	0	1,000	0	0	0	0	1,000	18,222	
196 Tufts College.....	55	2		30,000	7,000	70,000	500,000	1,300,000	67,000	23,000	0	0	0	90,000	20,000	
197 Williams College.....	36	50		36,500	5,000	433,450	841,653		30,385	44,709	0	0	0	6,929	82,023	48,750
198 Clark University.....	20	20		16,000	1,500		300,000	0	35,000	0	0	0	0	35,000	25,000	0
199 College of the Holy Cross.....	2			21,000	6,000	20,000										
MICHIGAN.																
200 Adrian College.....				6,000		25,000	100,000	85,000	16,000	12,000	0	0	0	7,000	35,000
201 Albion College.....				10,050	4,000	45,000	110,000	220,000	2,700	4,500	0	0	0	7,200	5,000	
202 Alma College.....		5	0	14,100	10,000	20,000	45,000	70,000	2,700	38,500	0	0	0	16,147	433,014	51,435
203 University of Michigan.....	2	3		98,707	17,241	512,444	1,099,857	542,000	147,545	38,500	\$231,722	0	0	12,000	12,000
204 Battle Creek College.....		0	0	4,000		7,000	98,000		12,000	200	0	0	0	1,325	2,442	274
205 Benzonia College.....		0	0	4,973	892	7,000	10,500	27,000	857	200	0	0	0	8,000	3,000	
206 Detroit College.....		0	0	9,000		160,000	0	0	8,000	0	0	0	0	8,000	0	
207 Hillsdale College.....				8,504		5,000	86,250	200,000	31	12,098	0	0	0	3,313	15,372	
208 Hope College.....				8,000		200,000	112,000		3,387	6,578	0	0	0	9,965	1,571	
209 Kalamazoo College.....				5,346	3,087	60,500	210,812	210,812	8,109	10,752	0	0	0	950	14,820	3,000
210 Olivet College.....		0	0	24,000	24,000	30,694	153,157	120,993	5,000	9,028	0	0	0	7,210	21,758	5,120

MINNESOTA.		MISSISSIPPI.		MISSOURI.							
211	St. John's University	2,500	300	5,000	0	30,000	0	0	0	30,000	
212	Northwestern Christian College	0	125	15,000	0	1,500	0	1,000	0	2,500	
213	Hamline University	6,000	200	195,774	110,000	5,701	4,500	7,430	0	17,631	
214	Augsburg Seminary	2,000		75,000	50,000	4,800	3,000	0	0	7,800	
215	University of Minnesota	41,500	15,000	1,200,000	1,040,000	44,645	49,262	150,800	\$39,750	284,457	
216	Carleton College	12,000		201,231	300,000	8,465	8,804	0	370	17,630	
217	St. Olaf College	6,000		34,328	6,000	1,875	140	0	10,270	18,556	
218	Mankato State College	2,000	200	5,000	20,000	2,000	1,000	0	12,000	12,285	
219	St. Paul's College	7,800	100	65,000	27,000	1,000	750	0	0	13,000	
220	Custarav Adolphus College	0	2,000	20,000	0	10,000	0	10,000	0	20,000	
221	Farker College	0	400	25,500	62,542	0	4,000	0	1,000	6,000	
MISSISSIPPI.											
222	Mississippi College	3,000		6,000	39,000	5,600	2,400	0	0	8,030	
223	Cooper-Huddleston College	3,500	5,000	700	800	3,500	0	580	0	4,080	
224	Rust University	3,000		700	0	1,631	0	9,338	0	10,969	
225	Millsaps College	2,500	3,000	5,000	107,000	7,000	7,000	0	0	12,000	
226	University of Mississippi	14,000	1,200	100,000	564,000	5,000	32,643	0	1,450	39,093	
MISSOURI.											
227	Central Christian College	0	250	2,500	4,300	3,700	0	0	0	3,700	
228	Northwest Missouri College	4	0	700	0	6,500	0	0	0	6,500	
229	Southwest Baptist College	0		600	20,000	2,000				2,000	
230	Pike College	500	50	1,000	10,000	2,000					
231	Missouri Wesleyan College	1,200		375	30,000	1,680	0	0	0	2,680	
232	Christian University	1,000		509	20,000	4,000	1,000	0	0	5,000	
233	St. Vincent's College	12,000	2,000	100,000	0	0	0	0	0	12,000	
234	University of the State of Missouri	17,000	15,000	100,000	1,300,000	13,654	76,835	18,495	33,916	148,700	
235	Grand River Christian Union College	100		25,000	20,000	1,400	2,000	0	0	3,400	
MISSOURI.											
236	Central College	5,100	500	125,000	130,000	6,000	7,000	0	0	13,000	
237	Westminster College	0	6,300	10,500	200,000	3,750	11,324	60	60	15,134	
238	Fritchett School Institute	13	0	7,000	31,000	2,200	3,800	0	0	835	
239	Ozark College	0	0	300	15,000	2,000	0	0	0	6,000	
240	Ia Grange College*	2,400	200	700	10,000	3,000	200	0	0	0	
241	Lawson Presbyterian College	750	600	16,000	10,000	2,000	200	0	0	3,200	
242	William Jewell College	12	0	15,000	215,000	7,000	13,000	0	0	2,000	
243	Missouri Valley College	1,763	500	5,000	125,000	10,463	7,000	0	0	20,000	
244	Morrisville College	300	300	800	10,000	2,500	200	0	0	3,000	
245	Seamitt Collegiate Institute	2,000	150	1,000	30,000	5,000	0	0	0	2,700	
246	Frank College	5,000	500	6,000	252,200	100,000	8,000	0	0	5,000	
247	St. Charles College	1,000	200	2,000	10,000	2,500	600	0	400	8,000	
248	Christian Brothers' College	9	0	11,700	10,000	0	0	0	0	3,500	
249	St. Louis University*	30,000	1,400	5,450	600,000	54,000	0	0	0	54,000	
250	Washington University	30	0	178,000	650,000	120,000	40,000	0	0	26,500	
251	Drury College	22,500	20,000	200,000	160,000	7,000	11,000	0	0	18,000	

* Statistics for 1903-04.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of universities and colleges—Continued.

Name.	Scholarships.	Fellowships.	Library.		Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of productive funds.	Income—						
			Bound volumes.	Pamphlets.				From tuition fees.	From productive funds.	From State or municipal appropriation.	From United States Government.	From other sources.	Total.	Benefactions.
2	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38
MISSOURI—continued.														
252 Terkio College.....	0	0	1,025		\$3,200	\$85,000	\$57,325	\$5,206	\$3,230	0	0	\$1,116	\$9,552	
253 Avalon College.....			4,100		500	50,000	74,000	4,906	4,941	0	0	0	3,847	\$6,000
254 Central Wesleyan College.....						30,000								
MONTANA.														
255 College of Montana.....	1	0	2,000	4,000	3,500	100,000	0	2,500	0	0	0	3,000	5,500	
NEBRASKA.														
256 University of Omaha.....	4	0	2,000	50	2,500	120,000	0	1,600	0	0	0	4,000	5,600	
257 Coe University.....			800	500	2,500	128,000	0	4,000	0	0	0	0	4,000	
258 Union College.....			1,500	200	3,000	250,000	50,000	*25,349				*9,362	*31,711	
259 Doane College.....	0		6,761	3,063	10,000	132,000	65,322	1,800	4,394	0	0	854	8,315	5,083
260 Fairleigh College.....	3		350		400	12,000	2,500	1,800	200	0	0	600	2,000	
261 University of Nebraska.....	0	0	30,000		150,000	700,000	1,000,000	3,000	58,000	\$80,000	\$20,000	0	141,000	0
262 Gates College.....	3	0	5,000	600	7,000	27,000	28,000	2,500	1,400	0	0	0	3,900	4,700
263 Creighton University.....			7,400		30,000	200,000	150,000	3,500	11,000	0	0	0	14,500	0
264 Nebraska Wesleyan University.....			1,900	500	5,000	150,000	175,000	6,000		0	0	0	6,000	
265 York College.....			375		750	40,000	0	1,300	0	0	0	0	1,300	4,500
NEVADA.														
266 State University of Nevada.....	0	0	4,013	2,399	21,462	68,220				15,046	35,000	0	50,046	
NEW HAMPSHIRE.														
267 Dartmouth College.....			75,000	20,000	*100,000	*500,000	*1,076,622	*34,091	*36,960	*7,500	0	*11,587	*90,138	
NEW JERSEY.														
268 St. Benedict's College.....			2,500	100	1,000	22,000	0	2,500					2,500	
269 Rutgers College.....			31,645	5,000							35,000			

337	Miami University.....	15,000	30,000	120,000	60,000	2,000	4,500	14,000	0	9,500	30,000
338	Richmond College.....	3,000	300	40,000	0	3,000	0	0	0	1,000	4,000
339	Rio Grande College.....	3,800	300	40,000	70,000	2,200	4,000	0	0	0	6,200	200
340	Saco College.....	1,500	3,500	50,000	0	7,000	0	0	0	0	7,000
341	Wittenberg College.....	12,000	15,000	350,000	195,000	10,000	11,000	0	0	2,353	21,000	45,000
342	Heidelberg University.....	12,000	1,000	124,000	125,000	389	5,080	0	0	0	7,832	4,500
343	Urbana University.....	6,000	1,000	25,000	60,000	1,000	4,000	0	0	0	5,000
344	Ottendorfer University.....	7,000	6,000	65,000	74,000	3,000	4,889	0	0	1,800	11,689	65,000
345	Wilberforce University.....	5,000	2,000	200,000	25,000	3,500	2,300	12,500	0	8,700	27,000	8,000
346	Wilmington College.....	2,100	4,000	30,000	30,000	3,200	2,000	0	0	600	5,800	1,500
347	University of Wooster.....	15,000	25,000	200,000	200,000	13,140	12,140	0	0	1,720	27,000	6,000
348	Antioch College.....	7,000	7,000	100,000	70,000	4,369	1,725	0	0	0	6,094	300
OKLAHOMA.												
349	University of Oklahoma.....	2,000	4,000	45,000	1,100	5,000	10,000	0	0	16,100	100
OREGON.												
350	University of Oregon.....	5,000	10,000	150,000	160,000	2,400	10,000	30,000	0	0	42,400
351	Pacific University*.....	7,000	2,000	60,000	115,000	2,838	7,200	0	0	0	10,038
352	Lafayette Seminary.....	1,100	200	10,000	0	850	0	0	0	0	350	1,000
353	McMinnville College.....	1,950	4,000	50,000	39,000	1,000	2,900	0	0	500	5,000	21,000
354	Pacific College.....	1,400	3,000	25,000	10,000	2,750	1,000	0	0	250	4,000	500
355	Philomath College.....	1,000	1,000	10,000	6,000	600	600	0	0	0	1,200	0
356	Willamette University.....	4,285	20,000	250,000	40,000	5,400	3,600	0	0	1,000	10,000
357	Portland University.....	1,000	2,000	300,000	0
PENNSYLVANIA.												
358	Western University of Pennsyl- vania.....	15,000	85,355	151,258	276,858	41,995	15,384	0	0	2,379	53,758	8,903
359	Muhlenberg College.....	10,000	10,000	120,000	135,000	3,711	7,099	0	0	3,834	14,614	1,756
360	Lebanon Valley College.....	4,700	600	60,000	21,000	2,180	912	0	0	6,800	9,892	710
361	St. Vincent College.....	40,000	5,000	*150,000	0	0	0	0
362	Geneva College.....	3,000	80,000	150,000	4,475	7,500	0	0	2,025	14,000	1,500
363	Moravian College.....	6,000	80,000	115,000	100	5,700	0	0	200	6,000	3,900
364	Dickinson College.....	30,000	30,000	205,000	304,000	566	18,632	0	0	15,614	84,832	36,800
365	Pennsylvania Military College.....	1,800	130,000	0
366	Saratus College.....	5,500	7,500	125,000	175,000	4,200	7,000	0	0	3,500	14,700	3,500
367	Lafayette College.....	24,800	2,100	695,000	336,000	11,030	16,000	0	0	0	27,000	5,000
368	Pennsylvania College.....	23,000	75,000	256,000	213,000	8,000	12,000	0	0	0	20,000	800
369	Thiel College.....	5,000	200	60,000	65,000	5,000	3,300	0	0	0	8,300
370	Grove City College.....	3,000	800	100,000	100,000	17,500	0	0	0	0	17,500	12,000
371	Haverford College.....	32,000	7,000	400,000	286,000	29,500	15,500	0	0	0	45,400	27,450
372	Monongahela College.....	700	0	0	0	0	700
373	Franklin and Marshall College.....	17,542	2,400	122,000	180,000	0	9,000	0	0	4,500	13,500	2,000
374	Bucknell University.....	13,250	250,000	400,000	*15,000	*17,500	0	0	*17,500	*50,000
375	Lincoln University.....	15,000	35,000	212,000	394,800	22,469	0	0	11,271	23,740
376	St. Francis College.....	5,000	60,000	0

* Statistics for 1893-94.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of universities and colleges—Continued.

Name.	Scholarships.		Fellowships.		Library.		Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of productive funds.	Income—					Total.	Benefactions.
	25	26	27	28	29	30				31	32	33	34	35		
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.																
377 Allegheny College.....	0	0	15,000	1,000	\$60,000	\$150,000	\$165,000	\$10,000	\$8,000	0	0	0	\$3,000	\$21,000	\$2,000	
378 Central Pennsylvania College.....			4,217	300	*3,700	*22,600	*3,300	1,938	100	0	0	0	0	2,038	0	
379 Westminster College.....			5,000		5,000	50,000	125,000	4,500	6,500	0	0	0	0	11,000	0	
380 Central High School.....	0	0	4,000	900	75,000	200,000	0	0	0	\$70,000	0	0	0	70,000	0	
381 La Salle College.....			*8,000	*800	*6,000	*200,000	0	*16,000	0	0	0	0	0	*16,000	0	
382 University of Pennsylvania.....	183	7	120,000	50,000	360,378	2,604,795	1,842,033	251,397	87,858	70,121	0	0	0	409,376	411,479	
383 Duquesne College.....			400	50	1,200	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9,000	0	
384 Holy Ghost College.....	2		2,000			300,000		10,000	0	0	0	0	0	10,000	0	
385 Pennsylvania State College.....	51		9,724		50,000	670,300	517,000	0	31,020	35,331	0	\$35,000	18,898	120,249	0	
386 Swarthmore College.....	2		16,275		30,000	500,000	389,195	0	10,793	0	0	0	10,909	75,054	6,015	
387 Villanova College.....			7,500	1,000	2,000	350,000	0	11,000	0	0	0	0	0	11,000	0	
388 Volant College.....			120	20	500	4,000	0	3,200	0	0	0	0	0	3,200	0	
389 Washington and Jefferson College.....	0	0	12,000		25,000	250,000	270,000	12,633	12,815	0	0	0	1,211	26,659	0	
RHODE ISLAND.																
390 Brown University.....	100	1	82,000	20,000		1,165,967	1,159,833	73,075	69,876	0	0	0	1,368	144,319	16,500	
SOUTH CAROLINA.																
391 College of Charleston.....	7	0	10,000		1,000	100,000	292,700	400	10,422	2,000	0	0	0	12,822	100	
392 Presbyterian College of South Carolina.....	0	0	175		225	23,500	5,000	3,000	600	0	0	0	0	3,600	0	
393 Allen University.....						40,000	1,000	1,050	0	0	0	0	3,950	5,000	600	
394 South Carolina College.....			30,000		50,000	300,000	0	3,500	0	25,000	0	0	0	28,500	0	
395 Erskine College.....			1,000		300	50,000	80,000	0	5,500	0	0	0	0	5,500	0	
396 Furman University.....			3,500	500	5,000	60,000	60,000	4,000	7,000	0	0	0	0	11,000	0	
397 Newberry College.....	4	0	6,600	1,500	5,000	50,000	14,000	3,363	2,114	0	0	0	513	5,990	1,500	
398 Claflin University.....	0	0	1,800	600	3,000	150,000	0	3,000	7,754	0	10,000	0	0	27,754	0	
399 Wofford College.....			12,000		3,000	150,000	65,000	5,000	5,000	0	0	0	3,000	13,000	0	

SOUTH DAKOTA.													
400	Pierre University	2,100	300	1,350	30,000	50,000	5,000	0	0	0	1,200	6,200	700
401	Black Hills College	3,400	300	4,500	75,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,200	700
402	Dakota University	1,200	500	1,500	30,000	1,625	1,000	0	0	0	0	1,625	0
403	Redfield College	1,475	1,000	5,500	115,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	28,725	0
404	University of South Dakota	5,000	1,000	9,000	130,000	50,000	1,000	0	0	0	0	3,500	75,000
405	Yankton College	4,000	3,000	10,000	20,000	22,000	2,300	1,000	0	0	0	3,300	0
406	King College	3,000	300	3,000	300,000	7,000	1,747	201	0	0	0	3,750	2,402
407	U. S. Grant University	8,000	3,000	10,000	100,000	190,000	2,500	12,500	0	0	0	18,000	1,200
408	Southwestern Presbyterian University	2,000	500	1,200	60,000	25,000	1,250	0	0	0	0	1,250	350
409	American Temperance University	3,500	450	8,000	50,000	70,000	8,500	4,200	0	0	0	12,700	0
410	Hivarssee College	1,000	100	2,000	100,000	0	5,500	0	0	0	0	13,150	0
411	Southwestern Baptist University	6,100	6,925	7,730	580,000	425,000	5,802	25,410	0	0	0	11,600	0
412	Knoxville College	6,000	200	5,000	100,000	85,000	9,731	5,000	0	0	0	4,893	0
413	University of Tennessee	2,000	2,000	4,000	110,000	154,000	4,500	0	0	0	0	14,731	1,000
414	Cumberland University	1,174	2,000	2,000	50,000	0	10,500	0	0	0	0	10,500	0
415	Bethel College	6,225	1,092	8,225	16,000	0	1,971	8,685	0	0	0	11,978	0
416	Maryville College	3,000	4,000	4,000	60,000	35,000	3,750	350	0	0	0	4,100	150
417	Christian Brothers College	4,000	2,000	5,000	110,000	15,000	3,500	1,500	0	0	0	5,000	15,000
418	Milligan College	5,227	1,000	10,000	350,000	22,240	5,285	900	0	0	0	4,607	1,687
419	Carson and Newman College	4,800	5,000	5,000	200,000	0	1,162	0	0	0	0	22,185	600
420	Central Tennessee College	12,000	0	150,000	555,000	0	45,000	0	0	0	0	20,300	49,800
421	Fisk University	9	15	34,000	200,000	111,000	13,008	6,660	0	0	0	24,058	0
422	Roger Williams University	3,614	375	500	30,000	0	2,650	0	0	0	0	2,650	0
423	University of Nashville	7,500	500	3,000	28,750	0	2,332	0	0	0	0	2,832	600
424	Vanderbilt University	3,614	350	3,000	15,000	3,000	1,500	300	0	0	0	1,800	0
425	University of the South	3,614	375	500	30,000	0	2,650	0	0	0	0	2,650	0
426	Burritt College	7,500	350	3,000	15,000	3,000	1,500	300	0	0	0	1,800	0
427	Sweetwater College	1,400	300	300	80,000	0	3,442	34,368	0	0	0	73,810	500
428	Greenville and Tusculum College	14	11	75,000	300,000	571,340	9,100	1,271	0	0	0	2,269	0
429	Washington College	14	500	3,000	75,000	33,000	6,500	500	0	0	0	7,000	5,000
430	St. Edward's College	1,400	300	300	80,000	0	3,442	34,368	0	0	0	73,810	500
431	University of Texas	14,000	20	250	8,500	9,100	9,100	728	0	0	0	270	0
432	Evangelical Lutheran College	1,200	300	1,600	60,000	5,000	6,500	500	0	0	0	7,000	5,000
433	Howard Payne College	0	0	300	7,000	0	4,000	0	0	0	0	4,000	0
434	Henry College	2,000	300	16,500	100,000	0	21,500	0	0	0	0	1,700	2,100
435	Fort Worth University	1,500	300	4,000	125,000	0	18,000	0	0	0	0	3,000	6,000
436	Southwestern University	0	700	600	25,000	0	3,688	0	0	0	0	4,875	6,680
437	Wiley University	0	1,300	8,000	100,000	0	20,000	0	0	0	0	1,788	0
438	St. Louis College	0	4,000	3,000	50,000	70,000	4,500	3,500	0	0	0	8,000	4,000
439	Austin College	2,000	500	3,000	75,000	33,000	6,700	3,300	0	0	0	10,900	0
440	Trinity University	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

* Statistics for 1893-94.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of universities and colleges—Continued.

Name.	2	Scholarships.		Fellowships.		Library.		Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of productive funds.	Income—					
		25	26	27	28	29	30				31	32	33	34	35	36
TEXAS—continued.																
441 Add-Ram Christian University.....				2,044	1,000	\$3,650	\$46,315	0	\$9,506	0	0	0	0	\$2,880	\$13,386	\$500
442 Baylor University.....			6,000	300	*5,000	*250,000		1,800								
443 Paul Quinn College*.....			400	500	700	65,000								3,500	5,300	
UTAH.																
444 Brigham Young College.....			2,500	600	1,047	131,536	\$96,427	2,137	\$15,000	0	0	0	0	0	17,137	1,264
445 University of Utah.....			15,500	5,000	50,000	280,000	195,000	3,540	1,800	\$30,000	0	0	0	0	35,340	60,000
VERMONT.																
446 University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.....			49,695	12,000	180,000	537,000	406,000	7,275	29,702	6,000	\$20,000	0	8,548	62,525	220,000	
447 Middlebury College.....			17,000	1,000	25,000	105,000	377,800	3,012	14,022	2,400	0	0	0	19,444	147,250	
VIRGINIA.																
448 Randolph-Macon College.....			8,500		17,168	377,634	224,654	32,461	16,666	0	0	0	0	49,127	1,000	
449 Bridgewater College.....			1,000		1,200	14,000	8,000	2,250	480	0	0	0	0	2,730	500	
450 University of Virginia.....			53,000		*300,000	*1,000,000	*458,000	*32,822	*19,792	*40,000	0	0	*54,577	*147,191		
451 Emory and Henry College.....			10,000		10,000	90,000	25,000	2,810	1,200	0	0	0	5,900	10,000	1,000	
452 Hampton Sidney College.....			10,000	2,000	2,000	123,000	148,000	2,225	8,326	0	0	0	2,000	12,551	395	
453 Washington and Lee University.....			32,000	10,000	63,400	200,000	637,300	5,500	33,800	0	0	0	0	43,300	1,100	
454 New Market Polytechnic Institute.*			530	300	2,000	2,900	0	2,000	0	0	0	0	0	2,000		
455 Richmond College.....			12,200	5,000	20,000	300,000	250,000	7,500	15,600	0	0	0	0	23,100		
456 Roanoke College.....			17,000		30,000	73,000	50,000	6,000	2,000	0	0	0	5,100	13,100	14,000	
457 College of William and Mary.....			7,725	300	800	100,000	125,900	1,241	3,954	15,000	0	0	0	20,195		
WASHINGTON.																
458 Washon College.....			650	270	1,000	32,000	0	8,520	0	0	0	0	1,530	10,050	0	
459 Colfax College.....			1,000	500	250	13,000	0	2,000	0	0	0	0	2,000	2,000	0	

460	Walla Walla College.....	800	150	1,000	50,000	0	4,000	0	0	0	0	4,000	0
461	University of Seattle.....	200	0	50	20,000	0	1,241	0	0	0	0	1,241	0
462	University of Washington.....	4,000	2,000	25,000	1,500,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	95,000	0
463	Whitworth College*.....	230	130	300	32,000	0	2,800	0	0	0	0	7,300	0
464	Puget Sound University.....	2,000	1,000	1,500	20,000	0	1,582	0	0	0	0	25,000	800
465	St. James College.....	300	200	1,000	10,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
466	Whitman College.....	3,650	1,850	600	25,000	8,000	1,798	0	0	0	0	3,339	11,467
WEST VIRGINIA.													
467	Barboursville College.....	400	100	1,000	20,000	0	1,600	0	0	0	0	1,900	0
468	Bethany College.....	3,000	1,000	5,000	100,000	0	5,000	0	0	0	0	10,000	0
469	West Virginia College*.....	420	200	1,000	12,000	0	1,000	0	0	0	0	1,000	0
470	West Virginia University.....	10,955	3,158	25,000	300,000	110,000	2,188	5,388	20,400	32,000	1,827	61,803	0
WISCONSIN.													
471	Lawrence University.....	14,297	1,263	40,000	110,000	145,000	3,500	6,200	0	0	0	13,300	30,000
472	Detroit College.....	20,000	20,000	100,000	314,000	436,808	9,295	18,831	0	0	0	31,196	75,000
473	Mission House.....	0	0	0	35,000	0	1,955	0	0	0	0	1,955	11,914
474	Grae College.....	3,000	200	2,000	6,000	0	750	400	0	0	0	1,350	4,100
475	University of Wisconsin.....	133,200	77,000	500,000	1,250,000	525,000	36,000	32,000	274,150	35,000	12,000	389,150	0
476	Milton College.....	3,200	550	9,500	31,000	85,743	2,149	1,954	0	0	0	6,123	371
477	Marquette College.....	9,100	1,020	2,700	130,000	0	7,000	0	0	0	0	7,000	500
478	Ripon College.....	7,000	10,000	10,000	200,000	0	15,000	0	0	0	0	19,000	0
479	Seminary of St. Francis of Sales.....	13,500	1,250	0	200,000	0	30,000	0	0	0	0	30,000	0
480	Northwestern University.....	2,000	0	3,000	62,000	0	1,200	0	0	0	0	13,200	15,500
WYOMING.													
cs1	University of Wyoming.....	3,307	2,100	35,000	120,000	0	253	0	3,250	20,000	1,158	24,661	0

* Statistics for 1893-94.

Statistics of university extension.

Location of center.	Subject of course.	Lectures in course.	Average attendance at lectures.	Average attendance at class.	Average weekly papers.	Passed examination.	Rejected.
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.							
Oakland, Cal.....	Economic Questions of the Day.....	12					
	Poets of the Nineteenth Century.....	6					
San Francisco, Cal.....	Phenomena of Glacial Action.....	3					
	Classic Period of German Literature, 1748-1832.....	6					
	Edipus Tyrannus of Sophocles.....	7					
	Political Science.....	7					
	Glaciers and Glacial Epoch in California.....	3					
	Napoleon and his Epoch.....	6					
	Poets of the Nineteenth Century.....	6					
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY.							
Eureka, Cal.....	Biology.....	24	200				
Oakland, Cal.....	Applications of Evolution.....	9	300				
	Applied Sociology.....	16					
Riverside, Cal.....	Education.....	8	200				
Sacramento, Cal.....	Masters of Greek Sculpture.....	7					
San Francisco, Cal.....	Social Evolution.....	3					
San Jose, Cal.....	Good Government.....	4	200				
	Social Evolution.....	4					
Stockton, Cal.....	Modern Poetry and Modern Life.....	8					
	Psychology of Childhood.....	6					
Portland, Oreg.....	Applications of Evolution.....	3	100				
	Evolution.....	3	200				
	Economics.....	8					
	Social Evolution.....	3					
COLORADO COLLEGE.							
Colorado Springs, Colo.....	Government in the United States.....	13					
	Popular Course on Scientific Subjects.....	4					
	Ethics of the Old Testament.....	3					
	Ethics of the New Testament.....	3					
	Early English Life and Literature.....	6					
	Astronomy.....	6					
	Introductory Course in Psychology.....	12					
	A Study of Four Religions of the East.....	4					
	Geology.....	12					
CONNECTICUT SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING.							
Hartford, Conn.....	Elizabethan Drama.....	6	100				
	Literature of Age of Queen Anne.....	8	300				
	Nineteenth Century Literature in France.....	6	100				
Meriden, Conn.....	Electricity.....	6	600				
	English Literature.....	6	600				
New Haven, Conn.....	Electricity.....	6	175				
	History of Fiction.....	6	250				
	Sociology.....	6	60				
New London, Conn.....	Electricity.....	6					
Waterbury, Conn.....do.....	6	350				
	English Literature.....	6	400				
	Evolution.....	4	350				
	Physical Culture.....	2	300				
	Study of Flowers.....	2	300				
HOWARD UNIVERSITY.							
Washington, D. C.....	Teaching Geology.....	8	50	43		43	7
	Travels in Holy Land.....	3	25	20			
	Teaching Zoology.....	4	52	48		48	4
UNION CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.							
Merom, Ind.....	Biblical Literature.....	6	30	22	14	18	
	Geology.....	4	40	26	18	20	
BATES COLLEGE, LEWISTON, ME.							
Foxcroft, Me.....	Elementary Physics.....	5	70	50			
Fryeburg, Me.....	Education.....	2	65	20			

Statistics of university extension—Continued.

Location of center.	Subject of course.	Lectures in course.	Average attendance at lectures.	Average attendance at class.	Average weekly papers.	Passed examination.	Rejected.
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, ANN ARBOR, MICH.							
Charlotte, Mich.....	English Literature.....	6	100				
Three Rivers, Mich.....	do.....	6	100				
UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.							
Albany, N. Y.....	Political Methods.....	10	255	224	4	7	0
Buffalo, N. Y.....	Money, Banking, and the Silver Question..	10	212	132	15	12	3
Clyde, N. Y.....	Early Christian Church.....						
Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.....	Civil and Religious Liberty in America.....	10	73				
Fairport, N. Y.....	Labor and Capital.....	10	128	79			
Geneva, N. Y.....	English Literature.....	10	74				
Gloversville, N. Y.....	Economics.....						
Lockport, N. Y.....	Modern Authors.....						
Lowville, N. Y.....	Development of the Nation.....	10	170	86	11	2	0
Mount Vernon, N. Y.....	Civil and Religious Liberty in America.....	10	117	19	3		
	Astronomy.....	10	97				
	French Literature.....	10	89				
New York, N. Y.....	Electricity.....	11	64	25	22	17	0
Oneida, N. Y.....	Early American History.....	10	209				
	American Colonial History.....	8	105	97			
Rochester, N. Y.....	Money, Banking, and the Silver Question..	10	292	247		1	0
	American Literature.....	10	260	187	9	8	1
	Art of Photography.....	10	94	75			
	Civil War.....	10	187	148	22	12	0
	Life in Old Florence.....	10	205	152	9	6	0
	Labor and Capital.....	10	57	57			
Rome, N. Y.....	American History.....	5	121				
	American Literature.....	4	163	68			
Saratoga, N. Y.....	English Literature.....	10	148	78	5	9	6
Syracuse, N. Y.....	Romeo and Juliet and the Tempest.....	10				8	0
Tarrytown, N. Y.....	French History.....	10	144	43	2	2	0
Utica, N. Y.....	English Novel.....	10	110	45			
Waverly, N. Y.....	European Statesmen.....	5	139	42	4		
Yonkers, N. Y.....	Geology.....	10	142	25		5	1
	Architecture.....	5	67				
SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY, SYRACUSE, N. Y.							
Silver Lake, N. Y.....	English Literature.....	5	100				
	Roman History.....	6	100				
UNIVERSITY OF OREGON, EUGENE, OREG.							
Astoria, Oreg.....	English Literature.....	5	150	0	0	0	0
Salem, Oreg.....	do.....	5	100	0	0	0	0
WESTERN UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PITTSBURG, PA.							
Pittsburg, Pa.....	Astronomy.....	10	200				
Franklin, Pa.....	do.....	10	150				
Wilksburg, Pa.....	do.....	10	50				
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, WIS.							
Oshkosh, Wis.....	Economic Problems of the Present Day....	6	400	350			
Waupun, Wis.....	do.....	6	125	109			
Green Bay, Wis.....	do.....	6	150	125			
Wauwatosa, Wis.....	do.....	6	175	150			
Milwaukee, Wis.....	do.....	6	300	250			
	do.....	6	150	125			
Baraboo, Wis.....	do.....	6	150	125			
Sparta, Wis.....	do.....	6	175	150			
La Crosse, Wis.....	do.....	6	200	150			
Racine, Wis.....	do.....	6	175	150			
Janesville, Wis.....	do.....	6	250	200			

Statistics of university extension—Continued.

Location of center.	Subject of course.	Lectures in course.	Average attendance at lectures.	Average attendance at class.	Average weekly papers.	Passed examination.	Rejected.
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, WIS.—continued.							
River Falls, Wis.	Astronomy	6	200	140			
Hudson, Wis.	do	6	140	70			
Menomonie, Wis.	do	6	175	100			
Monroe, Wis.	do	6	125	75			
Sheboygan, Wis.	do	6	300	125		3	
Milwaukee, Wis.	Ethics	6	120	30			
	Vegetable Physiology	6	75				
Oshkosh, Wis.	The Government of Cities	6	100	75			
Galesburg, Ill.	Socialism and Social Reform	6	250	100		2	
Eau Claire, Wis.	American Politics, 1789-1840	6	250	100			
La Crosse, Wis.	do	6	250	100			
Sparta, Wis.	do	6	100	75			
Winona, Wis.	do	6	300	200			
Merrill, Wis.	do	6	100	50			
Wausau, Wis.	do	6	100	50			
Galesburg, Ill.	Heredity	6	100	60			
Chicago, Ill., Newberry Library	Studies in Shakespeare	6	250	100		2	
Milwaukee, Wis., South Side High School	English Life and Literature	6	300	200			
Stevens Point, Wis.	Studies in Shakespeare	6	200	100			
Marshfield, Wis.	do	6	150	50			
Beaver Dam, Wis.	do	6	275	150		18	6
Lake Mills, Wis.	English Life and Literature	6	120	60		7	2
Evansville, Wis.	do	6	160	75			
Decorah, Iowa	do	6	150	75			
Oshkosh, Wis.	World Epics	6	250	75			
Galesburg, Ill.	Studies in Shakespeare	6	200	80			
Watertown, Wis.	do	6	125	100			
Appleton, Wis.	The Making of Wisconsin	6	150	25			
Whitewater, Wis.	Early Scandinavian History and Literature	4	200				
AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING.							
Allegheny, Pa.	English Poets of the Revolution Age	6	110	80			
	Shakespeare: The Man and His Mind	6	100	82	1	1	
Allentown, Pa.	Certain Poets and Prose Writers of New England	6	150	50			
Altoona, Pa.	Shakespeare	6	275			2	
Ansonia, Conn.	Representative English Authors of the Nineteenth Century	6	260	150			
	Poetry and Romance in New England	6	190	150			
Archbald, Pa.	Shakespeare	6	109				
Association Local (Philadelphia).	English History	10	130				
	Literary Study of Homer	6	170	145	3	3	
	The Making of England	6	637	315		8	1
	Medieval England	6	700	275		10	
	Botany	6	153			5	1
Atlantic City, N. J.	Astronomy	6	300				
Baltimore, Md.	Age of Elizabeth	6	300	25			
Beaver, Pa.	English Poets of the Revolution Age	6	90	88			
Beaver Falls, Pa.	Shakespeare: The Man and His Mind	6	105				
Bellefonte, Pa.	The Poetry of the Nineteenth Century	2	105				
	English Authors	4	105				
Bethlehem, Pa.	Life in Ancient Cities	6	105				
	Poetry and Romance in New England	6	93	61			
Bloomsburg, Pa.	The Poetry of the Nineteenth Century	2	105				
	Certain Poets and Prose Writers of New England	6	243	180	2		
Boston, Mass.	Special Topics	6	105				
Bradnock, Pa.	English Poets of the Revolution Age	6	124	91			
	Shakespeare: The Man and His Mind	6	154	151			
Bradford, Pa.	American Political History	6	76	74			
Bridgport, Conn.	Representative English Authors of the Nineteenth Century	6	148	74	2		
Butler, Pa.	Shakespeare: The Man and His Mind	6	191	144		1	
	Early English Literature and History	6	91	44			

Statistics of university extension—Continued.

Location of center.	Subject of course.	Lectures in course.	Average attendance at lectures.	Average attendance at class.	Average weekly papers.	Passed examination.	Rejected.
AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING—continued.							
Brooklyn Institute, New York.	Literary Study of Homer.....	6	105				
Camden, N. J.....	History of Venice.....	6	105				
	American Literature.....	6	130	100	4	4	
Carbondale, Pa.....	Florentine History.....	6	300		4	4	
Carlisle, Pa.....	The American Railway.....	6	48				
	American Political History.....	6	150	105			
	Representative English Authors of the Nineteenth Century.....	6	150	88			
Chambersburg, Pa.....	Development of Classical Music.....	6	180	20	3	3	
	Certain Poets and Prose Writers of New England.....	6	57	48	5		
Chester, Pa.....	Comparative Religion.....	6	125	98	1		
Church of the Covenant (Philadelphia).	American Political History.....	6	93	74			
Church of the Holy Apostles (Philadelphia).	Books and Reading.....	8	20				
Church of the Messiah (Philadelphia).	The American Citizen.....	6	74				
Church of Reformation (Brooklyn).	Shakespeare.....	6	52				
College Settlement (Philadelphia).	Civics.....	5	8				
Concord, Mass.....	Special Topics.....	4	70	60			
Dover, Del.....	Poetry and Romance in New England.....	6	150	50			
Downingtown, Pa.....	English Literature.....	6	125				
East Orange, N. J.....	Shakespeare.....	6	80	80			
Frankford (Philadelphia)....	English Literature.....	6	77	16	6	2	
	Development of Classical Music.....	6	82	32			
Franklin, Pa.....	Early English Literature and History.....	6	53	45			
	Between the Two Wars.....	6	219	166	4	4	
Fredericksburg, Va.....	Development of Classical Music.....	6	175				
Germantown (Philadelphia).	History of Venice.....	6	600	190	7	5	
	The Making of England.....	6	600	75	6		
Germantown Y. M. C. A. (Philadelphia).	Electricity.....	10	17			2	
Gilberts, Pa.....	American Political History.....	5	105				
Grace M. E. Church (Philadelphia).	The Crusades.....	10	38				
Greensburg, Pa.....	Early English Literature and History.....	6	175	125			
Haddonfield, N. J.....	Comparative Religion.....	6	189	30	12		
Hagerstown, Md.....	Certain Poets and Prose Writers of New England.....	6	80	12	1		
Harrisburg, Pa.....	Shakespeare.....	6	200	75	4	4	
Hazleton, Pa.....	Poetry and Romance in New England.....	6	192	168	6	1	
Hebrew Literature Society (Philadelphia).	Civics.....	6	40	20			
Hyde Park, Pa.....	Physiology and Hygiene.....	6	75	40			
Indiana, Pa.....	Milton's Paradise Lost and Goldsmith.....	6	65				
Johnstown, Pa.....	Browning and Tennyson.....	2	170	163			
	do.....	2	130	63			
Keene, N. H.....	Causes of National Prosperity.....	2	60				
	Representative English Authors of the Nineteenth Century.....	6	200	75	3	1	
Lancaster, Pa.....	Age of Elizabeth.....	6	375	75			
Lehigh ave. (Philadelphia).	American Literature.....	10	44				
Lehighon, Pa.....	Certain Poets and Prose Writers of New England.....	6	66	38	1		
Lock Haven, Pa.....	Literature of the Nineteenth Century.....	3	75	25	1		
	English Authors.....	3	75	25	1		
Marietta, Ohio.....	American Political History.....	6	75	30	5	4	2
Marlton, N. J.....	Political Economy.....	6	85	9	5	5	
Mauch Chunk, Pa.....	Representative English Authors of the Nineteenth Century.....	6	115	34			
Medford, Mass.....	Poetry and Romance in New England.....	6	196	156		2	
Media, Pa.....	American Political History.....	5	350				
	Poetry and Romance in New England.....	6	125	50		1	1
Memorial Baptist Church (Philadelphia).	Current Topics.....	6	250				

Statistics of university extension—Continued.

Location of center.	Subject of course.	Lectures in course.	Average attendance at lectures.	Average attendance at class.	Average weekly papers.	Passed examination.	Rejected.
AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING—continued.							
Mercer, Pa.	Shakespeare	6	125				
Milford, Del.	Poetry and Romance in New England	6	101	73			
	American Political History	6	100	82			
Morristown, N. J.	Astronomy	6	250	30			
Montclair, N. J.	Shakespeare	6	75				
New Brighton, Pa.	do	6	203	189			
	Early English Literature and History	6	167	23			
New Hope, Pa.	Shakespeare	6	90	40		1	1
New Wilmington, Pa.	Early English Literature and History	6	105				
Niles, Ohio	Shakespeare	6	130	82	1	1	
Norristown, Pa.	Comparative Religion	6	111	109			
North Philadelphia (Philadelphia).	Poetry and Romance in New England	6	210	91		1	
	Florentine History	6	480	179			
Ogontz, Pa.	do	6	106				
Orange, N. J.	History of Venice	6	290	50			
Paterson, N. J.	American Political History	5	99	31			
	Poetry and Romance in New England	6	145	82			
Pennsylvania R. R. Y. M. C. A.	The American Railway	6	20	20			
	Certain Poets and Prose Writers of New England	6	29	14	1		
Philipsburg, Pa.	Milton's Paradise Lost and Goldsmith	6	65				
Pottstown, Pa.	First Quarter of the Nineteenth Century in the United States	6	59	10	2	2	
Pottstown Hill School	Poetry and Romance in New England	6	105				
Reading, Pa.	Art of Music	6	150				
	Puritan Revolution	6	173		3		
Reed School (New York)	Literature	6	105				
Sharon, Pa.	Shakespeare	6	219	75		2	
Scranton, Pa.	History of Venice	6	200				
S. E. B. Y. M. C. A. (Philadelphia).	Civics	10	25				
South Philadelphia (Philadelphia).	English History	6	60	50			
	Studies in English Literature	6	56	43	1	1	
Spring City, Pa.	Poetry and Romance in New England	6	105				
Stuebenville, Ohio	American Political History	6	210	60	3	1	
	English Poets of the Revolution Age	6	220	144			
	Shakespeare	6	236	220			
Summit, N. J.	do	6	105				
Touro Hall (Philadelphia)	American History	6	164	123	1	4	
Trenton, N. J.	Money and Banking	6	105				
	Development of the United States	6	93				
Tunkhannock, Pa.	Shakespeare	6	80	50	5		
Upland, Pa.	English History	6	82	42	1		
Washington, Pa.	English Poets of the Revolution Age	6	150				
Warren, Ohio	Shakespeare	6	179	75			
West Chester, Pa.	Bayard Taylor and his Friends	6	162				
West Philadelphia (Philadelphia).	History of Venice	5	55				
	do	6	240			3	
	Development of Classical Music	6	304				
West Spruce Street Church, Philadelphia, Pa.	American Literature	10	127				
Wilkes Barre, Pa.	Certain Poets and Prose Writers of New England	6	130	75			
Williamsport, Pa.	Life in Ancient Cities	6	185	150			
Wilmington, Del.	History of Venice	6	500	15	15		
	Political Economy	6	100	75			
Woodbury, N. J.	Industrial Basis of American Institutions	6	80	75			
	Poetry and Romance in New England	6	96	86	2		

In addition to the detailed statistics for the year 1894-95, the following summarized statement concerning the work of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching for the past five years was furnished by Dr. Edward T. Devine, secretary:

Year.	Courses.	Lectures.	Average attendance.	Total attendance.
1890-91	42	298	176	7,392
1891-92	120	715	176	21,120
1892-93	108	625	174	18,822
1893-94	114	679	155	17,614
1894-95	126	723	158	20,000

University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.—The extension work of the University of Chicago for the year 1894-95 is thus described in the Quarterly Calendar for August, 1895:

"In the lecture-study department there have been given 128 courses, with an average attendance at each lecture of 185, the different people attending numbering 23,628. In connection with these lectures 69 different syllabi were published, of which 16,259 were sold, realizing \$1,420.93.

"The university extension lecture staff of the year has numbered just 100, viz, 7 extension professors, 7 extension instructors, 27 university (proper) professors, 20 university (proper) instructors, 17 graduate students, and 22 nonresident lecturers. There have been in all 69 traveling libraries, containing 1,935 volumes. Of these, 27 libraries (828 volumes) have been collected during the year. From the sale of books there has been received \$166.05.

"Of the whole number of extension centers established by the university (117), 92 have been active during the year, 25 inactive. The 128 courses have been distributed as follows: California, 1; Chicago, 29; Illinois (outside of Chicago), 45; Indiana, 12; Iowa, 11; Michigan, 23; Minnesota, 3; Missouri, 2; Ohio, 1; Wisconsin, 1.

"These courses, so far as concerns departments, have been distributed as follows: Sociology and anthropology, 39; English language and literature, 37; history, 33; biblical literature, 7; political economy, 4; astronomy, 4; geology, 3; Scandinavian languages and literature, 1.

"In the class work of the extension division 102 courses in 21 departments were given, with an enrollment of 2,193. The average number in a class was 22, and 32 different instructors were employed. These classes were distributed as follows: In biblical literature, 10 classes, with an enrollment of 674; in geology, 5, with an enrollment of 399; in philosophy, 5, with an enrollment of 273; in botany, 8, with an enrollment of 231; in English, 13, with an enrollment of 127; in Latin, 11, with an enrollment of 79; in zoology, 3, with an enrollment of 66; in history, 7, with an enrollment of 56; in German, 6, with an enrollment of 53; in political economy, 5, with an enrollment of 52; in sociology, 3, with an enrollment of 46; in political science, 6, with an enrollment of 41; in French, 8, with an enrollment of 37; in mathematics, 4, with an enrollment of 32; in Greek, 3, with an enrollment of 9; in Scandinavian language and literature, 1, with an enrollment of 7; in physiology, 1, with an enrollment of 4; in chemistry, 1, with an enrollment of 2; in bacteriology, 1, with an enrollment of 2.

"In the correspondence work of the division there have been 64 courses in 17 departments, with an enrollment of 368, pursuing studies under 36 instructors."

University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans.—There were 10 courses of lectures delivered at 6 different centers by 7 different lecturers. The average attendance ranged 60 to 200, with a total average attendance of 1,260.

Colby University, Waterville, Me.—The following courses of lectures were delivered: Systematic theology, 5 lectures, at Waterville; Italian painting, 10 lectures, at Waterville; and a cooperative course of 4 lectures on The Revival of Patriotism, The City of Florence, Education, and Historic Spots in Virginia, at Fairfield, Me. There were also delivered 17 single lectures.

Brown University, Providence, R. I.—There were delivered during the year 23 courses of lectures, an increase of 7 courses over the number delivered in 1893-94. The attendance has increased from 600 to more than 1,000. The 23 courses were delivered at 8 different centers by 6 different lecturers. The subjects of the courses were English literature, German literature, political economy, mediæval and ecclesiastical history, and social science.

Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, Brooklyn, N. Y., was founded in 1824 for the purpose of establishing for the apprentices of Brooklyn a free library. The scope of the institute was broadened gradually, so that in the year 1887-88 courses of lectures on art and science were instituted. The number of lectures delivered in succeeding years has increased very rapidly—from 78 in 1887-88 to 2,621 in 1894-95.

The members of the institute now number 3,764, and are divided into departments representing 25 various branches of art and science. The departments with their membership are as follows:

Department.	1893-94.	1894-95.	Order of size.
Archæology	129	133	17
Architecture	266	262	6
Astronomy	156	171	11
Botany	244	247	8
Chemistry	150	138	15
Domestic science	42	63	24
Electricity	237	224	10
Engineering	140	134	16
Entomology	39	52	25
Fine arts	477	535	4
Geography	172	170	12
Geology	159	156	13
Law	87	119	20
Mathematics	51	72	23
Microscopy	143	122	18
Minerology	126	120	19
Music	485	603	3
Painting	94	99	22
Pedagogy	414	485	5
Philology	879	1,013	1
Photography	248	256	7
Physics	159	146	14
Political science	644	673	2
Psychology	178	225	9
Zoology	102	103	21
Total	5,821	6,326	

The growth of the institute is shown in the following figures taken from the Year-Book for 1894-95:

Membership.

June 1—	Members.	Annual increase.	June 1—	Members.	Annual increase.
1883	82	1892	1,782	458
1889	352	270	1893	2,622	840
1890	1,118	766	1894	2,457	835
1891	1,324	206	1895	3,764	307

Lectures, meetings, and class exercises

Year.	Meetings open to all members.	Special meetings and class exercises.	Total.	Year.	Meetings open to all members.	Special meetings and class exercises.	Total.
1887-88	18	60	78	1891-92	405	1,134	1,539
1888-89	90	104	194	1892-93	482	1,397	1,879
1889-90	230	215	445	1893-94	489	1,723	2,212
1890-91	312	622	934	1894-95	496	2,125	2,621

Attendance.

Year.	Average attend- ance.		Total at- tendance for the year.	Year.	Average attend- ance.		Total at- tendance for the year.
	Daily.	Per exer- cise.			Daily.	Per exer- cise.	
1887-88.....	86	86	6,900	1891-92.....	541	98	120,500
1888-89.....	112	94	18,300	1892-93.....	936	102	190,900
1889-90.....	230	104	46,950	1893-94.....	1,177	96	212,415
1890-91.....	486	106	99,200	1894-95.....	1,024	82	215,150

Resources.

Year.	Annual income.	Permanent funds.	Year.	Annual income.	Permanent funds.
1887-88.....	\$4,457	\$37,000	1891-92.....	\$18,934	\$200,000
1888-89.....	7,364	46,000	1892-93.....	31,642	211,000
1889-90.....	11,412	66,000	1893-94.....	40,169	215,000
1890-91.....	13,218	139,000	1894-95.....	44,756	18,384

V.—COLLEGES

TABLE 1.—Statistics of colleges

Location.	Name.	Religious denomination.	Year of opening.	Professors and instructors.						Students.				
				Preparatory department.		College department.		Total.		Preparatory.	Collegiate.	Resident.	Nonresident.	Total.
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Mills College, Cal.	Mills College.....	Nonsect.	1864	0	5	1	9	5	20	2	10	1	146
2 Rockford, Ill....	Rockford College.	Nonsect.	1849	2	14	2	15	2	17	113	26	139
3 Baltimore, Md..	Woman's College of Baltimore.	M. E.	1888	0	0	13	16	13	16	0	206	2	0	208
4 Cambridge, Mass.	Radcliffe College..	Nonsect.	1879	0	0	83	0	83	0	0	255	29	0	284
5 Northampton, Mass.	Smith College....	Nonsect.	1875	0	0	12	28	12	28	0	785	2	0	787
6 South Hadley, Mass.	Mount Holyoke College.	Nonsect.	1837	0	0	5	35	5	35	0	320	5	2	327
7 Wellesley, Mass.	Wellesley College	Nonsect.	1875	0	0	5	72	5	72	0	760	20	0	780
8 Princeton, N. J.	Evelyn College....	Nonsect.	1887	0	6	16	5	16	6	15	20	35
9 Aurora, N. Y....	Wells College....	Nonsect.	1868	0	2	4	10	4	14	14	52	77
10 Elmira, N. Y....	Elmira College....	Presb...	1855	6	12	6	12	89	3 185
11 New York, N. Y.	Barnard College..	Nonsect.	1883	0	0	20	1	20	1	0	72	19	121
12 Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	Vassar College....	Nonsect.	1865	0	0	12	34	12	34	0	484	3	1	488
13 Cleveland, Ohio.	Cleveland College for Women.	Nonsect.	1888	0	0	15	5	15	5	0	108	4	112
14 Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Bryn Mawr College.	Nonsect.	1885	0	0	20	10	20	10	0	237	46	0	283
15 Lynchburg, Va.	Randolph-Macon Woman's College.	M. E.	0	1	0	14	0	15	13	112	125

FOR WOMEN.

for women, Division A.

Fellowships.		Scholarships.	Volumes in library.	Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Productive funds.	Income.				Benefactions.	
16	17						18	19	20	21		22
....	14	4,500	\$10,000	\$400,000	\$75,000	\$54,300	\$3,105	\$57,405	\$1,100	1	
....	5	5,640	10,000	125,000	53,390	6,000	3,200	\$26,581	35,781	5,864	2	
...	27	7,000	44,000	688,000	360,000	26,346	21,146	16,110	63,602	125,000	3	
	0	4	8,000	15,000	60,000	200,000	49,000	5,000	54,000	100,000	4
....	100	6,000	55,500	612,637	545,470	58,933	34,354	132,710	225,997	1,867	5	
	0	13	16,000	35,000	375,000	99,000	69,000	5,000	74,000	6,200	6
....	35	45,800	150,000	1,118,900	290,000	217,104	8,700	225,804	1,000	7	
....	3	2,000	25,000	8,000	8,000	2,500	8	
....	10	5,308	15,000	147,000	200,000	8,010	8,789	24,000	40,799	1,400	9	
0	10	4,000	30,000	182,000	100,000	28,684	3,651	32,335	11,000	10	
0	3	724	0	55,700	13,241	594	13,835	70,582	11	
1	18	22,000	156,938	715,015	1,036,255	188,734	48,153	236,887	37,575	12	
....	50,000	100,000	125,000	175,000	7,000	13,000	0	20,000	3,000	13	
11	17	22,324	60,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	27,000	50,000	77,000	40,000	14	
....	500	2,000	97,000	90,000	11,250	5,100	16,350	15	

TABLE 2.—Statistics of colleges

	Location.	Name.	Religious denomination.	Year of first opening.	Professors and instructors.		Students.		
					Male.	Female.	Primary.	Preparatory.	Collegiate.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
ALABAMA.									
1	Athens	Athens Female College.....	M. E. So ..	1842	1	9	6	7	83
2	Bailey Springs....	Bailey Springs University.....	Nonsect ..	1892	2	4	...	4	24
3	East Lake	East Lake Atheneum.....	Nonsect ..	1890	1	12	30	50	120
4	Eufaula.....	Union Female College.....	Nonsect ..	1843	2	9	20	15	40
5	Florence.....	Synodical Female College	Presb.....	1838	1	6	16	22	36
6	Gadsden	Jones College for Young Ladies	M. E.....	1895	2	12	12	42	158
7	Marion	Judson Female Institute.....	Bapt.....	1839	2	7	0	19	81
8	do	Marion Female Seminary.....	Nonsect ..	1836	1	8	14	18	42
9	Tuscaloosa	Central Female College	Bapt.....	1857	2	7	14	23	106
10	do	Tuscaloosa Female College	M. E. So ..	1860	1	8	38	49	106
11	Tuskegee.....	Alabama Conference Female College.	M. E.....	1855	5	13	20	25	120
ARKANSAS.									
12	Conway	Central Baptist College.....	Bapt.....	1892	1	5	43
CALIFORNIA.									
13	San Jose.....	College of Notre Dame.....	R. C.....	1851	1	24	26	48	11
14	Santa Rosa	Santa Rosa Ladies' College	Nonsect ..	1884	2	2	10	9	1
GEORGIA.									
15	Athens	Lucy Cobb Institute.....	Nonsect ..	1858	0	12	10	26	100
16	Cuthbert	Andrew Female College	M. E. So ..	1854	4	8	15	35	73
17	Dalton	Dalton Female College.....	M. E.....	1873	1	9	...	40	130
18	Porsyth	Monroe Female College*.....	Bapt.....	1848	2	4	20	30	40
18	Gainesville	Georgia Female Seminary	Nonsect ..	1878	3	11	50	20	125
20	La Grange.....	La Grange Female College.....	M. E. So ..	1833	6	11	18	24	155
21	Macon	Wesleyan Female College*.....	M. E.....	1839	6	11	246
22	Manchester.....	Southern Female College.....	Bapt.....	1842	3	15
23	Milledgeville	Georgia Normal and Industrial College.	Nonsect ..	1891	3	17	56	50	259
24	Rome	Shorter College.....	Bapt.....	1878	5	11	...	25	160
25	Thomasville	Young Female College.....	Nonsect ..	1869	1	3	10	...	75
ILLINOIS.									
26	Chicago.....	Seminary of the Sacred Heart.....	R. C.....	1858	0	29
27	Jacksonville.....	Illinois Female College	M. E.....	1847	4	12	23	57	71
28	do	Jacksonville Female Academy.....	Nonsect ..	1830	4	5	26	16	45
29	Knoxville	St. Mary's School.....	P. E.....	1868	3	10	0	15	75
INDIANA.									
30	Terre Haute	Coates College.....	Presb.....	1885	2	14	...	70	30
KANSAS.									
31	Oswego.....	College for Young Ladies.....	Presb.....	1885	1	6	...	19	34
32	Topeka.....	College of the Sisters of Bethany..	P. E.....	1860	3	15	29	82	41
KENTUCKY.									
33	Bowling Green ..	Potter College	Nonsect ..	1889	2	18	0	40	175
34	Danville	Caldwell College	Presb.....	1860	...	11
35	Glendale.....	Lynnland Female College*.....	Bapt.....	1888	3	5	...	20	25
36	Hopkinsville	Bethel Female College	Bapt.....	1854	1	9	0	4	72
37	Lexington	Hamilton Female College.....	Christian ..	1863	5	10
38	Millersburg	Millersburg Female College.....	M. E.....	1851	2	11	49	33	53
39	Nicholasville	Jessamine Female Institute.....	Nonsect ..	1854	2	10	20	25	80
40	Owensboro	Owensboro Female College	Nonsect ..	1890	2	4
41	Pewee Valley	Kentucky College for Young Ladies	Nonsect ..	1872	4	5	40	30	30
42	Russellville	Logan Female College	M. E. So ..	1846	2	19	27	59	63
43	Stanford.....	Stanford Female College.....	Nonsect ..	1871	1	5	20	50	20
44	Winchester.....	Winchester Female College.....	Nonsect ..	1889	3	3	14	18	13

*Statistics for 1893-94.

for women, Division B.

Graduate.	Students.		Volumes in library.	Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of productive funds.	Income.					Benefactions.	
	Total number.	Graduated in 1895.					From productive funds.	From tuition fees.	From State or municipal appropriations.	From other sources.	Total.		
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
4	100	12	500	-----	\$20,000	-----	-----	\$4,000	-----	-----	\$4,000	-----	1
1	29	0	550	\$1,000	20,000	-----	-----	3,000	-----	-----	3,000	-----	2
0	200	25	200	500	25,000	0	0	7,500	-----	-----	7,500	-----	3
---	75	---	2,000	3,000	15,000	-----	-----	10,000	-----	-----	10,000	-----	4
---	74	9	320	25	5,000	0	0	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	5
2	224	30	7,846	13,000	45,000	-----	-----	35,000	-----	-----	35,000	0	6
4	104	22	1,200	500	75,000	0	0	6,673	0	\$9,364	16,037	\$3,000	7
1	75	3	600	-----	25,000	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	8
2	145	5	200	250	100,000	0	0	*6,000	0	0	*6,000	-----	9
---	193	12	0	0	20,000	0	0	10,000	0	0	10,000	0	10
3	171	---	2,000	500	80,000	0	0	*5,000	0	*14,000	*19,000	-----	11
0	97	1	85	0	25,000	0	0	9,000	0	0	9,000	0	12
2	87	5	5,000	20,000	188,000	0	0	24,000	0	8,100	32,100	10,000	13
---	20	---	1,000	1,500	15,000	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	14
1	137	26	4,000	-----	50,000	-----	-----	18,000	-----	-----	18,000	-----	15
---	125	---	500	500	20,000	-----	-----	5,000	\$700	300	6,000	-----	16
---	179	15	-----	-----	25,000	-----	-----	8,000	-----	-----	8,000	-----	17
---	90	8	200	200	20,000	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	18
5	260	35	800	1,000	40,000	0	0	20,000	-----	-----	20,000	-----	19
10	267	32	1,100	1,200	90,000	0	0	32,000	250	0	32,250	-----	20
---	246	31	3,500	10,000	300,000	\$35,000	\$1,800	42,000	-----	-----	43,800	-----	21
---	148	23	6,000	8,000	53,000	-----	-----	9,000	-----	-----	9,000	-----	22
---	365	32	2,000	3,000	150,000	-----	-----	3,800	22,900	2,000	28,700	-----	23
2	187	30	1,000	3,000	150,000	40,000	2,400	8,000	-----	9,000	20,000	0	24
2	87	4	-----	200	36,000	-----	-----	15,000	0	0	15,000	0	45
---	120	10	2,500	2,000	250,000	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	26
---	156	21	1,000	1,000	75,000	2,000	100	10,000	-----	12,400	22,500	1,100	27
2	158	8	2,000	1,800	50,000	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	28
0	105	9	2,000	5,000	120,000	0	0	40,000	0	0	40,000	0	29
---	100	4	2,000	2,500	95,000	-----	-----	16,000	-----	3,500	19,500	30,000	30
---	53	8	1,200	2,000	40,000	-----	-----	2,000	-----	5,500	7,500	-----	31
---	246	4	1,000	3,000	381,000	-----	-----	*25,000	-----	*3,500	*28,500	-----	32
4	219	5	3,000	1,000	80,000	-----	-----	30,000	-----	-----	30,000	-----	33
---	130	4	400	-----	75,000	-----	-----	10,000	-----	-----	10,000	-----	34
---	46	3	500	2,000	20,000	0	0	2,500	-----	3,500	6,000	-----	35
---	76	2	-----	-----	30,000	0	0	3,500	0	0	3,500	0	36
---	217	23	1,200	2,000	50,000	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	250	37
1	136	14	1,800	250	17,500	0	-----	11,000	-----	-----	11,000	-----	38
4	129	4	140	-----	15,000	0	0	6,000	0	4,000	10,000	0	39
---	93	0	350	1,000	30,000	0	0	4,000	0	0	4,000	-----	40
---	100	1	1,000	250	25,000	0	0	4,000	0	12,000	16,000	-----	41
2	148	8	2,000	3,000	40,000	0	0	5,000	0	0	5,000	-----	42
---	90	7	200	400	8,000	0	0	4,000	0	0	4,000	-----	43
---	45	3	800	200	10,000	0	0	2,500	0	0	2,500	-----	44

TABLE 2.—Statistics of colleges

	Location.	Name.	Religious denomina- tion.	Year of first opening.	Profes- sors and in- struct- ors.		Students.		
					Male.	Female.	Primary.	Preparatory.	Collegiate.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
LOUISIANA.									
45	Clinton	Silliman Female Collegiate Insti- tute.	Presb.....	1852	3	7	28	40	58
46	Mansfield.....	Mansfield Female College.....	M. E.....	1856	1	5	22	20	41
47	Minden.....	Jefferson Davis College.....	Nonsect ..	1891	2	5	36	85	64
MAINE.									
48	Deering.....	Westbrook Seminary.....	Univ.....	1834	3	5	8	32	40
49	Kents Hill.....	Maine Wesleyan Seminary and Female College.	M. E.....	1821	8	7	190	9
MARYLAND.									
50	Frederick.....	Woman's College of Frederick....	Reformed.	1893	2	13	36	15	38
51	Hagerstown.....	Kee Mar College.....	Luth.....	1852	6	12	117
52	Lutherville.....	Maryland College for Young Ladies	Nonsect ..	1853	4	6	96
MASSACHUSETTS.									
53	Auburndale.....	Lasell Seminary.....	Nonsect ..	1851	11	23	0	8	160
MINNESOTA.									
54	Albert Lea.....	Albert Lea College.....	Presb.....	1885	1	6	2	40	10
MISSISSIPPI.									
55	Blue Mountain ...	Blue Mountain Female College....	Bapt.....	1873	6	11	50	135
56	Brookhaven.....	Whitworth Female College.....	M. E.....	1860	2	5	10	61
57	Clinton.....	Hillman College.....	Bapt.....	1853	2	8	36	38
58	Columbus.....	Industrial Institute and College..	Nonsect ..	1885	1	15	101
59	Jackson.....	Belhaven College for Young Ladies.	Nonsect ..	1894	2	8	5	16	47
60	McComb.....	McComb Female Institute.....	Nonsect ..	1894	1	3	4	18	52
61	Meridian.....	East Mississippi Female College..	M. E.....	1869	1	7	30	29	60
62	do.....	Stone College for Young Ladies....	Bapt.....	1893	1	5	15	20	45
63	Oxford.....	Union Female College.....	Cum. Pres	1854	6	10	30	40	75
64	Pontotoc.....	Chickasaw Female College.....	Presb.....	1852	1	5	20	40	25
65	Port Gibson.....	Port Gibson Female College*.....	M. E. So..	1844	1	5	45	18
MISSOURI.									
66	Columbia.....	Christian Female College.....	Christian.	1851	3	11	25	21	100
67	do.....	Stephens College.....	Bapt.....	1855	5	10	10	15	76
68	Fayette.....	Howard Payne College.....	M. E. So..	1844	2	11	0	54	44
69	Fulton.....	Synodical Female College.....	Presb.....	1872	1	11	0	15	67
70	Independence.....	Kansas City Ladies' College.....	Presb.....	1871	1	9	16	12	32
71	Jennings.....	St. Louis Seminary.....	Nonsect ..	1871	1	5
72	Lexington.....	Baptist Female College.....	Bapt.....	1855	4	6	15	35	45
73	do.....	Central Female College*.....	M. E. So..	1869	4	13	18	60	71
74	do.....	Elizabeth Aull Female Seminary*..	Presb.....	1859	4	9	9	13	47
75	Mexico.....	Hardin College.....	Bapt.....	1873	10	8	15	25	180
76	St. Charles.....	Lindenwood Female College*.....	Presb.....	1830	1	12	7	53
NEW HAMPSHIRE.									
77	Tilton.....	New Hampshire Conference Semi- nary and Female College.	M. E.....	1845	5	7	90	15
NEW YORK.									
78	Brooklyn.....	Packer Collegiate Institute.....	Nonsect ..	1854	5	51	38	578	139
NORTH CAROLINA.									
79	Asheville.....	Asheville Female College.....	M. E. So..	1854	3	7	27	123
80	Dallas.....	Gaston College.....	Luth.....	1878	2	4	16	8	14
81	Greensboro.....	Greensboro Female College.....	M. E. So..	1846	3	16	154
82	Hickory.....	Claremont Female College.....	Nonsect ..	1880	1	5	25	35	20
83	Louisburg.....	Louisburg Female College.....	M. E.....	1837	1	8	0	30	77

* Statistics for 1893-94.

for women, Division B—Continued.

Students.			Volumes in library.	Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of productive funds.	Income.					Benefactions.	
Graduate.	Total number.	Graduated in 1895.					From productive funds.	From tuition fees.	From State or municipal appropriations.	From other sources.	Total.		
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
....	126	6	1,500	\$900	\$45,000	\$27,500	\$2,200	\$8,000	0	\$10,000	\$20,200	\$600	45
....	83	4	3,000	2,000	35,000	* 5,000	* 250	* 1,000	0	* 2,000	* 3,250	500	46
....	185	1	600	10,000	800	\$3,000	200	4,000	47
1	113	26	3,500	9,000	100,000	25,000	1,300	3,000	500	4,800	6,500	48
....	200	25	7,000	8,325	128,650	107,913	6,000	6,374	0	0	12,374	49
0	141	14	2,000	5,000	50,000	0	0	12,500	0	500	13,000	500	50
....	117	15	4,000	* 1,000	* 80,000	* 5,000	* 300	* 20,600	* 5,000	25,900	51
4	100	16	690	2,500	45,000	0	0	0	52
0	168	21	2,000	2,500	140,000	0	0	15,000	0	60,000	75,000	0	53
....	52	4	1,500	5,000	40,000	26,000	1,570	2,250	0	1,800	5,620	840	54
....	185	14	1,500	2,000	35,000	12,000	12,000	55
....	91	9	600	200	50,000	0	0	5,280	0	0	5,280	0	56
2	76	11	2,000	5,000	30,000	57
....	314	12	1,200	2,500	75,000	18,000	500	3,000	22,500	1,600	27,600	58
....	126	4	300	1,000	50,000	15,000	15,000	0	59
0	74	4	500	5,000	0	0	2,700	0	0	2,700	0	60
....	110	7	1,200	100	30,000	5,000	5,000	61
....	80	7	400	800	12,000	2,532	3,200	5,732	62
....	145	12	1,200	1,000	75,000	12,000	12,000	10,000	63
....	85	200	10,000	3,000	3,000	64
....	63	10,000	2,000	1,500	3,500	65
8	153	31	500	175	60,000	0	0	20,000	20,000	66
....	101	100,000	20,000	11,000	67
1	152	14	900	1,200	50,000	17,000	17,000	2,200	68
0	119	11	725	1,500	33,000	0	0	* 5,400	* 6,100	* 11,500	69
....	60	7	200	30,000	6,500	6,500	115,000	70
....	30	7	2,000	50,000	71
0	95	16	500	250	25,000	4,500	6,000	10,500	72
2	151	10	2,000	3,000	50,000	20,000	20,000	73
....	69	5	400	500	50,000	8,000	8,000	74
0	225	14	1,000	2,000	75,000	52,000	4,160	32,000	0	0	36,160	0	75
1	61	8	2,000	3,000	100,000	10,000	1,000	22,600	23,000	76
....	182	25	2,500	6,000	76,200	30,000	1,641	8,592	0	13,270	23,503	8,000	77
8	763	35	6,292	22,156	219,294	18,462	951	75,024	0	800	76,775	300	78
....	160	5	1,000	3,000	100,000	* 8,000	* 6,000	* 14,000	79
0	38	2	400	0	10,000	1,000	1,000	0	80
5	159	25	2,000	3,000	100,000	30,000	30,000	3,000	81
....	80	6	* 25,000	0	0	* 2,000	* 2,000	82
....	107	8	750	1,000	25,000	0	0	3,500	0	3,600	7,100	83

TABLE 2.—Statistics of colleges

	Location.	Name.	Religious denomina- tion.	Year of first opening.	Profes- sors and in- struct- ors.		Students.		
					Male.	Female.	Primary.	Preparatory.	Collegiate.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
NORTH CAROLINA— continued.									
84	Murfreesboro.....	Chowan Baptist Female Institute*	Bapt.....	1848	2	6
85	Oxford.....	Oxford Female Seminary.....	Bapt.....	1850	1	6	25	15	50
86	Salem.....	Salem Female Academy.....	Moravian.	1802	4	29	91	278
OHIO.									
87	Cincinnati.....	Bartholomew English and Clas- sical School.	P. E.....	1879	2	12	12	24	74
88	Glendale.....	Glendale Female College.....	Presb.....	1854	2	11	26	49
89	Granville.....	Granville Female College.....	Presb.....	1826	0	9	0	48	30
90	do.....	Shepardson College*.....	Bapt.....	1887	3	10	115	51
91	Oxford.....	Oxford College.....	Presb.....	1849	4	21	61	127
92	do.....	Western College.....	Nonsect ..	1855	0	22	0	0	152
93	Painesville.....	Lake Eric Seminary.....	Nonsect ..	1859	0	21	0	49	87
PENNSYLVANIA.									
94	Allentown.....	Allentown College for Women....	Reformed.	1867	3	8	16	31	50
95	Bethlehem.....	Moravian Seminary for Young Ladies.	Moravian.	1749	3	13
96	Carlisle.....	Metzger College.....	Nonsect ..	1881	1	6	5	25	34
97	Chambersburg...	Wilson College.....	Presb.....	1870	5	25	40	222
98	Lititz.....	Linden Hall Seminary.....	Moravian.	1794	1	11	4	6	31
99	Mechanicsburg...	Irving College for Women.....	Luth.....	1856	6	6	6	96
100	Ogontz School.....	Ogontz School.....	Nonsect ..	1859	5	22	20	0	0
101	Pittsburg.....	Pennsylvania College for Women..	Presb.....	1870	2	15	90	50
102	do.....	Pittsburg Female College.....	M. E.....	1852	6	11	40	60
SOUTH CAROLINA.									
103	Columbia.....	Columbia Female College.....	M. E. So..	1859	3	6	6	106
104	do.....	Presbyterian College for Women ..	Presb.....	1890	4	12	20	100
105	Due West.....	Due West Female College.....	Nonsect ..	1859	4	8	25	25	100
106	Gaffney City.....	Cooper-Limestone Institute.....	Bapt.....	1881	2	7	25	40	70
107	Greenville.....	Greenville College for Women.....	Nonsect ..	1894	3	7	14	63
108	do.....	Greenville Female College.....	Bapt.....	1854	4	15	23	101
109	Spartanburg.....	Converse College.....	Nonsect ..	1890	5	22	300
110	Union.....	Clifford Seminary.....	Nonsect ..	1881	2	5	19	6	39
111	Williamston.....	Williamston Female College.....	Nonsect ..	1872	2	7	40	50
TENNESSEE.									
112	Bristol.....	Sullins Collogo.....	M. E. So..	1869	2	10	9	8	64
113	Brownsville.....	Brownsville Female College.....	Bapt.....	1852	3	7	20	35	26
114	Columbia.....	Columbia Athenaeum.....	Nonsect ..	1852	6	9	31	65	61
115	Franklin.....	Tennessee Female College ⁷	M. E. So..	1856	1	6	10	50	60
116	Gallatin.....	Howard Female College.....	Nonsect ..	1837	1	7
117	Jackson.....	Memphis Conference Female In- stitute.	M. E.....	1843	2	24	30	70	282
118	Knoxville.....	East Tennessee Institute.....	Nonsect ..	1835	1	9	26	34	32
119	McMinnville.....	Cumberland Female College*.....	Cum. Pres	1840	2	7	25	20	45
120	Murfreesboro.....	Soule Female College.....	M. E.....	1852	1	12	60	25	65
121	Nashville.....	Nashville College for Young Ladies.	M. E. So..	1880	10	19
122	do.....	Ward Seminary.....	Presb.....	1865	4	25	60	50	175
123	Pulaski.....	Martin Female College.....	M. E.....	1871	0	15	10	12	138
124	Rogersville.....	Synodical Female College.....	Presb.....	1849	3	13	20	20	145
125	Somerville.....	Somerville Female Institute*.....	Nonsect ..	1850	3	8	23	25	50
126	Winchester.....	Mary Sharp College.....	Bapt.....	1850	3	2
TEXAS.									
127	Belton.....	Baylor Female College.....	Bapt.....	1845	3	10	27	156
128	Chapel Hill.....	Chapel Hill Female College.....	M. E. So..	1852	1	6	30	20	30
129	Waco.....	Waco Female College.....	M. E.....	1856	0	11	21	10	77

* Statistics for 1893-94.

for women, Division B—Continued.

Students.			Volumes in library.	Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of productive funds.	Income.					Benefactions.
Graduate.	Total number.	Graduated in 1895.					From productive funds.	From tuition fees.	From State or municipal appropriations.	From other sources.	Total.	
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
0	80	11	1,000	\$1,200	\$50,600	0	0	\$3,000			\$8,000	84
1	502	53	5,500	1,000	200,000	\$10,000	\$600	35,000			35,600	85
												86
	110	19	1,000		*40,000			*12,000			*12,000	87
0	91	10	3,000	2,000	75,000				0		0	88
	78	9	900	200	20,000			500		\$3,500	4,000	89
	240	5			90,000	75,000						90
4	203	26	3,000		50,000			40,000			40,000	91
0	156	16	6,700	15,000	200,000	60,000	4,000	20,000	0	0	24,000	92
0	136	14	4,900	10,000	250,000	32,077	1,761	27,414	0	355	29,530	93
1	126	7	700	600	60,000			8,000			8,000	94
	105	9	5,000	*4,500	100,000	*12,000	*600	*18,000	0	0	*18,000	95
4	68		800		30,000	25,000	1,900	2,547			4,447	96
2	264	33	2,000	10,000	100,000	0	0	63,000			63,000	97
0	43	7	3,000	3,000	20,000	0	0	9,908		293	10,201	98
0	102	6	1,000		40,000	0	0	30,000			30,000	99
0	155	19	12,000			0	0	108,000	0	0	108,000	100
5	140	3	1,000	5,000	180,000	0	0	30,000	0	0	30,000	101
	105	13	1,000	5,000	120,000	10,000	600	15,000	0	0	15,600	102
	112	16	600	250	50,000	0	0	3,000		4,000	7,000	103
3	123	4	200	700	60,000			19,000			10,000	104
	150	12	400		15,000			5,000			5,000	105
5	140	12	300	1,500	40,000	0	0	6,000	0	2,000	8,000	106
1	83	12	400		20,000							107
	124	10	200	400	25,000			7,000			7,000	108
3	303	28	3,500	2,000	120,000	40,000		30,000			30,000	109
	64	7	200	125	8,000			*2,500		*2,300	*4,800	110
	90	5	3,000	6,000	20,000			3,000			3,000	111
6	103	13	500	1,000	50,000	5,000	300	4,000		3,500	7,800	112
	81	6	1,550	2,000	15,000	0	0	4,000	0	0	4,000	113
6	163	14	10,205	4,200	75,000			*30,000			*30,000	114
	129		300		15,000			4,000		2,000	6,000	115
	76	9	400	600	25,000			*5,500			*5,500	116
	382	18	6,000	8,000	50,000			*35,000			*35,000	117
	92	8		600	30,000	0	0	*10,000			*10,000	118
	90		800	2,000	50,000			9,000			9,000	119
4	154	2	400	1,000	20,000			10,000			10,000	120
	255	19	1,000		150,000	0	0		0	0		121
	365	9	1,500	2,500	150,000	0	0	42,500	0	0	42,500	122
3	163	5	300		45,000	30,000	2,800	4,000			6,800	123
5	190	12	1,500	1,000	50,000			15,000			15,000	124
10	103	9	450	1,000	40,000	0	0	10,000			10,000	125
	190	4	1,000	300	20,000	0	0	9,000	0	1,000	10,000	126
2	238	13	2,000	2,500	100,000			35,000			35,000	127
	89	6	300	300	10,000			2,000		300	2,300	128
c	168	22	200	0	105,000	0	0	7,000	0	0	7,000	129

TABLE 2.—Statistics of colleges

Location.	Name.	Religious denomination.	Year of first opening.	Professors and instructors.		Students.			
				Male.	Female.	Primary.	Preparatory.	Collegiate.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
VIRGINIA.									
130	Abingdon	Martha Washington College	M. E.	1860	4	16	25	60	94
131do	Stonewall Jackson Female Institute.*	Presb.	1863	2	8	17	10	50
132	Bristol	Southwest Virginia Institute	Bapt.	1883	8	7
133	Charlottesville ..	Albemarle Female Institute	Bapt.	1856	2	5	0	5	49
134	Danville	Danville College for Young Ladies..	M. E. So ..	1883	2	5	15	40
135do	Roanoke Female College	Bapt.	1859	2	6	3	67
136	Hollins	Hollins Institute	Bapt.	1842	7	15	184
137	Marion	Marion Female College	Luth.	1874	2	6	30	55
138	Norfolk	Norfolk College for Young Ladies.	Nonsect ..	1879	2	21	40	108	102
139	Petersburg	Southern Female College	Nonsect ..	1863	4	8	10	20	74
140	Richmond	Richmond Female Institute*	Bapt.	1854	7	11	75	100
141	Staunton	Staunton Female Seminary	Luth.	1870	4	6	12	38
142do	Virginia Female Institute	P. E.	1844	2	12	6	40	50
143do	Wesleyan Female Institute	M. E.	1848	4	10	12	80
144	Winchester	Episcopal Female Institute *	P. E.	1874	2	6	10	14	37
145do	Valley Female College*	M. E. So ..	1874	2	5	4	11	16
WEST VIRGINIA.									
146	Parkersburg	Parkersburg Female Seminary	Nonsect ..	1878	0	3	18	17
WISCONSIN.									
147	Fox Lake	Downer College	Cong. and Presb.	1855	0	10	7	37	11
148	Milwaukee	Milwaukee College	Nonsect ..	1848	1	9	0	60	20

* Statistics for 1893-94.

for women, Division B—Continued.

Students.			Volumes in library.	Value of scientific apparatus and library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of productive funds.	Income.					Benefactions.
Graduate.	Total number.	Graduated in 1885.					From productive funds.	From tuition fees.	From State or municipal appropriations.	From other sources.	Total.	
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
2	181	17	1,000	1,500	\$50,000			\$7,000			\$7,000	130
	77	4										131
0	215	7	12,000	* 500	* 20,000			25,000			25,000	132
	54	1		800	30,000			* 7,500			* 7,500	133
	55		0		30,000	0	0	* 10,000			* 10,000	134
	70	8	0	500	20,000	0	0	3,987		\$3,994	7,981	135
	184	18	2,000	2,500	150,000			20,000			20,000	136
	85	2	200	200	20,000	0	0	1,800			1,800	137
4	254	26	300	500	150,000	0	0	13,000		0	13,000	138
	104	5	2,000									139
3	178	20	1,000		65,000	0	0	15,000			15,000	140
	60		500	200	25,000							141
	96	1	1,200	1,000	60,000	0	0					142
	92	11	300	500	50,000	0	0	6,000			6,000	0 143
	61	4	1,100	200	15,000	0	0	4,000			4,000	144
#	37	7	500	0	20,000	0	0					145
	35	2	650		8,500			3,500			3,500	0 146
	55	1	1,834	1,600	25,000	\$78,000	\$4,400	11,255		1,523	16,178	147
0	80	4	3,000	8,000	45,000	75,000	3,500	6,000	0	0	9,500	148

VI.—SCHOOLS OF TECHNOLOGY.

Statistics of schools of technology for 1894-95.

[NOTE.—Technological departments of universities and colleges are included in the table of statistics of universities and colleges.]

Location.	Name.	Year of opening.	Professors and instructors.						Students.									
			Preparatory department.		Collegiate department.		Total number.		Preparatory.		Collegiate.		Resident.		Nonresident.		Total number.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
			4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Ann Arbor, Mich.	1827	1	0	21	0	22	0	19	0	285	4	12	1	0	0	286	5
2	Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College.	1872	11	7	22	6	25	10	267	136	153	73	6	5	0	0	401	213
3	Arkansas Industrial University.	1873	1	0	17	3	18	3	40	22	118	42	5	2	1	0	164	66
4	Colorado Agricultural College.	1874	0	0	8	0	8	0	0	0	160	0	6	0	0	0	166	0
5	Colorado School of Mines.	1874	0	0	8	3	3	3	0	0	133	22	7	0	0	0	136	0
6	Storrs Agricultural College.	1881
7	State College for Colored Students, Del.	1882
8	Bliss School of Electricity.	1883
9	Washington, D. C.	1883
10	Lake City, Fla.	1883	2	0	13	5	15	5	61	8	91	41	0	0	0	0	152	43
11	Atlanta, Ga.	1887	1	0	6	0	6	0	15	0	110	0	0	0	0	0	125	0
12	Chicago, Ill.	1883	20	8	20	8	28	20	8	236	74	17	0	0	0	0	330	91
13	La Fayette, Ind.	1874	0	0	55	7	55	7	0	0	529	69	19	8	7	1	552	77
14	Terre Haute, Ind.	1883	0	0	20	0	20	0	0	0	123	0	2	0	0	0	125	0
15	Ames, Iowa.	1869
16	Manhattan, Kans.	1863	0	0	27	8	27	8	0	0	405	111	7	5	0	0	434	122
17	Lexington, Ky.	1866	4	1	20	0	33	2	89	12	129	43	0	1	0	0	401	125
18	Orono, Me.	1863	0	0	20	1	20	1	0	0	191	9	3	0	0	0	194	9
19	Annapolis, Md.	1845	1	0	62	0	62	0	0	0	242	0	0	0	0	0	242	0
20	College Park, Md.	1850	1	0	11	0	12	0	22	0	115	0	6	0	0	0	153	0
21	Amherst, Mass.	1867	0	0	19	0	19	0	0	0	162	0	14	0	0	0	206	0
22	Boston, Mass.	1865	0	0	153	1	153	1	0	0	1,120	58	5	0	0	0	1,125	58
23	Worcester, Mass.	1868	0	0	27	0	27	0	0	0	202	0	7	0	0	0	209	0

24	Agricultural College, Miss.	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	0	0	3,794	5,760	6,055	180,101	122,799	360	5,914	22,500	24,224	7,408	60,406
25	Westside, Miss.	Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.	0	0	2,804	3,309	12,000	60,000	113,575	300	5,078	2,071	10,776	2,595	21,420
26	Bozeman, Mont.	Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	0	1,800	750	10,000	15,000	0	1,500	0	2,500	35,000	0	39,000
27	Durham, N. H.	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	85	3,607	522	11,000	219,131	80,000	80,000	5,213	4,800	0	35,000	3,581	48,594
28	Hoboken, N. J.	Stevens Institute of Technology.	0	4	8,600	50,000	250,000	500,000	500,000	64,000	20,000	0	0	0	84,000
29	Newark, N. J.	Newark Technical School.	0	500	500	5,000	16,000	0	0	20	10,000	0	0	0	10,020
30	Mesilla Park, N. Mex.	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	2,324	2,000	28,190	38,825	0	0	707	0	9,140	35,000	89	44,936
31	Troy, N. Y.	Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute.	0	0	6,500	2,500	29,677	125,000	141,765	30,570	7,000	0	0	0	37,570
32	West Point, N. Y.	United States Military Academy.	0	38,203	5,914	500,000	2,000,000	0	0	0	0	0	406,525	0	406,525
33	Greensboro, N. C.	Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race.	0	920	350	2,000	38,000	0	0	0	7,500	7,012	1,250	15,762	0
34	Raleigh, N. C.	North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	1,600	300	0	82,890	125,000	125,000	3,395	7,500	10,000	27,988	0	48,883
35	Fargo, N. Dak.	North Dakota Agricultural College.	0	2,095	400	15,500	107,500	0	0	0	0	52,000	35,000	0	87,000
36	Cleveland, Ohio.	Case School of Applied Science.	5	32	1,500	60,000	250,000	2,000,000	2,000,000	15,000	60,000	0	0	0	75,000
37	Stillwater, Okla.	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	0	2,007	900	18,500	25,000	0	0	0	8,003	35,000	0	0	43,003
38	Corvallis, Oreg.	Oregon State Agricultural College.	0	2,200	1,000	33,500	101,500	93,985	93,985	0	5,153	0	35,000	6,106	46,259
39	Salem, Oreg.	Friends Polytechnic Institute.	0	0	275	2,000	10,000	0	0	1,500	0	0	0	100	1,600
40	South Bethlehem, Pa.	Lehigh University.	0	35	97,000	65,000	1,200,000	3,000,000	3,000,000	49,900	150,000	0	0	0	199,900
41	Kingston, R. I.	Rhode Island College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	0	4,530	13,500	35,000	130,000	50,000	0	2,500	50,000	35,000	0	87,500
42	Charleston, S. C.	South Carolina Military Academy.	0	0	5,000	200	10,000	85,000	0	20,300	0	18,000	0	0	38,300
43	Clemson College, S. C.	Clemson Agricultural College.	0	1,500	0	20,000	226,280	95,900	95,900	0	5,754	67,000	25,000	8,396	106,150
44	Brookings, S. Dak.	South Dakota Agricultural College.	0	3,865	8,500	24,500	100,000	0	0	0	0	7,700	35,000	2,063	45,363
45	Rapid City, S. Dak.	State School of Mines.	0	81	943	4,500	30,000	0	0	0	0	10,500	0	0	10,500
46	College Station, Tex.	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	0	4,500	3,000	73,946	327,620	209,000	209,000	0	14,780	24,500	30,000	0	69,280
47	Logan, Utah.	Utah Agricultural College.	0	2,823	1,500	35,000	145,500	0	0	1,686	0	7,500	35,000	3,882	48,068
48	Northfield, Vt.	Norwich University.	0	31	12,500	50,000	50,000	0	0	4,850	0	0	0	0	4,850
49	Blacksburg, Va.	Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College.	5	2,675	550	55,500	151,000	314,317	314,317	0	20,653	18,500	28,333	15,509	83,001
50	Lexington, Va.	Virginia Military Institute.	0	55	10,000	30,000	250,000	0	0	10,000	0	30,000	0	1,200	41,200
51	Pullman, Wash.	Washington Agricultural College and School of Science.	0	2,852	1,067	35,000	146,000	0	0	0	58,962	35,000	2,442	96,404	0

* Statistics for 1898-94.

VII.—MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Statistics of manual training schools, 1894-95.

Location.	Name of institution.	Name of president (or director).	Grade of literacy instruction.	Different teachers of industrial training.		Different pupils who receive industrial training.			Expenditure for industrial training during 1894-95.					
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Total.	For teachers.	For materials.	For new tools and repairs.	For incidentals.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Pasadena, Cal.....	Thorpe Polytechnic Institute.....	Charles H. Keyes.....	(a)	5	3	8	200	100	300	\$7,600	\$1,000	\$12,200	\$400	\$21,800
Denver, Colo.....	Haish Manual Training School.....	Edgar L. Brother.....	2	2	11	11	1,600	80	120	1,800
Chicago, Ill.....	Chicago Manual Training School.....	Henry H. Bellfield.....	Secondary.....	12	12	273	273	21,337	794	131	2,680	24,402
Boston, Mass.....	Sloyd Normal Training School.....	Mrs. A. W. Fiske.....	2	2	4	31	64	98	4,445	172	5,563	902	11,082
St. Louis, Mo.....	Manual Training School.....	C. M. Woodward.....	Secondary.....	6	0	6	264	0	264	7,150	700	300	1,000	9,150
Brooklyn, N. Y.....	Washington University.....	W. A. McAndrew.....	do.....	4	6	10	70	69	139
New York, N. Y.....	Prairie Institute High School.....	Edgar S. Barney.....	Elementary.....	12	0	12	254	0	254	11,288	1,323	1,963	5,631	29,205
Do.....	Hebrew Technical Institute.....	Maximilian P. E. Groszmann.....	do.....	6	13	19	175	178	353	20,900	897	21,797
Philadelphia, Pa.....	Workingman's School.....	J. Henry Bartlett.....	Secondary.....	1	4	5	130	170	300
Do.....	Friends' Select School.....	Wm. Platt Pepper.....	23	4	27	300	300	600
Do.....	Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Arts.....	Adam H. Fetterolf.....	Secondary.....	9	1	10	1,500	1,500	12,000	12,000
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	Girard College for Orphans.....	M. B. Ingalls.....	do.....	8	1	9	174	0	174	9,840	623	839	200	11,502
Newport, R. I.....	Technical School of Cincinnati.....	Miss M. A. Sawyer.....	Elementary.....	0	1	1	11	21	32
Providence, R. I.....	Miss Sawyer's School.....	Miss Signe E. Schonberg.....	do.....	0	1	1	29	20	49
Do.....	Providence Training School for Sloyd.....	Rev. Wm. Curley.....	All.....	1	4	5	92	255	347
Crozet, Va.....	Tyler School.....	C. E. Vawter.....	Secondary.....	11	10	21	104	94	198	15,816	1,009	2,818	40,423	69,057
Milwaukee, Wis.....	Miller Manual Labor School of Albemarle.....	Mary Lamson Clarke.....	0	2	2
Total.....	Milwaukee Cooking School.....	102	52	154	3,621	1,271	4,892	112,026	6,594	24,036	50,636	193,302

a Elementary in Sloyd school; secondary in manual training high school; collegiate in technical college.

VIII.—PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

TABLE I.—Statistics of schools of theology for 1894-95.

Location.	Name of school.	President or dean.	In-struct-ors.		Students.		Length of course.		Value of grounds and buildings.	Endowment funds.	Benefactions received in 1894-95.	Is a degree conferred upon completion of the course?	What degree?	Is it given by diploma?	Volumes in library.	
			Professors.	Special or assistant.	In attendance.	Graduating.	A. B. or B. S.	Years.								Weeks in year.
1 Talladega, Ala....	Talladega College, Theological Department (Cong.)	G. W. Andrews.....	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
2 Tuscaloosa, Ala....	Stillman Institute (Presb.).....	A. L. Phillips, D. D.....	2	0	13	5	0	3	34	\$8,000	\$600	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	2,200
3 Los Angeles, Cal....	Mackay College of Theology, University of Southern California (M. B.)	George Cochran, D. D.....	2	1	4	0	3	3	36	\$3,800	3,200	No.	B. D..	1,500
4 Oakland, Cal.....	Pacific Theological Seminary (Cong.)	John Knox McLean, D. D.	6	2	19	3	7	3	32	60,000	262,000	B. D..	Yes.	6,399	
5 San Anselmo, Cal.	San Francisco Theological Seminary (Presb.)	Alexander Mackenzie, D. D.	6	1	30	5	3	28	110,000	400,000	\$125,000	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	18,000
6 San Mateo, Cal....	Church Divinity School of the Pacific (P. S.)	Wm. F. Nichols, D. D....	3	2	7	0	2	3	37	10,000	40,000	1,200
7 Denver, Colo.....	Blif School of Theology, University of Denver (M. B.)	Wm. F. McDowell.....	3	2	15	3	3	3	35	65,000	100,000	700	Yes ^b	S. T. B.	Yes.	2,000
8do.....	Matthews Hall Theological School (P. E.)	John F. Spalding, D. D....	4	1	5	4	2	3	35	0	Yes.	8,000
9 Hartford, Conn ...	Hartford Theological Seminary (Cong.)	Chester D. Hartnuff, D. D.	13	12	49	11	10	3	31	No.	63,000
10 Middletown, Conn	Berkley Divinity School (P. E.)	No report.	7	2	114	32	83	3	34	30,000	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	3,500
11 New Haven, Conn.	Divinity School of Yale University (Cong.)	Timothy Dwight, D. D., LL. D.	9	65	2	4	38	700,000	500,000	100,000	Yes.	(c)	Yes.	16,000
12 Washington, D. C.	Catholic University of America (R. C.)	J. J. Keane.....	2	6	40	5	3	39	45,000	Yes ^b	B. D..	1,000
13do.....	Howard University, Theological Department (nonsect.)	John L. Ewell, D. D.....	2	6	40	5	3	39	Yes ^b	B. D..

^c S. T. B., S. T. L., D. D.

^b Provided has already received A. B.

^a By will of Alexander Montgomery.

TABLE I.—Statistics of schools of theology for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name of school.	President or dean.	In-struct-ors.		Students.			Length of course.		Value of grounds and buildings.	Endowment funds.	Benefactions received in 1894-95.	Is a degree conferred upon com-pletion of the course?	What degree?	Is it given by diploma?	Volumes in library.
			Professors.	Special or assistant.	In attendance.	Graduating.	Students having degree	Years.	Weeks in year.							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
14	Washington, D. C. King Hall Theological School (P. E.).	William V. Tunnell.....	1	1	11	2	3	38	\$35,000	No..	550
15	Atlanta, Ga.....	Atlanta Baptist Seminary.....	2	1	15	1	2	32	45,000	No..	1,000
16 do	Gannou Theological Seminary (M. E.).	4	0	84	10	12	3	32	100,000	\$400,000	Yesa	B. D..	Yes.	9,000
17	Chicago, Ill.	Chicago Theological Seminary (Cong.).	12	3	144	44	75	3	30	350,000	1,363,278	\$38,769	Yesa	B. D..	Yes.	15,000
18 do	McCormick Theological Seminary (Presb.).	6	2	209	60	170	3	32	760,000	500,000	20,000	No..	16,000
19 do	Theological Seminary of the Evan-gelical Lutheran Church, L. L. D.	3	4	38	2	19	3	30	80,000	0	6,000	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	3,000
20 do	University of Chicago, Divinity School (Bapt.).	14	6	9292	27	140	3	36	165,000	400,000	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	40,000
21 do	Western Theological Seminary (P. E.).	5	1	18	3	5	3	35	125,000	125,000	No..	(c)	4,100
22	Eureka, Ill.	Eureka College Bible Department (Dis. of Christ).	2	0	79	2	2	3	39	97,000	36,000	11,500	Yes.	B. S. L.	Yes.	2,792
23	Evanston, Ill.	Garrett Biblical Institute (M. E.).	7	2	153	35	46	3	40	300,000	(f)	2,000	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	5,000
24 do	Norwegian Danish Theological School (M. E.).	1	1	24	6	3	32	18,000	No..
25	Galesburg, Ill.	Ryder Divinity School (Univ.).	5	4	22	4	0	4	38	0	75,357	0	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.
26	Naperville, Ill.	Union Biblical Institute (Ev. Assn.).	2	0	28	8	2	2	40	20,000	0	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	500
27	Rock Island, Ill.	Augustana Theological Seminary (Ev. Luth.).	4	0	46	26	3	34	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.
28	Springfield, Ill.	Concordia College (German Ev. Luth.).	3	2	180	45	3	43	100,000	2,000	1,000	No..	(c)
29	Upper Alton, Ill.	School of Theology, Shurtleff Col-lege (Bapt.).	3	2	15	0	0	2	36	23,000	No..

No.	Location	Name	Faculty	4	1	43	15	3	3	40	Yes	S. T. E.	Yes	3,700
30	Greencastle, Ind.	De Pauw University School of Theology (M. E.).	Hillary A. Gobin, D. D.	4	1	43	15	3	3	40	Yes	S. T. E.	Yes	3,700
31	Merom, Ind.	Union Christian College Theological Department (Christ.).	L. J. Aldrich	2	3	33	3	1	3	36	Yes	B. D.	Yes	3,200
32	St. Meinrad, Ind.	St. Meinrad's Seminary (R. C.).	Fintan Mundwiler	7	0	48	12	4	4	40	No.			
33	Upland, Ind.	Taylor University Theological School (M. E.).	T. C. Reade, D. D.	2	2	30	0	0	3	36	No.			
34	Charles City, Iowa.	Charles City College (M. E.).	J. F. Hirsch.	1	2	10	2	0	3	39	No.			300
35	Des Moines, Iowa.	Bible College of Drake University (Christ.).	A. J. Hobbs	8	0	108	5	4	4	40	Yes	B. D.	Yes	600
36	Dubuque, Iowa.	German Presbyterian Theological School of the Northwest.	A. W. Kingland, D. D.	3	4	34	5	3	3	33				
37	do	Warburg Seminary (Ev. Luth.).	S. Frischel, D. D.	3	0	56	9	13	3	28	Yes		Yes	3,600
38	Mount Pleasant, Iowa.	Theological Course of the German College (M. E.).	Friedrich Manz.	2	1	12	1	0	3	36	No.			300
39	Danville, Ky.	Theological Seminary of the Presbyterian Church.	Stephen Yerkes, D. D.	4	3	24	3	15	3	30	No.			5,000
40	Lexington, Ky.	Theological Course of the College of the Bible (Christ.).	Robert Graham	3	0	141	*14	2	40		No.			
41	Louisville, Ky.	Louisville Presbyterian Theological Seminary.	Wm. Hoge Marquess, D. D.	7	6	52	8	3	3	31	Yes	B. D.	Yes	
42	do	Southern Baptist Theological Seminary.	W. H. Whitsett, D. D., L. L. D.	6	4	267	13	3	3	35	Yes	(e)		20,000
43	New Orleans, La.	Straight University Theological Department (Cong.).	George W. Henderson	1	0	12	0	3	3	33	Yes	B. D.	Yes	
44	Bangor, Me.	Bangor Theological Seminary (Cong.).	Levi L. Paine, D. D.	5	2	58	15	3	3	34	No.			
45	Lewiston, Me.	Cobb Divinity School (Free Bapt.).	James A. Howe, D. D.	4	1	20	3	2	3	39	No.		(c)	3,800
46	Baltimore, Md.	Theological Seminary of St. Stephen and St. Mary's University (R. C.).	A. Magnien, D. D.	15	0	311	53	3	3	40	Yes	S. T. E.	Yes	27,000
47	Elchester, Md.	The Holocompist College of Elchester (R. C.).	Elias Fred Schauer	7	0	60	21	4	4	44	No.			18,000
48	Mount St. Marys, Md.	Mount St. Mary's Theological Seminary (R. C.).	Edward P. Allen, D. D.	9	0	40	4	24	4	42	No.			15,000
49	Westminster, Md.	Westminster Theological Seminary (M. E.).	James T. Ward, D. D., F. S. Sc.	4	0	27		3	40	3,500	Yes	B. D.	Yes	1,400
50	Andover, Mass.	Andover Theological Seminary (Cong.).	Egbert C. Smyth	8	7	54	19	49	3	36	No.			
51	Boston, Mass.	Boston University School of Theology (M. E.).	Marcus D. Buell, S. T. D.	9	5	150	34	80	3	32	Yes	S. T. E.	Yes	6,000
52	Cambridge, Mass.	Divinity School of Harvard University (nonsect.).	Charles C. Everett, D. D., L. L. D.	6	4	52	7	41	3	38	Yes	B. Th.	Yes	26,013
53	do	Episcopal Theological School (P. E.).	George Hodges, D. D.	6	1	49	14	38	3	40	Yes	B. D.	Yes	7,000

* In 1893-94.
 a Provided has already received A. B.
 b Of the 292 students 175 were in the Graduate Divinity School, 55 in the English Theological Seminary, 26 in the Dano-Norwegian Theological Seminary, and 36 in the Swedish Theological Seminary.
 c A diploma is given.
 d Yield about \$50,000 annually.
 e Th. C., Th. B., Th. M., Th. D.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of schools of theology for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name of school.	President or dean.	In-struct-ors.		Students.			Length of course.		Value of grounds and buildings.	Endowment funds.	Benefactions received in 1894-95.	Is a degree conferred upon completion of course?	What degree?	Is it given by diploma?	Volumes in library.
			Professors.	Special or assistant.	In attendance.	Graduating.	Students having degree A. B. or Ph. D.	Years.	Weeks in year.							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
54 Cambridge, Mass.	New Church Theological School (New Jeru.).	James Reed.....	3	3	5	1	2	3	36	\$50,000	\$200,000	\$40,000	No..	1,000
55 Newton Center, Mass.	Newton Theological Institute (Bapt.).	Alvah Hovey, D. D., L.L.D.	7	3	78	21	36	3	36	175,403	400,000	50,000	20,000
56 Trafts College, Mass.	Trafts College Divinity School (Univ.).	Elmer H. Capen, D. D....	8	0	43	9	7	3	36	40,000	65,000	15,000	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	3,000
57 Adrian, Mich.....	Adrian College School of Theology (M. B.).	G. B. McElroy, D. D.....	2	0	30	3	3	36	29,000	0	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.
58 Hillsdale, Mich.....	Hillsdale College Theological Department (F. W. Bapt.).	Ransom Dunn.....	4	1	86	0	3	38	0	83,200	0	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	5,000
59 Holland, Mich.....	Western Theological Seminary (Act. Ch. in Amer.).	Nicholas M. Steffens, D. D.	3	0	22	9	15	3	32	45,000	5,000	No..
60 Collegeville, Minn.	St. John's Seminary (R. C.).	Peter Engel, Ph. D.....	4	0	37	6	0	4	40	382,000	0	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	8,000
61 Faribault, Minn.....	Seabury Divinity School (P. E.).	Alford A. Butler.....	7	0	21	6	3	3	35	100,000	32,000	8,000	Yes.	B. D..	Yes.	4,000
62 Minneapolis, Minn.....	Angsbury Seminary (Luth.).	Georg Sverdrup.....	2	0	32	10	13	3	30	75,000	56,000	1,500
63 Red Wing, Minn.....	Red Wing Norwegian Evangelical Lutheran Seminary.	H. H. Bergsland.....	2	1	23	3	19	3	36	31,000	No..	(6)
64 Robbinsdale, Minn.....	Luther Seminary.....	J. B. Frick.....	4	1	44	17	0	3	40	(6)	1,710	0	No..	500
65 St. Paul, Minn.....do.....	H. Ernst.....	2	0	38	13	0	2	40	35,000	1,600	No..	400
66 ..do.....	St. Paul Seminary (R. C.).	Louis Gaillet.....	10	1	65	8	4	43	260,000	260,000	420,000	No..	4,500
67 Liberty, Mo.....	Jeremiah Vardaman School of Theology (Bapt.).	W. R. Rothwell, D. D....	1	3	49	4	0	3	40	No..
68 St. Louis, Mo.....	Concordia Theological Seminary (Luth.).	Francis Pieper.....	5	0	151	54	151	3	40	250,000	0	0	No..	25,409
69 ..do.....	Kenrick Diocesan Seminary (R. C.).	P. V. Byrne.....	5	3	65	16	3	50	100,000	0	0	No..	5,000
70 ..do.....	Theological Seminary of the German Evangelical Synod of North America, Eden College.	Louis F. Haeberle.....	3	0	71	24	3	40	125,000	5,000	9,691	No..	5,000

No.	City	Name of School	Faculty	2	0	43	5	0	3	40	15,000	3,000	Yes ^e	B. D.	Yes
71	Warrenton, Mo	Central Wesleyan College (M. E.)	Geo. B. Addicks	2	0	43	5	0	3	40	15,000	3,000	No.	B. D.	Yes
72	Blair, Neb	Trinity Seminary (Luth.)	G. B. Christiansen	2	0	12	4	0	3	28	15,000	0	No.	B. D.	1,909
73	Omaha, Neb	Presbyterian Theological Seminary	W. W. Harshbarger, D. D., J. L. D.	7	2	32	8	0	3	30	0	0	No.	B. D.	
74	Santee Agency, Neb	Santee Normal Training School (Cong.)	Alfred L. Biggs, D. D.	2	1	10	2	0	3	40			No.	B. D.	
75	Bloomfield, N. J.	German Theological School of Newark (Presb.)	Charles E. Knox, D. D.	3	2	21	5	0	3	36	25,000	850	No.	B. D.	4,500
76	Madison, N. J.	Drew Theological Seminary (M. E.)	Henry A. Buttz, D. D., L. L. D.	6	2	144	44	56	3	35	460,000	110,000	Yes.	B. D.	32,138
77	New Brunswick, N. J.	Seminary of the Reformed Dutch Church in America	Sam. M. Woodbridge, D. D., L. L. D.	5	2	42	9	29	3	34	350,000	375,000	Yes ^d	B. D.	42,750
78	Princeton, N. J.	Theological Seminary of the Presbyterian Church	W. Henry Green, D. D., L. L. D., sec. prof.	8	3	263	78	224	3	36	506,150	1,331,526	No.	B. D.	57,203
79	South Orange, N. J.	Seminary of the Immaculate Conception (R. C.)	J. B. Connor	4	1	31	4	23	4	40	200,000	35,000	No.	B. D.	5,000
80	Alfred Center, N. Y.	Alfred University, Theological Department (7-Day Bapt.)	Arthur E. Main	3	0	4	1	1	3	38	500	23,800	Yes.	B. D.	
81	Albany, N. Y.	St. Bonaventure's Seminary (R. C.)	Joseph F. Butler	5	2	45	11	0	4	42	241,500	8,910	No.	B. D.	7,313
82	Auburn, N. Y.	Auburn Theological Seminary (Presb.)	Henry M. Booth, D. D., L. L. D.	6	3	112	19	70	3	31	300,000	624,583	No.	B. D.	22,352
83	Buffalo, N. Y.	German Martin Luther Seminary	Wm. Graham	1	2	8	0	0	3	40	12,000	250	No.	B. D.	1,809
84	Canton, N. Y.	Canton Theological School (Unit.)	Isaac M. Atwood, D. D.	4	3	22	6	2	3	37	59,000	143,794	Yes ^f	B. D.	9,000
85	Hamilton, N. Y.	Kamilton Theological Seminary (Bapt.)	Sylvester Burnham, D. D.	6	3	55	14	24	3	35			Yes.	B. D.	
86	Hartwick Seminary, N. Y.	Hartwick Seminary (Luth.)	John G. Traver	2	1	4	0	1	3	39		0	Yes.	B. D.	3,000
87	New York, N. Y.	General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church	Eugene A. Hoffman, D. D., D. C. L., L. L. D.	9	3	138	24	11	3	35	1,285,000	847,756	Yes.	B. D.	25,900
88	do	Union Theological Seminary in the City of New York (Presb.)	Thos. S. Hastings, D. D., L. L. D.	6	5	142	35	126	3	34	500,000	1,200,000	No.	B. D.	(a) 65,716
89	Niagara University, N. Y.	Seminary of Our Lady of Angels, Niagara University (R. C.)	Patrik Mac Hale, C. M.	5	0	60	10	20	4	35			No.	B. D.	
90	Rochester, N. Y.	Rochester Theological Seminary (Bapt.)	Augustus H. Strong, D. D., L. L. D.	12	0	136	28	67	3	36				B. D.	28,074
91	do	St. Bernard's Seminary (R. C.)	J. J. Hartley	8	0	39	3	0	4	40	300,000		No.	B. D.	
92	Stanfordville, N. Y.	Christian Biblical Institute (Christ.)	John B. Weston, D. D.	4	1	27	0	4	34	34	40,000	7,217	No.	B. D.	2,250
93	Syracuse, N. Y.	St. Andrew's Divinity School (P. E.)	W. D. Wilson, D. D., L. L. D., D. C. L.	2	2	6	3	1	2,3	42	0	0	No.	B. D.	
94	Troy, N. Y.	St. Joseph's Provincial Seminary (R. C.)	P. A. Puissant	7	0	125	20	0	4	40		0	No.	B. D.	8,000
95	Belmont, N. C.	St. Mary's College (R. C.)	Leo Haidt, D. D.	5	1	10	5	3	0	40	95,000	0	No.	B. D.	3,000
96	Charlotte, N. C.	Biddle University, Theological Department (Presb.)	D. J. Sanders, D. D.	5	0	19	3	13	3	32			Yes.	S. T. B.	8,800
97	Hickory, N. C.	St. Paul's Evangelical Lutheran Theological Seminary	H. K. G. Doermann	2	0	23	3	0	3	38	9,000		Yes.	B. D.	
98	Raleigh, N. C.	Shaw University, Theological Department (Bapt.)	Charles F. Meserve	2	0	32	0	0	1	31			No.	B. D.	

^e Students taking twelve hours' extra work during the term of three years receive the degree B. D.
^f After completion of four years' course.

^a Provided has already received A. B.
^d The degree is given by Rutgers College on recommendation of theological school.

* In 1892-94.
^a A diploma is given.
^b Buildings burned January, 1895.

TABLE 1.—Statistics of schools of theology for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name of school.	President or dean.	In-struct-ors.		Students.			Length of course.		Value of grounds and buildings.	12	13	14	15	16	17
			Professors.	Special or assistant.	In attendance.	Graduating.	Students having degree	Years.	Weeks in year.							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
99	Berea, Ohio	German Wallace College, Theolog-ical Department (M. E.).	2	0	29											
100	Carthage, Ohio	St. Charles Borromeo Seminary (R. C.)	4	1	19	2		5	40	\$20,000						4,000
101	Cincinnati, Ohio	Hebrew Union College	7	2	58	3	1	8	40	25,000	\$80,000	\$27,500	Yes.	B. H.	Yes.	14,000
102	do	Lane Theological Seminary (Presb.)	3	9	29	7		3	33	150,000	280,000	0	No.			17,400
103	Cleveland, Ohio	St. Mary's Theological Seminary (R. C.)	4	0	38	4	5	4	42	75,000	0	12,000	No.			6,000
104	Columbus, Ohio	Evangelical Lutheran Theolog-ical Seminary.	3	0	36	8	33	3	40	125,000			No.			6,000
105	Dayton, Ohio	Union Biblical Seminary (United Breth.).	4	2	43	10		3	32	40,000	85,000	12,000	Yes.	B. D.	No.	2,000
106	Gambier, Ohio	Divinity School of Kenyon Col-lege (P. E.).	5	3	21	5		3	36	15,000	85,000		No.			
107	Oberlin, Ohio	Oberlin College, Department of Theology (Cong.).	9	4	64	17	25	3	32	60,000	6140,000	2,610	Yes.	B. D.	Yes.	10,000
108	Springfield, Ohio	Wittenberg College, Theological Department (Ev. Luth.).	3	0	40	12		3	32				Yes.	B. D.	Yes.	
109	Tiffin, Ohio	Heidelberg Theological Seminary (Ref. Ch.).	4	0	29	10	21	3	28	2,000	25,000		No.		(d)	11,000
110	Wilberforce, Ohio	Wilberforce University, Theolog-ical Department (A. M. E.).	3	0	30	3	0	3	36	10,000	0	1,000	Yes.	B. D.	Yes.	1,200
111	Xenia, Ohio	Xenia Theological Seminary (C. Presb.).	4	0	44	14	39	3	34	12,000	125,000	13,000	(c)			5,359
112	Allegheny, Pa.	Allegheny Theological Seminary (C. Presb.).	4	1	73	14	70	3	32	60,000	200,000	21,000	No.	(c)		7,000
113	do	Reformed Presbyterian Theolog-ical Seminary.	2	1	15	2	14	4	26	25,000	73,866	1,972	No.	(c)		3,300

No.	Name	W. H. Jeffers, D. D., LL. D.	5	1	100	31	90	3	32	250,000	552,000	No.	(e)	No.
114	Western Theological Seminary (Presb.),	W. H. Jeffers, D. D., LL. D.	5	1	100	31	90	3	32	250,000	552,000	No.	(e)	25,000
115	Bentley, Pa.	Leander Scherer	7	0	40	16	3	40				No.		10,000
116	Bethlehem, Pa.	Augustus Schulzke, D. D.	3	2	13	0	10	23	40			Yes.	B. D.	6,000
117	Chester, Pa.	Henry G. Weston	6	1	103	21	3	36			30,000	No.		15,000
118	Collegeville, Pa.	James I. Good, D. D.	4	0	22	4	18	3	32			Yes.	B. D.	2,000
119	Gettysburg, Pa.	James McGill	5	3	34	5	4	40				No.		12,000
120	Gettysburg, Pa.	Milton Valentine, D. D., LL. D.	4	1	56	18	45	3	36	100,000	120,500	No.		11,000
121	Lancaster, Pa.	Emanuel V. Gerhart, D. D., LL. D.	5	1	65	19	12	3	34	100,000	159,500	No.		12,000
122	Lincoln University, Pa.	Isaac N. Kendall, D. D.	7	1	40	5	3	30				Yes.	S. T. B.	
123	Meadville, Pa.	George L. Cary, L. H. D.	5	3	40	12	1	3	38	50,000	34,100	Yes.	B. D.	27,000
124	Overbrook, Pa.	John E. Fitz Maurice, D. D.	12	1	144	11	44					No.		23,000
125	Philadelphia, Pa.	Edward T. Bartlett, D. D.	7	2	33	3	15	3	35	85,450		No.		
126	do	Henry E. Jacobs, LL. D.	5	1	88	27	58	3	32	150,000	6,500			19,000
127	Selinsgrove, Pa.	J. R. Dinnm, D. D.	2	1	15	2	2	3	39			No.	(d)	3,000
128	Villanova, Pa.	Thomas C. Middleton, D. D.	4	0	10		4	40				Yes.		
129	Columbia, S. C.	Jas. D. Tadlock, D. D., LL. D.	5	2	37	16	24	3	32	40,000	220,000	No.	(e)	20,000
130	Due West, S. C.	Wm. L. Pressly, D. D.	4	0	8	3	8	2	37	0	30,000	0	No.	1,500
131	Newberry, S. C.	A. G. Voigt	1	0	7	3	3	3	33	0	12,000	0	No.	
132	Athens, Tenn.	No report.												
133	Clarksville, Tenn.	George Summey, D. D.	5	1	30	4	12	2	40			1,000	Yes.	5,000
134	Kimberlin Heights, Tenn.	Ashley S. Johnson	6	0	90		40			15,000				
135	Lebanon, Tenn.	J. M. Hribbert, D. D.	6	2	40	18	25	3	20	10,000	60,000	Yes.	B. D.	12,000

^c In 1892-94.

^d From estate of Miss Laura Seasonood, Cincinnati, Ohio, \$7,500; from estate of J. D. Bernd, Pittsburg, Pa., \$20,000.

^e Also shares in the university funds.

^f Upon graduates of the classical course.

^g A diploma is given.

^h Gives certificate of completion of course.

ⁱ Theological graduates pursuing a post-graduate course of two years receive the degree B. D. after satisfactory examination.

^j From Mrs. Frances A. Hackley, of Barrytown, N. Y., to found a professorship of sociology and ethics.

TABLE I.—Statistics of schools of theology for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name of school.	President or dean.	In-struct-ors.		Students.			Length of course.		Value of grounds and buildings.	Endowment funds.	Benefactions received in 1894-95.	Is a degree conferred upon com-pletion of the course?	What degree?	Is it given by diploma?	Volumes in library.
			Professors.	Special or assistant.	In attendance.	Graduating.	Students having degree A. B. or B. S.	Years.	Weeks in year.							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
136 Nashville, Tenn.	Central Tennessee College, Theo-logical Department (M. E.).	J. Braden, D. D.	1	2	25	1	0	3	36	\$5,000	0	Yes.	B. D.	Yes.
137 do	Fisk University, Theological De-partment (Cong.).	E. M. Cravath, D. D.	5	0	3	2	1	3	37	1,579	0	Yes.	B. D.	Yes.	300
138 do	Vanderbilt University, Biblical Department (M. E. S.).	Wilbur F. Tillett, D. D.	5	1	48	9	38	3	38	a\$2,500	Yes.	B. D.	Yes.	7,000
139 Sevanee, Tenn.	University of the South, Theolog-ical Department (P. E.).	W. P. Du Bose, S. T. D., D. D.	4	3	19	3	4	3	40	\$40,000	40,000	0	Yes.	G. D.	Yes.	2,000
140 El Paso, Tex.	Bo Grande Congregational Train-ing School.	A. C. Wright	1	2	17	0	0	4	40	10,000	0	5,400	No.	135
141 Tehuacana, Tex.	Trinity University, Theological Department (Cumb, Presb.).	B. D. Cochrell	2	2	32	2	36	No.	(b)
142 Hampden Sidney, Va.	Union Theological Seminary (Presb.).	Thomas R. English, D. D.	5	0	70	16	3	31	100,000	305,000	No.
143 Petersburg, Va.	Bishop Payne Divinity School (P. E.).	C. R. Hains, D. D.	2	1	10	0	1	3	39	1,570	No.	300
144 Richmond, Va.	Richmond Theological Seminary (Bapt.).	Chas. H. Corey, D. D.	4	0	50	6	3	31	23,000	60,000	Yes.	B. D.	Yes.	5,100
145 Theological Semi-nary, Va.	Protestant Episcopal Theological Seminary.	Joseph Packard, D. D.	5	1	38	14	3	40	300,000	(c)	18,000
146 Franklin, Wis.	Mission House (Ref.).	H. A. Muehlmeier, D. D.	3	0	24	6	5	3	33	Yes.	5,000
147 Milwaukee, Wis.	Lutheran Theological Seminary.	A. Hoenecke	3	0	34	8	8	3	40	60,000	0	No.
148 Nashville, Wis.	Nashotah House (P. E.).*	Walter R. Gardner, D. D.	5	0	40	5	3	33	40,000	100,000	No.
149 St. Francis, Wis.	Seminary of St. Francis of Sales (R. C.).	Joseph Reiner	12	0	90	37	3	45	200,000	No.

a From Col. E. W. Cole.

b Gives certificate of completion of course.

c A diploma is given.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of schools of law for 1894-95.

Location.	Name of school.	Dean.	In-struct-ors.		Students.			Length of course.		Tuition fee.	Graduation or examination fees.	Cost of the entire course.	Volumes in library.	Scholarships giving free tuition.	Is the instruction given in the day or evening?	
			Regular professors.	Special or assistant.	Male.	Female.	Graduating.	Having degree in letters or science.	Years.							Weeks in annual course.
			4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	University, Ala.....		3	0	20	0	1	38	\$50	\$2	\$83	Day.
2	Little Rock, Ark.....		4	2	31	0	11	2	40	50	5	105	Day.
3	San Francisco, Cal..		3	0	161	2	35	69	3	36	10	0	30	0	0	Day.
4	Stanford Univer- sity, Cal.		2	1	128	1	4	8	(a)	40	(c)	500	Day.
5	Boulder, Colo.....		7	22	49	0	7	1	2	39	25	0	55	500	0	Day.
6	Denver, Colo.....		12	0	49	3	14	5	2	32	75	10	160	1,500	0	Both.
7	New Haven, Conn		5	27	195	0	85	2	34	2,150	5	315	9,000	Day.
8	Washington, D. C.		6	4	332	0	81	2	34	80	10	160	Even.
9do.....		9	1	307	0	124	49	3	31	80	10	230	2,000	Even.
10do.....		5	1	37	0	13	2	31	40	5	85	Even.
11do.....		9	0	96	0	23	2	32	80	0	150	Even.
12	Athens, Ga.....		4	2	26	0	21	8	1	30	75	0	75	Day.
13	Atlanta, Ga.....		6	0	0	0	4	1, 2	40	75	10	0	0	0	Even.
14	Macon, Ga.....		4	0	12	0	11	0	1	32	60	5	65	0	0	Even.
15	Bloomington, Ill..		5	2	51	0	25	2	38	60	5	125	Day.
16	Chicago, Ill.....		6	174	7	64	38	2	36	75	6	136	0	Even.
17do.....		7	0	528	5	91	2	40	60	5	125	Even.
18do.....		5	5	189	3	64	32	2	38	80	10	175	800	0	Day.
19	Lebanon, Ill.....		1	0	30	0	9	2	2	36	45	5	110	Both.
20	Quincy, Ill.....		4	0	4	0	3	0	2	36	60	5	125	0	0	Even.
21	Bloomington, Ind		2	1	83	2	19	2	38	37	5	95	Day.
22	Dayville, Ind.....		2	1	12	1	2	30	30	5	65	Day.
23	Notre Dame, Ind....		4	5	37	0	14	5	2, 3	40	100	10	210	1,950	Day.

c Approximately.

b Average.

a Law is not set off as a distinct course.

* In 1893-94.

50	Ada, Ohio.....	Ohio Normal University Law School.....	S. P. Axline, LL. D.....	2	0	87	1	36	3	36	36	4	112	450	0	Day.
51	Cincinnati, Ohio.....	Cincinnati College Law School ^a	Jacob D. Cox, LL. D.....	5	0	155	3	99	2	33	75	5	155	Day.
52	Cleveland, Ohio.....	Franklin T. Baekens Law School of Western Reserve University.....	Evam H. Hopkins.....	14	2	38	0	7	3	3	36	100	0	300	5,000	4	Day.
53	Columbus, Ohio.....	Ohio State University, School of Law.....	Wm. F. Hunter.....	10	0	65	0	15	13	2	36	45	5	e145	2,500	0	Day.
54	Lebanon, Ohio.....	National Normal University, College of Law ^b	G. W. Stanley.....	1	7	21	1	6	2	40	48	5	101	Day.
55	Portland, Oreg.....	University of Oregon, Law School.....	Richard H. Thornton.....	4	0	83	1	26	2	80	60	10	130	130	Both.
56	Salem, Oreg.....	Willamette University, Law Department.....	S. T. Richardson.....	12	2	3	0	1	2	34	40	10	90	Day.
57	Carlisle, Pa.....	Dickinson School of Law.....	William Trickett.....	5	6	71	1	16	4	2,3	33	80	10	170	2,500	Day.
58	Philadelphia, Pa.....	University of Pennsylvania, Department of Law.....	C. Stuart Patterson.....	9	3	273	0	62	81	3	36	150	0	455	9,741	0	Day.
59	Columbia, S. C.....	University of South Carolina, School of Law.....	Joseph D. Pope.....	1	0	18	0	6	5	2	36	40	3	83	0	0	Day.
60	Harriman, Tenn.....	American Temperance University, Law Department.....	Wilber Colvin.....	1	9	7	0	2	3	2	35	50	5	110	250	0	Day.
61	Knoxville, Tenn.....	University of Tennessee, Department of Law.....	Henry H. Ingersoll, LL. D.....	2	1	23	0	9	3	2	40	50	6	116	200	2	Day.
62	Lebanon, Tenn.....	Cumberland University, Law School.....	Nathan Green, LL. D.....	2	1	78	0	54	1	40	100	5	115	0	Day.
63	Nashville, Tenn.....	Central Tennessee College, Law Department.....	Edgar Webber.....	2	3	6	0	3	0	2	36	30	10	70	300	0	Day.
64do.....	Vanderbilt University, Law Department.....	Thomas H. Malone.....	3	0	35	0	4	10	2	38	100	5	215	6,000	2	Day.
65	Sewanee, Tenn.....	Sewanee Law School, University of the South.....	B. J. Ramage, Ph. D.....	1	0	17	0	4	1,2	40	100	10	210	200	Both.
66	Austin, Tex.....	University of Texas, Department of Law.....	James B. Clark, sec.....	3	0	118	0	31	11	2	36	0	0	30	1,000	0	Both.
67	Fort Worth, Tex.....	Fort Worth University, Law Department.....	Augustus J. Booty.....	3	0	10	0	0	2	34	48	96	Day.
68	Lexington, Va.....	Washington and Lee University, School of Law.....	Jno. Randolph Tucker, LL. D.....	2	0	58	0	21	1,2	36	50	80	4,500	1	Day.
69	Richmond, Va.....	Richmond College, School of Law.....	F. W. Boatwright.....	1	0	36	0	14	1,2	39	40	5	e95	800	Even.
70	University of Virginia.....	University of Virginia Law School.....	Wm. M. Thornton, LL. D.....	4	0	146	0	44	24	1,2	40	100	15	245	2	Day.
71	Morgantown, W. Va.....	West Virginia University, Law Department.....	St. George T. Brooke.....	2	0	62	0	28	1	40	0	Day.
72	Madison, Wis.....	University of Wisconsin, College of Law.....	Edwin E. Bryant.....	7	2	267	1	89	a,2	37	100	0	100	Day.

^a In 1893-94.

^b Three years hereafter.

^c In April, 1895, the Metropolitan Law School and the Law School of the University of the City of New York were consolidated.

^d Approximately.

^e Average.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of schools

Location.	Name of school.	Dean.
1	2	3
REGULAR.		
1 Birmingham, Ala...	Birmingham Medical College.....	W. H. Johnston.....
2 Mobile, Ala.....	Medical College of Alabama.....	George A. Ketchum.....
3 Little Rock, Ark.....	Arkansas Industrial University, Medical Department.	James A. Dibrell, jr.....
4 Los Angeles, Cal.....	University of Southern California, College of Medicine.	J. P. Widney.....
5 San Francisco, Cal.....	Cooper Medical College.....	Henry Gibbons, jr.....
6 ..do.....	University of California Medical Department.....	Robert A. McLean.....
7 Boulder, Colo.....	University of Colorado Medical Department.....	J. T. Eskridge.....
8 Denver, Colo.....	Gross Medical College.....	Thomas H. Hawkins.....
9 ..do.....	University of Denver Medical Department.....	Samuel A. Fisk.....
10 New Haven, Conn.....	Yale University Medical Department.....	Herbert E. Smith.....
11 Washington, D. C.....	Columbian University Medical Department.....	D. K. Shute.....
12 ..do.....	Georgetown University Medical Department.....	G. L. Magruder.....
13 ..do.....	Howard University Medical Department.....	Thomas B. Hood.....
14 ..do.....	National University Medical Department.....	John T. Winter.....
15 Atlanta, Ga.....	Atlanta Medical College.....	H. V. M. Miller, jr.....
16 ..do.....	Southern Medical College.....	William P. Nicolson.....
17 Augusta, Ga.....	University of Georgia Medical College.....	Thomas R. Wright.....
18 Chicago, Ill.....	College of Physicians and Surgeons of Chicago.....	William E. Quine.....
19 ..do.....	Northwestern University Medical School.....	Nathan Smith Davis.....
20 ..do.....	Rush Medical College.....	Edward L. Holmes.....
21 ..do.....	Woman's Medical College of Northwestern University. ^a	Isaac N. Danforth.....
22 Fort Wayne, Ind.....	Fort Wayne College of Medicine, Taylor University.	Christian B. Stemen.....
23 Indianapolis, Ind.....	Central College of Physicians and Surgeons.....	S. E. Earp.....
24 ..do.....	Medical College of Indiana.....	Joseph W. Marsee.....
25 Council Bluffs, Iowa.....	Council Bluffs Medical College. ^g	Donald Macrae.....
26 Des Moines, Iowa.....	Iowa College of Physicians and Surgeons, Drake University.	Lewis Schooler.....
27 Iowa City, Iowa.....	State University of Iowa Medical Department.....	J. C. Shrader.....
28 Keokuk, Iowa.....	College of Physicians and Surgeons.....	J. C. Hughes.....
29 ..do.....	Keokuk Medical College.....	J. A. Scroggs.....
30 Sioux City, Iowa.....	Sioux City College of Medicine.....	Edward Hornbrook.....
31 Topeka, Kans.....	Kansas Medical College.....	John E. Minney.....
32 Louisville, Ky.....	Hospital College of Medicine, Central University of Kentucky.	P. Richard Taylor.....
33 ..do.....	Kentucky School of Medicine.....	William H. Wathen.....
34 ..do.....	Louisville Medical College.....	Clinton W. Kelly.....
35 ..do.....	University of Louisville, Medical Department.....	J. M. Bodine.....
36 New Orleans, La.....	New Orleans University Medical School.....	Charles F. Dight.....
37 ..do.....	Tulane University of Louisiana, Medical Department.	Stanford E. Chaille.....
38 Brunswick, Me.....	Medical School of Maine at Bowdoin College.....	Alfred Mitchell.....
39 Portland, Me.....	Portland School for Medical Instruction. ^a	William L. Dana.....
40 Baltimore, Md.....	Baltimore Medical College.....	David Streett.....
41 ..do.....	Baltimore University School of Medicine. ^a	E. W. Eilau.....
42 ..do.....	College of Physicians and Surgeons of Baltimore.....	Thomas Opie.....
43 ..do.....	Johns Hopkins Medical School.....	William H. Welch.....
44 ..do.....	University of Maryland, School of Medicine.....	J. Edwin Michael.....
45 ..do.....	Woman's Medical College of Baltimore.....	I. R. Trimble.....
46 Boston, Mass.....	College of Physicians and Surgeons.....	Augustus P. Clarke.....
47 ..do.....	Harvard University Medical School.....	Wm. L. Richardson.....
48 ..do.....	Tufts' College Medical School.....	Albert Nott.....
49 Ann Arbor, Mich.....	University of Michigan Department of Medicine and Surgery.	Victor C. Vaughan.....
50 Detroit, Mich.....	Detroit College of Medicine.....	Theodore A. McGraw.....
51 ..do.....	Michigan College of Medicine and Surgery.....	Hal C. Wyman.....

* In 1893-94.

^a Approximately.^b No tuition to residents of the State.^c Four courses required hereafter.

of medicine for 1894-95.

In-struct-ors.		Students.			Length of course.		Is the course short-ened to graduates in letters or science?	Tuition fee.	Graduation fee.	Cost of the entire course.	Value of grounds and build-ings.	Productive funds.	Is the instruction given in the day or in the evening?	Volumes in library.	Scholarships giving free tuition.
Regular.	Special or assistant.	Men.	Women.	Number graduating.	Years.	Weeks in scholastic year.									
4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
10	3	30	0	1	3	24	No..	\$100	\$30	\$325	\$2,200	Day ...	0	1
8	13	119	0	16	3	24	No..	100	25	325	0	Day ...	45	2
15	11	86	0	14	3	24	No..	50	25	a 200	0	Day ...	0	3
19	1	46	7	10	4	32	130	40	3,000	Day ...	20	4
13	7	199	31	73	4	26	Yes.	130	40	445	\$475,000	56,000	Day ...	0	5
16	9	107	15	26	4	33	Yes.	100	25	450	50,000	0	Day ...	250	6
16	6	40	11	11	3	36	No..	b 0	30	125	Day ...	300	7
13	6	64	21	21	3	23	Yes.	75	30	195	20,000	Day	8
15	10	35	7	13	3	23	No..	75	30	300	Day	9
12	14	100	0	13	3	34	140	30	415	75,000	20,000	Day ...	0	10
22	4	167	2	37	4	28	Yes.	100	30	420	75,000	Eve ...	6	11
24	9	125	0	23	4	31	No..	100	0	426	0	Eve. d	2	12
8	8	122	6	22	4	24	No..	60	30	223	Eve ...	0	13
18	4	37	10	8	4	28	e 70	30	265	Eve ...	1	14
9	6	220	0	135	3	24	No..	100	30	315	20,000	Day ...	11	15
10	6	82	0	16	3	24	No..	75	30	305	Day	16
9	2	51	0	*20	3	24	No..	100	30	335	Day	17
36	6	256	0	80	4	30	Yes.	100	0	a 475	190,000	0	Day ...	10	18
32	24	269	0	25	4	33	Yes.	100	0	405	250,000	50,000	Day ...	500	0
15	61	840	0	203	4	33	Yes.	80	30	a 503	Day ...	0	19
23	20	0	119	30	3	30	100	30	a 350	38,000	0	Day ...	0	20
18	3	49	5	7	3	24	No..	40	25	a 200	5,000	0	Both ...	250	0
22	10	56	3	12	3	24	No..	60	25	a 200	15,000	Day ...	1,000
19	9	161	11	50	3	24	Yes.	60	25	a 230	0	Day ...	0	24
15	0	10	2	0	3	30	No..	60	30	235	Day ...	0	25
12	5	53	12	11	3	24	No..	40	25	185	10,000	0	Day ...	100	0
13	4	184	6	42	4	26	No..	a 40	25	190	75,000	Day ...	1,172	0
12	6	195	21	26	3	26	No..	48	30	150	25,000	5,000	Day	28
14	2	128	12	36	3	26	No..	33	30	124	20,000	Day ...	500	29
15	5	32	3	5	4	28	No..	53	20	237	Both ...	50	0
16	6	47	16	8	3	26	No..	65	30	170	0	Day ...	50	2
10	13	165	0	39	3	24	No..	75	30	a 300	24,000	0	Day ...	0	32
11	11	300	0	33	3	26	No..	75	30	300	33
10	20	225	0	35	3	26	No..	107	30	335	175,000	0	Both ...	0	34
8	2	232	0	50	3	26	Yes.	75	30	a 312	100,000	Day ...	4,000	0
9	3	26	2	5	4	20	No..	30	10	146	40,000	Day	0
7	10	304	0	74	3	26	No..	145	30	465	150,000	0	Day	0
11	2	116	0	28	3	24	78	25	a 275	15,000	0	Day	38
12	1	25	0	h 0	28	60	Day	39
11	23	409	0	*92	3	28	80	30	a 275	150,000	0	40
9	7	58	0	32	3	26	50	30	a 225	15,000	0	0
13	12	460	0	83	4	26	No..	100	30	a 430	300,000	0	Day	42
10	5	41	10	0	4	32	No..	200	90,000	324,000	Day ...	5,000	0
9	15	244	0	50	3	28	No..	100	30	365	0	Day	44
10	8	0	40	3	4	32	Yes.	100	30	430	12,000	2,000	Day ...	600	4
35	2	97	26	2	4	42	No..	125	30	420	Both	46
17	40	454	0	63	4	34	No..	200	30	714	Day ...	2,050	13
15	10	73	25	19	3	31	No..	90	30	330	Day ...	0	0
13	17	348	0	*64	4	36	10	10	256	Day	49
21	25	297	0	77	3	28	No..	50	30	295	Day	50
19	6	121	0	*27	3	24	50	25	a 200	0	51

d Hereafter in the day.
 e Average.
 f Deceased, June, 1896.
 g Discontinued.
 h This is a preparatory school.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of schools of

Location.	Name of school.	Dean.
1	2	3
REGULAR—continued.		
52	Minneapolis, Minn. University of Minnesota College of Medicine and Surgery.	Perry H. Millard
53	. . . do Minneapolis College of Physicians and Surgeons.	J. T. Moore
54	Columbia, Mo. Missouri University Medical Department	A. W. McAlester
55	Kansas City, Mo. Kansas City Medical College	J. D. Griffith
56	. . . do University Medical College of Kansas City	Charles W. Adams
57	St. Joseph, Mo. Central Medical College of Missouri	O. B. Campbell
58	. . . do Ensworth Medical College	Hiram Christopher
59	St. Louis, Mo. Barnes Medical College	C. H. Hughes
60	. . . do Beaumont Hospital Medical College	Warren B. Outten
61	. . . do Marion Sims College of Medicine	Young H. Bond
62	. . . do Missouri Medical College	P. G. Robinson
63	. . . do St. Louis College of Physicians and Surgeons	Waldo Briggs
64	. . . do St. Louis Medical College, Washington University	Henry H. Mudd
65	. . . do Woman's Medical College of St. Louis	George F. Huebert
66	Omaha, Nebr. John A. Creighton Medical College	P. S. Keogh
67	. . . do Omaha Medical College	Jacob C. Denise
68	Hanover, N. H. Dartmouth Medical College	C. P. Frost
69	Albany, N. Y. Albany Medical College, Union University	Willis G. Tucker
70	Brooklyn, N. Y. Long Island College Hospital	Jarvis S. Wight
71	Buffalo, N. Y. Niagara University Medical Department	John Cronyn
72	. . . do University of Buffalo, Medical Department	Matthew D. Mann
73	New York, N. Y. Bellevue Hospital Medical College	Austin Flint
74	. . . do College of Physicians and Surgeons in the City of New York	James W. McLane
75	. . . do University of the City of New York, Medical Department	Charles I. Pardee
76	. . . do Woman's Medical College of the New York Infirmary for Women and Children	Emily Blackwell
77	Syracuse, N. Y. Syracuse University College of Medicine	H. D. Didama
78	Chapel Hill, N. C. University of North Carolina, Medical Department	George T. Winston
79	Davidson, N. C. North Carolina Medical College	J. P. Munroe
80	Raleigh, N. C. Leonard Medical School of Shaw University	James McKee
81	Cincinnati, Ohio Cincinnati College of Medicine and Surgery	C. A. L. Reed
82	. . . do Medical College of Ohio	W. W. Seely
83	. . . do Miami Medical College of Cincinnati	N. P. Dandridge
84	. . . do Woman's Medical College of Cincinnati	G. A. Fackler
85	. . . do Woman's Medical College of Presbyterian Church	John M. Withrow
86	Cleveland, Ohio Western Reserve University, Medical Department	Hunter H. Powell
87	. . . do Wooster University, Medical Department	Marcus Rosenwasser
88	Columbus, Ohio Ohio, Medical University	J. E. Brown
89	. . . do Starling Medical College	Starling Loving
90	Lebanon, Ohio College of Medicine, National Normal University*	S. S. Scoville
91	Toledo, Ohio Toledo Medical College	J. H. Pooley
92	Portland, Oreg. University of Oregon, Medical Department	S. E. Josephi
93	. . . do Willamette University, Medical Department	R. Kelly
94	Philadelphia, Pa. Jefferson Medical College of Philadelphia	James W. Holland
95	. . . do Medico-Chirurgical College of Philadelphia	Ernest Laplace
96	. . . do University of Pennsylvania Department of Medicine	John Marshall
97	. . . do Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania	Clara Marshall
98	Pittsburg, Pa. Western Pennsylvania Medical College	James B. Murdoch
99	Charleston, S. C. Medical College of the State of South Carolina	F. L. Parker
100	Chattanooga, Tenn. Chattanooga Medical College, U. S. Grant University	E. A. Cobleigh
101	Knoxville, Tenn. Tennessee Medical College	J. C. Cawood
102	Memphis, Tenn. Hannibal Medical College	Tarleton C. Cottrell
103	. . . do Memphis Hospital Medical College	W. B. Rogers
104	Nashville, Tenn. Central Tennessee College, Meharry Medical Department	G. W. Hubbard

* In 1893-94.

a \$20 first year, and \$50 second and third year each.

b Approximately.

c Average.

medicine for 1894-95—Continued.

Instructors.		Students.			Length of course.			Tuition.	Graduation fee.	Cost of the entire course.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Productive funds.	Is the instruction given in the day or in the evening?	Volumes in library.	Scholarships giving free tuition.	
Regular.	Special or assistant.	Men.	Women.	Number graduating.	Years.	Weeks in scholastic year.	Is the course shortened to graduates in letters/science?									
4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
30	7	212	19	49	4	35	Yes.	\$40	\$10	\$280	\$150,000	Day ...	1,000	0	52
20	0	56	5	14	3	26	No..	65	0	200	Day	0	53
7	5	41	0	5	3	42	No..	(a)	Day ...	200	1	54
17	12	120	0	27	3	26	Yes.	60	20	200	8,000	Day	55
23	5	175	0	37	3	26	No..	50	20	b 183	25,000	0	Day ...	500	0	56
15	4	59	0	11	3	26	No..	45	25	b 175	20,000	Both ...	0	0	57
14	0	43	4	14	3	24	No..	50	25	b 175	50,000	\$16,000	Day ...	250	15	58
22	6	328	0	64	3	28	No..	55	25	b 150	60,000	0	Day ...	0	15	59
14	7	82	0	17	3	26	No..	c 60	0	230	42,000	Day	60
20	3	256	0	50	3	24	No..	50	25	210	60,000	0	Day ...	300	5	61
17	13	216	0	60	3	26	No..	90	0	270	140,000	Day ...	300	62
19	7	243	0	48	3	26	No..	50	25	175	63
20	12	114	0	22	3	30	No..	90	0	305	150,000	Day	2	64
16	8	0	35	8	3	32	No..	75	25	b 225	0	Both ...	250	0	65
25	6	50	2	13	4	23	No..	65	25	b 235	Day ...	0	6	66
22	6	78	12	21	3	26	Yes.	60	25	220	35,000	0	Day ...	200	0	67
8	5	139	0	30	3	20	No..	40	25	339	30,000	0	Day ...	2,000	0	68
13	7	204	0	47	3	30	No..	100	25	300	60,000	7,000	Day	4	69
19	20	281	0	65	3	26	No..	100	25	475	225,000	Day	70
17	12	58	2	18	3	29	No..	85	25	b 300	51,500	0	Day ...	660	1	71
14	16	251	23	51	d 3	30	No..	100	30	305	160,000	0	Day ...	4,952	0	72
21	8	402	0	89	d 3	26	No..	150	30	585	80,000	0	Day ...	0	0	73
15	30	777	0	150	4	34	No..	200	25	b 850	Day	74
7	17	378	0	101	d 3	29	No..	150	30	525	326,074	0	Day ...	0	4	75
17	5	0	85	25	4	32	No..	130	30	515	20,000	55,000	Day ...	1,171	2	76
15	12	78	7	10	3	35	No..	80	25	282	28,000	0	Day ...	1,000	0	77
4	1	26	0	0	(e)	38	No..	90	(e)	Day ...	1,200	1	78
4	2	30	0	2	3	32	Yes.	75	25	255	Day	79
7	0	56	0	8	4	21	No..	60	10	310	6,000	Day	56	80
15	1	72	0	14	3	26	Yes.	40	25	0	Day	81
11	10	300	0	66	d 3	24	No..	75	25	330	82
11	10	116	0	32	3	26	Yes.	75	25	350	20,000	0	Day ...	0	0	83
18	5	0	35	9	3	26	Yes.	75	25	265	0	Both ...	0	0	84
14	4	0	15	3	3	30	No..	50	25	160	2,000	0	Day ...	0	2	85
17	10	198	0	32	3	33	100	30	354	Both ...	2,500	0	86
19	15	89	6	25	d 3	26	No..	100	30	340	0	Day ...	0	0	87
41	5	150	10	24	d 3	24	No..	50	10	194	0	Day ...	500	0	88
14	7	287	0	63	3	24	50	25	199	250,000	0	Day ...	2,600	0	89
8	2	26	4	5	3	24	No..	25	10	Day	90
16	13	60	7	6	d 3	26	Yes.	50	25	225	5,000	0	Both ...	1,000	0	91
15	5	36	6	6	d 3	26	No.	129	30	295	0	Day ...	500	0	92
10	10	28	12	6	4	24	Yes.	75	30	315	30,000	0	Day ...	100	7	93
22	23	726	0	148	4	33	Yes.	150	0	611	Day	94
10	33	228	0	59	3	32	No..	120	0	415	Day	95
15	3	818	0	250	4	32	Yes.	150	0	612	400,000	52,500	Day ...	10,000	16	96
8	21	0	173	49	4	32	Yes.	c 130	30	516	85,000	95,100	Day ...	1,785	0	97
20	22	263	0	63	4	26	No..	100	0	480	100,000	0	Day ...	500	0	98
8	8	80	0	25	3	22	No..	75	30	300	Day	7	99
11	11	110	0	15	3	26	No..	50	30	270	0	Day	0	100
11	4	83	0	18	3	26	No..	100	25	305	25,000	0	Day ...	0	0	101
11	3	9	0	4	4	24	No..	30	25	190	Both ...	40	0	102
10	10	226	0	75	3	26	No..	70	30	a 250	30,000	0	Day ...	300	0	103
12	2	100	2	29	4	20	Yes.	30	10	158	30,000	10,000	Day ...	0	4	104

d Four courses required hereafter.

e Institution does not confer degrees.

f After 1895, yes.

TABLE 3.—Statistics of schools of

Location.	Name of school.	Dean.
1	2	3
REGULAR—continued.		
105 Nashville, Tenn.	University of Nashville and Vanderbilt University Medical Department.	Thomas Mcnees.
106do	University of Tennessee Medical Department, Nashville Medical College.	Paul F. Eve.
107 Sewanee, Tenn.	Sewanee Medical College.	John S. Cain.
108 Galveston, Tex.	University of Texas School of Medicine.	J. F. Y. Paine.
109 Burlington, Vt.	University of Vermont Medical Department.	A. P. Grinnell.
110 Richmond, Va.	Medical College of Virginia.	Christopher Tompkins
111do	University College of Medicine.	J. A. White.
112 University of Virginia, Va.	University of Virginia Medical Department.	Wm. M. Thornton.
113 Milwaukee, Wis.	Wisconsin College of Physicians and Surgeons.	Wm. H. Washburn.
ECLECTIC.		
114 San Francisco, Cal.	California Medical College*.	D. Maclean.
115 Atlanta, Ga.	Georgia College of Eclectic Medicine and Surgery.	Joseph Adolphus.
116 Chicago, Ill.	National Homeopathic Medical College.	A. son L. Clark.
117 Indianapolis, Ind.	Eclectic College of Physicians and Surgeons ^d	Henry Long.
118 St. Louis, Mo.	American Medical College.	E. Younk.
119 Lincoln, Nebr.	Cotner University Medical Department.	W. S. Latta.
120 New York, N. Y.	Eclectic Medical College of the City of New York.	George W. Boskowitz.
121 Cincinnati, Ohio	American Eclectic Medical College.	L. M. Bickmore.
122do	Eclectic Medical Institute.	Frederick J. Locke.
HOMEOPATHIC.		
123 San Francisco, Cal.	Hahnemann Hospital College.	C. B. Currier.
124 Denver, Colo.	Denver Homeopathic Medical College.	Samuel S. Smythe.
125 Washington, D. C.	National Homeopathic Medical College.	J. T. Hensley.
126 Chicago, Ill.	Chicago Homeopathic Medical College.	J. S. Mitchell.
127do	Hahnemann Medical College.	C. H. Vilas.
128do	Hering Medical College.	Temple S. Hoyne.
129do	National Homeopathic Medical College.	J. A. Printy.
130 Iowa City, Iowa.	State University of Iowa Homeopathic Medical Department.	Wilnot H. Dickinson.
131 Louisville, Ky.	Southwestern Homeopathic Medical College.	A. Leight Monroe.
132 Baltimore, Md.	Southern Homeopathic Medical College.	Henry Chandler.
133 Boston, Mass.	Boston University School of Medicine.	I. Tisdale Talbot.
134 Ann Arbor, Mich.	University of Michigan Homeopathic Medical College.	Henry L. Obetz.
135 Minneapolis, Minn.	University of Minnesota Department of Homeopathic Medicine and Surgery.	A. P. Williamson.
136 Kansas City, Mo.	Kansas City Homeopathic Medical College.	Wm. D. Foster.
137 St. Louis, Mo.	Homeopathic Medical College of Missouri.	Wm. C. Richardson.
138 New York, N. Y.	New York Homeopathic Medical College.	Wm. Tod Helmuth.
139do	New York Medical College for Women.	Phæbe J. B. Wait.
140 Cincinnati, Ohio.	Pulte Medical College.	J. D. Buek.
141 Cleveland, Ohio.	Cleveland University of Medicine and Surgery.	J. C. Sanders.
142 Philadelphia, Pa.	Hahnemann Medical College.	Amos R. Thomas.
PHYSIO-MEDICAL.		
143 Chicago, Ill.	Chicago Physio-Medical College.	J. E. Roop.
144 Indianapolis, Ind.	Physio-Medical College of Indiana.	C. T. Bedford.
GRADUATE.		
145 Chicago, Ill.	Chicago Ophthalmic College.	H. M. Martin.
146do	Chicago Polyclinic*.	Truman W. Miller.
147do	Post-Graduate Medical School of Chicago.	W. Franklin Coleman.
148 New York, N. Y.	New York Polyclinic.	John A. Wyeth.
149do	New York Post-Graduate Medical School.	Jas. L. Skiffin.
150 Philadelphia, Pa.	Philadelphia Polyclinic and College for Graduates in Medicine.	Max J. Stern.
151do	Philadelphia Post-Graduate School of Homeopathics.	J. T. Kent.

* In 1893-94.

a Approximately.

b Four courses required hereafter.

medicine for 1894-95—Continued.

In-struct-ors.	Students.				Length of course.			Tuition fee.	Graduation fee.	Cost of the entire course.	Value of grounds and build-ings.	Productive funds.	Is the instruction given in the day or in the evening?	Volumes in library.	Scholarships giving free tuition.
	Regular.	Special or assistant.	Men.	Women.	Number graduating.	Years.	Weeks in scholastic year.								
4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
14	5	190	0	110	3	26	No..	\$75	\$25	\$320	Day	105
12	6	136	0	44	3	26	No..	90	25	a 300	\$25,000	0	Day	5,000	0 106
8	6	47	0	16	2	41	No..	100	25	220	Day	0	0 107
9	4	152	2	6	3	32	No..	0	0	70	300,000	0	Day	1,421 108
7	18	189	0	43	3	20	No..	80	25	330	Day	0 109
10	15	139	0	34	3	28	No..	85	30	a 285	100,000	0	Day	10 110
17	15	136	0	12	3	30	No..	95	30	330	Day	0 111
6	4	175	0	45	2	40	No..	120	15	a 350	Day	2 112
10	9	34	0	3	b3	26	No c	60	30	a 265	0	Day	0	0 113
18	0	63	13	14	3	26	120	30	300	25,000	0 114
11	7	62	2	28	3	23	No..	70	25	270	60,000	0	Day	0	0 115
22	6	97	12	24	3	24	No..	110	340	40,000	0	Day	500	0 116
20	3	60	12	4	4	26	No..	50	25	a 178	Both	0 117
13	2	52	8	13	b3	24	No e	75	25	259	18,000	0	Day	200	1 118
11	5	43	7	8	3	30	50	25	230	125,000	Day	0	2 119
20	15	63	14	14	3	32	No..	100	30	325	46,000	Day	3,572	5 120
11	4	29	8	9	3	24	No..	55	25	a 225	0	Day	300	0 121
16	3	180	7	37	3	34	No..	85	25	225	30,000	0	Both	500	2 122
15	3	23	8	13	3	28	Yes.	100	40	370	5,000	0	Day	500	0 123
16	4	18	10	1	4	26	No..	80	30	a 230	Day	0 124
9	2	17	0	9	4	26	75	25	a 300 125
19	19	205	0	65	3	26	No..	65	25	a 250	125,000	Day	0 126
16	20	187	81	72	b3	26	No e	65	25	300	175,000	Day	1,000	5 127
17	12	63	32	31	b3	26	No..	85	0	255	Day	2 128
30	16	82	20	17	b3	24	Yes.	65	25	a 300	Day	100 129
5	6	54	16	16	4	26	No..	48	25	152	20,000	0	Day	416	0 130
18	0	17	8	2	4	26	Yes.	75	0	380	Day	0	1 131
13	8	21	7	13	3	26	No..	100	30	345	28,000	Day	550	0 132
24	19	113	57	32	4	32	Yes.	125	30	510	200,000	\$40,000	3,300	10 133
5	1	16	2	1	4	39	30	10	226	39,260	Day	6,000	0 134
14	25	6	* 2	3	32	80	10	a 275	Day 135
10	0	37	22	12	3	26	Yes.	50	25	188	1,192	Both	100	0 136
18	7	60	5	10	3	26	No..	60	25	a 240	10,000	0	Day	50	0 137
25	10	130	0	50	4	30	No..	125	30	713	290,000	0	Day	2,600	0 138
16	9	0	44	10	4	26	No..	100	30	460	Day	900	0 139
16	8	44	4	11	b3	26	No..	65	30	265	30,000	Day 140
21	5	151	31	35	4	26	Yes.	75	25	270	60,000	5,000	Day	300	3 141
14	15	256	0	61	4	30	No..	125	30	515	500,000	Both	8,000 142
17	7	25	6	6	3	26	No..	75	35	230	Day 143
17	5	48	8	11	3	26	No..	75	25	a 275	8,000	Day	0 144
.....	130	6	Both 145
33	48	223	1	100,000	0	Day 146
41	5	197	5	45,000	0	Both	0	0 147
31	79	370	10	100,000	Both 148
41	103	429	24	524,588	0	Day	700	0 149
32	28	100	10	6	90	Day 150
4	7	10	18	1 151

c \$20 first year, and \$50 second and third year each.

d Discontinued.

e After 1895, yes.

TABLE 4.—Statistics of schools of dentistry for 1894-95.

Location.	Name of school.	In-struct-ors.		Students.			Length of course.		Tuition fee.	Graduation or examination fee.	Cost of entire course.	Scholarships giving free tuition.	Is instruction given in the day or in the evening?			
		Regular.	Special or assistant.	Male.	Female.	Number graduating.	Years.	Weeks in scholastic year.								
				3												
				4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
1	Birmingham, Ala.....				7	5	24	0	1	3	\$75	\$65	\$265	(a)	Day.	
2	San Francisco, Cal.....				7	29	161	8	38	3	125	95	370	0	Day.	
3	Denver, Colo.....				8	1	19	5	2	3	75	25	265	0	Day.	
4	Washington, D. C.....				6	9	63	0	15	3	100	0	300	0	Day.	
5	do.....				6	3	12	1	0	4	60	0	225	0	Eve.	
6	do.....				9	2	11	0	2	4	75	25	250	0	Eve.	
7	do.....				8	8	36	0	9	3	670	30	275	0	Day.	
8	Atlanta, Ga.....				6	6	137	0	23	3	75	95	275	0	Day.	
9	do.....				10	16	31	0	4	3	50	75	265	0	Day.	
10	Chicago, Ill.....				17	16	310	17	60	3	100	0	365	12	Both.	
11	do.....				30	56	416	0	107	3	26	100	0	315	0	Both.
12	do.....				14	2	28	6	10	3	22	50	25	10	Day.	
13	do.....				5	1	8	0	3	3	24	75	265	1	Day.	
14	do.....				9	4	21	4	5	3	26	100	5	326	2	Day.
15	do.....				12	10	124	3	29	3	100	25	325	0	Day.	
16	Indianapolis, Ind.....				15	8	158	5	25	3	24	35	208	0	Both.	
17	Iowa City, Iowa.....				12	10	124	3	29	3	100	25	325	0	Both.	
18	Louisville, Ky.....				15	8	130	0	25	3	24	35	208	0	Both.	
19	Baltimore, Md.....				8	31	166	0	45	3	24	100	30	304	3	Day.
20	do.....				6	12	184	0	45	3	26	100	30	360	1	Day.
21	Boston, Mass.....				9	20	166	6	42	3	40	100	0	365	0	Day.
22	do.....				3	31	80	0	17	3	40	133	0	415	0	Day.
23	Ann Arbor, Mich.....				4	10	180	5	17	3	34	30	10	110	0	Day.
24	Detroit, Mich.....				11	10	68	0	18	3	50	30	e-233	1	Day.	
25	Minneapolis, Minn.....				4	14	76	4	12	3	32	75	10	260	0	Day.
26	Kansas City, Mo.....				9	15	133	0	39	3	20	100	20	395	0	Both.
27	do.....				12	33	160	5	30	3	21	65	20	215	0	Both.
28	St. Louis, Mo.....				10	15	28	0	0	3	24	85	0	235	0	Day.

29do.....	Missouri Dental College, Washington University.....	Henry H. Mudd.....	10	20	84	0	24	3	30	100	0	305	0	Day.
30	Buffalo, N. Y.	University of Buffalo, Dental Department.....	William C. Barrett.....	16	15	156	3	30	3	31	85	30	300	1	Day.
31	New York, N. Y.	New York College of Dentistry.....	Frank Abbott.....	5	33	361	0	81	3	24	150	30	495	0	Both.
32	Cincinnati, Ohio	Cincinnati College of Dental Surgery.....	G. S. Junkerman.....	7	4	26	0	5	3	26	100	0	300	2	Both.
33do.....	Ohio College of Dental Surgery.....	H. A. Smith.....	5	7	184	5	50	3	24	75	25	275	0	Day.
34	Cleveland, Ohio.	Cleveland University of Medicine and Surgery, Dental Department.....	S. B. Dewey.....	7	3	26	1	5	3	26	100	25	325	0	Day.
35do.....	Western Reserve University, Dental Department.....	Henry L. Ambler.....	7	5	53	0	17	3	32	100	30	335	0	Day.
36	Columbus, Ohio.	Ohio Medical University, Dental Department.....	A. O. Foss.....	10	10	54	0	8	3	25	50	10	185	0	Day.
37	Philadelphia, Pa.	Pennsylvania College of Dental Surgery.....	C. N. Peirce.....	5	17	292	17	83	3	20	100	30	345	0	Both.
38do.....	Philadelphia Dental College.....	James E. Garretson.....	6	8	d 353	d 8	175	3	22	100	30	345	0	Both.
39do.....	University of Pennsylvania, Department of Dentistry.....	James Truman.....	7	35	278	0	70	3	37	100	30	345	6	Day.
40	Nashville, Tenn.	Central Tennessee College, Dental Department.....	G. W. Hubbard.....	7	0	12	0	2	3	20	30	10	100	0	Day.
41do.....	University of Tennessee, Dental Department.....	Robert B. Lees.....	9	3	64	0	15	3	28	80	25	e 275	0	Day.
42do.....	Vanderbilt University, Dental Department.....	William H. Morgan.....	8	6	184	2	38	3	26	75	25	275	0	Day.
43	Richmond, Va.	University College of Medicine, Dental Department.....	J. A. White.....	9	3	31	0	3	3	30	95	50	330	0	Day.
44	Tacoma, Wash.	Tacoma College of Dental Surgery.....	J. W. Hickman.....	7	5	12	0	0	3	3	75	20	260	0	Day.
45	Milwaukee, Wis.	Milwaukee Medical College, Dental Department.....	B. G. Maercklein.....	10	14	35	0	3	3	26	60	30	285	0	Day.

* Statistics of 1893-94.
a One to each State association.
b Average.

c Approximately.

d Classified in same ratio as in 1893-94. No classified report received.

TABLE 5.—Statistics of schools of pharmacy for 1894-95.

Location.	Name of school.	Dean.	In-struct-ors.		Students.			Length of course.			Tuition fee.	Graduation or examination fee.	Cost of the entire course.	Scholarships giving free tuition.	Is the instruction given in the day or in the evening?	Degree given.
			Regular.	Special or assistant.	Male.	Female.	Number graduating.	Years.	Weeks in scholastic year.	Years of practice with a pharmacist.						
1	San Francisco, Cal.	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
2	California College of Pharmacy, University of California.	William M. Searby	6	5	107	3	22	2	28	4	\$90	\$10	\$190	Ph. G.
3	Denver, Colo.	Charles M. Ford	4	3	27	0	4	2	26	4	50	10	185	0	Both.	Ph. G.
4	Washington, D. C.	Thomas B. Hood	3	1	11	1	6	2	24	4	60	Even.	Ph. D.
5do	Samuel Wargaman	4	2	85	1	10	3	26	4	60	0	185	0	Even.	Ph. D.
6	Atlanta, Ga.	H. V. M. Miller	3	1	11	0	4	2	24	4	55	15	130	0
7	Champaign, Ill.	William E. Sanford	2	2	11	0	2	0	Day	Ph. G.
8	Chicago, Ill.	Fredrick M. Goodman	5	3	164	0	47	2	28	4	75	0	150	1	Day	Ph. G.
9do	Oscar Oldberg	6	5	331	5	150	2	20	3	75	5	155	0	Day	(c)
10	Lafayette, Ind.	Arthur L. Green	3	4	86	3	35	2	28	0	43	5	499	0	Day	(c)
11	Des Moines, Iowa	Louis Schmidt	6	2	20	0	7	2	21	4	55	20	450	0	Both	Ph. G.
12	Iowa City, Iowa	Emil L. Boermet	4	5	62	5	2	2	24	3	66	10	147	0	Day	Ph. G.
13	Lawrence, Kans.	L. E. Sayre	9	4	58	4	8	2	40	2	0	5	450	Day	Ph. G.
14	Louisville, Ky.	Gordon L. Curry	5	3	65	0	19	2	25	4	60	10	145	0	Both	Ph. G.
15	New Orleans, La.	Stanford E. Chaille	3	3	31	5	14	2	26	2	70	20	155	0	Day
16	Baltimore, Md.	John W. Geiger	3	1	119	0	49	2	36	4	455	20	142	0	Day	Ph. G.
17	Boston, Mass.	J. W. Baird	5	6	244	11	23	2	34	4	100	10	215	0	Day	Ph. G.
18	Ann Arbor, Mich.	Albert B. Prescott	10	4	19	2	59	0	78	0	40	10	135	1	Day	Ph. G.
19	Detroit, Mich.	John E. Clark	5	2	10	2	28	0	23	1	40	10	120	1	Even	Ph. G.
20	Minneapolis, Minn.	Fredrick J. Walling	11	6	11	2	32	0	39	2	40	10	165	2	Day	Ph. D.
21	Kansas City, Mo.	Clairde C. Hamilton	5	3	26	2	24	4	82	4	50	20	123	4	Both	Ph. G.
22	St. Louis, Mo.	James M. Good	5	2	46	2	26	4	170	0	75	10	142	Both	Ph. G.

ERRATA.

Beginning with Ann Arbor, Mich., in Table 5, throughout the remainder of the table the figures in columns 10 and 11 should be transposed to columns 6 and 7, and the figures now appearing in columns 6, 7, 8, and 9 should be transposed two columns to the right.



23	Albany, N. Y.	Albany College of Pharmacy, Union University.	Alfred B. Kaested.	4	2	15	2	22	4	47	0	50	10	123	Evening	Ph. G.
24	Brooklyn, N. Y.	Brooklyn College of Pharmacy.	Elias H. Bartley.	4	4	27	2	25	4	78	2	50	10	115	0	Day	Ph. G.
25	Buffalo, N. Y.	Buffalo College of Pharmacy, University of Buffalo.	Willis G. Gregory.	5	5	28	2	26	4	104	1	50	10	125	1	Day	Ph. G.
26	New York, N. Y.	College of Pharmacy of the City of New York.	Samuel W. Fairchild.	6	6	105	2	28	4	324	4	75	10	160	0	Day	Ph. G.
27	Raleigh, N. C.	Slaw University, Pharmaceutical Department.	William Simpson.	2	0	5	2	21	2	14	2	25	10	106	0	Day	Ph. G.
28	Ada, Ohio	Ohio Normal University, Department of Pharmacy.	B. S. Young.	4	2	79	2	40	226	3	60	3	140	Day	Ph. G.
29	Cincinnati, Ohio.	Cincinnati College of Pharmacy.	Chas. T. P. Fennel.	5	2	27	2	26	4	402	*3	85	10	200	0	Ph. G.
30	Columbus, Ohio.	Ohio State University, School of Pharmacy.	George B. Kaufman.	12	4	12	3	39	0	47	1	0	5	50	0	Day	Ph. G.
31	Scioto, Ohio.	Scioto College, Department of Pharmacy.	J. H. Beal.	5	3	11	1	42	0	39	2	20	Day	Ph. G.
32	Philadelphia, Pa.	Philadelphia College of Pharmacy.	Joseph P. Remington.	4	4	197	2	22	4	737	23	45	15	150	7	Both	Ph. G.
33	Pittsburg, Pa.	Pittsburg College of Pharmacy.	J. A. Koch.	6	3	25	2	24	4	84	1	75	10	160	0	Day	Ph. G.
34	Nashville, Tenn.	Central Tennessee College, Pharmaceutical Department.	G. W. Hubbard.	5	0	5	2	20	2	14	2	30	10	78	0	Day	Ph. G.
35do.	Vanderbilt University, School of Pharmacy.	James M. Safford.	4	3	8	2	36	0	29	1	85	5	100	0	Day	Ph. G.
36	Galveston, Tex.	University of Texas, School of Pharmacy.	James F. Johnson, sec.	3	0	3	2	30	0	29	0	0	0	50	0	Day	Ph. G.
37	Richmond, Va.	University College of Medicine, Department of Pharmacy.	T. A. Miller.	4	3	5	2	30	4	29	0	60	15	135	0	Both	Ph. G.
38	Seattle, Wash.	University of Washington, Department of Pharmacy.	Charles Hill.	2	2	40	2	38	0	23	4	0	5	85	Day	Ph. G.
39	Madison, Wis.	University of Wisconsin, School of Pharmacy.	Edward Kremers.	16	10	8	2	37	0	37	5	0	196	0	Day	Ph. G.

* Statistics of 1893-94.

a Course of three years just begun.

b No report.

c Ph. G. for the shorter course, and Ph. Chem. for the longer course.

d Approximately.

e Ph. G. to students completing the regular course; a course of two years, of nine months each, gives the degree Pharmaceutical Chemist (Ph. C.); students who complete the general science course, and also the course leading to Ph. C., will receive the degree Bachelor of Science in Pharmacy.

f Any graduate of five years' standing of this college, having been constantly engaged in the practice of pharmacy, and of good moral and professional reputation, upon presentation of a satisfactory thesis may receive the degree Master in Pharmacy (Ph. M.).

g Experience in a drug store not required for Ph. C.; the degree Ph. M. is also given at end of one year's attendance after graduation.

h First year in operation.

i Ph. M. also given at end of one year's attendance after graduation, and Bachelor of Science in Pharmacy upon completion of course in both pharmacy and science.

TABLE 6.—Statistics of schools of veterinary medicine, for 1894-95.

1	Location.	2	Name of school.	3	Dean.	Instructors.		Students.		Length of course.		10	11	12
						4	5	6	7	8	9			
1	Washington, D. C.		National Veterinary College.....			Charles F. Dawson.....	9	3	24	15	2	\$100	\$10	\$235
2	Chicago, Ill.		Chicago Veterinary College.....			Joseph Hughes.....	11	3	80	43	2	140	10	235
3	Indianapolis, Ind.		Indiana Veterinary College.....			H. R. Macaulay.....	10	8	7	1	2	70	20	175
4	Boston, Mass.		School of Veterinary Medicine, Harvard University.....			Charles P. Lyman.....	9	12	62	10	3	150	0	460
5	Detroit, Mich.		Department of Veterinary Surgery, Detroit College of Medicine.....			H. O. Walker.....	6	2	17	7	2	50	10	125
6	New York, N. Y.		American Veterinary College.....			A. Liantard.....	8	10	83	21	3	110	25	370
7do		New York College of Veterinary Surgery.....			Harry D. Gill.....	10	6	107	31	3	75	25	265
8	Columbus, Ohio		School of Veterinary Medicine, Ohio State University.....			H. J. Detmers.....	6	2	16	4	3	0	5	90
9	Philadelphia, Pa.		Department of Veterinary Medicine, University of Pennsylvania.....			John Marshall.....	8	9	78	*23	3	100	0	323

* In 1893-94.

TABLE 7. — Statistics of schools for training nurses, for 1894-95.

Location.	Name of school.	Superintendent.	Pupils.		Length of course.	Amount paid pupil.	
			Male.	Female.		Per month first year.	Per month second year.
1	San Francisco, Cal.	3	4	5	7	9	11
2	City and County Hospital Training School for Nurses	Elise K. Mohl.	0	22	2	2	\$10
3	Hospital for Children Training School for Nurses	Elsie Wallace.	0	33	35	50	12
4	Hartford Hospital Training School for Nurses	Persis M. Plumer.	0	30	14	49	10
5	New Haven, Conn.	Mrs. L. W. Quintard.	0	43	34	50	6
6	Washington, D. C.	Ella Underhill.	0	30	11	38	10
7	Columbia Hospital Nurse-Training School.	Georgia M. Nevins.	0	30	12	35	10
8	Howard University Nurse-Training School.	Sarah C. Ebersole.	1	25	0	52	5
9	Lucey Webb Hayes Training School, Sibley Hospital.	Jeanette R. White.	0	4	0	34	0
10	National Homeopathic Hospital Nurse-Training School.	Mary H. Ellison.	0	21	10	52	7
11	Augusta, Ga.	Anna Davids.	0	6	0	5	10
12	Aurora, Ill.	Louisa Thobson, M. D.	0	5	3	48	8
13	Alexian Brothers' Hospital Nurse-Training School.	Jodocus Schiffer.	18	0	7	30	7
14	Bethesda Home Nurse-Training School.	Anna Wehmet.	0	25	9	25	8
15	Chicago Baptist Hospital Nurse-Training School.	Linnie M. Owsley, M. D.	0	20	7	20	8
16	Chicago Hospital for Women and Children Nurse-Training School.	Anna Lehman.	0	22	13	22	8
17	Illinois Training School for Nurses, Cook County Hospital.	Isabel McIsaac.	0	130	47	130	0
18	Josephine Training School for Nurses.	J. T. Binkley, Jr.	0	34	15	30	8
19	Mercy Hospital Nurse-Training School.	A. M. Tyrrell.	0	18	2	20	8
20	Michael Reese Hospital Training School for Nurses.	A. E. Nourse.	0	26	12	26	12
21	Wesley Hospital Nurse-Training School.	Anna S. Hewith.	0	16	4	16	6
22	Woman's Hospital Nurse-Training School.	Mrs. F. R. Aulerbridge.	0	22	17	22	8
23	Blessing Hospital Training School.	Harriet Seurey.	0	24	5	15	8
24	Indiana School of Nursing, City Hospital.	Maud A. Wicks.	0	18	9	18	10
25	Iowa State University Nurse-Training School.	Gershom H. Hill, M. D.	24	31	19	80	4
26	Johns Hopkins Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Adelle P. Kimball, M. D.	0	5	2	5	8
27	Maine General Hospital Training School.	M. A. Nutting.	0	53	21	32	10
28	Johns Hopkins Hospital Training School for Nurses.	M. A. Nutting.	0	69	24	75	10
29	Maryland General Hospital Training School.	Lillie L. Spencer.	0	17	6	20	8
30	University of Maryland Hospital Training School*.	Janet Hale.	0	28	13	33	12
31	Boston City Hospital Training School.	Lucy L. Drown.	0	161	33	96	8
32	Massachusetts General Hospital Training School.	Maria B. Brown.	0	73	23	73	10
33	Massachusetts General Hospital Training School.	Alice A. Griswold.	0	44	20	20	11
34	Massachusetts Homeopathic Hospital Training School.	Alice A. Griswold.	0	44	20	20	11

* In 1892-94.

a \$100 at graduation.

b Male, \$19.50 and \$23.50; female, \$13.50 and \$17.50.

TABLE 7.—Statistics of schools for training nurses, for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name of school.	Superintendent.	Pupils.		Constituting a full register.	Years.	Length of course.		Amount paid pupil.	
			Male.	Female.			Grduating.	Years.	Weeks in school.	Per month first year.
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
33 Danvers, Mass.....	Danvers Hospital Training School.....	Frances R. Dudley.....	0	9	4	52	\$15	\$17
34 Holyoke, Mass.....	Holyoke City Hospital Training School.....	L. M. Tuttle, M. D.....	0	9	0	50	10	14
35 Lowell, Mass.....	Lowell Hospital Training School.....	C. Parlett Whitford.....	0	11	5	36	10	14
36 Malden, Mass.....	Malden Hospital Training School.....	Abbie Angelina Bliss.....	0	18	7	20	3	43	8	12
37 Newton Lower Falls, Mass.....	Newton Hospital Training School.....	Annie McDowell.....	0	27	16	14	3	40	10	10
38 Pittsfield, Mass.....	Bishop Training School for Nurses, Mercy Hospital.....	Anna G. Clement.....	0	35	15	50	8	12
39 Roxbury, Mass.....	New England Hospital for Women and Children Nurse-Training School.....	Jane E. Kelley.....	0	20	20	52	8	13
40 Somerville, Mass.....	McLean Hospital Nurse-Training School.....	Lucia E. Woodward.....	33	44	37	90	2	35	a 12	15
41 South Framingham, Mass.....	Framingham Hospital Training School.....	Annabel L. N. Stewart.....	0	16	4	12	2	32	8	11
42 Springfield, Mass.....	Springfield Hospital Training School.....	Charlotta P. Russell.....	0	14	9	15	2	50	15
43 Worcester, Mass.....	Worcester City Hospital Nurse-Training School.....	Rachel A. Motcalf.....	2	31	10	26	2	50	10	14
44 Ann Arbor, Mich.....	University of Michigan Training School for Nurses.....	Alice M. Padfield.....	0	14	5	14	2	50	4	6
45 Detroit, Mich.....	Ferrand Training School for Nurses, Harper Hospital.....	Lystica E. Greter.....	0	35	17	33	2	36	(b)
46 do.....	Grace Hospital Training School for Nurses.....	Eugenio Hibbard.....	4	29	17	33	2	48
47 Grand Rapids, Mich.....	Union Benevolent Home and Hospital Training School.....	Ida M. Barrett.....	0	25	10	25	2	50	6, 8	10
48 Saginaw, E. S., Mich.....	Woman's Hospital Training School for Nurses.....	Mrs. E. A. Morey.....	0	31	4	8	2	52	6	6
49 do.....	Saginaw Hospital Training School.....	Elizabeth J. Sutherland.....	0	10	3	8	2	50	6	8
50 do.....	St. Luke's Hospital Nurse-Training School.....	Ada J. Taylor.....	0	12	9	12	2
51 Minneapolis, Minn.....	Asbury Methodist Hospital Nurse-Training School.....	Kato Johnson.....	2	22	11	17	2	50	8	8
52 do.....	Northwestern Hospital Nurse-Training School.....	Martina B. Moorhead, M. D.....	0	20	10	20	2	52	6	15
53 St. Paul, Minn.....	St. Joseph's Hospital Nurse-Training School.....	Sister Bernardine.....	0	25	0	23	2	50	8	10
54 do.....	St. Luke's Hospital Training School for Nurses.....	Emma Siegel.....	0	24	13	32	10	12
55 St. Peter, Minn.....	St. Peter State Hospital Training School.....	H. A. Tomlinson, M. D.....	44	49	29	105	34	(d)
56 Kansas City, Mo.....	Scarritt Training School for Nurses.....	Emma D. Cushman.....	0	7	2	8	36	0	0
57 St. Louis, Mo.....	Protestant Hospital Training School for Nurses.....	Josephine B. Rice.....	0	14	7	19	2	38	8	10
58 do.....	Rebekah Baptist Hospital Training School for Nurses.....	M. Isabel Forbes.....	0	9	2	10	2	50	8	8
59 do.....	St. Louis Hospital Training School for Nurses.....	Blanche Inman.....	0	8	4	10	2
60 do.....	St. Louis Training School for Nurses, City Hospital.....	Fanna M. Ward.....	0	35	6	25	50	13	12
61 Manchester, N. H.....	Sacred Heart Hospital Training School.....	Sister M. Ursula.....	0	3	42	8	10
62 Camden, N. J.....	New Jersey Training School for Nurses.....	Daniel Struck, M. D., sec.....	0	48	10	33	0	0
63 Elizabeth, N. J.....	Elizabeth General Hospital Training School for Nurses.....	Besse MacDonell.....	0	18	4	21	2	52	9	12

No.	Name	Address	0	20	12	20	2	50	10	14
64	Newark, N. J.	Newark City Hospital Training School.	0	19	12	20	2	50	10	14
65	Orange, N. J.	Orange Training School for Nurses, Memorial Hospital.	0	41	24	44	2	50	4	69
66	Faterson, N. J.	Faterson General Hospital Nurse-Training School.	0	17	15	17	2	38	7	12
67	Brooklyn, N. Y.	Brooklyn Homeopathic Hospital Nurse-Training School.	0	52	14	32	2	36	7	12
68	do	Brooklyn Hospital Nurse-Training School.	0	31	18	34	2	52	7	12
69	do	Brooklyn Maternity New York State School for Training Nurses.	0	19	17	---	1	52	0	---
70	do	Long Island College Hospital Nurse-Training School.	---	---	19	---	---	---	---	---
71	do	Memorial Training School for Nurses.	2	16	7	12	2	40	8	12
72	do	Methodist Episcopal Hospital Nurse-Training School.	0	29	22	33	2	40	(f)	---
73	Buffalo, N. Y.	Buffalo General Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	38	20	37	2	50	9	12
74	do	Buffalo State Hospital Training School for Nurses.	12	19	12	38	2	28	9 ¹³	16
75	do	Erie County Hospital Training School.	4	23	h/0	36	2	40	15	5
76	do	Lexington Heights Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	18	5	12	2	40	15	5
77	Elmhurst, N. Y.	Armory Oeden Hospital Training School.	0	12	5	12	2	36	9	12
78	Jamestown, N. Y.	Women's Christian Association Training School for Nurses.	0	5	5	6	2	38	7	12
79	New York, N. Y.	City Hospital Male Training School, Blackwells Island.	22	0	0	24	1 ¹¹	40	10	15
80	do	German Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	40	13	40	2	44	5	15
81	do	Hahemann Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	11	0	12	2	52	10	15
82	do	Lehmann Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	13	0	12	2	36	8	10
83	do	Metropolitan Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	30	9	30	2	38	10	15
84	do	Mills Training School for Male Nurses, Bellevue Hospital.	62	0	18	62	2	52	10	12
85	do	Mount Sinai Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	65	25	70	2	52	7	12
86	do	New York City Training School for Nurses, Blackwell's Island.	0	61	25	65	2	40	10	15
87	do	New York Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	60	27	60	2	52	10	16
88	do	New York Infirmary for Women and Children Training School for Nurses.	0	13	0	20	2	49	6	8
89	do	Presbyterian Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	40	21	60	2	26	9	11
90	do	St. Luke's Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	40	19	40	2	52	10	10
91	do	St. Mark's Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	14	---	16	2	50	10	10
92	do	St. Vincent's Hospital Training School for Nurses.	6	95	10	32	2	38	7	9
93	do	Sloane Maternity Hospital Nurse-Training School.	0	58	48	---	0	52	0	0
94	Rochester, N. Y.	Rochester City Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	29	7	35	2	52	9	11
95	do	Rochester Homeopathic Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	28	0	30	2	52	9	11
96	Syracuse, N. Y.	Rochester of the Good Shepherd Training School for Nurses.	0	24	0	24	2	46	8	12
97	do	Women and Children's Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	16	3	---	2	50	5	5
98	Troy, N. Y.	Troy Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	10	0	10	2	35	5	5
99	Union, N. Y.	Union State Hospital Training School for Nurses.	29	32	22	---	2	52	5	5
100	Cincinnati, Ohio	Cincinnati Hospital Training School for Nurses.	1	44	12	34	2	52	7	9
101	do	Cincinnati Training School for Nurses.	0	30	0	22	2	50	7	9
102	Cleveland, Ohio	Cleveland Homeopathic Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	44	17	25	2	50	6	10
103	Toledo, Ohio	Toledo Hospital Training School.	3	27	5	30	2	50	6	0
104	Zanesville, Ohio	City Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	5	1	6	2	50	5	8
105	Portland, Oreg.	Good Samaritan Hospital Training School for Nurses.	0	21	8	---	2	52	7	12
106	Chester, Pa.	Chester Hospital Training School.	1	8	3	10	2	52	7	12
107	Philadelphia, Pa.	Hahemann Hospital Training School for Nurses.	1	8	3	10	2	52	7	12

* In 1893-94.
 a Men, \$25 and \$25.
 b Board and uniforms furnished.
 c Men, \$10 and \$12; women, \$100 at graduation.
 d Male nurses, \$18 to \$25; female, \$12 to \$18.
 e Also, \$75 at graduation.
 f Men, \$22 to \$26.
 g Men, \$10 and \$12.
 h Women, \$12 to \$10; men, \$20 to \$26.
 i No report.

TABLE 7.—Statistics of schools for training nurses, for 1894-95—Continued.

Location.	Name of school.	Superintendent.	Pupils.			Length of course.	Amount paid pupil.			
			Male.	Female.	Graduating.		Constituting a full register.	Years.	Weeks in school.	Per month first year.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
108 Philadelphia, Pa.....	Hospital of University of Pennsylvania Training School for Nurses.	Jane A. Delano.....	0	35	15	41	3	50	\$8	\$10
109 ..do.....	Jefferson Medical College Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Susan C. Earle.....	0	47	12	40	3	28	6	7
110 ..do.....	Medico-Chirurgical Training School for Nurses.	Olin R. Edwards.....	0	27	15	30	2	52	6	7
111 ..do.....	Methodist Episcopal Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Jessie J. Glen.....	0	24	14	24	2	50	8	12
112 ..do.....	Philadelphia Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Marion E. Smith.....	0	97	45	100	2	50	9	9
113 ..do.....	Philadelphia Lying-in Charity and Nurse School.	Frances D. Shethland.....	0	53	26	35	1	52	5	5
114 ..do.....	Philadelphia Polyclinic Training School.	Maud Bamfield.....	0	19	5	21	2	50	5	5
115 ..do.....	Presbyterian Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Lucy Walker.....	0	40	13	43	3	50	6	6.8
116 ..do.....	Protestant Episcopal Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Mary S. Littlefield.....	0	43	19	49	2	40	8	10
117 Pittsburg, Pa.....	Woman's Hospital Training School for Nurses, Homeopathic Hospital.	Anna M. Fullerton, M. D.....	0	80	21	50	12	52	8	10
118 ..do.....	Pittsburg Training School for Nurses, Homeopathic Hospital.	Margaret P. Wright.....	0	30	12	30	12	52	8	10
119 ..do.....	Western Pennsylvania Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Caroline I. Milne.....	15	49	27	50	12	52	8	12
120 Reading, Pa.....	Reading Hospital Training School.	Mary I. Rose.....	0	11	7	11	1	38	4	8
121 Scranton, Pa.....	Lackawanna Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Helen Macdonald.....	0	14	8	14	2	44	5	8
122 ..do.....	Moses Taylor Hospital Training School.	Miss N. J. Eger.....	0	7	0	7	2	32	5	8
123 Wilkesbarre, Pa.....	City Hospital Training School.	Mary W. McKechnie.....	0	20	5	16	2	35	9	12
124 Williamsport, Pa.....	Williamsport Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Virginia Loomis.....	0	14	6	14	2	40	10	12
125 Providence, R. I.....	Rhode Island Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Emma L. Stone.....	6	38	12	42	2	38	10	15
126 Galvestone, Tex.....	John Sealy Hospital Training School for Nurses.	C. Josephine Duffice.....	0	14	7	20	2	50	7	7
127 Burlington, Vt.....	Mary Fletcher Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Clara J. Churchill.....	0	43	7	7	2	50	10	12
128 Hampton, Va.....	Hampton Training School, Dixie Hospital.	Susan B. Swanton.....	0	14	3	14	2	50	6	9
129 Norfolk, Va.....	St. Vincent's Hospital Training School.	Caroline L. Farnum.....	0	12	0	20	2	52	7	10
130 Milwaukee, Wis.....	Trinity Hospital Training School for Nurses.	Mrs. E. C. Johnson.....	0	9	3	12	2	26	0	0
131 ..do.....	Wisconsin Training School for Nurses.	Lucy A. Bannister.....	0	44	12	50	2	52	c 0	c 0

^a Also \$50 at graduation.

^b Men, \$20 and \$25.

^c \$100 at graduation.

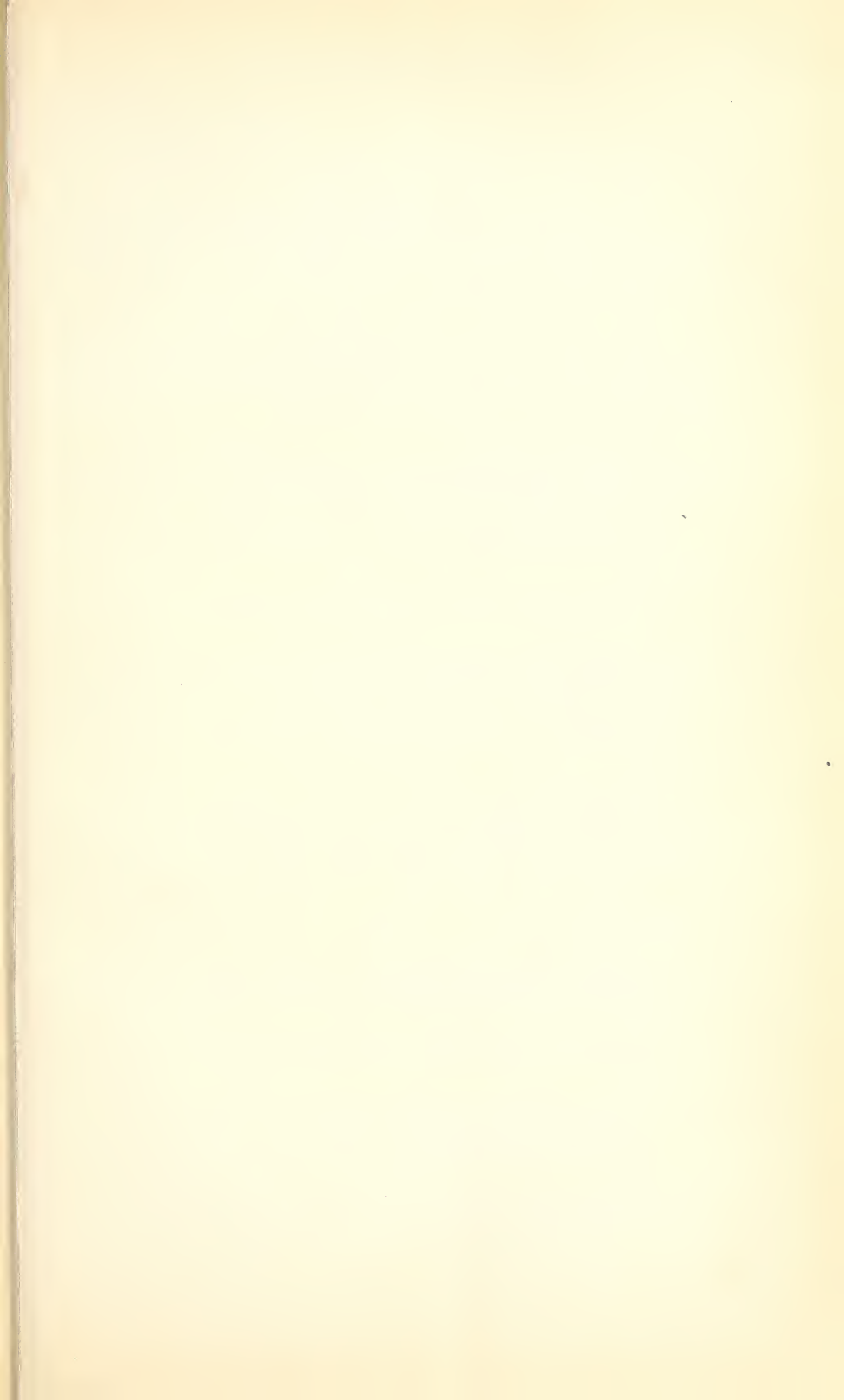


TABLE 1.—Statistics of public

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		In-structing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grade.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
ALABAMA.											
Florence.....	State Normal College.....	5	4	4	4	148	198	29	30	119	168
Forney.....	Cherokee Normal Institute.....	2	2	60	70	10	15	40	43
Jacksonville.....	State Normal School.....	3	4	3	0	63	62	28	32	35	30
Montgomery.....	State Normal School for Colored Students. ^a
Normal.....	State Colored Normal and Industrial School.	18	13	4	3	190	208	107	116	13	13
Troy.....	State Normal College.....	6	8	6	5	223	267	44	52	123	136
ARIZONA.											
Tempe.....	Territorial Normal School of Arizona.	1	2	1	2	46	47	0	0	46	47
ARKANSAS.											
Barron Fork.....	Mount Pleasant Academy....	2	1	2	0	101	88	81	91	12	5
Chickalah.....	Chickalah Academy.....
Malvern.....	Hot Spring County Normal Institute.	1	0	1	0	33	19	0	0	33	19
Morrilton.....	Morrilton State Normal Institute. ^a	3	2	2	2	59	53	36	21	21	27
Pine Bluff.....	Branch Normal College.....	6	1	6	1	123	60	43	19	89	41
CALIFORNIA.											
Chico.....	California State Normal School at Chico.	6	6	6	4	33	199	89	140	1	2
Los Angeles.....	State Normal School.....	9	19	8	11	276	633	200	233	73	400
San Francisco.....	San Francisco Normal School.	2	2	2	2	0	84	0	81
San Jose.....	State Normal School.....	12	15	11	12	141	750	91	125	50	625
COLORADO.											
Greeley.....	Colorado State Normal School.	17	6	11	6	267	412	121	135	86	277
CONNECTICUT.											
Bridgeport.....	Bridgeport Training School..	0	6	0	4	0	31	0	31
New Britain.....	Normal Training School.....	4	30	4	30	1	192	1	192
New Haven.....	State Normal Training School.	3	29	3	23	1	198	1	198
Willimantic.....do.....	2	19	1	5	7	62	7	62
DELAWARE.											
Wilmington.....	Wilmington Training School..	0	7	0	1	0	18	0	18
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.											
Washington.....	Washington Normal School, first six divisions.	0	7	0	7	3	48	3	48
Do.....	Washington Normal School, seventh and eighth divisions.	2	6	2	6	3	23	3	23
FLORIDA.											
De Funiak Springs.	Florida State Normal College for Whites.	3	1	3	1	72	82	47	50	25	32
Tallahassee.....	Florida State Normal and Industrial College.	6	3	3	2	21	37	15	32	6	5
GEORGIA.											
Athens.....	State Normal School.....	4	2	4	2	56	122	0	0	56	122
Milledgeville.....	Georgia Normal and Industrial College.	3	15	3	8	13	350	13	89	0	152

^a Statistics of 1893-94.

α No report for past two years.

SCHOOLS.

normal schools, 1894-95.

Students.				Children in model school.	Colored students in normal course.	Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.		
In business course.		In high-school grades.				Male.	Female.								Male.	Female.
13	14	15	16													
0	0	10	12	29	30	0	0	3	14	3	36	2,000	\$50,000	\$7,500	0	0
0	0	0	0	40	43	0	0	0	0	3	36	0	1,000	225	0	0
16	9	50	74	0	0	0	0	5	1	3	36	300	10,000	2,800	0	0
0	0	64	71	56	42	82	91	9	13	3	38	1,985	30,142	4,000	0	0
0	0	0	0	44	52	0	0	9	13	3	38	1,000	35,000	4,000	0	\$500
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	3	40	360	23,000	0	0	1,300
2	5	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	1,500	400	0	200
0	0	0	0	7	16	0	0	3	6	3	36	0	3,000	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	43	19	80	41	9	1	2	40	3,389	60,000	6,000	0	0
0	0	0	0	85	14	0	0	3	41	4	40	0	135,000	24,500	0	5,000
0	0	0	0	200	233	0	0	10	66	3	40	4,000	200,000	38,500	0	75,000
0	0	0	0	91	125	0	0	0	84	1	42	200	15,000	6,500	0	0
0	0	0	0	121	135	16	140	4	40	4	40	0	750,000	47,500	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	2	40	600	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	40	9,500	0	30,000	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	40	1,500	0	20,000	0	122,000
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	40	3,000	135,000	22,000	0	118,600
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	17	0	0	13,000	9,100	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	45	1	36	350	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	3	23	2	23	1	40	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	4	36	100	10,500	5,000	0	5,700
0	0	0	0	0	0	6	5	4	2	2	36	516	19,300	0	0	2,800
0	50	0	59	10	10	0	0	0	0	2	40	200	30,000	10,000	0	0
0	0	0	0	13	43	0	0	0	20	4	36	2,000	152,000	22,900	0	1,000

TABLE 1.—Statistics of public normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.						
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grade.		In normal course.		
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
IDAHO.												
Albion.....	Albion State Normal School...	3	1	3	1	39	44				39	44
ILLINOIS.												
Carbondale.....	Southern Illinois State Normal University.	10	7	10	7	420	367	73	53	367	294	
Chicago, Station O Normal.....	Cook County Normal School..	8	14	7	5	322	592	316	339	10	249	
	Illinois State Normal University.	14	13	11	11	552	820	253	211	228	493	
INDIANA.												
Heltonville.....	Heltonville Normal School....	2	1	2		60	90	28	32	17	30	
Indianapolis.....	Indianapolis Normal School....	2	3	2	3	0	36			0	36	
Terre Haute.....	Indiana State Normal School..	17	6	17	3	525	699			525	699	
IOWA.												
Boonsboro.....	Boone County Normal Institute.	6	4	6	4	80	261	0	0	80	261	
Cedar Falls.....	Iowa State Normal School....	13	11	13	11	360	689	84	78	276	611	
Kossuth.....	Kossuth Normal Academy.....	1	2	1	0	35	27	21	14	6	8	
Rockwell City.....	Calhoun County Normal School.	3	2	3	1	68	72			60	64	
Woodbine.....	Woodbine Normal School.....	4	5	3	0	327	315	191	129	136	186	
KANSAS.												
Emporia.....	State Normal School.....	14	11	14	11	664	996	70	86	541	888	
KENTUCKY.												
Frankfort.....	State Normal School for Colored Persons.	3	3	3	3	43	62	27	37	16	25	
Louisville.....	Louisville Normal School.....	1	5	1	5	217	300	217	227	0	73	
LOUISIANA.												
Natchitoches.....	Louisiana State Normal School	6	8	6	8	107	252	53	24	54	178	
MAINE.												
Castine.....	Eastern State Normal School.	2	6			59	279	20	30	39	249	
Farmington.....	Farmington State Normal School.	3	8	3	8	90	293	41	57	49	236	
Fort Kent.....	Madawaska Training School..	1	1	1	1	40	47	0	0	40	47	
Gorham.....	State Normal School.....	3	7	3	7	78	202	65	85	10	120	
Springfield.....	Springfield Normal School....	1	2	1	0	35	35			35	35	
MARYLAND.												
Baltimore.....	Maryland State Normal School.	4	9	4	5	33	416	16	39	17	377	
MASSACHUSETTS.												
Boston.....	Boston Normal School.....	5	9	5	9	0	216	0	0	0	216	
Do.....	Massachusetts Normal Art School.	6	6	6	6	55	213			55	213	
Framingham.....	State Normal School.....	1	16	1	13	41	195	41	55	0	140	
Salem.....	do.....	4	11	4	11	0	221			0	221	
Westfield.....	State Normal and Training School.	5	10	4	5	72	234	65	117	7	117	
Worcester.....	Massachusetts State Normal School.	4	7	4	5	19	230	15	15	4	215	

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.		Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.
In business course.	In high-school grades.			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.							
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	40	160	\$5,000	\$7,600	\$25,000
0	0	0	0	73	73	16	15	5	11	4	40	14,000	300,000	25,000	0	40,000
0	0	316	339	2	40	300,000
.....	112	75	203	168	0	3	19	12	2	39	10,000	300,000	31,500
3	2	18	20	0	2	2	40	1,000
.....	50	70	7	5	41	60	2	39
.....	0	0	4	40	12,000	270,000	40,000	20,000
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	150	0	50	0	0
0	0	84	78	0	0	56	76	4	38	6,000	100,000	30,000	35,000
3	2	3	5	0	0	0	0	4	5	3	36	100	2,500	975	0	0
8	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	3	36	350	10,000	2,500	0	1,000
.....	0	0	2	9	3	40	300	20,000	5,000
.....	25	50	70	86	7	1	38	64	3	40	9,000	170,000	6,000
.....	16	25	1	6	3	40	631	19,564	3,000	\$1,000
.....	118	113	0	36	2	44	300	6,200
0	0	0	0	53	74	0	0	5	29	4	34	2,000	60,000	13,750	7,500
.....	20	30	3	20	2	38	1,200	50,000	8,000	2,000
0	0	0	0	41	57	0	0	7	34	2	38	1,750	20,000	8,000	0	20,000
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	5	4	32	500	15,000	1,600	0	2,000
0	0	65	85	0	0	5	40	2	39	1,687	40,000	8,000	15,000
.....	0	0	3	22	4,500
0	0	0	0	16	39	0	0	7	52	3	38	3,000	150,000	10,500	0	43,776
0	0	0	0	681	140	0	0	0	61	2	40
0	0	0	0	41	55	0	1	0	44	2	38	4,000	250	22,200	0	0
.....	0	1	2	40	6,000	60,000	16,000
.....	0	3	4	44	3	3,500	230,000	22,033
0	0	0	0	15	15	0	0	2	42	3	38	9,298	140,000	18,164	0	0

TABLE 1.—Statistics of public normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grade.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
MICHIGAN.											
Detroit	Detroit Normal Training School.	1	20	0	3	0	107	0	107
Ypsilanti	Michigan State Normal School.	21	23	21	14	461	885	214	167	243	711
MINNESOTA.											
Mankato	State Normal School	5	15	5	8	71	314	3	5	68	309
Moorhead	do	2	7	2	7	52	100	52	100
St. Cloud	do	8	7	7	6	200	308	118	79	82	229
St. Paul	St. Paul Teacher's Training School.	0	5	0	5	0	68	0	68
Winona	State Normal School	6	13	6	13	74	329	74	329
MISSISSIPPI.											
Ackerman	Central Mississippi Normal Institute.	7	4	1	0	75	85	55	72	15	15
Blue Springs	Blue Springs Normal College..	2	3	2	1	105	110	0	0	105	110
Holly Springs	Holly Springs Normal Institute.	2	2	2	100	50	90	45	10	5
Do	Mississippi State Normal School.	2	1	2	1	83	84	30	40	49	48
Mount Pleasant	Mount Pleasant High School and Training Institute.	2	1	2	1	50	45	30	30	20	15
Poplar Springs	Poplar Springs Normal College	3	1	80	83	66	77
Sherman	Mississippi Normal Institute	5	2	3	2	115	110	95	90	20	20
Tylertown	Tylertown Normal Institute*	0	3	57	63	30	47	27	21
MISSOURI.											
Cape Girardeau	State Normal School	7	4	7	4	207	156	207	156
Cassville	Cassville High School	4	1	1	0	301	217	150	128	90	82
Kirkville	State Normal School	9	3	9	3	312	308	312	308
St. Louis	St. Louis Normal and High School.*	30	39	4	4	441	1415	0	234
Warrensburg	State Normal School, second district.	8	9	8	8	453	505	63	72	390	523
NEBRASKA.											
Peru	Nebraska State Normal and Training School.	5	10	5	10	174	382	158	306	16	76
NEW HAMPSHIRE.											
Plymouth	New Hampshire State Normal School.	5	8	4	3	105	235	81	102	1	89
NEW JERSEY.											
Newark	Newark Normal and Training School.	2	12	2	5	214	283	214	210	0	73
Paterson	Paterson Normal Training School.	1	2	1	2	0	62	0	62
Trenton	New Jersey State Normal and Model Schools.	13	24	9	9	329	771	194	217	135	554
NEW MEXICO.											
Silver City	Normal School of New Mexico.	2	1	2	1	17	94	16	57	0	35
NEW YORK.											
Albany	New York State Normal College.	7	10	7	10	34	232	34	232
Brockport	State Normal and Training School.

* Statistics of 1893-94.

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.	Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.	
In business course.		In high-school grades.														
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.							
				331	311	0	1	0	33	2	40	185				
0	0	4	7	214	167	0	0	35	167	3	40	15,500	\$260,560	\$58,450		\$20,000
0	0	0	0	127	295	0	0	16	52	3	33	6,000	150,000	24,000		7,500
0	0	0	0	62	57	0	0	4	48	3	33	1,500	120,000	16,000		
				98	59	0	0	0	48	3	33	1,623	150,000	24,000		25,000
				185	172			0	34	2	33					
0	0	0	0	95	119	0	0	7	112	3	33	3,500	240,000	24,000	0	22,000
3	0									3	40	20	1,100	1,400		
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	10	100	2,000	550	0	0
													3,500	2,025		
0	0	0	0	0	0	49	48	4	1	2	32	2,000	12,000	2,000	0	0
0	0	0	0	30	25	0	0	0	0		36	0	6,000	750	0	
8	0	6	6					0	2	3	40	100	3,000	559		
				70	85	0	0	2	1	4	40	590	3,000	750	0	0
						0	0	10	13			500	5,000	400		
15	10	25	18	195	80	0	0	21	17	4	39	1,500	75,000	11,000		5,000
				48	54	0	0	2	1	4	40	350	10,000	1,500		
				0	0	0	0	13	10	4	40	4,300	65,000	12,500		
		441	1,181	0	0	0	0			2	40		500,000	103,567		\$1,925
0	0	0	0	63	72	0	0	49	78	4	40	4,000	200,000	13,750	0	35,000
				79	105	0	0	16	76	5	40	7,000	60,000	30,000		5,000
		24	43	105	145			0	19	2	38	1,700	85,000	12,000		
0	0			214	210	0	2	0	41	2	40	619	33,000	12,570		693
0	0	0	0	150	150	0	1	0	28	2	42					
				274	289	8	9	7	127	3	38	4,000	400,000	28,000		10,000
0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	40	0	1,200	0	0	
0	0	0	0	131	251	0	1	13	72	2	40	2,900	210,611	25,990		

TABLE 1.—Statistics of public normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grade.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
NEW YORK—cont'd.											
Brooklyn	Training School for Teachers.	1	20	1	7	237	382	237	239	0	143
Buffalo	Buffalo Normal School	7	16	6	7	254	395	192	269	58	118
Cortland	State Normal and Training School.	4	13	4	8	400	603	200	211	197	395
Fredonia	do	7	12	7	12	259	395	187	208	72	187
Geneseo	Geneseo State Normal School.	4	18	4	12	370	830	170	190	150	575
New Paltz	State Normal School	10	50	4	11	186	486	120	154	66	332
New York	Normal College of the City of New York.	7	63	7	63	0	1,796			0	1,069
Oneonta	State Normal and Training School.*			5	10	173	517	51	152	122	365
Oswego	Oswego State Normal and Training School.	6	13	6	13	34	295			34	295
Plattsburg	State Normal School	4	9	4	9	55	170			55	170
Potsdam	State Normal and Training School.	10	9	9	8	326	596	125	143	157	337
Syracuse	Teacher's Training Class (Department High School).*	5	15	2	3	0	1,038			0	63
NORTH CAROLINA.											
Clinton	Clinton Colored Graded School	7	4	6	4	25	50	19	46	6	4
Elizabeth City	State Colored Normal School	2	7	2	7	50	115	10	23	40	92
Fayetteville	do	2	1	2	1	42	64	21	21	21	43
Goldsboro	State Normal School	1	2	1	2	34	88	4	35	30	53
Greensboro	State Normal and Industrial School.	5	19	5	19	0	405			0	357
Plymouth	Plymouth State Normal School	2	1	2	1	62	118	20	45	42	73
Salisbury	State Normal School	3	1	3	1	50	51	30	24	20	27
NORTH DAKOTA.											
Mayville	State Normal School	5	3	5	3	53	76			53	76
Valley City	do	4	4	4	4	52	112			52	112
OHIO.											
Cincinnati	Cincinnati Normal School	0	5	0	5	1	124			1	124
Cleveland	Cleveland Normal Training School.	0	12	0	12	0	127	0	0	0	127
Columbus	Columbus Normal School	3	6	3	6	0	48	0	0	0	48
Dayton	Dayton Normal School	0	8	0	8	3	32			3	32
Geneva	Geneva Normal School	4	1	4	1	196	275	146	201	15	30
Orwell	Orwell Public School	2	2	1	1	58	70	25	31	8	12
OKLAHOMA.											
Edmond	Territorial Normal School of Oklahoma.	4	1	4	1	50	105			50	105
OREGON.											
Drain	State Normal School	7	5	4	2	92	91	27	22	65	69
Monmouth	do	6	4	6	4	122	165	47	31	50	130
Weston	East Oregon State Normal School.	5	1	5	1	35	103	22	71	13	32
PENNSYLVANIA.											
California	Southwestern State Normal School.	11	10	10	7	356	447	300	353	19	27
Clarion	Clarion State Normal School	13	9	13	7	275	366	30	30	245	336
East Stroudsburg	East Stroudsburg State Normal School.	7	6	7	6	221	276	208	236	23	40
Edinboro	Edinboro State Normal School*	1	2	4	5	145	200	25	42	109	148
Indiana	Indiana Normal School of Pennsylvania.	11	14	11	12	279	436	254	313	25	123
Mansfield	Mansfield State Normal School	7	6	7	6	181	276	0	0	181	276

* Statistics of 1893-94.

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.	Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.	
In business course.	In high-school grades.		Male.		Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.								Female.
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
0	0	0	0	237	239	0	2	0	73	1	40	2,000	\$170,000	\$20,000	0	0
0	0	4	8	192	269	0	0	7	59	3	40	254,850	25,807	0	0
.....	200	211	0	1	3	40	6,000	243,352	\$10,449
.....	45	70	170	190	2	2	10	29	3	40	3,500	204,500	22,000
0	0	0	0	120	154	0	0	18	90	4	40	6,000	150,000	25,000
.....	0	727	0	1,055	0	8	2	45	4	40	2,772	123,076	19,000	0	0
.....	87	100	40	42	4	40	181,000	26,314	49,693
0	0	0	0	244	269	0	0	9	42	3	40	107,000	25,000	0	0
.....	44	116	80	100	4	27	4	40	2,000	125,000	21,800
.....	109	128	0	0	19	63	4	40	5,000	150,000	23,500
.....	0	1,035	0	35	1	40	700
0	0	0	0	0	0	6	4	3	10	3	28	31	300	25
0	0	0	0	0	0	40	92	0	0	3	36	800	1,300	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	42	64	0	4	3	36	700	3,000	1,500	0	0
.....	4	35	34	88	0	0	36	36	357	75	1,400	0	8
0	48	4	11	0	31	4	32	3,000	75,000	12,500	5,000
0	0	0	0	0	0	42	73	3	40	250	1,500	1,400	\$100
0	0	0	0	0	0	20	27	0	0	3	32	400	1,400	0	0
.....	38	40	12	3	3	36	1,200	100,000	10,000
.....	2	9	4	36	600	30,000	12,000
0	0	0	0	167	156	0	2	0	49	2	40	150	0
0	0	0	0	300	300	0	0	0	97	2	38	50
0	0	0	0	192	190	0	1	0	35	1	38	300
0	0	75	100	0	1	0	28	1	40	225	0	0	0
9	0	30	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	38	400	30,000	5,000	0	0
.....	15	28	0	0	0	0	4	36	6,000
.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	36	150	43,000
25	4	10	15	12	40	3	40	275	18,000	1,200	150	0
.....	0	0	3	10	3	40	200	35,000	10,000	0	0
.....	3	48	75	8,000	12,000
9	9	28	58	143	155	1	1	19	27	2	42	3,300	189,000	3,156	0	10,000
.....	30	30	23	43	3	42	5,000	250,000	10,000	25,095
.....	72	73	2	42	600	110,744	10,000
.....	1	20	83	87	0	0	20	26	2	42	177,000	10,000
.....	0	0	8	65	2	42	2,757	265,750	12,213
0	0	0	0	43	92	0	0	24	36	3	42	17,500

TABLE 1.—Statistics of public normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.						
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grade		In normal course.		
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.												
Millersville.....	First Pennsylvania State Normal School.	21	19	21	19	533	599				412	481
Philadelphia.....	Philadelphia Normal School for Girls.	2	39	2	25	0	628	0	0	0	0	628
Pittsburg.....	Normal Department, Pittsburg High School.			0	5	0	72				0	72
Shippensburg.....	Cumberland Valley State Normal School.	7	7	7	7	242	226	37	40	295	186	
Slippery Rock.....	Slippery Rock State Normal School.	7	7			325	466	79	78	246	388	
West Chester.....	West Chester State Normal School.	12	18	12	18	276	446	20	30	256	416	
RHODE ISLAND.												
Providence.....	Rhode Island State Normal School.	3	13	3	7	2	194				2	194
SOUTH CAROLINA.												
Columbia.....	Winthrop Normal College....	1	6	1	6	0	59				0	59
SOUTH DAKOTA.												
Madison.....	State Normal School.....	4	5	4	5	79	221	37	69	42	152	
Spearfish.....do.....	1	10	1	10	74	120	0	0	74	120	
TENNESSEE.												
Nashville.....	Peabody Normal College *....	10	16	8	14	193	315			193	315	
TEXAS.												
Huntsville.....	Sam Houston Normal Institute.	5	10	5	10	183	366	0	0	183	366	
Prairie View.....	Prairie View State Normal School.	6	8	4	5	115	106	23	63	92	43	
VERMONT.												
Johnson.....	State Normal School.....	3	5	3	5	25	157			25	157	
Randolph Center.....do.....	2	5	2	5	16	87	0	0	16	87	
VIRGINIA.												
Farmville.....	State Female Normal School of Virginia.	1	11	1	11	0	277	0	0		277	
Petersburg.....	Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute.	7	5	7	3	142	179	61	83	53	94	
Rye Cove.....	Washington Institute.....	7	0			27	16	24	14	3	2	
WASHINGTON.												
Cheney.....	State Normal School *.....	3	5	1	5	119	160	82	87	37	73	
Ellensburg.....do.....	4	5	4	5	49	108			45	81	
WEST VIRGINIA.												
Concord Church...	Concord State Normal School.	5	3	4	3	113	160	18	28	95	72	
Fairmont.....	Fairmont State Normal School.	5	7	4	5	199	164			193	153	
Farm.....	West Virginia Colored Institute.	3	2	3	2	34	44	18	22	16	22	
Fayetteville.....	Fayetteville Academy.....	2	1	1	1	33	43	18	18	12	20	
Glenville.....	Glenville State Normal School.	3	2	3	2	70	33	0	0	70	33	
Huntington.....	Marshall College State Normal School.	2	3	2	3	63	115	13	32	55	83	

* Statistics of 1893-94.

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.		Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.		Weeks in school year.		Volumes in library.		Value of grounds and buildings.		Amount of State, county, or city aid.		Value of benefactions received during the year.		Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.	
In business course.		In high-school grades.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.		Value of grounds and buildings.		Amount of State, county, or city aid.		Value of benefactions received during the year.		Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.			
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25		26		27		28		29			
.....	121	109	65	198	1	0	41	61	3	42	7,500		\$453,342		\$10,000		\$2,076		\$17,816			
0	0	0	0	111	259	0	2	0	273	2	40		525,000		64,131		0		0			
0	0	0	0	78	72	0	0	0	54	3	40			
.....	37	40	36	57	3	42		182,000		24,266				
0	0	79	78	0	0	18	56	3	42	1,500		160,000		10,000		0		25,000			
0	0	20	30	0	1	0	0	3	42	7,000		425,000			10,000			
0	0	0	0	0	1	1	13	2	2,000		25,000		18,000		0		0			
.....	20	52	0	0	0	7	2	36	900			5,250				
0	0	0	0	37	69	0	0	4	25	3	39	1,200		55,000		13,500		0		0			
0	0	0	0	142	165	1	1	4	12	4	38	6,240		50,000		12,500		0		0			
.....	62	107	44	100	2	32		300,000		15,000				
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	37	11,000		100,000		40,500		0		3,000			
.....	10	11	4	40			
0	0	0	0	20	30	0	0	4	24	3	40	3,000		7,000		4,764				
.....	0	0	0	0	3	31	2	40	3,000		15,000		2,500		0		0			
0	0	0	0	26	53	0	0	0	42	3	40	3,000		65,000		15,000		0		0			
.....	25	5	25	31	53	94	8	11	3	35		173,059		15,000				
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	38	0		1,000		200		0		0			
.....	82	87	0	0	0	4	4	40		30,000		25,000			60,000			
.....	4	27	27	29	2	2	4	40		65,000		14,000				
.....	40		400		3,500			3,000			
14	3	0	0	16	22	6	7	3	40	600		50,000		4,200			17,000			
.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	38	500		19,500		7,367				
3	5	0	0	0	0	7	4	3	40	1,000		35,000		3,500		0		1,000			
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	7	3	40	1,000		100,000		3,000				

TABLE 1.—*Statistics of public normal*

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grade.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
WEST VIRGINIA— continued.											
Shepherdstown....	Shepherd College State Normal School.	2	4	2	3	53	46	45	31
West Liberty.....	West Liberty State Normal School.	4	2	4	2	72	88	8	6
WISCONSIN.											
Milwaukee	State Normal School*	6	9	4	6	93	216	66	80	27	136
Oshkosh.....	do	8	19	8	14	179	434	167	430
Platteville.....	do	10	10	10	7	200	309	60	65	118	183
River Falls.....	River Falls State Normal School.	4	12	4	8	104	226	7	14	95	214
Stevens Point.....	State Normal School.....	5	8	5	5	148	228	90	125	55	97
Whitewater.....	do	5	12	5	9	69	209	67	200

* Statistics of 1893-94.

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.	Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Values in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.	
In business course.		In high-school grades.			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
0	0	8	15	0	0	0	0	2	5	3	40	500	\$30,000	\$3,500	0	\$15,000
.....	64	82	8	6	3	40	25,000	3,200	6,000
12	4	0	0	66	80	0	0	20	35	2	40	50,000	23,500	0
0	0	42	41	111	130	0	0	27	31	4	40	6,595	112,000	8,936
0	0	0	0	54	105	0	0	15	26	4	40	2,250	170,000	45,000	0	3,800
0	0	0	0	54	84	0	0	3	3	4	40	1,500	65,000	42,000	0	0
0	0	3	6	70	95	0	0	4	3	2	40	4,000	80,000	20,000
0	0	2	0	55	59	0	0	15	33	4	40	3,000	120,000	24,771

TABLE 2.—Statistics of private

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grades.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
ALABAMA.											
Huntsville.....	Central Alabama Academy	3	2			50	80			50	80
Livingston.....	Alabama Normal College for Girls.	2	10	1	6		118	0	80	0	38
Scottsboro.....	Tri-State Normal University.	5	6			34	87			4	6
Selma.....	Burrell Academy.....	2	6	2	3	135	141	124	126	11	15
Tuskegee.....	Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute.	41	25	6	16	430	329	210	159	270	170
ARKANSAS.											
Arkadelphia.....	Shorter University.....	5	2	2		39	43	21	31	13	12
Berryville.....	Clarke's Academy.....	2	2	1		70	60	45	40	15	16
Southland.....	Southland College and Normal Institute.	2	5	1	2	89	90	74	85	9	3
CALIFORNIA.											
Los Angeles.....	Fröbel Institute.....	3	9	2	6	60	50	60	20	0	30
Martinez.....	Novitiate of the Brothers of the Christian Schools.	4	0	2	0	20	0	14	0	6	0
Oakland.....	Gibson's Normal and Special Training School.	1	1	2	2	9	59	0	0	5	53
San Francisco.....	California Kindergarten Training School.	0	3	0	3	0	24	0	0	0	24
Do.....	Golden Gate Free Kindergarten Normal Training School.	0	1	0	1	0	51	0	15	0	36
COLORADO.											
Denver.....	Denver Normal and Preparatory School.	2	5	2	5	27	141	7	18	20	133
FLORIDA.											
Jasper.....	Jasper Normal Institute...	3	5	3	2	140	120	62	58	60	59
Orange Park.....	Orange Park Normal and Manual Training School	2	7	2	2	49	57	38	48	11	9
White Springs.....	Florida Normal College....	3	2	2	0	240	120	224	96	16	24
GEORGIA.											
Atlanta.....	Atlanta Baptist Seminary..	9	6	5	0	150	0	117	0	6	0
Do.....	Spelman Seminary.....	2	36	0	7	0	491	0	416	0	14
Augusta.....	Haines Normal and Industrial Institute.	2	13	1	5	111	214	77	131	0	9
Demorest.....	Demorest Normal School..	5	4	2	0	38	36	5	6	16	10
Breunsvboro.....	Thos. Stocks Institute.....	2	3	2	1	86	72	74	54	2	7
Macon.....	Ballard Normal School....	2	12	2	3	125	275	135	255	2	8
Thomasville.....	Allen Normal and Industrial School.	0	6	0	3	33	142	28	67	0	6
Trenton.....	Trenton Normal School....	1	3	0	1	68	42	51	33	11	7
ILLINOIS.											
Addison.....	German Evan.-Lutheran Teacher's Seminary.	8	0	8	0	252	0	166	0	86	0
Aurora.....	Jenning's Seminary.....	4	6	2	4	93	90	29	42	3	13
Bushnell.....	Western Normal College...	7	5			480	320	200	150	190	150
Dixon.....	Northern Illinois Normal College.	14	13	10	5	682	251	112	18	194	131
Galesburg.....	Galesburg Kindergarten Normal School.	1	4	1	4	1	23			1	23
Mount Morris.....	Mount Morris College....	10	5	4	3	193	145			65	44
Onarga.....	Grand Prairie Seminary...	5	6	3	0	200	214	120	120	38	80
Oregon.....	Wells School for Teachers and Business Students and School of Individual Instruction.	2	0	2	0	48	91	0	0	34	83
Rushville.....	Rushville Normal and Business College.	3	0	3	0	140	80	85	20	55	60

normal schools, 1894-95.

Students.				Children in model school.		Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.
In business course.		In high-school grades.														
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.							
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
				15	15	50	80	0	3	3	36	500				
										4	36	500		\$2,500		
11	1	19	80									600				
						11	15			4	32	500	\$5,000	0		
						270	170	93	72	4	36	12,000	215,000	3,000	\$48,919	0
3	10					13	12			4	36	400	5,000	0	0	0
												500	6,000			
		4	4	30	25	9	3			4	36	1,000	26,000	0	794	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	21	0		40,000	0	0	0
													500			
4	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	36		30,000	0	0	0
						0	0	0	0	20	1	48	133	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	1	43	100		28,000	0
								0	21	3	36	150	300			
15	15			30	28	0	0	6	4	2	40	1,000	4,000	600	0	0
		0	0	0	0	10	6	3	3	4	34	200	25,000	0		0
										2	40	200	12,000	0	0	0
0	0	27	0			6	0	1	0			2,000	50	0	402	
0	0	0	61	0	303	0	14	0	2	2	33	2,500	150,000		2,804	
0	0	34	74	58	82	0	9	0	0	4	35	300	25,000	0	0	0
0	0	17	29			0	0	2	1	2	40	260	2,500		55	0
		19	11			0	0	0	0	2	20	200	6,000	1,068		
0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	1	5	4	32	300	25,000	0	150	0
0	0	5	69	22	26	0	6	1	2	4	32	360				
7	1															
								44	0	2	40	1,400	90,000			
23	14	38	21	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	40	500	75,000	0	0	0
90	20			0	0	0	0	0	5	3	48	500	40,000	0	0	0
228	72	148	30	0	0	5	2	16	13	3	40		200,000	0		
				48	62			0	12	1	40		10,000			
35	23	95	71					15	9	3	38	22,000	75,000		500	
35	21	0	0			1	0	0	2	3	39	1,000	40,000		23,000	
14	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			100	3,000	0	0	0
								8	0	3	40	100				

TABLE 2.—Statistics of private normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grades.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
INDIANA.											
Angola	Tri-State Normal College*	1	3	0	1	358	244	104	67	169	140
Borden	Borden Institute.....	3	1	3	0	48	36	0	0	40	30
Columbus	Columbus Business University and Normal College.	6	2	6	1	140	130	20	20	85	90
Covington	Indiana Normal College..	4	1	4	1	34	37	10	12	24	25
Danville.....	Central Normal College and Commercial Institute.	14	2			733	525	321	240	300	200
Fairmount.....	Fairmount Academy and Normal School.	2	3	2	3	78	61	0	0	25	28
Indianapolis.....	Indiana Kindergarten and Primary Normal Training School.	3	14	3	14	0	253			0	253
Marion	Marion Normal College....	6	2	5	2	150	100			100	75
Mitchell	Southern Indiana Normal College.	6	7	6	7	200	200	0	0	100	100
Portland.....	Portland Normal, Music, and Law College.	8	1	4	1	174	102			136	79
Princeton.....	Indiana Normal University	5	4	5	4	250	200	100	50	20	15
Spiceland.....	Spiceland Academy.....	3	1	3	1	152	68	50	50	27	22
Valparaiso.....	Northern Indiana Normal School.	28	14	15	12	2,560	1,920			1,521	890
IOWA.											
Afton.....	Afton Normal and Business College.	2	5	2	3	60	68	0	0	35	70
Algona	Northern Iowa Normal and Commercial School.	2	4	2	3	75	110	70	98	2	4
Bloomfield.....	Southern Iowa Normal, Scientific, and Business Institute.	4	2	4	0	80	50	64	46	10	4
Casey.....	Normal and Preparatory School.	0	1	0	1	15	25			15	25
Denison	Denison Normal School....	3	4	2	2	108	126			31	55
Dexter.....	Dexter Normal College....	4	4	2	3	20	30	14	20	6	10
Glidden	National Normal School and Business College.	4	1	2	0	85	95	4	11	45	75
Hedrick	Hedrick Normal and Commercial School.	4	3	4	3	56	68	20	24	28	34
Iowa Falls.....	Ellsworth College.....	4	4	2	1	196	189			20	40
Lemars	Lemars Normal School and Business College.	4	4			132	102	0	0	104	98
Nora Springs.....	Nora Springs Seminary....	6	4	4	2	230	220	0	0	140	160
Oskaloosa	Hull's Preparatory and Normal School.	0	1			17	52	0	0	5	20
Ottumwa	Ottumwa Normal School...	0	1			3	30			3	30
Shenandoah.....	Western Normal College, etc.	11	10	11	10	535	657	20	28	58	128
Spirit Lake.....	Spirit Lake Normal and Business Institute.	2	1	2	1	31	62	23	50	8	12
Vinton	Tilford Academy.....	4	3	4	3	165	124	93	76	40	80
Waukon	Waukon Business College and Normal School.	2	2	2	2	94	81	18	22	45	72
KANSAS.											
Fort Scott	Kansas Normal College....	9	4	7	3	265	150			205	115
Great Bend	Central Normal College....	9	8	8	6	281	114	149	50	68	64
McPherson	McPherson College.....	4	2			42	59	27	43	15	16
Maryville.....	Modern Normal College....	2	3	2	0	49	50	7	10	23	26
Salina	Salina Normal University..	8	4	8	4	152	120	80	73	46	35
KENTUCKY.											
Albany	Albany High School.....	2	1	2	1	62	50	23	28	28	14
Blaine	Blaine Normal School.....	2	0	2	0	60	40	20	20	40	20

*Statistics of 1893-94.

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.		Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.
In business course.		In high-school grades.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.							
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
58	13	27	24	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	48					
3	1	5	5					3	0	2	39	3,000	\$30,000	0	0	0
40	15							4	4	4	48					
87	35	25	50					100	48	4	47	100				
						2	0	3	1	3	38	500	20,000	\$800		
		53	33			0	2	0	62	4		200				
0	0	50	25	0	0	0	0	5	2	4	42	800	25,000	0		
50	50	50	50	0	0	0	0	25	25	4	47	2,000	15,000			
19	2	19	21			0	0			3	50	25	3,500			
3	2	160	100							1	46	50		0		
0	0	27	44	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	40	2,500		0	0	
630	420	409	610	100	125	0	0	318	240	3	50		500,000	0	0	0
		10	13	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	44	1,000	36,000	0	0	0
10	1					0	0	0	4	3	42	300	3,000			
6	0					1	0	10	4	1	48	200	8,000	0	0	0
										2	36		0	0	0	0
58	5	25	60	5	8			2	1	4	40	200	40,000			
12	4	20	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	40	200	20,000	0		
								2	4	2	46	200	14,000	0	0	0
8	10							4	2	3	40	200				
66	10	110	139					3	9	3	40	1,500	30,000		\$1,000	
26	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	5	3	40	500	40,000	0	0	0
45	15	55	35	0	0	0	0	5	5	2	38	100	5,250	0	0	0
		12	32	0	0	0	0	0	0			150	100	0		
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				36					
97	23	367	471	11	13			23	19	2	48	672	54,675	0	0	0
										2	40	43				
18	0					0	0	5	4	2	36	1,200	35,000	0		
								38	16	3	40	70	280	0	0	
60	35							16	3	4	40	3,000	30,000	0		
33	21	31	9					6	2	4	40	2,000	25,000			
										4	40	1,100	40,000			
23	6	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	40	1,000	8,000		30	
25	19					0	0			4	40	500	30,000			
5	0	9	5	0	0	0	0	0	0		20	0	2,000	336	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		20	0	500	0	0	0

TABLE 2.—Statistics of private normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grades.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
KENTUCKY—Continued.											
Bowling Green.....	Bowling Green Business College and Southern Normal School.	6	5	3	5	175	125	140	105	35	29
Bremen.....	Bremen College and Perryman Institute.	2	1	2	0	32	18	7	3	15	10
Corinth.....	Northern Kentucky Normal School and Academy.	2	2	1	1	78	100	60	80	12	18
Flatlick.....	Flatlick Union Normal School.	2	2	1	1	100	75	90	60	10	15
Fulton.....	Fulton Normal and Business College.	3	3	2	1	71	129	45	69	17	24
Jackson.....	Jackson Collegiate Institute.	4	2	3	0	114	86	29	34	42	28
Hardinsburg.....	Breckinridge Normal College.	3	2	2	0	54	41	15	15	36	24
Irvine.....	Irvine Training School.....	3	0	3	0	40	30	40	30
Louisa.....	Louisa Normal Institute.....	5	2	2	0	95	90	65	60	30	30
Madisonville.....	Western Kentucky Normal School.	0	4	0	2	21	35	21	27	0	8
Magnolia.....	Magnolia Classical and Normal College.
Waddy.....	Central Normal School and Business College.	4	3	4	3	98	84	14	8	48	38
LOUISIANA.											
New Orleans.....	Southern Academic Institute.	1	8	0	3	0	80	0	76	0	4
MAINE.											
Lee.....	Lee Normal Academy.....	1	2	1	2	70	75	70	75
MARYLAND.											
Baltimore.....	Baltimore Normal School..	1	1	10	20	0	0	10	20
Buckeystown.....	Buckeystown Normal Training School.	1	1	1	1	14	14	0	1	7	11
Rising Sun.....	Friends' Normal Institute.	2	0	2	0	13	29	1	6	7	9
MASSACHUSETTS.											
Waltham.....	Notre Dame Training School.	0	9	0	9	0	53	0	53
Worcester.....	Kindergarten Normal Class	0	1	0	1	0	22	0	22
MICHIGAN.											
Benton Harbor.....	Benton Harbor College.....	8	10	4	5	197	279	31	36	92	136
Big Rapids.....	Ferris Industrial School...	6	5	6	5	385	228	385	228
Fenton.....	Fenton Normal School and Commercial College.	4	3	4	3	175	125	100	110
Flint.....	Flint Normal College and Business Institute.	3	3	3	2	70	65	0	0	50	40
Mount Pleasant...	Central Michigan Normal College.	2	3	2	2	17	52	0	0	17	52
Petoskey.....	Graves Normal Academy..	1	2	1	0	102	149	0	0	15	28
MINNESOTA.											
Moorhead.....	Concordia College.....	6	1	6	0	143	63	30	10	63	53
New Ulm.....	Dr. Martin Luther College, Teachers' Seminary.	5	0	5	0	44	0	0	0	32	0
Sauk Center.....	Sauk Center Academy and Business College.	3	0	3	0	72	24	8	0	12	24

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.	Colored students in normal course.	Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.		
In business course.		In high-school grades.				Male.	Female.									
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
								18	12	3	40	1,000	\$25,000			
0	0	10	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	40	0	3,000	0	0	0
3	5							4	6	4	40	25	2,500	\$707		
								3	2	3	40		2,500			
14	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	2	4	10	225	9,000	510	0	0
3	2	40	22					6	3	2	40	1,500	10,000		\$200	
3	2									2	36	125	6,000			
		0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4		10					
				21	27			0	4	2	40	50	15,000	0	0	0
										3	36	250	50			
12	20	22	20	12	10	0	0	15	18	2	52	800	12,600			
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	40	1,000	20,000			
						0	0	4	3	3	22	0	2,000	600	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	20	0	3	40	0	25,000	2,000	0	0
7	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	47	500	3,000	0	0	0
1	7	4	7	0	0	0	0			4	40					
										3	42	5,836	45,000			
								0	8	2	36	0				
46	39	28	68	31	36	0	0	4	5	4	36	2,600	7,000			
				17	25	0	0	25	39	3	48	500	30,000			
75	15							4	1	2	48	1,000	7,000			
20	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	2	50	400	800	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	15	25	0	0	0	0	3	40	500	20,000	500	0	0
25	19	62	102	0	0	0	0	5	28	3	36	500	1,000	0	0	0
49	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	36		45,000			
7	0	5	0	65	60	0	0	5	0	2	40	550	30,000	0		0
40	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	10	22	1	38	500	1,500	0	0	0

TABLE 2.—Statistics of private normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grades.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
MISSISSIPPI.											
Abbeville.....	Abbeville Normal School..	3	2	3	1	60	79	58	63	6	12
Buenavista.....	Buena Vista Normal College.	3	5	3	5	62	51	42	20	6	7
Inka.....	Inka Normal Institute....	4	4	3	1	143	170	65	91	16	24
Plattsburg.....	Winston Normal High School.	2	1	48	61	22	32	12	14
Tougaloo.....	Normal Department Tougaloo University.	6	14	4	4	169	210	141	193	22	17
Tula.....	Tula Normal Institute and Business College.	3	3	2	0	123	145	93	107	30	38
Walnut Grove.....	Mississippi Central Normal School.	2	1	1	0	67	60	57	56	10	4
MISSOURI.											
Brookfield.....	Brookfield College.....	2	4	1	1	80	98	20	21	15	10
Chillicothe.....	Chillicothe Normal, Business and Shorthand College.	15	1	10	1	521	363	146	60	318	221
Clarksburg.....	Hooper Institute.....	5	1	1	0	75	45	23	17
College Mound.....	McGee College.....	8	7	115	110	31	4	25	30
El Dorado Springs.....	El Dorado Normal and Business College.	2	2	1	1	52	99	12	16	40	83
Green Ridge.....	Central Missouri Normal and Business College.	3	3	2	2	35	40	8	10	17	23
Kahoka.....	Kahoka Normal College.....
Kidder.....	Kidder Institute.....	3	2	63	71	38	40	20	25
Licking.....	Licking College.....	4	3	1	1	60	40	10	18	40	32
Pleasant Hope.....	Pleasant Hope Normal Academy.	2	2	1	0	45	26	33	18	7	8
Stanberry.....	Stanberry Normal School..	11	8	10	6	300	208	115	83	185	125
Thornfield.....	Thornfield Normal School..	7	1	4	0	64	61	24	13	40	20
Weaubleau.....	Weaubleau Christian College.	4	1	1	0	80	79	44	50	30	25
MONTANA.											
Twiu Bridges.....	Montana Normal Training School.	3	4	1	1	36	44	27	39	3	7
NEBRASKA.											
Fremont.....	Fremont Normal School...	14	3	14	3	290	250	30	105	180	120
Kearney.....	Platte Collegiate Institute.	3	2	1	0	33	30	17	22	10	5
Lincoln.....	Lincoln Normal University	14	5	14	4	351	310	0	0	205	125
Do.....	Lincoln Polytechnic Institute.
Madison.....	North Nebraska Normal College.	3	2	1	1	80	104	50	60	20	35
Santee Agency.....	Santee Normal Training School.	10	10	3	3	65	53	61	47	4	6
Stromsburg.....	Bryant Normal University.	8	2	4	1	86	74	21	25	65	49
Wayne.....	Nebraska Normal College..	7	5	5	3	442	504	0	0	210	305
NORTH CAROLINA.											
Asheville.....	Normal and Collegiate Institute.	1	12	1	0	0	163	0	73	0	90
Beaufort.....	Washburn Seminary.....	1	5	1	1	79	84	69	77	10	7
Concord.....	Scotia Seminary.....	1	15	1	5	0	283	0	268	0	15
Farmer.....	Farmers' Institute.....	2	2	2	0	54	40	33	30	8	13
Kings Mountain.....	Lincoln Academy.....	0	5	0	3	62	126	57	112	5	14
Lumberton.....	Whitin Normal School....	1	1	1	1	43	52	14	21	29	31
Poes.....	Bine's Creek Academy.....	5	2	1	0	115	86	30	30	12	10
Raleigh.....	St. Augustine's School....	7	5	6	0	79	139	54	111	25	28
Traphill.....	Fairview College.....	1	1	1	1	97	35	81	35	16	0
Warrenton.....	Shiloh Institute.....	2	2	2	1	4	63	4	63
Wilmington.....	Gregory Normal Institute.	1	10	1	4	125	200	90	155	35	45

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.	Colored students in normal course.	Graduates from normal course.	Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.			
In business course.	In high-school grades.		Male.											Female.	Male.	Female.
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
1	0	13	24			0	0	1	1	2	40	500	\$2,000	\$450		
15	10	38	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	40	500	10,000	350		
		14	15							3	40	800	60,000	1,500	0	
		6	0	82	100	22	17	3	1	4	32	2,500	85,000		\$5,500	
						0	0	14	13	3	44	500	3,000	375		
0	0	0	0	21	15	0	0	0	0	1	40	0	1,500	340	0	0
5	2	40	65	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	40		30,000	0		
95	14	12	18					12		2	48	200	50,000			
12	0	40	28	3	3	0	0	0	0	2	40		10,000	0	0	0
		59	76	0	0	0	0	5	6	4	40	1,000	25,000			
								2	1	4	40	500	7,500			
12	5									4	3	27	300	5,000		
5	6					0	0	1	3	4	39	2,000	35,000	0	2,000	
0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	40	150	8,000			
										3	38	50	1,500	0	0	0
4	2	12	10	0	0	0	0	16	16	3	44	2,000	50,000	0	0	0
6	4							3	2	3	40	0	2,500	0	0	0
										4	36	100	10,000			
0	4			27	39					4	32	350	8,000	0		
80	25							60	32	2	50	4,000	7,500			
6	3					0	0	2	0	3	40		25,000			
90	75	80	86			1	1	30	17	4	48	500	161,000			
10	9							0	1	3	48	550	8,000			
0	0			26	17			2	1	3	40	1,250	65,300	0	15,165	
118	140	114	58	0	0	0	0	4	3	2	48		20,000			
								34	41	2	50	800	40,000	0		
				9	0	0	0	0	17	3	36		150,000	0		0
0	0	0	0	0	0	10	7	0	0	4	32	0	3,000	152		
						0	15	0	7	2	34		60,000	0	6,710	0
10	0									4	20		4,000			
						5	14	3	2	4	32			111		
						29	31	0	0	4	24	250	1,200	0		
5	1	63	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4		1,000			0
						25	23	0	1	3	32					0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	36	50	1,500			0
				15	20	4	63	3	5	3	32	0	7,000			0
						35	45	0	0	4	32	500	40,000	0	500	0

TABLE 2.—Statistics of private normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grades.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
NORTH DAKOTA.											
Grand Forks.....	Grand Forks College.....	2	6	1	4	108	43	21	6	35	29
OHIO.											
Ada.....	Ohio Normal University...	24	8	13	4	2,026	839	3	4	719	466
Canfield.....	North Eastern Ohio Normal College.	5	2	5	2	96	84	50	46	30	29
Dayton.....	St. Mary's Convent.....	13	0	13	0	65	0	15	0	50	0
Ewington.....	Ewington Academy.....	1	1	1	0	30	30	9	8	21	22
Fayette.....	Fayette Normal University	8	3	8	3	170	130	20	17	65	50
Lebanon.....	National Normal University.	29	16	10	10	658	392	247	62	191	121
Middlepoint.....	Western Ohio Normal School.	3	2	3	2	72	33	0	0	72	33
New Philadelphia..	John P. Kuhn's Normal School.	1	0	40	30	0	0	40	30
Piketon.....	Southern Ohio School of Pedagogy.	4	0	4	0	60	30	60	30
South New Lyme..	New Lyme Institute.....	4	3	112	115	33	37	23	41
Woodville.....	Teachers' Seminary of the Evangelical Lutheran Synod of Ohio and adjoining States.	4	0	4	0	43	0	36	0
PENNSYLVANIA.											
Bloomsburg.....	Bloomsburg Literary Institute and State Normal School.	14	12	14	10	421	310	45	29	43	102
Ebensburg.....	Ebensburg Normal Institute.	2	2	2	2	40	55	15	25	25	30
Huntingdon.....	Juniata College.....	11	4	9	1	191	118	53	24	120	90
Kutztown.....	Keystone State Normal School.	17	6	16	6	589	293	84	84	505	209
Lock Haven.....	Central State Normal School.	15	8	12	4	336	319	69	77	255	227
McDonald.....	Ingleside Academy.....	60	54	2	0	75	54	14	8	41	31
Muney.....	Lycoming County Normal School.	7	1	7	1	146	119	141	110
Rimersburg.....	Clarion Collegiate Institute	3	2	2	1	47	30	39	20	8	10
Waynesburg.....	Waynesburg College.....	6	2	3	2	156	124	103	58	45	56
SOUTH CAROLINA.											
Aiken.....	Schofield Normal and Industrial School.	4	6	0	2	74	149	66	139	8	10
Camden.....	Browning Home and Industrial School.	0	4	0	2	40	60	36	46	4	14
Charleston.....	Avery Normal Institute...	2	6	1	1	145	265	99	148	4	21
Do.....	Wallingford Academy....	1	5	1	1	73	148	69	112	13	36
Frogmore.....	Penn Normal and Industrial School.	4	7	1	1	136	118	121	104	15	14
SOUTH DAKOTA.											
Sioux Falls.....	Lutheran Normal School...	6	2	6	2	34	45	0	0	34	45
TENNESSEE.											
Birchwood.....	Rutherford Graded School.	3	1	7	0	102	98	90	90	12	8
Dickson.....	Dickson Normal School....	5	6	4	3	310	290	135	165	70	50
Fountain City.....	Holbrook Normal College..	7	6	6	3	105	81	30	23	12	14
Grand View.....	Grand View Normal Institute.	2	5	1	4	125	73	56	37	42	21
Greenbrier.....	Central Tennessee Normal and Commercial School.	4	2	3	0	130	126	95	98	35	28
Hornbeak.....	West Tennessee Normal College.	3	3	2	0	111	119	51	59	25	35
Huntingdon.....	Southern Normal University.	15	7	3	1	400	250	251	241	25	15

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.		Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal course.		Years in normal course.		Weeks in school year.		Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.
In business course.		In high-school grades.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.		Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.	
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29		
52	8			0	0	0	0	0	0	2	40							
215	32	1,089	337	0	0	0	0	82	17	2	49	5,400	\$75,000	0	0			
8	4	8	5	0	0	0	0	50	35	4	40	1,100	50,000	\$1,400				
0	0			0	0	0	0	8	0	4		1,500		0				
22	7	63	56	0	0	0	0	0	0			40	1,000	0	0			
84	26	136	183	19	40	0	0	8	4	2	40	480	15,000	1,800				
0	0			0	0	0	0					48	10,000					
				0	0	0	0	8	0	3	48	200	18,000	0	0			
								20	10		44			0				
						2	3				10							
22	3	34	34					1	2	2	39		15,000		\$25,000			
7	0	0	0	18	30	0	0	6	0	5	40	1,500	25,000					
222	120	111	59	43	102			43	102	2	42	1,869	234,000	10,000				
18	4			34	84	0	0	16	7	3	40	5,000	75,000					
0	0							40	2	2	42	5,185	253,598	10,000	\$7,029			
12	15			69	77			46	51	3	42	3,750	176,000	10,000				
		21	14					4	3	4	39							
		5	9					16	6	3	20	500		0	0			
0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0		38	250	5,000	0	0			
8	10			0	0	0	1			3	39	2,000	100,000	0	2,700			
						8	10	1	9	2	32	900	33,000	150	0			
		0	0	0	0	4	14	1	2	3	32			0	0			
		42	96	0	0	4	21	4	21	4	36	500	25,000	0	0			
0	0			0	0	15	14	2	0	4	36	500	1,300	0	0			
										3	34	300	5,000	0	1,000			
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	4	35		18,000					
0	0			15	18					4	12	100	2,218	300	0			
25	3	80	72	0	0	0	0	9	9	2	40	1,000	30,000	500	0			
20	12	40	35			0	0	16	13	1	43	2,500	70,000	0	0			
0	0	23	19	0	0	0	0	5	2	4	34	2,500	6,500	0	0			
				0	0					2	40	375	5,000					
25	15	10	10			0	0	0	0	2	36		0	600				
10	8	60	40	0	0	0	0	19	5	2	45	3,000	30,000	0	0			

TABLE 2.—Statistics of private normal

Location.	Name of institution.	Teachers.				Students.					
		Entire number employed.		Instructing normal students.		Entire number enrolled.		Below normal grades.		In normal course.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
TENNESSEE—cont'd.											
McLemoresville ...	McLemoresville Collegiate Institute.	3	3	2	0	77	58	30	32	40	25
Maryville.....	Freedman's Normal Institute.	8	6	1	2	128	125	64	75	64	50
Morristown.....	Morristown Normal Academy.	2	12	1	5	141	149	106	111	31	42
Mulberry.....	South Central Tennessee Normal School.	4	2	4	2	80	70	25	20	55	50
Wheat.....	Roane College.....	1	3	60	40	50	40	10	0
Winchester.....	Winchester Normal College	5	5	153	157	28	31	93	85
TEXAS.											
Brenham.....	Blinn Memorial College....	5	0	3	0	77	27	47	9	15	1
Castroville.....	Divine Providence Academy.	0	3	0	20	0	0	0	20
Crockett.....	Mary Allen Seminary.....	1	13	0	8	0	232	0	112	0	120
Detroit.....	Detroit Normal College....	2	4	2	0	85	91	66	74	16	17
Hearne.....	Hearne Academy, Normal and Industrial Institute.	2	4	2	4	35	41	22	29	13	12
Omen.....	Summer Hill Select School.	4	2	1	1	150	50	56	51	20	0
UTAH.											
Provo City.....	Brigham Young Academy and Latter Day Saints' Normal Training School.	21	5	20	2	519	407	185	154	151	186
Salt Lake City.....	Latter Day Saints' College.	8	1	2	0	149	94	50	40	10	10
VERMONT.											
Castleton.....	State Normal School.....	2	4	2	4	35	110	35	110
Lawrenceville.....	St. Paul Normal and Industrial School.	1	8	1	8	80	90	85	85
VIRGINIA.											
Hampton.....	Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.	21	57	4	34	534	423	483	375	51	48
Norfolk.....	Norfolk Mission College...	4	10	4	3	248	438	225	397	14	24
Reliance.....	Shenandoah Normal College.	5	2	5	0	75	28	46	23
Richmond.....	Hartshorn Memorial College.	1	7	1	7	1	96	1	21	0	70
Scottsburg.....	Scottsburg Normal College	5	4	3	2	51	56	25	18	28	36
Stuart.....	Stuart Normal College....	4	2	2	2	50	49	17	16	25	30
Willis.....	The Mountain Normal School.	2	2	1	1	37	33	3	6	34	27
WEST VIRGINIA.											
Harpers Ferry.....	Storer College.....	4	5	3	4	59	74	5	1	55	72
Summersville.....	Summersville Normal School.	5	1	4	1	151	130	68	60	72	54
WISCONSIN.											
Milwaukee.....	National German-American Teachers' Seminary.	7	9	6	1	16	36	16	36
St. Francis.....	Catholic Normal School of the Holy Family and Pionono College.	8	0	70	0	39	0	31	0
WYOMING.											
Rawlins.....	Wyoming Normal and Scientific College.	2	1	2	0	26	23	21	14	1	9

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.				Children in model school.	Colored students in normal course.		Graduates from normal school.		Years in normal course.	Weeks in school year.	Volumes in library.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Amount of State, county, or city aid.	Value of benefactions received during the year.	Amount received from State, county, or city for buildings and improvements.	
In business course.		In high-school grades.			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								Male.
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
7	1					0	0	7	5	2	40	75	\$5,300	\$300	0	
0	0					64	50	7	4	3	38			0	0	0
				41	33	31	42	3	1	3	36		30,000		\$1,223	0
						0	0			2	40	275	4,000			0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	36	400	4,000			0
12	24	15	17			0	0						30,000	0	0	0
8	2	14	8	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	38	1,100	15,000	0	262	0
		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1		40					
						0	120	0	25	5	32	300	50,000		1,500	
3	0					0	0	4	5	3	36	100	3,000	500	0	0
						13	12			4	33		5,000			
10	3	40	20							2		600	6,000	500		
61	5	122	62	146	105			10	6	6	38	2,800	125,000			
30	11	59	33					2	2	4	38	1,500	30,000		3,500	
				32	60	85	85	3	0	4	40		15,000	4,700		
								6	4	4	40					
0	0	0	0	186	186	41	39	12	17	3	37	7,748	572,000	0	80,392	0
		9	17	143	229	14	24	11	10	3	36	1,000	50,000			
		29	5			0	0	12	7	2	45		12,000			
		0	5			0	16	0	16	3	32		45,000			
		0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	3	36	600	15,000	0		0
8	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	45	150	1,000	0		0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	2	16	200	6,000	0	0	0
19	0	6	2	0	0	55	72	5	2	3	35					
				0	0	0	0	3	4	2	40	250	5,000	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	111	99	0	0	2	8	3	42	1,200	3,000		2,695	
								2	0	4	40					
1	0	3	0	7	8	0	0	0	0	2	48					

TABLE 1.—Summary of statistics of

Division and State.	Number of institutions.	Instructors.			Students.				
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Day school.	Evening school.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
United States.....	462	1,527	674	2,201	65,530	30,605	96,135	77,433	18,702
North Atlantic Division.....	132	504	201	705	19,061	10,662	29,123	21,984	7,139
Maine.....	7	20	10	30	785	495	1,280	1,198	82
New Hampshire.....	3	8	4	12	103	56	159	143	16
Vermont.....	2	4	1	5	111	57	168	125	43
Massachusetts.....	15	67	33	100	2,112	1,704	3,816	2,961	855
Rhode Island.....	4	16	5	21	427	275	702	577	125
Connecticut.....	11	36	20	56	1,421	1,014	2,435	1,769	666
New York.....	36	132	65	197	6,620	3,115	9,735	7,633	2,102
New Jersey.....	9	38	15	53	1,631	655	2,286	1,367	919
Pennsylvania.....	45	183	48	231	5,851	2,691	8,542	6,211	2,331
South Atlantic Division.....	31	91	49	140	4,475	1,926	6,401	4,983	1,418
Delaware.....	1	4	6	10	236	83	319	226	93
Maryland.....	2	8	3	11	315	207	522	388	134
District of Columbia.....	5	16	21	37	1,342	838	2,180	1,644	536
Virginia.....	6	17	7	24	683	236	919	737	182
West Virginia.....	2	8	1	9	419	142	561	338	223
North Carolina.....	4	6	2	8	186	20	206	151	55
South Carolina.....	1	1	0	1	0	21	21	0	21
Georgia.....	9	30	9	39	1,264	372	1,636	1,477	159
Florida.....	1	1	0	1	30	7	37	22	15
South Central Division.....	36	120	31	151	5,357	1,569	6,926	5,771	1,149
Kentucky.....	3	14	2	16	623	425	1,048	976	72
Tennessee.....	5	18	3	21	668	129	797	733	64
Alabama.....	2	4	0	4	116	46	162	111	51
Mississippi.....	6	32	5	37	619	72	691	663	28
Louisiana.....	1	8	3	11	348	47	395	283	112
Texas.....	16	36	15	51	2,283	701	2,984	2,372	612
Arkansas.....	3	8	3	11	694	149	843	633	210
Oklahoma.....									
Indian Territory.....									
North Central Division.....	226	688	222	1,010	31,026	14,157	45,183	37,377	7,806
Ohio.....	40	90	42	132	4,928	2,449	7,387	6,189	1,198
Illinois.....	38	157	71	228	7,249	2,645	9,894	8,106	1,788
Indiana.....	24	81	36	117	4,533	2,419	6,952	5,995	956
Michigan.....	16	47	19	66	1,750	814	2,564	2,076	488
Wisconsin.....	20	47	23	70	1,720	752	2,472	1,974	498
Minnesota.....	16	37	18	55	1,385	600	1,985	1,569	416
Iowa.....	25	82	44	126	3,173	1,402	4,575	4,153	422
Missouri.....	25	87	36	123	3,882	1,992	5,874	4,299	1,645
North Dakota.....	2	8	3	11	195	140	335	270	65
South Dakota.....	2	5	2	7	127	49	176	124	52
Nebraska.....	8	22	12	34	1,066	506	1,572	1,507	65
Kansas.....	10	25	16	41	1,008	389	1,397	1,184	213
Western Division.....	37	124	71	195	5,617	2,891	8,508	7,318	1,190
Montana.....	2	9	3	12	600	250	850	635	215
Wyoming.....									
Colorado.....	4	9	6	15	341	185	526	369	157
New Mexico.....									
Arizona.....	1	3	1	4	87	27	114	104	10
Utah.....	2	6	2	8	251	66	317	267	50
Nevada.....									
Idaho.....	1	1	1	2	34	20	54	49	5
Washington.....	4	12	4	16	500	266	766	663	103
Oregon.....	4	13	11	24	489	311	800	725	75
California.....	19	71	43	114	3,315	1,766	5,081	4,506	575

COLLEGES.

commercial and business colleges, 1894-95.

Students.																		Students in commercial course in other institutions.							
Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Graduates in commercial course.	Graduates in amanuensis course.	Total.	Universities and colleges.	Normal schools.	Private secondary schools.	Public high schools.	Total.										
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.																		
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26										
33,821	9,543	9,540	12,941	12,498	5,307	834	255	10,994	8,609	19,603	4,577	5,293	8,819	25,539	44,228										
10,622	3,609	2,967	4,570	4,859	1,916	143	41	2,763	2,583	5,346	148	729	2,120	11,375	14,372										
584	200	83	237	0	0	0	0	247	139	386	214	22	236										
89	36	9	21	4	0	4	0	33	4	37	53	94	147										
61	13	9	24	10	8	0	0	15	4	19	175	100	275										
367	413	220	494	142	115	4	1	433	229	662	18	180	2,869	3,067										
337	116	36	138	49	16	0	0	126	82	208	205	610	815										
521	289	232	275	37	19	14	6	302	119	421	80	283	363										
3,627	686	857	1,659	1,029	429	87	33	1,206	888	2,094	2,823	2,923										
849	167	124	306	428	165	0	0	212	110	352	669	1,442	2,111										
4,187	1,689	1,397	1,416	3,160	1,164	34	1	1,599	1,008	1,167	130	729	544	3,032	4,435										
1,979	559	790	836	1,465	536	82	7	799	473	1,272	200	218	1,239	1,916	3,373										
182	35	54	48	0	0	0	0	50	32	82	1	31	32										
257	26	47	86	225	78	2	0	45	75	120	9	17	174	623	823										
390	289	268	252	408	326	0	0	222	105	327	5	110	115										
324	81	179	186	100	32	0	0	136	147	283	16	11	367	214	608										
172	49	34	89	181	69	0	0	71	50	121	42	44	40	132	258										
133	14	11	2	56	14	5	0	75	0	75	93	54	449	64	660										
21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	59	46	125										
487	59	197	173	477	16	74	7	197	64	261	10	58	132	385	585										
13	6	0	0	18	1	0	0	3	3	10	34	12	111	167										
3,088	476	825	856	737	151	106	18	1,030	630	1,660	741	333	1,579	1,349	4,002										
434	60	262	371	0	0	46	7	116	255	371	133	100	285	81	599										
116	21	21	12	8	2	0	0	94	22	116	308	122	212	241	913										
31	16	35	30	5	0	0	0	2	0	2	84	40	149	135	498										
375	32	71	45	315	0	16	0	108	46	154	36	216	80	332										
235	20	30	24	83	3	0	0	23	5	28	73	206	377	656										
1,659	299	333	331	272	146	29	9	493	250	743	137	16	305	263	721										
238	28	73	43	54	0	15	2	194	52	246	6	19	155	165	345										
.....	7	7										
.....	21	21										
15,098	4,130	4,233	5,794	4,923	2,282	448	136	5,884	4,699	10,583	3,043	3,831	3,712	9,761	19,847										
1,763	509	621	912	355	157	48	7	1,222	781	2,003	123	697	222	2,011	3,053										
2,492	559	640	847	544	333	28	5	749	793	1,542	172	1,362	215	1,749										
3,195	1,317	1,066	1,093	2,035	989	187	93	1,933	1,255	3,188	719	588	610	693	2,610										
1,138	219	265	424	269	58	40	1	149	108	257	99	274	82	1,763	2,213										
893	224	149	389	275	136	0	0	278	186	464	142	17	378	544	1,081										
955	229	183	210	177	62	44	4	234	135	369	181	97	187	397	862										
1,481	374	313	587	338	192	59	6	408	280	688	456	371	376	1,437	2,640										
1,831	384	690	782	643	207	38	15	564	894	1,998	401	197	317	916	1,831										
110	65	30	55	50	50	0	0	65	40	105	26	60	13	99										
57	23	15	26	58	18	0	0	20	15	35	100	100	200										
638	137	199	267	131	71	4	0	118	164	282	140	113	780	1,033										
525	90	62	202	48	9	0	0	144	108	252	484	168	914	905	2,471										
3,054	769	725	885	514	422	55	53	518	224	742	445	182	669	1,338	2,634										
80	35	25	31	21	24	10	8	20	20	40	7	4	10	62	83										
148	38	112	99	142	106	0	0	19	9	28	20	12	65	101										
30	10	1	2	56	15	0	0	6	0	6	20	30	50										
.....	34	107	94	235										
.....	42	58	109										
31	14	3	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	35	55										
340	73	52	91	76	93	0	0	13	10	23	71	57	131	259										
325	100	146	141	61	60	0	0	130	96	226	9	29	91	78	207										
2,100	499	386	515	158	124	45	45	330	89	419	242	22	339	909	1,512										

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial

	Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.	
				Male.	Female.	Day course.	
						Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
ALABAMA.							
1	Birmingham.....	Birmingham Business College.....	R. B. Seymour, A. M. ..	3	0	60	45
2	Brewton.....	Brewton Business College *.....	W. S. Neal.....	1	0	5	1
ARKANSAS.							
3	Arkadelphia.....	Arkadelphia Practical Business College.	I. W. Saunders.....	3	1	142	15
4	Fort Smith.....	The Fort Smith Commercial College.	George M. Neale.....	3	1	211	65
5	Little Rock.....	Little Rock Commercial College *.	M. A. Stone.....	2	1	150	50
ARIZONA.							
6	Phoenix.....	Lamson Intercollegiate School and Business College.	E. M. Lamson.....	3	1	78	26
CALIFORNIA.							
7	Los Angeles.....	Los Angeles Business College and English Training School.	E. R. Shrader, A. M., Ph. D.	8	3	189	140
8do.....	Woodbury Business College.....	G. A. Hugh.....	6	3	302	148
9	Oakland.....	Aydelotte's Business College.....	J. H. Aydelotte.....	3	3	80	70
10do.....	Oakland Business College.....	O. J. Willis.....	3	0	75	25
11	Pacific Grove.....	Pacific Grove Business College and Academy.	John H. Oliver, B. S. ..	3	1	22	20
12	Sacramento.....	Atkinson's Business College and English Training School.	E. C. Atkinson.....	5	2	247	59
13do.....	Monahan's Business College.....	J. D. Moynahan.....	2	2	25	30
14	San Francisco.....	Ayres's Stenographic Institute.....	W. F. Ayres.....	2	3	48	120
15do.....	Heald's Business College.....	Edw. P. Heald.....	13	4	525	173
16do.....	Munson School of Shorthand and Typewriting.*	Miss Marie E. Phillips	0	2	15	74
17do.....	Polytechnic High School *.	W. N. Bush.....	6	12	268	290
18do.....	San Francisco Business College.....	J. A. Wiles.....	8	1	251	147
19	San Jose.....	San Jose Business College.....	E. C. Danforth.....	3	3	75	25
20	Santa Ana.....	Orange County Business College.....	R. S. Bisby.....	2	0	37	18
21	Santa Barbara.....	Santa Barbara Business College *.	E. B. Hoover.....	2	1	37	13
22	Santa Cruz.....	Chestnutwood's Business College.....	J. A. Chestnutwood.....	2	1	283	30
23	Santa Rosa.....	Santa Rosa Business College.....	J. S. Perry Sweet.....	3	2	100	20
24	Stockton.....	Stockton Business College and Normal Institute.	W. C. Ramsey.....	7	4	300	200
25	Ventura.....	Ventura Business College *.....	W. J. Kennard.....	2	0	38	12
COLORADO.							
26	Denver.....	Woodworth's Shorthand and Commercial College.	W. A. McPherson.....	3	1	70	60
27	Durango.....	Southwestern Business College *.	J. C. F. Harrington.....	3	1	9	5
28	Pueblo.....	Pueblo Business College.....	C. H. Donaldson.....	2	1	55	50
29	Trinidad.....	Trinidad Business College, Normal and Shorthand Institute.	W. E. Anderson.....	1	3	98	22
CONNECTICUT.							
30	Bridgeport.....	Bridgeport Business College *.....	G. H. Turner.....	3	---	200	80
31do.....	Martin's Business School.....	W. J. Martin.....	1	2	156	217
32	Hartford.....	Hartford Business College.....	E. H. Morse.....	4	4	357	244
33do.....	Hillyer Institute of the Young Men's Christian Association.	George M. Hersey.....	12	0	---	---
34do.....	Robertson's Shorthand School.....	Ella M. Olmstead.....	0	1	15	40
35	New Haven.....	Childs Business College.....	Childs and Butler.....	2	2	90	70
36do.....	Gaffey's Shorthand School.....	John F. Gaffey.....	1	1	60	100
37do.....	Hogarth Institute.....	Arthur P. Thomas.....	3	4	60	60
38do.....	Yale Business College.....	R. C. Loveridge.....	4	2	75	20
39	Norwich.....	Norwich Business College and Martin Shorthand School.	W. E. Canfield.....	2	1	15	18
40	Stamford.....	Merrill College.....	Mrs. M. A. Merrill.....	4	3	52	20

* From 1893-94.

and business colleges, 1894-95.

Students.																								Graduates in commercial course	Graduates in amanuensis course
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Day course.	Evening course.							Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31		
50	0	25	15	35	30	0	0	0	0	6	6	\$80	\$40		
1	0	4	1	6	1	0	0	5	0	0	0	15	15	2	0	0		
142	15	30	30	130	5	12	15	0	0	15	2	4	6	150	75	140	13	12	13		
24	4	100	11	108	23	61	28	34	0	0	6	12	40	20	35	6	13	14		
25	0	6	18	60	60		
9	1	60	5	30	10	1	2	56	15	0	0	10	20	100	50	4	2	0	0		
48	18	298	57	148	47	21	55	58	53	10	3	6-8	12-14	90	44	42	28	2	13		
90	12	160	125	228	68	74	80	26	19	5	7	6-12	90	40	55	10	15	14		
20	10	40	15	60	10	20	10	0	0	0	0	6	12	100	60	60	10	6	0	0		
51	9	195	11	27	42	20	18	5	9	6-12	50-75	47	9	11	17		
11	8	40	12	17	9	9	7	20	15	3	2	10	10	75	65	14	17	9	7		
53	19	65	21	0	0	101	139	6	8	60	48	0	0	63	97		
0	0	300	0	460	80	70	82	6	125	337	69	65	78		
37	11	25	16		
47	43	78	18	230	87	21	60	5	12	36	Free.	75	30		
3	1	40	3	75	45	6	6	2	2	1	6	100	27	10	3	7		
12	1	30	10	36	12	0	0	0	0	10	37-50	4	0	2	2		
12	5	55	10	283	30	25	25	8	0	0	0	6	12	60	4	3	0	0		
12	5	200	90	12	10	8	0	0	0	0	12	85	8	55	8		
12	6	25	8	200	100	25	25	75	25	20	4	3	5		
25	15	40	20	20	10	60	55	95	75	0	0	4-12	12-24	100	50	100	50	20	20		
29	4	9	16	26	2	6	4	3	1	0	0	6	9	1	0	0	1		
15	17	20	6	22	4	4	25	4	0	0	0	6	6	78	51		
40	12	35	20	80	22	42	15	40	30	0	0	8	12	50	50	10	8	4	4		
40	22	60	35	10	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	12	160	80	70	10	0	0		
52	23	216	68	312	206	43	27	0	0	0	0	10	6	80	60	8		
307	0	49	0	14	0	100	50	108	43	36	21		
20	17	16	9	0	0	35	57	0	0	7	6	6	6-15	60	60	0	0	20	5		
50	50	40	25	0	0	110	150	10	12	100	50		
30	20	35	20	30	20	10	20	20	10	5	3-6	6-12	60	30		
6	4	29	8	12	9	1	9	3	3	12	80	40	18	14	6	10		
16	9	33	9	19	12	14	6	2	0	6	120	60	80	50	8	5	1	6		
.....	80	50		
.....	13	5	9	5		

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

	Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.	
				Male.	Female.	Day course.	
						Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
DELAWARE.							
41	Wilmington	Goldey Wilmington Commercial College.	H. S. Goldey	4	6	158	68
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.							
42	Washington	Business High School	Allan Davis	4	9	257	222
43	do	Columbia College of Commerce	C. K. Urner	4	1	106	61
44	do	Night High School (first six divisions)*	Frank A. Springer	3	4	0	0
45	do	Spencerian Business College	Mrs. Sara A. Spencer	3	4	85	76
46	do	Tanner's Shorthand School	Hudson C. Tanner	2	3	140	161
FLORIDA.							
47	Tampa	Tampa Business College	B. B. Euston	1	0	15	7
GEORGIA.							
48	Americus	Steifer Bros. & Bailey Business College.*	M. V. Steifer	3	—	98	18
49	Atlanta	Southern Shorthand and Business University.*	A. C. Briscoe	11	5	250	150
50	Augusta	St. Patrick's Commercial Institute.	Brother A. Odon	5	0	150	0
51	Cochran	New Ebenezer Business College.	S. C. Speer	1	—	2	2
52	Columbus	Columbus Business College.	R. W. Massey	2	—	64	38
53	Dublin	Ray's Business School*.	Ed. L. Ray	1	0	250	0
54	Macon	Georgia-Alabama Business College	Edward L. Martin	4	2	250	140
55	Savannah	Commercial Institute	C. S. Richmond	1	2	25	12
56	Winder	North East Georgia Business College.*	W. A. Mathews	2	0	8	2
IDAHO.							
57	Boise City	Boise Business and Normal School*	A. P. Way	1	1	29	20
ILLINOIS.							
58	Amboy	Amboy Business College	D. Brehaut	3	2	48	24
59	Bellefonte	Bellefonte Commercial and Shorthand College.	Joseph P. Foeller	2	1	44	9
60	Bloomington	Bloomington Business College	J. N. Wright	3	2	98	46
61	Champaign	Champaign Business College	G. W. Temple	3	1	60	19
62	Chicago (45 Randolph st.)	Chicago Business College*	A. C. Gondring	7	1	503	269
63	Chicago	De La Salle Institute	Brother Pius	15	0	360	0
64	do	Jones Business College	Charles E. Jones	3	4	260	107
65	Chicago (113 Adams st.)	Kimball's Shorthand and Typewriting Training School.	D. Kimball	1	0	5	29
66	Chicago	Metropolitan Business College	O. M. Powers	12	4	774	387
67	do	St. Patrick's Academy	Charles Baldwin	11	0	415	0
68	Chicago (276 W. Madison st.)	West Side Business College	W. H. Whigham	5	3	111	105
69	Danville	Danville Business College	A. L. Van Buskirk	2	2	64	38
70	Decatur	Brown's Decatur Business College.	George M. Brown	3	1	125	54
71	Elgin	Drew's Business College	W. A. Drew	2	2	75	23
72	do	Elgin Business College	W. H. Callow	2	1	34	23
73	Freeport	Freeport College of Commerce	J. J. Nagle	5	1	64	53
74	Galena	Galena Business College*	D. F. Lawley	1	1	7	9
75	Galesburg	Brown's Galesburg Business College.*	G. W. Brown	3	2	98	60
76	Jacksonville	Jacksonville Business College	G. W. Brown	3	2	120	80
77	Joliet	Joliet Business College	Homer Russell	10	8	700	200

* From 1892-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																								Graduates in commercial course.	Graduates in amanuensis course.
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23							24	25	26	27
78	15	120	50	182	35	54	48	0	0	0	0	0	0	6-8	\$80	\$20	40	10	17	15	41			
0	0	400	0	257	222	250	215	257	222	0	0	0	0	18	0	0	0	25	25	25	25	42			
85	22	0	0	6-24	10-30	45-63	35-50	54	17	43			
200	100	0	79	44			
84	30	101	85	133	67	18	37	151	104	0	0	0	0	10	10	100	80	35	16	8	15	45			
8	7	95	0	0	0	0	0	0	46			
15	0	13	6	13	6	0	0	18	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	47			
2	1	35	32	12	42	16	3-3½	4-5	28	48			
30	3	125	12	50	10	32	20	40	0	10	2	6	9	6	9	50	50	49			
0	0	140	0	28	0	20	0	140	0	40	0	3	0	3	0	2	0	10	0	50			
.....	14	11	2	7	2	5	0	4	6	4	6	35	35	9	1	4	51			
42	0	42	18	81	20	25	18	4-5	6-8	4	6	40	40	59	14	10	15	53			
0	0	19	0	250	0	0	0	250	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	50	36	21	52			
55	180	10	95	125	20	5	3	5½	6	8	40	40	55	0	15	20	54			
15	8	20	15	12	5	18	6	120	96	55			
3	12	2	5	2	4	6	25	25	56			
5	31	14	3	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	60	0	0	0	0	57			
0	0	46	0	26	4	4	7	38	12	14	0	4	0	4-0	36-48	0	0	2	5	58			
26	5	38	29	49	3	7	12	56	9	0	0	0	0	6-12	12-18	85	60	5	2	2	59			
0	0	60	0	88	10	16	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	75	9	2	2	6	60			
15	3	75	16	48	9	15	7	6-9	100	50	16	8	2	6	61			
76	15	250	60	352	81	55	158	96	30	0	0	12	16	12	16	85	25	51	11	18	127	62			
0	0	350	0	150	0	100	0	0	40	0	31	63			
197	148	17	3	3	9-12	12-18	90	48	64			
3	5	8	2	0	0	8	34	3-4	5-6	36-48	40-48	65			
216	161	560	136	700	48	90	400	200	100	0	0	12	190	24	66			
0	0	400	0	200	0	0	0	400	0	150	0	20	0	20-60	0	16	0	0	0	67			
76	57	116	75	0	0	9	80	25	26	14	16	61	68			
18	5	60	30	6-8	40	20	10	8	69			
.....	56	60	30	43	6	18	75	20	14	3	2	4	70			
15	10	55	20	70	20	2	4	18	9	0	0	10	15	60	35	9	3	0	0	71			
26	28	56	29	4	22	0	0	0	0	7	10	35	40	6	5	1	11	72			
.....	28	10	13	21	13	22	0	0	6	0	36	4	0	5	13	73			
22	7	12	18	22	5	6	12	1	0	0	6	12	100	50	0	0	0	0	74			
17	7	89	41	17	37	0	0	7-10	75	20	12	5	8	10	75			
12	3	190	13	10	57	10	10	0	0	8	75	80	21	3	2	6	76			
100	50	600	75	500	85	300	150	100	50	24	36	50	80	50	25	150	75	77			

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.		
			Male.	Female.	Day course.		
					Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
ILLINOIS—cont'd.							
78	Jolet.....	Putland's Business College.....	W. D. Putland.....	2	2	40	85
79	Kankakee.....	Kankakee Business College and Shorthand School.	N. L. Richmond.....	1	1	58	22
80	Lincoln.....	Lincoln Business College.....	W. R. Whetsler.....	2	1	40	21
81	Macomb.....	Central Business College.....	H. M. Little.....	2	3	53	17
82	Mendota.....	Mendota Business College.....	William A. Kanorr.....	1	0	17	8
83	Monmouth.....	Monmouth Business College.....	T. F. Heckert.....	4	1	84	20
84	Mount Vernon.....	Mount Vernon Business College..	S. McVeigh.....	1	1	12	11
85	Onarga.....	Grand Prairie Seminary and Commercial College.	S. Van Pelt.....	5	6	200	214
86	Ottawa.....	Brown's Ottawa Business College.	G. W. Brown.....	2	1	58	25
87	Peoria.....	Peoria Business University*.....	B. C. Wood.....	2	2	60	40
88	do.....	Brown's Peoria Business College..	G. W. Brown.....	4	2	100	86
89	Quincy.....	Gem City Business College.....	D. L. Musselman.....	10	2	588	98
90	do.....	Philbrick Shorthand, Telegraph, and Commercial College.	Wick Anderson.....	4	2	54	43
91	Rockford.....	Rockford Business College.....	G. A. Winans and W. H. Johnson.	6	2	475	85
92	Rock Island.....	Angustana Business College.....	J. E. Gustus.....	5	1	74	44
93	Springfield.....	Springfield Business College.....	H. O. Chicken.....	5	2	136	66
94	Sterling.....	Sterling Business and Phonographic College.*	F. M. Wallace.....	4	3	79	82
95	Westfield.....	Westfield Business College.....	C. E. Bigelow.....	1	1	35	16
INDIANA.							
96	Anderson.....	Indiana Business College*.....	J. A. Payne.....	2	0	90	60
97	Columbus.....	Columbus Business University and Normal College.	F. H. Harper.....	6	2	140	130
98	Elkhart.....	Elkhart Business College and School of Shorthand and Typewriting.*	F. L. Middleton.....	1	...	75	105
99	Evansville.....	Evansville Commercial College.....	S. N. Curnick.....	3	1	110	40
100	Fort Wayne.....	Fort Wayne Business College.....	G. W. Lahr.....	3	1	78	37
101	do.....	International Business College..	T. L. Staples.....	2	3	108	53
102	Frankfort.....	Minor's Business College.....	Fremont C. Minor.....	2	2	70	50
103	Hartford City.....	Hartford City Business College..	John Wm. Pritchett..	1	1	5	7
104	Huntington.....	Huntington Business University*	O. E. Hawkins.....	3	1	55	28
105	Indianapolis.....	Indianapolis College of Commerce.	August Stossmeister..	5	3	90	74
106	do.....	Indianapolis Business University.	E. J. Heeb.....	5	2	209	78
107	do.....	Johnston's Telegraph Institute..	J. D. Johnston.....	3	0	180	0
108	do.....	Spencerian Business College.....	E. E. Admire.....	3	1	124	143
109	Lafayette.....	Union Business College.....	Stanley A. Drake.....	5	2	128	112
110	Logansport.....	Hall's Business College.....	C. F. Moore.....	2	0	55	45
111	Marion.....	Marion Business College.....	C. W. Wales.....	2	1	25	47
112	Muncie.....	Muncie Business College and School of Shorthand.	J. W. Howard.....	3	2	240	160
113	New Albany.....	New Albany Business College....	D. M. Hammond.....	2	3	65	38
114	Richmond.....	Richmond Business College and Institute of Penmanship and Shorthand.	O. E. Fulghum.....	4	3	148	90
115	South Bend.....	The People's College.....	William T. Boone.....	8	2	100	120
116	Terre Haute.....	Garvin Commercial College*.....	W. H. Garvin and P. W. Haggerty.	2	1	42	16
117	do.....	Terre Haute Commercial College..	W. C. Isbell.....	3	2	125	85
118	Valparaiso.....	Northern Indiana Commercial College.*	H. B. Brown.....	10	3	1,561	723
119	Washington.....	Washington Commercial College*..	H. C. Hoffman.....	1	0	17	15
IOWA.							
120	Atlantic.....	Atlantic Business College*.....	W. H. Barrett.....	2	1	50	19
121	Boone.....	College of Commerce.....	Clarence S. Paine.....	2	2	40	22
122	Burlington.....	Elliot's Business College.....	G. W. Elliott.....	10	4	427	153

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																											Graduates in amau- ensis course.	Graduates in commercial course.
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.									
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.									
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27									
25	15	45	15	25	20	30	55	20	15	0	0	6	6	\$55	\$25	20	15	30	50	78								
												6-8		45		15		4	10	79								
10	3	20	8	31	9	7	8	0	0	0	0			50	25	8	2	1	3	80								
3	0	70		19	3	2	6	0	0	0	0	6	12	50	25	2				81								
18	4	50	9	80	5	5	12	0	0	0	0	6-9		35-40	35-40	3	2	0	1	82								
12	2			10	9	3	2					6-8		37	27					83								
				35	21	3	3	38	80			7		50	20			1		84								
														35		5	3			85								
34	1			53	4	4	20	2	0	0	0	6-9		75	25	9	1	0	10	86								
34	25											9	18	60	35					87								
30	16	96	95	85	15	15	85	9				8		75	20	14	5	3	16	88								
0	0	343	0	519	12	69	86	0	0	0	0	7	0	60	0	124	6	15	28	89								
31	11			54	43	40	41	31	11	12	2			60						90								
														60														
50	30	170	40	205	87	24	60	80	90	15	3	6-9		65	20	20	4	4	12	91								
			58	71	8	5	34	20				9		50		20	8	2	13	92								
105	16			115	11	27	61	95	14	0	0	6-8		60	30	14	3	2	16	93								
0	0	134	0	63	41	16	41	0	0	0	0	8	0	60	0	37	28	10	31	94								
				30	11	11	11					6		30		4	2	3	5	95								
			35	5				4	2	0	0	6-8	12-15	60	30	4	1	2	10	96								
10	8	85	6	40	15	15	25					6-9	18-24	50	20	7	1	1	1	97								
25	10	50	10	50	25	25	50					3-5	5-7	20	20	30	15	15	35	98								
20				100	15	10	25	0	0	0	0	6	24	50						99								
18	2			62	11	14	15					10	24	60	30	10	6	7		100								
49	18	96	43	102	61	55	10	0	0	0	0	10	18	60	30	23	0	17	15	101								
35	25	60	15	55	25	20	28	8	6	12	4	6-9	12-15	40	25	26	14	9	16	102								
8	5	12	10	10	3	3	9	1				6	12	40	25					103								
30	25	25	15	51	22	22	26	5	0	10	1			40	40	15	6	9	17	104								
60	20	70	31	120	40	14	70					6	12	160	50	80	27	12	67	105								
104	21			182	38	34	117	69	3			6	12	60	40	40	10	10	30	106								
0	0	15	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	0			48						107								
112	48	134	54	173	34	30	190	134	54	0	0	6	18	50	25	90	15	23	120	108								
0	0	192	0	118	72	12	38	6	0	0	0	6	0	50	0	28	9	8	10	109								
30	10	40	20	60	40	15	25					6	12	50	24	4	1	1	3	110								
14	6	40	23	37	31	2	22	0	0	0	0	6	12	75	40	16	12	1	17	111								
50	30	275	65	25	18	215	150	40	18	30	8	8	10	50-100	35-65	22	15	185	140	112								
16	8	73	19	65	15	16	31					6		40		13	2	6	10	113								
30		75	20	152	50	26	40					8	18	50	25	10	10	5	8	114								
35	25			40	20	10	35	10		0	0	6	6-12	40	25					115								
17	2	36	15	39	5	1	13	0	0	0	0	6-8	12-15	40	20	13	3	1	9	116								
30	10	100	25	125	50	15	60	0	0	0	0					21	8	10	24	117								
0	0	701	01,561	723	423	176	1,821	911	131	62		6	0	50	0	1011	297	327	109	118								
0	0	16	0	18	4	2	18	0	0	0	0	6-9		35		4	0	0	2	119								
				47	2	9	12					6		40		7		7	9	120								
15	7	35	10	35	12	10	13	0	0	0	0	6	10	100	40	18	10	8	12	121								
												12	0	80		30		35		122								

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

	Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.	
				Male.	Female.	Day course.	
						Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
IOWA—continued.							
123	Cedar Rapids.....	Cedar Rapids Business College.....	A. N. Palmer.....	6	1	300	50
124	Clinton.....	Clinton Business College.....	B. J. Hefflin.....	2	2	71	52
125	College Springs.....	Amity Commercial College.....	J. M. Littlejohn.....	1	2	25	15
126	Council Bluffs.....	Western Iowa College.....	W. S. Paulson.....	2	2	97	54
127	Creston.....	Creston Business College.....	E. E. Gaylord.....	1	1	33	15
128	Davenport.....	Tri-City Business College*.....	O. P. Judd.....	3	1	125	127
129	Des Moines.....	Capital City Commercial College.....	J. M. Mehan.....	5	3	275	140
130do.....	Iowa Business College.....	A. C. Jennings.....	4	1	227	64
131do.....	People's Commercial College.....	B. W. Bowen.....	1	1	43	57
132	Dubuque.....	Bayless Business College and School of Shorthand.....	C. Bayless.....	3	1	141	57
133	Fairfield.....	Fairfield Business College.....	W. A. Rice.....	2	1	25	22
134	Iowa City.....	Iowa City Commercial College and School of Shorthand.....	J. H. Williams.....	4	2	76	21
135	Marshalltown.....	Marshall Business College.....	J. R. Starr.....	1	1	20	15
136	Muscataine.....	Muscataine Business College.....	F. H. Shinn.....	2	2	66	22
137	Nora Springs.....	Nora Springs Seminary and Business College.....	Durell & Miller.....	6	5	240	210
138	Oskaloosa.....	Oskaloosa Business College.....	B. A. Wright.....	2	1	23	8
139	Ottumwa.....	Ottumwa Commercial College.....	J. M. Bryn.....	3	2	248	137
140	Perry.....	Perry Business College*.....	H. C. Wall.....	5	1	48	51
141	Sioux City.....	Sioux City Normal School and Metropolitan Business College.....	H. A. Miller and D. H. Branaman.....	4	3	130	157
142	Story City.....	Story City Business College and Normal Institute.....	L. O. Johnson.....	3	2	25	30
143	Waterloo.....	Collegiate Institute and Business College.....	J. F. Camp.....	4	1	80	30
144	Webster City.....	Collego of Commerce.....	Clarence S. Paine.....	3	2	50	30
KANSAS.							
145	Atchison.....	Atchison Business College*.....	C. T. Smith.....	3	2	66	40
146	Lawrence.....	Lawrence Business College*.....	A. G. Coonrod.....	4	100	35
147	Leavenworth.....	Central Business College.....	N. B. Leach.....	1	2	21	12
148	Manhattan.....	Musgrave's Normal School and Business College.....	Wayne M. Musgrave.....	1	2	16	14
149	Olathe.....	Commercial and Music School*.....	S. C. Bright.....	2	4	78	30
150	Parsons.....	Parsons Business College.....	C. E. Ball.....	1	1	40	30
151	Salina.....	Old Reliable School of Telegraphy.....	W. H. Skelton.....	3	0	75
152	Wichita.....	National Railway Station Agents' Training School*.....	R. Anderson.....	1	1	20	5
153do.....	Southwestern Business College*.....	E. H. Fritch.....	6	2	308	140
154	Winfield.....	Winfield Business College.....	C. S. Perry.....	3	2	123	36
KENTUCKY.							
155	Lexington.....	Lexington Business College.....	C. C. Calhoun.....	6	1	230	70
156	Louisville.....	Bryant & Stratton Business College.....	James Ferrier.....	7	1	327	334
157	Mount Olivet.....	Mount Olivet Commercial College*.....	F. W. Riffe.....	1	0	13	5
LOUISIANA.							
158	New Orleans.....	Soulé Commercial College and Literary Institute.....	George Soulé.....	8	3	236	47
MAINE.							
159	Augusta.....	Shaw's Business College.....	F. S. Shaw.....	2	1	67	22
160	Bangor.....	Bangor Business College.....	E. D. Chellis.....	4	3	102	63
161	Danforth.....	Danforth Business College*.....	William T. Seekins.....	1	1	34	4
162	Lewiston.....	Lewiston Business College.....	Noah E. Rankin.....	1	1	34	41
163	Portland.....	Gray's Portland Business College*.....	Levi A. Gray.....	5	1	160	95
164do.....	Shaw Business College.....	Frank L. Shaw.....	4	2	235	180
165	Rockland.....	Rockland Commercial College*.....	H. A. Howard.....	3	1	101	54

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																								Graduates in commercial course.	Graduates in amanuensis course.
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.					Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
5	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30			
10	7	150	12	250	25	12	80	0	0	9	\$75	\$40	11	1	1	1	1	123				
21	12	82	23	68	31	43	46	0	0	7	16	55	40	23	5	7	16	124					
0	0	15	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	8	1	0	0	125					
23	15	62	18	40	20	12	10	40	25	0	0	6	0	75	0	2	1	0	0	126					
0	0	60	24	5	7	8	4	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	127					
0	0	80	62	25	85	6-10	50	12	3	3	0	128					
0	0	120	194	17	43	92	38	31	0	0	6	50	24	32	4	15	14	129					
40	10	19	13	83	10	21	40	59	10	54	4	6	55	30	43	23	130					
44	13	42	26	55	44	3	5	37	13	0	0	8-9	12	60	45	13	10	0	3	131					
0	0	101	15	18	37	22	5	0	0	6	12	75	25	20	2	4	8	132					
0	0	12	2	5	8	0	4	1	133					
0	0	68	5	8	16	0	0	0	0	6-8	0	50	0	23	0	2	8	134					
.....	15	7	12	10	7	14	65	24	135					
.....	53	7	5	10	8	5	0	0	10	45	15	1	3	2	4	136					
.....	54	43	11	5-8	8	9	1	2	137					
0	0	9	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	6	70	0	0	0	0	138					
135	70	61	24	128	45	15	56	64	28	0	0	6	12	50	24	14	13	5	13	139					
0	0	40	26	5	4	18	20	30	0	0	6-12	6	50	17	4	22	8	4	140					
.....	75	25	50	30	5	2	6-12	6	50	25	20	10	22	13	141					
.....	15	15	4	2	11	14	12	36	5	1	1	1	142					
.....	62	41	19	32	6	4	143					
5	4	50	6	45	20	10	8	2	6	0	0	6	10	100	40	15	21	8	12	144					
29	5	50	25	49	16	10	22	24	3	0	0	6-9	12-24	50	20	6	4	1	4	145					
30	25	75	20	6-9	6	50	20	15	0	3	6	146					
0	0	25	0	28	6	8	6	5	2	0	0	6-10	12-24	60	40	2	3	1	2	147					
.....	12	4	1	4	1	0	0	0	40-120	0	0	0	0	148					
.....	84	17	72	1	1	0	0	0	0	8-12	50	25	0	0	0	0	149					
.....	40	70	5	50	10	5	10	10	150					
.....	15	15	15	45	151					
.....	80	40	5	1	152					
62	10	215	50	280	42	35	163	0	0	0	0	8	16	60	30	49	12	14	35	153					
.....	57	84	22	7	6	18	4	6	0	40	0	28	15	4	5	154					
17	5	140	22	72	55	30	5	3-6	4-8	50	50	44	5	6	3	155					
39	11	164	20	284	33	190	216	16	2	120	35	186	17	125	187	156					
0	0	15	0	10	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	80	2	2	0	0	157					
112	0	190	70	235	20	30	24	83	3	0	0	3-12	9-15	20	3	0	5	158					
.....	60	9	7	13	84	60	13	3	1	5	159					
0	0	75	0	94	42	9	22	0	0	0	0	6-7	0	40-45	0	57	39	5	16	160					
0	0	30	3	13	2	5-8	11	1	1	1	161					
21	19	20	16	50	38	5	22	6	12	96	60	9	5	1	4	162					
.....	146	43	14	53	5-8	34	10	6	24	163					
.....	204	65	31	115	0	0	0	0	5	60-84	51	13	13	43	164					
31	11	50	25	4	10	0	0	0	0	3-12	75	10	9	165					

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

	Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.	
				Male.	Female.	Day course.	
						Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
MARYLAND.							
166	Baltimore.....	Eaton & Burnett's Business College.*	A. H. Eaton.....	6	1	171	162
167	Hagerstown.....	Wolf's Business College.....	D. Elmer Wolf.....	2	2	36	19
MASSACHUSETTS.							
168	Boston.....	A. O. Hall's Business and Manual Training School.	Aldis Owen Hall.....	7	9	75	175
169do.....	Bryant & Stratton Commercial School.	H. E. Hibbard.....	18	5	600	250
170do.....	Comer's Commercial College.....	Charles E. Comer.....	8	6	249	160
171do.....	French's Business College.....	Charles French.....	2	2	23	38
172do.....	Hickox's Shorthand School.....	W. E. Hickox.....	1	1	20	80
173do.....	Reekers and Bradford Commercial College.	E. E. Bradford.....	1	1	20	18
174	Brockton.....	Martin's College of Business, Oratory, and Conservatory of Music.	James T. Martin.....	5	3	150	200
175	Holyoke.....	Childs's Business College.....	Charles H. Childs.....	2	1	20	31
176	Lowell.....	Lowell Commercial College.....	Albert C. Blaisdell.....	2	4	40	30
177	Lawrence.....	Cannon's Commercial College.....	G. C. Cannon.....	2	2	42	34
178	Pittsfield.....	Chiekering's Commercial College.....	Carrie J. Weaser.....	2	2	20	20
179	Salem.....	Spence and Peaslee Business College.	F. A. Spence, A. B.....	5	2	91	75
180	Springfield.....	Childs's Business College *.....	E. E. Childs.....	5	2	175	185
181	Worcester.....	Becker's Business College.....	E. C. A. Becker.....	4	1	90	50
182do.....	Hinman's Business College.....	A. H. Hinman.....	3	2	100	100
MICHIGAN.							
183	Adrian.....	Brown's Business University.....	L. S. Brown.....	2	1	58	15
184	Battlecreek.....	Krug's Business College.....	J. B. Krug.....	2	1	65	15
185	Bay City.....	New International Business College.	Lane, McFarland and Thompson.	5	0	90	59
186	Detroit.....	Detroit Business University.....	W. F. Jewell.....	11	1	397	190
187do.....	Detroit College of Commerce.....	Wm. E. Caton.....	3	1	78	43
188do.....	St. Joseph Commercial School.....	Rev. Bro. Amulwin.....	3	0	75	0
189	Grand Rapids.....	Grand Rapids Business College and Practical Training School.	A. S. Parish.....	3	1	79	55
190	Jackson.....	Jackson Business College and Shorthand Institute.	G. M. Devlin.....	3	1	75	50
191	Kalamazoo.....	Parsons Business College and Shorthand Institute.	William F. Parsons.....	2	1	120	30
192	Marquette.....	Upper Peninsula Business College.	F. M. Loudy.....	2	1	84	41
193	Muskegon.....	Ferris Business College.....	E. C. Bisson.....	2	2	56	83
194	Owosso.....	Owosso Business College and School of Shorthand.	A. J. Cadman.....	2	1	22	18
195	Pontiac.....	Pontiac Business College.....	W. S. Osborn.....	2	0	25	8
196	St. Louis.....	Yerington's College *.....	C. W. Yerington.....	1	4	78	22
197	Saginaw West Side.	Saginaw Business College.....	John C. Brown.....	1	1	21	14
198	Three Rivers.....	Three Rivers Business College and Normal School.	C. H. Sage.....	2	2	60	50
MINNESOTA.							
199	Anoka.....	Anoka Business College.....	A. B. Clinch.....	2	2	30	8
200	Brainard.....	Brainard Business College.....	J. F. Gerrity.....	2	1	15	17
201	Duluth.....	Parsons Business College and Shorthand Institute.	Abdiell C. Parsons.....	2	1	16	4
202	Faribault.....	Brown's Commercial College and School of Shorthand.	A. E. Brown.....	2	0	43	9
203	Hastings.....	Hastings Commercial College.....	J. W. Hawke.....	1	1	107	22

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																								Graduates in commercial course.		Graduates in amanuensis course.	
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Graduates in commercial course.		Graduates in amanuensis course.									
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.								
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27								
92	25	100	85	220	17	42	71	200	70	\$100	\$25	35	10	30	45	166							
6	1	37	9	15	25	8	3	0	0	6-10	65	25	167							
.....	150	163							
0	0	15	0	160	0	169							
82	53	280	120	225	100	100	125	60	65	0	0	6-12	6-12	130	30	27	8	50	65	170							
0	0	19	33	20	29	171							
9	3	49	8	20	80	6-9	24	172							
.....	25	10	6	3	15	0	0	0	0	0	6-10	12	120	50	5	0	0	4	173							
75	75	100	75	4	1	8	12	100	75	174							
42	20	24	23	59	34	5	30	0	0	0	0	10	16	100	40	7	6	3	12	175							
105	115	50	75	83	45	176							
89	33	30	80	81	27	9	17	42	22	0	0	4	6	160	40	4	5	0	0	177							
20	20	18	15	30	35	4	5	45	25	30	30	178							
23	12	99	47	15	40	0	0	0	0	9	9	100	70	19	6	6	9	179							
25	15	140	20	175	15	10	80	0	0	0	0	10	20	100	50	19	10	4	41	180							
27	7	130	20	70	30	8	32	40	24	0	0	10	100	50	27	7	2	28	181							
40	30	90	90	50	75	0	0	0	0	6	0	95	25	80	80	40	70	182							
9	0	0	55	6	11	12	0	0	0	0	9-15	0	60	10	1	183							
.....	50	60	5	3	12	12	0	45	0	6	1	8	184							
0	0	75	0	81	11	9	48	0	0	0	0	10	20	60	30	2	0	0	0	185							
180	60	302	54	99	165	147	31	0	0	100	40	32	3	186							
22	3	47	19	62	5	7	31	8	2	5	1	9	24	60	40	4	1	1	13	187							
0	0	74	0	75	0	0	0	75	0	32	0	30	0	20	0	15	0	0	0	188							
0	0	63	16	6	35	10	4	0	0	8-12	0	60	0	189							
.....	70	90	35	190							
40	10	75	25	100	25	5	25	9	12	50	40	6	191							
.....	46	35	14	43	17	6	10	6	12	75	40	21	7	19	12	192							
5	8	60	13	30	20	20	51	3	3	8	12	50	30	6	2	9	15	193							
9	2	26	18	2	2	1	6-12	40-60	15-25	1	1	1	1	194							
22	5	47	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	6-7	12	45	25	12	6	0	0	195							
24	7	56	22	40	9	10	7	12	3	0	0	10	40	8	5	5	196							
15	6	32	12	32	3	12	17	10	5	0	0	20	40	40	20	10	3	7	11	197							
20	10	75	20	40	10	3	2	0	0	0	0	3-8	6-10	24	24	10	2	2	198							
0	0	28	0	30	5	1	3	0	0	0	0	5	0	30	0	10	2	8	3	199							
16	8	25	20	30	10	10	8	3	4	0	0	6-8	12	100	52	12	10	6	15	200							
40	6	10	12	20	13	6	36	4	0	0	0	6	12	100	60	2	1	1	3	201							
10	2	34	6	4	4	17	2	0	0	6-9	55	40	2	2	0	0	202							
13	3	100	25	75	10	28	6	4-6	115	50	15	2	1	203							

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

Post office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.		
			Male.	Female.	Day course.		
					Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
MINNESOTA—cont'd.							
204	Little Falls.....	Little Falls Business College*.....	John B. Lanigan.....	3	1	31	11
205	Mankato.....	Mankato Commercial College.....	A. G. Matter.....	3	2	125	60
206	Minneapolis.....	Archibald Business College.....	A. R. Archibald.....	5	0	169	106
207do.....	Caton College.....	T. J. Caton.....	3	1	104	79
208do.....	Munson Shorthand Institute.....	R. J. Smith.....	2	1	34	78
209	Red Wing.....	Beeman's Actual Business Col- lege.*.....	W. L. Beeman.....	3	2	76	34
210do.....	Red Wing Commercial College and School of Shorthand.....	P. Rosenberger.....	2	0	60	30
211	St. Paul.....	Globe Business College.....	Frank A. Maron.....	2	1	67	43
212do.....	St. Paul Business College*.....	W. K. Milliken.....	2	3	108	31
213	Stillwater.....	Stillwater Business College.....	W. P. Canfield.....	1	1	43	11
214	Winona.....	Winona Commercial College*.....	Mallery and Lambert.....	2	1	175	20
MISSISSIPPI.							
215	Bay St. Louis.....	St. Stanislaus College.....	Brother Stanislaus.....	14	0	155	0
216	Corinth.....	Corinth School of Shorthand*.....	C. W. Bell.....	1	0	8	2
217	Meridian.....	Wyatt's Business College.....	L. A. Wyatt.....	2	1	125	33
218	Natchez.....	Cathedral Commercial School.....	Brother Gabriel.....	4	2	143	0
219	Vicksburg.....	St. Aloysius Commercial College.....	Brother Daniel.....	8	—	90	—
220do.....	Vicksburg Commercial School.....	G. A. McDonald.....	3	2	70	35
MISSOURI.							
221	Canton.....	Canton Commercial College.....	J. E. Beadles.....	1	2	45	41
222	Carrollton.....	Carrollton Academy and Business College.*.....	A. P. Abbott.....	3	4	20	18
223	Carthage.....	Carthage Business College*.....	J. C. Gilliland.....	2	1	30	20
224	Clinton.....	Clinton Business College.....	Campbell E. Greenup.....	3	2	40	28
225do.....	Clinton Normal and Business Col- lege.....	Ellis Smith.....	5	2	33	33
226	Collego Mound.....	McGee College of Commerce, Shorthand, and Typewriting.*.....	L. M. Hatton.....	4	3	25	15
227	El Dorado Springs.....	El Dorado Business College.....	W. H. Miller.....	2	1	15	5
228	Hannibal.....	Hannibal Commercial College.....	F. L. Kelly.....	4	1	260	42
229	Harrisonville.....	Harrisonville Commercial College*.....	1	1	37	17
230	Joplin.....	Joplin Business College.....	W. T. Thomas.....	2	2	60	40
231	Kansas City.....	Cathedral Commercial College.....	Brother Justus.....	5	0	150	0
232do.....	Dickson School of Shorthand.....	W. B. Dickson.....	1	3	75	225
233do.....	Spalding's Commercial College*.....	James F. Spalding.....	8	1	678	231
234	Kirksville.....	Kirksville Mercantile College*.....	Miller and Mumma.....	3	2	50	25
235	Lexington.....	Lexington Business College.....	L. F. Myers.....	—	—	50	15
236	Maryville.....	Maryville Commercial College*.....	James C. Ewing.....	2	2	52	61
237	Moberly.....	Excelsior Business College*.....	S. B. Barr.....	3	1	30	25
238	St. Joseph.....	St. Joseph Business University.....	E. E. Gard.....	3	2	100	50
239do.....	St. Joseph Commercial College.....	Brother Arthemian.....	8	0	130	—
240	St. Louis.....	Central Business College*.....	Eldon Moran.....	4	2	88	87
241do.....	Hayward Business College Co.....	L. F. Hayward.....	3	2	50	150
242do.....	Jones Commercial College.....	J. G. Bohmer.....	6	1	263	117
243do.....	Perkins and Herpel's Mercantile College.....	H. C. Perkins.....	5	0	193	93
244	Salem.....	Salem Business Institute*.....	T. B. Edwards.....	1	—	18	14
245	Sedalia.....	Central Business College*.....	C. W. Robbins.....	8	1	741	234
MONTANA.							
246	Butte.....	Butte Business College.....	A. F. Rice.....	3	1	375	100
247	Helena.....	Engelhorn Helena Business Col- lege.....	Hermann T. Engelhorn.....	6	2	85	75
248	Missoula.....	Garden City Commercial College and Shorthand Academy.....	E. C. Reitz.....	2	1	40	20

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																								Gradu- ates in com- mercial course.	Gradu- ates in amanu- ensis course.
Even- ing course.		Average daily attend- ance.		Com- mercial course.		Amanu- ensis course.		English course.		Teleg- raphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.		Female.		Male.		Female.			
28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51		
8	7	40	11	85	6	3	7	29	18	0	0	8	12	\$75	\$40	6	3	2	1	204	205	206	207		
20	10	158	20	39	40	0	0	10	0	6-9	0	50	50	15	25	15	20	206	207	208	209		
15	24	84	38	12	32	23	16	80	25	34	21	207	208	209	210		
14	20	32	28	61	10	9	16	8	6	0	0	4-6	8-12	50	20	34	75	208	209	210	211		
0	0	8	6	0	0	3-24	40	14	2	3	14	209	210	211	212		
5	3	60	5	30	25	0	0	0	0	8-10	0	50	8	0	0	0	210	211	212	213		
31	9	90	28	22	6	9	0	34	4	6	9	90	40	11	2	211	212	213	214		
10	15	91	17	12	12	6	12	75	30	11	12	12	12	212	213	214	215		
12	0	40	8	46	11	2	5	12	0	0	0	6-9	75	20	0	0	0	0	213	214	215	216		
40	25	70	20	160	10	1	14	15	2	0	0	6	8	65	25	10	0	1	12	214	215	216	217		
0	0	145	0	125	0	15	0	150	0	5	0	48	12	0	215	216	217	218		
2	0	9	3	0	8	2	0	0	0	0	4	6	36	36	0	0	0	0	216	217	218	219		
.....	42	85	10	45	25	3	40	65	5	25	18	217	218	219	220		
0	0	119	0	45	0	75	30	45	9	218	219	220	221		
.....	90	90	10	20	5	2	1	2	219	220	221	222		
25	41	12	30	10	3	8	1	0	8-12	0	220	221	222	223		
.....	20	8	1	3	25	33	9	40	8	221	222	223	224		
4	9	12	3	1	12	8	7	45	45	1	2	222	223	224	225		
.....	40	10	5	10	5	5	1	223	224	225	226		
0	0	37	0	20	14	7	6	13	7	6	0	10	0	35	0	9	7	5	3	224	225	226	227		
.....	45	14	8	4	7	6	6-10	35	3	2	225	226	227	228		
0	0	30	0	18	13	5	4	25	16	0	0	15	40	5	0	0	0	226	227	228	229		
.....	15	5	15	5	1	9	40	8	227	228	229	230		
25	0	285	8	10	24	0	0	0	0	64	5	3	18	227	228	229	230		
.....	10	3	12	5	4	10	2	1	8	35	228	229	230	231		
22	8	30	20	60	15	3	12	6-8	45	15	12	5	230	231	232	233		
0	0	145	0	21	0	25	0	150	0	10	0	5	231	232	233	234		
50	50	25	10	0	0	125	275	0	0	0	0	3-6	4-8	55	27	125	275	232	233	234	235		
.....	300	175	6	12	45	25	233	234	235	236		
.....	48	28	4	4	6-12	45	20	6	2	234	235	236	237		
.....	50	10	5	6	50	3	2	235	236	237	238		
.....	61	37	31	12	21	14	23	6	60	18	7	12	18	236	237	238	239		
15	25	10	11	6	10	10	15	7	14	85	45	0	0	1	5	237	238	239	240		
40	10	50	130	6	9	60	15	5	238	239	240	241		
.....	100	40	10	20-50	5	239	240	241	242		
18	17	50	15	50	15	50	15	6-7	10-12	50	240	241	242	243		
75	25	100	40	50	25	75	150	10	5	0	0	6	12	65	30	50	25	75	75	241	242	243	244		
133	15	245	65	274	45	188	70	51	27	7	14	6-9	12	100	60	119	37	20	98	242	243	244	245		
126	8	149	5	31	49	139	47	0	0	6	12	100	50	12	1	0	17	243	244	245	246		
.....	28	18	14	18	14	12	20	6	53	8	9	0	10	244	245	246	247		
711	234	640	126	101	108	9	90	45	12	3	4	7	245	246	247	248		
100	50	40	25	40	25	10	6	6	4	0	0	8-12	16-24	75	50	6	1	2	1	246	247	248	249		
40	25	85	35	40	10	15	25	15	20	10	8	11	15	90	50	8	5	5	12	247	248	249	250		
.....	25	12	100	248	249	250	251		

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.		
			Male.	Female.	Day course.		
					Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
NEBRASKA.							
249	Falls City	Falls City Business College.....	G. M. Barrett.....	1	1	34	13
250	Grand Island	Grand Island Business and Normal College.	A. M. Hargis.....	4	1	230	173
251	Hastings	Queen City Business College*.....	O. P. Wilson.....	2	1	45	30
252	Lincoln.....	Lincoln Business College.....	D. R. Lillibridge.....	4	3	205	45
253	McCook.....	McCook Business College.....	L. W. Stayner.....	1
254	Omaha.....	National Shorthand Institute*.....	F. F. Roose.....	2	1	10	21
255do.....	Omaha Business College.....	F. F. Roose.....	4	3	400	175
256	York.....	College of Commerce.....	R. G. Harris.....	4	2	98	28
NEW HAMPSHIRE.							
257	Concord.....	Smith's College of Business and Shorthand.*	W. D. Smith.....	1	1	10	9
258	New Hampton.....	New Hampton Commercial College	Rev. A. B. Meservey, Ph. D.	4	1	63	21
259	Portsmouth.....	Smith's Academy and Commercial College.	Lewis E. Smith.....	3	2	25	15
NEW JERSEY.							
260	Camden.....	Abrahamson Business College*.....	Charles Magnus Abrahamson.	3	20	8
261	Elizabeth.....	Lansley Business College*.....	James H. Lansley, Ph. D.	2	2	39	32
262	Jersey City.....	Drake Business College*.....	William E. Drake.....	3	2	69	81
263do.....	Jersey City Business College.....	William E. Drake.....	3	2	76	64
264	Newark.....	Coleman National Business College	H. Coleman.....	7	2	250	75
265do.....	Newark Business College*.....	Martin Mulvey, A. M.	2	1	85	40
266do.....	New Jersey Business College.....	C. T. Miller.....	8	2	162	70
267	Trenton.....	Abrahamson College of Business and Shorthand.	Chas. M. Abrahamson	3	1	15	6
268do.....	Stewart Business College.....	Thos. J. Stewart.....	7	3	201	74
NEW YORK.							
269	Albany.....	Albany Business College.....	John R. Carnell.....	12	6	450	250
270	Binghamton.....	Business College and Institute of Shorthand.	John F. Riley, A. M.	0	3	60	90
271do.....	Lowell Business College.....	J. E. Bloomer.....	4	2	150	54
272	Brooklyn.....	Heffley School of Commerce.....	Norman P. Heffley.....	4	6	12	170
273do.....	Long Island Business College*.....	Henry C. Wright.....	7	4	219	137
274do.....	St. James Commercial.....	Bro. John Evangelist.	3	0	550	0
275	Buffalo.....	Buffalo College of Commerce*.....	D. D. Flanagan.....	3	0	380	260
276do.....	Caton's National Business College.	S. G. Hurst.....	8	500	200
277	Chatham.....	Whiteman's Telegraph School and Railroad Business College.	Frank Whiteman.....	1	1	53	4
278	Corning.....	Kerst's National Business College.	J. T. Kerst.....	1	1	30	15
279	Elmira.....	Elmira School of Commerce.....	Sherman C. Estey.....	4	2	200	109
280	Fort Edward.....	Hayley's Business College and School of Shorthand.	J. W. Hayley.....	3	0	25	11
281	Fort Plain.....	Porter School of Business Training.	Ernest W. Covell.....	2	2	32	3
282	Geneva.....	Geneva Business Training College.	Ansel E. Mackey.....	2	2	28	1
283do.....	Geneva Shorthand College.....	Robt. E. Hadden.....	1	1	5	18
284	Gloversville.....	Gloversville Business College*.....	U. G. Patterson.....	3	3	40	35
285	Hornellsville.....	Hornellsville Business and Shorthand College.	C. E. Willard.....	1	1	18	12
286	Ithaca.....	Wyckoff's Phonographic Institute	Mrs. M. A. Adsitt.....	2	4	12
287	Jamestown.....	Jamestown Business College Association, Limited.	H. E. V. Porter.....	5	0	42	57
288	Lima.....	Genesee Wesleyan Seminary Business College.	W. H. Reese, D. D....	1	1	25	15

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																								Graduates in commercial course.	Graduates in amanuensis course.
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Day course.	Evening course.					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27						
0	0			167	31	50	43	76	51	0	0	6	0	10		\$40	120	15	6	3	4	249			
0	0	25	0	40	10	20	18	40	10	0	0	9	0	40		12	6	8	12	251					
4	6	100	7	110	41	44	64					6-8		60		18	6	5	8	252					
40	15					10	21					6		15						1	253				
				314	50	71	115	15	10			6	12	30							254				
										4		6		60	\$40	29	9	25	87		255				
												9		40		12	5	8	3		256				
5	11			5	7	4	15	4	0	0	0	6		70	28	2	3	0	2		257				
				3	21	5	6				4	0	7	30		22	6	0	2		258				
0	0			21	8			0	0	0	0			70		10	5				259				
93	35	25	120	100	25	8	20					4-6	6-10			11	3	1	4		260				
20	7	55	15									9-12	9-11	100-160	80-120						261				
97	36			130	15	34	98	30	0	0	0	10-20	12-18	90	24						262				
88	19			88	16	36	62	43	2			10-15	11-21	90	24						263				
75	11											6	12	85	25	61	26				264				
50	25	105	60	80	30	28	12	0	0	0	0	6-12	7-14	85	25	25	15	12	7		265				
80	25	125	75	180	50	29	78	242	95	0	0	12	10	75	30	38	3	10	42		266				
71	13	20	75	79	6	1	12	6	1			10	14	65	30	29	3				267				
140	34	200	125	192	25	8	50	107	67			10		75	30	26	2	4	30		268				
40	10	350	45	400	50	100	150			40	10	6		100	30	250	35	90	140		269				
20	30	119	36	43	55	27	59	80	120	0	0	4	6-7	35-50	15-25	42	55	27	59		270				
92	14			91	8	10	22	14	3	12		4-7	8-14	100	60	67	5	6	18		271				
110	150	110	220			12	170	12	24			9	9	40	18				1		272				
201	53																				273				
0	0	500	0	125	0	75	0	400	0	0	0			20	0	15	0	15	0		274				
210	110	195	98	398	115	112	205	110	50	0	0	6	12			116	62	46	118		275				
100	20	30		400	100	100	100					9	12	75	45	140	75	50	40		276				
0	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	4	6	0	60	0						277				
2				7	5	30	15				5	6		40	20	7	4	30	15		278				
												6		40	15	60	30	10	30		279				
9	0	20	6	28	1	5	9	3	0	0	0			25	15	1	0	0	3		280				
				19	2	13	1					9		100		6	2	2			281				
8	3	25	10	18	2	7	1	15	0	2	0	4-10	6-12	40	20	5	0	2	0		282				
3	6	10	5	0	0	5	18					6	12	40		0	0	4	9		283				
30	30	35	40	35	15	5	20	0	0	0	0	4-6	6-12	60	20	20	10	3	16		284				
9	11			13	10	6	5	8	8	0	0	6-10	12-18	160	50	3	3	0	1		285				
		12				4	12					6-9		90							287				
		70		33	21	10	42	0	0	0	0	8	0	50	0	7	6	1	14		286				
		20		19	13	6	2	0	0	0	0	6	0	60		7	2	1	2		288				

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.		
			Male.	Female.	Day course.		
					Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
NEW YORK—con- tinued.							
289	Newburg	Spencerian Institute of Business Shorthand.	A. L. Spencer	2	2	50	45
290	New York (125th st.).	College of Commerce*	Frank H. Ruscoe	2	0	40	20
291	New York (152 5th ave.).	Metropolitan School of Isaac Pitman Shorthand and Typewriting.	William L. Mason	0	2	10	30
292	New York	Packard Business College and School of Stenography.	S. S. Paekard	11	5	540	165
293	New York (107 W. 34th st.).	Paine Uptown Business College.	H. W. Remington	3	4	190	104
294	New York (62 Bowery).	Paine's Business College*	Rutherford and Howell.	3	1	183	19
295	New York	Walworth Business and Stenographic College.	Geo. S. and Jno. C. Walworth.	6	0	32	88
296	Niagara Falls	Niagara Business College.	H. J. King	3	0	80	30
297	Olean	Westbrook Commercial College*	E. D. Westbrook	4	...	80	23
298	Oswego	Chaffee's Phonographic Institute.	W. G. Chaffee	3	3	65	55
299	Peekskill	The Institute	Chas. Untenmire	3	1	23	18
300	Rochester	Rochester Business College*	A. S. Osborn, S. C. Williams.	12	...	465	60
301	do	Underhill's University	B. S. Underhill	1	1	80	70
302	Schenectady	Schenectady Business College	F. C. Hovey	2	1	25	50
303	Troy	Troy Business College	Thos. H. Shields	9	3	356	147
304	Utica	Utica Business College*	G. F. Hendrick and T. H. Shields.	3	5	124	79
NORTH CAROLINA.							
305	Augusta	Hodges Business College	John D. Hodges, A. M.	1	1	16	14
306	Greensboro	Wetmore's Business College	W. H. Wetmore	2	1	40	5
307	Siler City	Thompson's Business College	J. A. W. Thompson	2	...	60	...
308	Washington	Wilkinson's Commercial School	Aaron H. Wilkinson	1	0	15	1
NORTH DAKOTA.							
309	Fargo	Dakota Business and Literary College.*	F. Leland Watkins, A. B.	3	3	75	50
310	Grand Forks	Northwestern College of Commerce.	J. J. Swengel	5	0	80	65
OHIO.							
311	Akron	Hammel's Business College	P. Hammel	1	2	45	37
312	Bennington	Home Business College	J. Howard Baldwin	2	1	14	5
313	Camfield	Northeastern Ohio Business College.	J. A. Cummins	2	0	56	31
314	Canton	Actual Business College	A. S. Griffin	4	2	55	34
315	do	Canton Business College*	William Feller	3	1	91	79
316	Chillicothe	Chillicothe Business College*	G. A. Miller	1	2	28	33
317	Cincinnati	R. M. Bartlett's Commercial College.*	Chas. M. Bartlett	5	3	275	100
318	do	Nelson Business College	Richard Nelson	5	4	219	59
319	Cleveland	Ohio Business University*	Frank S. Stone	2	1	80	20
320	do	Spencerian Business College	Spencer, Felton and Loomis.	7	2	500	200
321	Columbus	Hartsough's College of Shorthand.	W. H. Hartsough	1	1	28	42
322	do	Mann's College of Shorthand and Typewriting.*	E. G. Mann	2	1	104	120
323	do	Parson's Business College*	H. B. Parsons	4	...	160	50
324	Coshocton	Conner's Business College*	M. A. Conner	2	1	37	53
325	Delaware	National Business College	L. Le May	4	1	375	40
326	East Liverpool	Ohio Valley Business College*	F. W. Fowler	4	...	147	48

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95.—Continued.

Students.																											Graduates in commercial course.	Graduates in amanuensis course.
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.					
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.									Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32				
22	15	55	30	35	8	15	37	8	12	\$80	\$45	28	5	10	24	239								
15	5	30	10	40	5	15	20	0	0	0	0	6	10	144	72	37	5	15	16	290								
16	20	20	15	0	0	20	50	0	0	0	0	6-8	8-10	75	75	10	30	291								
0	0	515	15	25	150	0	0	0	0	10-12	0	198	0	84	2	10	34	292								
75	21	45	20	165	30	26	96	48	25	0	0	12	12	100-120	70-120	15	12	15	9	293								
88	17	97	17	54	63	63	8	0	0	12	12	88	88	294								
42	6	84	38	40	9	35	85	0	0	0	0	6-7	8-9	150	100	23	6	27	69	295								
35	15	90	30	89	12	7	25	19	8	0	0	8-10	12-26	75	45	17	12	0	11	296								
16	4	50	15	6	4	6	4	23	18	0	0	6	12	120	60	297								
0	0	35	0	8	7	28	25	0	0	298								
40	20	460	45	15	65	5-6	160	18	299								
.....	45	70	80	70	45	70	1	2-5	4-6	75	55	25	50	25	50	301								
25	15	40	20	35	15	10	47	15	3	0	0	6	9	90	40	5	0	0	10	302								
168	43	225	145	324	21	46	93	131	57	23	19	6	12	100	30	76	17	31	80	303								
48	20	89	31	8	44	64	20	11	4	3-6	60-75	20-35	304								
0	0	24	0	8	7	6	2	16	14	0	0	3-5	0	20-50	0	1	0	0	0	305								
50	0	5	15	80	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	25	35	5	0	0	306								
.....	35	35	5	40	5	5	49	25	307								
5	0	4	3	10	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	7	8	1	0	0	308								
20	10	50	20	50	25	15	35	30	30	0	0	6	70	10	5	1	12	309								
20	15	80	20	60	40	15	20	20	20	0	0	6	6	100	40	35	15	12	15	310								
36	6	47	15	8	19	9	20	8	12-15	1	1	1	8	311								
0	0	11	1	0	0	3	4	0	0	7	0	100	1	0	0	0	312								
0	0	35	0	15	5	10	6	40	34	0	0	6	0	30	0	5	2	2	3	313								
35	26	80	55	60	22	30	38	4	7	40	40	38	16	19	25	314								
68	24	136	64	20	109	5	9	100	60	45	21	315								
5	8	50	11	35	34	25	27	1	6	9-12	50-75	30-50	15	23	15	19	316								
.....	6	8	100	100	317								
35	17	142	31	59	47	30	0	0	0	8	80	35	0	0	0	0	318								
40	10	60	35	85	15	15	35	0	0	0	0	8	12	75	45	319								
100	75	390	100	300	100	100	200	50	50	100	45	75	25	25	75	320								
7	5	28	6	0	0	28	42	0	0	0	0	6	9	60	45	321								
25	50	125	45	60	34	15	115	0	0	0	0	6	12	100	50	10	20	4	110	322								
40	10	50	25	75	40	10	30	6	12	75	50	40	20	5	10	323								
24	18	22	18	18	8	15	21	23	42	0	0	6	12	50	50	7	4	3	12	324								
0	0	55	0	375	40	187	40	0	0	43	5	4-9	0	20-80	0	315	30	93	25	325								
89	27	62	74	138	8	14	58	79	7	5	2	6	9	48	45	87	5	9	34	326								

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.		
			Male.	Female.	Day course.		
					Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
OHIO—continued.							
327	Greenville.....	Centennial Business College.....	S. E. Shook.....	2	0	22	4
323	Lancaster.....	Columbia Commercial College.....	W. M. Gesserman.....	1	..	10	4
329	Lima.....	Lima Business College.....	Howard W. Pears.....	3	1	90	60
330	Massfield.....	Ohio Business College.....	J. W. Sharp, Ph. D.....	2	1	76	34
331	Massillon.....	Massillon Actual Business College.*	C. H. Kilgore.....	2	1	40	33
332	New Philadelphia.	New Philadelphia Business College.	W. C. Shott.....	1	1	24	30
333	Newark.....	Newark Business College.....	S. L. Roney.....	1	1	200	50
334	Oberlin.....	Oberlin Business College.....	J. T. Henderson.....	2	1	102	33
335do.....	Oberlin Telegraph Company*	J. A. Sheridan.....	2	1	90	2
336	Piqua.....	Piqua Commercial College.....	Chas. E. Beck.....	2	1	22	20
337	Portsmouth.....	River City Business College.....	G. W. Moothart.....	2	1	35	35
338	Sidney.....	Buckeye Business College.....	W. A. Trout.....	1	2	19	8
339	Springfield.....	Nelson's Business College.....	R. J. Nelson.....	2	1	70	5
340do.....	Williss College of Shorthand.....	F. W. Williss.....	1	2	102	..
341	Tiffin.....	Heidelberg College of Commerce*.	O. O. Runkle.....	1	2	20	10
342do.....	Tiffin Business College.....	C. C. Kennison.....	2	1	48	50
343	Toledo.....	Davis Business College.....	Matthew H. Davis.....	3	1	303	200
344	Van Wert.....	Van Wert Business College.....	B. F. Hart.....	2	..	28	16
345	Warren.....	Warren Business College*.....	A. C. Maris.....	2	0	39	15
346	Wooster.....	Bixler Business College.....	Gideon Bixler.....	2	1	72	36
347	Youngstown.....	Brown's School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	John C. Brown.....	1	..	15	35
348do.....	Federal Business College.....	S. H. Place.....	3	1	53	21
349	Zanesville.....	Zanesville Business College.....	P. W. Frederick.....	1	1	30	30
OREGON.							
350	Medford.....	Rigby Business College.....	M. E. Rigby.....	5	3	40	35
351	Portland.....	Holmes Business College.....	Miss G. Holmes.....	3	3	100	100
352do.....	Portland Business College.....	A. P. Armstrong.....	4	3	250	125
353	Salem.....	Capital Business College.....	W. I. Staley.....	1	2	54	21
PENNSYLVANIA.							
354	Allentown.....	American Business College.....	O. C. Dorney.....	8	1	196	42
355do.....	Allentown Business College.....	W. L. Blackman.....	2	..	39	5
356	Allegheny.....	Williams College of Actual Business.	T. M. Williams.....	2	2	100	25
357	Altoona.....	Mountain City Business College.....	G. G. Zeth.....	3	1	315	126
358	Beaver Falls.....	Butcher's Business College.....	J. W. Butcher.....	2	1	15	15
359	Carbondale.....	Wood's Carbondale College.....	F. E. Wood.....	4	1	168	42
360	Columbia.....	Archibald Dickson Business College.	Archibald Dickson.....	1	1	67	35
361	Corry.....	Corry Business College.....	W. E. Tooke.....	2	1	40	27
362	Du Bois.....	Du Bois Business College.....	G. W. Lenkerd.....	3	2	94	90
363	Easton.....	Easton College of Business.....	C. Lincoln Free.....	2	..	30	20
364	Erie.....	Erie Business University.....	J. M. Glazier.....	2	2	200	75
365	Germantown.....	Germantown Business College*.....	Chas. M. Abrahamson.....	2	1
366	Harrisburg.....	Harrisburg Business College.....	J. E. Garner.....	1	1	24	15
367do.....	School of Commerce.....	J. C. Shumberger.....	5	..	109	37
368	Hazleton.....	Hazleton Business College.....	Joseph Leming.....	2	2	42	28
369	Lancaster.....	Keystone Business College.....	P. H. Keller.....	2	1	27	16
370do.....	Lancaster Business College.....	H. C. Weider.....	3	..	60	35
371	Lebanon.....	Lebanon Business College.....	Jacob G. Gerberich.....	2	1	105	48
372	Lock Haven.....	Lock Haven Commercial School.....	Jas. H. De Pue.....	5	..	75	10
373	McKeesport.....	Gressly College*.....	E. W. Gordon.....	10	2	65	53
374	Meadville.....	Bryant, Stratton & Smith Business College.	A. W. Smith.....	4	1	116	97
375	Norristown.....	Schissler College of Business.....	H. J. Schissler.....	6	4	350	..

* From 1893-04.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students		
			Male.	Female.	Day course.		
					Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
PENNSYLVANIA— continued.							
376	North Wales.....	North Wales Academy and School of Business.	Samuel Umstead Brunner.	3	2	28	18
377	Oil City.....	Tubbs Business College.....	Delavan C. Tubbs....	3	1	42	68
378	Philadelphia.....	Peirce School.....	Thomas May Peirce, A. M., Ph. D.	26	4	593	229
379	Pittsburg.....	Actual Business College.....	M. J. Jones.....	6	3	150	188
380	do.....	Curry Business College*.....	J. C. Hoch, Ph. D.....	3	0	150	160
381	do.....	Duff's Mercantile College.....	Wm. H. Duff.....	8	0	500	290
382	do.....	Martin's Shorthand School.....	A. M. Martin.....	4	2	40	200
383	Pottsville.....	Commercial School.....	G. A. Transue.....	1	0	42	20
384	do.....	Wood's Pottsville College.....	F. E. Wood.....	1	0	131	81
385	Reading.....	Inter-State Commercial College.....	H. Y. Stoner.....	7	1	42	25
386	do.....	Reading Business College and Scientific Academy.	D. B. Brunner.....	3	1	128	24
387	Seranton.....	Wood's College.....	O. F. Williams.....	7	3	355	140
388	Shamokin.....	Shamokin Business College.....	Wm. F. Magee.....	7	0	110	32
389	Shenandoah.....	Shenandoah Business College.....	James F. Waldron.....	2	0	25	15
390	Sunbury.....	Sunbury Business College*.....	John L. Miller.....	3	0	18	13
391	Towanda.....	Towanda Business and Shorthand College.	M. S. Cronk.....	1	0	6	11
392	Union City.....	Luce's Commercial College.....	Rev. N. R. Luce.....	1	0	30	20
393	Washington.....	Washington Business College.....	W. J. Musser.....	2	1	80	60
394	Waynesburg.....	Waynesburg College*.....	Dr. A. B. Miller.....	7	2	157	125
395	Wilkesbarre.....	Wood's College.....	F. E. Wood.....	7	1	420	92
396	Williamsport.....	Pott's Shorthand College.....	Jno. G. Henderson.....	2	0	112	87
397	do.....	Williamsport Commercial College.	F. M. Allen.....	5	1	175	40
398	York.....	Patrick's Business College*.....	W. H. Patrick.....	2	1	53	17
RHODE ISLAND.							
399	Pawtucket.....	Pawtucket Business College.....	Irving R. Carbutt....	2	2	20	25
400	Providence.....	Providence Bryant & Stratton Business College.	Theodore B. Stowell..	9	2	195	140
401	do.....	Scholfield's Commercial College...	Albert G. Scholfield..	3	1	73	43
402	do.....	Spencerian Business College.....	Geo. W. Spencer, jr..	2	0	56	25
SOUTH CAROLINA.							
403	Charleston.....	The Mercantile School.....	C. H. Bergmann.....	1	0	0	0
SOUTH DAKOTA.							
404	Aberdeen.....	Aberdeen Business College.....	H. A. Nay.....	1	1	32	17
405	Sioux Falls.....	Sioux Falls Business University..	G. C. Christopherson..	4	1	50	25
TENNESSEE.							
406	Chattanooga.....	Mountain City Business College..	Wiley Bros.....	3	1	42	28
407	Knoxville.....	McAllen's Business College.....	Jno. Adams McAllen..	1	0	29	12
408	do.....	Young's College of Shorthand and Typewriting.*	J. F. Edington.....	2	0	10	12
409	Nashville.....	Draughn's Practical Business College.	J. F. Draughn.....	9	2	535	65
410	do.....	Jennings's Business College.....	R. W. Jennings.....	3	0	107	9
TEXAS.							
411	Austin.....	Griffitts' College of Commerce*..	D. A. Griffitts.....	1	3	40	20
412	do.....	Walden's Texas Business College*	L. R. Walden.....	3	1	175	69
413	Belton.....	Belton Business College.....	J. A. Frazier.....	2	0	27	7
414	Corsicana.....	Chambers's Business College.....	W. R. Chambers.....	1	0	69	4

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																								Graduates in commercial course.	Graduates in amanuensis course.
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Day course.	Evening course.							Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30			
0	0	46	0	10	5	18	13	9	\$30	6	3	376			
20	12	85	20	37	50	4	10	12	12	0	0	8-12	10-16	50	\$50	12	14	3	4	377			
458	124	458	365	925	229	167	160	1,092	389	0	0	0	7-10	14	140	30	87	28	13	44	378			
75	25	80	50	150	180	150	180	75	40	0	0	4	8	100	50	379			
35	15	200	50	185	115	40	20	12	24	50	30	30	10	3	13	380			
150	50	200	150	200	150	120	60	700	200	4	6	50	25	200	50	70	30	381			
40	20	110	25	0	0	80	220	0	0	0	0	50	60	220	382			
43	9	44	35	40	18	27	9	0	0	0	0	Free	Free	383			
92	28	104	87	98	67	31	62	84	76	10	16	50	30	384			
23	11	35	15	78	19	9	15	10	3	0	0	8	12	96	18	13	2	0	0	385			
54	11	72	28	112	14	12	4	71	21	12	24	40	30	15	4	386			
271	60	295	265	205	100	20	60	145	10	0	0	6	12	50	30	71	13	10	13	387			
52	8	40	36	119	24	80	21	50	6	10	1	6	12	66	36	25	12	20	16	388			
40	0	40	40	20	5	5	10	30	0	10	0	6	8-9	50	40	20	5	5	10	389			
15	10	28	20	10	5	3	7	2	6	8	8	6	390			
11	6	14	8	4	1	11	11	0	0	0	0	10	40	3	1	0	9	391			
30	20	45	40	25	10	9	25	5	4	1	392			
.....	75	76	15	10	45	0	0	0	0	6-8	40	25	18	10	4	15	393			
.....	24	21	20	14	157	125	0	0	6	0	53	0	16	14	10	12	394			
120	34	300	100	380	64	18	50	212	68	10	16	50	30	0	0	0	0	395			
39	27	55	38	112	87	5	7	120	105	39	42	396			
50	20	6	10	50	40	397			
34	5	40	30	57	8	12	10	0	0	0	0	6-8	12-18	80	15	14	1	5	7	398			
16	10	43	15	15	7	8	19	6	4	0	0	10	10	100	60	399			
.....	174	71	12	66	16	5	10	100	22	16	6	23	400			
19	12	87	23	56	28	4	18	22	7	0	0	29	19	4	18	401			
48	20	32	24	92	10	12	35	10	20	50	50	32	5	6	25	402			
21	0	19	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	36	36	2	403		
5	7	19	4	17	13	5	11	18	8	0	0	404			
40	10	25	20	40	10	10	15	40	10	0	0	6	12	75	15	15	5	5	10	405			
47	11	7	12	70	24	406			
5	1	14	3	9	12	9	0	8	2	0	0	6	12	407			
0	0	12	0	0	0	12	12	0	0	0	0	3-6	0	30	0	0	0	10	12	408			
.....	190	409			
.....	35	107	9	3	50	90	4	410			
17	5	60	20	57	18	15	25	14	10	0	0	5-6	6-8	60	60	20	9	15	25	411			
10	5	65	10	200	10	10	20	15	10	0	6-10	12	50	40	10	3	3	8	412			
0	0	22	26	3	5	4	4	3	0	0	6	50	8	1	0	0	413			
7	0	20	5	50	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	6-12	12	40	40	6	0	0	414			

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.		
			Male.	Female.	Day course.		
					Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
TEXAS—continued.							
415	Dallas	King's Business College.....	J. H. King.....	2	2	175	75
416	do	Metropolitan Business College....	Gillespie & Lawrence.	5	1	266	53
417	Fort Worth.....	Fort Worth Business College*.....	F. P. Preuitt.....	6	2	504	66
418	Gainesville	Gainesville Business College.....	J. R. McFarren.....	1	1	65	19
419	Graham	Graham Business College.....	H. Fowler.....	1	1	16	7
420	Houston	Houston Commercial College.....	J. B. Barnes.....	3	3	182	197
421	Omen	Sumner Business College *.....	A. W. Orr.....	1	...	40	...
422	Paris	Southwestern Business College.....	E. M. Chartier.....	2	0	35	10
423	San Marcos.....	Lone Star Business College.....	M. C. McGee.....	1	1	52	24
424	Temple	Beeman's Business College *.....	C. A. Beeman.....	1	...	20	10
425	Waco	Edward Toby, Jr.'s, Practical Business College.	Edward Toby, jr.....	4	0	79	9
426	Weatherford.....	North Central Business College ..	W. L. Alexander.....	3	...	100	50
UTAH.							
427	Ogden	Inter-Mountain Business College and Shorthard School.	James Ayres Smith...	3	1	41	46
423	Salt Lake City....	Salt Lake Business College *.....	N. B. Johnson.....	3	1	189	...
VERMONT.							
429	Burlington	Burlington Business College.....	E. G. Evans.....	2	1	58	42
430	Waterbury Center	Minard Commercial College *.....	C. H. Stone.....	2	0	20	5
VIRGINIA.							
431	Lynchburg	Southern Business University....	B. A. Davis, jr., and J. W. Giles.	4	3	180	125
432	Norfolk.....	Norfolk Business College.....	J. W. Patton.....	2	0	90	12
433	Richmond	Smitldeal Practical Business College.	G. M. Smitldeal.....	3	2	87	34
434	Roanoke	National Business College.....	C. E. Eekerle.....	2	2	45	26
435	Staunton	Dunsmore Commercial and Business College.	J. G. Dunsmore.....	3	0	73	12
436	do	Staunton Business College.....	J. A. Hiner.....	3	0	42	8
WASHINGTON.							
437	Lynden.....	Lynden Business College.....	Aug. Wilson.....	1	0	14	16
438	Spokane.....	Spokane Business College.....	Jno. R. Cassin.....	4	0	257	126
439	Tacoma.....	Tacoma Business College *.....	John W. Tait.....	4	1	100	50
440	Walla Walla.....	Empire Business College.....	Merwin Pugh.....	3	3	60	40
WEST VIRGINIA.							
441	Huntington.....	Huntington Business College.....	L. M. Newcomb.....	2	0	27	15
442	Wheeling.....	Wheeling Business College.....	J. M. Frasher.....	6	1	192	104
WISCONSIN.							
443	Appleton.....	De Land's Business College.....	O. P. De Land.....	2	1	22	18
444	Ashland	Gordon's Business College.....	E. D. Gordon.....	3	...	15	17
445	Chippewa Falls...	Chippewa Falls Business College.	C. H. Howieson.....	2	...	55	47
446	Eau Claire.....	School of Shorthand and Business.	Mrs. M. J. Lamphear.....	...	2	22	48
447	Green Bay.....	Green Bay Business College.....	J. M. McCann.....	4	2	136	39
448	Janesville.....	Valentine's School of Telegraphy.	Richard Valentine.....	2	...	236	...
449	Kenosha.....	Kenosha College of Commerce.....	Otis L. Trenary.....	2	1	22	15

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																								Graduates in commercial course.	Graduates in amanuensis course.
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.						
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.					Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30			
40	10	60	15	150	25	25	60	40	10	0	0	6	10	\$50	\$50	40	3	4	15	415					
.....	107	193	9	73	44	5	50	78	6	24	22	416					
125	50	125	35	620	112	85	82	25	18	18	3	6	14	50	50	54	25	24	23	417					
16	1	19	6	14	0	0	0	8	0	3	6	8	0	0	0	418					
.....	20	16	4	3	20	10	2	419					
65	4	20	21	56	43	64	72	79	83	0	0	6	10	120	60	12	11	16	21	420					
.....	15	20	4	40	60	421					
20	5	25	15	30	6	4	5	8	24	50	25	422					
0	0	25	0	48	12	0	0	39	17	0	0	6	0	1	1	0	0	423					
12	20	20	10	30	50	25	14	4	424					
132	0	26	40	153	17	9	41	0	0	4-12	6-12	62	11	4	425					
75	30	50	50	40	20	20	35	10	15	5	1	6	10-12	50	50	50	35	15	20	426					
30	20	45	25	26	6	6	12	27	3	0	0	6	14	50	30	10	3	3	5	427					
.....	428					
33	10	60	20	41	13	7	21	10	8	6-10	40-60	7	3	4	429					
0	0	20	2	3	0	0	0	0	6	0	18	0	3	2	0	0	430					
15	10	127	40	90	114	47	30	0	0	4-6	9-12	35	35	77	12	55	70	431					
30	5	30	15	0	0	0	0	6	12	50	20	432					
37	4	55	4	42	32	27	2	0	0	3-6	9-12	433					
49	0	45	30	33	33	39	26	26	0	0	0	6-10	10-15	50	30	2	0	6	9	434					
0	0	75	0	71	2	2	10	0	0	0	0	8	0	50	0	15	1	1	4	435					
0	0	35	0	38	2	6	4	0	0	0	0	8	50	30	1	1	1	436					
.....	20	5	6	11	6	50	3	437					
24	9	214	31	17	41	44	36	438					
25	15	50	15	75	12	20	30	17	36	60	60	439					
20	10	75	20	46	30	15	20	15	21	6-9	9-12	{ 35-50-25-35-75 45 }	6	4	5	5	440						
20	0	15	12	18	6	7	13	27	15	0	0	6	16	70	20	1	0	0	0	441					
180	23	113	46	154	43	27	76	154	54	0	0	6	12	45	45	58	20	18	32	442					
0	0	22	0	18	12	2	11	0	0	0	0	9	0	65	0	0	0	1	8	443					
3	2	20	5	11	9	5	7	0	0	0	0	6	45	7	5	4	8	444					
17	6	6-8	65	16	445					
.....	24	12	14	10	40	6	4	6	10	5	3	446					
18	4	65	18	100	15	13	24	36	9	0	0	6-12	50-65	9	5	7	8	447					
.....	236	0	55	448					
17	3	29	17	39	18	2	13	10	3	0	0	6-8	9-12	6	1	1	5	449					

TABLE 2.—Statistics of commercial and

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	In-struct-ors.		Students.		
			Male.	Female.	Day course.		
					Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
WISCONSIN—cont'd.							
450	La Crosse.....	Wisconsin Business University *	F. J. Toland.....	4	...	167	67
451	Madison.....	Northwestern Business College...	R. G. Denning.....	3	0	85	38
452	Marinette.....	Marinette Business College.....	Miss E. A. Perkins.....	2	2	40	20
453	Menominee.....	Menominee Business College *...	B. Edw. Halpin.....	1	1	21	12
454	Milwaukee.....	Spencerian Business College.....	Robert C. Spencer.....	4	5	145	65
455do.....	Wisconsin Business University.....	H. M. Wilmot.....	2	2	68	24
456	Neenah.....	Twin City College of Commerce*.	E. A. Williams.....	5	1	75	25
457	Platteville.....	Platteville Business College.....	John Alcock.....	1	1	25	7
458	Portage.....	College of Commerce.....	H. A. Story.....	1	1	34	16
459	Racine.....	L. V. Patterson Commercial Insti- tute	L. V. Patterson.....	2	2	68	37
460	Sheboygan.....	Sheboygan Business College.....	M. C. Patten.....	3	1	32	13
461	Waukesha.....	Waukesha Business College.....	W. A. Pierce.....	1	1	20
462	Wausau.....	Wausau Business College and Normal Institute.*	W. S. Williams.....	3	...	150	75

* From 1893-94.

business colleges, 1894-95—Continued.

Students.																								Graduates in commercial course.	Graduates in amanuensis course.
Evening course.		Average daily attendance.		Commercial course.		Amanuensis course.		English course.		Telegraphy.		Months in course.		Annual charge for tuition.		Graduates in commercial course.		Graduates in amanuensis course.							
Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Day course.	Evening course.	Day course.	Evening course.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30			
.....	180	152	13	2	65	6-10	\$50	\$25	50	5	2	40	450			
48	17	100	35	65	10	9	36	40	28	0	0	6	55	20	9	3	0	7	451			
14	4	26	16	19	6	9	9	8	3	0	0	5-7	6-8	75	50	5	2	4	4	453			
46	9	157	24	34	51	10	100	35	8	1	20	30	454			
39	15	40	30	30	15	24	49	0	0	6	2	4-6	6-8	65	50	20	11	22	45	455			
25	15	60	15	15	10	45	25	10	456			
0	0	23	3	3	4	6-9	6	457			
18	12	81	20	34	12	1	4	6	4	0	0	6	80	12	458			
.....	40	14	15	38	18	10	0	0	6	12	50	30	23	3	1	14	459			
31	0	40	25	58	3	5	8	0	0	0	0	6	12	80	40	33	2	4	6	460			
5	0	18	4	5	1	0	20	0	0	0	0	5	36	35	4	461			
60	40	50	35	60	40	150	75	72	36	8	3	462			

XI.—INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEFECTIVE CLASSES.

TABLE 1.—Summary of statistics of State public institutions for the deaf, 1894-95.

Division and State.	Instructors.						Pupils.						Volumes in library.	Value of scientific apparatus.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Receipts.	Expenditures.		
	Number of institutions.			Articulation.			Taught by oral method.			Graduates in 1894-95.								Industrial department.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Total.	Articular percep.	Industrial depart.	Male.	Female.	Total.	12	13	14							15
I	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
United States	52	315	493	753	239	140	44	72	1,455	4,708	3,895	2,668	2,515	4,587	82,544	\$16,880	\$10,836,456	\$1,601,703	\$1,931,732
North Atlantic Division	13	57	176	233	140	44	72	1,455	4,708	3,895	2,668	2,515	4,587	27,001	10,950	3,500,806	494,457	666,386	
Connecticut	1	6	10	16	4	0	4	105	76	181	127	45	2,000	250,000
New York	7	32	101	133	85	40	45	863	665	1,528	818	420	134	808	15,809	10,600	1,702,034	227,674	382,481
New Jersey	1	5	7	12	4	4	68	65	133	60	27	90	1,000	250	100,000	42,256	42,256
Pennsylvania	4	14	58	72	47	4	19	419	407	826	481	0	57	589	8,192	100	1,448,772	224,557	241,649
South Atlantic Division	11	60	46	105	29	1	30	534	447	981	248	25	41	418	12,660	1,280	1,586,500	271,222	281,549
Maryland	2	7	9	16	4	0	8	72	54	126	22	20	9	109	2,730	780	290,000	25,000	31,194
District of Columbia	2	22	11	33	13	1	2	76	54	130	48	0	13	50	3,750	750,000	64,000	71,872
Virginia	1	8	2	10	1	0	5	52	50	102	32	250,000	37,500	37,500
West Virginia	1	5	2	7	1	0	5	64	52	116	14	0	13	116	880	85,000	27,040	22,070
North Carolina	2	9	8	17	5	0	7	115	110	225	60	2	125	2,600	2,600	73,000	71,440	71,440
South Carolina	1	2	5	7	2	4	54	38	92	16	5	55,000	17,288	17,288
Georgia	1	5	5	10	2	0	2	80	67	147	25	80,000	20,000	21,251
Florida	1	2	4	6	1	2	21	22	43	31	4	18	1,200	500	1,500	8,354	8,354	8,354
South Central Division	9	52	46	98	19	8	38	670	588	1,258	208	0	45	782	5,020	1,850	1,194,000	229,011	219,110
Kentucky	1	10	11	21	5	2	4	139	113	252	129	0	5	115	1,500	1,000	200,000	40,000	40,000
Tennessee	1	6	5	11	2	2	3	116	104	220	30	33	100	800	800	150,000	150,000	37,250	38,040
Alabama	2	8	5	13	3	1	7	73	64	137	15	0	94	300	300	137,000	137,000	30,910	30,910
Mississippi	1	6	3	9	2	1	6	45	56	101	12	82	500	75,000	75,000	6,000	6,000
Louisiana	1	3	1	4	2	4	3	41	39	80	20	1	49	300,000	300,000	17,300	17,300
Texas	2	12	12	24	4	1	7	162	116	278	37	152	920	250	257,000	257,000	60,271	53,580
Arkansas	1	7	9	16	1	1	8	94	96	190	25	0	6	190	600	600	75,000	55,500	30,000

North Central Division	12	125	154	279	44	1	58	1,795	1,405	3,200	450	45	92	1,718	34,552	2,150	3,709,150	484,050	658,822
Ohio	1	9	18	27	6	5	224	222	446	92	193	3,000	750,000	91,700	91,700
Indiana	1	12	11	23	4	167	136	303	57	2,200	525,000	66,001	66,001
Illinois	1	42	31	73	9	1	8	320	298	523	85	10	280	11,000	250	417,000	100,000	105,000
Michigan	1	6	21	27	5	0	6	193	152	345	111	0	18	174	4,017	500	420,250	70,239	74,287
Wisconsin	1	10	10	20	7	6	137	94	231	80	18	146	2,400	200	110,000	42,000	38,487
Minnesota	1	10	12	22	4	0	4	140	100	240	33	20	111	1,540	271,625	60,036	60,036
Iowa	1	8	10	18	2	7	182	148	330	0	14	280	2,500	1,000	501,000	68,795	68,795
Missouri	1	12	12	24	2	7	182	128	310	5	280	2,000	301,000	58,225
North Dakota	1	1	2	3	1	2	21	16	37	0	0	6	300	22,000	8,385	8,385
South Dakota	1	2	2	4	1	0	4	24	21	45	0	0	35	175	81,675	12,350	12,350
Nebraska	1	4	7	11	1	3	86	64	150	3	3	124	1,400	200	100,000	30,545	26,751
Kansas	1	9	18	27	2	6	119	121	240	20	9	9	190	3,000	210,000	39,000
Western Division	7	21	16	37	7	0	14	254	182	436	63	0	23	137	3,331	650	845,000	122,933	105,865
Montana	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	3	4	7	2	0	0	4	0	3,753	3,753
Colorado	1	3	3	6	2	0	3	42	31	73	22	0	3	40	581	500	200,000	25,440	25,440
New Mexico	1	1	1	2	1	0	0	10	0	10	8	0	0	0	250	0	6,000	4,932	4,932
Utah	1	2	2	4	1	4	35	17	52	6	2	38	200	50	100,000	7,500	7,500
Washington	1	2	4	6	1	0	2	35	25	60	0	0	0	8	110,000
Oregon	1	5	2	7	0	0	2	37	39	76	25	4	22	300	100	30,000	37,000	20,000
California	1	7	4	11	2	0	2	92	66	158	0	14	25	2,000	0	400,000	44,240	44,240

Parental relations of pupils in schools for deaf-mutes.

Compiled from the reports of 36 deaf-mute schools (out of the 89 in the United States), representing all sections of the Union.

	Number.	Per cent.
Schools	36
Pupils	4,114
Pupils having hearing grandparents	3,965	96.38
Pupils having deaf-mute grandparents	149	3.62
Pupils having hearing parents	4,028	97.90
Pupils having deaf-mute parents	86	2.10

TABLE 2.—Statistics of State public institutions for the deaf, 1894-95.

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	Instructors.				Pupils.						Industrial department— Trades taught.		
			Male.	Female.	Articulation.	Industrial department.	Male.	Female.	Taught by oral method.	Kindergarten.	Graduates in 1894-95.	Hours per day in industrial department.		Number in industrial department.	
1	Talladega, Ala.	J. H. Johnson.	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
2	Alabama School for Negro Deaf-Mutes and Blind.	J. S. Graves.	1	0	0	0	2	10	7	15	0	0	2-3	80	Carpentry, printing, sewing, Carpentry, gardening.
3	Little Rock, Ark.	Frank Bell Yates.	7	9	1	1	8	94	96	25	0	6	3½	190	Farm or garden work, carpentry, painting, shoemaking, printing, sewing, tailoring.
4	Berkeley, Cal.	Warring Wilkinson.	7	4	2	0	2	92	66	0	14	2	25	Farm or garden, carpentry, printing, sewing, cooking.
5	Colorado Springs, Colo.	D. C. Dudley, A. M.	3	3	2	0	3	42	31	22	0	3	2½	40	Carpentry, printing, sewing, baking.
6	Hartford, Conn.	Job Williams.	6	10	4	0	4	105	76	127	3	45	Cabinetmaking, shoemaking.
7	Washington, D. C.	Edward M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., L. L. D.	18	7	9	50	30
8do	James Denison, M. A.	4	4	4	1	2	26	24	48	0	13	2	50	Farm or garden, carpentry.
9	St. Augustine, Fla.	Henry N. Felkel.	2	4	1	2	21	22	31	4	2½	18	Carpentry, printing, sewing.
10	Cave Spring, Ga.	Wesley O. Connor.	5	5	2	0	2	80	67	95
11	Jacksonville, Ill.	S. T. Walker.	42	31	9	1	8	320	263	85	10	5	280	Farm or garden, carpentry, painting, shoemaking, printing, sewing.
12	Indianapolis, Ind.	Richard O. Johnson.	12	11	4	167	136	57
13	Council Bluffs, Iowa.	Henry W. Rother.	8	10	2	7	182	148	170	Carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing, dressmaking, broom making, baking.
14	Olathe, Kans.	A. A. Stewart.	9	18	2	6	119	121	20	9	9	2½	190	Farm or garden, carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing, etc.
15	Danville, Ky.	John E. Kay, A. M.	10	11	5	2	4	139	113	129	0	5	2½	115	Do.

16	Baton Rouge, La.....	Louisiana Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.	John Iastrzemski.....	3	1	2	3	41	39	29	1	14 ¹	49	Carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing.	
17	Baltimore, Md.....	Maryland School for Colored Blind and Deaf.	Fredertick D. Morrison	4	1	1	0	3	16	13	0	1	2-3	29	Shoemaking, sewing, washing and ironing, chamber work.	
18	Frederick, Md.....	Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb.	Charles W. Ely, M. A.	3	8	3	0	5	56	41	22	20	8	2 ¹	80	Carpentry, painting, shoemaking, printing, sewing, fancy needlework.	
19	Flint, Mich.....	Michigan School for the Deaf.....	Francis D. Clark.....	6	21	5	0	6	193	182	111	0	18	3-4	174	Tailoring, shoemaking, printing, sewing, baking, etc.	
20	Fairbault, Minn.....	Minnesota School for the Deaf.....	Dr. Jonathan L. Noyes	10	12	4	0	4	140	100	100	33	20	2 ¹	111	Carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing.	
21	Jackson, Miss.....	Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.	J. R. Dobyers.....	6	3	2	1	6	45	56	12	2 ¹	82	Carpentry, printing, sewing, cooking.	
22	Fulton, Mo.....	School for the Deaf and Dumb.....	James N. Tate.....	12	12	2	7	182	128	5	0	14	2 ¹	239	Carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing, tailoring, dress making, cutting, and fitting.	
23	Boulder, Mont.....	Montana Deaf and Blind School.....	J. A. Tillinghast.....	1	0	0	0	1	3	4	2	0	0	2	4	Sewing.	
24	Omaha, Nebr.....	Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.	J. A. Gillespie, A. M.	4	7	1	3	86	64	46	3	3	124	Farm or garden work, carpentry, painting, printing, sewing, etc.	
25	Trenton, N. J.....	New Jersey School for Deaf-Mutes.	Weston Jenkins.....	5	7	4	4	68	65	69	27	2	90	Carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing.	
26	Santa Fe, N. Mex.....	New Mexico Asylum for the Deaf, Dumb, and the Blind.	Lars M. Larson.....	1	1	1	0	0	10	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	Farm or garden work, carpentry, painting, printing, sewing, etc.
27	Buffalo, N. Y.....	Le Contreux St. Mary's Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.	Sister Mary Anne Burke.	2	16	11	2	6	77	71	141	57	22	2-3	85	Farm and garden work, wood carving, chair caning, tailoring, Venetian iron work, shoemaking, printing, sewing, cooking.	
28	Fordham, N. Y.....	St. Joseph's Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.	Ernestine Nardin.....	2	28	19	11	176	171	321	64	36	2-4	205	205	Farm or garden work, carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing.	
29	Malone, N. Y.....	Northern New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.	Henry C. Rider.....	3	5	6	4	57	33	65	19	11	3	55	Shoemaking, printing, sewing, etc.	
30	New York (904-922 Lexington ave.), N. Y.	Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.	D. Green.....	8	14	17	17	5	111	102	213	59	17	2	76	Carpentry, forging, sewing, cooking.	
31	New York (Station M), N. Y.	New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.	Enoch Henry Currier, A. M.	7	16	16	2	13	279	141	33	144	23	4	297	Farm or garden, carpentry, painting, shoemaking, printing, sewing, cooking, etc.	
32	Rochester, N. Y.....	Western New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.	Z. F. Westervelt.....	5	17	5	6	95	86	18	77	25	2	90	Plumbing, typewriting, farm or garden, carpentry, painting, printing, sewing.	
33	Rome, N. Y.....	Central New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.	Edward Beverly Nelson, B. A.	5	5	2	68	61	22	Carpentry and joinery, shoemaking, printing, engraving, drawing.	

* From 1893-94.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of State public institutions for the deaf, 1894-95—Continued.

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	Instructors.				Pupils.						Industrial department— Trades taught.				
			Male.	Female.	Articulation.	Aural devel- opment.	Industrial de- partment.	Male.	Female.	Taught by oral method.	Kindergarten.	Graduates in 1894-95.		Hours per day in industrial department.	Number in in- dustrial de- partment.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		
34	Morgantown, N. C.	North Carolina School for Deaf and Dumb.	E. McK. Goodwin	6	6	4	0	4	84	82	50	0	0	2 ¹ / ₂	95	Farm or garden work, carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing.	
35	Raleigh, N. C.	North Carolina Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind.	W. J. Young	3	2	1	1	3	31	28	10	2	2	2	30	Shoemaking, sewing, cooking, etc.	
36	Devil's Lake, N. Dak.	North Dakota School for the Deaf.	D. F. Bangs	1	2	1	1	2	21	16	0	0	2 ¹ / ₂	6	Printing.		
37	Columbus, Ohio.	Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.	John W. Jones, A. M.	9	18	6	6	5	224	222	92	0	2	2	133	Carpentry, tailoring, shoemaking, printing, sewing.	
38	Salem, Oreg.	Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes.	J. B. Early	5	2	0	0	2	37	39	25	4	1 ¹ / ₂	22	Printing, sewing, cooking.		
39	Edgewood Park, Pa.	Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.	William N. Burt	5	10	3	0	5	111	114	30	0	2 ¹ / ₂	152	Carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing, cooking, etc.		
40	Mount Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.	Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.	A. L. E. Crouter	7	37	34	0	7	259	243	352	36	2 ¹ / ₂ -5	384	Carpentry, painting, shoemaking, printing, sewing, etc.		
41	Philadelphia (Belmont and Mount- ment aves.), Pa.	Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age.	Mary S. Garnett	0	0	4	4	4	22	18	40	0	0	20	Garden work, sewing, house-work.		
42	Scranton, Pa.	Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf.	Mary B. C. Brown	2	7	6	0	3	27	32	59	0	3	2-3	33	Sloyd, shoemaking, sewing.	
43	Cedar Spring, S. C.	South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind.	N. F. Walker	2	5	2	0	4	54	38	16	5	3	0	0	0	
44	Sioux Falls, S. Dak.	South Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes.	James Shimpson	2	2	1	0	4	24	21	0	0	3	2 ¹ / ₂	35	Farm or garden, carpentry, printing, sewing, cooking.	
45	Knoxville, Tenn.	Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School.	Thomas L. Moses	6	5	2	2	3	116	104	30	33	2-3	100	Farm or garden, carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing.		
46	Austin, Tex.	Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute for Colored Youth.	W. H. Holland	0	2	1	1	2	22	16	2	0	0	0	14	Shoemaking, sewing.	
47	do	Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum.	A. T. Rose	12	10	3	0	5	140	100	35	0	3 ¹ / ₂	138	Farm or garden, carpentry, machine-shop work, shoemaking, printing, sewing, cooking, art.		

48	Salt Lake City, Utah	Utah School for the Deaf	Frank W. Metcalf.....	2	2	1	4	35	17	6	2	21 ¹ / ₂	38	Carpentry, printing, sewing, shoemaking.
49	Staunton, Va	Virginia Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and of the Blind. Washington School for Defective Youth.	Thomas S. Doyle.....	8	2	1	52	50	32
50	Vancouver, Wash....	West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind.	James Watson.....	2	4	1	0	2	35	0	0	3	8	Farm or garden, shoemaking, printing, sewing.
51	Romney, W. Va.....	Wisconsin School for the Deaf.....	C. H. Hill.....	5	2	1	0	5	64	14	0	13	2-3	116	Carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing, tailoring.
52	Delavan, Wis.....		John W. Swiler.....	10	10	7	6	137	80	18	2 ¹ / ₂	146	Carpentry, shoemaking, printing, sewing.

37	Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	3,000	230	91,700	6,000	85,700
38	Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes.....	300	200	100	30,000	8,000	12,000
39	Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.....	2,107	243	100	235,773	12,000	80	48,415
40	Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.....	6,000	281	1,000,000	134,453
41	Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age.....	58,000	17,000	11,290
42	Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf.....	85	280	155,000	14,719	13,116	10,011
43	South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind.....	800	53,000	17,288
44	South Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes.....	173	81,675	12,350	12,350
45	Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School.....	800	160	130,000	28,500	8,730	29,320
46	Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute for Colored Youth.....	75	236	37,000	8,951	8,951
47	Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum.....	850	181	250	220,000	51,320	1,200	43,429
48	Utah School for the Deaf.....	200	50	50	100,000	7,500	7,500
49	Virginia Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and of the Blind.....	700	250,000	37,500	37,500
50	Washington School for Defective Youth.....	0	110,000
51	West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind.....	880	190	85,000	22,040	30	22,040
52	Wisconsin School for the Deaf.....	2,400	209	200	110,000	42,000	38,387

* From 1893-94.

TABLE 4.—Summary of statistics of public day schools for the deaf, 1894-95.

Division and State.	Number of institutions.		Instructors.						Pupils.						Volumes in library.	Value of scientific apparatus.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
	1	2	Male.	Female.	Total.	Articulation.	Articular per-ception.	Industrial department.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Taught by oral method.	Kindergarten.	Graduates in 1894-95.					
United States	17	8	59	67	42	6	12	322	249	571	370	27	17	1,431	\$155	\$186,500	\$59,517	\$52,771	
North Atlantic Division	3	0	26	26	15	0	8	128	109	237	173	9	12	1,129	166,000	45,544	38,009	
Maine.....	1	0	8	8	8	0	0	38	26	64	0	3	200	8,000	12,460	4,925	
Massachusetts.....	1	0	11	11	0	0	3	56	57	113	113	0	9	67	98,000	18,084	18,084	
Rhode Island.....	1	0	7	7	7	0	5	34	26	60	60	9	34	60,000	15,000	15,000	
North Central Division	14	8	33	41	27	6	4	194	140	334	197	18	5	302	155	26,500	13,973	14,762	
Ohio.....	3	1	8	9	5	1	2	37	35	72	31	17	0	92	100	5,000	2,700	3,500	
Indiana.....	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	6	4	10	0	0	2	85	850	850	
Illinois.....	1	3	5	8	4	4	52	29	81	0
Wisconsin.....	7	2	14	16	14	1	2	61	32	93	93	1	1	123	55	13,500	8,223	8,212	
Minnesota.....	1	0	3	3	3	21	4	25	33	0
Missouri.....	1	1	3	4	1	0	0	17	26	43	40	0	2	0	2,200	2,200	2,200

TABLE 5.—Statistics of public day schools for the deaf, 1894-95.

Post-office.	Name	Executive officer.	Instructors.				Pupils.						Industrial depart-ment—Trades taught.			
			Male.	Female.	Articulation.	Aural develop-ment.	Industrial de-partment.	Male.	Female.	Taught by oral method.	Kindergarten.	Dismissed in 1894-95.		Hours per day in industrial department.	No. in industrial department.	
1	Chicago (179 West Monroe st.), Ill.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Chicago (179 West Monroe st.), Ill.	Chicago Day Schools for the Deaf	H. C. Hammond	3	5	4	4	52	29	1 1/2	8	Carpentry.
2	Evansville, Ind.	Evansville Day School for the Deaf	Paul Lange	1	0	0	0	0	6	4	0	0	2	Carpentry, painting,
3	Portland, Me.	Portland School for the Deaf	Elizabeth R. Taylor	0	8	8	0	0	38	26	0	3	2	forging, shoemak- ing, sewing, house- work, photography, saddlery, tailoring, loyd, printing, sew- ing.
4	Boston (178 Newberry st.), Mass.	The Horace Mann School for the Deaf	Miss Sarah Fuller	0	11	0	0	3	56	57	113	0	9	2	67	Carpentry, sewing,
5	Minneapolis, Minn.	Minneapolis Day School for the Deaf	Miss Alice I. Stout	0	3	3	21	14	33	0	0	ing, sewing, house- work, photography, saddlery, tailoring, loyd, printing, sew- ing.
6	St. Louis (Jefferson School, Ninth and Washington sts.), Mo.	St. Louis Day School for the Deaf	James H. Cloud	1	3	1	0	0	17	26	40	0	2	0	0	Carpentry, sewing,
7	Cincinnati (97 West Ninth st.), Ohio.	Oral School for the Deaf	Virginia A. Osborn	0	5	4	1	2	15	16	31	5	0	3	27	Carpentry, sewing,
8	Cincinnati, Ohio.	Public School for the Deaf	Caroline Fesenbeck	0	1	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	0	Carpentry, sewing,
9	Cleveland (Rockwell and Bond sts.), Ohio.	Cleveland Day School for the Deaf	J. H. Geary	1	1	1	18	15	0	12	0	Carpentry, sewing,
10	Providence, R. I.	Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf	Laura De L. Richards	0	7	7	0	5	34	26	60	9	2	34	Shoemaking, printing, sewing.
11	East Claire, Wis.	East Claire Day School for the Deaf	Miss Jennie C. Smith	0	1	1	5	5	Sewing.
12	La Crosse, Wis.	La Crosse Oral School for the Deaf	Minnie E. Taylor	1	2	1	1	1	2	5	7	0	1	7	Sewing.
13	Manitowoc, Wis.	Manitowoc School for the Deaf	Thomas E. Torrison	1	1	0	1	0	6	2	8	0	0	Do.
14	Milwaukee, Wis.	Milwaukee Public Day School for the Deaf	Paul Binner	1	6	7	0	0	31	21	55	0	0	0	0
15	Oshkosh, Wis.	Oshkosh Day School for the Deaf	Mrs. Jennie Bright Holden	0	1	1	0	0	3	1	4	0	0	0	0
16	Sheboygan, Wis.	Sheboygan Day School for the Deaf	H. Ray Kribs	0	1	1	0	0	4	0	4	1	0	0	0
17	Wausau, Wis.	Wausau Oral Day School for the Deaf	William R. Moss	0	2	2	0	0	7	3	10	0	0	0	0

TABLE 6.—Statistics of public day schools for the deaf, 1891-95.

Name.	1	2	3	4	5	Receipts.		Expenditures.	
						6	7	8	9
		Volumes in library.	Annual cost per capita.	Value of scientific apparatus.	Value of grounds and buildings.	State, county, or municipal appropriations.	From State, county, or city for buildings.	Buildings and improvements.	For support.
1 Chicago Day Schools for the Deaf.....									
2 Evansville Day School for the Deaf.....		85				\$850			\$850
3 Portland School for the Deaf.....		200	\$600		\$8,000	12,460			4,925
4 Horace Mann School for the Deaf.....		929	179		98,000	16,680	\$1,404	\$1,404	16,680
5 Minneapolis Day School for the Deaf.....									
6 St. Louis Day School for the Deaf.....		75	100			2,200			2,200
7 Oral School for the Deaf.....			100	\$100	5,000	2,700			2,700
8 Cleveland Day School for the Deaf.....		17							800
9 Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf.....					60,000	15,000			15,000
10 Eau Claire Day School for the Deaf.....									
11 La Crosse Oral School for the Deaf.....		25	105			851			857
12 Manitowoc School for the Deaf.....		0				1,000			1,000
13 Milwaukee Public Day School for the Deaf.....		88	125	50	15,000	5,000	0	0	5,000
14 Oshkosh Day School for the Deaf.....									
15 Sheboygan Day School for the Deaf.....		0		0		400	0	0	400
16 Wausau Oral Day School for the Deaf.....		12	125	5	500	972			975

TABLE 7.—Summary of statistics of private schools for the deaf, 1894-95.

Division and State.	Number of schools.			Instructors.				Pupils.						
	♂	Male.	Female.	Total.	Articulation.	Articular per-ception.	Industrial de-partment.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Taught by the oral method.	Kindergarten.	Graduates in 1894-95.	Industrial de-partment.
I														
United States.....	19	15	81	96	66	22	24	322	200	612	371	50	35	108
North Atlantic Division.....	7	3	39	42	37	12	4	134	104	238	214	31	4	16
Massachusetts.....	3	0	27	27	22	3	104	76	180	156	13	4
Connecticut.....	1	0	3	3	3	1	1	8	9	17	17	6	16
New York.....	3	3	9	12	12	11	0	22	19	41	41	12
South Atlantic Division.....	1	2	3	5	5	5	15	10	25	25	5
Maryland.....	1	2	3	5	5	5	15	10	25	25	5
South Central Division.....	1	2	6	8	2	3	5	32	15	47	3	47
Louisiana.....	1	2	6	8	2	3	5	32	15	47	3	47
North Central Division.....	10	8	33	41	22	2	15	141	161	302	129	19	26	105
Ohio.....	1	0	1	1	1	5	3	5	5
Illinois.....	2	0	18	18	8	3	71	75	146	38	17	17	28
Michigan.....	1	3	0	3	3	0	18	22	40	40	0	5
Wisconsin.....	3	4	4	8	4	0	4	27	20	47	9	2	4	29
Iowa.....	1	2	3	5
Missouri.....	2	1	10	11	6	2	8	59	38	97	37	0	0	48

TABLE 8.—Statistics of private schools for the deaf, 1894-95.

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	Instructors.				Pupils.						Industrial department— Trades taught.		
			Male.	Female.	Articulation.	Anal develop- ment.	Industrial de- partment.	Male.	Female.	Taught by oral method.	Kindergarten.	Graduates in 1894-95.		Hours per day in Industrial de- partment.	Number in Indus- trial department.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Mystic, Conn.	Whipple Home School	0	3	3	3	1	8	9	17	6	11	1	16	Farm or garden, oil painting, sewing, wood carving.
2	Chicago (469 S. May st.), Ill.	Diphnetta School for the Deaf.	0	10	47	61
3	Chicago (6550 Yale ave.), Ill.	The McCowan Oral School for Young Deaf Children.	8	8	3	24	14	38	17	6	28	28	Sloyd, machine shop, sewing, housework.
4	Dubuque, Iowa.	Eastern Iowa School for the Deaf.	2	3
5	Chinchuba, La.	Charitable Deaf-Mute Institution of Holy Rosary.	2	6	2	3	5	32	15	3	3-5	47	Farm or garden, car- pentry, printing, sew- ing, cooking.
6	Baltimore, Md.	F. Knapp's Institute.	2	3	5	5	15	10	25	5
7	Beverly, Mass.	New England Industrial School for Deaf- Mutes.	3	2	15	9	4	20	Farm or garden, sew- ing, cooking.
8	Northampton, Mass.	Clarke Institution for Deaf-Mutes	20	18	3	81	62	143	0	54	Sewing, wood carving, cabinetwork.
9	West Medford, Mass.	Sarah Fuller Home for Little Children who can not Hear.	4	2	8	5	13	13	4
10	North Detroit, Mich.	Evangelical Lutheran Deaf and Dumb Asylum.	3	0	3	0	0	18	22	40	0	5	23	Farm or garden, sew- ing, cooking.
11	Longwood, South St. Louis, Mo.	St. Joseph's Deaf-Mute Institute for Boys.	1	3	2	2	2	13	2	0	0	23	4	Farm or garden, car- pentry, sewing, cook- ing, etc.
12	St. Louis, Mo.	Maria Consilia School for the Deaf.	0	7	4	0	6	8	36	37	0	0	23	44	Sewing, cooking, etc.
13	Albany (N. Pine ave.), N. Y.	Albany Home School for the Oral Instruc- tion of the Deaf.	3	3	3	3	10	9	19	10	1	19	Carpentry, sewing, em- broidery.
14	New York (41 W. 46th st.), N. Y.	Articulation Class	1	1	1	0	6	1	7	2
15	New York (42 W. 76th st.), N. Y.	Wright-Humason School	3	5	8	7	6	9	15
16	Cincinnati (E. 6th st.), Ohio.	Notre Dame School for the Deaf.	0	2	2	11	8	19
17	Fond du Lac, Wis.	Fond du Lac School for the Deaf.	0	1	1	2	3	5
18	Marinette, Wis.	Marinette School for the Deaf	0	1	1	3	1	4
19	St. Francis, Wis.	St. John's Catholic Deaf-Mute Institute.	4	2	2	0	4	22	16	0	0	2	4	29	Painting, shoemaking, sewing, cooking, wood carving.

TABLE 9.—Summary of statistics of State public institutions for the blind, 1894-5.

Division and State.	Instructors.				Pupils.										Value of scientific apparatus.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Receipts.	Expenditures.		
	Male.		Female.		Total.	Kindergarten.	Vocal music.			Instrumental.		Graduates in 1894-5.	Industrial department.							
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15					16	17
United States	37	131	198	329	124	92	2,053	1,688	3,741	497	1,844	1,738	146	2,440	73,172	\$25,869	\$6,124,197	\$860,609	\$948,452	
North Atlantic Division	5	25	56	81	37	26	442	385	827	145	382	408	56	606	25,851	7,889	1,365,000	201,312	250,408	
Massachusetts	1	13	23	36	17	7	118	101	219	66	86	99	4	14,810	5,889	437,237	30,000	
New York	2	9	21	30	11	12	210	188	398	56	215	201	17	397	4,483	2,000	762,857	173,443	163,635	
Pennsylvania	2	3	12	15	9	7	114	96	210	23	81	108	35	209	6,558	2,000	164,806	27,669	56,803	
South Atlantic Division	8	29	21	50	18	14	227	178	405	51	187	196	20	258	5,070	0	830,000	93,715	136,989	
Maryland	2	11	7	18	4	5	78	43	121	12	56	68	3	79	655	0	350,000	25,600	32,727	
Virginia	1	6	2	8	3	3	27	21	48	0	13	35	5	48	500	250,000	6,37,500	
West Virginia	1	2	3	5	2	2	23	28	51	0	26	33	7	49	1,524	0	85,000	10,139	9,669	
North Carolina	1	7	7	14	7	2	69	62	134	21	92	60	31	1,016	75,000	35,800	
South Carolina	1	3	1	4	1	2	24	18	42	18	1	42	1,375	55,000	17,000	17,817	
Georgia	1
Florida	1	0	1	1	1	6	3	9	9	9	13,000	3,476	
South Central Division	9	26	36	62	19	20	395	360	755	115	433	277	28	431	12,145	6,000	774,000	152,137	181,384	
Kentucky	1	4	5	9	2	2	68	62	130	25	130	7	96	2,500	1,500	125,000	58,081	26,576	
Tennessee	1	3	8	11	2	4	70	50	120	30	120	105	6	120	2,000	190,000	19,500	19,500	
Alabama	2	8	4	12	3	3	58	40	98	0	77	42	0	78	1,470	47,000	7,360	22,540	
Mississippi	1	1	4	5	1	18	20	38	12	31	21	5	18	1,200	75,000	1,000	16,000	
Louisiana	1	2	4	6	2	4	18	16	34	25	22	4	24	800	40,000	7,500	9,500	
Texas	2	3	6	9	7	4	88	82	170	39	23	52	6	9	3,575	2,500	187,000	40,000	51,572	
Arkansas	1	5	5	10	2	3	75	90	165	18	27	35	86	600	2,000	200,000	18,696	35,696	
North Central Division	10	46	24	120	45	28	617	692	1,609	180	739	753	36	1,108	26,981	11,380	2,438,197	341,941	335,984	
Ohio	1	8	11	19	8	4	167	129	296	89	110	147	5	255	3,357	5,000	750,000	55,749	64,488	
Indiana	1	0	7	13	3	2	71	70	150	12	84	28	82	2,500	4,100	409,638	33,889	33,889	
Illinois	1	6	7	15	10	4	262	56	358	45	28	120	3	150	3,021	224,259	34,724	47,000	

a Includes the deaf.

TABLE 9.—Summary of statistics of State public institutions for the blind, 1894-95—Continued.

Division and State.	Number of insti- tutions.		Instructors.						Pupils.						Vol- umes in library.	Value of sci- entific appara- tus.	Value of grounds and build- ings.	Receipts.	Expendi- tures.						
	1	2	Male.	Female.	Total.	Music.	Industrial de- partment.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Kindergarten.	Vocal music.	Instrumental music.	Graduates in 1894-95.						Industrial de- partment.	16	17	18	19	20
North Central Division—Cont'd.																									
Michigan	1	4	7	11	3	4	56	39	95	24	19	48	0	84	2,160	130	143,000	21,000	21,000	21,000					
Wisconsin	1	2	12	14	3	5	60	32	112	6	95	72	0	103	6,500	900	166,300	73,000	51,000	51,000					
Minnesota	1	1	7	3	4	2	37	30	67	15	52	45	2	32	60,000	21,842	21,842	21,842					
Iowa	1	6	7	13	4	2	92	105	197	110	130	11	130	2,500	500	230,000	53,566	53,566	53,566					
Missouri	1	5	8	13	5	2	56	60	116	23	53	83	8	78	4,000	350	200,000	28,000	28,000	28,000					
Nebraska	1	3	7	10	3	1	48	40	88	78	80	98	1,343	400	75,000	50,000	50,000	50,000					
Kansas	1	4	5	9	2	2	68	62	130	25	130	7	96	600	0	100,000	20,570	20,570	16,709					
Western Division.....	5	5	11	16	5	4	72	73	145	6	103	104	6	37	3,125	600	717,000	71,504	71,504	43,604					
Montana	1	1	1	2	1	0	2	5	7	0	4	4	0	4	0	0	27,144	27,144	7,144					
Colorado	1	1	3	4	1	2	33	20	53	37	28	0	500	500	200,000	14,840	14,840	14,840					
Washington	1	0	1	1	1	1	6	7	13	0	13	6	9	250	0	100,000					
Oregon	1	1	4	5	1	1	8	20	28	6	28	25	3	24	375	100	17,000	17,200	17,200	14,300					
California	1	2	2	4	1	0	23	21	44	0	21	41	3	0	2,000	0	400,000	12,320	12,320	12,320					

TABLE 10.—Statistics of State public institutions for the blind, 1894-95.

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	Instructors.				Pupils.						Industrial department.—Trades taught.			
			Male.	Female.	Music.	Industrial department.	Male.	Female.	Kindergarten.	Vocal music.	Instrumental	Graduates in 1894-95.		Taught in industrial department.		
1	Talladega, Ala.....	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
	Alabama Academy for the Blind.....	J. H. Johnson.....	5	3	2	2	2	38	23	0	45	32	0	54		Matress making, horse collar making, mat making, cane seating, basket making.
2do.....	Alabama School for Negro Deaf-Mutes and Blind.*	3	1	1	1	1	20	12	0	32	10	0	24		Matress making, chair caning.
3	Little Rock, Ark.....	Arkansas School for the Blind.....	5	5	2	3	75	90	18	27	35	86		Typewriting, broom making, mat-tress making, chair caning, etc.	
4	Berkeley, Cal.....	California Institution for the Education of the Deaf, Dumb, and the Blind.	2	2	1	0	23	21	0	21	41	3	0			
5	Colorado Springs, Colo.	Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind.	1	3	1	2	33	20	37	28	0			Broom making (16), matress making (16), sewing and crocheting (18).
6	St. Augustine, Fla..	Florida Institute for the Blind, Deaf, and Dumb.	1	1	6	3	9	9			
7	Macon, Ga.....	Georgia Academy for the Blind a.....			
8	Jacksonville, Ill.....	Illinois Institution for the Education of the Blind.	7	8	10	4	262	96	45	28	120	3	150			Sewing by hand and machine, bead-work, chair caning, broom making, hammock making, piano tuning.
9	Indianapolis, Ind.....	Indiana Institute for the Education of the Blind.*	6	7	3	2	71	79	12	84	28	82			Typewriting, tuning, broom making, matress making, chair caning, etc.
10	Vinton, Iowa.....	Iowa College for the Blind.....	6	7	4	2	92	105	110	130	11	139			Netting, carpet weaving, sewing, beadwork, knitting, fancy work.
11	Kansas City, Kans..	Kansas Institution for the Education of the Blind.	1	7	1	2	44	41	0	10	50	9	44			Broom making, fancy work, machine and plain sewing.
12	Louisville, Ky.....	Kentucky Institute for the Education of the Blind.	4	5	2	2	68	62	25	130	7	96			Piano tuning, broom making, caning.
13	Baton Rouge, La.....	Louisiana Institution for the Education of the Blind and Industrial Home for the Blind.*	2	4	2	4	18	16	25	22	4	24			Typewriting, broom making, mat-tress making, caning.
14	Baltimore, Md.....	Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf.	4	1	1	2	15	7	21	14	0	23			Matress making, chair caning, sewing, etc.

a The Bureau has received no statistics from this institution since 1889-90.

† From 1892-93.

* From 1893-94.

30	Cedar Springs, S. C.	South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind.	N. F. Walker	3	1	1	2	24	18	1	42	Brush, broom, mattress, and mat making, chair seating, plain and fancy sewing, bead work, and crocheting.	
31	Nashville, Tenn.	Tennessee School for the Blind.	David Lipscomb, jr.	3	8	2	4	70	50	30	105	6	120	Broom making, chair caning, mattress making, sewing, knitting, etc.
32	Austin, Tex.	Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute for Colored Youth.	W. H. Holland	1	2	1	20	23	19	13	
33do	Institution for the Blind	E. P. Beeton, M. D.	3	5	6	3	82	75	30	10	46	6
34	Staunton, Va.	Virginia Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and of the Blind.*	Thomas S. Doyle	6	2	3	3	27	21	0	13	35	48
35	Vancouver, Wash.	Washington School for Defective Youth.	James Watson	0	1	1	1	6	7	0	13	6	0	9
36	Romney, W. Va.	West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind.	C. H. Hill	2	3	2	2	23	28	0	26	33	7	49
37	Janesville, Wis.	Wisconsin School for the Blind	Howard F. Bliss	2	12	3	5	60	52	5	95	72	0	103

* From 1893-94.

α The Bureau has received no statistics from this institution since 1891-92.

TABLE 11.—Statistics of State public institutions for the blind, 1894-95.

Name.	1	2	3	4	5	Receipts.		Expenditures.	
						State, county, or municipal appropriations.	From State, county, or city for building.	Buildings and improvements.	For support.
Alabama Academy for the Blind.....	729	\$220			\$35,000			\$	9
Alabama School for Negro Deaf-Mutes and Blind*.....	750	230			12,000	\$7,360		7,360	15,180
Arkansas School for the Blind.....	600			\$2,000	200,000	18,695			35,695
California Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.....	2,000		280	0	400,000	12,320			12,320
Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind.....	500		260	500	200,000	14,840			14,840
Florida Institute for the Blind, Deaf, and Dumb.....			164		15,000	1,476	\$2,000	\$2,000	1,476
Georgia Academy for the Blind ^a	3,021		261		224,250			2,000	45,000
Illinois Institution for the Education of the Blind*.....	2,500		223	4,100	469,638	34,724		2,989	30,800
Indiana Institute for the Education of the Blind.....	2,500		204	500	200,000	231,576		2,500	33,065
Iowa College for the Blind.....	600		205	1,500	100,000	31,504	26,577	3,970	16,709
Kansas Institution for the Education of the Blind.....	2,500		200		40,000	7,500		2,000	22,006
Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind and Industrial Home for the Blind*.....	800		60		40,000	4,600		2,937	4,600
Maryland School for Colored Blind and Deaf.....	400		200		35,000	4,000			28,127
Maryland School for the Blind.....	255		286	0	315,000	21,000	0	0	30,000
Peckins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind.....	14,810		200	130	437,237	30,000		1,779	19,221
Michigan School for the Blind.....	3,160		282		143,000	21,000	5,600	5,600	16,242
Minnesota School for the Blind.....	1,200		250	350	75,000	16,242	1,000		16,000
Institution for the Blind of Mississippi.....	4,000		536		200,000	29,500	25,000		28,000
Missouri School for the Blind.....	0		536		0	2,144	25,000		2,144
Montana Deaf and Blind School.....	1,343		250		400	75,000		3,500	13,500
Nebraska Institution for the Blind*.....	1,483		264	150	378,000	40,000	6	0	40,000
New York State Institution for the Blind.....	3,000		200	5,739	384,937	133,443			123,695
New York Institution for the Blind*.....	1,016		200		75,000			9,000	36,800
North Carolina Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.....	3,357		206	5,000	750,000	55,749		8,739	55,749
Ohio Institution for the Education of the Blind.....	3,375		233	100	17,000	15,200	2,000		13,000
Oregon School for the Blind.....	6,558		340	2,000	164,806	27,869			56,803
Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind.....			131		55,000	17,000		500	17,317
West Virginia Institution for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind.....	1,375		200		100,000	19,500	0		19,500
South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind.....	175		213		37,000	9,122			9,122
Tennessee School for the Blind.....	3,400		200	2,500	150,000	40,000	0	2,450	40,000
Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute for Colored Youth.....	500		500		250,000	37,500			37,500
Institution for the Blind.....	250		189		100,000				
Virginia Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and of the Blind*.....	1,524		300	900	85,000	9,639	500	30	9,639
Washington School for Defective Youth.....	6,500		300		166,300	42,000	31,000	1,800	33,000
West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind.....									
Wisconsin School for the Blind.....									

* From 1893-94. ^a The Bureau has received no statistics from this institution since 1889-90. ^b The Bureau has received no statistics from this institution since 1891-92.

TABLE 13. — *Statistics of State public institutions for the feeble-minded, 1894-95.*

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	Instructors.				Pupils.				Industrial department.—Trades taught and number pursuing.		
			Male.	Female.	Industrial department.	Assistants caring for inmates.	Male.	Female.	Kindergarten.	Musie.			
1	Glen Ellen, Cal.....	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
2	Lincoln, Ill.....	California Home for the Care and Training of Feeble-Minded Children.*	A. E. Osborne, M.D.	4	5	7	13	170	130	31	37	Shoemaking (4), engine room (2), laundry (8), carpenter (1), on grounds (8), curing fruit (10).	
3	Fort Wayne, Ind.....	Illinois Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children.	Ambrose M. Miller...	2	9	5	98	345	277	52	60	Shoemaking (7), brush making (18), mattress making (6), embroidery (28), laundry (25), farm (15), garden (30), tailoring (7), lace making (9), dressmaking (15).	
4	Glenwood, Iowa.....	Indiana School for Feeble-Minded Youth.	Alexander Johnson...	8	8	7	24	302	249	24	95	Carpentry (5), shoemaking (12), tailoring (9), bakery (4), gardening (10), florist (3), farming (15), mattress making (6), plumbing and steam fitting (3), stable work (6), cooking (6), dressmaking (15), sewing (20), laundering (25).	
5	Winfield, Kans.....	Iowa Institution for Feeble-Minded Children.	Frances M. Powell....	6	16	12	29	364	258	48	66	Sewing (81), domestic (55), laundry (20), wood carving and turning (12), carpenter (1), farm (20), engineering (3), brickyard (9), Farm work.	
6	Frankfort, Ky.....	Kansas State Asylum for Idiotic and Imbecile Youth.†	Dr. C. S. Newton.....	3	20	61	46	32	107	Sewing (24), shoemaking (10), broom making (10), gardening (10).	
7	Wareley, Mass.....	Kentucky Institution for Feeble-Minded Children.	J. T. Perry.....	3	5	55	5	62	59	0	All the children have systematic training in industrial work, according to their ability, such as domestic work, farming, carpentry, painting, sewing, laundry work, etc.	
8	Lapeer, Mich.....	Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded.	Walter E. Fernald....	3	8	6	62	280	194	150	100		
9	Faribault, Minn.....	Michigan Home for the Feeble-Minded and Epileptic.	W. A. Polighase, M.D....	6	2	11	Brass hammering (3), scroll sawing (12), brush making (34), mat making (34), sewing (60), lace making (13), hammock making (4).	
10	Bearrice, Nebr.....	Minnesota School for Feeble-Minded.	A. C. Rogus, M.D.....	2	9	3	82	252	244	39	57	Brush making (20), needlework (12).	
		Nebraska Institution for Feeble-Minded Youth.	J. T. Armstrong.....	1	5	2	10	111	98		

11	Vineland, N. J.	New Jersey Training School for Feeble-Minded Children.	S. Olin Garrison	4	11	8	25	154	63	24
12do	New Jersey State Institution for Feeble-Minded Women. [†]	Mary J. Dunlap, M. D.	5	5	0	74	12	5
13	Newark, N. Y.	State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-Minded Women.	C. W. Winspear	0	1	2	23	0	371	60	15
14	New York, N. Y.	School for Feeble-Minded.....	Mrs. M. C. Dunphy	0	3	6	6	123	67	40	100
15	Syracuse, N. Y.	Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children.	James C. Carson, M. D.	1	12	10	38	293	283	24	33
16	Columbus, Ohio	Ohio Institution for Feeble-Minded Youth.	G. A. Doren.....	2	23	8	42	626	420	306
17	Elwyn, Pa.	Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children.	Martin W. Barr.....	1	21	121	18	573	409	40	40
18	Vancouver, Wash.	Washington School for Defective Youth.	James Watson	1	2	2	5	27	19	32	10

* From 1893-94.

† From 1892-93.

Sewing (10), washing and ironing (30), cooking (6), housework (6).
 Sewing (59), knitting, crocheting, and fancy work (25), mending, laundry, work, and all household employment (125).
 Sewing (25), washing (6), ironing (6), tailoring (21), basket making (4), mattress making (29), tinsmithing (5), shoemaking (9), gardening (11).
 Carpenter shop (2), shoe shop (6), bakery (3), tailoring (7), sewing (78), mat making (4), farm and garden (22), painting (1), engineering (2), ironing (16), knitting (12), laundry (16), etc.
 Sewing (59), ironing (2), dining-room work (12), tailoring (6), baking (3), carpentering (2), shoemaking (15), pipe fitting (2), painting (3), farming and gardening (76), caring for stock (5).
 Tailoring (16), farming (21), mattress making (29), baking (7), carpentering (12), hammock making (19), shoemaking (7), painting (7), laundry (65).

TABLE 14.—Statistics of State public institutions for the feeble-minded, 1894-95.

Name.	Volumes in library.		Value of scientific apparatus.		Value of grounds and buildings.		Receipts.		Expenditures.	
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
1 California Home for the Care and Training of Feeble-Minded *	60	\$350	\$400,000	\$98,676	\$45,692	\$54,248			
2 Illinois Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children.....	650	300,500	92,292	2,000	93,908			
3 Indiana School for Feeble-Minded Youth.....	400	350	300,000	87,763	\$15,000	15,000	87,763			
4 Iowa Institution for Feeble-Minded Children.....	360	200	300,000	83,000	49,850	49,850	83,000			
5 Kansas State Asylum for Idiots and Imbecile Youth.....	100	100	75,300	60,000	18,180			
6 Kentucky Institution for Feeble-Minded Children.....	0	0	50,000	24,395	1,200	1,200	20,080			
7 Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded.....	500	850	349,727	74,684	8,448	69,953			
8 Michigan Home for the Feeble-Minded and Epileptics.....	68,000	75,000	75,000			
9 Minnesota School for Feeble-Minded.....	298,074	76,918	18,950	15,080	76,918			
10 Nebraska Institution for Feeble-Minded Youth.....	100	200	120,000	36,038	36,038			
11 New Jersey Training School for Feeble-Minded Children.....	650	100,000	69,590	19,194	48,474			
12 New Jersey Training School for Feeble-Minded Women.....	300	25,000	25,000	17,020			
13 New York State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-Minded Women.....	175	0	147,825	42,500	13,336	42,366			
14 School for the Feeble-Minded.....			
15 Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children.....	350	419,827	89,604	6,047	91,902			
16 Ohio Institution for Feeble-Minded Youth.....	698,582	204,046	8,766	6,827	145,431			
17 Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children.....	555,595	219,495	219,495			
18 Washington School for Defective Youth.....	20,000			

* From 1893-94.

† From 1892-93.

TABLE 15.—Summary of statistics of private institutions for the feeble-minded, 1894-95.

Division and State.	Number of institutions.		Instructors.				Pupils.						
	♂	♀	Male.	Female.	Total.	Industrial depart-ment.	Assistants caring for inmates.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Kindergarten.	Music.	Industrial depart-ment.
I													
United States.....	10	4	35	39	48	50	229	142	371	131	139	77	
North Atlantic Division.....	8	2	30	32	40	40	191	123	314	91	114	55	
Massachusetts.....	3	1	9	10	22	23	57	20	77	15	47	
Connecticut.....	1	1	3	3	3	10	95	60	155	49	41	29	
New York.....	1	1	1	1	1	10	9	19	0	19	
New Jersey.....	3	1	17	18	15	7	29	34	63	30	7	26	
South Atlantic Division.....	1	1	2	3	4	25	7	32	12	0	22	
Maryland.....	1	1	2	3	4	25	7	32	12	0	22	
North Central Division.....	1	1	3	4	4	10	13	12	25	25	25	
Michigan.....	1	1	3	4	4	10	13	12	25	25	25	

TABLE 16.—Statistics of private institutions for the feeble-minded, 1894-95.

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.	Instructors.		Pupils.			Industrial department—Trades taught and number pursuing.			
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Kindergarten.		Music.		
1	Lakeville, Conn.	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Lakeville, Conn.	George H. Knight, M. D.	3	3	10	95	69	49	41		Farm or garden (6), sewing (2).
2	Ellicott City, Md.	Samuel J. Fort, M. D.	1	2	4	25	7	12	0		Housework (18), farm work (1), torchon lace (2), mat making (1).
3	Amherst, Mass.	Mrs. W. D. Herrick.	0	2	2	3	9	1	3		
4	Barre, Mass.	C. W. Brown, G. A. Brown, M. D.	1	5	16	29	45	16	12	45	
5	Fayville, Mass.	Haddonfield Training School.	2	4	4	3	3	3	3		
6	Kalamazoo, Mich.	Wilbur Home and School for the Feeble-Minded.	1	3	4	10	13	12	25	25	
7	Cranberry, N. J.	Private Home and School for Feeble-Minded and Underdeveloped Minds.	1	1	2	9	10	6	1		Household (8), gardening (2).
8	Haddonfield, N. J.	Haddonfield Training School.	5	15	6	6	10	7	4		Woodwork (16).
9	Orange, N. J.	Seguin School for Children of Arrested Development.	11	11	1	14	14	17	2		
10	Amityville, N. Y.	Brunswick Home.	1	1	10	9	0	19			

XII.—REFORM SCHOOLS.
TABLE 1.—Summary of statistics of reform schools, 1894-95.

Division and State.	Number of schools.	Pupils.										Value of grounds and buildings.			Expenditures.			
		Sex.		Race.		Nativity.		Illiteracy.		During year.		Teachers.	Pupils.	Tanght mechanical trade.	17	18	19	
		Male.	Female.	White.	Colored.	Native born.	Foreign born.	Could only read.	Could neither read nor write.	Committed.	Discharged.							Buildings and improvements.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
United States.....	83	1,392	17,867	4,031	17,568	2,375	7,717	6,228	4,216	2,318	10,889	9,973	495	19,862	5,619	\$16,644,061	\$707,356	\$3,422,260
North Atlantic Division.....	34	574	9,335	1,369	9,065	878	2,693	3,794	2,089	1,064	5,875	6,102	262	10,437	5,309	9,206,401	284,338	1,894,750
Maine.....	2	27	140	76	213	3	80	25	100	17	89	49	6	216	44	140,000	3,775	31,162
New Hampshire.....	1	10	116	17	131	2	75	25	80	20	40	35	3	133	133	40,000	3,000	12,000
Vermont.....	1	15	85	15	96	4	127	276	114	43	579	355	30	100	60	100,000	15,375
Massachusetts.....	11	110	864	121	489	14	12	12	3	190	138	9	268	125	491	512,689	14,012	116,227
Rhode Island.....	2	34	242	26	233	35	14	12	213	32	212	366	15	681	284	400,000	52,702
Connecticut.....	2	78	442	244	347	209	158	158	213	32	344	346	15	581	2,909	450,000	5,964	113,992
New York.....	8	154	5,217	468	5,357	318	1,480	2,861	1,054	646	3,344	3,426	151	5,598	2,909	4,581,888	100,078	1,027,793
New Jersey.....	3	64	563	140	616	87	30	78	16	13	292	320	13	703	380	424,186	38,424	123,771
Pennsylvania.....	4	82	1,666	272	1,583	365	648	359	512	290	1,149	1,318	32	1,824	883	2,557,641	59,085	401,727
South Atlantic Division.....	9	81	1,414	67	1,031	450	1,122	217	555	158	687	552	38	1,460	824	1,154,500	14,958	142,504
Delaware.....	1	2	12	12	12	1	0	5	3	12	9,000	3,100	670
Maryland.....	4	64	941	67	733	275	797	189	476	110	435	367	22	987	574	810,000	6,858	83,836
District of Columbia.....	1	1	221	86	135	98	14	33	3	112	92	8	221	136	273,000	40,230
Virginia.....	1	5	110	0	110	0	107	3	40	20	60	38	3	110	12,500	11,148
West Virginia.....	1	9	102	0	82	20	95	7	63	50	4	102	106	40,000	5,000	3,000
Georgia.....	1	3	28	0	20	8	25	3	4	20	14	1	1	28	0	8,000	3,000
South Central Division.....	4	51	517	257	528	246	347	150	60	80	529	282	12	578	220	41,000	800	62,012
Kentucky.....	2	46	240	257	423	74	347	150	40	70	299	48	9	406	220	350,000	33,000
Louisiana.....	1	4	85	0	15	70	20	290	234	1	82	0	9,012
Texas.....	1	1	192	0	90	102	2	90	60,000	800	20,000

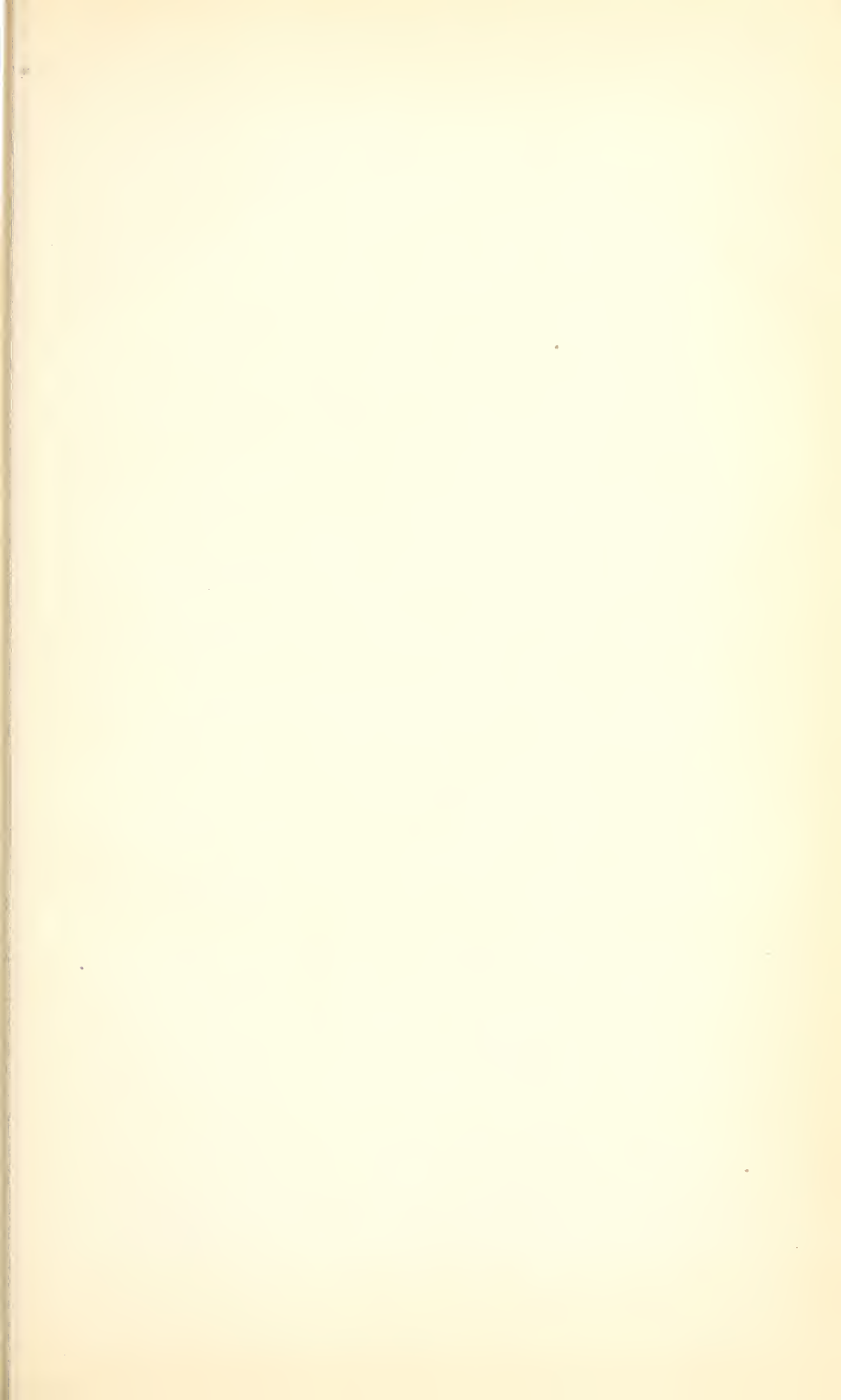


TABLE 2.—Statistics of

Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.
1	2	3
1 Flagstaff, Ariz.....	Reformatory Institution for Juvenile Offenders. ^a	A. R. Edwards.....
2 Ione, Cal.....	Preston School of Industry.....	E. Carl Bank.....
3 Whittier, Cal.....	Whittier State School.....	John E. Coffin.....
4 Golden, Colo.....	State Industrial School.....	G. A. Garard.....
5 Meriden, Conn.....	Connecticut School for Boys.....	Samuel Thatcher.....
6 Middletown, Conn.....	Connecticut Industrial School for Girls.....	W. G. Fairbank.....
7 Wilmington, Del.....	Delaware Industrial School for Girls.....	
8 Washington, D. C.....	Reform School of the District of Columbia.....	G. A. Shallenberger.....
9 Augusta, Ga.....	Richmond County Reformatory Institute [*]	Daniel C. Stelling.....
10 Chicago, Ill.....	Erving Woman's Refuge for Reform.....	Helen M. Woods.....
11 Glenwood, Ill.....	Illinois School of Agriculture and Manual Training.....	Ursula L. Harrison.....
12 Pontiac, Ill.....	Illinois State Reformatory [*]	R. W. McClaughry.....
13 North Evanston, Ill.....	Illinois Industrial School for Girls [*]	Miss Fannie Morgan.....
14 Indianapolis, Ind.....	Indiana Reform School for Girls and Woman's Prison.....	Miss Sarah F. Keely.....
15 Plainfield, Ind.....	Indiana Reform School for Boys [*]	T. J. Charlton.....
16 Eldora, Iowa.....	Iowa Industrial School [*]	B. J. Miles.....
17 Mitchellville, Iowa.....	Iowa Industrial School for Girls.....	C. C. Cory.....
18 Beloit, Kans.....	Industrial School for Girls.....	Mrs. S. V. Lceper.....
19 North Topeka, Kans.....	Kansas State Reform School, Boys.....	W. H. Howell.....
20 Louisville, Ky.....	Louisville Industrial School of Reform [†]	Peter Caldwell.....
21 Newport, Ky.....	Convent of the Good Shepherd.....	Mother M. of St. Scholastic.....
22 New Orleans, La.....	Boys' House of Refuge.....	W. C. Staunton.....
23 Hallowell, Me.....	Maine Industrial School for Girls.....	E. Rowell.....
24 Portland, Me.....	State Reform School.....	Joseph R. Farrington.....
25 Baltimore, Md.....	House of Refuge.....	W. J. Kirkwood.....
26 do.....	Female House of Refuge [*]	W. K. Bibb.....
27 Carroll Station, Md.....	St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys of the City of Baltimore.....	Brother Dominic.....
28 Cheltenham, Md.....	House of Reformation.....	Gen. John W. Horn.....
29 Boston, Mass.....	do.....	H. C. Twitchell.....
30 Deer Island, Boston, Mass.....	Truant School [*]	James R. Gerrish.....
31 Lancaster, Mass.....	State Industrial School for Girls.....	Mrs. L. L. Brackett.....
32 Lawrence, Mass.....	Essex County Truant School.....	Henry E. Swan.....
33 Lowell, Mass.....	Lowell Reform School [*]	Cornelius E. Collins.....
34 North Chelmsford, Mass.....	Middlesex County Truant School.....	M. A. Warren.....
35 Salem, Mass.....	Plummer Farm School.....	Charles A. Johnson.....
36 Springfield, Mass.....	Hampden County Truant School.....	Frank H. King.....
37 Walpole, Mass.....	Norfolk, Bristol, and Plymouth Union Truant School.....	Aaron R. Morse.....
38 Westboro, Mass.....	Lyman School for Boys.....	Theodore F. Chapin.....
39 West Roxbury, Mass.....	Parental School.....	Moses Perkins.....
40 Adrian, Mich.....	State Industrial Home for Girls.....	Lucy M. Sickels.....
41 Detroit, Mich.....	Preservation Class of the House of the Good Shepherd.....	Anna Margaret Miller.....
42 Ionia, Mich.....	State House of Correction and Reformatory.....	J. D. Fuller.....
43 Lansing, Mich.....	Industrial School for Boys [*]	J. E. St. John.....
44 Red Wing, Minn.....	Minnesota State Training School for Boys and Girls.....	J. W. Brown.....
45 St. Cloud, Minn.....	Minnesota State Reformatory.....	William E. Lee.....
46 Booneville, Mo.....	Missouri State Reform School for Boys.....	L. D. Drake.....
47 Chillicothe, Mo.....	State Industrial Home for Girls.....	Emma M. Gilbert.....
48 St. Louis, Mo.....	House of Refuge.....	Isaac S. Bristol.....
49 Miles City, Mont.....	Montana State Reform School.....	A. J. Hylton.....
50 Geneva, Nebr.....	Girls' Industrial School for Juvenile Delinquents. †	James D. McKelvey.....

* From 1893-94.

† From 1891-92.

reform schools, 1894-95.

Number of assistants.	Pupils.														Number taught mechanical trade.	Expenditures.					
	Sex.		Race.		Nativity.		Illiteracy.		During year.		School.					Value of grounds and buildings.	Buildings and improvements.	For support.			
	Male.	Female.	White.	Colored.	Native parents.	Foreign-born parents.	Could only read.	Can neither read nor write.	Committed.	Discharged.	Number of teachers.	Number of pupils.	Hours of daily session.	Average age of inmates.							
4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22			
																\$50,000	\$17,000	1			
30	162	0	158	4	58	60	11	0	167	12		3	162	4	14	77	236,961	57,953	\$85,000	2	
...	432	70	479	23	261	155	0	0	152	...		6	404	3	15	238	289,243	3,111	111,546	3	
17	116	0	102	14		4	116	33	...	116	75,000	13,000	36,000	4	
46	442	0	142	11	58	95	0	1	153	258		8	437	3	14	40	250,000	2,500	73,344	5	
32	0	244	205	39	181	63	213	31	54	108		7	244	4	14	244	200,000	3,464	40,648	6	
2	12		3	...	33	15	12	9,000	3,150	670	7	
1	221	...	86	135	98	14	35	3	112	92		8	221	3-4	14	150	275,000	...	40,256	8	
3	23	0	20	8	25	3	4	20	14	5		1	28	4	14	0	8,000	...	3,000	9	
7	0	90	82	8	28	62	52	12	108	108		2	78	4	15	89	85,000	1,011	10,573	10	
27	250	0	235	15	50	265	258	5	13	250	185,000	...	26,960	11	
54	762	0	632	130	663	99	635	419		8	756	3	18	450	405,000	95,620	123,018	12	
4	0	145		4	145	2	96,000	...	15,025	13	
18	0	183	175	8	165	18	41	58	16	5	181	33	14	183	150,000	8,376	39,885	14	
38	472	0	391	79	94	91	147	186		5	472	9	16	100	200,000	8,154	61,846	15	
33	430	0	377	53	100	236	295	215	132	117		10	430	4	15	140	160,800	21,000	46,200	16	
...	0	150	137	13	6	10	40	37		16	150	33	13	...	76,150	1,600	39,637	17	
10	...	90	83	7	175	...	5	87	3	26	33	2	90	5-10	17	90	82,000	18,000	13,275	18	
32	224	0	160	64	200	24	2	125	92	...		4	214	4	13	0	200,000	...	27,886	19	
24	240	77	243	74	247	70	40	50	271	36		4	220	43	...	220	350,000	...	33,600	20	
23	0	180	180	0	100	80	20	28	12	5	186	6	21	
4	85	0	15	70	230	234		1	82	6	13	0	9,012	22	
7	0	76	76	0	36	14		2	76	3	40,000	...	8,000	23	
20	140	0	137	3	53	35		4	140	4	15	44	100,000	3,775	23,163	24	
25	200	0	200	0	125	75	11	21	77	85		7	200	4	15	100	200,000	...	35,918	25	
5	0	67	67	0	37	11	0	13	21	18		1	49	4	14	60	60,000	1,313	12,668	26	
17	466	0	466	0	360	103	440	20	231	159		9	463	7	11	139	350,000	5,545	11,250	27	
17	275	0	...	275	275	...	25	56	106	105		5	275	43	12	275	200,000	...	24,000	28	
9	65	0	63	2	21	44	9	8	103	101		2	53	43	13	12	29	
5	84	0	82	2	17	67	17	12	105	100		2	84	43	12	1,960	30	
14	0	117	78	38		4	117	4	15	117	71,723	...	21,618	31	
2	31	0	28	3	3	28	28	3		1	31	4	12	...	19,476	4,012	3,437	32	
2	60	2	60	2	52	10	0	0	61	45		2	62	5	12	0	33	
7	80	0	78	2	40	11	64	17		2	80	3	12	...	60,000	10,000	10,000	34	
4	26	0	26	0	19	7	2	0	18	15		1	26	4	...	12	20,000	0	5,872	35	
1	20	0	19	1	9	5	2	12		1	20	43	16,000	...	2,270	36	
6	32	2	34	0	8	26	7	4	28	24		1	34	5	12	0	20,000	...	8,003	37	
48	366	0		13	366	350	146,300	0	38,977	38	
12	101	0	99	2	7	94	2	0	101	3		1	101	5	13	0	160,000	39	
27	0	346	329	17	210	136	87	113	97	43		6	250	4	16	346	131,931	1,308	36,367	40	
1	0	200	200	0	100	100	100	30	20	50,000	1,000	11,500	41	
13	165	0	157	8	12	18		14	165	2	333,343	18,000	27,243	42	
46	515	0	465	50	0	366	289		11	515	43	14	200	214,170	2,500	60,000	43
37	318	40	343	15	137	100		6	358	43	15	40	360,554	2,500	45,000	44	
24	117	0	112	5	34	83	2	4	124	132		10	110	13	22	80	207,555	2,771	43,791	45	
1	185	0	155	30	116	39	15	10	101	96		4	185	6	...	140	75,000	19,800	12,500	46	
5	0	72	68	4	67	5		2	72	4	14	63	50,000	0	11,691	47	
35	205	85	227	63	15	275	190	100	150	160		7	290	3	12	...	200,000	2,000	40,000	48	
11	42	7	48	2	48	1	12	6		2	49	43	12	...	40,000	30,000	4,088	49	
10	0	76	69	7	30	46	8	10	33	32		2	76	4	14	...	46,202	8,149	16,756	50	

a Recently organized.

TABLE 2.—Statistics of reform

	Post-office.	Name.	Executive officer.
	1	2	3
51	Kearney, Nebr.....	State Industrial School*	John T. Mallalieu.....
52	Manchester, N. H.....	State Industrial School.....	J. C. Ray.....
53	Jamesburg, N. J.....	State Reform School for Juvenile Delinquents.	Ira Otterson.....
54	Trenton, N. J.....	State Industrial School for Girls.....	Mrs. Mary A. McFadden.....
55	Verona, N. J.....	Newark City Home.....	C. M. Harrison.....
56	Brooklyn, N. Y.....	Brooklyn Truant School*	Patrick H. Corrigan.....
57	Canaan Four Corners, N. Y.....	Burham Industrial Farm.....	Rev. J. Dooly.....
58	Elmira, N. Y.....	School of Letters, New York State Reformatory.	Z. R. Brockway.....
59	New York (Station M), N. Y.....	New York Juvenile Asylum.....	Elisha M. Carpenter.....
60	New York (Station L), N. Y.....	Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents in the City of New York.	A. C. Collson.....
61	New York, N. Y.....	The Wetmore Home*	Mrs. Lane.....
62	Rochester, N. Y.....	State Industrial School*	Franklin H. Briggs.....
63	Westchester, N. Y.....	New York Catholic Protectors*	Brother Leontine.....
64	Cincinnati, Ohio.....	Cincinnati House of Refuge.....	James Allison.....
65	Delaware, Ohio.....	Girls' Industrial Home.....	Albert W. Stiles.....
66	Lancaster, Ohio.....	Boys' Industrial School.....	D. M. Barrett.....
67	Salem, Oreg.....	State Reform School*	R. J. Hendricks.....
68	Glenn Mills, Pa.....	Philadelphia House of Refuge (Boys' Department).	F. H. Nibecker.....
69	Huntingdon, Pa.....	Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory at Huntingdon.†	T. B. Patton.....
70	Morganza, Pa.....	Pennsylvania Reform School.....	J. A. Quay.....
71	Philadelphia, Pa.....	House of Refuge.....	Mrs. M. A. Campbell.....
72	Howard, R. I.....	Oaklawn School for Girls*	Mrs. R. S. Butterworth.....
73	do.....	Soclanoset School.....	James H. Eastman.....
74	Plankinton, S. Dak.....	South Dakota Reform School.....	C. W. Ainsworth.....
75	Gatesville, Tex.....	Texas State Reformatory and House of Correction.	J. F. McGuire.....
76	Ogden, Utah.....	Territorial Reform School for Whole Territory.*	J. D. Haines.....
77	Vergennes, Vt.....	Vermont Industrial School.....	S. A. Andrews.....
78	Glen Allen, Va.....	Industrial School of the Prison Association of Virginia.	William C. Sampson.....
79	Chehalis, Wash.....	Washington State Reform School.....	Thomas P. Westendorf.....
80	Pruntytown, W. Va.....	West Virginia Reform School.....	D. W. Shaw.....
81	Milwaukee, Wis.....	Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls.....	S. E. Pierce.....
82	Sparta, Wis.....	State Public School for Dependent and Neglected Children.	S. S. Landt.....
83	Waukesha, Wis.....	Wisconsin State Industrial School for Boys.	M. J. Regan.....

* From 1893-94.

† From 1891-92.

schools, 1894-95—Continued.

	Pupils.														Number of assistants.	Number taught mechanical trade.	Value of grounds and buildings.	Expenditures.			
	Sex.		Race.		Nativ-ity.		Illiter-acy.		During year.		School.		Buildings and improvements.	For support.							
	Male.	Female.	White.	Colored.	Native parents.		Foreign-born parents.		Could only read.	Can neither read nor write.	Committed.	Discharged.						Number of teachers.	Number of pupils.	Hours of daily session.	Average age of inmates.
					9	10	11	12													
4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22			
28	221	0	210	11	160	61	50	81	70	82	4	221	6	14	58	\$160,000		\$39,600	51		
19	116	17	131	2	80	25	100	17	46	35	3	133	5		133	40,000	\$3,000	12,000	52		
44	375	0	320	55							117	162	8	375	3½	16	191	175,000	12,552	76,950	53
8	0	108	87	21	30	78					32	27	2	108	3	16	108	79,610	10,356	15,726	54
12	188	32	209	11			16	13	83	131	3	220	3			81	163,576	15,516	31,695	55	
9	351	0	310	41	105	246	210	141	351	265	3	351	5	13	0	120,000	19,000	21,575	56		
14	64	0	63	1	37	27	4	0					2	64	6	14	13	75,000	5,750	10,750	57
1	1143	0	1090	53			183	23	700	658	26	1143	2	21	1142	1,500,000	58,000	201,668	58		
72	758	186	867	77	622	322	50	60	599	617	17	944	5	12		1,000,000		103,588	59		
2	642	92	633	101	133	370			583	385	20	734	4		734	535,000	32,142	132,037	60		
3	0	60	60	0					348	286	1	25	2	18	45	35,000	9,468	10,900	61		
	614	120	694	40	499	235			479	490	19	767	4			476,808	26,560	267,536	62		
53	1645	0	1640	5	84	1561	607	422	284	725	63	1570	4½	12	975	840,030	9,218	279,739	63		
40	233	116	320	89	195	254	344	105	449	443	7	409	3	13	289	370,000	6,980	50,797	64		
32	0	342	279	63					69	65			9	329	5	14		420,752	6,539	36,624	65
2	767	0																	93,409	66	
12	92	0	91	1							2	92	8	14		180,000		18,000	67		
1	656	0	516	140	430	226	107	160	280	355	11	656	4		392	750,000		137,500	68		
8	572	0	496	86			374	58	572	541	7	458	2	19	201	1,000,000	45,000	175,600	69		
60	438	134	484	85	126	99		53	225	236	10	572	5	14	152	607,641	14,085	89,227	70		
13	0	138	87	51	92	34	31	19	72	86	4	138	4	15	138	200,000			71		
4	0	26	21	5	14	12		3			4	26		15		200,000		42,000	72		
30	242	0	212	30					190	198	5	242	5½	14	125	200,000		48,502	73		
13	73	21	92	5				10	47	28	3	97	4	13	51	75,000	5,000	15,000	74		
1	192	0	90	102			20	10			2	90	2			60,000	800	20,000	75		
6	33	6	37	2	34	5	7	3	42	45	3	39	5	15	12	200,000	30,888	14,502	76		
15	85	15	96	4	75	25	80	20	40	35	3	100	4½	14	60	100,000		15,375	77		
5	110	0	110	0	107	3	40	20	60	38	3	110	4	14		12,500		11,148	78		
19	126	25	149	2	129	129	81	70	60	44						60,000		52,000	79		
9	102	0	82	20	95	7			63	50	4	102	3	12	100	40,000	5,000	3,600	80		
	35	205	233	7							7	240	5			68,380			81		
1	212	69									7	281	6	10	0	107,697		47,500	82		
50	351	0	349	2	77	274	59	22	198	186	11	351	4	14	351	220,619	20,000	59,775	83		

XIII.—FOREIGN

Statistics of elementary

	Countries.	Date of reports.	Enrollment in elementary schools.				Average attendance.		Number of teachers.		
			Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Ratio to total population.	Total.	Ratio to enrollment.	Male.	Female.	Total.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Austria-Hungary.	1892	2,851,955	2,606,441	5,458,396	13.2	87	80,675	10,096	90,771
2	Austria.....	1892	1,683,237	1,605,467	3,288,704	13.8	90	58,757	6,509	65,266
3	Hungary.....	1892	1,168,718	1,000,974	2,169,692	13	85	21,918	3,587	25,505
4	Belgium.....	1893	353,667	298,537	652,204	10.40	12,470
5	Bulgaria.....	1890-91	196,615	72,659	269,384	8.14
6	Denmark.....	1893	256,606	11.74
7	France.....	1892-93	2,805,849	2,750,621	5,556,470	14.34	66,363	80,311	146,674
8	Germany.....	1891-94	9,153,947	18.50	(d)
9	Alsace-Lorraine.	1891	229,628	14	(d)	2,703	2,303	5,006
10	Anhalt.....	1891	22,673	22,549	45,222	16.60	(d)	897	93	980
11	Baden.....	1891	160,222	160,422	320,644	19.20	(d)	5,503
12	Bavaria (kingdom).	1894	540,400	567,673	1,118,072	20	(d)	17,953	6,299	24,252
13	Bremen (free city).	1891	15,317	15,400	30,717	17	(d)	572	249	821
14	Brunswick...	1891	34,671	34,329	69,000	17	(d)	1,049	1,049
15	Hamburg (free city).	1894	43,961	48,518	92,479	15	(d)	1,671	1,319	2,990
16	Hessia.....	1891	94,572	98,240	192,812	19.40	(d)	2,467	324	2,791
17	Lippe.....	1891	12,061	11,474	23,535	18.30	(d)	473
18	Lübeck (free city).	1894	7,298	6,828	14,126	18.50	(d)	226	125	351
19	Mecklenburg-Schwerin.	1891	43,692	41,142	84,834	14.60	(d)	1,912	145	2,057
20	Mecklenburg-Strelitz.	1891	7,726	7,583	15,309	16	(d)	355	355
21	Oldenburg....	1891	30,556	29,851	60,407	17	(d)	960	960
22	Prussia (kingdom).	1891	2,900,311	2,700,310	5,600,621	18.80	(d)	70,334	10,342	80,676
23	Reuss Jr. Line	1891	9,702	9,801	19,503	17	(d)	290	18	308
24	Reuss Sr. Line.	1891	5,417	5,571	10,988	17.50	(d)	215	7	222
25	Saxe-Altenburg.	1891	14,439	15,186	29,625	17.30	(d)	500	500
26	Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.	1891	16,581	16,922	33,503	16.20	(d)	589
27	Saxe-Meiningen.	1891	39,592	17.70	(d)	589	589
28	Saxe-Weimar.	1891	29,464	29,463	58,927	18.40	(d)	863	9	872
29	Saxony (kingdom).	1891	361,614	299,986	661,600	19	(d)	7,689	2,413	10,102
30	Schaumburg-Lippe.	1891	3,389	3,369	6,758	17.30	(d)	126
31	Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt.	1891	7,380	7,187	14,567	17	(d)	263
32	Schwarzburg-Sondershausen.	1891	6,479	6,484	12,963	17.10	(d)	264

a From State only.

b Public, 4,281,183; private, 1,275,287.

c Public schools only, excluding normal schools.

COUNTRIES.

education in foreign countries.

Current expenditures.					Popula- tion.	Date of cen- sus.	Names and titles of chief officers of education.	
Salaries.	Inciden- tals.	Total.	Per capita of enrollment.	Per capita of population.				
12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
					41,231,342	1890	No imperial office.....	1
					23,895,413	1890	Baron P. Gautsch, minister of wor- ship and public instruction.	2
\$4,057,863	\$1,338,896	\$5,396,779	\$2.48	.45	17,335,929	1890	J. Wlassics, minister of worship and public instruction.	3
		5,702,243	8.74	.91	6,262,172	1893	M. Schollaert, minister of the in- terior and of public instruction.	4
					3,305,458	1893	C. Velitchkow, minister of public instruction.	5
					2,185,335	1890	V. de Bardenfleth, minister of ec- clesiastical affairs and public in- struction.	6
		633,079,275	6.98	.85	38,095,156	1891	M. R. Poincaré, minister of public instruction, fine arts, and of wor- ship.	7
					49,428,470	1890	No imperial office. Each State man- ages its own school system.	8
		624,000	2.66	a.39	1,603,506	1890	Richter, director of consistory and public instruction.	9
		332,457	7.13	1.22	271,963	1890	Rüncelin, secretary of department of public instruction.	10
		869,842	2.71	a.52	1,657,867	1890	Dr. W. Nokk, minister of justice, worship, and public instruction.	11
		5,869,883	5.25	1.13	5,594,982	1890	Von Landmann, minister of wor- ship and public instruction.	12
		257,131	8.30	1.43	180,443	1890	Dr. A. Pauli, senator, chief of school council.	13
		294,690	4.27	.73	403,773	1890	C.v. Schmidt-Phiseldeck, president of consistory.	14
		974,273	10.80	1.57	622,530	1890	Dr. J. O. Stammann, senator, chief of school council.	15
		1,940,826	10.66	1.95	992,883	1890	Dr. H. Knorr von Rosenroth, presi- dent department of schools.	16
		68,640	a.2.91	a.54	128,495	1890	Pustkuchen, president of consis- tory.	17
156,396	51,704	208,110	14.70	2.72	76,485	1890	Dr. W. H. Brehmer, senator, chief of school council.	18
					578,342	1890	J. von Amsberg, minister of justice, worship, and public instruction.	19
					97,978	1890	Dr. Piper, president of consistory...	20
		496,423	8.20	1.40	354,968	1890	G. F. H. A. Flor, minister of justice, worship, and public instruction.	21
		37,966,067	7.32	1.27	29,957,367	1890	Dr. Bosse, minister of worship, in- struction, and medical affairs.	22
		68,497	a.2.91	a.57	119,811	1890	Dr. Vollert, chief of section of church and school affairs.	23
		72,000	6.55	1.15	62,754	1890	Hermannsgrün, inspector-general of schools.	24
					170,864	1890	A. von Borries, minister of the inte- rior.	25
		208,724	6.27	1.01	200,513	1890	C. F. von Strengé, minister of state.	26
246,712			6.23	1.10	223,832	1890	Von Heim, minister of state.....	27
		388,893	6.60	1.20	326,091	1890	A. von Roxberg, minister of the in- terior.	28
3,326,531	1,030,538	4,357,069	6.59	1.24	3,502,684	1890	P. von Seydewitz, minister of wor- ship and instruction.	29
		29,640	a.4.37	a.78	39,163	1890	Römers, president of consistory....	30
		71,584	a.4.91	a.83	85,863	1890	Hauthal, counselor of state.....	31
60,864	2,496	63,360	a.4.90	a.84	75,510	1890	H. Petersen, minister of state.....	32

d No exact records of this are kept in school offices of German States. The average daily attendance in elementary schools is said to be not less than 90 per cent of the enrollment.

Statistics of elementary education

Countries.	Date of reports.	Enrollment in elementary schools.				Average attendance.		Number of teachers.		
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Ratio to total population.	Total.	Ratio to enrollment.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
33 Germany—Cont'd. Waldeck-Pyrmont.	1891	5,625	4,815	10,440	18.20	(a)	247
34 Württemberg (kingdom).	1894	185,529	170,642	356,171	17.05	(a)	4,729
35 Great Britain: England and Wales.	1893-94	5,198,741	17.29	4,225,834	81.28	105,495
36 Scotland.....	1894	686,335	16.64	597,442	82.67	14,585
37 Ireland.....	1894	815,539	17.33	524,209	64.27	12,732
38 Greece.....	1889	78,815	18,986	97,801	4.47	1,641
39 Italy.....	1892-93	1,246,234	1,045,732	2,291,966	7.63	20,433	30,952	51,385
40 Netherlands.....	1893-94	e355,406	e328,123	e683,529	14.61	12,245	4,768	16,953
41 Norway.....	1891	315,419	10.57	3,994	1,275	5,269
42 Portugal.....	1890	123,693	58,045	181,738	3.85
43 Roumania.....	1891	220,683	3.80
44 Russia.....	1887	{ (408,721) 1,451,609	383,236	{ 2,243,566	1.94
45 Finland.....	1892-93	33,676	28,263	{ 177,886 61,939	{ 17.47 2.42	795	941	1,736
46 Servia.....	1892-93	65,275	11,204	76,479	3.34	920	576	1,496
47 Spain.....	1885	886,850	665,584	1,552,434	8.83	1,057,277	68.10	25,271
48 Sweden.....	1891	694,218	14.39	14,135
49 Switzerland.....	1892	289,034	274,876	559,910	19	87.00	7,402	4,328	11,730
50 British India: Bengal.....	1888-89	1,156,327	3.03
51 Bombay Pres- idency.	1894-95	507,566	45,411	552,977	2.92
52 Burmah (up- per and lower).	1894-95	109,298	22,393	131,691	1.73
53 Northwest Provinces and Oudh.
54 Mysore.....	1893-94	153,474	1.08
55 Japan.....	1893	2,266,025	1,071,535	3,337,560	8.23	2,539,046	76.08	57,595	3,961	61,556
56 Cape of Good Hope.	1894	n101,991	6.74	73,271	71.84	1,362	2,063	3,425
57 Egypt.....	1887	p200,000	2.90	7,764

a No exact records of this are kept in school offices of German States. The average daily attendance in elementary schools is said to be not less than 90 per cent of the enrollment.

b From State only.

c In 1894.

e Includes private nonsubsidized schools.

f Total expenditure for all grades, \$1,190,465.

g Excludes Finland.

h In ambulatory schools.

i For public elementary and normal schools.

d In 1892.

in foreign countries—Continued.

Current expenditures.					Popula- tion.	Date of cen- sus.	Names and titles of chief officers of education.	
Salaries.	Inciden- tals.	Total.	Per capita of enroll- ment.	Per capita of popula- tion.				
12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
		<i>b</i> \$55,794	<i>b</i> \$534	<i>b</i> \$0.98	57,281	1890	Von Saldern, counselor of state	33
		<i>c</i> 729,829	<i>c</i> 2.05	<i>c</i> .36	2,036,522	1890	Dr. von Sarwey, minister of worship and instruction.	34
		44,513,316	8.56	1.48	30,060,763	1894	Committee of council on education: Sir John Gorst, vice-president; for Scotland, Lord Balfour, of Burleigh, vice-president.	35
		6,694,438	9.75	1.62	4,123,038	1894		36
		5,939,712	7.28	1.26	4,704,750	1894	Commissioners of national educa- tion in Ireland.	37
		<i>d</i> 653,274	6.46	.29	2,187,208	1889	M. Petrides, minister of ecclesias- tical affairs and public instruc- tion.	38
		11,921,405	5.20	.39	30,535,848	1892	Guido Baccelli, minister of public instruction.	39
\$3,817,100	\$1,572,035	5,389,135	7.88	1.15	4,669,576	1892	Dr. S. Van Houten, minister of inter- ior.	40
		1,431,027	4.53	.71	2,000,917	1891	J. L. R. Sverdrup, minister of eccle- siastical affairs and public in- struction; M. K. Norby, director in charge of public instruction.	41
		(<i>f</i>)			4,708,178	1881	Franco Castello Branco, minister of interior; F. d'Abreu Gouveia, director-general of public instruc- tion and fine arts.	42
					5,800,000	1893	P. Poni, minister of public instruc- tion and ecclesiastical affairs.	43
					<i>g</i> 115,181,734	1893	Count Delianow, minister of public instruction.	44
		<i>i</i> 344,063	5.55	.14	2,380,140	1890	Dr. L. Lindelöf, director-general in charge of schools.	45
					2,256,084	1894	L. Kowatschevitch, minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs.	46
		(<i>j</i>)			17,565,632	1887	Sr. Bosch, minister of "Fomento;" R. Conde y Luque, director-general of public instruction.	47
		3,660,979	5.27	.75	4,824,150	1893	Dr. F. Gilljam, minister of eccle- siastical affairs; Dr. Gustrin, di- rector in charge of public in- struction.	48
		5,037,471	9.00	1.72	2,933,612	1888	No federal office; each canton man- ages its own school system.	49
		733,140	.68	.02	38,114,280	1891		50
		1,082,278	1.95	.05	18,901,123	1891	K. M. Chatfield, director of public instruction.	51
		<i>k</i> 62,897	.48	.008	7,605,560	1891	John Vausomeren Pope, director of public instruction.	52
								53
		<i>m</i> 67,345	1.25	.01	4,943,604	1891	H. J. Dhabha, education secretary	54
6,431,213	2,624,767	9,055,980	2.74	.22	40,718,677	1891	Marquis Saionji Kimmochi, minis- ter of state for education.	55
		813,718	7.97	.53	1,527,224	1891	Thomas Muir, superintendent-gene- ral of education.	56
					6,817,265	1882	Hussein Pacha Fakhry, minister of public works and public instruc- tion.	57

j Whole amount for education in 1837 reported to be \$360,649.
k Total public expenditure for all grades of instruction which has been used in previous reports
amounted to \$403,472.
l Also 26,003 in private elementary.
m Total expenditure for public education \$260,947, as against \$283,772 in 1892-93.
n Includes 58,948 colored children.
o Basis total population, in report for 1888-89 European population only was employed.
p Includes pupils in schools established by the Government, by religious denominations, and by for-
eigners.

Statistics of elementary education

Countries.	Date of reports.	Enrollment in elementary schools.				Average attendance.		Number of teachers.		
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Ratio to total population.	Total.	Ratio to enrollment.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
53 Canada:										
British Columbia.	1895	6,848	6,634	13,482	13.73	8,610	63.86	319
59 New Brunswick.	1895	32,659	29,859	62,518	19.43	1,790
60 Nova Scotia...	1894	97,920	21.74	2,351
61 Ontario.....	1894	483,203	22.85	268,334	55.53	2,662	5,448	8,110
62 Prince Edward Island.	1892	11,995	10,174	22,169	20.32	12,986	58.57	271	267	538
63 Quebec.....	1894-95	140,196	145,984	286,180	19.22	1,129	7,827	8,956
64 Newfoundland....	1892	25,185	13.00
65 Mexico.....	1893	442,975	3.80
66 Bermuda.....	1894	1,171	7.54	25
67 Jamaica.....	1894-95	104,149	16.28	62,587	60.09
68 Trinidad.....	1894	20,621	9.36	13,297	64.48
69 Cuba.....	1889-90	30,994	2.02
70 Costa Rica.....	1892-93	9,394	7,421	16,815	6.91	12,204	72.57	482
71 Guatemala.....	1891	43,919	21,403	65,322	4.47	907	613	1,829
72 Nicaragua.....	1887	11,914	4.21
73 Salvador.....	1893	16,663	12,764	29,427	3.77	453	340	793
74 Argentine Republic.	1894	128,034	120,121	248,155	5.59	2,591	4,928	7,519
75 Bolivia.....	1890	17,404	6,840	24,244	1.50	649
76 Brazil.....	1889	300,000	2.60
77 Chile.....	1894	57,674	55,573	113,247	3.41	72,899	64.37
78 Colombia.....	1893	114,331	2.94
79 Ecuador.....	1890	52,830	4.07	1,137
80 Paraguay.....	1891	18,944	3.94	448
81 Peru.....	1889-90	53,276	2.03	552	258	810
82 Uruguay.....	1894	26,129	21,127	47,356	6.50	36,018	73.94	258	728	986
83 Venezuela.....	1890	100,026	4.39
84 Hawaii.....	1894	6,238	5,069	11,309	12.56	199	206	405
85 Mauritius.....	1894	17,701	4.76	11,336	64.04	426
86 New South Wales.	1894	206,265	16.75	130,089	63.06
87 Queensland.....	1894	67,726	17.20	45,050	66.51	683	746	1,429
88 South Australia...	1891	47,094	14.69	1,106
89 Victoria.....	1894	118,921	111,553	230,474	19.54	131,881	57.22	1,778	2,851	4,629
90 West Australia...	1894	3,667	3,661	7,328	14.72	5,367	73.23	64	181	245
91 New Zealand.....	1894	65,880	61,420	127,300	18.93	103,490	81.29	1,358	1,948	3,306
92 Tasmania.....	1894	19,967	13.61	10,594	53.05

in foreign countries—Continued.

Current expenditures.					Popula- tion.	Date of cen- sus.	Names and titles of chief officers of education.	
Salaries.	Inciden- tals.	Total.	Per capita of enrollment.	Per capita of population.				
12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
\$169,447	\$19,589	\$189,037	\$14.02	\$1.92	98,173	1891	Hon. James Baker, minister of edu- cation.	58
.....	436,618	7.00	1.35	321,263	1891	James R. Inch, chief superintend- ent of education.	59
.....	795,144	8.11	1.76	450,396	1891	A. H. MacKay, superintendent of education.	60
.....	3,802,745	7.87	1.69	2,114,321	1891	Geo. W. Ross, minister of education.	61
.....	142,468	6.41	1.30	109,078	1891	D. J. Macleod, chief superintendent of education.	62
.....	2,567,505	8.97	1.72	1,488,535	1891	Boucher de la Bruere, superintend- ent of public instruction.	63
.....	197,934	1891	64
.....	2,337,307	5.04	.20	11,642,720	1891	J. Baranda, minister of justice and public instruction.	65
8,672	15,519	1893	George Simpson, inspector of schools	66
.....	639,491	1891	Thomas Capper, superintending inspector of schools.	67
.....	113,078	5.48	.51	220,285	1891	R. Gervase Bushe, inspector of schools.	68
.....	553,335	17.85	.36	1,531,684	1877	69
104,913	243,205	1892	Ricardo Montealegre, minister of foreign affairs, ecclesiastical aff- airs, public instruction, chari- ties, and justice.	70
.....	1,460,017	1890	M. Cabral, minister of public in- struction.	71
.....	282,845	1889	Dr. M. C. Matus, minister of foreign affairs and public instruction.	72
.....	730,426	1892	Dr. Jacinto Castellanos, minister of foreign affairs, justice, and pub- lic instruction.	73
.....	11,763,297	47.40	2.76	4,257,000	1892	Dr. A. Bermejo, minister of justice, ecclesiastical affairs, and public instruction.	74
.....	2,300,000	1888	M. D. Medina, minister of interior.	75
.....	14,002,335	1888	Dr. A. G. Ferreira, minister of in- terior and justice; Dr. Ararife, jr., director-general of instruction.	76
.....	a 1,336,806	11.84	2.48	3,317,264	1892	S. Pontecilla, minister of justice and public instruction.	77
.....	3,878,600	1881	L. Zerda, minister of public instruc- tion.	78
.....	176,325	3.33	.13	1,271,861	L. P. Artela, minister of justice and public instruction.	79
.....	480,000	1893	M. A. Maciel, minister of justice, ecclesiastical affairs, and public instruction.	80
.....	2,621,844	1876	A. Albaracin, minister of justice, and ecclesiastical affairs; Dr. F. Rosas, vice-president of higher council of education.	81
362,657	205,537	568,194	11.97	.12	728,447	1892	J. J. Castro, minister of agricul- ture, industries, instruction, and public works.	82
.....	2,323,527	1891	Dr. Al. Urbaneja, minister of public instruction.	83
.....	120,028	10.61	1.33	89,900	1890	William R. Castle, president board of education.	84
.....	81,892	4.62	.22	371,655	1891	A. Standley, acting superintendent of schools.	85
.....	2,857,622	13.85	2.31	1,237,410	1894	J. Garrard, minister of public in- struction.	86
.....	861,385	12.72	2.19	393,718	1891	Robert Philp, secretary for public instruction.	87
.....	2,464,763	10.69	2.08	1,179,029	1895	A. J. Peacock, minister of public instruction.	88
.....	71,188	9.71	1.43	49,782	1891	O. P. Staples, secretary for education.	90
1,602,201	1,992,140	15.65	2.96	672,265	1891	W. P. Reeves, minister of education.	91
.....	143,263	7.17	.98	146,667	1891	E. Braddon, minister of education.	92



INDEX.

A.

A-bis-sci-fa, 1706-1708.
 Abbott, Lyman, on Chautauqua, 1061.
 Aberdeen, Countess of, on university education of women, 910, 911.
 Aberdeen University, statistics, 258.
 Abiturienten-Examen, report on, by M. E. Sadler, 708-712.
 Academies, statistics, 32-35, 2018-2113.
 Academy of Sciences, Imperial, Cracow, 765-771.
 Accommodation in English elementary schools, statistics, 260, 261.
 Adams, Charles Kendall, on admission to university by certificate, 1172.
 Adams, Herbert B., Chautauqua, a social and educational study, 977-1077.
 Adams, W. H. Davenport, Woman's Work and Worth quoted, 894, 895.
 Addis, Wellford, prepares résumé of testimony on secondary education, 605-620.
 On technological instruction in land-grant colleges, 1189-1210.
 On the social unit in the public school systems of the United States, 1457-1467.
 Administration of schools discussed, 636.
 Administration of secondary education in England, testimony on, 605-620.
 Administrators of trusts, women as, 604-605.
 Admission, age in Lehigh, 565.
 Discussed, 647, 648, 649.
 To college by certificate, 1171-1188; to law schools, 1247-1249; to the bar, 1249-1250.
 Adolenceno, G. Stanley Hall on, 1033.
 Adouvert monastery, educational work, 473.
 African Methodist Episcopal Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 152-154.
 African Methodist Episeopal Zion Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 152-154.
 Agassiz, Louis, and the Penikese school, 1485.
 Age, school, in the several States, xxxvii.
 Age of admission, in Lehigh, 565.
 To universities in England discussed, 608.
 Age of withdrawal from public schools, 1161-1170.
 Agencies for fostering secondary education in England, 599-600.
 Aggregate attendance. *See* Attendance.
 Agrégation, preparation for, 691, 692, 695.
 Agrégé, use of term in France, 687, 689, 691, 692.
 Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race, N. C., statistics, 1206, 1209.
 Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, statistics, 1205, 1208.
 Agricultural College of Utah, admission by certificate, 1180.
 Agricultural schools, Belgium, statistics, 315; in Holland, 515-516.
 Agriculture, effects of labor-saving machinery on, 3-8.
 Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 433.
 Aid Association of Teachers. *See* Teachers' pensions.
 Alabama, college presidents, 1135, 1141, 1143, 1144, 1148.
 Education in, 1277-1280; education of the negro, 1332-1339, 1346.
 School laws as to women, 960.
 State and city superintendents, 1127.

Alabama—Continued.

Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2224-2225; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1837, 1848, 1859, 1869, 1879; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-214, 216-217, 221-233, 2115, 2132; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 111; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-214, 2158; of common schools, xxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 246, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2250, 2254; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of normal schools, 123-148, 2193-2199, 2210-2211; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2182-2183; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2018-2021; of schoolhouses and property, xlviii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2156-2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2171; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-63, 70, 72-105, 1890-1891, 1998-1999, 2018-2020; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1465.
 Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
 Alabama Normal and Industrial School, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
 Alaska, agent of education, 1127.
 Report on education in, 1425-1455.
 Albany, N. Y., population, 9.
 Albert of Bavaria, grants educational privileges, 478.
 Albion College, admission by certificate, 1184.
 Alcohol, effects on students discussed, 457-458.
 Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1209.
 Alcott, William A., sketch of his work, 1591.
 Alderman, Edwin A., on higher education in the South, 1747-1751.
 Alexander II and Poland, 747-748, 749.
 Alexandria, Va., population, 10.
 Algebra, statistics of students in high schools, 40, 44, 51, 55, 65.
 Algiers, statistics, 297.
 Allgheny, Pa., population, 10.
 Allen, J. G., letter as to regents' examination at Chautauqua, 1041.
 Allen, William, on Lancaster school, 1156.
 Alley, Henry R., quoted on Manitoba school case, 279-288.
 Alsace-Lorraine, statistics of elementary education, 416, 2280-2281.
 Altonburg, statistics of public elementary schools, 415, 416.
 Altona, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.
 Ambulatory schools in Prussia, statistics, 402.
 American Association for the Advancement of Education, discussion on religious education, 1636-1637.
 American common school in New England, 1790-1840, 1551-1615.
 American Girl at College, The, quoted, 902, 903.
 American history, English methods of teaching, 1757-1767.

- American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, statistics, 2150-2155.
- American students in foreign universities, 1123.
- American summer schools, check list of, 1483-1503.
- Americanized Delsarte, 1044-1045.
- Amherst College, admission by certificate, 1184.
- Amphitheater, at Chautauqua, 982.
- Amsterdam, training school of, 504, 505.
- Amusements and recreation at Chautauqua, 987-990.
- Anhalt, statistics of elementary education, 413, 2280-2281.
- Anthropology, at Chautauqua, 1026.
- Apothecaries, female, in Holland, 485, 486.
- Apparatus, statistics of, in high schools, 46, 57, 58, 102; normal schools, 133, 139.
- Appointment of teachers in Holland, 494, 495.
- Apprenticeship in Italy, 566.
- Apprenticeship schools in Belgium, statistics, 315.
- Appropriations, statistics, for primary instruction in France, 290; in colleges and universities, 169, 205; in colleges for women, 177; in Manitoba, 276; in normal schools, 132, 133, 138, 147, 148; in secondary schools, 46, 47, 57, 58, 86, 103; in technical schools, 184, 232.
- Archives, in Poland, 759-760, 762-764, 771, 781, 790.
- Argentina, education of women, 948.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2281-2285.
- Arithmetic, examination in, Oxford, 812.
- Method of teaching in Italy, 570.
- Study of, in German public elementary schools, 407-415, 417.
- Arizona, college presidents, 1135, 1144.
- School laws as to women, 963.
- Statistics of business colleges, 2222, 2223, 2224-2225; of city school systems, 14, 15; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 188-196, 198-200, 202-206, 227, 215, 2192; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of normal schools, 128-148, 2198-2199; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of schoolhouses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1891, 1999; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- Superintendent of education, 1127.
- Arkansas, college presidents, 1135, 1141, 1143, 1144, 1148.
- Education of the negro, 1332-1339, 1346.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1128.
- Statistics of business colleges, 2222, 2223, 2224, 2225; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1837, 1848, 1859, 1869, 1879; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-204, 206, 209-214, 217, 221-233, 1217, 2115, 2192; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 111; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-214, 217, 2158; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2250, 2254; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2182-2183; of parochial schools, 1664; of normal schools, 128-148, 2198-2199, 2210-2211; of private schools, xlviii, 2020-2023; of schoolhouses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2166, 2168; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1891-1892, 1999, 2020-2022; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- The school district in, 1466.
- Arkansas Industrial University, admission by certificate, 1173.
- Statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
- Army schools in Holland, 523-527.
- Arnold, Matthew, cited on French secondary teachers, 685, 686.
- On religious instruction in Europe, 1626-1627.
- Anstadt, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.
- Art education in the public schools, 793-803.
- Art schools, in Belgium, statistics, 315; in Germany, 355, 356; in Rome, 562.
- Association for the Education of Women in Oxford, 808-811.
- Astronomy, statistics of students in secondary schools, 40, 44, 51, 55, 65.
- Asylums in Rome, 561-562.
- Athenæum, Chautauqua, 980-982.
- Atkinson, Edward, on labor-saving machinery, 4.
- Atlanta Exposition, discussed, xxix-xxx.
- Reports on, 1735-1756.
- Attendance, statistics, xli; in city schools, 12, 14, 16, 17, 1837-1847, 1879-1889; in colleges and universities, 188; in elementary schools in England, Scotland, and Wales, 261; in Manitoba, 276; in schools of law, 237; in schools of theology, 236.
- See also Enrollment.
- Auburn, N. Y., population, 9.
- Augsburg, statistics of public elementary schools, 410, 415, 416.
- Augusta, Ga., population, 9.
- Augusta, Me., population, 9.
- Anstin College, admission by certificate, 1187.
- Australasian colonies, coeducation in, 1116.
- Austria, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Continuation schools, 1123, 1125.
- Education of women, 925-928.
- Pensions to teachers, 1103.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281; of public elementary schools, 414, 415, 416.
- Women in medicine, 955.
- Austria-Hungary, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Austrian Poland, extent, 721.
- Higher education in, 765-784.
- Average daily attendance. See Attendance.

B.

- Babylonian education, 1814-1815.
- Bacon, Alice Mabel, cited on education of women in Japan, 946.
- Baden, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Baker University, admission by certificate, 1183.
- Baltimore, Md., population, 9.
- Baltimore Ad Society among teachers, 1093.
- Bangor, Me., population, 9.
- Bangor Theological Seminary, 1243.
- Baptists, missions in Alaska, 1430.
- Statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154; of private secondary schools, 59.
- Bar, admission to the, 1249-1250.
- Barnard, Henry, sketch of his work, 1592-1593.
- Work in Rhode Island, 1614-1615.
- Barrows, John Henry, on Chautauqua, 1061.
- Basel, statistics of public elementary schools, 415, 416.
- Batory, Stephen, 719, 735.
- Baudouin, Marcel, on medical schools of the United States, 1261-1275.
- Bavaria, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Statistics of elementary education in, 400, 410, 416, 2280-2281.
- Bedford (England) College, statistics, 258.
- Belgium, coeducation, 1118.
- Communal schools in twelfth century, 478.
- Compulsory education, requirements, 1122.
- Education in, summarized, xx.
- Education of women, 913, 914.
- Pensions to teachers, 1104, 1105-1108.
- Religious instruction, 1629-1631.
- School laws of 1895, 315-319.
- Statistics of elementary education, 314, 315, 2280-2281.
- System of education, 313.
- Women in medicine, 953.
- Belief in education, in America, 623, 624.
- Bell, Andrew, monitorial system, 1153-1155.
- Bell and Lancaster systems, as related to schools of the South, 1153-1160.
- Beloit College, coeducational, 1115.
- Benefactions, statistics of, academies and private high schools, 32-35; colleges and universities, 168, 174, 177, 202; colleges for women, 2156-2165; colored schools, 1346-1355; medical schools, 238-241, 1234; normal schools, 139, 2198-2221; private secondary schools, 57, 58; schools of dentistry, pharmacy, nurses, and veterinarians, 238-241; theological schools, 236, 2171-2178.
- Bengal, statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.

- Bennett law, 1647-1651.
- Bérenger, M., quoted on moral instruction of children in France, 299.
- Bérenger, Henry, quoted on university extension in France, 301-303.
- Berkeley, George, sketch of his work, 1605-1607.
- Berkowitz, Henry, establishes Jewish branch of Chautauqua Circle, 1013-1015.
- Berlin, art school, 355, 356.
Business colleges, 356.
Statistics of public elementary schools, 409, 415, 416.
Trade school, 352-355, 356.
- Bermuda, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Berne, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Bible, G. Stanley Hall on increasing power of, 1040.
- Bible study at Chautauqua, 997-999, 1038-1040.
- Bibliography, of American summer schools, 1486-1487.
Of education in central Europe, 321.
Of education in Italy, 581-582.
Of education in the Netherlands, 475.
Of publications of Bureau of Education, 1821-1828.
Of report on secondary education, 671-672.
Of woman's development, 970-976.
- Bidgood, John, on the organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 611-612.
- Bigelow, H. R., quoted on proceedings of Educational Congress at Havre, 303-305.
- Biology at Chautauqua, 1024.
- Births, excess of, in St. Louis, Chicago, and Boston, 1162.
- Bishop, Mrs. Emily M., on Americanized Delsarte, Chautauqua, 1044, 1045.
- Bittenbender, Ada M., on women as lawyers, 956, 957.
- Blaine, James G., proposes nonsectarian amendment to Constitution, 1652-1653.
- Blind, schools for, in Holland, 518-519.
Statistics, 2261-2266, in Belgium, 315.
- Blodgett, James H., on parochial schools, 1617-1671.
- Board and lodging in English colleges for women, 889, 890.
- Boarding houses provided for pupils in Rome, 561.
- Boarding pupils in Swiss normal schools, 440-442.
- Boarding schools, in England and America compared, 631.
In Rome, 561.
- Boards of education, State, J. J. Findlay on, 639-644.
- Bodio, Luigi, on education of women in Italy, 937-940.
On the protection of Italian emigrants in America, 1789-1794.
- Bodleian Library, 849-853.
- Bohemian Brethren, in Poland, 737-740.
- Bolivia, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Bombay Presidency, statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Bookkeeping, study of, in German public elementary schools, 419, 420, 425; in Swiss normal schools, 433.
- Bosnia, women in medicine, 956.
- Bosse, Dr., quoted on manual training and domestic science in Germany, 418.
- Boston, age of withdrawal from public school, 1161-1164, 1167, 1170.
Population, 9.
Superintendent on need of educational information, 638.
- Boston Teachers' Mutual Benefit Association, 1079-1080.
- Bourn, Augustus O., prepares list of scientific and professional organizations in Italy, 576-579.
- Boyessen, H. H., on Chautauqua, 1062.
- Boykin, James C., report on Cotton States and International Exposition, 1735-1744.
- Boynton, John, founds Worcester Free Institute, 1192.
- Boys, boarding schools for, in Rome, 561.
- Boys' Club, Chautauqua, 1047.
- Boys' schools in Rome, statistics, 557, 558.
- Bowden, C., on organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 614-615.
- Brazil, coeducation, 1118.
Education of women, 948.
Statistics of elementary education, 2281-2285.
- Bréal, Michael, quoted on admission of American students to French universities, 308-310.
- Bremen, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Bremer, Frederika, cited on education of women in Sweden, 917.
- Brewer, David J., on need of better education for profession of law, 1254-1259.
- British Columbia, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- British India, statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- British parentage, distribution, 1631.
- Brobrick, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.
- Brooklyn, aid society among teachers, 1100.
Population, 9.
- Brooks, Phillips, on Chautauqua, 1062.
- Brown, George P., on religious instruction, 1644-1645.
- Brown University, founded, 1608-1612.
- Brugmann, Karl, on Slavonic philology in Germany, 716.
- Bruno, educated at Utrecht, 478.
- Brunswick, statistics of elementary education, 416, 2280-2281.
- Bryant, J. E., on drawing children from the farm, 674.
- Bryant, William Cullen, on Chautauqua, 1060.
- Buffalo, population, 9.
Proposed bill for pensions to teachers, 1096-1097.
- Buildings, appropriations for, in France, 294-295.
- Of Swiss normal schools, 447-448.
School, in Holland, 498-499; statistics in cities, 13, 16, 17; in Manitoba, 276; of colleges and universities, 168, 174, 177, 200; of high schools, 46, 57, 58, 85, 102; of public normal schools, 133, 139, 148; of schools of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, nurses, and veterinarians, 238-241; of schools of theology, 236; of technical schools, 183, 231.
- Bulgaria, education of women, 944.
Statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Bureau of Education, bibliography of publications, 1821-1828.
Need of institution of similar character in England, 638.
Scope, 636-639.
- Burger schools in Holland, 509-510.
- Burmah, statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Burstall, Miss Sara A., on the higher education of women in the United States, 897-901.
- Business colleges in Germany, 356.
Statistics, 2222-2247.
- Business course, statistics of students in colleges and universities, 163; students in public normal schools, 129, 131, 135, 137.
- Butler College, admission by certificate, 1183.

C.

- California, college presidents, 1135, 1141, 1145, 1148.
Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
Education in, 1280-1282.
Public school teachers' annuity and retirement fund, 1100-1102.
School laws as to women, 960.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1128.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222, 2223, 2224-2225; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1837, 1848, 1859, 1869, 1879; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 172-177, 188-206, 209-217, 221-222, 224-225, 228, 233, 1217, 2118, 2132-2133; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 111, 118; of colleges for women, 172-217, 2158; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2250, 2254; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2270; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of manual training schools, 2170; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-

- California—Continued.
 2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2198-2199, 2210-2211; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2022-2025; of reform schools, 2274, 2275-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-222, 224-225, 228, 233; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2171; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1892-1894, 1999, 2022-2025; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1467.
- Cambridge, Mass., population, 9.
 Cambridge University (England), statistics, 258.
 Women at, 853-891.
- Camden, N. J., population, 9.
- Camera Bodleiana, or Radcliffe library, Oxford, 850-853.
- Camp meeting, origin of, 995.
- Canada, Manitoba school case, 275-288.
 Religious education, 1634.
 Report of J. J. Findlay on certain features of secondary education in United States and Canada, 621-672.
 Statistics of elementary education in, 2284-2285.
 Upper, religion and the State school system, 669-670.
- Canadian parentage, distribution of, 1632.
- Cape Colony, coeducation, 1116.
 No compulsory school attendance, 1122.
- Cape of Good Hope, statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Carleton College, admission by certificate, 1185.
- Carlyle, Thomas, cited on Prussian Poland, 786.
- Carrara Industrial School, 565.
- Carson and Newman College, admission by certificate, 1187.
- Catechetical classes, 1660-1661.
- Catechetical schools in Rome, 562.
- Catholic Chautauqua, 1015.
- Catholic Educational Union, The, 1066.
- Catholic mission, Alaska, 1429.
- Catholic reading circles, 1076, 1077.
- Catholic Reading Circle Review, 1065.
- Catholic school system of Rome, 556-564.
- Catholic services, Chautauqua, 985, 986.
- Catholic Summer School of America, 1065-1076.
- Catholics, carry out Dutch school law, 479.
 Oppose coeducation in Holland, 474, 485.
 Position on religious instruction in the schools, 656-657.
- Cavalotti, Signor, on proposed changes in Italy, 563.
- Cele, John, school of, in fourteenth century, 478.
- Censorship of press in Poland, 730.
- Central educational board, need of, in England, 609.
- Central Europe, education in, summarized, xx-xxii.
- Central government of the Netherlands, 476.
- Central University, admission by certificate, 1184.
- Certificate, admission to college by, 1171-1188.
 Certificates, danger from, 649.
 Of teachers, in Germany, 701-703.
- Certificates and degrees, Chautauqua, 1030-1032.
- Chaldeans, primitive education among, 1796-1797.
- Charitable institutions in Belgium, statistics, 315.
- Charity commission, schemes for administration of secondary schools for boys, 618-619.
- Charles Martel, son educated at Utrecht, 478.
- Charleston, S. C., population, 10.
- Charlestown, Mass., population, 9.
- Charlottenburg, statistics of public elementary schools, 408.
- Chautauqua: A social and educational study, by H. B. Adams, 977-1077.
 Chautauqua assembly, 1485-1486.
 Chautauqua Assembly Herald, 1057.
 Chautauqua Century Press, The, 1058.
 Chautauqua College of Liberal Arts, 1022-1026
 Chautauqua extension lectures, 1054-1056.
 Chautauqua literary and scientific circles (C. L. S. C.), 1000-1026.
 Chautauqua Pocket Manual, 1011-1013.
 Chautauqua salute, the, 984.
 Chautauqua Woman's Club, constitution, 1052.
 Chautauquan, The, organ of Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, 1005, 1007, 1057.
- Chemistry, at Chautauqua, 1024.
 Statistics of students in secondary schools, 41, 45, 52, 56, 66.
- Chemnitz, Saxony, trade school, 358-380.
- Chicago, age of withdrawal from public school, 1161-1164, 1166, 1169.
 Population, 9.
 Teachers' pension, law for, 1081-1082.
- Chicopee, Mass., population, 9.
- Child labor, forbidden in Holland, 491.
- Child study, G. Stanley Hall on, 1037, 1038.
- Children, transportation of, to school discussed, xxviii-xxix, 1469-1482.
- Chile, education of women, 948.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Chodzko, Leonard, cited on Poland, 734.
- Christian Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
- Christian Union Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
- Church ebullhouses at Chautauqua, 984.
- Church of God, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
- Cincinnati, aid society among teachers, 1093.
 Population, 10.
- Cities, comparison of population, 9-10.
 Growth, 4-8.
 Negroes in, 1404.
 Tendency of men to live in, 1232-1291.
- Citizen tax, at Chautauqua, 992.
- Citizenship, instruction in, in United States, J. J. Findlay on, 657-658.
- City board of education, J. J. Findlay on duties of, 642-643.
- City school system. See Public schools.
- City schools, statistics, 1837-1889.
- City superintendents in United States, 1127-1135.
- Civics, study of, in Swiss normal schools, 433.
- Clafin University, statistics, 1206-1209.
- Clark, S. H., eloquent at Chautauqua, 1042.
- Clark University, 1267-1268.
- Classical course in college, statistics of students preparing for, 38, 43, 49, 54, 78, 95, 96; secondary schools, 39, 62, 64.
- Classical instruction in Italy, 550-552.
- Classical trips, Cambridge, 861, 866.
- Classification of schools in England, 592-593.
 In the Netherlands, 475-476.
- Clemson Agricultural College, statistics, 1203, 1205, 1208.
- Clergy, lose control of schools in Holland and Belgium, 478.
- Cleveland, aid society among teachers, 1093.
 Population, 10.
- Climate in England, 890, 891.
- Clinton, DeWitt, on Lancaster, 1156.
- Clough, Miss A. J., inaugurates courses of lectures for women, 854, 877.
- Cobb Divinity School, 1243.
- Cobbe, Miss Frances Power, on the so-called woman's movement, 893, 894.
- Coeducation, 1115-1118.
 Discussed, 634-635.
 In England, 593, 603-604; in Holland, 482, 484, 485; in United States, 676-677.
- Coeducational colleges, list of presidents, 1135-1141.
- Coeducational colleges and universities, statistics, 155, 166.
- Coeducational training schools in Holland, 505, 506.
- Colby University, admission by certificate, 1184.
 College, as used in England, 807, 808, 835-887.
 College and university, English distinction of, 807, 808, 885-887.
- College-bred woman, 895-903.
 Marriage rate, 968-970.
- College of Liberal Arts, Chautauqua, 1022-1026.
 College preparatory students, statistics, 1890-2016; private secondary schools, 2018-2113.
- College students, statistics of preparation, 669.
- Colleges, admission by certificate, 1171-1188.
 Admission to, discussed, 649.
 Coeducational, statistics of degrees, 166.
 Land grant, technological instruction in, 1189-1210.
 List of presidents, 1135-1152.
 Position and rank in France, 686.

Colleges—Continued.

- Statistics, 155, 156, 162, 167, 203; of appropriations, 205; of benefactions, 202; of degrees conferred, 164, 165; of England, Scotland, and Wales, 258; of Ireland, 259; of income, 201, 204, 206; of libraries, 168, 193, 199; of normal students in, 141, 147; of professors and instructors in collegiate departments, 157, 159, 190, 191, 192; of property, 168; of religious denominations, 153-154; of scientific apparatus, 190; of students, 63, 69, 70, 71, 111-116, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 188, 193, 194, 195, 197; of students preparing in secondary schools, 38, 43, 54, 63, 70, 78, 79, 80, 82, 83, 95, 96, 97, 99, 100; of students in professional departments, 160, 161, 196; of value of grounds and buildings, 200.
- Colleges for benefit of agriculture and mechanic arts, synopsis of laws, 1196-1197.
- Colleges for women, list of presidents, 1141-1143. Statistics, xvi, 172-177, 206-217; in England, 258; of degrees conferred, 173; of income, 174, 177, 217; of scientific apparatus, 213; of professors, 173, 175, 209, 893, 896; of property, 174, 177, 214; of students, 70, 71, 173, 175, 210, 211; of libraries, 212; of sociological work, 1230.
- Collegiate institutes in Canada, documents dealing with inspection, 666-669.
- Colletti, Mrs. Camilla, on education of women in Sweden, 917.
- Colombia, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Colorado, college presidents, 1135, 1143, 1145, 1148. Compulsory education requirements, 1121. School laws as to women, 960. State and city superintendents, 1127, 1128. Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2224-2225; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1837, 1848, 1859, 1869, 1879; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 181-184, 188-206, 221-233, 1217, 2116, 2133; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 111, 118; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2250, 2254; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of manual training schools, 2170; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2198-2199; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2026-2027; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-223, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2171; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1894-1895, 1999, 2026-2027; of teachers and salaries, xiv-xlv. The school district in, 1466.
- Colorado Agricultural College, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
- Colorado College, admission by certificate, 1181.
- Colorado State School of Mines, admission by certificate, 1174.
- Colored race, education of. *See* Negro.
- Colored schools, Washington, 1688-1689, 1694.
- Colored students, statistics of colleges and universities, 153, 159, 160, 161, 162; of normal schools, 130, 135, 2198-2221; of private secondary schools, 36, 48, 77, 94, 2013-2113; of public high schools, 1890-2016.
- Columbian University, admission by certificate, 1182.
- Resolutions on admission of American students to French universities, 310-311.
- Columbus, Ohio, population, 10.
- Comenius, John Amos, 738-740.
- Commercial schools, in Belgium, statistics, 315.
- Commercial colleges, statistics, 2222-2247.
- Commission, royal, on secondary education, report and accompanying papers, 583-712.
- Common school, meaning of term as used by Bureau of Education, ix. Statistics, x-xii, xxxv-xlii. *See also* Public schools.
- Communal schools, aid to, in Holland, 484. In Holland and Belgium in twelfth century, 478.
- Communes, expenditure and income for gymnasia in Holland, 539.
- Comparative education, need of a study of, 637-638.
- Competitive examinations, royal commission on, 595-596.
- Compulsory attendance, 1118-1123.
- Compulsory education in Italy, 545.
- Conaty, Thomas J., on the Catholic Summer School of America, 1072, 1074.
- Concord, N. H., population, 9.
- Condorcet, prohibits coeducation, 482.
- Congregational Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154. Mission in Alaska, 1428. Statistics of private secondary schools, 59.
- Congresses in Italy, 575.
- Conjugal condition of the negroes, 1412.
- Connecticut, amount of education per inhabitant, xiii. College presidents, 1135, 1143, 1145, 1148. Compulsory education requirements, 1121. Conveyance of children to school, 1479-1480. Establishment of State school funds, 1508. Early common schools, 1578-1598. Education in, 1282-1291. Relative increase of public and private schools, 1-11. School laws as to women, 960. Scientific school established, 1191. State and city superintendents, 1127, 1128. Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2224-2225; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1837, 1848, 1859, 1869, 1879; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 181-184, 188-206, 209-212, 223-224, 226, 228-233, 1217, 2116-2117, 2133; of colleges for women, 209-212; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2250, 2254, 2259, 2260; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2271, 2272; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2182-2183; of normal schools, 128-148, 2198-2199; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2026-2029; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2171; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1895-1896, 1999, 2026-2028; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii. The school district in, 1463.
- Continuation and industrial schools, 1123-1125.
- Conveyance of children to school, 1463-1482.
- Cook, Albert S., on Chautauqua Circle, 1022.
- On John H. Vincent, 1059.
- Cooking schools in Germany, 419, 420, 421.
- Copernic (Copernicus), Nicolas, sketch, 731, 732.
- Cornell University, admission by certificate, 1185. Medical school, 1269-1270. Statistics, 1203, 1205, 1207.
- Correlation of courses in secondary and superior instruction in France, 293-294.
- Correspondence system of college teaching, Chautauqua, 1029, 1030.
- Costa Rica, education of women, 947. Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Cotton States and International Exposition, Atlanta, Ga., report on, 1735-1756.
- Count Ossolinski Library, 781.
- County board, J. J. Findlay on duties of, 642.
- County borough boards, proposed for control of secondary education in England, 585-588.
- County borough councils, organization and educational work, 586.
- Courses of study, in elementary schools in Rome, 559. In French primary schools, 296; in French secondary schools, 291, 293. In public elementary schools in Germany, 388-394, 406-425. In Swiss normal schools, 431-435. Statistics, in colleges and universities, 163, 164; in colleges for women, 175; in German secondary schools, 471-477; in German trade schools,

- Courses of study.—Continued.
358-380; in public normal schools, 129; in secondary normal schools, 38-45, 49, 50-56, 62, 63, 64-67, 95.
- Cousin, on coeducation in Holland, 482.
- Covington, Ky., population, 9.
- Cracow, Imperial Academy of Sciences, 766-771.
University of, 727-736, 765-772.
- Criminality of negro, 1412.
- Crosby, Howard, on Chautauqua, 1061.
- Crow, Martha Foote, on facilities for the university education of women in England, 805-891.
- Cuba, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Cumberland Presbyterians, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
- Current educational movements in Italy, 566-575.
- Curriena, school, in England, 592-593.
- Curry, J. L. M., address to assembly of South Carolina, 1326-1329.
- On education in Alabama, 1277-1280.
On education in Georgia, 1291-1297.
On the Slater fund and education of the negro, 1367-1384.
- Cutler, Manasseh, influence on ordinance of 1787, 1523-1524.
- Cuvier, makes unfavorable report on Dutch schools, 479.
On coeducation in Holland, 482.
- Czarnkowski, and disturbances in University of Cracow, 732, 733.
- D.**
- Daily attendance. *See* Attendance.
- Dairy farm schools, 516.
- Dakota, compulsory education requirements, 1121.
School laws as to women, 963, 964.
- Dantzie, statistics of public elementary schools, 415.
- Danville Theological Seminary, 1243.
- Darmstadt, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.
- Davies, Charles, sketch of his work, 1591.
- Day, W. A., cited on Russian Poland, 787.
On Russian Government in Poland, 745.
- Day schools, in Holland, 509-510.
Statistics of pupils in Holland, 490.
- Dayton, Ohio, population, 10.
- Deaf, schools for, in Holland, 518-519.
Schools for, statistics, 2248-2260; in Belgium, 315.
- Defective classes, institutions for, in Belgium, statistics, 315.
Statistics, 2248-2272.
- Degrees, at Chautauqua, 1030-1032.
In colleges for women, 896; in France, 294; in technical schools, conferred on men, 182; in pharmacy, 1235; in theological schools, 2171-2178.
Statistics of agricultural and mechanical colleges, 1210; honorary, 167; in schools of pharmacy, 2190-2191; in colleges for women, 166, 173, 175, 176; in universities and colleges, 164, 165.
- Delaware, city superintendents, 1128.
College presidents, 1135, 1143, 1145, 1148.
Education of the negro, 1332-1339, 1346.
Establishment of State school funds, 1505, 1511.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2226-2227; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1838, 1849, 1860, 1869; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 181, 183-184, 188-204, 206, 221, 223-224, 226, 228-230, 233, 1217, 2117, 2133; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 111; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2250, 2254; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2198-2199; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1064; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2028-2031; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226, 228-233, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2171-2172; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1897, 2028-2030; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii.
- District school, origin and character of, 1457-1467.
- Dittes, Fr., on German pedagogy, 329-345.
- Doctors, female, in Holland, 485.
- Domestic science, study of, in German public elementary schools, 418, 419, 422, 423, 425.
- Donnelly, Sir John F. D., on organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 617.
- Dover, N. H., population, 9.
- Drawing, in Swiss normal schools, 434.
Statistics of, in German public elementary schools, 407-415, 417.
- Drawing schools in Holland, 510-511, 519.
- Dresden, statistics of public elementary schools, 411, 415, 416.
- Dress in early Georgia schools, 1726-1727.
- Dublin University, statistics, 259.
- Duncan, W. A., Sunday school at Chautauqua, 997.
Superintendent of Chautauqua grounds, 980, 991, 994, 995.
- Duncan, William, Alaska, 1431.
- Dundee University, statistics, 258.
- Dunton, Larkin, on Mary Hemenway, 1305, 1309-1310.
- Durham (England) University, statistics, 258.
- Du Saar, Dr., Dutch oculist, 485.
- Dwight, Timothy, work as president of Yale, 1596-1597.
- Delsarte, Americanized at Chautauqua, 1044, 1045.
- Democracy of American education, 629, 630.
- Denmark, coeducation in, 1118.
- Education of women, 915, 916.
- Pensions to teachers, 1103.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
Women excluded from share in local government, 967.
- Women in medicine, 953.
- Denominational schools, hostility to, in Holland, 479.
In England, and the State, 263-273.
Law on, in Holland, 481, 484.
- Dentist, female, in Holland, 486.
- Dentistry, schools of, statistics, xvii, 238-241, 242, 250, 251, 2188-2189.
- De Pauw University, admission by certificate, 1183.
- De Thou, on Polish nobles, 734.
- Detroit, Mich., population, 9.
Teacher's pension, law for, 1082-1086.
- Dickinson, J. W., institutes Teachers' Retreat at Chautauqua, 1035.
Organizes pedagogical department at Chautauqua, 1035.
- Dickinson College, admission by certificate, 1186.
- Diest, Isola van, on education of women, 913, 914.
- Directory, educational, of United States, 1127-1152.
- Discipline in church schools in Rome, 563.
In early schools of Georgia, 1711-1718.
- District of Columbia, city superintendents, 1127, 1128.
College presidents, 1135, 1136, 1143, 1145, 1148.
Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
Education of the negro, 1332-1339, 1346.
Eighty years of the public schools of Washington, 1673-1698.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2226-2227; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1838, 1849, 1860, 1869; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 181, 183-184, 188-204, 206, 221, 223-224, 226, 228-230, 233, 1217, 2117, 2133; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 111; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2250, 2254; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2198-2199; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1064; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2028-2031; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226, 228-233, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2171-2172; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1897, 2028-2030; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii.
- District school, origin and character of, 1457-1467.
- Dittes, Fr., on German pedagogy, 329-345.
- Doctors, female, in Holland, 485.
- Domestic science, study of, in German public elementary schools, 418, 419, 422, 423, 425.
- Donnelly, Sir John F. D., on organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 617.
- Dover, N. H., population, 9.
- Drawing, in Swiss normal schools, 434.
Statistics of, in German public elementary schools, 407-415, 417.
- Drawing schools in Holland, 510-511, 519.
- Dresden, statistics of public elementary schools, 411, 415, 416.
- Dress in early Georgia schools, 1726-1727.
- Dublin University, statistics, 259.
- Duncan, W. A., Sunday school at Chautauqua, 997.
Superintendent of Chautauqua grounds, 980, 991, 994, 995.
- Duncan, William, Alaska, 1431.
- Dundee University, statistics, 258.
- Dunton, Larkin, on Mary Hemenway, 1305, 1309-1310.
- Durham (England) University, statistics, 258.
- Du Saar, Dr., Dutch oculist, 485.
- Dwight, Timothy, work as president of Yale, 1596-1597.

E.

- Earlham College, admission by certificate, 1183.
 Early educational life in middle Georgia, 1699-1733.
 East Indies, preparation for official position in, 517.
 Eastman, Mary F., on culture of woman, 904.
 Eclectic medical schools, statistics, 239, 242, 2186-2187.
 Economics and social science at Chautauqua, 1024.
 Ecuador, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
 Edinburgh University, statistics, 258.
 Education and the Talmud, 1795-1820.
 Education in Italy, 543-582; in the South, 1744-1756.
 Education of Girls in the United States, by Miss Sara A. Burstall, quoted, 897-901.
 Educational associations, value of, in England, 600.
 Educational council in England, proposed, 585-586.
 Educational directory of United States, 1127-1152.
 Edwards, Ninian W., 1615.
 Efficiency of secondary schools in England, 590-592.
 Eggleston, Edward, on Chautauqua, 1062.
 Egmond Monastery, educational work, 478.
 Egypt, primitive education in, 1798-1799.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
 Elementary education in foreign countries, statistics, 2280-2285.
 Elementary pupils, statistics of, in public normal schools, 129, 135; in secondary schools, 48, 61, 74, 76, 91.
 Elementary schools, in Germany, 380, 428, 471-473; in Italy, 545-548, 556-559, 569, 570-571.
 Religious instruction in state-aided schools in England, 263-273.
 Statistics, of Belgium, 314; of England and Wales, 258; of Germany, 443-471; of Ireland 259; of Prussia, 402; of Scotland, 258-263.
 Eliot, Charles W., cited on the unity of education, 627-628.
 On A. B. degree, 1237.
 On secondary schools in the United States, 676-679.
 Ellis, Alston, on technical training, 1200.
 Elmira, N. Y., population, 9.
 Eloquence, the new, 1041, 1042.
 Emery, Matthew G., last mayor of Washington, 1688.
 Emigrants, Italian, protection of, 1789-1794.
 Ende, M. van den, law of, to improve public schools, 479.
 Endowed academies. *See* Academies.
 Endowed schools, in United States, 632.
 Endowed schools act, provisions, 598-599.
 Endowments. *See* Benefactions.
 England, characteristics of school system, 584.
 Climate, 890, 891.
 Coeducation, 1116.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Definition of the three phases of education, 617.
 Education of women in, summarized, xxv-xxvii; facilities for the university education of women in, 805-831.
 Has no parallel to American private educational enterprises, 623.
 Higher grade schools needed, 612-614, 615.
 Income for secondary education, 588.
 Local educational authority needed, 612.
 Modifications of secondary education, 607-608.
 Need of central educational board, 609.
 No training for secondary teachers, 686.
 Opportunities for free education, 611.
 Proposition to create a ministry of, 584-586.
 Public support for denominational schools, 263-273.
 Religious education, 1627, 1632-1635.
 Religious instruction in state-aided elementary schools, 263-273.
 Sanitary inspection of schools, 589.
 School organization compared with that in Prussia and United States, 641 *note*.
 Statistics of elementary schools, 258, 262.
 Systems differ in, 629.
 Tendency to differentiation between rich and poor universities, 608.
 Training of teachers in, by J. G. Fitch, 679-685.
 Women in medicine, 950, 951.
- England and Wales, statistics of colleges and universities, 258; of elementary education, 258, 2282-2283; of secondary schools, 259.
 English, study of, in German public elementary schools, 414, 417; in Swiss normal schools, 445.
 English language, necessity for, in schools of Manitoba, 277-278.
 English language and literature at Chautauqua, 1023.
 English lodging system, 889-890.
 English methods of teaching American history, 1757-1787.
 Enrollment, statistics, xxxix-xl; in Belgium, 315; in city schools, 12, 14, 16, 17, 1837, 1847, 1879-1889; in England and Wales, 261; in France, 290, 297; in Scotland, 261; in normal schools, 130, 136; in private schools, 12.
See also Attendance.
 Entrance examinations, at Girton College, 872-873; at Newnham College, 878, 879.
 Episcopal private secondary schools, statistics, 59.
 Equipment, in German public elementary schools, 398-399.
 Statistics of, in public high schools, 46, 57, 58, 85.
 Ethnology, instruction in, in Holland, 519-520.
 Europe, central, education in, 321-473.
 Evils of, from overeducation not found in America, 624.
 Pensions paid to teachers, 1102, 1113.
 Evangelical Association, catechetical classes, 1660-1661.
 Evangelical Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
 Evangelical Lutheran parochial schools, 1662, 1664.
 Evening instruction in pharmacy, 1241.
 Evening schools in Holland, 489, 490, 509-510; in Italy, 547.
 Examinations, 592.
 At Newnham College, 878-881; at Oxford, England, 811-820; at Cambridge, England, 857-865; at Girton, 872-874.
 In girls' schools in Holland, 514; in Swiss normal schools, 446-447.
 Leaving, in secondary schools of Prussia, 708-712.
 Regents, at Chautauqua, 1040, 1041.
 Royal commission on, 592.
 Statistics in Holland, 536-537.
 Exhibitions in early Georgia schools, 1727-1728.
 Expenditures, for primary instruction in Holland, 499-501.
 For schools in United States, 645.
 In Switzerland, 448-449.
 Of church schools in Rome, 563-564.
 School, statistics, liv-lviii; for Belgium, 314; for cities, 13, 15, 16, 17; for England and Wales, 258, 261, 262; for France, 290, 297; for Germany, 358; for Holland, for secondary school, 520-522, 527; for Ireland, 259; for Manitoba, 276; for manual training, 2170; for Scotland, 258, 261, 262; for public schools, 1869-1878, 1879-1881; for reform schools, 2273-2279; for schools for defective classes, 2248-2249, 2261-2262, 2267, 2270.
 Extension of secondary schools in England, discussed, 594-597.
 Ezra, as an educator, 1806-1808.

F.

- Fairbairn, A. A., on Chautauqua Circle movement, 1021.
 On Chautauqua, 1063.
 Fall River, Mass., population, 9.
 Fatigue, mental, discussed in Germany, 449-460.
 Fawcett, Mrs. Millicent Garrett, on woman's education, 909.
 Feeble-minded, statistics of institutions for, 2267-2272.
 Fellowships, statistics of, in colleges and universities, 168; in colleges for women, 174; in technical schools, 183.
 Female handiwork, study of, in German public elementary schools, 407-415, 417; in Swiss normal schools, 435.
 Feministes, oppose subsidizing of middle girls' schools, 484.
 Ficklen, John R., on education in Louisiana, 1297-1305.

- Finances of Chautauqua, 694, 995.
 Financial resources of secondary schools in England, 597.
 Findlay, J. J., on the training of teachers of secondary schools in Germany, 693-703.
 Report on certain features of secondary education in United States and Canada, 621-672.
 Finland, education of women, 943.
 School laws as to women, 967.
 Statistics of elementary education in, 2232-2233.
 Women in medicine, 954.
 Fishkill, N. Y., population, 9.
 Fiske, John, cited on meaning of infancy, 794.
 On Chautauqua Circle movement, 1022.
 Fitch, J. G., address at Chautauqua, 1010.
 On the training of teachers in England, 679-685.
 Fitting schools in United States, 632.
 Fletcher, G. T., on conveyance of children to school, 1470-1471.
 Florida, college presidents, 1136, 1143, 1145, 1148.
 Education of the negro, 1332-1338, 1346.
 School laws as to women, 960.
 State and city superintendents, 1227, 1123.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2226-2227; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1833, 1849, 1860, 1870; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166, 168-169, 181-184, 188-206, 221-226, 228-233, 1217, 2117, 2133; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 111; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2263, 2265; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2250, 2254; of normal schools, 22, 128-148, 2198-2199, 2210-2211; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of private schools, xlviii, 2030-2031; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2166, 2168; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1857, 2000, 2030-2031; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvi.
 The school district in, 1465.
 Florida Agricultural College, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
 Florida State Normal and Industrial College for Colored Students, statistics, 1208, 1209.
 Floris V, grants educational privileges, 478.
 Food, at Chautauqua, 992.
 Ford, Mrs. J. W., and primary religious teaching at Chautauqua, 997.
 Ford, Radcliffe H., on schools of Loughorn in 1863, 564-566.
 Foreign-born population, per cent, xxxvi.
 Foreign countries, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2285.
 Foreign parentage, statistics, 1623.
 Forestry, study of, in German public elementary schools, statistics, 413.
 Fowle, William B., 1153, 1157-1158.
 France, coeducation, 1116-1118; prohibited, 482.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Correlation of courses in secondary and superior instruction, 293-294.
 Development of universities, 292-294.
 Education in, xix-xx, 289-312.
 Education of women, 911-913.
 Educational congress at Havre, 301, 303-305.
 General features of educational system, 289-291.
 Higher education of women, 294.
 Improvements in schools for adults, 298-303.
 Legal instruction, 293.
 Little chance to work out experiments, 639.
 Medical instruction, 293.
 Modifications in secondary instruction, 291-292.
 Movement for admission of American students to universities, 305-312.
 Musée Pédagogique, work, 296.
 Overlapping of systems, 629.
 Pensions to teachers, 1104.
 Position and rank of lycées and colleges, 686.
 Primary education, 294-295, 296, 297.
 Religious instruction, 1628, 1631.
 School laws as to women, 966.
 Statistics of distribution of pupils in public, private, secular, and clerical schools, 298; of elementary education in, 2280-2281; of normal schools, 297.
 Training of teachers of secondary schools, 685-697.
- France—Continued.
 Women in medicine, 952.
 Franeker, university at, 478.
 Franklin, Mrs. Christine Ladd, on education of women in the South, 996, 997.
 Fraser, Bishop, report on American schools quoted, 655.
 Frederick the Great, quoted on Prussian Poland, 786.
 Free education, argument against, 616.
 Opportunities for, in England, 611.
 Free instruction, answers in regard to, in Canada, 673-676.
 Free schools, conditions under which they receive Government aid in Holland, 482-484.
 Free University of Amsterdam, statistics, 537.
 Freedmen's Bureau, 1377.
 Freewill Baptists, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
 French, Miss Frances Graham, on current educational movements in Italy, 566-575.
 On higher education of women, 893-976.
 French, in Swiss normal schools, 432, 445.
 Statistics in German public elementary schools, 411, 415, 417; of students in secondary schools, 39, 44, 50, 55, 64.
 French language and literature at Chautauqua, 1023.
 Freytag, Gustav, cited on Poland, 717.
 On Prussian Poland, 786-788.
 Friends, religious instruction, 1666; statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
 Private secondary schools, 59.
 Fulcomer, Daniel, instruction in sociology in institutions of learning, 1211-1221.
 Funds, of elementary schools in England, Scotland, and Wales, 261.
 Provision for, 644.
 State school, A. D. Mayo on the establishment of, 1505-1511.
 Statistics of productive, in colleges and universities, 163, 169, 201, 204; in private secondary schools, 57, 58; in colleges for women, 174, 177, 215; in normal schools, 132, 138; in public high schools, 46, 57-58; in technical schools, 183, 184.
 Furber, Professor, quoted on admission of American students to French universities, 306-308, 311-312.
 Furniture, statistics of, Manitoba, 276.
 Furman University, coeducational, 1115.
- G.**
- Galicja, or Austrian Poland, 765-785.
 Gallaudet, Thomas H., sketch of his work, 1591.
 Gallo, Signor, on merits of elementary and secondary schools in Italy, 569.
 Games in early schools of Georgia, 1718-1726.
 Gannett, Henry, occupations and statistical sketch of the negroes, 1384-1415.
 Garfield, James A., on Chautauqua, 1060.
 Garret Biblical Institute, 1243.
 Gates, Merrill E., on Chautauqua Circles, 1002.
 Gates College, admission by certificate, 1185.
 General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church, 1244.
 Geneva, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Geographical distribution of the negro, 1404-1412.
 Geography, study of, in Italy, 571; in German public elementary schools, 407-415, 417; in Swiss normal schools, 433.
 Geology, at Chautauqua, 1024.
 Statistics of students in secondary schools pursuing, 41, 45, 52, 56, 65, 66.
 Geometry, statistics of students in secondary schools, 40, 44, 51, 55, 65; in Germany, public elementary schools, 407, 409, 411, 415.
 Georgetown, D. C., population, 9.
 Georgia, college presidents, 1136, 1141, 1143, 1145, 1148, 1149.
 Education in, 1291-1297; education of the negro, 1332-1339, 1346.
 Middle, early educational life in, 1699-1733.
 Old-field schools discussed, xxix.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1128.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2226, 2227; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1833, 1849, 1860, 1870, 1880; of colleges and univer-

Georgia—Continued.

- sities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-226, 228, 230-233, 1217, 2117, 2133-2134; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 111-112; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2158; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2168; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2250, 2254; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-248, 2182-2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2193-2199, 2210-2211; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2030-2035; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 121-233, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2172; of secondary schools, 36, 98-46, 48-57, 59-63, 70, 72-105, 1867-1900, 2000-2001, 2030-2033; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii.
- The county a school district, 1464.
- Georgia Industrial College for Colored Youths, statistics, 1206, 1208.
- Geritson, M. G. V., marries Dr. Jacobs, 485, 486.
- German, statistics of, in Swiss normal schools, 445; students in secondary schools, 39, 44, 59, 55, 61.
- German Empire, amount of education per inhabitant, xiii.
- Pensions to teachers, 1102, 1103.
- German Evangelical parochial schools, 1663, 1664.
- German language and literature, Chautauqua, 1023.
- German parentage, distribution of, 1631.
- German Presbyterian parochial schools, 1665.
- German universities, American students in, 1123.
- Germany, coeducation in, 1118.
- Continuation schools, 1123.
- Cooking schools, 421.
- Domestic science in public schools of, 418.
- Education of women, 921-925.
- Elementary education in, 471-473, 2280-2281.
- Field for educational ideas, 626.
- Manual training in, 419, 420, 421, 422.
- Mental fatigue in school discussed, 440-460.
- New education in, 322-329.
- Overeducation, 625.
- Overlapping of systems, 629.
- Public elementary schools, 380-403, 406-425.
- Religious instruction, 1629.
- State of pedagogy in, 329-345.
- Successful methods copied in larger States, 639.
- Supplementary and industrial schools in, 345-380.
- Training teachers of secondary schools, 693-708.
- Women in medicine, 955.
- Gibbons, James, Cardinal, on religious instruction, 1641.
- Gilman, D. C., on industrial schools, 1194, 1195.
- Girls, boarding schools for, in Rome, 561.
- Education of, 1289-1282.
- Royal commission on education of, 601, 602-604.
- Secondary education of, discussed, 602-604.
- Secondary schools for, in Holland, 514-515.
- Girls' Club, Chautauqua, 1048-1050.
- Girls' schools in Rome, statistics, 558.
- Girton College, 853-857, 869, 867, 869-877; entrance examination, 872, 873; scholarship examinations, 873, 874.
- Gladenbach, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.
- Glasgow University, statistics, 258.
- Golownin, A., and education in Poland, 749.
- Gottheil, Richard J. H., and Jewish branch of Chautauqua Circle, 1014.
- Goucher, John F., on Why the college for women? 1751-1755.
- Government of Chautauqua, 991.
- Government of the Netherlands, account of, 476-477.
- Graduate membership, Chautauqua Circle, 1018.
- Graduates, in nurse-training schools, 255.
- Statistics; business colleges, 2222-2247; in colleges and universities, 160, 161; in colleges for women, 175, 211; in colored schools, 1338-1345;

Graduates—Continued.

- in dental schools, 242, 251; in law schools, 237, 246, 2179-2181; in medical schools, 242, 248, 249; in normal schools, 54, 131, 137, 144, 2198-2221; in pharmacy schools, 242, 253; in private secondary schools, 2018-2113; in public high schools, 1890-2016; in schools of nurses and veterinarians, 242; in secondary schools, 38, 43, 49, 54, 61, 63, 81, 82, 83, 98, 99, 100; in technical schools, 181, 227; in theological schools, 236, 244.
- Grammar, examination in, Oxford, 813.
- Grant, Principal, quoted on Manitoba schools, 276-278.
- Grants, documents used in awarding, in New York, 659-662.
- Gratuitous instruction in Holland, statistics, 400, 497.
- Great Britain, annuities to teachers, 1102.
- Coeducation in, 1115-1116.
- Education of women, 907-911.
- Educational statistics, 257-263.
- "Grants-in-aid," 1631-1632.
- Religious instruction, 1627.
- School laws as to women, 965, 966.
- School matters discussed, xvii-xviii.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Greats, or second public examination, Oxford, 318-322, 850.
- Greece, education of women, 934-937.
- Pensions to teachers, 1105.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Greek, preparatory at Chautauqua, 1023.
- Statistics, students in secondary schools, 39, 44, 50, 55, 64.
- Greek culture, Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, 1010, 1011.
- Greeks, primitive education among, 1799-1890.
- Gregory, educational work, 478.
- Grisons, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Groenists demand denominational schools, 479.
- Groningen, training school at, 505.
- University founded at, 478.
- Grounds, of Swiss normal schools 447-448.
- Statistics of colleges and universities, 168, 200; of colleges for women, 174, 177; of high schools, 46, 57, 58, 85, 102; of normal schools, 133, 139; of schools of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, nurses and veterinarians, 238-241; of schools of theology, 236; of technical schools, 183, 231.
- Grutterink, Alice, Dutch pharmacist, 466.
- Guatemala, education of women, 947.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Guilford, Nathan, influence on education in Ohio, 1531-1532.
- Gymnasial, in Holland, 484-485, 528, 536-537.
- Gymnasial-Seminar of Prussia and Saxe-Weimar, work, 705-706.
- Gymnastics, study of, in German public elementary schools, 407-417; in Swiss normal schools, 431.

H.

- Haarlem, military school at, 524.
- Hadrian IV, born in Utrecht, 478.
- Hagen, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.
- Hale, Edward Everett, cited on acoustics at Chautauqua, 933.
- On Chautauqua, 1061.
- Hall, G. Stanley, lecture at Chautauqua, 1037-1040.
- Hall, John, on Chautauqua, 1062.
- Halle, statistics of public elementary schools, 408.
- Hamburg, statistics of elementary education, 414-416, 2280-2281.
- Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, statistics, 1206-1209.
- Hanover, statistics of public elementary schools, 415-416.
- Harley, Lewis R., on Public Education Association of Philadelphia, 1325.
- Harper, William R., on Bible study at Chautauqua, 998.
- On Chautauqua, 1063.
- On Chautauqua Circle movement, 1022.
- Principal of Chautauqua systems, 981.
- Harris, William T., on distinction made between primary and secondary education, 629.
- On increase of private schools, 632 *note*.

Harris, William T.—Continued.
 On positions held by graduates of public schools, 625 *note*.
 On religious instruction, 1643.
 Hartford, Conn., population, 9.
 Harvard law school, institutions represented, 1250.
 Harvard University, students in prepared by private teachers, 678.
 Havre, summary of proceedings of the educational congress, 303-305.
 Hawaii, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
 Hayes, Rutherford B., on John F. Slater, 1423.
 Head teachers, training course for, 507.
 Hebrews, primitive education among, 1798.
 Heinrich, educated at Utrecht, 478.
 Hemenway, Mary, addresses on work of, 1305-1317.
 Henry the Fowler, sons educated at Utrecht, 478.
 Herbartianism, the new education in Germany, 322-329.
 Herdewijk, university founded at, 478.
 Hervey, Walter L., teaches at Chautauqua, 1036.
 Hesse, statistics of elementary education in, 412, 413, 416, 2280-2281.
 Hieronymians, the, establish schools, 478.
 Higgins Memorial Hall at Chautauqua, 1050.
 Higginson, T. W., on women and men—the assault on private schools, 1317-1318.
 High schools, characteristics of, in America, 630-631; in Canada, documents dealing with inspection, 666-669; in Italy, 559-564.
 Needed in England, 634.
 Statistics, 36-105, 1810-2016; of appropriations, 46, 47, 86, 103; of endowment, 32-35; of normal students, 141, 142.
 Technical subjects, 635-636.
 See also Secondary schools.
 Higher burgher schools in Holland, 511-514.
 Higher criticism at Chautauqua, 1033.
 Higher education, comparative statistics, 184-233.
 In Poland 713-793; in Germany, 471-472; in the South, 1747-1751; in the United States, statistical review, 149-233.
 See also Colleges; Universities.
 Higher grade schools, necessity for, in England, 612-614, 615.
 Higher instruction, expenditures for, in Holland, 538-542.
 Higher normal school of Paris, description of, 692-693.
 Hill, Frank A., on conveyance of children to school, 1474-1476.
 Hill, Thomas, on religious instruction, 1643.
 Hillsdale College, admission by certificate, 1184.
 Historical department, University of Lemberg, 779.
 Historical sketch of former royal commissions, 598-599.
 Historical tripos, Cambridge, 862.
 Historico-philological faculty, University of Warsaw, 752, 756.
 Historico-philosophical department, Cracow, 768.
 History, American, English methods of teaching, 1757.
 Statistics, students in secondary schools, 42, 45, 53, 56, 67; in German public elementary schools, 407-415, 417, 420.
 Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 433.
 Teaching of, in Italy, 570-571.
 History and political science at Chautauqua, 1024.
 Hodge, N. A., on religious instruction, 1641.
 Holiday schools in Italy, 547.
 Holidays in early Georgia schools, 1728.
 Holland, coeducation in, 1118.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Education in, 475-542.
 Pension to teachers, 1104.
 See also Netherlands.
 Holland Christian Reformed parochial schools, 1663, 1664.
 Hollkamm, F., on rural schools in Germany, 381-403.
 Home instruction in Holland, 480.
 Home students, registered women, Oxford, 849.
 Homeopathic medical schools, statistics, 239, 242, 249, 2186-2187.
 Honduras, education of women, 947.
 Honor examinations, Oxford, women's special, 828-830.
 Honors schools, Oxford, 822-830.

Hopkins, Louisa Parsons, report on manual training, 670-671.
 Hospice of the Sacred Heart, work, 562.
 Hospitals, statistics of Dutch, 533, 534.
 Hotel Atheneum at Chautauqua, 980-982.
 Houten, M. van, favors subsidizing girls' schools, 484.
 Howard University, admission by certificate, 1182.
 Howe, Mrs. Julia Ward, on education of women, 903.
 Howe, S. H., memoir of John F. Slater, 1417-1419.
 Howland, John, influence in Rhode Island, 1612-1613.
 Hughes, Hugh Price, quoted on religious instruction in state-aided elementary schools, and public support for denominational schools, 268, 272.
 Humane education, 1318.
 Humpal-Zeman, Mme. Josephine, education of women in Austria, 927.
 Hungary, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Pensions to teachers, 1103.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
 Hurlbut, J. C., on Chautauqua Circle, 1008-1010.
 Hurlbut, J. L., on Bible study at Chautauqua, 997, 998.
 On Chautauqua, 1064.
 Hurlbut, Jesse H., on Chautauqua Circle, 1022.
 Hygiene, mental fatigue in German schools discussed, 449-460.
 Study of, in German public elementary schools, 419, 420, 423.

I.

Iceland, education of women, 916.
 Laws as to women in public affairs, 967.
 Women in medicine, 953.
 Icelanders, schools in Manitoba, 277.
 Idaho, college presidents, 1136, 1145.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 Religious instruction, 1654-1655.
 School laws as to women, 964.
 State superintendent, 1127.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2226-2227; of city school systems, 14, 15; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 167-169, 188-196, 198-206, 227, 2117, 2134; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of normal schools, 128-148; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2034-2035; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1900, 2034-2035; of teachers' salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1467.
 Illinois, amount of education per inhabitant, xiii.
 College presidents, 1136, 1141, 1143, 1145, 1149.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 Early education in, 1539-1544.
 Education of the negro, 1338, 1348.
 Flag law, 1652.
 Law for teachers' pension fund in great cities, 1081-1082.
 School laws as to women, 960.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1128-1129.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2226-2229; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1838, 1849, 1860, 1870, 1880; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 172-177, 181, 183-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-231, 233, 1217, 2117-2118, 2134-2135; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 112, 118-120; of colleges for women, 172-177, 209-217, 2156, 2158; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2250, 2254, 2256-2258, 2259, 2260; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2270; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179; of manual training schools, 2170; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2200-2201, 2210-2211; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2034-2037; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property,

- Illinois—Continued.
 xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-226, 228-231, 233, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2172; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; of secondary schools, 37-45, 48-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1900-1906, 2001, 2034-2037; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1465.
- Illinois State Teachers' Association, discussion on religious instruction, 1643-1645.
- Illinois Wesleyan University, admission by certificate, 1182.
- Illiteracy, negro, 1332-1334, 1413-1415.
 Statistics in Italy, 548.
- Imber, Naphtali Herz, on education and the Talmud, 1795-1820.
- Immigration, effect on school systems, 1619.
- Imperial Royal of Sciences, Cracow, 766-771.
- Imperial Royal School of Technology in Lemberg, 782-783.
- Income. *See* Receipts.
- India, education of women, 945.
- Indian Territory, college presidents, 1136.
- Statistics of city school systems, 14, 15; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166, 168-169, 188-200, 202-204, 206, 2113, 2135; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 112; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of normal schools, 128-148; of parochial schools, 1664; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-56, 58-68, 70, 72-105, 1913, 2002, 2038-2039.
- Indiana, college presidents, 1136, 1141, 1143, 1145, 1149.
 Early education in, 1535-1539.
 Education of the negro, 1340, 1348.
 School laws as to women, 961.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1129.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2228, 2229; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1839, 1850, 1860, 1870, 1881; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 161-163, 165-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-214, 216-217, 221-233, 1217-1218, 2119, 2135; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training classes, 112, 120; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-214, 216-217, 2158; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2250, 2254, 2256-2258; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2270; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2179-2180; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2181-2185, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2200-2201, 2212-2213; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2036-2039; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2173; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71, 1907-1913, 2001-2002, 2036-2039; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1465.
- Indiana University, admission by certificate, 1171, 1173.
- Indianapolis, Ind., population, 9.
- Industrial and continuation schools, 1123-1125.
- Industrial education, extract from report on, 670-671.
- Industrial pursuits, opposed by secondary schools, 674.
- Industrial schools, in Belgium, 315; in Germany, 345-380; in Holland, 510-511; in Italy, 564-565; in Rome, 562.
- Infant asylum, in Rome, 562.
- Infant schools in Holland, 488, 491-492, 493; in Italy, 544.
- Inspection, 591.
 Documents used for, in New York, 651-665.
 In Canada, documents relating to, 666-669; in New York, Ontario, and Minnesota, 640-641, 646-647; in United States, 645-647.
- Inspectors in Holland, 475, 486-487.
- Institutions for the defective classes, statistics 2248-2272.
- Instruction in sociology, 1211-1221.
- Instructors. *See* Teachers.
- Intermediate education act, in Wales, effect, 600.
- Iowa, Agricultural School in, 1192.
 Amount of education per inhabitant, xiii.
 City and State superintendents, 1127, 1129.
 College presidents, 1136-1137, 1143, 1145, 1149.
 School laws as to women, 961.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2228-2231; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1833, 1850, 1861, 1871, 1881; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 181-184, 188-206, 221, 223-233, 1218, 2119, 2135-2136; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 112, 120; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2250, 2254, 2259, 2260; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268-2270; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2200-2201, 2212-2213; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2038-2041; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-233, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2173; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1913-1920, 2002-2003, 2038-2041; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1466.
- Iowa State Agricultural College, admission by certificate, 1175.
- Ipsen, Mr., quoted on Dutch schools, 498.
 Quoted on higher education, 486.
- Ireland, coeducation in, 1116.
 Religious education in, 1624-1625.
 School matters discussed, xvii-xviii.
 Statistics of colleges and universities, 259; of elementary education, 2282-2283.
 Women in medicine, 951.
- Irish parentage, distribution of, 1631.
- Italian, study of, in Swiss normal schools, 432, 445.
- Italian emigrants in America, protection of, 1789-1794.
- Italy, area and population, 543.
 Coeducation in, 1118.
 Compulsory educational requirements, 1122.
 Education in, 543-582.
 Education in summarized, xxiii-xxiv.
 Education of women, 937-940.
 Pensions to teachers, 1105.
 Religious instruction, 1628.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
 Women in medicine, 956.
- J.**
- Jackson, Sheldon, report on education in Alaska, 1425-1455.
- Jacobi, Mary Putnam, on women in medicine, 949, 950.
- Jacobs, Aletta, career, 485, 486.
- Jacobs, Charlotte, Dutch pharmacist, 486.
- Jagiellon University, 731, 765, 766.
- Jamaica, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Japan, education of women, 946, 947.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Java, Dutch schools in, 501-502.
- Jay, John, on religious instruction, 1642-1643.
- Jefferson, Thomas, and education in Washington, 1674-1675, 1676.
- Jesuit schools in Poland, 736.
- Jewish branch of Chautauqua Circle, 1013-1015.
- Jewish education, 1618.
- Johns Hopkins Hospital, 1261.
- Johns Hopkins Medical School, 1261.
- Johns Hopkins University, admission by certificate, 1184.
- Johnston, Richard Malcolm, on early educational life in middle Georgia, 1699-1733.

Jordan, David Starr, on American law schools, 1251-1252.

On educating girls, 1280-1282.

Joseph II, work for education in Austrian Poland, 776.

K.

Kampen, military school at, 524.

Kansas, college presidents, 1137, 1141, 1144, 1145, 1149.

Compulsory education requirements, 1121.

School laws as to women, 961.

State and city superintendents, 1127, 1129.

Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2230-2231; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1838, 1851, 1861, 1871, 1881; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 1218, 2119-2120, 2136; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 112, 120; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2158; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2250, 2254; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2170; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of medical schools, 238, 247-249, 2182-2183; of normal schools, 123-148, 2200-2201, 2212-2213; of parochial schools, 1664-1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2040-2041; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 2166, 2168; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1920-1923, 2003, 2040-2041; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvii.

The school district in, 1466.

Kansas State Agricultural College, admission by certificate, 1176.

Statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.

Keane, J. J., on religious instruction, 1641-1642.

Kensington, Pa., population, 10.

Kentucky, college presidents, 1137, 1142, 1144, 1145, 1149-1150.

Education of the negro, 1322-1340, 1348.

Establishment of State school fund, 1508.

Religious instruction, 1655.

School laws as to women, 961.

State and city superintendents, 1127, 1129.

Statistics of business colleges, 2222, 2223, 2230-2231; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1840, 1851, 1861, 1871, 1881; of colleges and universities, 155, 158, 160, 162-164, 196-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-223, 1218, 2120-2121, 2137; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 112-113; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2158; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2250, 2254; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2270; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-2183; of normal schools, 123-148, 2200-2201, 2212-2215; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2040-2045; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-223, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2173; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1924-1925, 2004, 2040-2045; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvii.

The school district in, 1465.

Kiehle, D. L., on religious instruction, 1645.

Kiel, statistics of public elementary schools, 415.

Kimball, Miss Kate F., on Chautauqua Circle, 1016.

Secretary Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, 1607.

Kindergarten, at Chautauqua, 1053.

Kingsbury, Pres., on the tendency of men to live in cities, 1282-1291.

Kingston, N. Y., population, 9.

Koeningberg, University of, Polish origin, 737, 789-790.

Koerner, Chris., on parochial schools, 1648-1649, 1665.

Konarski, Stanislas, educational work in Poland, 740.

Krasicki, Polish poet, 742.

Kristensen-Randers, Miss Nanna, on education of women, 915.

Kropotkin, cited on Poland, 721, 722.

L.

Lady Margaret Hall, 806, 808, 840, 844, 845-847.

Lalshley, R., report on religious instruction in Europe and the United States, 1627-1630.

Lake Chautauqua, 993.

Lake Forest University, admission by certificate, 1182.

Lancaster, Joseph, monitorial system, 1155-1156.

Lancaster, Pa., population, 10.

Lancasterian school in Washington, 1677-1678.

Land-grant colleges, technological instruction in, 1189-1210.

Language of Poland, 723-726.

Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 431-432; in German in public elementary schools, 407-415, 417.

Languages, instruction in Holland, 519-520.

Lanier, Sidney, study of, by C. L. S. C., 1016.

Latin, examination in, Oxford, 813.

Introduced in Poland, 726.

Preparatory, Chautauqua, 1023.

Statistics, students in secondary schools, 39, 44, 50, 55, 64.

Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 432, 445.

Latter Day Saints, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.

Lavisse, M., quoted on admission of American students in French universities, 305-306.

Law, woman in, 956-958.

Law faculty, University of Cracow, 770; University of Lemberg, 779; University of Warsaw, 752, 757.

Law schools, 1245-1259.

Statistics, xvi, 237, 242, 245, 246, 315, 319, 2179-2181; in Belgium, 315.

Law trips, Cambridge, 863.

Lawrence, Abbot, founded Lawrence Scientific School, 1190, 1191.

Lawrence University, admission by certificate, 1187.

Lawyers, incompetency of, 1252-1253.

Leaving certificates discussed, 640, 647-648, 649.

Leaving examinations in secondary school of Prussia, 708-712.

Lecture flies, local term for certain cabs at Girton, 875.

Lectures at Newnham College, 882-884.

Legal instruction in France, 293.

Leghorn, schools of, in 1893, 564-566.

Lehman, Rudolph, gives lecture hall to University of Amsterdam, 535.

Leipsic, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.

Leitenberger, Johanna, on education of women in Austria, 925, 926.

Leland Stanford Junior University, admission by certificate, 1181.

Lelewel cited, 719 note, 722, 728; on Poland, 713 note.

Lemberg, Imperial Royal School of Technology, 782, 783.

University of, 765, 769, 772-781.

Lemgo, statistics of public elementary schools, 413, 416.

Leroy-Beaulieu, Anatole, on Poland, 718.

Leszno, or Lissa, school of, 737-740.

Lewis, Samuel, first school superintendent of Ohio, 1532-1534.

Leyden has first university in Holland, 478.

Infant schools of, 492.

Training schools of, 505.

Liberal Arts, College of, at Chautauqua, 1022-1026.

Libraries, in Prussian Poland, 790-792.

Of Oxford, 849-853.

School, in Holland, 499.

Statistics of colleges for women, 177, 212, 2156-2165; of colored schools, 1337, 1346-1355; of schools of dentistry, pharmacy, nurses, and veterinarians, 238-241; of Dutch, 533, 534, 535;

Libraries—Continued.

of German trade schools, 358; of law schools, 237, 2179-2181; of medical schools, 238-241, 2182-2187; of normal schools, 133, 139; of private secondary schools, 2018-2113; of public high schools, 1890-2016; of schools for defective classes, 2248-2249, 2261, 2262, 2270; of secondary schools, 46, 57, 58, 84, 101; of technological schools, 183, 229, 2168, 2169; of theological schools, 236, 2171-2178; of universities and colleges, 168, 198, 199.

Library, the Count Ossoliński, 781.

Library, of University of Cracow, 771; of University of Lemberg, 781; of University of Warsaw, 758, 759.

Lincoln, Nebr., prison work of Chautauqua circle, 1015.

Lincoln University, statistics, 1206, 1209.

Lippe, statistics of elementary education, 413, 2280-2281.

Lissa, or Leszno, school of, 737-740.

Litère humaniores examinations, Oxford, 822-827, 850.

Lithuania, extent and conditions, 764-765.

Little-go examination, Cambridge, 857.

Local authorities, unification of, in English schools, 586-588.

Local educational authority needed in England, 612.

Local government of the Netherlands, 476-477.

Lockport, N. Y., population, 9.

Lodging and boarding in English colleges for women, 889, 890.

London, bishop of, on organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 615-616.

Lorraine, Duke of, learning, 478.

Lottery used to raise school funds, 1508-1509.

Loughlin, James F., on the Catholic Educational Union, 1067.

Louisiana, college presidents, 1137, 1142, 1145, 1150.

Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1348.

Establishment of State school fund, 1508.

History of education in, 1297-1303.

School laws as to women, 961.

State and city superintendents, 1127, 1130.

Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2230, 2231; of city school systems, 14, 15, 1840, 1851, 1862, 1872; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 188, 206, 209-217, 1218, 2121, 2137; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 113; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2169; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2251, 2254, 2259, 2260; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2182-2183; of normal schools, 128-148, 2200-2201, 2214-2215; of parochial schools, 1661; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2044-2047; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2173; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1925, 2064, 2044-2047; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.

The school district in, 1485.

Louisiana State University, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.

Louisville, Ky., population, 9.

Louisville Educational Association, aid for teachers, 1093.

Lowell, Mass., population, 9.

Lower middle classes, need a new system of secondary education, 609-610.

Lübeck, statistics of elementary education, 415, 416, 2280-2281.

Lutherans, religious instruction, 1648-1651, 1662, 1664.

Statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154; of private secondary schools, 59.

Luxemburg, Grand Duchy of, public instruction in, 471-473.

Lycées, for girls in France, 694-695.

Position and rank in France, 686.

Lycæum, an agency of culture, 1567.

Lycæum Hosianum, in Prussian Poland, 790.

Lynchburg, Va., population, 10.

Lynn, Mass., population, 9.

7E.

Mabie, Hamilton W., on Chautauqua Circle movement, 1022.

On John H. Vincent, 1060.

MacAlister, James, on art education in the public schools, 793-803.

McCabe, Miss Lida Rose, The American Girl at College, quoted, 902, 903.

MacCarthy, E. F. M., analysis of occupations of parents of Past Bridge Street boys, 619-620.

On the organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 610-611.

Maciejowski, Samuel, and disturbance in University of Cracow, 733.

McCormick Theological Seminary, 1243.

McGolrick, James, on religious instruction, 1645-1646.

McLean Hospital, 1268, 1269.

McNeill, George E., makos report on manual training, etc., 670, 671.

Madison, Ind., population, 9.

Mahaffy, J. P., Sunday at Chautauqua, 983, 984.

Maine, college presidents, 1137, 1142, 1144, 1145, 1150.

Compulsory education requirements, 1121.

Early education in, 1603-1604.

Establishment of State school fund, 1503.

School laws as to women, 961.

State and city superintendents, 1127, 1130.

Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2230-2231; of city school systems, 14-16, 1840, 1851, 1862, 1872, 1831; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 1218, 2121, 2137; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 113; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2160-2161; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the deaf, 2250-2258; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2182-2183; of normal schools, 128-148, 2200-2201, 2214-2215; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii 2046-2047; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of theology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-223, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2173; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1925-1928, 2004-2005, 2046-2047; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlv1.

The school districts in, 1463.

Maine Agricultural and Mechanical College, statistics, 1204-1207.

Maine State College, admission by certificate, 1176.

Malthusian Society of Holland, founded, 485.

Manchester, N. H., population, 9.

Manitoba, educational statistics, 276.

Manitoba school case, xviii-xix, 275-288.

Mann, Horace, religious instruction, 1625, 1635-1636.

Mannheim, statistics of public elementary schools, 412, 415-416.

Manual training, extract from report on, 670-671.

In Italy, 573-574; in Germany, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 424.

Statistics, 70, 71, 2170.

Maria Theresa, school reforms of, 775.

Markland, Charles S., on technical training, 1200.

Marriage rate of college-bred women, 968-970.

Martin, A. M., Chautauqua Pocket Manual, 1011-1013.

Maryland, college presidents, 1137, 1142, 1144, 1146, 1150.

Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1348.

State and city superintendents, 1127, 1130.

Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2232-2233; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1840, 1851, 1862, 1872, 1882; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172-175, 177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-233, 1218, 1220, 2121, 2137-2138; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 113; of

Maryland—Continued.

colleges for women, 172-175, 177, 209-217, 2156, 2160; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2263, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2251, 2254, 2259, 2260; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2271, 2272; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-2183; of normal schools, 128-148, 2200-2201, 2214-2215; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2046-2049; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-223, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 226, 243-244, 2173; of secondary schools, 56, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1928-1929, 2005, 2046-2049; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii.

The school district in, 1464.

Maryland Agricultural College, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.

Massachusetts, amount of education per inhabitant, xiii.

College presidents, 1137, 1142, 1144, 1146, 1150.

Compulsory education requirements, 1121.

Conveyance of children to school in, 1469-1476.

Education in, 1305-1318.

Establishment of state school fund, 1508.

Relative increase of public and private schools, xlix-1.

Religious instruction, 1635-1636.

School laws as to woman, 961.

Scientific professorship established, 1189, 1190, 1191.

State and city superintendents, 1127, 1130.

Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2232-2233; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1840, 1851, 1862, 1872, 1882; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172-175, 181-184, 188-204, 206, 209-217, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 1218, 1220, 2121, 2138; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 113, 120; of colleges for women, 172-175, 177, 209-217, 2156, 2160; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 239, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2256-2258, 2259, 2260; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2270, 2271, 2272; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of manual trainingschools, 2170; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182, 2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2200-2201, 2214-2215; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2193-2194; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2050-2055; of reform schools, 2273, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-223, 224, 226-233, 2166, 2168; of schools of theology, 226, 243-244, 2173-2174; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1929-1934, 2005, 2050-2055; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192.

Town the school unit, 1463.

Massachusetts Agricultural College, statistics, 1204, 1207.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, statistics, 1204, 1207.

Mathematical department, University of Lemberg, 780.

Mathematical scientific department, University of Craeow, 769.

Mathematical trips, Cambridge, 860, 866.

Mathematics, Chautauqua, 1024.

Examinations at Oxford, 827.

Statistics, in secondary schools, 40, 44, 51, 65.

Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 432.

Mather, Miss Mary, organizes girls' club at Chautauqua, 1048.

Mauritius, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.

Mayence, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.

Mayo, A. D., on education in the Northwest, 1790-1840, 1513-1550.

On original establishment of State school funds, 1505-1511.

On the American common school in New England, 1790-1840, 1551-1615.

Mead, Edwin S., on Mary Hemenway, 1311-1317.

On religious instruction, 1642.

Mecklenburg-Schwerin, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.

Mecklenburg-Strelitz, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.

Medical and modern languages trips, Cambridge, 863.

Medical education, 1234-1242.

Medical examining boards, 1232-1234.

Medical faculty, University of Warsaw, 752, 758.

Medical instruction in France, 293.

Medical schools, Baudouin's report on, xxvii-xxviii, 1261-1275.

Statistics, xvii, 238-241-242, 247, 248, 249, 2182-2187; in Belgium, 315.

See also Homeopathic Medical and Eclectic Medical Schools.

Medicine, at the World's Fair, 1271-1273.

Reform in study of, in Holland, 535-536.

Women in, 949-956.

Meiningen, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.

Melanchthon on the Poles, 714 *note*.

Memorable dates of Italian history, 479-580.

Memorizing, in early schools of Georgia, 1709-1711.

Memphis, Tenn., population, 10.

Mendes, M., Dutch gynecologist, 485.

Menonites, parochial schools, 1663, 1665.

Schools in Manitoba, 277-278.

Mental fatigue in schools, discussed in Germany, 449-460.

Mental plasticity, period of, 794.

Mercantile marine institutes in Italy, 550-551.

Methodist Episcopal Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.

Private secondary schools, 60.

Methodist Episcopal Church, South, statistics of colleges and universities, 153; private secondary schools, 60.

Methodist Episcopal missions, Alaska, 1430.

Methodist Protestant Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.

Methods of instruction in German public elementary schools, 394-400.

Methods of study, Cambridge, 865-869.

Mexico, education of women, 947.

Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.

Meyer, Annie Nathan. Woman's Work in America, quoted, 903-907.

Miami University, 1529.

Michigan, admission to university by certificate, 1171, 1172, 1177.

College presidents, 1137-1138, 1144, 1146, 1150.

Compulsory educational requirements, 1121.

Early education in, 1544-1548.

Law for teachers' pensions in Detroit, 1082-1086.

School laws as to women, 961.

State and city superintendents, 1127, 1130-1131.

Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2232-2233; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1841, 1852, 1863, 1873, 1883; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 181-184, 188-206, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 1218, 1222, 2138; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 113, 120; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2251, 2254, 2259, 2260; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2270, 2271, 2272; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2182-2183, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2202-2203, 2214-2215; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2194; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2054-2055; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 2167, 2168; of schools of theology, 226,

- Michigan—Continued.
243-244, 2174; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1934-1941, 2006, 2054-2055; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
The school district in, 1465.
- Michigan Agricultural College, admission by certificate, 1177.
Statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
- Michigan Mining School, admission by certificate, 1177.
- Michigan University, medical schools, 1270-1271.
Middelburg Monastery encourages education, 478.
Middle schools for girls in Holland, 484, 514-515.
Midwives, training school for, in Holland, 522.
Military schools in Holland, 523-527.
Military tactics, statistics in secondary schools, 38, 49, 1890-2016, 2018-2113.
- Militia, exemption causes many to become teachers in France, 696.
Release from, for study in Germany, 698.
Statistics of education of, in Holland, 526.
- Millar, John, on religion and the State school system in Upper Canada, 669-670.
- Miller, A. Erskine, on professional education, 1223-1259.
- Miller, Emily Huntington, on woman's work at Chautauqua, 1051, 1052.
- Miller, Lewis A., a founder of Chautauqua, 979, 996.
- Milwaukee, Wis., population, 10.
Ministers, prime, of Italy, 566-567 *note*.
- Ministry of education, in England, proposition for, 584-586.
- Minnesota, college presidents, 1138, 1142, 1146, 1150
Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
Legislation on pharmacy, 1242.
Religious instruction, 1645.
School laws as to women, 962.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1131.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2234-2235; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1842, 1853, 1863, 1873, 1884; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 172, 175-177, 188-206, 209-217, 1218-1219, 2122, 2139; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 113, 120; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2160; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2251, 2254, 2256-2258; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2270; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2189; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2184-2185; of normal schools, 128-148, 2202-2203, 2214-2215; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2194; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2054-2057; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of income and expenditures, lii-lvii; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2174; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1941-1943, 2054-2057; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
The school district in, 1466.
- Mississippi, college presidents, 1138, 1142, 1144, 1146, 1150.
Education in, 1319-1324.
Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1348.
Religious instruction, 1655.
School laws as to women, 962.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1131.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2234-2235; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1842, 1853, 1863, 1873; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-233, 2122-2123, 2139; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 113, 120, 122; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2160; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2251, 2254; of normal schools, 128-148, 2202-2203, 2216-2217; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2056, 2059; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-223, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1943, 1945, 2006-2007, 2056-2059; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
The school district in, 1465.
- Missouri, act passed to enable provision for pensions to teachers in St. Louis, 1100 *note*.
College presidents, 1138, 1142, 1146, 1150.
Education of the negro, 1332-1333, 1350.
School laws as to women, 962.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1131.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2234-2235; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1842, 1853, 1863, 1873, 1884; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 172, 175-177, 182, 188-206, 209-217, 219, 2123, 2139-2140; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 103-114, 122; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2160; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2188-2189; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2251, 2254, 2256, 2258, 2259, 2260; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of manual training schools, 2170; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2184-2185, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2202-2203, 2216-2217; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2194; of parochial schools, 1664-1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2190; of private schools, xlviii, 2058-2063; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2174-2175; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1945-1949, 2007, 2058-2063; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
The school district in, 1466.
- Mitchell, Edward C., on higher education and the negro, 1360-1366.
- Mobile, Ala., population, 9.
- Modeling schools in Holland, 519.
- Moderations, or first public examination, Oxford, 815-818.
- Monasteries, educational work in Holland, 478.
- Monterial schools, 1157-1160.
German opinions on, 403-406.
In Holland, 494-495.
- Monmouth College, admission on certificate, 1182.
- Montana, college presidents, 1138, 1144, 1151.
Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
Religious instruction, 1654.
School laws as to women, 964.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1131.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2234-2235; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1842, 1853, 1864, 1873; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165, 168-169, 181, 183-184, 188-206, 202-204, 206, 221-226, 228-233, 2123, 2140; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2251, 2254; of normal schools, 128-148, 2216-2217; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2062-2063; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2277; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-226, 228-233, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1949, 2007, 2062-2063; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
The school district in, 1467.
- Montana College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, statistics, 1203, 1205, 1207.
- Montgomery, John, on the organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 618-619.
- Montgomery, Ala., population, 9.
Moral sciences tripos, Cambridge, 862.
Moral training in Dutch schools, 456.
Moravians, missions in Alaska, 1429.
Parochial schools, 1617, 1663, 1665, 1666.
- Morfill, Story of Poland, cited, 719, 721, 723, 731, 732.
- Mormon education, 1618-1619.

Morrison A. H., on free instruction in Canada, 674-676.
 Morrison, G. B., on Pell and Lancaster systems as related to schools of the South, 1153-1160.
 Mortality, negro, 1412.
 Moses as educator, 1801-1804.
 Mosher, Warren E., on the Catholic Summer School of America, 1065, 1066, 1068.
 Monton, Richard G., lecturer at Chautauqua, 981, 990.
 Moyamensing, Pa., population, 10.
 Mülhausen, statistics of public elementary schools, 415, 416.
 Munich, statistics of elementary schools, 410, 415, 416.
 Murphy, George H., on public instruction in Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, 471-473.
 Musée Pédagogique, France, 296.
 Museum of art and archaeology, at Chautauqua, 1045, 1046.
 Museums of Dutch universities, 533, 534, 535.
 Music, at Chautauqua, 989.
 Study of, in Belgium, 315; in Swiss normal schools, 445; in Warsaw, 760.
 Muskingum College, admission by certificate, 1186.
 Mutual Benefit Association, Boston Teachers', 1070-1080.
 Mutual Benefit Association of the City of New York, Teachers', 1037-1100.
 Mysore, statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.

N.

Napoleon I, reforms Dutch schools, 479.
 National Educational Association, and courses of study in elementary schools, 406.
 Discussion on religious instruction, 1641-1643.
 National legislation on religious instruction, 1652-1654.
 Natural history, statistics of study of, in German public elementary schools, 409, 411, 415.
 Natural philosophy, statistics of study of, in German public elementary schools, 409, 411.
 Natural science, examinations, Oxford, 827-830.
 Study of, in German public elementary schools, 407, 411, 417; in Swiss normal schools, 433.
 Natural science trips, Cambridge, 862, 867-869.
 Nature study, in German public elementary schools, 407-415.
 Navigation schools, in Holland, 518.
 Navy schools, in Holland, 523-527.
 Nebraska, college presidents, 1133, 1146, 1151.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 School laws as to women, 962.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1131.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222, 2223, 2236-2237; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1842, 1854, 1864, 1874; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 188-206, 1220, 2123-2124, 2140; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2251, 2254; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2268, 2270; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-248, 2181-2185; of normal schools, 128-148, 2202-2203, 2216-2217; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of private schools, xlviii, 2062-2063; of reform schools, 2274, 2276-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2175; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1949-1953, 2007-2008, 2062-2063; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1466.
 Negro, education of, 1331-1424.
 Netherland Indies, Dutch schools in, 501-502.
 Instruction in, 519-520.
 Netherlands, education in, xxiii, 475-542.
 Education of women, 914.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
 Neufchâtel, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Nevada, college presidents, 1138.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 School laws as to women, 962.

Nevada—Continued.

Statistics of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1843, 1854, 1864, 1874; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-166, 168-169, 188-196, 198-200, 203-206, 227, 1219, 2124, 2140; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of normal schools, 128-148; of private schools, xlviii, 2064-2065; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1953, 2008, 2064-2065; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1467.
 New Albany, Ind., population, 9.
 New Bedford, Mass., population, 9.
 New Brunswick, N. J., population, 9.
 New Brunswick, on need of a central educational bureau, 638.
 New Church, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
 New Decatur, Ala., absence permitted for religious reasons, 1660.
 New education in Germany, 322-329.
 New England, A. D. Mayo on common school in, 1551-1615.
 New Hampshire, college presidents, 1138, 1142, 1144, 1146.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 Conveyance of children to school, 1476-1477.
 Early common schools, 1601-1603.
 Establishment of State school fund, 1568.
 School laws as to women, 962.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1131.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2236-2237; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1843, 1854, 1864, 1874, 1885; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221, 223-224, 226, 228-235, 1219, 2124, 2140; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2160; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2181-2185; of normal schools, 128-148, 2202-2203; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2194; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-239, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-63, 70, 72-105, 1953-1954, 2008, 2064-2065; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1463.
 New Hampshire College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, admission by certificate, 1178.
 Statistics, 1203, 1205, 1207.
 New Haven, Conn., Catholic public schools, 1660.
 Population, 9.
 New Jersey, amount of education per inhabitant, xiii.
 College presidents, 1138, 1142, 1144, 1146.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 Education of the negro, 1340, 1350.
 Establishment of State school fund, 1508.
 School laws as to women, 962.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1131-1132.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2236-2237; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1843, 1854, 1864, 1874, 1885; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172-174, 181-184, 188-204, 206, 209-217, 221-223, 1219, 2124, 2140-2141; of colleges for women, 172-174, 209-215, 216-217, 2156; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2251, 2254; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2269, 2270, 2271, 2272; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of normal schools, 128-148, 2202-2203; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2194-2195; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of private schools, xlviii, 2064-2069; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-223, 2167, 2169; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2175; of secondary schools, 36, 38-

- New Jersey—Continued.
46, 48-57, 59-63, 70, 72-105, 1894-1895, 2008-2009, 2064-2069; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi. Teachers' retirement law, discussed, 1108-1113. The school district in, 1464.
- New London, Conn., population, 9.
- New Mexico, college presidents, 1138, 1144, 1146, 1151.
Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1132.
Statistics of city school systems, 14, 15, 1885; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 166, 168-169, 181, 183-184, 188-200, 203-206, 221-226, 228-233, 2124, 2141; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2251, 2254; of normal schools, 128-143, 2202-2203; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2068-2069; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-226, 228-233, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-55, 59-67, 69, 71-103, 1956, 2008-2069; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- New Mexico College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, admission by certificate, 1179. Statistics, 1203, 1207.
- New Orleans, La., population 9.
- New South Wales, statistics of elementary education, 2284, 2285.
- New York, amount of education per inhabitant, xiii.
College presidents, 1138-1139, 1142, 1144, 1146.
Compulsory school attendance, 1118-1119, 1121.
Conveyance of children to school, 1481.
Documents used in inspecting and awarding grants, etc., 659-665.
Establishment of State school fund, 1508.
J. J. Findlay on school system of, 640.
Pensioning of teachers, 1093-1100.
Religious instruction, 1637, 1635.
School inspectors, 646-647.
School laws as to women, 962.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1132.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2236-2239; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1843, 1854, 1864, 1874, 1885; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172-175, 177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221, 223-224, 226-231, 233, 1219, 1220, 2124-2125, 2141; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114, 122-124; of colleges for women, 172-175, 177, 209-217, 2156, 2160; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 239, 250-251, 2189; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2264, 2263; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2251, 2254, 2259, 2260; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2269, 2270, 2271, 2272; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of manual trainingschools, 2170; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2184-2185, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-143, 2202-2205; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2194; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2191; of private schools, xlviii, 2068-2078; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 2167, 2169; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2173; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-63, 70, 72-105, 1956-1964, 2009, 2068-2079; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii. The school district in, 1464.
- New York City, law for pensions to teachers, 1094-1096.
Population, 9.
Teachers' Mutual Benefit Association, 1097-1100.
New Windsor College, admission by certificate, 1184.
- New Zealand, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
Statistics of elementary education, 2281-2285.
- Newark, N. J., population, 9.
Newark Evening News, discussion of teachers' retirement fund law, 1108-1113.
- Newburg, N. Y., population, 9.
- Newburyport, Mass., population, 9.
- Newfoundland, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Newham College, 854-857, 866, 877-885, 878, 879.
- Newport, R. I., population, 10.
- Nicaragua, education of women, 947.
Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Nicholas I and Poland, 744-747.
- Nieuvenhuysen, John, improves primary instruction, 479.
- Night schools, statistics, in England, Scotland, and Wales, 258; in Ireland, 259.
- Nijmegen Monastery, educational work, 478.
- Nordan, Max, on residence in cities, 1283-1284.
- Norfolk, Va., population, 10.
- Normal schools, in Holland, 480, 502, 507; in Italy, 543-549; in Switzerland, 426-449.
J. J. Findlay on, 650-651.
List of presidents, 1144-1152.
Statistics, xv-xvi, 128-134, 141, 143-143, 2198-2221; in Belgium, 314; in France, 297; in the United States, 107-148; of students, 68, 69-70, 71.
See also Training of teachers; Professional schools.
- Normans, cause suspension of school of Utrecht, 478.
- Norsemen, primitive education among, 1800-1801.
- North Carolina, college presidents, 1139-1142, 1144, 1146-1147, 1151.
Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1350.
Establishment of State school fund, 1507.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1132.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2238-2239; of city school systems, 14, 15, 1844, 1855, 1865-1875, 1880; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-233, 1219, 2125, 2141; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114, 124; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2160-2162; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2252, 2254; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2180; of manual schools, 238-239, 247-248, 2184-2185; of normal schools, 128-143, 2204-2205, 2162-2219; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2191; of private schools, xlviii, 2078-2084; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2167, 2169; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2175; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-63, 70, 72-105, 1961-1965, 2009, 2078-2084; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii. The school district in, 1464.
- North Dakota, college presidents, 1139, 1144, 1147.
Religious instruction, 1654.
School laws as to women, 964.
State and city superintendents, 1127, 1133.
Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2238-2239; of city school systems, 14, 15; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-162, 165-169, 181-184, 183-206, 221-233, 1219, 2125, 2142; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2252, 2254; of normal schools, 128-143, 2204-2205; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2084-2085; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-55, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1963, 2010, 2084-2085; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi. The school district in, 1466.
- North Dakota Agricultural College, statistics, 1203, 1205, 1207.
- Northern Liberties, Pa., population, 10.
- Northrop, Cyrus, on admission to university by certificate, 1172.
On technological instruction, 1200.
- Northwest, education in, during the first half century of the Republic, 1513-1550.
- Northwest Provinces, statistics of elementary education in, 2282-2283.

- Northwestern Christian College, admission by certificate, 1185.
- Northwestern University, admission by certificate, 1182.
- Norway, coeducation in, 1118.
- Compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Education of women, 916, 917.
- Pensions to teachers, 1101.
- School laws as to women, 967.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Women in medicine, 954.
- Norwich, Conn., population, 9.
- Nova Scotia, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Nuremberg, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.
- Nurse-training schools, statistics, xvii, 242, 254, 255, 2193-2196.
- Nussbaum, Miss Sophia, education in the Netherlands, 475-542.
- Nydegger, Louise, on Russian women in Swiss universities, 929-934.
- ◊.
- Oberlin College, admission by certificate, 1186.
- Object teaching in France, 301.
- Occupations of Past Bridge Street boys analyzed, 619-620.
- Officers of State and city schools, 1127-1135.
- Officials of secondary schools in Holland, 508.
- Ohio, amount of education per inhabitant, xiii.
- College presidents, 1139, 1142, 1144, 1147.
- Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
- Conveyance of children to school in, 1482.
- Education of the negro, 1342, 1350.
- Efforts of teachers for pension fund, 1093.
- In education, 1517-1535.
- School laws as to women, 963.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1133.
- Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2238-2241; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1844, 1855, 1865, 1875, 1886; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 161-164, 166-169, 172-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221, 223-224, 226-231, 233, 1219, 2125-2127, 2142-2143; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114, 124; of colleges for women, 172-177, 209-217, 2156, 2162; of common schools, xxxv-lii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2189; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2252, 2254, 2256-2258, 2259, 2260; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2269, 2270; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of manual training schools, 2170; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2184-2185, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2204-2205, 2218-2219; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2195; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 232-233, 2191; of private schools, xviii, 2084-2087; of reform schools, 2274, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-231, 233, 2167, 2169; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2176; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; of secondary schools, 36, 38-45, 47-56, 58-68, 71, 72-105, 1965-1976, 2010-2011, 2084-2087; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- The school district in, 1465.
- Ohio State University, admission by certificate, 1179.
- Statistics, 1205, 1207.
- Oklahoma, college presidents, 1139, 1144, 1147.
- School laws as to women, 964.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1133.
- Statistics of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1845, 1856, 1866, 1876; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-163, 168-169, 181, 183-184, 188-200, 202-206, 221-226, 228-233, 2127, 2143; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges, 153; of normal schools, 128-148, 2204-2205; of private schools, xviii, 2086-2087; of school houses and property, xvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of
- Oklahoma—Continued.
- technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2166, 2168; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1976, 2086-2087; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- Oklahoma Agricultural College, statistics, 1205, 1206.
- Old-field schools of Georgia, discussed, xxix.
- Old South work (Boston), 1311-1317.
- Oldenburg, statistics of elementary education, 415, 416, 2280-2281.
- Oliverona, Mrs. Rosalie Ulrica, on education of women in Sweden, 918.
- Olivet College, admission by certificate, 1185.
- Olivier, H., Dutch apothecary, 485.
- Oncida Institute of Science and Industry, 1192.
- Ontario, coeducation in, 1116.
- Compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Free instruction, discussed, 673-676.
- Little chance to work out experiments, 639.
- Religion and the state school system, 669-670.
- Report on education, quoted, 637-638.
- School inspection, 646-647.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- System of certificates, 648-649.
- Three grades of education made consecutive, 629.
- Oregon, college presidents, 1139, 1144, 1147.
- Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
- School laws as to women, 963.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1133.
- Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2240-2241; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1845, 1856, 1866, 1876, 1887; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 181-184, 188-196, 198-206, 221-223, 1219, 2127, 2143; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2252, 2255; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2184-2185; of normal schools, 128-148, 2204-2205; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2195; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xviii, 2086-2087; of reform schools, 2274, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1976-1982, 2011, 2086, 2087; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- The school district in, 1467.
- Oregon State Agricultural College, admission by certificate, 1179.
- Organization of local Chautauqua circles, 1011-1013.
- Organization of schools in United States, Prussia, and England compared, 641 *note*.
- Organization of secondary education in England, testimony on, 605-620.
- Organization of Swiss normal schools, 427-440.
- Oriental languages tripos, Cambridge, 864.
- Original establishment of State school funds, 1505-1511.
- Orphan asylums in Rome, 561-562.
- Osnabrück, statistics of public elementary schools, 415.
- Ossolinski Library, 781.
- Ostrogorski, cited on women in medicine, 953.
- Oswego, N. Y., population, 10.
- Ottawa (Kans.) Chautauqua assembly of camp meeting type, 996 *note*.
- Otto, educated at Utrecht, 478.
- Oudh, statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Ould, Henry, report on schools of Washington, 1677.
- Overcrowding in Holland, 481-482.
- Overeducation, discussed for Ontario, 673-674.
- Not believed in in America, 624, 625.
- Oxford, Association for the Education of Women, 808-811.
- Examinations, 811-830.
- Methods of study for women, 830-837.
- Position of women, 837-840.
- Special women's honor examinations, 828-830.
- Statistics, 258.

P.

- Page, James A., on Mary Hemenway, 1308-1309.
 Palestine Park, Chautauqua, 1046.
 Paragway, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
 Parchin, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.
 Paren, Mme. Callirrhoe, on education of women in Greece, 936.
 Parenthood, foreign, statistics, 1623.
 Paris, Musée Pédagogique, 296.
 Parker, Francis W., lectures at Chautauqua, 1035.
 Parochial schools, 1617-1671.
 Statistics of cities, 14.
 Paroli, Professor, on manual training in Italy, 573-574.
 Past Bridge Street boys, analysis of occupations of parents, 619-620.
 Paterson, N. J., population, 9.
 Paulsen, Friedrich, on universities, 728.
 Pauperism, negro, 1413.
 Peabody fund, 1381.
 Pedagogical conferences in Italy, 575.
 Pedagogical course, statistics of students in colleges and universities, 1163.
 Pedagogy, in Germany, 329-345.
 Prejudice against, in France, 697.
 Progress in United States, 651-653.
 Retarded in Germany, 700.
 Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 435-439.
 See also Normal schools and Training of teachers.
 Pedagogy of the New Testament, G. Stanley Hall on, 1039, 1040.
 Pedagogy of the Old Testament, G. Stanley Hall on, 1038.
 Penekese Summer School, 1485.
 Penmanship and business school of Chautauqua, 1042-1044.
 Pennsylvania, agricultural school in, 1192.
 College presidents, 1139-1140, 1142-1143, 1144, 1147, 1151.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1118, 1120, 1121.
 Education in, 1925.
 Education of the negro, 1342, 1350.
 School laws as to women, 963.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1133-1134.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2240-2243; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1845, 1856, 1866, 1876, 1887; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-233, 1219-1220, 2127-2128, 2143-2144; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 114-115, 124; of colleges for women, 172-177, 209-217, 2156, 2162; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 239, 250-251, 2189; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2252, 2255; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2269, 2270; of manual training schools, 2170; of medical schools, 238-239, 247-249, 2184-2185, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128, 143, 2204-2207, 2218-2219; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2195-2196; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2191; of private schools, xlvii, 2088-2095; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlviii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2167, 2169; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2176-2177; of schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1976-1982, 2011-2012, 2088-2095; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii; of teachers' annuity and aid association of the city of Philadelphia, 1086-1093.
 The school district in, 1464.
 Pennsylvania State College, admission by certificate, 1179.
 Statistics, 1205, 1208.
 Pepin, educated at Utrecht, 478.
 Peru, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
 Pestalozzi and German pedagogy, 333, 334, 336, 340.
 Petersburg, Va., population, 10.
 Petit, Édouard, and reorganization of adult schools in France, 297-300.
 Pharmacists, female, in Holland, 485.
 Pharmacy, Boudonin's report on, 1230-1242.
 Schools of, statistics, xvii, 238-241, 242, 252, 253, 2190-2191.
 Philadelphia, Pa., population, 10.
 Public Education, Association of, 1325.
 Teachers' Annuity and Aid Association, 1086-1093.
 Phillips, Wendell, on Alaska, 1448.
 Philological department, University of Cracow, 767; University of Lemberg, 780.
 Philosophical faculty, University of Cracow, 770; University of Lemberg, 779.
 Physical geography, statistics of students in secondary schools, 41, 45, 52, 56, 66.
 Physical training, progress in Italy, 572.
 Physico-mathematical faculty, University of Warsaw, 752, 757.
 Physics, at Chautauqua, 1024.
 Statistics of students in secondary schools, 41, 45, 52, 56, 66.
 Physio-medical schools of medicine, statistics, 242, 2186-2187.
 Physiology, statistics of students in secondary schools, 41, 45, 53, 56, 67.
 Pious Institute, work, 562.
 Pittsburg, Pa., population, 10.
 Plimsoll, Samuel, collects English histories of the American Revolution, 1757.
 Plumb, Albert H., on scientific temperance instruction in public schools, 1829-1833.
 Poland, education in, xxv-xxvi, 713-792.
 Polish archives, 759-760, 762-764, 771, 781, 790.
 Political economy, study of, in German public elementary schools, 423.
 Polytechnic school of Delft, 516-518.
 Poole, R. B., on organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 609-610.
 Pope, letter on the Catholic Summer School, 1071.
 Popular control needed by secondary education, 626, 627.
 Popular education does not tend to contentment, 675.
 Should it be supplied by the State? 675.
 Population, according to native or foreign percentage, 1621.
 By general nativity, color, and country of birth, 1621-1623.
 In cities, comparison of, 9-10.
 Of United States, 10.
 Statistics, schools, 1837-1847, 1879-1889; in England, Scotland, and Wales, 261.
 Portage, Wis., Chautauqua Circle study of Germany, 1017, 1018.
 Portland, Me., population, 9.
 Portland, Oreg., medical schools and hospitals, 1274.
 Portsmouth, N. H., population, 9.
 Portsmouth, Va., population, 10.
 Portugal, education of women, 940, 941.
 Pensions to teachers, 1105.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
 Women in medicine, 956.
 Posen, education in, 791-792.
 Potter, Alonzo, on religious instruction, 1636-1637.
 Poughkeepsie, N. Y., population, 10.
 Practice schools, relations to training of teachers, 684.
 Prairie View State Normal School, statistics, 1206, 1209.
 Preliminary schools in Italy, 570.
 Preparation of college students in United States, statistics, 669.
 Presbyterians, missions in Alaska, 1431-1433.
 Private secondary schools, 60.
 Religious instruction, 1667.
 Statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
 Presidents of colleges, list, 1135-1152.
 Primary schools, expenditures in Holland, 499-501.
 Improvements in Holland, 479, 480, 481.
 Legal requirements in Holland, 493.
 Limitations of term in Holland, 488.
 Statistics, in Belgium, 514; in France, 297; in Holland, 488.
 Superintendence in Holland, 486-488.

- Primitive education among various nations, 1796-1801.
- Prince Edwards Island, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Prince, John T., on conveyance of children to school, 1472-1474.
- Princeton Theological Seminary, 1244.
- Principal's schedule, in New York, specimen blank, 663.
- Trinsterer, Groen van, leads denominational demand for schools, 479.
- Printing in Poland, 729-731.
- Prison schools in Belgium, statistics, 315.
- Prison work of Chautauqua circles, 1015.
- Private and endowed schools, increased influence in Massachusetts, 679.
- Private educational enterprises in United States, 623.
- Private high schools. *See* High schools; Secondary schools.
- Private normal schools, list of presidents, 1148-1152. In Holland, 506. Statistics, 2210-2221. *See also* Normal schools.
- Private schools, assault on, 1317-1318. Increase and work in United States, 632-633. Provision for bringing them under local authority, 589. Relative growth, xviii-li. Statistics, xviii; of Belgium, 314; of cities, 14; of enrollment, 12. To be brought under local authorities, 589. Private secondary schools. *See* Secondary schools.
- Private superior instruction in Holland, 537-538.
- Probekjahr, the, work of, in Germany, 704.
- Professional department, students of, in colleges and universities, 160, 161.
- Professional education, 1223-1259. In Swiss normal schools, 435-439.
- Professional organizations in Italy, 576-579.
- Professional schools, in Holland, 510-511. Statistics, xvi, 2171-2196; in Belgium, 315; in United States, 235-255. *See also* Business colleges, Dentistry schools, Law schools, Medical schools, Nurse-training schools, Pharmacy schools, Theological schools, Technical schools, Trade schools, and Veterinary schools.
- Professional training of teachers. *See* Training of teachers.
- Professions, overcrowded in Canada, 673-676. Women in, 949-959.
- Professors. *See* Teachers.
- Programmes of higher burgher schools, 513.
- Promotions, statistics of, in Dutch universities, 533.
- Property, held by technical schools, 183. Statistics of schools, xlvii; of city schools, 13, 15, 16, 17, 1848-1858, 1879-1889; of colleges and universities, 168; of colleges for women, 213, 214, 215, 2156-2165; of colored schools, 1346-1355; of medical schools, 2182-2187; of normal schools, 133, 139, 2198-2221; of private high schools, 102; of private secondary schools, 2018-2013; of public high schools, 1890-2016; of reform schools, 2273-2279; of schools for defective classes, 2248-2249, 2261-2262, 2267, 2270; of technological schools, 2168-2169; of theological schools, 236, 2171-2178.
- Proprietary schools in United States, 631-632.
- Protection of Italian emigrants in America, 1789-1794.
- Protestant Episcopal Church, missions in Alaska, 1428.
- Parochial schools, 1663, 1664. Statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
- Protestantism in Poland, 737-740.
- Providence, R. I., population, 10.
- Prussia, compulsory education requirements, 1122. Leaving examination in secondary schools, 708-712. Pensions to teachers, 1102. Policy toward Poland, 715-716. School organization compared with that in England and United States, 641 *note*. Statistics of elementary schools, 402, 407-499, 415, 416, 417, 2280-2281.
- Prussia—Continued. Work of Gymnasial-Seminar, 705-706; of the Royal Pedagogic Seminary, 704-705. *See also* Germany.
- Prussian Poland, education in, 785-792. Extent, 721.
- Psychology, statistics of students in secondary schools, 42, 45, 53, 56, 67.
- Public Good, Society of, founded in Holland, 479.
- Public high schools, do not supply whole demand, 633. *See also* High schools; Secondary schools.
- Public instruction in Italy, Dr. Rossi on, 543-556. List of State superintendents, 1127-1135.
- Public Opinion, symposium on religious instruction, 1643.
- Public-school system of the United States, the social unit in, 1457-1467.
- Public schools, age of withdrawal from, 1161-1170. Art education in, 793-803. Character in Holland, 489. Classification in Holland, 480, 481. Necessity for, in United States, 627. Relative growth, xviii-li. Scientific temperance instruction in, 1829-1833. Statistics of cities, 3-17; of expenditures, 1869-1873, 1879-1889; of France, 298; of receipts, 1859-1868; of Washington, 1673-1698.
- Public secondary schools. *See* Secondary schools.
- Publications of Bureau of Education, list, 1821-1828.
- Pupils, statistics of, xi-xii, xxxv-xlii; of elementary, in public normal schools, 129, 135; of elementary, in secondary schools, 48, 61, 74, 76, 91, 93; in Belgium, 314; in cities, 16; in England and Wales, 258, 261; in France, 290-293; in Germany, 471, 473; in Ireland, 259; in Manitoba, 276; in Prussia, 402-403; in Scotland, 258, 261; in secondary schools in England, 597-598.
- Pupil teachers in German public elementary schools, 385-387.
- Purdue University, admission by certificate, 1175. Statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
- Putnam, Rufus, settles Marietta, 1518-1519.

Q.

- Quebec, coeducation in, 1116. No compulsory education requirements, 1122. Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Queen's College (Belfast, Ireland), statistics, 259.
- Queen's College (Cork, Ireland), statistics, 259.
- Queen's College (Galway, Ireland), statistics, 259.
- Queensland, compulsory education requirements, 1122. Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.

R.

- Rabbinical educational laws, 1811-1814.
- Radcliffe Library, Oxford, 849-853.
- Reading, Pa., population, 10.
- Reading circles, Catholic, 1076, 1077.
- Receipts for educational purposes, statistics of colleges and universities, 169, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206; of colleges for women, 174, 177, 217, 2156-2165; of colored schools, 1346-1355; of Dutch universities, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542; of England, 262, 263; of secondary education in England, 588; of Manitoba, 276; of medical schools, 2182-2187; of normal schools, 132, 138, 2198-2221; of normal students, 141-142; of private high schools, 105; of public schools, 1859-1868; of public high schools, 46, 57, 58, 87, 88; of schools, lvi-lviii; of schools for defective classes, 2248-2249, 2261-2262, 2267, 2270; of Scotland, 202, 263; of Swiss normal schools, 443; of technical schools, 184, 233; of technological schools, 2168-2169.
- Recommendation of royal commission on secondary education, 584-585.
- Recreation at Chautauqua, 987-990.
- Reform schools, statistics of, 2273-2279; in Belgium, 315.
- Reformation, the, in Poland, 732, 737.
- Reformatory schools, in Holland, 492-493.

- Reformed Church, religious instruction, 1660-1661, 1663, 1665; statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
- Reformed Episcopal Church, parochial schools, 1665.
- Reformed Presbyterian Church, statistics of college and universities, 153-154.
- Regents' examinations at Chautauqua, 1040, 1041.
- Registered home students, women, Oxford, 849.
- Registration of teachers, in England, 589-590.
- Of secondary schools of German Empire, 698-708.
- Rein, W., on the new education in Germany, 322-329.
- Reindeer imported into Alaska, 1437-1442.
- Religion, and the state school system in Upper Canada, 669-670.
- Fight over, in Dutch schools, 477, 479-480.
- In Poland, 722.
- Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 445.
- Religious denominations, statistics of colleges for women, 2156-2165; of colored schools, 1338-1345; of private secondary schools, 2018-2113; of universities and colleges, 2115-2147.
- Religious instruction, 1617-1671.
- In England, 263-273, 593-594; in German public elementary schools, 407-416, 417; in schools of Rome, 560-561; in Swiss normal schools, 431; in United States, J. J. Findlay on, 653-657.
- Renaissance, Italy during period of, 579.
- Repetition schools in Holland, 489, 491.
- Responson, or preliminary examination, Oxford, 811.
- Retirement fund for teachers, city of New York, 1095.
- Reuss Jr. Line, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Reuss Sr. Line, statistics of elementary schools, 2280-2281.
- Reynolds, John, on early Illinois, 1540-1542.
- Rhetoric, statistics of students in secondary schools, 42, 45, 53, 56, 67.
- Rhode Island, amount of education per inhabitant, xlii.
- College presidents, 1140, 1144, 1147.
- Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
- Conveyance of children to school, 1480-1481.
- Early education in, 1605-1615.
- Relative growth of public and private schools, xlix.
- School laws as to women, 963.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
- Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2242-2243; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1846, 1857, 1867, 1877, 1887; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 181-184, 188-206, 223-224, 226-233, 1220, 2128, 2144; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 115; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the deaf, 2256-2258; of manual training schools, 2170; of normal schools, 128-148, 2206-2207; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2196; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2094-2095; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1982-1983, 2013, 2094-2095; of teachers and salaries, xlix-xlvi.
- The school district in, 1463.
- Rhode Island College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1208.
- Richards, Zalmon, and the schools of Washington, 1687-1688.
- Richmond, Va., population, 10.
- Richter, Gustav, quoted, on mental fatigue in schools, 450-456.
- Roberts, R. D., on Chautauqua, 1064.
- Rochester, N. Y., population, 10.
- Roman Catholics, and Manitoba school question, 279-288.
- In Poland, 722.
- Missions in Alaska, 1429.
- Parochial schools, 1662, 1664.
- Religious instruction, 1667-1671.
- School system, 554-564.
- Roman Catholics—Continued.
- Schools in Italy, 1623.
- Statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154; private secondary schools, 60.
- Romans, primitive, education among, 1800.
- Rome, number of schools in, 560.
- Roosevelt, George W., on pensions for teachers in Belgium, 1105-1108.
- Roosevelt Hospital, 1265.
- Root, Francis H., aid to Chautauqua 996.
- Rossi, Egisto, on public instruction in Italy, 543-556.
- Roumania, education of women, 945.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Women in medicine, 956.
- Roxbury, Mass., population, 9.
- Royal commission on secondary education, report and accompanying papers, 583-712.
- Report summarized, xxiv-xxv.
- Royal Institution of Marine, work, 525.
- Royal Military Academy at Breda, work, 523-524.
- Royal Pedagogic Seminary in Prussia, work, 704-705.
- Rules and regulations of Chautauqua, 990, 991.
- Rulison v. Post, case cited on parents' right to select studies, 1652.
- Rumford professorship, Harvard, 1189, 1190, 1191.
- Rural schools in Germany, 380-403.
- Russia, education of women, 942-943.
- Pension to teachers, 1103.
- Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Women in medicine, 954, 955.
- Russian Poland, extent, 721.
- Higher education in, 743-765.
- Russian women in Swiss universities, by Louise Nydegger, quoted, 929-934.
- Rutgers Scientific School, statistics, 1205, 1207.
- S.
- Sacred literature, schools of, at Chautauqua, 1032-1035.
- Saddler, M. E., on leaving examinations in secondary schools of Prussia, 708-712.
- Šafárik, cited on Poland, 719, 735.
- Saint Andrews (Scotland) University, statistics, 253.
- Saint Boniface, educational influence in the Netherlands, 478.
- Saint Hugh's Hall, 806, 818, 848-849.
- St. Louis, age of withdrawal from public schools, 1161-1165.
- Annuity to teachers, 1100.
- Population, 9.
- Saint Mary's (Theological) Seminary, 1244.
- Salaries of teachers in England, discussed, 594; in Holland, 483-484, 495-496, 515.
- Statistics, xlvii.
- See also Teachers' salaries.
- Salazar. See Zampini-Salazar.
- Salem, Mass., population, 9.
- Salisbury, Lord, quoted on religious instruction in State-aided elementary schools, and public support for denominational schools, 265, 269, 273.
- Salute, the Chautauqua, 984.
- Salvador, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Samuelson, Sir Bernhard, on the organization and administration of secondary education in England, 617-618.
- San Francisco, medical schools, 1274-1275.
- San Francisco Theological Seminary, 1243.
- Sanitary inspection in English schools, 589.
- Satolli, Francis, Cardinal, on Catholic school system of Rome, 556-564.
- On Catholic Summer School of America, 1671.
- On religious instruction, 1667-1671.
- Savage, Minot J., on religious instruction, 1643.
- Savannah, Ga., plan of Catholic public schools, 1658-1660.
- Population, 9.
- Savings banks in Dutch schools, 497.
- Saxe-Altenburg, statistics of elementary schools, 2280-2281.
- Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Saxe-Meiningen, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.

- Saxe-Weimar, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
 Work of Gymnasial-Seminars, 706.
- Saxony, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Continuation schools, 1124.
 Statistics of elementary education in, 411, 416, 2280-2281.
- Scandinavia, religious instruction in, 1625.
 Scandinavian parentage, distribution of, 1632.
- Schaeffer, Nathaniel C., on compulsory school-attendance law of Pennsylvania, 1120.
- Schaumburg-Lippe, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Schedules, etc., used by University of the State of New York, specimens, 659-665.
- Schenectady, N. Y., population, 10.
- Schleicher, cited on Polish language, 726.
- Schnitzler, cited on Polish language, 726.
- Schoenfeld, Hermann, on higher education in Poland, 713-792.
- Scholarship funds, use of, in secondary schools in England, 595-597.
- Scholarships and exhibitions, Newnham College, 879, 881.
 In medical schools, 1234-1236; in United States, 645.
 Statistics of colleges and universities, 168; colleges for women, 174; Swiss normal schools, 444; technical schools, 183.
- School, conveyance of children to, 1460-1482.
- School age in the several States, xxxvii.
- School boards, powers and work in England, 586.
- School buildings, no instruction in condemned school buildings in Holland, 484.
 Statistics, xlvii.
See also Buildings.
- School district, origin and character of, 1457-1467.
- School enrollment, statistics, xxxix-xl.
- School fees, in Holland, 497-498.
- School funds, State, establishment of, 1505, 1511.
- School hygiene in Holland, 499.
- School laws in Belgium, 315-319.
- School laws of United States, and women, 960-968.
- School libraries in Holland, 499.
- School officers, city and State, 1127-1135.
- School population, statistics of, in Manitoba, 276.
- School money, receipts and expenditures, lii-lvii.
See also Receipts.
- School of Mines, Missouri, statistics, 1205, 1207.
- School of the Prophets, 1804-1805.
- School population, growth in St. Louis, Chicago, Boston, 1163.
- School property, statistics, xlvii. *See also* Property.
- School statistics of Holland, 483, 488-497, 499-501, 503, 504, 506, 507, 510, 514, 518-523, 526-542.
- School system, Catholic, of Rome, 556-554.
- School term in Swiss normal schools, 430-431.
 Statistics, xli, xliii-xliv; city schools, 12, 16, 17, 1818-1858, 1879-1889; dental schools, 2188-2189; law schools, 2179-2181; medical schools, 2182-2187; normal schools, 2198-2221; nurse-training schools, 2193-2196; private secondary schools, 2018-2113; public high schools, 1890-2016; schools of pharmacy, 2190-2191; schools of veterinary medicine, 2192; theological schools, 2171-2178.
- School year, increase in length, xliii-xiv.
- Schoolmasters of early Georgia, 1702-1703.
- Schools for deaf mutes. *See* Deaf, schools for.
- Schools for the blind. *See* Blind, schools for.
- Schools inquiry commission, recommendations, 598.
- Schools of art. *See* Art schools.
- Schools of dentistry. *See* Dentistry, schools of.
- Schools of law. *See* Law schools.
- Schools of medicine. *See* Medical schools.
- Schools of pharmacy. *See* Pharmacy, schools of.
- Schools of theology. *See* Theological schools.
- Schurman, J. G., on technical training, 1200.
- Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, statistics of elementary education, 2280-2281.
- Sciences, statistics of, in secondary schools, 40, 41, 42, 44, 45, 51-53, 54, 64, 65, 66.
- Scientific apparatus, statistics of, in colleges and universities, 168, 199; in colleges for women, 174, 177, 213; in private high schools, 102; in public high schools, 46, 57, 58, 85; in technical schools, 183, 230.
- Scientific course in college, statistics of secondary students preparing for, 38, 43, 49, 63, 73, 80, 95, 97.
- Scientific organizations in Italy, 576-579.
- Scientific temperance instruction in public schools, 1829-1833.
- Scotland, coeducation in, 1116.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Statistics, colleges and universities, 258; elementary education, 258-262, 2282-2283; secondary schools, 259.
 Women in medicine, 950, 951, 952.
- Scott, Canon, quoted on religious instruction in state-aided elementary schools, and public support for denominational schools, 267, 268.
- Scott, Miss C. A., work at Girton, 855.
- Seaman, Owen, course at Chautauqua, 1018, 1019, 1020.
- Sears, Barnas, agent of Peabody Fund, 1381.
- Seath, John, on free instruction in Ontario, 673-674.
- Seaver, Edwin P., report on manual training, 670-671.
 On Mary Hemenway, 1306-1308.
- Secondary education in Poland, 761, 762.
 In Warsaw, 760.
 Report of J. J. Findlay on certain features of, in United States and Canada, 621-672.
 Royal commission on, report and accompanying papers, 583-712.
- Secondary instruction, in Holland, 507-527; in Italy, 550-552.
- Secondary schools, documents used in inspecting and awarding grants, etc., in New York, 659-665.
 Expenditures in Holland, 520-522, 527.
 Financial resources of, in England, 597.
 For girls, in Holland, 514-515.
 In Galicia, 783-785.
 Leaving examinations in Prussia, 708-712.
 Statistics, xiv-xv, 36-105, 2078-2113; in Belgium, 314; in Germany, 471-472.
 Training of teachers of, in France, 685-697; in Germany, 698-708.
- Sectarian colleges and universities, statistics, 153-154.
- Sectarian colleges for women, statistics, 172.
- Sectarian schools, in England, public support for, 263-273.
 Statistics of, in private secondary, 59.
- Sée, Camille, cited on education of women, 911.
- Semiboarding schools in Rome, 561.
- Seminaries, statistics, 2018-2113.
 Value in German pedagogical training, 703.
- Servia, education of women, 944.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Seventh Day Adventists, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
- Seventh Day Baptists, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
- Sewall, Mrs. May Wright, on governmental attitude toward education of women, 905, 906.
- Sewers, Chautauqua, 993.
- Sewing. *See* Female handiwork.
- Sharpe, T. W., on organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 616-617.
- Sharpless, Isaac, quoted on religious instruction in schools, 655-656.
 Quoted on teachers' institutes, 626 *note*.
- Sheedy, Morgan M., on the Catholic Summer School, 1069-1071.
- Sheffield Scientific School, 1191, 1267.
- Shinn, Millicent W., on marriage rate of college-bred women, 968-970.
- Shurtleff College, admission by certificate, 1182.
- Sidwick Hall, Newnham College, regulations, 881-884.
- Sienkiewicz, Polish historical novelist, 769.
- Sigismund Augustus, disturbance at University of Cracow, 732-734.
- Sims, William H., address at Millsaps College, 1319-1324.
- Singing, statistics of study of, in German public elementary schools, 407-415, 417.
 Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 434.
- Sittings, statistics of, in cities, 13, 15, 16, 17.
- Skinner, Charles R., on conveyance of children to school, 1481.
- Slater, John F., memorial sketch, 1415-1424.
- Slater fund and education of the negro, 1367-1424.

- Slave trade, the, 1396.
 Slavonic studies, University of Lemberg, 780.
 Smart, James S., on technical training, 1200.
 Smith, Anna Tolman, on education in France, 289-312.
 On Manitoba school case, 275-278.
 On public education in Belgium, 313-319.
 Smith, Frank C., on incompetency of lawyers, 1252-1253.
 Smith, Walter, and drawing in schools, 1691-1692.
 Social unit in the public-school system of the United States, 1457-1467.
 Sociology, defined, 1213.
 Instruction in, 1211-1221.
 Somerville College, Oxford, 806, 808, 840-845.
 South Australia, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
 South Carolina, college presidents, 1140, 1143, 1144, 1147, 1151.
 Education in, 1326-1329.
 Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1352.
 Establishment of State school fund, 1507.
 Religious instruction, 1655-1656.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2242-2243; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1846, 1857, 1867, 1877, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181, 183-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-226, 228-233, 1220, 2128, 2144; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 115, 124; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2162; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2265, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2252, 2255; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2184-2185; of normal schools, 128-148, 2206-2207, 2218-2219; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253; of private schools, xlviii, 2094-2097; of school houses and property, xvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-223, 2167, 2169; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2177; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1983, 2013, 2094-2097; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlv1.
 The school district in, 1464.
 South Carolina College, admission by certificate, 1179.
 South Dakota, college presidents, 1140, 1144, 1147, 1151.
 Religious instruction, 1654.
 School laws as to women, 964.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2242-2243; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1846, 1857, 1867, 1877, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 181-184, 188-206, 221-233, 1220, 2128, 2145; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 115; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2252, 2255; of normal schools, 128-148, 2206-2207, 2218-2219; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of private schools, xlviii, 2096-2097; of reform schools, 2274, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1983-1984, 2013, 2096-2097; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlv1.
 The school district in, 1466.
 South Dakota Agricultural College, admission by certificate, 1179.
 Statistics, 1203, 1205, 1208.
 Southern Presbyterians, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
 Southern University, admission by certificate, 1181.
 Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Louisiana, statistics, 1206, 1209.
 Southwark, Pa., population, 10.
 Spain, education of women 941-942.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
 Women in medicine, 956.
 Spalding, J. L., on religious instruction, 1643-1644.
 Spalding, M. J., on religious instruction, 1640.
 Spanish America, education of women, 947-949.
 Special schools in Belgium, statistics, 315.
 Spelling school at Chautauqua, 989.
 Spring Garden, Pa., population, 10.
 Springfield, Mass., population, 9.
 Spruyt, Johanna C., Dutch doctor, 485.
 Stanton, Theodore, on education of women, 912.
 Starr, Frederick, anthropology at Chautauqua, 1017, 1026.
 State, the, factor in secondary education in England, 601.
 State Agricultural College of Oregon, statistics, 1205, 1208.
 State and municipal aid, statistics of, public high schools, 46, 57, 58.
 State boards of education, J. J. Findlay on, 639-644.
 State College for Colored Students, Delaware, statistics, 1206, 1209.
 State College of Kentucky, statistics, 1202, 1205, 1207.
 State Normal and Industrial School, Alabama, statistics, 1206, 1209.
 State Normal School for Colored Persons, Kentucky, statistics, 1206, 1209.
 State school funds, A. D. Mayo on establishment of, 1505-1511.
 State school officers, list, 1127.
 State school system, and religion in Upper Canada, 669-670.
 See also Public schools.
 State superintendents of education, 1127.
 Position and character, 639.
 State universities in Holland, 528-542.
 State University of Iowa, admission by certificate, 1175.
 Statistical sketch of the negroes of the United States, 1396-1415.
 Statistical tables, 1835, 2285.
 Statistics, Chautauqua College of Liberal Arts, 1027-1028; Chautauqua schools of sacred literature, 1033-1035.
 Instruction in sociology, 1217-1221.
 Land-grant colleges, 1202-1209.
 Parochial schools, 1661-1666.
 Schools in Italy, 544, 545, 549, 551, 554-560, 563-564, 568.
 Stillwater, Minn., prison work of Chautauqua Circle, 1015.
 Stockwell, Thomas B., on conveyance of children to school, 1480-1481.
 Stone, M. S., on conveyance of children to school, 1478-1479.
 Storrs Agricultural College, statistics, 1202.
 Strong, Josiah, on city life, 1284-1385.
 Students, American, in foreign universities, 1123.
 Degrees conferred in technical schools, 182.
 In colleges for women, 895, 896; in Swiss normal schools, 429, 444-446; in University of Lemberg, 779; in University of Warsaw, 754-756.
 Movement for admission of American, to French universities, 305-312.
 Statistics, xi-xii, xxxv-xlii; in Belgium, 314; in business colleges, 2222-2247; in coeducational colleges and universities, 115; in colleges and universities, 111-116, 141, 142, 155, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 188, 194, 195, 196, 197, 2115-2147; in colleges for women, 173, 175, 210, 211, 2156-2165; in colored schools, 1332-1337, 1338, 1355; in dental schools, 238-241, 242, 251, 2188-2189; in England and Wales, 258; in France, 290; in Germany, 350; in Holland, 529, 530, 534, 535; in Ireland, 259; in Italy, 551, 554, 555, 557, 560; in law schools, 237, 246, 2179-2181; in manual training schools, 70, 71, 2170; in medical schools, 238-241, 242, 248, 249, 2182-2187; in normal schools, 129, 131, 135, 136, 137, 140, 142, 144, 145, 146, 2198-2221; in nurse-training schools, 238-241, 242, 255, 2193-2196; in pharmacy schools, 238-241, 242, 2190-2191; in preparatory departments of colleges and universities, 70, 71, 193; in preparation in the United States, 669; in private secondary schools, 48, 49, 50-56, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64-66, 68, 70, 71, 91, 92, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 2018-2113; in public secondary schools, 36, 37, 38, 39-45, 61, 62, 63, 64-66, 67, 68, 69, 74, 75, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 314; in reform

- Students—Continued.
 schools, 2273-2279; in schools for defective classes, 2248-2272; in schools of theology, 236, 244, 2171-2178; in Scotland, 258; in schools of veterinary medicine, 238-241, 242, 2192; in technical schools, 181, 221, 225, 226, 227, 228, 2166, 2167.
- Studies, statistics of, in University of Leyden, 531-532.
- Sturm, John, employs monitors, 1153.
- Stuttgart, statistics of public elementary schools, 411, 415, 416.
- Subsidized private schools in Holland, 481.
- Summer School, Catholic, 1065-1076.
- Summer schools, check list of, 1483-1503.
 J. J. Findlay on, 653.
- Sunday at Chautauqua, 983, 991.
- Sunday-school Assembly, Chautauqua, 996-999.
- Sunday schools in Rome, 562.
- Superintendence of primary schools in Holland, 485-488.
- Superintendents, duties in United States, 645-646.
 Of States and of city schools, 1127-1135.
- Superior instruction, in Holland, 527-542.
 In Italy, 552-556.
- Supervising officers of city schools, statistics, 1848-1858, 1879-1881.
- Supervision, in English elementary schools, 259-260, 261; in German public elementary schools, 400-402; in Holland, 481.
- Scott elementary schools, statistics, 261.
 Statistics of, in cities, 12, 13, 14, 15.
- Supplementary schools in Germany, 345-380.
See also Continuation schools.
- Swan, Robert, on Mary Hemenway, 1306.
- Swathmore College, admission by certificate, 1186.
- Sweden, coeducation in, 1118.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Education of women, 917-921.
 Pensions to teachers, 1103.
 School laws as to women, 967.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
 Women in medicine, 953.
- Swedish Evangelical Union Missions, Alaska, 1428.
- Swing, David, on Chautauqua, 1061.
- Switzerland, coeducation, 1118.
 Continuation school, 1123, 1125.
 Education of women, 928-934.
 Normal schools in, 426-449.
 Pensions to teachers, 1103.
 Religious instruction, 1628.
 Statistics of elementary education, 415, 416, 2282-2283.
 Women in medicine, 955.
- Symes, John Cleve, settles Cincinnati, 1519, 1528.
- Syracuse, N. Y., population, 10.
- T.**
- Tabor College, admission by certificate, 1183.
- Tahmad, education and the, 1795-1820.
- Tarbel, Miss Ida, life of John H. Vincent, 1058.
- Tarkie College, admission by certificate, 1185.
- Tasmania, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- Taunton, Mass., population, 9.
- Tax, citizen, at Chautauqua, 992.
- Taxes, for schools, popular, 623.
 Statistics of, in Manitoba, 276.
- Taylor University, admission by certificate, 1183.
- Teachers, character of, in Rome, 558-559.
 In Holland, 493-497; in Swiss normal schools, 442-444; in University of Warsaw, 754; in secondary schools in Holland, 508.
- Registration in England, 589-590.
 Statistics, xlv-xlvi; in Belgium, 314; in business colleges, 2222-2247; in city schools, 12, 14, 16, 1848-1858, 1879-1889; in colleges and universities, 157, 173, 189, 190, 191, 192, 258, 2115, 2147; in colleges for women, 173, 175, 209, 805, 896, 2156-2164; in colored schools, 1338-1345; in dental schools, 238-241, 242, 250, 2188-2189; in England and Wales, 258-261; in France, 297; in Germany, 472-473; in Ireland, 259; in law schools, 237, 245, 2179-2181; in Manitoba, 276; in manual training schools, 2170; in medical schools, 238-241, 242, 247, 249, 2182-2187; in normal schools, 128, 134, 143, 145, 2198-2220; in
- Teachers—Continued.
 nurse-training schools, 238-241, 242; in pharmacy schools, 238-241, 242, 252, 2190-2191; in private secondary schools, 36-38, 42, 59-60, 61, 62, 73, 89, 90, 2078-2113; in Prussia, 402-403; in teachers' secondary public schools, 36, 61, 62, 72, 73, 1890-2016; in reform schools, 2273-2279; in schools of veterinary medicine, 238-241, 242, 2192; in schools for defective classes, 2248-2272; in schools of technology, 181, 221, 222, 223, 224, 236, 2166-2167; in schools of theology, 236, 243, 2171-2178; in Scotland, 258-261.
- Training of. *See* Training of teachers.
- Teachers' Annuity and Aid Association of the City of Philadelphia, 1086-1093.
- Teachers' certificates in Germany, 701-703.
- Teachers' institutes, J. J. Findlay on, 652; Sharpless on influence of, 626 *note*.
- Teachers' Mutual Benefit Association, Boston, 1079-1080.
- Teachers' Mutual Benefit Association of the City of New York, 1097-1100.
- Teachers' pensions, xxii-xxiii, 1079-1113.
 In Holland, 495, 529; in United States, 645.
 Of university professors, 529.
- Teachers' Retreat, Chautauqua, 1035.
- Teachers' salaries, in England, 594, 610; in German public elementary schools, 400, 473; in Holland, 483-484, 495-496, 515.
 Statistics of, in Manitoba, 276-278; in Swiss normal schools, 443.
- Technical instruction in Italy, 550-552.
- Technical schools, statistics, 178-183, 218-233; in Belgium, 315; in United States, 218-233.
See also Colleges.
- Technical studies in high schools, 635-636.
- Technological instruction in land grant colleges, 1189-1210.
- Technological schools, list of presidents, 1143-1144.
 Statistics, xvi.
- Technology, Imperial Royal School of, in Lemberg, 782, 783.
- Schools of, statistics, 2166-2169.
- Temperance instruction in public schools, 1829-1833.
- Tennessee, college presidents, 1140, 1143, 1147, 1152.
 Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1352.
 Establishment of State school fund, 1508.
 School laws as to women, 963.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2242-2243; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1846, 1857, 1867, 1877, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 1220, 2129, 2145; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 115, 124; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2162; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2189; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2265, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2252, 2255; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2184-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2205-2207, 2218-2221; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2191; of private schools, xlviii, 2096-2102; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2177-2178; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1984-1986, 2013-2014, 2096-2103; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- The school district in, 1465.
- Tessin, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
- Testimony before royal commission on the organization and administration of secondary schools, 605-610.
- Texas, college presidents, 1140-1141, 1143, 1144, 1147, 1152.
 Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1352.
 Establishment of State school fund, 1509.
 Religious instruction, 1655.
 School laws as to women, 963.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2242-2243; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1846, 1857, 1867, 1877, 1888; of colleges and universi-

Texas—Continued.

ties, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-214, 216-217, 221, 223-233, 220, 2129, 2145-2146; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 115, 124; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-214, 216-217, 2162; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the deaf, 2261, 2265, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2252, 2256; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2185-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2206-2207, 2220-2221; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2190; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2191; of private schools, xlviii, 2192-2195; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-233, 2167, 2169; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2178; of secondary schools, 35, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1387-1389, 2014-2015, 2102-2105; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
The school district in, 1466.
Text-books, for German public elementary schools, 403.
Theological faculty, University of Lemberg, 778.
Theological schools, statistics, 236, 242, 243, 244, 2171-2178.
Theological seminaries, 1242-1245.
Theological tripos, Cambridge, 864.
Theology, women in, 958, 959.
Thompson, Benjamin, founds chair of science at Harvard, 1189, 1190, 1191.
Thompson, J. P., on religious instruction, 1640-1641.
Tobacco, effects on school children, discussed, 458.
Tolstoi, D., and education in Poland, 750.
Township board, J. J. Findlay on duties of, 642, 644.
Trade schools, in Germany, 352-380; in Rome, 562.
Training in drug stores, 1239-1241.
Training of nurses, schools for, statistics, 2193-2106.
Training of teachers, in colleges and universities, 111-116, 118-127.
In England, 590, 679-685; in Holland, 503-507, 519.
J. J. Findlay on, 650-653.
Of French secondary schools, 685-697.
Of German secondary schools, 698-708.
Statistics of, in England and Wales, 253; in Ireland, 259; in Scotland, 258.
See also Normal schools.
Transportation of children to school, xxviii-xxix, 617, 1469-1482.
Trigonometry, statistics of students in secondary schools, 40, 44, 51, 55, 65.
Trinidad, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
Trinity College, admission by certificate, 1186.
Tripos examination, Cambridge, 857-869.
Trotzendorf, employs monitors, 1153.
Troy, N. Y., population, 10.
Trusts, women as administrators, 604-605.
Tuition, statistics, in cities, 16, 17; in colleges and universities, 169, 203; in colleges for women, 174, 177; in German tradeschools, 353; in normal schools, 132, 138; in public high schools, 46, 57, 58, 87, 104; in technical schools, 184.
Tulane University, admission by certificate, 1184.
Turn-outs in early Georgia schools, 1728-1732.
Turkey, European, education of women, 943-944.
Tuschenbroek, Dr., Dutch gynecologist, 485.

U.

Ungraded schools in Germany, 380, 403.
Unification of local school authorities desirable, 586-588.
Union Biblical Seminary, 1244.
Union Christian College, admission by certificate, 1183.
Union College, admission by certificate, 1186.
United Brethren, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
United German Evangelical Protestant parochial schools, 1665.

United Presbyterian Theological Seminary, 1245.
United Presbyterians, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
United States, coeducation in, 1115.
Education in, criticised by Prof. S. Waetzoldt, 467-468.
Influence of machinery on social conditions, 3-6.
Population, 10.
Report of J. J. Findlay on certain features of secondary education, 621-672.
School laws and women, 960-964.
Unity of education in America, 627-628.
Universalists, statistics of colleges and universities, 153-154.
Universities, admission by certificate, 1171-1188.
Age of admission, discussed, 608.
Character of instruction in Dutch, 478-479.
Efforts to suppress, in Italy, 567.
French, development, 292, 293; movement for admission of American students to, 303-312.
Holland, 528-542.
Statistics, 156; appropriations, 205; benefactions, 202; coeducation, 155, 166; controlled by the several religious denominations, 153-154; degrees, 164, 165; degrees conferred on women, 166; honorary degrees, 167; for women, 172-177; in Belgium, 314; in England and Wales, 258; in Holland, 529-542; in Ireland, 259; in Italy, 553-556, 568; in Scotland, 258; of income, 169, 201, 203, 204, 206; of libraries, 163, 198, 199; of normal students, 141, 142; of professors and instructors, 157, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193; property, 168, 200; scientific apparatus, 199; students, 68, 69, 70, 71, 111-116, 158, 159, 160, 162, 163, 164, 188, 194, 195, 196, 197.
Tendency to differentiation between rich and poor in England, 608.
Universities and colleges, statistics, xvi-xvii, 2115-2155; of training courses, xv-xvi.
University and college, English distinction of, 806-808, 885-887.
University college, Nottingham, England, proposed experiment in the training of teachers, 683.
University education of women in England, facilities for, 805-891.
University extension in France, 301-303.
Statistics of, 2148-2155.
University of Alabama, admission by certificate, 1173.
University of Amsterdam, admits women, 485.
Expenditures and income, 539.
Statistics, 534.
University of Arizona, statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
University of Cagliari, 567.
University of California, admission by certificate, 1173.
Statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
University of Cambridge, women at, 853-891.
University of Colorado, admission by certificate, 1174.
Medical school, 1273.
University of Cracow, 727-736, 765-772.
University of Denver, admission by certificate, 1181.
University of Georgia, admission by certificate, 1174.
Statistics, 1204, 1207.
University of Groningen, admits women, 485.
Statistics, 528-530, 533, 538.
University of Idaho, admission by certificate, 1174.
Statistics, 1204, 1207.
University of Illinois, admission by certificate, 1174.
Statistics, 1204, 1207.
University of Kansas, admission by certificate, 1176.
University of Koenigsberg, 737.
Polish origin, 789-790.
University of Lemberg, 765, 769, 772-781.
Students, 779.
University of Leyden, admits women, 485.
First in Holland, 478.
Museums, 533.
Statistics, 528-534, 535, 533.
University of Macerata, efforts to suppress, 567.
University of Michigan, admission by certificate, 1171, 1172, 1177.

- University of Minnesota, admission by certificate, 1178.
 Medical school, 1273.
 Statistics, 1202, 1204, 1207.
 University of Mississippi, admission by certificate, 1178.
 University of Missouri, statistics, 1204, 1207.
 University of Modena, efforts to suppress, 567.
 University of Nebraska, admission by certificate, 1178.
 University of Nevada, statistics, 1203, 1205, 1207.
 University of North Carolina, admission by certificate, 1179.
 University of Omaha, admission by certificate, 1185.
 University of Oregon, admission by certificate, 1179.
 University of Oxford, women at, 805-853.
 University of Parma, efforts to suppress, 567.
 University of Pennsylvania, admission by certificate, 1186.
 Medical school, 1264.
 University of South Dakota, admission by certificate, 1179.
 University of Tennessee, admission by certificate, 1179.
 Statistics, 1203, 1205, 1208.
 University of Texas, admission by certificate, 1180.
 University of the State of Missouri, admission by certificate, 1178.
 University of the State of New York, documents used in inspecting and awarding grants to secondary schools, etc., 659-665.
 J. J. Findlay on, 640, 648, 649.
 University of Utah, admission by certificate, 1180.
 University of Utrecht, admits women, 485.
 Statistics, 528-530, 533, 538.
 University of Vermont, admission by certificate, 1180.
 Statistics, 1203, 1205, 1208.
 University of Warsaw, 715, 748.
 Suppressed, 744.
 University of Washington, admission by certificate, 1180.
 University of Wilna, 714, 715, 719, 735, 743, 745.
 University of Wisconsin, admission by certificate, 1180.
 Statistics, 1203, 1205, 1208.
 University of Wyoming, admission by certificate, 1181.
 Statistics, 1203, 1205, 1208.
 Upper Canada, religion and the State school system in, 669-670.
 Uruguay, education of women, 948.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
 U. S. Grant University, admission by certificate, 1187.
 Utah, college presidents, 1141, 1144, 1152.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 Religious instruction, 1655.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2244-2245; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1847, 1858, 1868, 1877, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 159, 161-163, 165, 168-169, 181-184, 188-196, 198-206, 221-233, 2130, 2146; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 115; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2253, 2255; of normal schools, 128-148, 2220-2221; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2014-2015; of reform schools, 2274, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-233, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 2104-2105; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 Utah Agricultural College, stations, 1203, 1205, 1208.
 Utica, N. Y., population, 10.
 Utrecht, first Dutch school located in, 477.
 University founded, 478.
 Veterinary school in, 522-523.
- V.**
- Van Rennselaer, Stephen, efforts for scientific instruction, 1190.
 Vassar College, admission by certificate, 1185.
 Vaud, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Venezuela, education of women, 949.
 Statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
 Vermont, college presidents, 1141, 1144, 1147, 1152.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 Conveyance of children to school, 1478-1479.
 Early common schools, 1599-1601.
 School laws as to women, 963.
 Scientific school founded, 1191.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2244-2245; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1847, 1858, 1868, 1877, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 181-184, 188-206, 221, 223-224, 226, 228-229, 231, 233, 1220, 2130, 2146; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 115-116, 124-125; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of medical schools, 238, 247-248, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2206-2207, 2220-2221; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2196; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2106-2107; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 223-224, 226-233, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1990-1991, 2015, 2106-2107; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlv1.
 The school district in, 1463.
 Veterinary medicine, schools of, in Holland, 522-523.
 Statistics, 238-241, 242, 2192; in Belgium, 315.
 Veterinary surgery at University of Warsaw, 758.
 Vincent, B. F., on Bible study at Chautauqua, 997.
 Vincent, Boyd, on Chautauqua, 1662.
 Vincent, John H., a founder of Chautauqua, 979, 996.
 On Chautauqua salute, 984.
 Personal history of, 1058-1060.
 Victoria, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
 Vienna, statistics of public elementary schools, 414, 415, 416.
 Villard, Helen Elise, on education of women in Greece, 935, 936.
 Villari, Pasquale, introduces bill modifying school administration, 568.
 Virginia, college presidents, 1141, 1143, 1144, 1147, 1152.
 Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1352.
 Establishment of State school fund, 1507.
 Scientific school founded, 1191.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
 Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2244-2245; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1847, 1858, 1868, 1877, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172-177, 181-184, 188-206, 209-217, 221-233, 1220, 2130, 2146; of colleges for women, 172-177, 209-217, 2156, 2164; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2189; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2253, 2255; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of normal training schools, 2170; of medical schools, 233, 247-248, 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2206-2207, 2220-2221; of nurse-training schools, 241, 254-255, 2196; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2191; of private schools, xlviii, 2106-2111; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-lvii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221, 233, 2167, 2169; of schools of theology, 236, 243-244, 2178; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-68, 70, 72-105, 1991-1992, 2015, 2106-2111; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlv1.
 The school district in, 1464.
 Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College, statistics, 1203, 1205, 1208.
 Volterra Industrial School, 565.
 Von Holst, on Niagara and Chautauqua, 978.

W.

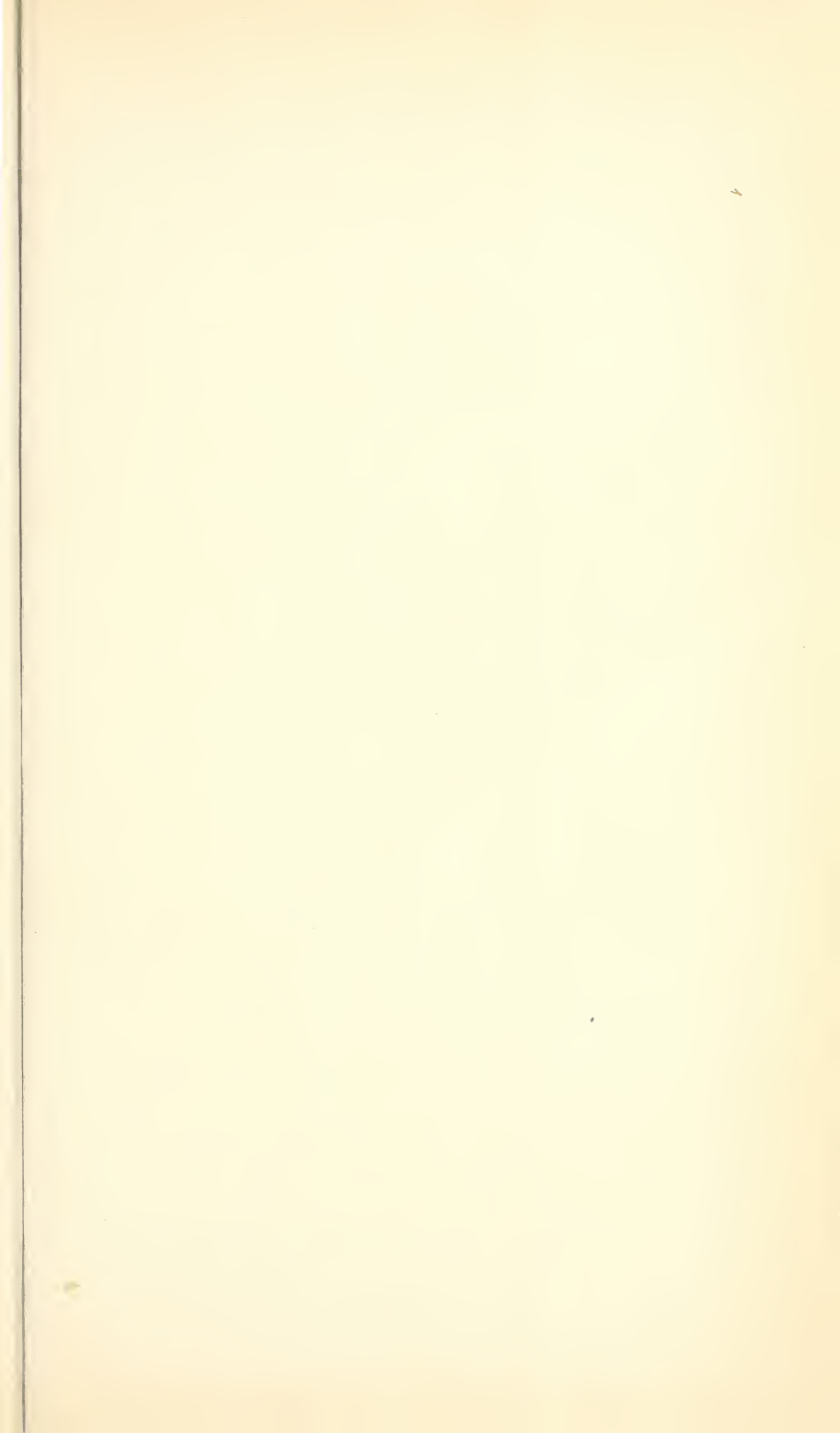
- Wadsworth, James, work of, for schools, 1590-1591.
- Waetzoldt, Stephan, on education of women in Germany, 450-471.
- Wage earners, negro, 1385-1396.
- Wageningen, agricultural school in, 515-516.
- Waldeck-Pyrmont, statistics of elementary education, 2282-2283.
- Wales, central school agency of, 607.
- Effects of Welsh intermediate education act, 600.
- Legislation on secondary education, 600.
- Statistics of colleges in, 258.
- Walker, Francis A., on technical training, 1190-1200.
- Wallach, Richard, and schools of Washington, 1683-1684, 1685.
- Walton, George A., on conveyance of children to school, 1471.
- Ward, Herbert, on training of teachers of secondary schools of France, 685-697.
- Warsaw, Duchy of, created, 742.
- Warsaw, musical education, 760.
- Secondary education in, 760.
- University of, 715, 744, 745, 747, 748-759.
- Washburn, Ichabod, aid to Worcester Free Institute, 1192.
- Washburn College, admission by certificate, 1183.
- Washington, Booker T., address at Atlanta Exposition, 1755-1756.
- Address on industrial education of the negro, 1350-1360.
- Washington, D. C., aid society among teachers, 1693.
- Eighty years of public schools, 1673-1698.
- Population, 9.
- Washington, college presidents, 1141, 1144, 1147.
- Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
- Licenses in pharmacy, 1242.
- Religious instruction, 1654.
- School laws as to women, 964.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1134.
- Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2244-2245; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1847, 1853, 1868, 1878, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 181, 183-184, 188-196, 198-206, 221-223, 1220, 2130-2131, 2146; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 116, 126; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2189; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2253, 2255; of institutions for the feeble-minded, 2267, 2269, 2270; of normal schools, 128-148, 2206-2207; of parochial schools, 1664; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2191; of private schools, xlviii, 2110-2111; of reform schools, 2274, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-vii; of schools of technology, 181-184, 221-223, 2167, 2169; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1993, 2016, 2110-2111; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- The school district in, 1467.
- Washington Agricultural College and School of Science, 1180.
- Statistics, 1205, 1208.
- Washington College, admission by certificate, 1187.
- Wayland, Francis, sketch of his work, 1610-1611.
- Webster, Daniel, sketch of his early life, 1602-1603.
- Webster, Noah, sketch of his life and work, 1587-1590.
- Weeks, Stephen B., prepares check list of American summer schools, 1483-1503.
- Wells, C. R., penmanship, 1042-1044.
- Wesleyan University, admission by certificate, 1181.
- West Australia, statistics of elementary education, 2284-2285.
- West Virginia, college presidents, 1141, 1143, 1147, 1152.
- Education of the negro, 1332-1340, 1354.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1135.

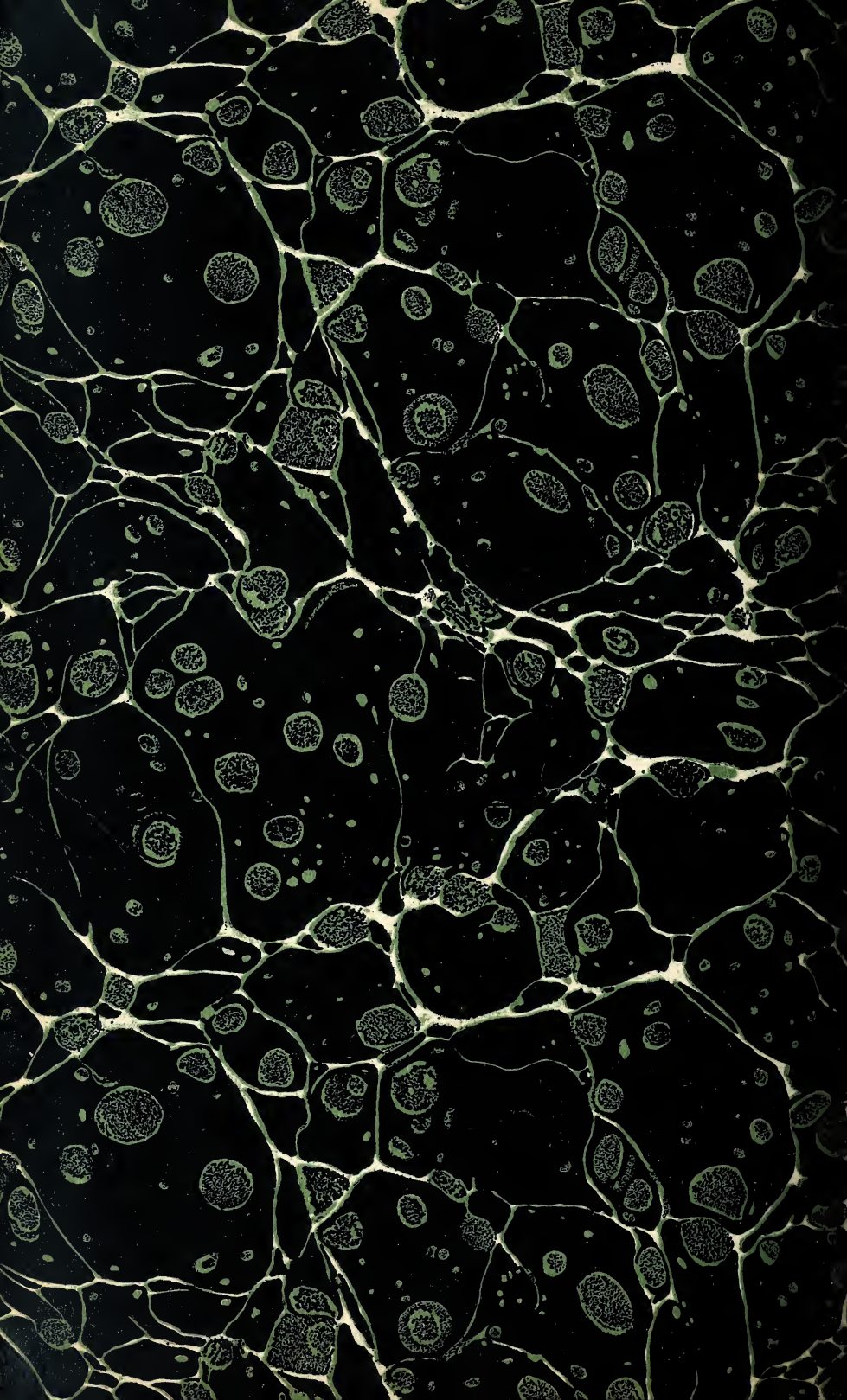
West Virginia—Continued.

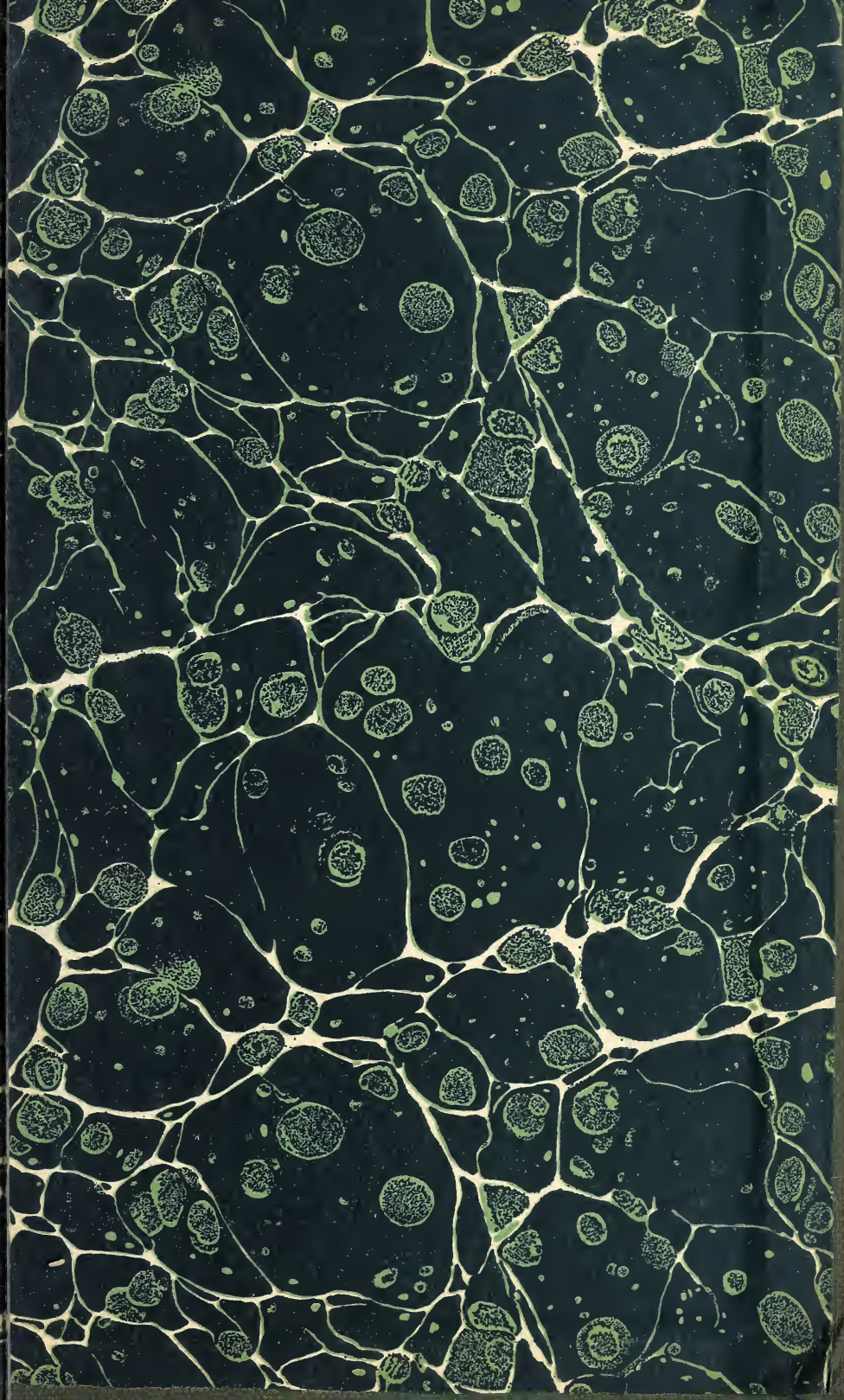
- Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2244-2245; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1847, 1858, 1863-1878; of colleges and universities, 155-158, 160, 162-164, 166-169, 172, 175, 177, 188-206, 209-212, 214, 217, 227, 2131, 2147; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 116, 126; of colleges for women, 172, 175, 177, 209-212, 214, 217, 2164; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 153; of institutions for the blind, 2261, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2248, 2253, 2255; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of normal schools, 128-148, 2206-2209, 2220-2221; of parochial schools, 1664; of private schools, xlviii, 2110-2111; of reform schools, 2273, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-vii; of secondary schools, 36, 38-46, 48-57, 59-63, 70, 72-105, 1993, 2016, 2110-2111; of teachers and salaries, xlv, xlvii.
- The school district in, 1465.
- West Virginia Colored Institute, statistics, 1206, 1209.
- West Virginia University, admission by certificate, 1180.
- Statistics, 1203, 1205, 1208.
- Western College, admission by certificate, 1183.
- Wheaton College, admission by certificate, 1183.
- Wheeling, W. Va., population, 10.
- White, J., on conveyance of children to school, 1469-1470.
- Why the college for women, Goucher on, 1751-1755.
- Wielopolski, aid to education in Poland, 747-748.
- Wiesbaden, statistics of public elementary schools, 408, 415, 416.
- Willamette University, admission by certificate, 1186.
- Willebrod, founds school in Utrecht, 477.
- William I, adopts reforms of Napoleon, 479.
- William III, grants educational privileges, 478.
- William IV, grants educational privileges, 478.
- William the Silent, founds University of Leyden, 478.
- Williams, W. B., on secularization of public schools, 1636-1658.
- Williams College, admission by certificate, 1184.
- Williamsburg, N. Y., population, 9.
- Wilmington, Del., population, 9.
- Wilmington College, admission by certificate, 1186.
- Wilna, Poland, archives and libraries, 762-764.
- University of, 714, 715, 719, 735, 743, 744, 745.
- Wilson, J. Ormond, eighty years of the public schools of Washington (1805-1885), 1673-1698.
- Wisconsin, college presidents, 1141, 1143, 1147, 1152.
- Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
- Early education in, 1548-1550.
- Religious instruction, 1647-1651.
- School laws as to women, 963.
- State and city superintendents, 1127, 1135.
- Statistics of business colleges, 2222-2223, 2244-2245; of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1847, 1858, 1868, 1878, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-169, 172, 175-177, 188-206, 209-217, 1220, 2131, 2147; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 116, 126-127; of colleges for women, 172, 175-177, 209-217, 2164; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of dental schools, 240, 250-251, 2189; of institutions for the blind, 2262, 2264, 2266; of institutions for the deaf, 2249, 2253, 2255, 2256-2258, 2259, 2260; of law schools, 237, 245-246, 2181; of manual training schools, 2170; of medical schools, 238, 247-249; 2186-2187; of normal schools, 128-148, 2208-2209, 2220-2221; of nurse training schools, 241, 254-255, 2196; of parochial schools, 1664, 1665; of pharmacy schools, 252-253, 2191; of private schools, xlviii, 2110-2113; of reform schools, 2274, 2278-2279; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, li-vii; of schools of theology, 236, 242-244, 2178; of secondary schools, 37-45, 47-56, 58-67, 69, 71-105, 1994-1998, 2016, 2110-2113; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
- The school district in, 1466.
- Witelsk, Poland, archive, 764.

- Withdrawal from public schools, ages of, 1161-1170.
 Wolowski, Francis, on Polish code, 727 *note*.
 Woman, the college-bred, 895-903.
 Woman's Club, Chautauqua, constitution, 1052.
 Woman's honor examination, special, Oxford, 828-830.
 Woman's work at Chautauqua, 1050-1053.
 Women's Work and Worth, by W. H. Davenport Adams, quoted, 894, 895.
 Woman's Work in America, by Annie Nathan Meyer, quoted, 903-907.
 Women, admitted to Dutch universities, 485.
 As administrators of trusts, 604, 605; as inspectors, 591.
 At the University of Cambridge, 853-891; at the University of Oxford, 805-853.
 Educational status in different countries, 893-976.
 Education of, xxvi-xxvii; in Germany, 460-471.
 Facilities for the university education of, in England, 805-891.
 Higher education in France, 294.
 In law, 956-958; in medicine, 238-241, 949-956; in theology, 958, 959; in United States, education of, criticised by S. Waetzoldt, 467-468.
 Methods of study, Oxford, 830-837.
 On royal commission of secondary education, 583, 584.
 Position of, at Oxford, 837-840.
 Registered home students, Oxford, 849.
 School committees in Holland, 487.
 Should be appointed on local English boards, 588.
 Statistics of colleges for, 172-177, 2156-2165; of degrees conferred on, 166, 173, 182, 1210; in preparatory departments of colleges, 70, 71; in schools of dentistry, pharmacy, nurses, and veterinarians, 238-241.
 Superior institutions for education of, 553.
 Why the college for, J. F. Goucher on, 1751-1755.
See also Colleges for women.
 Women teachers, discussion, 635.
 In England, 594; in Holland, 494.
 Statistics, xlv-xlvi; in colleges and universities, 157, 189, 190.
 Training of, in Germany, 708.
 Women's Medical College of Pennsylvania, 1263-1264.
 Worms, statistics of public elementary schools, 413, 415.
 Woodburn, J. A., on education in Indiana, 1536-1537.
 Woodward, C. M., on age of withdrawal from public schools, 1161-1170.
 Worcester, Mass., population, 9.
 Worcester Free Institute, 1192.
 Writing, statistics, study of, in German public elementary schools, 417.
 Study of, in Swiss normal schools, 434.
 Wurtemberg, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Statistics of elementary education in, 411, 416, 2282-2283.
 Wyatt, Charles H., on organization and administration of secondary schools in England, 612-614.
 Wychgram, J., on education of women in Germany, 921-923.
 Wyoming, college presidents, 1141, 1152.
 Compulsory education requirements, 1121.
 Religious institution, 1655.
 School laws as to women, 964.
 State and city superintendents, 1127, 1135.
 Statistics of city school systems, 14, 15, 17, 1847, 1858, 1868, 1878, 1888; of colleges and universities, 155-157, 159, 161-163, 165-166, 168-169, 188-200, 203-206, 1220, 2131, 2147; of colleges and universities reporting teachers' training courses, 116; of common schools, xxxv-xlii; of denominational colleges and universities, 154; of normal schools, 128-148, 2220-2221; of parochial schools, 1614; of private schools, xlviii, 2112-2113; of school houses and property, xlvii; of school income and expenditure, lii-lvii; of schools, 37-45, 47-56, 59-67, 69, 71-105, 1998, 2112-2113; of teachers and salaries, xlv-xlvi.
 The school district in, 1466.
- Y.**
- Yale University, school of medicine, 1266.
 Young, Sir George, on organization and administration of secondary education in England, 606-609.
- Z.**
- Zalaszowski on disturbances in University of Cracow, 733.
 Zampini-Salazar, Signora, on education of women in Italy, 940.
 Zerst, statistics of public elementary schools, 413-416.
 Ziller's method of instruction, 339-393, 394.
 Zimmern, Miss Alice, on education of women, 912.
 Zurich, compulsory education requirements, 1122.
 Statistics of public elementary schools, 415, 416.
 Zwickau, statistics of public elementary schools, 416.









NATIONAL LIBRARY OF EDUCATION



3 6533 00245313